

**The Effect of the Norwegian Tuning into Kids in School
Intervention on Teacher Distress**

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Abstract

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Aim

Psychological distress is a prevalent problem among teachers, which has a negative effect on both teachers and their students. Poor emotion socialisation in teachers and parents is associated with more distress. Norwegian Tuning into Kids School intervention (TIKIS) is an intervention that improves teachers' emotion socialization. Therefore, aim of this thesis is to find out whether emotion socialisation is associated with TIKIS at baseline, whether participating in TIKIS improves mental health, and if this improvement is due to changes in emotion socialisation over time.

Procedure

The project was conceptualised by Evalill Bølstad, and the student joined the project in the final stages of data collection. The student collected observational data for the project at follow-up but used questionnaire data for her own thesis. Participants were teachers from an intervention school and a control school from Stovner in Oslo, and questionnaire data was collected before and after the intervention. Data was analysed in R using linear regression, multilevel linear regression, and a mediation analysis.

Findings

There were no statistically significant associations between emotion socialisation and distress at baseline. Participants in the TIKIS group seem to have experienced a greater increase in distress compared to the control group, and although non-significant and in the opposite direction, the effect size was comparable to effects found in a meta-analysis of similar interventions. The mediating effect of emotion socialisation was negligible and non-significant. Potential explanations and implications are discussed.

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Preface

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1 Teacher Distress and Emotion Socialization

Psychological distress is a pervasive problem among teachers across the world (Agyapong et al., 2022; Desouky & Allam, 2017; Hindman & Bustamante, 2019; Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021; Shin et al., 2013; Yin et al., 2018). Poor mental health in teachers is associated with negative outcomes among students, such as more behavioural problems, lower social skills, emotional competence, average grades, empathy and cooperation, as well as higher impulsivity and more behavioural problems (Arens & Morin, 2016; Hindman & Bustamante, 2019; Jeon et al., 2019; Roberts et al., 2016; Siekkinen et al., 2013). These findings suggests that teacher distress is a serious problem. Therefore, it is important to examine predictors of distress and how to prevent them.

One risk factor for distress may be that teaching is a very emotionally demanding job. Job-demand-resources theory, suggests that when job demands are higher than job resources, employees will experience burnout and disengagement, which in turn can lead to depression (Demerouti et al., 2001; Matthews, 2016). Studies have found that teachers that experience high job demands are more likely to suffer from burnout (Hakanen et al., 2006; Shin et al., 2013; Yin et al., 2018). Accordingly, teachers may experience distress because they lack the resources or competence to handle their own and their students' emotions. It would then follow that improving relevant competence may be one way that teachers can combat these emotional demands.

Emotional competence, or emotional intelligence may be one such relevant competence. Higher emotional competence in teachers is associated with higher scores of teacher satisfaction and organisational commitment, and lower scores of burnout, job demands, depression, anxiety, perceived stress and intention to withdraw from teaching (Anari, 2012; Ciarrochi et al., 2003; Denham et al., 2017; Hansen et al., 2009; Martínez-Monteagudo et al., 2019; Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017, 2022; Puertas-Molero et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2018). Moreover, interventions that aim to improve social and emotional competence of teachers have been found to improve teachers' well-being, reduce emotional distress in teachers and protect teachers against the negative effects of burnout (Oliveira et al., 2021; Sandilos et al., 2020; Schonert-Reichl et al., 2017; Vesely-Maillefer & Saklofske, 2018). These findings suggests that teachers with higher emotional competence are less distressed and that improving their emotional competence may reduce their distress as a result.

The Norwegian Tuning into Kids in School intervention (TIKIS) is an intervention that focuses on improving teachers' emotion socialization and emotional competence (Bølstad et al., 2023, 2022). Emotion socialization refers to processes where socialisers, such as teachers, caregivers, or parents, teach children emotional competence by expressing, reacting to, and discussing their own and the children's emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Gottman et al., 1996). By focusing on the process of emotion socialisation, teachers are taught how to utilise emotional competence, so that it becomes more actionable. Previous studies found that TIKIS and the kindergarten adaption TIK-FUS improved teachers' emotion socialization practices (Bølstad et al., 2023, 2022; Havighurst, Kehoe, et al., 2022). The current thesis aims to investigate whether TIKIS can also improve teachers' distress, and whether this improvement is due to an increase in their emotion socialization practices.

1.1 Distress

Distress is a response to external stressors that are difficult to cope with, leading to internal strain characterised by symptoms of stress, anxiety and depression (Derogatis et al., 1974; Matthews, 2016). Distress has many negative consequences for teachers. Teacher distress is associated with low job satisfaction, more burnout, higher attrition rates and willingness to quit (Buettner et al., 2016; Ferguson et al., 2012; Jones & Youngs, 2012; Lambert et al., 2018; Lavian, 2012; Mearns & Cain, 2003; Simbula, 2010; Teles et al., 2020; Weisberg & Sagie, 1999). Additionally, frequent teacher turnover negatively affects students' academic achievements (Ronfeldt et al., 2013). Therefore, teacher distress is both detrimental to the teachers and their students.

A systematic review of 70 international studies revealed that almost 30% of teachers reported symptoms of anxiety before the pandemic, which increased to almost 40% after the covid-19 pandemic (Agyapong et al., 2022). Meanwhile nearly 25% teachers reported symptoms of depression both before and after the pandemic. This indicates that while levels of depression symptoms have been a stable among teachers, their anxiety symptoms have become more pronounced in recent years. Meanwhile, other studies have found a significant increase in both depression and anxiety symptoms among teachers throughout the pandemic (Cortés-Álvarez et al., 2022; Jakubowski & Sitko-Dominik, 2021; Pressley, 2021).

In Norway, 12% of all teachers reported distress symptoms right before the pandemic, which is above the average for all Norwegian workers (The National Institute of Occupational Health in Norway, 2021). Moreover, more teachers report work-related distress, burnout,

emotional demands, more job demands than job control, and work-related long-term absence compared to other professions. This suggests that teaching is a very distress-inducing job and highlights the urgency to alleviate teacher distress. Emotion socialisation may be one way to improve teachers' mental health.

1.2 Emotion Socialization

Emotion socialization refers to processes where socialisers, such as teachers, caregivers or parents teach children about emotions by expressing, reacting to and discussing their own and the children's emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Gottman et al., 1996). Emotion socialization is often divided into two central caregiver practices: emotion coaching and emotion dismissing. Emotion coaching caregivers are aware of their own and others emotional intensity, and view both positive and negative emotions as opportunities for learning (Gottman et al., 1996; Gottman & DeClaire, 1997). They identify, accept, empathise with, label, and validate their children's positive and negative emotions. Meanwhile, emotion dismissing caregivers believe that negative emotions are harmful, so they try to help by minimizing, denying, distracting from, or ignoring negative feelings.

The emotion socialisation literature has traditionally focused on the importance of parents' emotion socialisation for children's emotional competence (for review, see Eisenberg, 2020). However, recent studies have started to investigate how emotion socialisation in school and kindergarten teachers improves emotional competence in children (e.g. Bjørk et al., 2020; Bølstad et al., 2022, 2023; Havighurst, Edvoll, et al., 2022). Moreover, to teach children emotional competence, teachers first need to be emotionally competent themselves.

Emotion socialization can be considered a manifestation of emotional competence, as emotional competence forms the basis of emotion socialisation practices. While emotion socialisation is the process that teachers teach children about emotions, emotional competencies are the skills necessary to engage in these processes. Emotional competence refers to a person's ability to recognise, understand, regulate, and express their own and others' emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Saarni, 1999). Emotion socialisation reflects a person's ability to effectively manage their own emotions and support the emotional development of children. For example, the ability to recognise and appropriately express emotions is necessary to become aware of emotions and reflect a child's emotions back to them. Additionally, teachers with higher emotional competence also engage in more emotion

coaching behaviour (Ersay, 2007, 2015; Swartz & McElwain, 2012). Therefore, the process of improving emotion socialisation involves improving emotional competence as well, and the two concepts become very closely intertwined within the TIKIS framework.

1.3 Distress and Emotion Socialization

Teachers and caregivers that are more emotion dismissing and display lower emotional competence are also more distressed than their less emotion dismissing counterparts. Distressed teachers are less able to consistently attend to children's emotions and provide emotional support, and are more likely to respond negatively to children's emotions (Buettner et al., 2016; Chang, 2009; Hamre & Pianta, 2004; Zinsser et al., 2013). Similarly, mothers with symptoms of depression or anxiety are more dismissive towards their children, and are less supportive compared to non-distressed mothers (Breux et al., 2016; Cabecinha-Alati et al., 2021; Choi & Kang, 2021; Martin et al., 2018; McKee et al., 2015; Monti et al., 2014; Silk et al., 2011).

One potential reason why teachers who display dismissive behaviour may experience distress is because they tend to dismiss their own emotions. Children with emotion dismissing parents and teachers have more symptoms of depression and anxiety compared to those with more emotion coaching socialisers. (Buckholdt et al., 2009; Engle & McElwain, 2011; Hunter et al., 2011; Hurrell et al., 2017; Katz et al., 2012; Katz & Hunter, 2007; Marzano et al., 2003; Schwartz et al., 2012; Stocker et al., 2007; Trentacosta & Fine, 2010). Moreover, mothers who display emotion dismissing behaviour are minimizing negative emotions in both their children and themselves (DeOliveira et al., 2005). These findings suggest that the same mechanisms that cause distress in children who are dismissed may exist within emotion dismissing teachers as well.

Many emotion socialization models propose that poor mental health influences emotion socialization behaviour in adults (Cabecinha-Alati et al., 2021; Eisenberg et al., 1998; Havighurst & Harley, 2007; A. S. Morris et al., 2007a). However, the direction of the relationship may go the other way instead. One model suggests that teachers' emotional competence influences their mental health and well-being through their emotions (J. Chen, 2021). Moreover, studies that improve mindfulness also find that emotional competence reduces distress. Mindfulness is the practice of becoming aware of one's thoughts and feelings in the present moment and accepting them without judgement, resembling how emotion socialisation involves awareness and acceptance of other's emotions. Mindfulness

interventions have been found to reduce distress through an increase in emotional competence (Cheng et al., 2020, 2022; Wang & Kong, 2014), and interventions that improve emotional competence in teachers, also improve distress in teachers (Oliveira et al., 2021; Sandilos et al., 2020; Schonert-Reichl et al., 2017). As an increase in emotional competence seems to reduce distress, it is possible that emotion socialization reduces distress instead of the other way around. Consequently, implementing an intervention that improves emotion socialization may be a good way to alleviate teacher distress.

One way that improved emotion coaching and emotional competence may reduce distress in teachers, is by influencing how the teachers think about and interpret emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Gottman & DeClaire, 1997). Acceptance of negative emotions is associated with lower levels of negative affect and anxiety (Ford et al., 2018; Kotsou et al., 2018; Mathews et al., 2016; Shallcross et al., 2010). So, by reframing negative emotions as opportunities for learning and closeness, teachers may feel more inclined to accept their own and their students' negative emotions, and not feel the need to dismiss or suppress them. Thus, teachers can stop the processes that exacerbate distress in themselves and in their students.

Another way that improved emotion socialisation may improve distress in teachers is by promoting expressive encouragement rather than expressive suppression. Expressive suppression is a maladaptive coping strategy associated with negative mental health outcomes such as burnout, anxiety, depression and lower wellbeing (Bertie et al., 2021; Chang, 2020; Haga et al., 2009; John & Gross, 2004; Mearns & Cain, 2003; Moore et al., 2008). Additionally, expressive suppression is associated with less supportive and more dismissing parenting (Bertie et al., 2021; Meyer et al., 2014), whereas expressive encouragement is a subscale of emotion coaching. Thus, emotion coaching teachers may be less distressed because they encourage rather than suppress their own and their students' expressions of emotions.

1.4 Tuning into Kids in School

TIKIS was adapted to teachers from Tuning into Kids (TIK), which is an evidence based parenting intervention that aims to improve children's emotional competence through caregivers' emotional competence and emotion socialization practices (Havighurst & Harley, 2007). TIK is based on the principle that parents' emotion socialization style has a big influence on children's emotional competence by modelling ways to express, regulate, talk about and react to emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Havighurst & Harley, 2007; A. S. Morris

et al., 2007b; C. A. S. Morris et al., 2013; Parke, 1994). Therefore, it is important that the caregivers themselves are emotionally competent, and that it comes across in their emotion socialization practices.

TIK and TIKIS have been found to increase emotion coaching behaviour and decrease emotion dismissing behaviour among parents of preschool children (Bølstad et al., 2021; Havighurst et al., 2009, 2013, 2015), and among school and kindergarten teachers (Bølstad et al., 2023, 2022; Havighurst, Edvoll, et al., 2022). Therefore, it is possible that TIKIS may reduce distress in teachers through improved emotion socialisation.

However, TIKIS may also reduce distress through other mechanisms than emotion socialisation. Although the focus of TIKIS is to increase emotion socialisation, it consists of multiple components that may independently decrease distress in teachers. Therefore, this thesis desires to separate the effect of the intervention from the effect of increased emotion socialisation. During the TIKIS group sessions, participants are encouraged to share examples of successful or failed attempts at emotion socialisation. Being met with compassionate and empathic listening can reduce suicidality, depression, anxiety and loneliness (Kahlon et al., 2021; Montross Thomas et al., 2014; Moyers & Miller, 2013). Thus, the participants may experience reduced distress due to the interpersonal interaction and empathic listening they encounter during the intervention's group sessions.

Another way that TIKIS may reduce teacher distress is by providing tools to regulate their negative emotions and preserve their wellbeing. Before teachers can become aware of their students' emotions, they need to attend to their own emotions. Therefore, the teachers are taught self-care techniques during the TIKIS group sessions, such as mindfulness, tense-and-release exercises, breathing exercises and guided relaxation (Havighurst & Harley, 2007). Mindfulness-based interventions that are designed to foster emotion regulation, can improve resilience against stress in teachers (Schussler et al., 2018), and relaxation and breathing exercises can reduce anxiety and depression (Hamdani et al., 2022; S.-D. Kim & Kim, 2005; Merakou et al., 2019).

So far, no studies have looked at the effect that TIKIS has on teacher distress. A few studies have looked at the effect that TIK has on parents' mental health, but their findings have been contradictory. One study found that Chinese parents who participated in TIK experienced a significant reduction in emotion dismissing behaviour and parenting stress (Chan et al., 2021). Another study found that TIK lead to a non-significant reduction in distress in incarcerated mothers (Shortt et al., 2014). A third study found no significant

difference in parent well-being between the intervention and control group (Havighurst et al., 2009). Moreover, none of these studies investigated whether emotion socialisation was a mediator for the relationship between TIK and mental health. Therefore, more research is required to determine if TIKIS can improve distress in teachers through emotion socialization.

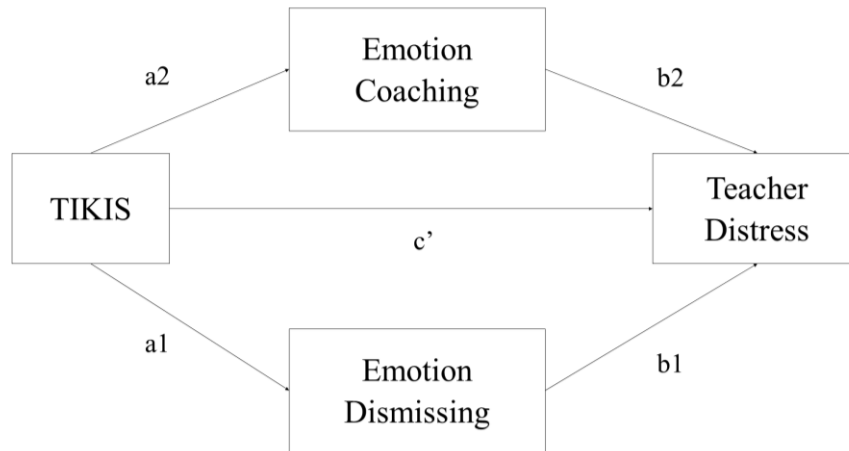
1.5 The Present Study

This thesis aims to evaluate the effect that TIKIS has on teachers' distress, and the mediating role of teacher emotion socialization on teacher distress (see figure 1). In a previous study using the same dataset as this thesis, we found that TIKIS significantly decreases emotion dismissing behaviour ($g= 0.81$), and non-significantly increases emotion coaching behaviour ($g= 0.17$) in teachers compared to the control group (Bølstad et al., 2023). Distress has been associated with emotion dismissing behaviour in parents and teachers, and TIKIS has been found to increase emotional competence and emotion socialization behaviour in teachers (Bølstad et al., 2023, 2022; Breaux et al., 2016; Buettner et al., 2016; Cabecinha-Alati et al., 2021; Chang, 2009; Choi & Kang, 2021; Hamre & Pianta, 2004; Havighurst & Harley, 2007; Martin et al., 2018; McKee et al., 2015; Monti et al., 2014; Silk et al., 2011; Zinsser et al., 2013). Therefore, we hypothesise that^a:

- 1) *Better teacher emotion socialisation is associated with lower teacher distress at baseline*
 - a. *Higher teacher distress is associated with higher emotion dismissing at baseline*
 - b. *Higher teacher distress is associated with lower teacher emotion coaching at baseline*
- 2) *TIKIS reduces distress in teachers*
 - a. *Teachers in the intervention school will have a bigger decrease in distress from baseline to follow-up compared to the control school.*
- 3) *The relationship between TIKIS and teachers' distress is mediated by emotion socialization.*
 - a. *The reduction in teachers' distress in the intervention school is mediated by a decrease in emotion dismissing behaviour.*
 - b. *The reduction in teachers' distress in the intervention school is mediated by an increase in teachers' emotion coaching*

^aAs the same dataset has been used to find the relationship between TIKIS and emotion dismissing (path a1) and emotion coaching (path a2) and been published in a previous study, these relationships have not been included as hypotheses in this thesis (see figure 1).

Figure 1
A path diagram of the proposed relationship between TIKIS and teacher distress



2 Method

2.1 Recruitment and Participants

This thesis is a part of the pilot study on TIKIS, which started in 2019 as a collaboration with the project Everyone has a mental health (Alle har en psykisk helse) under the Public Health Work Program (Folkehelseprogrammet) in the district Stovner in Oslo Municipality. All schools in Stovner, of which there were six, were invited to participate in the study and five of them accepted. One school declined to participate, and two schools pulled out before receiving an intervention. The schools that participated were placed into either the intervention group or the waitlist control group based on when the schools would have the time and capacity to participate. The dataset used in this study only consists of two schools because this was a pilot study, and emotion socialization was measured with a new questionnaire for the two schools that the other schools did not use. Compensation for participation was free TIKIS training for all the staff and teachers who wanted it, after the intervention was complete. The control school in this sample later declined to receive the intervention because their teachers lost interest.

From the two schools that were used in this dataset, one school received the intervention, while the control school received no intervention. A total of 109 school staff from both schools answered the questionnaire. However, the intervention was only given to teachers and staff that worked with children in grades 1-4. To ensure that only staff that had received the intervention was in the intervention group, and to keep the two groups comparable, responses from 19 non-eligible staff members from the control school and 35

from the intervention school were excluded from the analysis. The resulting sample consisted of 54 participants, with 29 in the control group, and 25 in the intervention group (see table 1). 36 participants answered at both timepoints, but 12 participants only answered at baseline, and 6 participants only answered at follow-up. At baseline there were 48 participants in total, with 24 participants from each group. Participants in the intervention and control group did not differ from each other significantly regarding age, gender, years of education, years of work experience, job position or ethnicity. However, the excluded participants were significantly different from the included participants regarding education and job position. There was a much larger proportion of participants in the excluded group that had more than 4 years of higher education (39 vs 20), and fewer participants in the excluded group that had less than 13 years of education (5 vs 10). Additionally, there was a much bigger variety of job positions in the excluded group, however the majority was subject and homeroom teachers, just as in the included group.

Table 1
Descriptive information about the sample.

	Total N (%)	Control N (%)	Intervention N (%)	χ^2 Intervention vs. control (p)	χ^2 Included vs. excluded (p)
T1 Only	12 (22)	7 (24)	5 (20)		
T2 Only	6 (22)	5 (17)	1 (4)		
Both	36 (22)	17 (59)	19 (76)		
Total	54 (100)	29 (54)	25 (46)		
Gender				2.40 (0.23)	1.87 (0.21)
Male	14 (26)	10 (34)	4 (16)		
Female	40 (74)	19 (66)	21 (84)		
Age (years)				0.04 (1.00)	5.04 (0.29)
20-29	23 (43)	12 (41)	11 (44)		
30-39	20 (37)	11 (38)	9 (36)		
40+	11 (20)	6 (21)	5 (20)		
Education (highest level)				0.98 (0.72)	12.73 (>0.00)
Up to 12 years in total	10 (19)	6 (21)	4 (16)		
Up to 4 years of university	24 (44)	14 (48)	10 (40)		
More than 4 years university	20 (37)	9 (31)	11 (44)		
Work experience (years)				0.16 (1.00)	1.27 (0.91)
0-5 years	32 (59)	17 (59)	15 (60)		
6-10 years	10 (19)	5 (17)	5 (20)		
11 + years	12 (22)	7 (24)	5 (20)		
Job Position				0.32 (0.91)	14.21 (0.02)
Subject teacher	8 (15)	5 (17)	3 (12)		
Homeroom teacher	35 (65)	18 (62)	17 (68)		
Other *	11 (20)	6 (21)	5 (20)		
Ethnicity				0.22 (0.71)	0.22 (0.81)
Norwegian	46 (85)	24 (83)	22 (88)		
Non-Norwegian	8 (15)	5 (17)	3 (12)		

Note. Background information is for each participant. N does not contain participants that were excluded from the main analysis.

*Other consists of Resource teachers, Special education teacher, school social workers and one ICT staff.

2.2 Ethical Considerations

This project was approved by the National Centre for Research Data (NSD: #580591) and the internal ethics committee at the department of psychology at the University of Oslo (#8382785), thus neither the study nor the intervention was considered harmful to its participants. Participants had to explicitly consent to be included in the intervention and could withdraw their consent at any time by contacting one of the researchers in the project. Additionally, participants could request to see, change, or delete any information about themselves by asking one of the researchers.

All data is safely stored in a secure project area provided by services for sensitive data (TSD). Data stored in a TSD project area can only be accessed by the researchers of the project with two-factor authentication, and only the data manager can export data from the project area.

2.3 The TIKIS Intervention

The TIKIS project was managed by associate professor Evalill Bølstad from the Department of Psychology, University of Oslo. TIKIS was translated and adapted from TIK by Bølstad and school psychologist Frederik Ferstad Skoe from Oslo municipality, with support from the TIK program developer, Sophie Havighurst, professor at University of Melbourne.

The intervention consisted of three components. It started with a three-hour introductory presentation about emotion socialization and mental health for all of school staff. Then the school leaders attended one two-hour session on how they could support their teachers in emotion coaching the students. Finally, the teachers in grades 1-4 received six 90-minute group sessions, which were offered at a two-week interval during the fall semester of 2021. Each group consisted of two group facilitators and six to eight teachers. The group facilitators were school health service personnel with a master's degrees in psychology, education or similar. The facilitators were trained in TIK by Havighurst, and in TIKIS by Bølstad and Skoe.

The teachers' group sessions are structured around the TIKIS manual, and integrates mini-lessons, psychoeducation, exercises, handouts, roleplays, discussions, and homework so that teachers can actively engage with session materials. The goal of the first group session is to introduce the facilitators and teachers to each other and to introduce emotion coaching and

emotion socialization. The second session is about understanding the background behind emotion coaching and tuning into the teachers' own emotions. The third session focuses on the teacher's ability to tune into the student's emotions and further developing the teacher's emotional competence. The fourth group session wants to strengthen the teacher's emotional awareness and understanding. It also aims to increase the teachers' empathy for students' distress by giving them insight into typical anxieties that children have. The fifth group session teaches how to distinguish between angry emotions and angry behaviour, and to work with the underlying emotions that cause anger, while still maintaining clear and safe boundaries. The last session is used to summarise the previous sessions, discuss topics the teachers found difficult, or topics that were not sufficiently covered in previous sessions.

2.4 Outcome Evaluation

The data used in the current thesis was collected through self-report questionnaires at baseline and 3-month follow-up, which was autumn 2021 and January 2022 respectively. At baseline two master students and a representative from Stovner school health service (Skolehelsetjenesten) went to the participating schools to answer the teachers' questions. Data collection was done during a planning day during both timepoints, so that all teachers would be available. The teachers answered an online questionnaire, but physical copies were also provided, and four participants answered the physical copy. Their answers were later filled into the online questionnaire by the present master student, and the physical copies were destroyed.

At follow-up, the students could not visit the school due to covid-19 restrictions, so instead they assisted the teachers through two separate Teams meetings for each school. Most of the teachers were participants in the teams meeting, and the link to the questionnaire was provided in the Teams chat. Some teachers were not at school during follow-up, and three of those teachers answered the questionnaire another day.

The questionnaire data included in this thesis are questions about demographic information, teachers' distress, and emotion socialization practices. The questionnaire was made using Nettskjema, which is a secure solution for collecting data, created by the university of Oslo. Nettskjema allows questionnaire answers to be directly stored in a secure TSD project area.

2.4.1 Teachers' Emotion Socialization Practices

The Coping with Children's Negative Emotions Scale (CCNES; Fabes et al., 1990, 2002) is a self-report questionnaire which assesses caregivers' responses to children's negative emotions. The CCNES questionnaire used in this study is the short form which uses 28 items instead of 72. It was adapted for teachers, translated to Norwegian by psychologists and back-translated for a Norwegian TIK study on kindergarten teachers (Havighurst, Kehoe, et al., 2022). The questionnaire presents seven scenarios of a child with negative emotions, and three ways that a teacher may respond to the scenario. For example, "If a child has lost his pencil case and is very upset, I would... b) ask the student if we should do something fun together". The participant is asked to indicate how likely they are to make each response from a scale of 1 (very unlikely) to 7 (very likely). See appendix for full list of questions in Norwegian.

The adapted short form of CCNES consists of five subscales which have been tested to align with Gottman and DeClaire's five steps of emotion coaching, (Gottman & DeClaire, 1997; Havighurst, Kehoe, et al., 2022; Mastromanno et al., 2021). The subscales of Emotion coaching are Empathy, Expressive Encouragement and Problem-Solving, and the subscales of Emotion dismissing are Minimising and Distracting. The distracting subscale was created for Norwegian kindergarten teachers, as Norwegian adults dismiss children's' negative emotions through distraction rather than punitive punishment (Bjørk et al., 2022).

Cronbach alpha is a measure of internal consistency of a scale, which indicates that the scale is consistently measuring the same construct (Taber, 2018). Feldt's Cronbach alpha and confidence intervals were calculated using the function alpha from the package psych (Revelle, 2022). In this thesis, Cronbach's alpha ranged between 0.72 to 0.78 for emotion coaching and emotion dismissing (see table 2), which is similar to other studies, and suggests acceptable internal reliability (Li et al., 2022). Levels above 0.70 are frequently, but not consistently considered acceptable levels of internal validity (Taber, 2018). For more details on internal reliability of the CNNES subscales for this sample, see Bølstad et al. (2023).

2.4.2 Teachers' Distress

Distress was measured using a short version of the Hopkins Symptoms Check List -25 (HSCL-25; Derogatis et al., 1974; Parloff et al., 1954), which consists of 10 items instead of 25. The HSCL-10 consists of two factors, depression, and anxiety, which are measured by 6 and 4 questions each respectively. Participants are presented with 10 ailments, such as

“Feeling fearful”, and they indicate how much they have experienced each ailment the past week on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 4 (extremely). The HSCL-25 was translated from English to Norwegian by Hesbacher et al. (1980) and was later shortened to 10 items by Strand et al. (2003). HSCL scores were averaged across items into a global distress score and treated as a continuous variable for the analysis.

The HSCL-25 has acceptable validity and reliability for adults across studies (Derogatis et al., 1974; Glass et al., 1978; Winokur et al., 1984), and the scale has not suffered considerably from loss of reliability, validity, internal consistency, specificity or sensitivity when reducing the total number of items (Finbråten et al., 2021; Kleppang et al., 2020; Müller et al., 2010; Sirpal et al., 2016; Skipstein, 2012; Strand et al., 2003).

In this thesis Cronbach alpha for anxiety, depression and distress ranged between 0.75 and 0.92 (see table 2), which is similar to what other studies have found (e.g. Finbråten et al., 2021; Kleppang et al., 2020), and suggests that HSCL-10 has acceptable internal reliability (Taber, 2018).

2.5 Data Analysis

The analysis plan for this thesis were determined before looking at data relating to HSCL and is outlined here

https://osf.io/d7eyh/?view_only=236f7558eebc4739bdba6ce985959185

2.5.1 Missing Data

Data is missing from 18 participants because they only answered the questionnaire at one time point. These participants were kept preserving sample size, and the missing data was handled with full maximum likelihood estimation (FMLE) instead of listwise deletion or multiple imputation. FMLE works by estimating probable values for missing data based on existing values (Schminkey et al., 2016). FMLE uses both existing and missing data cells to calculate parameter estimates and treats each missing value as a distribution of possible values instead of a single value. FMLE also has the benefit that it provides unbiased estimates, can be used for data that is not normally distributed, and does not substitute missing data with existing data.

Additionally, one participant did not answer 7 of 28 CCNES items because they answered on a physical copy of the questionnaire. This missing data was estimated with expectation maximization (EM) with the package `missMethods` so that emotion Coaching and

emotion dismissing scores could be calculated prior to the analysis (Rockel, 2022). EM is a form of maximum likelihood estimation as it uses and produces unbiased estimates of the missing data (Schminkey et al., 2016). A logarithmic likelihood function is produced to create parameter estimates for the missing data using the existing data, and this is done for multiple iterations until the parameter estimations no longer change with each iteration.

2.5.2 *Model Building*

All analyses were done using the software R (v4.1.2, R Core Team, 2021). As the thesis uses data from a pilot study, and the number of participants is so few, no additional control variables were used in these analyses. For all models, the control condition was coded to 0 and the intervention condition was coded to 1. Likewise, baseline in the time variable was coded to 0 and follow-up was coded to 1. Additionally, TIKIS as a variable was operationalised as an interaction between time and condition.

The first hypothesis about the relationship between teacher distress and emotion socialisation at baseline will be answered with two linear regression models using the function `lm` from the base R package. Both models will use distress as the dependent variable, and while the model for hypothesis 1a uses emotion dismissing as the independent variable, the model for hypothesis 1b uses emotion coaching as the independent variable. Additionally, a final model was made that uses both emotion coaching and emotion dismissing as independent variables.

$$H1a <- lm(Distress \sim Dismissing)$$
$$H1b <- lm(Distress \sim Coaching)$$
$$H1 <- lm(Distress \sim Dismissing + Coaching)$$

To answer the second hypothesis about whether TIKIS reduces distress in teachers, a linear mixed model regression analysis with FMLE was done with the package `lme4` (Bates et al., 2015). In the model, distress was the dependent variable, participant id was the random effect, time, condition, and an interaction of time by condition were the fixed effects.

$$H2 <- lmer(Distress \sim Time * Condition + (1 | Participant_ID), REML = FALSE)$$

The third hypothesis about whether the reduction in distress is mediated by emotion socialisation was investigated by first expanding on the regression model from hypothesis 2. For hypothesis 3a emotion dismissing was added as a fixed variable.

```
H3a_full_model <- lmer(Distress ~ Time*Condition + Dismissing + (1|Participant_ID),  
REML=FALSE)
```

For model 3b emotion coaching was added as fixed variables.

```
H3b_full_model <- lmer(Distress ~ Time*Condition + Coaching + (1|Participant_ID),  
REML=FALSE)
```

Again, a final model with both emotion coaching and emotion dismissing was also made.

```
H3_full_model <- lmer(Distress ~ Time*Condition + Coaching + Dismissing +  
(1|Participant_ID), REML=FALSE)
```

Secondly, these models were separately inputted into the mediate function from the mediation package (Tingley et al., 2014). The mediate function asks for a full model with all dependent, independent and mediator variables (model.y), and a mediator model that uses the mediator as the dependent variable. It also asks for the treatment variable (treat) and mediator variable (mediator) to be explicitly named. To determine direct, indirect, and total effect, the mediate function uses the bootstrapping method as suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2008). Simulation through bootstrapping is a non-parametric, more powerful and valid method of testing mediation effects compared to the Sobel test and Baron and Kenny's four step method (Hayes, 2009; Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). All models used 2000 simulations. For hypothesis 3a the mediator was emotion dismissing.

```
H3a_mediator <- lmer(Dismissing ~ Condition*Time + (1|Participant_ID), REML = FALSE)  
H3a <- mediate(model.m = H3a_mediator, model.y = H3a_full_model, treat = "Condition",  
mediator = "Dismissing", boot.ci.type= "perc", sims = 2000)
```

For hypothesis 3b it was emotion coaching.

```
H3b_mediator <- lmer(Coaching ~ Condition*Time + (1|Participant_ID), REML = FALSE)  
H3b <- mediate(model.m = H3b_mediator, model.y = H3b_full_model, treat = "Condition",  
mediator = "Coaching", boot.ci.type= "perc", sims = 2000)
```

Additionally, an analysis that used both emotion coaching and emotion dismissing was done.

```

H3_mediator <- lmer(Dismissing + Coaching ~ Condition*Time + (1/Participant_ID),
                    REML = FALSE)
H3 <- mediate(model.m = H3_mediator, model.y = H3_full_model, treat = "Condition",
             mediator = c("Dismissing", "Coaching"), boot.ci.type= "perc", sims = 2000)

```

2.5.3 Sensitivity Analyses

As teachers were excluded from the final sample, a couple of sensitivity analyses were performed, to see to what extent the exclusion influenced the findings. Because condition was not a variable at baseline, the analysis for hypotheses 1a and 1b were repeated with the previously excluded participants. The new sample consisted of 95 participants in total.

To control for the effect of school differences, the regression analyses for hypotheses 2, 3a and 3b were repeated, but this time within school differences were compared rather than between-school differences. Instead of using participants from the control school, the 35 participants at the intervention school who did not receive the intervention were compared to the participants who had received the intervention. This sample consisted of 60 participants in total.

Additionally, a sensitivity analysis was done in g*power (v3.1 Faul et al., 2009), to calculate how large the effect size has to be in order to determine significance. For the linear model in hypothesis 1a and 1b, a sensitivity analysis for linear bivariate regression for one slope was used, where the values inputted were 0.05 alpha, 0.95 power, total sample size of 48. This gives us enough power to detect an effect size of 0.47 or higher. For the linear regression models for hypothesis 2, 3a and 3b, a sensitivity analysis for an ANOVA: Repeated measures within-between interaction was used as a proxy. The values inputted were 0.05 alpha, 0.95 power, a total sample size of 54, 2 groups and made measurements at 2 timepoints. This gives us the power to detect effect sizes of 0.50 or higher.

2.5.4 Standardised Effects

There are many ways and types of standardised effect sizes. All model estimates were standardised by dividing variables by two standard deviations before fitting the model, as suggested by Gelman (2008). Additionally, the effect size of the intervention was standardised to Hedges' g, which is a form of Cohen's d. Hedges' g and Cohen's d denote the magnitude of difference between two group means (Hedges, 1981; Lakens, 2013). Hedges' g was used rather than Cohen's d because the sample size was very small, and Cohen's d can be biased for smaller sample sizes. Hedges' g can be calculated in many ways, and in this thesis,

the following formula was used where n_1 =control group sample size at baseline, n_2 =intervention group size at baseline, t = t-values from the regression models (Lakens, 2013):

$$g = t \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}} \times \left(1 - \frac{3}{4(n_1 + n_2) - 9}\right)$$

2.5.5 Underlying Assumptions

Linear and multilevel linear regression models are parametric models. This means that there are specific assumptions about the shape of the model and distribution of variables. Violations of these assumptions can affect accuracy of statistical tests, and lead to untrustworthy biased estimates, standard errors, p-values and confidence intervals (Ernst & Albers, 2017; Greenland et al., 2016). The assumptions for linear and multilevel linear regression are 1) that observations within groups are independent of each other, 2) that residuals are normally distributed, 3) that the variance of residuals are equal across groups (homogeneity of variance), and 4) that the dependent and independent variable have a linear relationship (Dedrick et al., 2009; Ernst & Albers, 2017). Additionally, it is important to account for outliers.

2.5.5.1 Outliers. Outliers are observations that deviate so strongly from other observations that they can produce false effects or hide real effects (Chambers et al., 2004). In this thesis, outliers were defined as observations whose Pearson standardised residuals are bigger than 2 and fall outside the first or third quantile. The models for hypothesis 1a and 1b had three positive outliers, the model for hypothesis 2 had 3 positive and two negative outliers, while the models for hypothesis 3 had 4 positive and 2 negative outliers.

To preserve participants, outliers were winsorized rather than removed (Wilcox, 2016). Winsorizing is a technique that reduces the impact of the most extreme values, by replacing them with the nearest values that have been designated as non-extreme. Distress was winsorized using the function Winsorize from the package DescTools. The function winsorized the top 5% and 95% of the observations using quantile algorithm 8 as recommended by Hyndman & Fan (1996). After the automatic winsorizing, the standardised residuals for the different models became smaller, but six outliers remained. The remaining outliers were winsorized manually by subtracting the difference between the residuals of the outlier and the closest non-outlier. Because there were multiple models who used distress as a dependent variable, the manual winsorizing used the standardised residuals from the model in hypothesis 3 that included both emotion coaching and dismissing.

2.5.5.2 Distribution of Residuals. After winsorizing, we investigated whether the standardised residuals were normally distributed using a qqplot, and a histogram of the standardised residuals. The residuals of the models for hypothesis 1a and 1b were heavily right skewed. Meanwhile the models for hypothesis 2, 3a and 3b had a slight positive kurtosis, but were otherwise normally distributed. This suggests that the results from hypothesis 1 should be interpreted with caution.

Homogeneity of variance and linearity was tested visually with a scatterplot of the fitted values against the standardised residuals, and by using Levene's test. The `leveneTest` function in the `car` package (Fox & Weisberg, 2019), revealed that there was no significant difference in variance between the intervention and control group. HSCL scores can range between 1 and 4, but scatterplots of the standardised residuals and fitted values for all the models revealed a higher concentration of distress values between 1 and 1.5, which indicates that the fitted values have a right skew. Still, values were spread evenly around 0 on the y-axis. This suggests that the variance is homogenous, and that there is a linear relationship between distress and its independent variables.

3 Results

3.1 Descriptive Analysis

Cronbach alpha and correlations between variables for both baseline and follow-up measures are reported in Table 2. Pearson's r correlations between variables were calculated using `tab_corr` from the package `sjPlot` (Lüdtke, 2022). The correlation table suggests that emotion dismissing, and emotion coaching are significantly and positively correlated with each other at baseline but are no longer correlated at follow-up. This suggests that participants who scored high on emotion coaching also score high on emotion dismissing at baseline. Distress is not significantly correlated with condition, emotion coaching or emotion dismissing at baseline or follow-up.

Table 2*Cronbach alphas and their confidence intervals, and correlation at baseline and follow-up.*

	Baseline α (n =24/24)	Follow-up α (n =20/22)	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Condition				-0.08	-0.40**	0.16	0.13	0.23
2. CCNES	0.92	0.90						
Coaching	(0.88,0.95)	(0.84, 0.94)	-0.16		0.14	0.15	0.17	0.03
3. CCNES	0.75	0.79						
Dismissing	(0.61, 0.85)	(0.66, 0.87)	-0.10	0.46**		0.02	-0.04	-0.06
4. HSCL	0.88	0.82						
Distress	(0.82, 0.93)	(0.72, 0.89)	0.04	0.02	0.14		0.92***	0.93***
5. HSCL	0.72	0.74						
Anxiety	(0.59, 0.83)	(0.61, 0.84)	-0.05	0.11	0.14	0.86***		0.88***
6. HSCL	0.76	0.78						
Depression	(0.64, 0.85)	(0.67, 0.87)	0.06	0.03	0.16	0.88***	0.90***	

Note. Pearson correlation for baseline in lower left corner, and Pearson correlation for follow-up in upper right corner. Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

The table of means (Table 3) show that all three groups experienced an increase in distress, depression, and anxiety from baseline to follow-up. However, the intervention group experienced a much bigger increase compared to the teachers in the other two groups. Global HSCL scores can be interpreted using cut-off points where scores below 1.55 are considered non-problematic, scores between 1.55 and 1.84 are interpreted as mild levels of distress, and scores above 1.85 indicate that distress substantially symptoms affect their lives (Strand et al., 2003; Winokur et al., 1984). Table 3 shows that the mean distress scores increased from non-

Table 3*Means and standard deviation for each condition across time*

Condition	Control		Intervention		Within-School Control	
	Baseline	Follow-up	Baseline	Follow-up	Baseline	Follow-up
N	24	22	24	20	33	22
Coaching	5.61 (0.58)	5.55 (0.56)	5.40 (0.55)	5.46 (0.57)	5.50 (0.61)	5.47 (0.48)
Dismissing	4.24 (0.90)	4.17 (0.8)	4.08 (0.80)	3.51 (0.75)	3.98 (0.77)	3.87 (0.72)
Distress	1.44 (0.52)	1.52 (0.56)	1.49 (0.31)	1.69 (0.45)	1.48 (0.40)	1.53 (0.44)
Anxiety	1.45 (0.49)	1.50 (0.54)	1.42 (0.39)	1.65 (0.46)	1.42 (0.44)	1.56 (0.51)
Depression	1.41 (0.51)	1.47 (0.52)	1.49 (0.44)	1.71 (0.50)	1.47 (0.43)	1.46 (0.42)

Note. Within-School control is not included in the original analysis, and is only relevant for the sensitivity analysis.

distressed (1.49) to mildly distressed (1.69) for the intervention school, but that the control group remained non-distressed (1.44 at baseline and 1.50 at follow-up).

3.2 Relationship between Distress and Emotion Socialisation at Baseline

There was a non-significant, positive relationship between distress and emotion dismissing ($\beta = 0.14$), and distress and emotion coaching behaviour ($\beta = 0.02$) at baseline (see table 4). Adding the variables together seemed to increase the effect of emotion dismissing ($\beta = -0.17$) and emotion coaching ($\beta = -0.06$), but only slightly. Additionally, emotion coaching and emotion dismissing barely explained any variance in distress ($R^2 = 0.00/0.02$), which suggests that the model fits the data very poorly, or emotion socialisation and teacher distress do not have a strong relationship.

Table 4
Distress at baseline for the regression models of each hypothesis

Predictors	H1a					H1b					H1				
	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p
Intercept	1.18	0.31	0.00	0.55, 1.81	<0.01	1.40	0.60	0.00	0.18, 2.61	0.02	1.36	0.60	0.00	0.14, 2.58	0.03
Dismissing	0.07	0.07	0.14	-0.08, 0.22	0.34						0.08	0.08	0.17	-0.08, 0.25	0.32
Coaching						0.01	0.11	0.02	-0.21, 0.23	0.90	-0.04	0.12	-0.06	-0.29, 0.21	0.74
Observations	48					48					48				
R ² / R ² adj.	0.02 / -0.00					0.00 / -0.02					0.02 / -0.02				

Note. B = Unstandardized estimate, and β is standardised estimate. Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level

3.3 Intervention Impact on Distress

For hypothesis 2, there was a non-significant positive interaction effect between time and condition for distress ($g = 0.41$) (see table 5). Although non-significant, a positive interaction suggests that there is a higher increase in distress over time for the intervention group compared to the control group. The conditional R^2 , which takes both random and fixed effects into account is very high ($R^2 = 0.85$), while the fixed effect in the model explains very little additional variance in distress (Marginal $R^2 = 0.03$). Because the random effect is participant id, this suggests that something within the participant explains more variance in distress than the intervention.

Table 5*Distress over time for the regression models of each hypothesis*

Predictors	H2					H3a					H3b					H3				
	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p
Intercept	1.48	0.09	0.04	1.30, 1.67	<0.01	1.28	0.25	0.04	0.79, 1.78	<0.01	0.93	0.38	0.03	0.17, 1.69	0.02	0.85	0.41	0.03	0.04, 1.66	0.04
Condition	0.05	0.13	0.11	-0.22, 0.32	0.71	0.06	0.13	0.13	-0.21, 0.33	0.66	0.08	0.14	0.13	-0.19, 0.34	0.58	0.08	0.14	0.14	-0.19, 0.35	0.56
Time	0.05	0.06	0.11	-0.08, 0.17	0.47	0.05	0.06	0.12	-0.08, 0.17	0.48	0.05	0.06	0.11	-0.07, 0.18	0.42	0.05	0.06	0.12	-0.07, 0.17	0.43
Condition \times Time	0.13	0.09	0.07	-0.05, 0.30	0.15	0.15	0.09	0.08	-0.03, 0.34	0.10	0.12	0.09	0.06	-0.06, 0.29	0.18	0.13	0.09	0.07	-0.05, 0.32	0.15
Dismissing						0.05	0.05	0.09	-0.06, 0.16	0.39						0.03	0.06	0.05	-0.08, 0.14	0.60
Coaching											0.10	0.07	0.12	-0.03, 0.23	0.14	0.09	0.07	0.11	-0.04, 0.22	0.19
Random Effects																				
σ^2	0.04					0.04					0.03					0.03				
τ_{00}	0.20					0.20					0.20					0.20				
ICC	0.84					0.84					0.85					0.85				
N	54					54					54					54				
Observations	90					90					90					90				
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.03 / 0.85					0.04 / 0.85					0.04 / 0.86					0.05 / 0.86				

Note. B is unstandardised beta, β is standardised beta, σ^2 = random effect variance, τ^2 = variance of the distribution of true effect sizes, Significant at the p<0.05 level

3.4 Emotion Socialisation as a Mediator

Both emotion dismissing ($\beta = 0.09$) and coaching ($\beta = 0.12$) had non-significant positive effects on distress (see table 5). Which suggests that as emotion dismissing and emotion coaching increases for each participant, their distress scores increase slightly. Additionally, when emotion dismissing was added to the model, the effect of the time by condition interaction increased slightly from $g = 0.41$ to $g = 0.47$, while it decreased slightly to $g = 0.38$ when emotion coaching was added to the model. This suggests that emotion dismissing may strengthen the relationship between TIKIS and distress, while emotion coaching may weaken the relationship between TIKIS and distress.

Table 6

Mediation analyses where distress is the dependent variable, emotion dismissing and emotion coaching are mediators, and time \times condition is the independent variable

Estimate	H3a			H3b			H3		
	B	95% CI	p	B	95% CI	p	B	95% CI	p
Direct	0.13	[-0.12, 0.38]	0.28	0.14	[-0.15, 0.38]	0.28	0.14	[-0.10, 0.40]	0.29
Indirect	-0.02	[-0.08, 0.03]	0.30	-0.02	[-0.07, 0.01]	0.30	-0.07	[-0.22, 0.02]	0.13
Total	0.11	[-0.15, 0.34]	0.37	0.12	[-0.17, 0.37]	0.36	0.06	[-0.21, 0.33]	0.64

Note: The mediator in the analysis for H3a is emotion dismissing, mediator in the analysis for H3b is emotion coaching, and H3 uses both emotion coaching and dismissing as mediators

The indirect effect is the effect that TIKIS has on distress through the mediators, the direct effect is the effect is the direct effect that TIKIS has on distress alone, while the total effect is the sum of the direct and indirect effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The mediation analysis revealed that TIKIS had a negative non-significant indirect effect on distress both through emotion dismissing ($B = -0.2$) and emotion coaching ($B = -0.02$), compared to a direct

effect of $B = 0.13$ and $B = 0.14$ respectively. Moreover, the confidence interval was very close around zero for both emotions dismissing (95% CI = -0.08, 0.03) and emotion coaching (95% CI = -0.07, 0.01). This suggests that very little, if any of the effect that TIKIS has on distress can be explained by emotion coaching and emotion dismissing as mediators. Despite its size, the fact that the indirect effect is negative suggests that emotion coaching and emotion dismissing counteracts the relationship between TIKIS and distress.

When both emotion coaching and emotion dismissing were added as mediators together, the indirect effect increased to $B = -0.07$, which is half of the direct effect. However, the confidence interval also increased (95% CI = -0.22, 0.02), which suggests that there is more uncertainty.

3.5 Sensitivity Analyses

The first sensitivity analyses repeated the analyses for hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1, but included the non-eligible participants that had been excluded from the main analysis. In the model for H1a the effect size of dismissing decreased from $\beta = 0.14$ to $\beta = 0.01$ (see table 7), and in the model for H1b the effect size for coaching became negative $\beta = -0.02$.

Additionally, R^2 was 0.00 for all models, which suggests that emotion dismissing, and emotion coaching did not explain any variance in distress.

Table 7
Sensitivity analysis of distress at baseline with bigger sample

Predictors	H1a					H1b					H1				
	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p
Intercept	1.43	0.21	-0.00	1.01, 1.85	<0.01	1.51	0.39	-0.00	0.73, 2.28	<0.01	1.51	0.39	-0.00	0.73, 2.29	<0.01
Dismissing	0.00	0.05	0.01	-0.09, 0.10	0.93						0.01	0.06	0.02	-0.11, 0.13	0.85
Coaching						-0.01	0.07	-0.02	-0.15, 0.13	0.88	-0.02	0.08	-0.03	-0.19, 0.15	0.82
Observations	95					95					95				
R^2 / R^2 adjusted	0.00 / -0.01					0.00 / -0.01					0.00 / -0.02				

Note. B = Unstandardized estimate, and β is standardised estimate. Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level

The second sensitivity analysis found that comparing the intervention group to school staff that had not received the intervention within the intervention school still gave non-significant findings (see table 8). gave similar findings as the original regression analyses for hypothesis 2, 3a and 3b (see table 8). For hypothesis 2, the effect size of the time by condition interaction decreased from $g = 0.41$ to 0.32. While marginal R^2 remained almost the same at 0.04, conditional R^2 decreased from 0.85 to 0.67. Which suggests that within-person variability explained less variance in this sample compared to sample in the original analysis.

The interaction effect increased from $g = 0.32$ to $g = 0.36$ when emotion dismissing was added to model H3a, and to $g = 0.34$ when emotion coaching was added in model H3b. The fact that using a control group from both the control school, and from the intervention group yielded such similar interaction effects suggests that the group difference was likely not due to inherent differences between schools. The effect of dismissing on distress remained similar and only increased from $\beta = 0.09$ to $\beta = 0.10$. However, the effect of coaching on distress became negative ($\beta = -0.06$).

Table 8
Sensitivity analysis of distress over time comparing intervention group and non-intervention group within the intervention school

Predictors	H2					H3a					H3b					H3				
	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p	B	SE	β	95% CI	p
Intercept	1.39	0.07	0.02	1.36, 1.63	<0.01	1.30	0.22	0.03	0.85, 1.74	<0.01	1.73	0.39	0.02	0.96, 2.50	<0.01	21551	0.40	0.03	0.79, 2.39	<0.01
Condition	0.03	0.11	0.11	-0.18, 0.24	0.78	0.02	0.10	0.11	-0.18, 0.23	0.82	0.02	0.11	0.11	-0.19, 0.23	0.82	0.02	0.11	0.11	-0.19, 0.22	0.88
Time	0.04	0.07	0.12	-0.10, 0.17	0.61	0.04	0.07	0.14	-0.10, 0.18	0.53	0.03	0.07	0.12	-0.10, 0.17	0.63	0.04	0.07	0.15	-0.10, 0.18	0.55
Condition × Time	0.14	0.10	0.09	-0.06, 0.35	0.16	0.16	0.10	0.10	-0.04, 0.37	0.12	0.15	0.10	0.09	-0.05, 0.35	0.14	0.17	0.10	0.11	-0.03, 0.38	0.09
Dismissing						0.05	0.05	0.10	-0.06, 0.16	0.36						0.06	0.05	0.12	-0.05, 0.17	0.27
Coaching											-0.04	0.07	-0.06	-0.18, 0.09	0.53	-0.06	0.07	-0.08	-0.20, 0.08	0.39
Random Effects (Participant ID)																				
σ^2	0.05				0.05					0.05					0.05					0.05
τ_{00}	0.10				0.10					0.10					0.10					0.10
ICC	0.66				0.66					0.66					0.66					0.66
N	60				60					60					60					60
Observations	99				99					99					99					99
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.04 / 0.67				0.05 / 0.67					0.04 / 0.67					0.05 / 0.68					0.05 / 0.68

Note. B is unstandardised estimate, and β is standardised estimate. Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level

4 Discussion

First, we hypothesised that emotion dismissing behaviour would be positively associated with distress while emotion coaching behaviour would be negatively associated with distress. Instead, we found that both emotion dismissing ($\beta = 0.14$) and emotion coaching ($\beta = 0.09$) were non-significantly and positively associated with distress. This suggests that when both emotion coaching and emotion dismissing increases, distress will also increase slightly. Although this is what we expected for emotion dismissing, it is the opposite of what we expected for emotion coaching. However, when analysing a bigger sample in the sensitivity analysis, the effect size for emotion coaching became negative ($\beta = -0.02$), the effect size for emotion dismissing became much ($\beta = 0.01$), and both effect sizes remained non-significant. Although the direction of the relationships now matches our expectations, the change in size and direction of the effects indicates that the relationship may not be very robust.

Secondly, we hypothesised that participating in TIKIS would reduce distress. Instead, we found that while both the intervention and control school experienced an increase in distress, the intervention group reported a higher increase in distress compared to the control school ($g = 0.41$). So, although not significant, participating in the TIKIS intervention seemingly increases distress.

Lastly, we hypothesised that improved emotion socialisation practices would mediate the effect that the TIKIS intervention has on teacher distress. As Bølstad et al. (2023) found that TIKIS non-significantly increased emotion coaching ($g = 0.16$), and significantly decreased emotion dismissing behaviour ($g = -0.81$) in teachers, we hypothesised that the reduction in distress would be mediated by the decrease in emotion coaching, and an increase in emotion dismissing. Although we found an increase in distress in the intervention group, we found that TIKIS had a negative interaction effect through emotion coaching ($B = -0.02$) and emotion dismissing ($B = -0.02$). Moreover, when adding emotion coaching reduced the effect that TIKIS had on distress from 0.41 to 0.38 and adding emotion dismissing to the model increased the effect that TIKIS had on distress to 0.47. So, despite the intervention group experiencing a higher increase in distress, this relationship was slightly counteracted by an improvement in emotion socialisation.

4.1 The Significance of Significance

So far, none of our findings have had a p-value smaller than 0.05, and therefore all our findings are considered non-significant, but what does that really mean? The goal of any analyses is to determine to what degree the alternative hypotheses is true, or if observed differences are due to random background noise. So far, null hypothesis significance testing has been used to reach such conclusions, but p-values cannot do this by itself (Greenland et al., 2016; Lee, 2016; Wasserstein & Lazar, 2016).

The p-value is the probability that an effect as big as the one observed could occur given that the null hypothesis is true, and all statistical assumptions used to compute the p-value are met (Greenland et al., 2016). In simpler terms, the p-values are a measure of how well the data fits model assumptions, including the null hypothesis. So, although a small p-value suggests that an assumption has been violated, it may not necessarily be the null-hypotheses. From the inspection of underlying assumptions, we found that model assumptions for multilevel models were satisfactorily fulfilled. However, if the analysis does not have enough power, it cannot determine how extreme or unusual smaller effect sizes are.

From the power analysis done in G*power, we only have the power of 0.95 to detect an effect size of 0.47 or larger for hypothesis 1, and an effect size of 0.50 for hypothesis 2. Therefore, some of these effects may have been statistically significant if the analysis had more power. Other ways of determining how reliably we have answered the hypothesis is by inspecting confidence intervals and practical significance (Gagnier & Morgenstern, 2017; Greenland et al., 2016; Wasserstein & Lazar, 2016).

A confidence interval is a range of values that contain the true population parameter. A 95% confidence interval suggests that if the population is similar to the sample at hand, and if you were to randomly draw many samples from a population and calculate a confidence interval for each sample, 95% of those confidence intervals would contain the true population estimate (Greenland et al., 2016). The size of the confidence intervals can be considered a measure of precision and uncertainty. For all estimates derived from these analyses, the confidence intervals for each point estimate were very wide (see table 4 and 5 for details). Where the unstandardised estimates for each model ranged between 0.00 and 0.15, the difference between the upper and lower confidence intervals for each estimate ranged between 0.30 and 0.44. Which means that the confidence intervals were much bigger than the estimates. As the sample size is small, and some of the models are complex, it is natural for the confidence intervals to be wide (Lee, 2016). However, the confidence intervals were 2 to 4 times as big as the point estimate. This suggests that there is a high level of uncertainty regarding the estimates that we observed

Practical significance indicates whether the effect sizes are big enough to be of practical importance. There are more than one way of deciding what constitutes a large enough effect, but it needs to be done in the context of the variables of interest. Lakens et al. (2018) suggest that one way of determining the smallest effect size of interest is by using the average effect size from meta-analyses on similar topics, as was done in a study by Perugini et al. (2014). A meta-analysis by Oliveira et al. (2021) found that participating in social emotional learning interventions, which are similar to emotion socialisation, reduced teacher distress with an effect size of $g = -0.34$. For hypothesis 2, we found that the effect sizes of TIKIS on distress ranged between 0.38 to 0.47. As these effect sizes are of comparable size to the ones found by Oliveira and colleagues, they can be considered practically significant.

For hypothesis 1a, 1b, 3a and 3b, there were no comparable meta-analyses, so single studies were used instead. A study by Hamre and Pianta (2004) found that the relationship between caregiver depression and supportive behaviour had a standardised effect of $\beta = -0.10$, and that the relationship between depression and dismissing behaviour ranged from 0.08 to

0.24. This suggests that for hypothesis 1a and 1b, the relationship between emotion coaching and distress ($\beta = 0.02$) was practically non-significant, while the relationship between emotion dismissing and distress was practically significant ($\beta = 0.14$), but still small. Wang & Kong (2014) found an indirect effect of mindfulness on distress through emotional competence of size -0.24 , while Cheng et al. (2020) found an indirect effect of mindfulness on stress through emotional competence of size -0.11 . This suggests that for hypothesis 3a and 3b, the indirect effect of emotion coaching and emotion coaching ($B = -0.02$) are not practically significant.

In summary, non-significant p-values are not enough to accept the null hypothesis. However, except for the direct effect of TIKIS on distress, and the relationship between dismissing and distress at baseline, the effect sizes were negligible. Additionally, except for the relationship between dismissing and distress, the direction of the relationships was the opposite of our hypotheses, and confidence intervals were wide and crossed zero. Moreover, the relationship between dismissing and distress became much smaller when more participants were included in the sample. Therefore, I am inclined to practically accept the null hypotheses for H1 and H3. Still, the effect size of TIKIS on distress was not negligible, despite being non-significant. Possible explanations are discussed.

4.2 Extraneous Variables

As both schools experienced an increase in distress and emotion socialisation slightly counteracted the effect, it is possible that there are external factors that were responsible for the increase, rather than the intervention. Teacher depression has been found to be a dynamic variable that naturally increases and decreases across semesters (Hindman & Bustamante, 2019), and the amount and direction of the change relies on individual and workplace factors. Therefore, the higher increase experienced by the teachers in the intervention group could be due to individual or workplace factors, and it may have been a coincidence that the intervention group had a higher increase than the control group. It is also possible that the pandemic played a role.

Data was collected at a time when covid was still prevalent, but schools had opened up. Consequently, there was a lot of sickness and uncertainty about whether schools would close again. Perceived uncertainty is associated with higher levels of distress (Ben Salah et al., 2022). Moreover, the amount of teachers that were on sick leave in Norway almost doubled from autumn 2021 when baseline data was collected to early spring 2022 when follow-up data was collected (Statistics Norway, 2022). Unexpected sick leaves can make the workday very

hectic for the remaining teachers and may temporarily increase student per teacher ratio if the school is unable to find substitute teachers. A higher student-teacher ratio is associated with longer working hours and more stress for teachers (Hojo, 2021; Huang et al., 2022). Additionally, depression and anxiety levels were high among teachers all over the world during the pandemic (Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021). Thus, the increase in teacher distress may have been a byproduct of the pandemic rather than a consequence of the intervention.

4.3 Increased Awareness

The increase in distress could also be because of the intervention, and not extraneous variables. If participating in TIKIS truly increases distress, one possible explanation could be that the intervention increases awareness of the participants own emotions, their mistakes, or their own upbringing.

Through the intervention, TIKIS participants become more aware that emotion dismissing behaviour is harmful. Therefore, they may use more effort to suppress this behaviour, and consequently become more distressed. Higher levels of teacher competence have been significantly associated with higher levels of teacher burn out (Jeon et al., 2018), which may be because higher levels of self-control is associated with higher levels of burnout (Pillay et al., 2005). Still, if this was true, one would expect lower emotion dismissing to be associated with higher distress, instead we found that higher scores of distresses strengthened the relationship between TIKIS and distress. Therefore, increased behaviour suppression is probably not the reason for higher distress.

It is also possible that increased awareness of one's own emotion dismissing behaviour can cause shame and guilt. Shame and guilt are significantly associated with depression and anxiety symptoms (Cândeia & Szentagotai-Tătar, 2018; S. Kim et al., 2011; Stompe et al., 2001), and habits are hard to break (Lally et al., 2010). So, although TIKIS decreases emotion dismissing behaviour, it may not be as much as the participants would like. A study on a parenting intervention for fathers in prison found that the intervention group had significantly lower scores of parenting skills and psychological health compared to before the intervention (Skar et al., 2014). When asked, the fathers reported that they had become more aware of their parenting role. They might also have felt distressed because they felt guilty about not being able to fulfil this parenting role as well as they had wanted to. Similarly, teachers in the TIKIS intervention group may experience distress because they've become more aware of their shortcomings. However, if this was the case, one would expect TIKIS participants to report

an increase in emotion dismissing behaviour and reduction in emotion coaching behaviour, as the TIKIS group experienced a higher increase in distress. Therefore, this may not be the right explanation either.

The TIKIS intervention may also make participants more aware that their childhood was less than ideal or evoke painful reminders. TIKIS challenges participants to recall their childhood to see how their thoughts and feelings about emotions emerged. For those who have had unhappy childhoods or dismissing parents, reminiscing about the past can be an unpleasant experience. Processing bad childhood memories can be challenging and may take years (Zeanah & Humphreys, 2018). If this is the reason for increased distressed among the teachers who participated in TIKIS, more efforts are required to ensure that teachers get adequate follow-up after the intervention.

4.4 Questionnaire and Operationalisation

The increase in teacher distress may also have been due to a poor choice of questionnaires and variables. It is possible that HSCL was an unsuitable questionnaire for teachers. Although HSLC is a popular questionnaire that has been tested for validity and reliability (Finbråten et al., 2021; Kleppang et al., 2020; Müller et al., 2010; Sirpal et al., 2016; Skipstein, 2012; Strand et al., 2003), it seems that HSCL has a floor effect in normal populations. The distress scores among the teachers were highly right skewed with almost 70% of participants having global distress scores below 1.55 at baseline. Likewise, other studies also find that HSCL results are skewed to the right in non-clinical populations (e.g. Finbråten et al., 2021; Kleppang et al., 2020; Schmalbach et al., 2021). This means that when most participants score low at baseline, the scores cannot get any lower, and it becomes hard to detect decreases. However, only a minority of the population suffer from clinical depression and anxiety (American Psychiatric Association, 2013; Daly, 2022), so you can argue that right skewness is a good reflection of the distribution in society. Moreover, the cut-off scores for HSCL reflect the right skewness, as even the highest cut-off for significant distress is below 2.

Another potential issue with the HSCL-10 is that the questionnaire asks the participants to rate how frequently they've been bothered by distress symptoms across the last week. A teaching job is very varied and distress levels can fluctuate naturally within teachers (Hindman & Bustamante, 2019). Moreover, distress can increase significantly across a week (Q. Chen et al., 2021; Kalmbach et al., 2016). Therefore, the higher distress scores may have

been because the teachers in the intervention group had a particularly bad week compared to the control group, which was unrelated to the intervention itself. Although distress was higher when participants answered, our findings may have been different at another timepoint. However, this still means that the intervention is not capable of increasing emotional competence enough to protecting participants against distress.

Additionally, distress may not have been the right operationalisation to properly investigate the relationship between teacher emotion socialisation and their mental health. Many of the studies that examined the link between emotion socialisation or emotional competence and mental health looked at stress (Siekkinen et al., 2013; Whitaker et al., 2015), burnout (Sandilos et al., 2020; Vesely-Maillefer & Saklofske, 2018), or well-being (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Vesely-Maillefer & Saklofske, 2018) rather than psychological distress. Although these are similar constructs, they are still qualitatively different. Psychological distress and stress are both reactions to external pressure characterised by excessive worry and persistent sadness, apathy and trouble sleeping (Derogatis et al., 1974; Matthews, 2016). On the other hand, burnout is a psychological and physical exhaustion from chronic stress (Maslach & Leiter, 2016), while well-being encompasses several dimensions that relate to positive mental health (Ryff & Singer, 2010). Therefore, emotion socialisation may have a different relationship to these constructs compared to distress. Likewise, mental health may have a stronger connection with a different operationalisation of emotional competence, such as emotion regulation (Bertie et al., 2021; Chang, 2020; Haga et al., 2009; John & Gross, 2004; Mearns & Cain, 2003; Meyer et al., 2014; Moore et al., 2008). If the problem is truly a poor choice of questionnaire or operationalisation of variables, using different questionnaires in future studies may reveal a different relationship.

4.5 Further Limitations

We have already discussed limitations of hypothesis testing, choice of questionnaire, and difficulty distinguishing between the effect of the intervention from the effect of the pandemic. Some other limitations regard this being a pilot study, data was transformed, and some assumptions were unverifiable.

The data used in this study comes from a pilot study, therefore the sample size is very small, and the power is low. Additionally, the question used to discern what grade teachers worked at asked “what grade work at the most” rather than “what grade do you work at”. This caused a lot of ambiguity, and it likely led to more participants being excluded than necessary

from the control school. A larger sample may have included more representation from the population and would also have the power to detect smaller effect sizes.

Because the data was right skewed, one could argue that the data should have been log transformed to better fit a normal distribution. However, transforming data makes findings harder to interpret because the construct being measured is changed, and the data does not become fully normalised (Field & Wilcox, 2017). Additionally, HSCL data tends to be skewed in the normal population (e.g. Finbråten et al., 2021; Kleppang et al., 2020; Schmalbach et al., 2021), so the transformed data may become less generalisable after a transformation. Therefore, it was concluded that the slight improvement that a log transformation may have on standard errors and estimates did not outweigh its disadvantages.

As there were many outliers, the dataset was winsorized to limit the impact the outliers may have had. However, winsorization does not come without its limitations (Tukey, 1960). Winsorization is a form of data transformation, and Tukey argues that it is important to keep data as close to the original as possible, as it is a better reflection of the sample. Outliers may contain valuable information that becomes lost when modifying the data through winsorisation. Although winsorizing is done to remove bias, it may introduce bias instead, as replacement of extreme values can distort the true distribution of estimates.

Another limitation is that the mediate function used in this thesis relies on the sequential ignorability assumptions for point identification, which are unverifiable assumptions (Tingley et al., 2014). Sequential ignorability assumes that there are no confounding relationships between the mediator, condition and dependent variable, and that the mediator is independent of the dependent variable, given the condition and covariates (Forastiere et al., 2018; Imai et al., 2010). Because these assumptions are unverifiable, the mediation package includes a sensitivity analysis to see how robust the model is against violations of the assumptions. However, the sensitivity analysis cannot be used on models with interaction terms (Tingley et al., 2014), so this sensitivity analysis could not be done for this thesis. As we cannot test whether these assumptions are violated, we cannot be certain if the direction of and size of the total, indirect and direct effects are valid.

Furthermore, it may also have been beneficial to conduct qualitative interviews with the participants or given them an open-ended follow-up question. This way they could describe how they experienced participating in the intervention with their own words. It may also have helped explain the underlying cause of the increase in distress, and whether it was due to the intervention, or something else.

5 Conclusion

To sum up, we first wanted to see if high emotion dismissing was associated with higher distress in teachers. Emotion dismissing was positively, associated with distress, which was what we expected, but the confidence intervals were very wide, and although the effect size was big enough to be considered practically significant, it was still very small and not statistically significant. Additionally, when adding more participants in the sensitivity analysis the effect size became so small it was no longer practically significant either. We also wanted to see if higher emotion coaching was associated with lower teacher distress. Instead, we found that a positive, statistically, and practically non-significant relationship between distress and emotion coaching with very wide confidence intervals. In the sensitivity analysis where we used a bigger sample, the relationship turned negative, but was still statistically and practically non-significant. Thus, it seems that there is no reliable relationship between teacher distress and emotion socialisation at baseline.

Further, we wanted to investigate whether participating in the TIKIS intervention could reduce distress in teachers. Instead, we found that the teachers in the intervention group had a higher increase in distress compared to the control group at follow-up. Although the effect was not statistically significant and had wide confidence intervals, it was big enough to be considered practically significant, and the sensitivity analysis using a control group from within the intervention school had very similar effect sizes. This suggests that the group differences were not due to differences in schools.

Lastly, we wanted to see whether an increase in distress would be mediated by improved emotion socialisation. We found that TIKIS had a negative, statistically non-significant indirect effect of negligible size on distress through emotion coaching and emotion dismissing.

As the follow-up data was collected during the pandemic, and at a time where many teachers were sick, it was hard to determine whether the observed effect was due to the intervention or extraneous factors. However, distress is still a big problem for teachers, and if participating in TIKIS truly exacerbates distress, this is very concerning. It is possible that the intervention increased distress by making participants recollect painful, unprocessed childhood memories. One potential solution to reduce distress could be to give teachers more resources and information of what to do if they struggle to process something they discovered about themselves during the intervention.

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SPØRRESKJEMA FOR SKOLEPERSONALE

Dato for utfylling:

Kjære lærer/skoleansatt!

Tusen takk for at du tar deg tid til å fylle ut dette spørreskjemaet! Mange av dere har allerede svart på et lignende skjema flere ganger. Grunnen til at vi ber deg svare nok en gang er fordi din skole mottar TIK veiledning høsten 2021, eller fordi den fungerer som kontrollskole som gir oss et sammenligningsgrunnlag. Dette skjemaet ligner i stor grad på de forrige, men med noen nye spørsmål. Du vil bli spurt om relasjon til elevene dine, egne følelser og livskvalitet, samt demografiske spørsmål.

Om deg som fyller ut skjemaet

Demografi:

Kjønn: Kvinne Mann Annet

Din alder:

Under 20

20-29

30-39

40-49

50-59

60+

Nasjonalitet:

Hvilket land er du født i?

Hvilket land er dine foreldre født i?

Mor:

Far:

Din stilling på arbeidsplassen:

- Faglærer
- Kontaktlærer
- Spesialpedagog
- Sosiolærer
- Assistent
- Sosialarbeider (barne- og ungdomsarbeider og lignende)
- Administrasjon (rektor, inspektør og lignende)
- Annet:

Hva er ditt utdanningsnivå (medregnet eventuell etterutdanning)?

- Grunnskolenivå
- Videregående skolenivå
- Fagskolenivå
- Universitets- og høgskolenivå, kort (til og med 4 år)
- Universitets- og høgskolenivå, lang (mer enn 4 år)
- Doktorgrad
- Annet:

Hvor lang er din arbeidserfaring etter endt utdanning?

- 0-5 år
- 6-10 år
- 11-20 år

20+ år

Hvilken skole jobber du på?

Rommen skole

Haugenstua skole

Høybråten skole

Vestli skole

Haugen skole

Har du deltatt på N-TIK veiledningsgrupper tidligere?

Ja

Nei

Veiledningsstil i skolen

Se på alle utsagnene nedenfor, og svar på en skala fra 1-7 hvor sannsynlig det er at du ville gjort som foreslått i de ulike svaralternativene (a, b, c)

1) Hvis en elev får jakken sin ødelagt i friminuttet, og blir sint og utagerende, så vil jeg først:

	1 (Veldig usannsynlig)	2 (Usann- synlig)	3 (Litt usann- synlig)	4 (Av og til)	5 (Litt sann- synlig)	6 (Sann- synlig)	7 (Veldig sann- synlig)
a) hjelpe eleven til å finne ut hvordan han/hun kan få reparert jakken	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) støtte eleven i at det er skikkelig kjipt å få jakken sin ødelagt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) be eleven roe seg ned og si at jakken kan repareres	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2) Hvis en elev skal holde en muntlig presentasjon foran klasse, og han/hun blir synlig nervøs av å bli observert av de andre, så vil jeg først:

	1 (Veldig usannsynlig)	2 (Usannsynlig)	3 (Litt usannsynlig)	4 (Av og til)	5 (Litt sannsynlig)	6 (Sannsynlig)	7 (Veldig sannsynlig)
a) si til eleven at det er bare tull å være nervøs for det	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) oppmuntre eleven til å snakke om nervøsiteten hans/hennes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) vise eleven at jeg skjønner at det er skummelt å prestere når andre ser på	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3) Hvis en elev er redd for å skifte til gymtøy med andre tilstede i garderoben, og blir veldig urolig og engstelig i forkant av gymtimene, så vil jeg først:

	1 (Veldig usannsynlig)	2 (Usannsynlig)	3 (Litt usannsynlig)	4 (Av og til)	5 (Litt sannsynlig)	6 (Sannsynlig)	7 (Veldig sannsynlig)
a) være enig med eleven i at det er en situasjon som ofte kan føles flau ut i starten	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) oppmuntre eleven til å sette ord på hva han/hun er redd for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) spørre eleven om hva han/hun liker best å gjøre i gymmen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4) Hvis en elev føler seg utenfor og bare vil være med meg i friminuttet, så vil jeg først:

	1 (Veldig usannsynlig)	2 (Usannsynlig)	3 (Litt usannsynlig)	4 (Av og til)	5 (Litt sannsynlig)	6 (Sannsynlig)	7 (Veldig sannsynlig)
a) fortelle eleven at det ikke er noe å være redd for, og be han/hun om å gå og leke med de andre	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) spørre eleven om vi skal finne på noe gøy sammen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) si til eleven at det ofte kan føles trist når man ikke har noen å leke med	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5) Hvis en elev kommer i konflikt med andre i en lekesituasjon og blir frustrert, så vil jeg først:

	1 (Veldig usannsynlig)	2 (Usannsynlig)	3 (Litt usannsynlig)	4 (Av og til)	5 (Litt sannsynlig)	6 (Sannsynlig)	7 (Veldig sannsynlig)
a) trekke eleven bort fra situasjonen og foreslå en annen aktivitet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

b) spørre eleven om hvordan han/hun kunne reagert i stedet neste gang	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) oppmuntre eleven til å snakke om hva som gjør han/hun frustrert eller sint	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6) Hvis en elev har mistet det nye, fine pennalet sitt, og blir veldig fortvilet, så vil jeg først:

	1 (Veldig usannsynlig)	2 (Usannsynlig)	3 (Litt usannsynlig)	4 (Av og til)	5 (Litt sannsynlig)	6 (Sannsynlig)	7 (Veldig sannsynlig)
a) hjelpe eleven til å tenke på steder hvor pennalet kan ligge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) støtte eleven i hvor trist og skuffende det kan være å miste noe vi liker	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) fortelle eleven at vi sikkert finner pennalet igjen, og at det ikke er noen krise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7) Hvis en elev stadig søker konflikt med andre elever i klasserommet uten en synlig grunn, så vil jeg først:

	1 (Veldig usannsynlig)	2 (Usannsynlig)	3 (Litt usannsynlig)	4 (Av og til)	5 (Litt sannsynlig)	6 (Sannsynlig)	7 (Veldig sannsynlig)
a) oppmuntre eleven til å fortelle hvordan han/hun har det i forkant av konflikten	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) konsekvent be han/hun om å si unnskyld til den/de det gjelder med en gang	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) prøve å trekke eleven bort fra situasjonen, og snakke med han/hun om noe hyggelig vi kan finne på i stedet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Din opplevelse av stress den siste uken

Nedenfor ser du en liste over problemer eller plager folk av og til har. Vurder hvor mye av de følgende problemene eller plagene du har hatt den siste uken (til og med i dag). Sett kun ett kryss/ring for hvert utsagn.

	1 (Ikke i det hele tatt)	2 (Litt)	3 (En god del)	4 (Svært mye)
Blir plutselig skremt uten grunn	1	2	3	4
Føler deg engstelig	1	2	3	4
Føler deg svimmel eller kraftløs	1	2	3	4
Føler deg anspent eller opphisset	1	2	3	4
Anklager deg selv for ting	1	2	3	4
Har vanskelig for å sove	1	2	3	4
Har lite håp for framtiden	1	2	3	4
Føler deg nedfor	1	2	3	4
Føler at alt er anstrengende	1	2	3	4
Føler at du ikke er noe verd	1	2	3	4

Tusen takk for at du har svart på spørreskjemaet fra forskningsprosjektet TIK-IS!



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