Students’ Perspectives on Learning Environments: 
Factors Affecting Their Satisfaction and Emotions in School

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Abstract

Children spend most of their waking time in school; therefore, experience in school is a major domain in the life of children. Aside from academic achievement as one of the indicator of school effectiveness, students’ affective status, such as their state of school satisfaction and emotions, need to be given more attention by parents and educators because its impact on their social-emotional development. There is a paradoxical finding from research that while there is no problem in achieving good academic outcomes, many students report dissatisfaction with their school or learning experiences. Hence, it is important to explore the experience of students of their school. In this study, the thinking and the feelings of Jakarta-Indonesia primary school students about school are explored through students’ written stories or drawings and through focus group interviews. As the subjects of education who have rights to be heard, students’ voices can be a communicative power to highlight the realities of their life in classrooms and schools. Students’ perspectives on their learning environments reflect how they construct meaning of their school experience. Emerging themes of this study are used to identify what factors of the learning environments impact on students’ school satisfaction and emotions in school. The result of this study shows that the psychosocial school environment is a pivotal aspect that influences students’ feelings and emotions in school. Different perspectives of students across the schools are valuable information in providing them with a better learning environment.

Keyword: emotions, learning environment, school satisfaction, students' voice
INTRODUCTION

In the educational systems in many countries, successful schools are measured by their students’ academic achievement. Governments often use improved student achievement as an indicator of the performance of their educational system. Schools too often use students’ academic achievement as an indicator of the quality of their school. However, Suldo, Riley, and Shaffer (2006) argues that intensive efforts to increase students’ academic achievement, while positive, also present a potential issue of students becoming dissatisfied with their school. This is despite other research finding that high academic achievers are also often those students with high satisfaction of their school (e.g. Huebner & Gilman, 2006; Samdal, Wold, & Bronis, 1999). The results of research comparing high academic achievement with school satisfaction indicate some contrast in positions. A study by Park (2005) found that Korean high school students with a high achievement in OECD PISA 2003 assessment also indicate a low psychological well-being, reflecting low school enjoyment and life satisfaction. Drawing from the findings of the WHO Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) studies on students’ well-being, Finnish students has also indicate a relatively low level of school satisfaction (Linnakyla & Malin, 2008). High academic achievement coupled with low school satisfaction is also seen in a Belgium study (Vyverman & Vettenburg, 2009). Of Belgium students with a high achievement level, only between 15% and 20% who really like going to school.

As students spend most of their waking time in school it is clearly preferable that they have positive school experiences. However, several studies revealed that students are more likely to be dissatisfied with their school experience compared with other aspects of their life, such as engaging with family, friend, self, and living environment (Huebner, Drane, & Valois, 2000; Huebner, Valois, Paxton, & Drane, 2005). In a study in the USA, high school students who reported dissatisfaction with school are nearly a quarter of the total number of students (Huebner et al., 2000). Instead of educators focusing on increasing students’ achievement, some increased attention to improving affective features of the learning environment —the quality of students’ life in school and classrooms—would result in improved psychological well-being as well as improved academic outcomes (Matsumura, Slater, & Crosson, 2008). Students’ affective status, such as their school satisfaction or their well-being tends to be undervalued or assumed separately from academic achievement (Suldo, Shaffer, & Riley, 2008). Noddings (2003) argues that students’ happiness should be a major aim of their schooling. In addition, Seligman, Ernst, Gillham, Reivich, & Linkins (2009) state that a positive education outcome is indicated by two components: high academic achievement and students’ enjoyment of learning at school. The importance of students’ satisfaction with school is associated with students’ academic achievement (Huebner & Gilman, 2006; Samdal, Wold, & Bronis, 1999) and personal adjustment (DeSantis King, Huebner, Suldo, & Valois, 2006; Elmore & Huebner, 2010; Huebner & Gilman, 2006). Therefore, improving students’ satisfaction of school will have a positive impact on academic achievements.

School satisfaction is defined as the cognitive-affective evaluation of overall satisfaction with one’s school experience (Huebner, Ash, & Laughlin, 2001). Similar to global life satisfaction, school satisfaction includes both cognitive judgement and the related affective component—positive and negative emotions (Diener et al., 1985
cited in Huebner, Gilman, Reschly, & Hall, 2009). More specifically, the term of school satisfaction refers to emotional responses such as happiness, enjoyment of school and sense of well-being at school (Samdal, Nutbeam, Wold, & Kannas, 1998).

Connell and Wellborn (1991) suggested that students’ evaluation of their school experiences reflects the degree to which their basic psychological needs are satisfied by school experiences. According to self-determination theory (SDT), these needs are the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The need for autonomy is the need to experience that their behaviour is endorsed by the self (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2004). The need for competence refers to when people feel effective in managing their ongoing interaction with social environments and they experience optimal challenge to exercise their capacities and skills (Jang, Reeve, Ryan, & Kim, 2009; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2004). The need for relatedness is the need of feeling cared by others and caring for others. When these needs occur, they have sense of belongingness and connectedness with other individuals and their community (Jang et al., 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2004). In addition, satisfaction these needs by the social context will promote intrinsic motivation, positive functions in learning, and psychological well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

However, school and learning environment are not the same for every student. There is a variation in school experience between individual, classes and schools, as well. Sometimes in the same school, many of the students find their school environment as a supportive place, but for those students who do not feel supported it may actually be psychologically problematic (Anderman, 2002). In other words, there is an individual difference between students in how they construct their own meaning of psychosocial learning environment. Thus, even though learning environment can be defined by observable characteristics, such as school building, instructional method, interactions among students or between students and teachers, it can be better understood through students’ individual subjective perceptions (Frenzel, Pekrun, & Goetz, 2007).

The current study was triggered by observations by us of Indonesian educational contexts. Adil, as an academic working in an Indonesian University in educational psychology at opportunity to observe over many years psychological well-being of students within Indonesian schools. Shaw, having undertaken work in the education sector in Indonesia in 2011 had interest in school pedagogy and leadership through working with principals’ professional development programs (Shaw, 2012).

Exley (2005) argues that Indonesian schools have particular characteristics, such as a focus on what might be called ‘traditional’ teaching and a regimented learning environment. Most of teachers in Indonesian schools applied teaching practices that can be labelled as teacher-centred instruction. Such an approach is often considered to be traditional because it is the usual practice, and the practice mostly deferred to. This instructional approach is not adapted to the needs of individual children in learning process (Kaluge, Setiasith, & Tjahjono, 2004), but rather is used for other reasons such as having to cover content loaded curriculum and deal with large numbers in classes efficiently. In implementing school programs to achieve educational objectives, schools focus more on achieving high academic outcomes. Typically, Indonesian teachers give smaller attention to helping students develop their aesthetic, social, affective and moral aspects (Kaluge et al., 2004).
Since 2008, the Indonesian Central Government implemented a standardised and centrally administered National Examination that was undertaken at the end of primary school (Year 6). In responding to this policy, school success was measured by students achieving higher academic results in their score in National Examination. According to Sahlberg (2007), when an educational system adopts standardisation of education as its policies and reform strategies, it reflects policy makers’ belief that performance standards for schools, teachers and students will necessarily improve the quality of outcomes. Therefore, the strategies focus the attention on student learning and school performance (Sahlberg, 2007). However, educational outcomes tend to be narrow, and focus on content acquisition and re-presentation, particularly of the main academic core curriculum areas. Students become the object of instruction from above where educational issue are directed by government to school districts, and then schools district give instruction to schools, principals, and teachers (Levin, 2000). Furthermore, parents also have expectation that their children can achieve a high score in the National Examination, in order to be able to enrol their children into prestigious or popular middle schools. As the primary stakeholders of education, students are generally left out in these decision making processes (Oldfather, 1995). This focus on the academic achievement has become dominant part of Indonesian culture and belief system, and attitudes are broadly entrenched.

Taking our concerns about Indonesia educational context within this paradigm and belief system of the academic achievement and the traditional approaches to instruction that are used, the goal of our study was to explore the experience of learning within this environment from the students’ perspective. We wanted to understand the students’ perceptions of the learning environment and identify what factors of the school and learning environments lead to students being satisfied with their school experiences and having positive emotions about school. Conversely, the research was also interested in what factors of the school and the learning environments lead to students having negative emotions and not being satisfied with school. The voice of students in expressing their feelings and thoughts about their experiences in all aspects of their school experience was an important consideration in designing this research. The research focused on student experiences from their points of views of learners. It was guided by the premise that students have unique perspectives on learning, teaching, and schooling (Cook-Sather, 2006).

**METHODOLOGY**

This paper focuses on the second phase of a mixed-method sequential design study. A qualitative approach was used to complement the findings from a quantitative study in the first phase in order to get a deeper understanding of how students experienced their school and how these experiences were related to differences of school satisfaction level and frequency of positive and negative emotions.

**Participants**

A nested sample is used as the sample selection procedure in this second phase, in which sample members of a group of students in the qualitative phase are selected from the students in the quantitative phase (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007b). Out of 345 students in the quantitative phase, 67 students were selected for the qualitative phase. The selection of these students used purposive sampling: intentionally
selecting participants who experienced the central phenomenon or the key concept being explored in the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). School satisfaction level is the central phenomenon investigated in this study. In each school, 10–15% of students with the highest level and the 10–15% students with the lowest level of school satisfaction were selected to participate in focus group interviews and story writing or drawing.

Students who were involved in this study comprised 10 groups of Year 6 students from five primary schools in East Jakarta-Indonesia. Participants consisted of 28 (41.79%) male students and 39 (58.21%) female students with the age range was 10–13-years (Mean = 11.08, SD = .35)

**Data Collection Methods**

Data collection in this phase involved several techniques: students’ story writing or drawing, and focus group interviews. Using different techniques for children is valuable since children may have different preferences and competencies (Punch, 2002). Some children may prefer to write, while others prefer to draw or talk. The students were asked to choose an activity: write a story and/or draw about school. As a guide, students were asked to express what they think and feel about school. The subject generally was, ‘Tell us about your school’. Particularly, the students were asked to identify the important aspects of their school and learning environment that generates positive and negative feelings in school, and to provide examples in their stories or drawings.

A piece of lined paper is provided for the students who preferred writing a story and a piece of A-3 blank paper folded in a half, a set of black pencils, coloured pencils, and crayons for students who preferred to draw. Drawing techniques were used in some studies with young children as a strategy to engage them in the topics about school (e.g. Einarsdottir, 2010; Einarsdottir, Dockett, & Perry, 2009; Symington & Spurling, 1990). For students who preferred to draw, they were asked to draw in two kinds of situations, “At school, I like”; and “At school, I do not like”. Using opposite situations is an opportunity to clarify the meaning of both pictures, both for them and for the researcher (Maxwell, 2006).

Out of 67 students in the Phase Two, 48 preferred to write story, while 19 preferred to draw. In order to understand the content of their drawing and the meaning they wish to convey, the children were also asked to talk about or write a short description about their drawing (Walker, 2007). The focus group interviews were conducted using a semi structured interview approach. Both closed and open-ended questions were used (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). This technique allowed the participants to move the discussion into related areas, but it was also possible to keep the interviews focused on the main topic because of the structured elements that needed to be covered.

**Data Analysis**

The students’ stories were retyped into digital text, the focus group interview results were transcribed into narratives and digital text. The technique of data analysis launched by Braun and Clarke’s (2006) used thematic analysis as the overarching process guiding investigation of the students’ narrative story and focus group
interviews. Thematic analysis is a method for analysing the data in order to identify patterns (themes) within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In the process of searching for the themes, this study used an inductive as well as a deductive approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Our current study also used qualitative contrasting analysis (Collins, Onwuegbuzie, & Sutton, 2006) to address responses of student participants with the highest and the lowest level of school satisfaction.

The approach taken of analysis of the drawings used content analytical procedures (Gamradt & Staples, 1994). This approach identifies the features of the drawing, or codes by content (Bland, 2009). In order to avoid interpretation bias of the content of the drawings, the students were asked to write down the title of their images (what they had drawn), and an analysis was subsequently developed based on the student’s description of their drawing. The content of the drawings were then categorised into pattern or themes.

THE RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Student perspectives of their emotional experiences in school

The students expressed both positive and negative emotions about their school experiences. In the stories, the students covered a range of aspects of their school experiences, as well as descriptions of the school, including school buildings, classrooms, teacher characteristics, school activities inside and outside class, subjects/lessons, instructional practices, and their relationships with friends and teachers. The kinds of positive emotions most frequently expressed were: ‘delight’, ‘joyful’, ‘happy’, and ‘concentrated’. The negative emotions most often expressed in the stories were ‘upset’, ‘hate’, ‘annoyed’, ‘bored’, and ‘sad’. One of the 19 students who selected drawing to express their feelings, demonstrated feeling lonely as a situation not liked in school.

In the students’ stories, students with the lowest level of satisfaction expressed more diversity in the responses and also more frequent negative emotions than those with the highest level of school satisfaction. The former group used 23 words describing negative emotions; in contrast to the latter group, which used 11 words describing negative emotions. In particular, the words ‘hate’ and ‘bored’ were more frequently expressed in relation to school lessons, while students with the highest level of school satisfaction only expressed these words twice. Those who felt that the lessons were boring did not like the school subjects:

I hate Indonesia language subject because it makes me extremely bored. (T Primary School, Group 2)

Calculating and again. Calculating makes me feel unenthusiastic towards math. It makes me weary. Why am I never being able to master this subject? I always have to join a remedial class. Sometimes the teacher is annoying; I have not yet got 100% in math. So, I hate math. (T Primary School, Group 2)

Students also felt frustrated or bored because of the lesson difficulties:
Math is really frustrating because it is hard to learn. (C Primary School, Group 2)

Even though I do not get math, but I have to be able to do it. Sometimes, I am bored. (C Primary School, Group 2)

The examples of students’ expressions above indicate that the task demands that they undertook at school influenced their attitudes towards the learning of content or activities, their perceived control of the learning situations, and their emotions about their learning experiences. Even though they might value the content they were required to learn, when they are unable to engage in the content because it is difficult, they experience frustration. Likewise, if task demands are too high or too low, so reducing the meaning and value of the task, boredom can result (Pekrun, Frenzel, Goetz, & Perry, 2007b, p. 21).

In the focus group interviews, most students in both groups were happy at school, even though some expressed negative perceptions. Common negative emotions expressed by both groups were ‘annoyed’, ‘unenthusiastic’, ‘feeling hurt’, ‘sad’, ‘worried’, and ‘depressed’. They also expressed physical problems such as ‘tired’ and ‘headache’. However, a contrasting expression also emerged. The group of students with the highest level of school satisfaction more frequently expressed negative emotions related to school experiences; ‘stress’ and ‘depressed’. Related to these emotions, students in the group with the highest level of school satisfaction were more concerned about their assignment workload, the tight timeframe available to complete assignments and the teachers’ expectations of them:

I am tired after school hours. Even on Sunday, I have to study, too. I have to prepare for test. (KP Primary School, Group 1)

Because of I am in higher ability class. I feel depressed. I have to get higher score to prevent loss of face. (M Primary School, Group 1)

… we are under pressure, we do not have enough time for playing. (M Primary School, Group 1)

The group of students with the lowest level of school satisfaction have similar concerns about the National Examination and their achievement. They expressed worry about getting a bad score and felt sad when they got bad scores in tests. Related to the assignment task, they felt tired and sometimes confused about the due date of assignments. In addition, they also become irritated when their parents did not show appreciation of their achievements.

Student feelings related to their teacher’s comments about their abilities provided an interesting topic of conversation in the group of students with the lowest satisfaction. The teachers often compared performance and achievement between students or classes. The students felt publicly humiliated; as a result, many students were ‘sad’, ‘feeling hurt’, ‘annoyed’, and ‘ashamed’. Instead of teachers making an effort to motivate and encourage the students, the students were disappointed because more often the teachers criticised them about their inadequacy. When teachers implement
competitive structures in the classroom, many of the weakest students perceive this as reducing their control over their success, which further stimulating negative emotions (Pekrun, Frenzel, Goetz, & Perry, 2007a). In classrooms with a competitive structure, success is measured by normative standards. Consequently, a limited number of students can outperform their peers. Moreover, Helme (1983, as cited in Frenzel et al., 2007) reports that pressure for achievement and perceived competition among classmates is related to anxiety. In contrast, depressive symptoms are less likely experienced by students when they feel less competition, less comparison of academic achievements across the class or less being pressured to pursue high grades (Ming-Te, 2009).

Learning environment factors impacting on student emotions

Generally students expressed that they were happy at school. However, many students felt dissatisfaction with their experiences in school. In this current study, factors in the learning environments that impact happiness are divided into school conditions and psychosocial environments.

School conditions all

The factors in the learning environments related to positive views in one school may be regarded by students in other schools as factors associated with negative perceptions about school. The differences in the school settings led to these different perceptions. The five primary schools involved in this study had various school conditions. School conditions are the physical conditions inside and surrounding a school (Konu & Rimpela, 2002).

For the students from schools with good facilities, students perceived the physical characteristics of the school as good and positive aspects of the school. School buildings, cleanliness, natural beauty such as gardens, and various facilities were common themes emerging from these students’ stories and focus group interviews. In contrast, students from schools with a lack of facilities expressed negative views related to the condition of buildings, school furniture, toilets, canteens, and playground. While students did not mention these characteristics as directly affecting their specific emotions, these characteristics influenced their perceptions about school positively and negatively respectively. Even though the students did not express their emotions in relation to school conditions, according to Pekrun et al. (2007b), there is a short circuit between perceptions and emotions, so perceptions themselves are sufficient to stimulate emotions. For example, when students experience many positive/negative experiences in a situation, they can experience anticipatory pleasant/unpleasant emotions before entering a situation without any need to evaluate those expectations or values according to the situation. Therefore, positive perceptions can be predicted to stimulate positive emotions, and negative perceptions will activate negative emotions.

Psychosocial school environment

Learning environments do not merely refer to physical space, such as school buildings, or materials used in instruction, but also include interactions between and among students and teachers (Frenzel et al., 2007). The latter aspects are conceptualised as
psychosocial school environment (Haapasalo, Välimala, & Kannas, 2010; Roeser & Midgley, 1996; Samdal et al., 1999). According to Gillander, Gådin and Hammarström (2005, as cited in Haapasalo et al., 2010, p. 135) the psychosocial school environment can be defined as the ‘school’s social situations that are related to students’ work (such as teacher support, task demands, and influence over school work), and also related to student-student relationships (such as bullying, isolation, etc.).’

Teacher-student relationship

During interviews the students responded with comments such as ‘teachers are nice’, ‘teachers are funny’, ‘teachers are caring’, when asked ‘what is good about their school’. Student satisfaction with their school experience is substantively related to perceptions of a caring classroom environment (Baker, 1998). The students mentioned their teacher’s support as positive aspects of school, particularly teachers’ instrumental support for students who have difficulties in learning. However, they also considered teachers as a source of unpleasant experiences in school. Many students voiced negative feelings related to interpersonal teacher behaviours. For instance, they noticed teachers who showed favouritism to higher achieving students and conversely, those teachers who underestimated lower achieving students by giving them lower expectations.

Interviewer: What do you mean by ‘the teacher is not fair’?
Student 1: Teacher maintained close relationships with the clever student, whereas not close to the others.
Student 2: Teacher gave good appraisal to the clever students, but teacher get mad on those who are not clever. (KP Primary School, Group 2)

This situation confirms Stipek’s (2006) finding, that teachers often favour high-achieving students and develop more personal supportive relationships with them than with low-achieving students. Skinner and Belmont (1993) also found a reciprocal effect of students’ behaviours in learning and teachers’ behaviours towards them, and vice versa. Students who perceive their teachers as providing support and emotional involvement are more likely to be more effortful, persistent, feel happy and show enthusiasm for learning. So too, teachers’ perceptions of students influence teachers’ interaction with students. Teachers respond to the students who are engaged in learning with more involvement and support. In contrast, teachers respond to students who lack engagement with less time given to them (neglect) and pressure on them to participate (coercion).

Students also mentioned teachers’ comments related to their ability to understand lessons as a cause of dislike. Sometimes the teachers were rude. Interestingly, almost all student participants in schools where this occurred (KP Primary School & T Primary School) perceived the same teacher as behaving rudely—a shared perception.

When there is a student who does not understand, teacher commented on him as ‘stupid’ (KP Primary School, Group1)

The teacher often mentioned students’ names that got bad score in test, and then the teacher gets mad at them. When students still did not
understand the lesson, the teacher got more angry … Teacher seems to like comparing students to each other and did not take into account those students. (KP Primary School, Group 2).

Students also expressed their relationship to the teachers in their drawings about school. Three pictures out of 19 described situations when a teacher was getting angry with the students. There were also two drawings showing the student being punished. Picture one illustrates a student being punished in a flag ceremony because he did not wear his complete school uniform. Picture two illustrates three students standing in front of the schoolyard because they were being punished for some misdemeanour.

**Academic demands**

Academic demands provide another source of negative feelings. Academic demands are a set of tasks or teachers’ expectations placed on or directed to the students (Samdal et al., 1999). Student emotions were stimulated when teachers allocated a short amount of time to complete a large amount of homework. Sometimes, the students had several tasks that had to be finished simultaneously, and students expressed frustration over this and perceived this situation as demanding. When academic demands are higher than students’ capability, they are likely to feel under strain (Takakura, Wake, & Kobayashi, 2005). Several previous studies reveal that students frequently feel alienation and failure when expectations exceed individual levels of capability (Samdal et al., 1999). Some students said that instead of having enthusiasm for finishing such tasks, they became lazy or just gave up. This behaviour is a goal frustration mechanism. When individuals perceive that there is environmental pressure and they also perceive an obstacle in meeting the goal, their response may turn the goal from desired to undesired (Boekaertz, 2007).

Students’ drawings also displayed issues about academic demands. The titles of their drawings included: ‘difficult homework’; ‘difficult lessons’; ‘teacher is getting angry with students’; ‘students cannot answer the teachers’ question’; and ‘students got bad score in the test’. These pictures describe the experiences students did not like in school. On the other hand, three students drew pictures about having a good test score and getting appreciation from classmates as their pleasant experiences.

To some extent, teachers’ expressed expectations can be a positive motivation to some students to do their best (Takakura et al., 2005). Obviously, students feel good about school when they are able to adjust to school expectations and demands (Van Petegem, Aelterman, Van Keer, & Rosseel, 2008). Moreover, positive appraisals of school are associated with classroom practices that afford students opportunities to feel competent (Baker, Dilly, Aupperlee, & Patil, 2003). However, other students might experience the inverse of such classroom practices, especially those students with lower ability. Students regard the teachers’ techniques to motivate them by comparing performance between classes as non-supportive treatment. As a consequence, students feel ‘sad’, ‘feeling hurt’, or ‘anger’, because their competences are degraded by the teachers. This finding supports other researchers, who state that many individuals perceive that social comparison performance likely reduces control over success, instigating negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, and hopelessness (Pekrun et al., 2007b).
**Student-student relationships**

Student-student interaction is indicated as a significant theme related to their positive perceptions and emotions at school. A relationship with friends was a common topic generating either positive or negative emotions in both students with the highest level of school satisfaction and those with the lowest.

Examples of phrases related to interactions with friends include: “I am happy because I will meet my friends at school”, or “At school, I am happy because I have a lot of friends”. Still, students’ interactions were also essential factors generating negative emotions. The students told that being teased by friends, as an example, can make them feel ‘sad’, ‘lonely’, ‘annoyed’, or ‘angry’. The students expressed the phenomena of bullying as a negative experience in school. This finding in our study confirms Weiner’s (2007), that the majority of emotions in the school setting are generated by social acceptances or rejections, social activities, and other social concerns. Most children reported that to be with their friends underpinned their intention to go to school.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION**

These findings confirm that schools or classrooms may not have an equal effect to all students. Within the same school setting, different students are exposed with different experiences. How they construct the meaning of school experience is related to what extents to their psychological needs are satisfied by school contexts. Psychological outcomes, such as school satisfaction or emotional experiences, are influenced by individual differences in perceiving the environments and by the average perceptions of the student body in a classroom (Baker, 1998; Frenzel et al., 2007).

Teacher is a significant factor in the learning environment, stimulating students’ positive and negative perceptions about school. ‘How students like teachers’ often answers the question ‘how students like school’ (Sabo, 1995 as cited in Konu & Rimpela, 2002, p. 84). Interpersonal qualities of their teacher become a focus when students evaluate whether or not their teacher is a good teacher (McGrath & Noble, 2014). However, teachers are frequently unaware that they systematically convey differential expectation to different students (Brophy & Good, 1970).

The findings of the current study offer tentative implications for educational stakeholders, especially for teachers and school principals. The first implication involves the importance to promote students’ satisfaction with school experience. Thus, teacher must likely pay equal attention to promoting academic achievement and student well-being, as well to best prepare students for success (Seligman et al., 2009). The second implication involves the importance of considering students’ perspectives and their cultural background. Students’ perspectives on what make school more enjoyable, promote their positive emotions, and reduce their negative emotions should be taken into account. Even though voices of students on their school experience are just expressed once or infrequent, it might be a critical incident that has strong impact on their well-being. That is, such program to promote students’ school satisfaction must likely be designed to specific students in specific contexts. Professionals should focus their efforts exclusively on creating positive school environment; particularly from the current study it is associated with the supportive
conditions for student perceptions of competence and relatedness. Many researchers and educators have suggested that teacher have to be responsible people who ensure they establish positive relationships with each student (McGrath & Noble, 2014).

**Limitation**

This study may not cover the question of what specific aspects of school experiences are more or less important in influencing students’ school well-being. Also, the findings could not evaluate the extent to which schools provide psychosocial environment that satisfy the three fundamental students’ psychological needs as usually can be measured by the quantitative approach. However, the findings demonstrate what specific aspect of school experiences that influence students’ positive and negative affect. Thus, students’ school experiences reflect in what aspects school provides experiences that support and undermine satisfaction of these three basic needs. Complementary findings from the quantitative and qualitative approach are suggested to determine more comprehensively how students feel and think about their school experiences.
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