



MENTOR - Mentoring between teachers in secondary and high schools

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Supplement to the Handbook

The method (model) of mentoring between teachers in secondary and high schools

Partners:

KCZIA, DDE FTHIOTIDAS, ISCTE-IUL, University of Sibiu, INVESLAN, Kütahya İl MilliEğitim Müdürlüğü

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Foreword

We are pleased to offer the Reader this book constituting the Supplement to the Handbook – *The method (model) of mentoring between teachers in secondary and high schools*. Both are the products of the “MENTOR - Mentoring between teachers in secondary and high schools” Project, implemented within the framework of Erasmus+ Strategic Partnership for School Education Program and co-financed by the European Union.

While eagerly and collaboratively working on the handbook with the aim of encouraging and supporting the implementation of mentoring between teachers, the project partnership realized that a lot of valuable material was produced and the handbook started to be less “handy”, as it became quite a big volume. However, we could not allow any of those materials to be wasted. That is why we split them into a more practical in terms of organizing mentoring activities Handbook, and a more theoretical and deeper into teaching and schools’ management practice Supplement.

All of the MENTOR project’s products could be found on the project website: <http://edu-mentoring.eu>. We very much hope that the project’s results will help many teachers and headmasters to implement successful mentoring relationships and to grow.

I. Ethics of Teaching

Ethics and Deontology in Teachers` Practice

Author: Gabriela Gruber – Universitatea Lucian Blaga din Sibiu

1. Generalities about ethics, morals and deontology. A short history

1.1 Ethics, Morality, Deontology: conceptual definitions

Ethics, morals and deontology are philosophical concepts differently defined along times. Choosing for definitions we found out that defining the term of “ethics” could be difficult, as we have to clarify a lot of interdependent other terms. According to Pritchard and Goldfarb (2007) “Ethics is concerned with what is right or wrong, good or bad, fair or unfair, responsible or irresponsible, obligatory or permissible, praiseworthy or blameworthy. It is associated with guilt, shame, indignation, resentment, empathy, compassion, and care. It is interested in character as well as conduct. It addresses matters of public policy as well as more personal matters”. The authors consider that “Demanding a definition at the outset can stifle discussion as easily as it can stimulate it”. Choosing the definitions in the dictionaries, we found important differences. Thus, “ethics” is defined as “a branch of philosophy that deals with morality”, while “morals” represent “beliefs about what is right behaviour and what is wrong behaviour”, or “the degree to which something is right and good” (An Encyclopedia Britannica). In other words, ethics includes all moral values and norms, it represents a science about moral behaviour (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English), while morals include norms and principles that guide human relationships; it represents the ideal human types or models of behaviour. Deontology may be defined as the science about duties. It subordinates different areas such as duties, obligations, rules, moral and professional norms. Mirriam Webster`s Dictionary defines the term as “the theory or study of moral obligation”, while online Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy states that “the word deontology derives from the Greek words “duty (deon) and science (study) of logos. It is also said that deontology “falls within the domains of moral theories that guide and assess the choices of what we ought to do (deontic theories) in contrast to (aretaic [virtue] theories) that guide and assess what kind of person (in terms of character traits) we are and should be” . In philosophy, the term “deontological ethics” focuses on the rightness or wrongness of actions themselves, as opposed to the rightness or wrongness of the consequences of those actions or to the character of the actor. Whether a situation is good or bad depends of whether the action that brought it about was right or wrong. Right means now conforming with a moral norm, or taking priority over Good (The Basics of Philosophy, 1987, p. 346).

1.2. A short history of ethics and deontological theories

1.2.1 Virtue Ethics

The Ancient ethical theories pay a special importance to virtues. As Aristotle thought, virtues are forms of skills or habits. The Greek terms for ethics (ethos, ethicos) mean housing, manners, skills or habits. And as Plato, Aristotle and the Stoics agreed, a rational life, based on achieving and practicing virtues represents the way of training the good character. The ancient philosophers thought different hierarchies of the main ethical concepts of wisdom, courage, temperance or justice. Aristotle considered justice as being the most important virtue because it generates the relationships between the individual and society, while wisdom, courage and temperance cause the individual's relation to himself. Aristotle also considered that The State was a natural institution, a consequence of life in common. He thought that the State had the role of forming citizens' preferences and characters. While political education had an essential role in individual's evolution and to achieve the ideal of a perfect life, moral education was the one which obliged the citizens to virtuous actions. The ancient philosophers thought that virtues weren't achieved by studying. They were cultivated by parents in families, by teachers in schools and by politicians into the society. Interacting with others, the individuals became correct or incorrect and their actions in conditions of danger gave birth to feelings of fear, trust, courage or cowardice (Cioara, 2013, p. 18).

1.2.2 Principle based Ethics

The modern ethics began with German philosophers Immanuel Kant and George Wilhelm Friederich Hegel. Hegel considered morals a basic factor for the State foundation, while Kant established the morals content as practical principle embodied in "categorical imperative". Kant's ethics is normative ethics, arising from the way in which he defines it as critical of practical reason.

"Act as if the maxim of your action were to become through your will a universal law of nature" and "Act so that you treat humanity, whether in your own person or that of another, always as an end and never as a mean only" are the two ways he formulated his categorical imperative (Cavalier 1989, Hooker, 2002).

As Key (1997) states, Kant's theory is an example of a **deontological** or **duty-based ethics** : it judges morality by examining the nature of actions and the will of agents rather than goals achieved. In other words, says Key, "if the maxim or rule governing our action is not capable of being universalized, then it is unacceptable". Similarly, "The second version of the categorical imperative given above emphasizes respect **for persons**. Persons, unlike things, ought never to be merely used. Their value is never merely instrumental; they are ends in themselves". Justice is the principal virtue of social institutions in deontological ethics which argues that what is

morally correct is a priority to what is good. Kant believes that moral law is the individual duty because it is endowed with “good will”, which is the engine of morals.

1.2.3 Responsibility Ethics

Major changes of the philosophical perception on duty have been produced in postmodernism. Human rights became basis of vision on human beings, the absolutism expressed by Kant's categorical imperative has been replaced with relativism based on individual autonomy and values of absolute moral duty were replaced by personal happiness. New philosophical currents developed. Ethics of responsibility is the new direction with ethics. For Jean Paul Sartre the individual is not responsible for his own individuality, but for the Others. The huge responsibility becomes anxiety for the “I” and not a concern for Others (Sapiro, 2009). With Emmanuel Levinas the ultimate responsibility of the “I” is the Face or the “Other”. As Peter Carriere (2007) appreciates, “Emmanuel Levinas is one of those thinkers whose ideas about ethics and morality have something to say about teaching”. Levinas wondered on “how humanity might exist ethically and morally in a world devoid of morality and ethics. Just how does humanity mete out justice with integrity and compassion in a world without belief, a world devoid of a logocentric core?” Based on Levinas's statements that “before the Other (*autrui*) the I is infinitely responsible. The Other is the poor and destitute one, and nothing which concerns this Stranger can leave the I indifferent”, Carriere considers that

“teaching automatically juxtaposes the I as instructor to the Other as student [...] Teaching is a dialogue between the instructor and the Other, the “Face” that comes to us, as Levinas puts it, in its “weakness, without protection and without defense [...] disarmed”.

Accordingly to Levinas (as Carriere says)

“we construct our world in our individual minds [...] But when the Face of the Other intrudes into this boundary construction, [...] the Other inevitably becomes part of our construction. And as “the Other can never become one with our “same”: it continually transcends our poor attempt to know it [...] The Other rises up above our boundaries, our constructed knowledge and thus transcends us, transcends our poor attempt to know and categorize it and becomes the one for whom I am responsible [...] the one to whom I have to respond” (Carriere, 2007).

Based on Levinas's philosophical considerations, Peter Carriere provides some ethical solutions to “uncreative pedagogies that act as gatekeepers against student desire and need”. Thus, the educator who assumes ultimate responsibility for the Other should “allow the Other to create a space in which to be, to grow, to become a reflective and productive I, If the student's attempt to become an I through the construction of a boundary reality by the creation of meaningful wholes out of hitherto chaotic and seemingly disconnected experience is to succeed, it must be an open-ended experience”. Levinas also appreciates that in a classroom, we have total control and our responsibility” is to the holy, transcendent Other”. If we ignore this responsibility “we acquire the potential to perpetrate a kind of violence against those who have innocently intruded upon our Same. Partial negation [...] is violence, denies the independence of being. This denial happens when we refuse to allow the other to be transcendent within our presence, within our

same. Faced with this negation, the Other shuts down, the Face becomes closed and the educational experience is compromised”.

We consider these statements as being very important from teachers` actual deontological perspective.

2.Moral Duty, Authority and Deontology; Deontological Principles

2.1 The Report Between Moral Duty, Authority and Deontology

Aiming to characterise the relationship between moral duty, authority and deontology we have to clarify the meaning of these concepts. Literature on ethics (Vocila, 2010) gives different definitions of the term „moral duty”. Thus, as Kant says, moral duty is represented by Moral Law which is the whole moral norms that one must follow, while J. Rawls beliefs that moral duty is an expression of the moral force of influence on individual`s behaviour. He considers that moral duty grants priority „to what is right in terms of morals, versus what is good for himself”. The same author highlights the main tenets of ethical conduct, stating that „justice is the first virtue of social institutions „ or that” what is morally correct is a priority to what is good”. Deontological theories proclaim the priority of the „I” over the aims which they are promoting. But this report assumes the individual`s dignity regardless the role that it fulfils. The most familiar forms of deontology hold that some choices cannot be justified by their effects—that no matter how morally good their consequences, some choices are morally forbidden. For deontologists, what makes a choice right is its conformity with a moral norm. Such norms are to be simply obeyed by each moral agent; such norm-keepings are not to be maximized by each agent. In this sense, the Right is said to have priority over the Good. If an act is not in accord with the Right, it may not be undertaken, no matter the Good that it might produce (including even a Good consisting of acts in accordance with the Right). The concept of „authority” may also be differently defined, depending on the authors` scientific field. The sociological literature defines the term as „ relationship in which a person or a group accept as legitimate that its decisions and actions be guided by a higher court”. „Institutionalising and rights of political leaders to control the actions of individuals in society in everything that affects the achievement of the common goals” and „the power to act in well defined boundaries” are definitions formulated from the politicians` or from the managerial perspectives (Lazar, 1999, p. 76). In turn, „power” is the right to impose personal decisions as granted by the hierarchical superior leaders of the organization. Therefore, power involves organizing, leadership, coordination, control, evaluation, targeting social hierarchy. Authority and power do not overlap in all situations because authority is the result of an investiture with responsibilities and trust, while power is only the right to dispose of the person or of the group. An important issue is the legitimacy of the authority. If the trust of those who recognise an authority is deceived, the legitimacy becomes null. If social authority is immorally oriented towards an individual`s interest, neglecting the investiture of trust, the authority loses its moral component, tilting towards authoritarianism, tyranny and dictatorship. Another important aspect of the report between authority and deontology occurs when the wearer of authority is not able to satisfy his

responsibilities. In this case, materialised by wearer`s incompetence, the jurisdiction becomes a moral act. When we are talking about different types of authority (political, economic, legal or professional), it is legitimate only insofar as its morality. Thus, moral authority aims exemplary moral behaviour, bringing in the professional field the principle which proclaims that promises must be honoured. Most often, the report authority-power-deontology is visible in the leader`s behaviour, but, as far as a good teacher must also be an effective leader, we can transfer the qualities of an ethic leader to the professional identity of a good teacher. Thus, the research literature introduces the concept of ethical leadership and exercising such leadership is realised, according to Langlois in three ethical dimensions which are care, justice and critique.

2.2. Deontological Principles versus Professional and Personal Ethical Codes

The practical finality of these theoretical considerations on deontology is the achievement of a working guide for both, the wearer of authority (in our case the teacher) and for his executive agents (students). Such a guide can take the form of a list of universal moral values which could act like deontological principles, or in a particularised form, like a deontological code. Analyzing the literature on deontology, Vocila (2010) synthesized the principles which should regulate behaviours for both the wearer of authority and for his subordinates. *The humanism* is the principle expressed in Kant`s imperative “Act so that you treat humanity whether in your own person or that of another, always as an end and never as a means only”. The principle finds its full force in teacher`s activity preventing the abuse of authority in teacher-student relationship. The principle of *altruism*, or the principle of the “other`s greatest happiness” is meant to restore equality between the wearer of authority (the teacher) and the executive agent (student). Consequently the wearer of authority should:

- recognise the other`s right to happiness discovering and knowing him
- contribute to the other`s happiness by engaging in his students` education
- make his own happiness in each other`s happiness by committing himself to a high moral attitude towards his subordinates.

The principle of *reciprocity* requires the wearer of authority to accept to judge himself as he would judge the others, to think about the consequences of his actions on others as if he would be in their place. This change of imaginative role is necessary if we want that the wearer of authority be moderate and judge correctly his subordinates` facts. The *sufficient authority* is another deontological principle that should prevent overregulation, allowing the executive agent to manifest his initiative. According to this principle the wearer of authority *may* apply some regulations but he *must* apply them only in certain circumstances. Meanwhile, the number or the quantity of regulations should be reasonable. The principle of *necessary authority* aims the fulfilment of professional and moral competences in the wearer of authority. Overcoming competences and disproportionate sanctions are violations of this principle.

As research states, a professional code is a systematised approach to mediating the conflicts that can occur when a person, acting in his professional capacity, wears several hats. Professional

codes are also defined as statements of shared values, out of which arises a prescription for right action (Kriesberg, 2000, pp.1,2). Speaking about the necessary content of such a code, Hayry and Hayry state that "A complete professional code enumerates both the obligations and the privileges of the vocation or association they are attached to. The positive rights and duties of the professional group [...] are directly or indirectly related to the satisfaction of the needs, which ought to be promoted by the members of the group[...] Professionals of all descriptions have a firm obligation to satisfy the needs, to promote the interests and to respect the values of their clientele, as the fulfilment of this duty constitutes the basis of their privileged position in society." (Hayry and Hayry, 1994, p.139). Thus, a professional code is a group agreement, a contract a guideline for how to use the specialized skills. It is discipline and context specific. A professional code differs from a personal ethical code, which is about the values we live by in general and refers to our behaviour in society. However, there are deontologists like Regan or Herkert (Kriesberg, 2000, p. 5) who believe that nothing can take the place of personal, moral deliberation when faced with ethical conflicts. They underline the need for professional codes to be context specific. They also point out that what is relevant to one profession may be irrelevant to another.

2.3 The Teacher`s Deontological Education (competences, content, methods and techniques, moral dilemmas)

Research on teacher education states that the teaching profession involves ethical and deontological demands into personal and professional development of its agents. As Sadio (2011) appreciates "education is much more than developing skills acquiring abilities or competences, socialising and – surely-much more than teaching. A strong professional conscience and its correlative deontology should be an essential teacher training dimension". The importance of ethical behaviour both with teachers and with students has been explained by Bucholz, Keller and Brady (2007, p. 60-64), who appreciated that "What is considered ethical often comes down to determining what is in the best interest of the student. «Behaving ethically is more than a matter of following the rules or not breaking the law-it means acting in a way that promotes the learning and growth of students and helps them realize their potential». When professionals or students engage in unethical behaviour it can damage a good student-teacher relationship. Unethical behaviour can ruin trust and respect between teachers and their colleagues. In extreme situations unethical behaviour can result in a teacher losing his or her teaching position and/or certification". That`s why a course on Ethics and Deontology was included in the curriculum of Pre-Service Teacher Training for Preschool and Primary School Education in Lucian Blaga University of Sibiu, Romania. It is an optional course for the students in the 3rd year of study. Some of the competences developed to students who are studying this course are:

- knowing the main children`s rights and the measures through which the Romanian State regulates their application,
- the correct interpretation of the documents that govern the professional responsibilities and occupational standards of educators and teachers for primary school,

- using the occupational standards as benchmarks of teaching for future teachers,
- promoting relations centred on values and on democratic principles in teaching,
- fostering pro-social behaviour and civic participation.

To develop such competences students discuss issues related with: Moral and Legal Norms, Ethics and Deontology, Deontological Principles, Preschool and Primary School in the Law of Education, Children`s Rights, Code of Ethics for Teachers. Students are faced with concepts and values of Citizenship, Democracy, Duties and Rights, seen from ethical perspective. Methodologically the course is focused on students` reflection on these concepts, discussion on philosophical texts, case- studies on moral dilemmas, arguing exercises and problem solving. Students are encouraged to express their own opinions, to analyze the cases they are studying in a critical manner, to work in groups and individual. Often the activities are based on critical thinking methods and techniques. Dr. Sholmo Sher from Levan Institute for Humanities and Ethics from University of Southern California (Sher, USC. Dornsife) distinguishes between the three components of the process that leads to effective moral action. Thus, *moral awareness* provides to identify the ethical issues which are involved, to establish the parties which have a stake in the action and decide what are the options. The second component of the process is represented by *moral judgment*. It is the process of weighing the ethical considerations that bear on the situation and determining the moral course of action. The third component of the process of determining effective moral action consists of *acting in accordance with moral judgment*. That means that one has to decide the right thing to do, but also he has to deal with practical obstacles to act effectively. Dr. Sher also gives us some guidelines about the techniques that we may use for addressing ethical issues in the classroom. Thus, if we use ethical issues in regular class discussion we may reserve some minutes to ask the opinion of another stakeholder and then, ask the students to assess the various views on the analysed situation. Short assignments made by the students who have to answer to several questions about the problem we have just analysed, implying the students in case studies presentation, structured or open debates could be other efficient techniques in deontological education. But, as Galiyabanu appreciates „deontological competence of a teacher is one of the basic competence of efficiency of the teaching and learning process” (Galiyabanu, 2013, 1166). The author also appreciates that deontological preparedness is fulfilment to career an integral part of teacher`s general preparedness, reflecting the level of professional consciousness and comprehension of professional work. Thus, teachers` initial training represents only the first stage in professional formation. Productive mastering of professional knowledge, skills and abilities, active career introduction and full individual fulfilment to career are other stages that help teachers to overcome difficulties and to obtain the ability to change their own values and become able to render value and spiritual assistance to another person. Marica (Marica, 2013, pp. 476-480) describes the teacher`s double status as a moral agent, but also as a moral trainer. As a moral agent the teacher has to be honest, fair, unbiased and with professional responsibility, while as a trainer, he has to inoculate in his students moral virtues, such as justice, fairness, responsibility, courage, kindness, self-discipline and compassion. Thus, the teacher`s behaviour becomes a moral model with explicit or implicit ethical implications for his students` conduct. Therefore, Marica considers that ethical management of the teaching profession asks unitary normative acts and a certain structure of the initial and continuous training of teachers. The instrument which is

recommended both by research and by education policy makers is the *ethical/ deontological code for teachers*. Researchers like Andrew Olson (Olson, 1998) states that codes of ethics are written by specific groups of people for specific groups of people, each group having its own purpose. Consequently, each group encounters a unique set of ethical challenges. The same author considers that codes of ethics reflect the moral permissible standards of conduct within an organization, in order to give guidance on how one is to act as a morally responsible agent of the group, when the situation requires a compromise between principles. Often, codes of ethics prioritize commonly conflicting principles, which underlie the standards of conduct within an organization. Codes of ethics aim to give guidance on how one could act as a morally responsible agent of the group when situations require an element of compromise between principles. As many groups find it difficult to agree on the essential virtues of the group to be included in the code, they have to reach to a compromise. Thus, the process of achieving consensus becomes a good group –defining task. While indentifying an individual as a member of the group, his sense of duty to other members of the group and to the group`s collective agreement is strengthening. Marica states that the deontological code of the teaching profession should include the professional principles, values, norms and standards. It should establish the pattern of desirable behaviour, both for teachers and for his students. A deontological code for teachers should unify the various regulations, which are dissipated in acts, laws, statutes or standards. Marica also appreciates that a code of disciplinary procedure, should be included in the deontological code of the teacher, in order to regulate the penalties for the violation of the deontological principles and norms.

The most demanding ethical issues that oblige us to overcome the moral common sense and seek more sophisticated frames are *ethical (moral) dilemmas*. A moral dilemma is a conflict of two valid debts, which can`t be complied together, in a particular case. It is a conflict available only in certain circumstances and not a logical contradiction between on obligation and its opposed duty. Karen Allen (Allen, 2012) sates that there are three conditions to identify an ethical dilemma. The first condition occurs when an individual, called “agent” must make a decision about which course of action is the best. The second condition is that there must be different courses of action to choose from. The third condition is that some ethical principle be compromised. Kathleen E. Murphy, (Murphy,1997) a researcher on social work, gives us some guidelines on how to resolve an ethical dilemma, by formulating several questions to be asked in such situations:

1. “Who are the key players? Who is involved? Who is affected?”
2. “What is the proposed action to be taken which needs to be evaluated as ethical or non-ethical? Are there legal issues / other standards to be considered?”
3. “What is the context of the proposed action?”
4. “What is the purpose of the proposed action?”
5. “What are the alternative actions which could be taken? What are the consequences at each alternative?”
6. “What are the work values which are in conflict ? Is there any way to “rank” /order values?”

7. “What other values pertain to the dilemma being considered ? (including the personal and the professional values of the client (teacher))?”
8. “Who has the responsibility to make the decision ? Who has the right to make the decision? Who should participate in the decision? Why?”
9. “What are the possible resolutions? (at least two)”
10. “ Specify the moral reasoning behind the resolution of choice regarding how and why any given action contends with the conflict of values.”

Literature on teaching practice describes several types of ethical dilemmas which teachers can face with during their career. Thus, Shapira- Lishchinski (2010) speaks about dilemmas which arise from *tension between caring for others* (pupils, teachers) *and maintaining formality* (school rules, educational standards). The caring climate promotes attention to individual and social needs, while formal climate emphasises adherence to organisational rules. A balance between being ”allies” with pupils and retaining the authority that allow pupils to respect the teacher is necessary in such situations. Another type of ethical dilemma arises from *tension between distributive justice and school standards*. Distributive justice refers to the fairness of outcomes, when teacher use certain principles to evaluate the justness or unjustness of the outcome. School standards are the criteria that school apply for deciding. In such cases teachers must decide which principle of fairness is relevant in such situation- the principle of equal allocation and treatment, or the one of differential allocation and treatment. The third type of ethical dilemmas, as it is described by Shapira- Lishchinski refers to *confidentiality versus school rules*. When teacher must choose between maintaining the trust of a confident pupil and abiding by school rules which oblige them to report the information to school administration or to parents. The fourth type of ethical dilemmas appears between *loyalty to colleagues and school norms*. When teacher witnesses a colleague mistreating a pupil and finds it difficult to confront the colleague. In turn, devoted teachers may be accused by their colleagues as being too soft. The fifth type of ethical dilemmas could arise when *educational agenda of the pupils` family is not consistent with the school educational standards*. In such situation teacher faces a dilemma when their perception of the child`s best interest differs from that of the parents.

3. Applied Ethics: Examples of Case Studies and Moral Dilemmas in Teacher`s Practice

The examples below are proposed by researchers who are interested in how to train students` ethical/ deontological competence. Thus, in their articles, Shapira-Lischinski (2009) and Shapira –Lischinski and Orland-Barak (2009, p.27-45) identify several categories of moral dilemmas which face teachers with during their teaching activity, which have already been presented above. The first category refers to behaving according to school rules, regulation and standards or caring for students or other colleague.

- a. A new Math teacher joined our staff. As our work overlapped, we became friends. She made a lot of mistakes in her Maths lesson. I explained to her again and again that she

needed to raise her professional standards and unfortunately, she could not meet my expectations and I had to fire her because I am responsible for what happens in the classroom and the students' wellbeing is my first priority. (Shapira-Lischinsky, Orland-Barak, 2009.)

b. "There is one event from 21 years ago that is stamped in my memory. I had a family affair and I asked the secretary to be excused from the last hour. The secretary told me that she could not find a substitute teacher and that I should tell the pupils to stay in the library. The next day, when I came to work, one of the teachers met me and asked me: "Have you heard what had happened? Yesterday, your pupils had a fight during the last period and one of them is hospitalized with an eye wound. "I was totally shocked and felt responsible for what had happened. Legally, I don't know if there are rules about leaving school before the end of the day. I had a feeling that there might be a problem. This event is strongly etched in my memory, and I decided then that in the future, if I'm not sure about the rules, I'll always ask for clarifications. (Shapira-Lischinski, 2010)

c. "In the other class, there was a boy named Shuki who broke all the rules. He had dozens of police records. Due to his behaviour, his home room teacher refused to have him in her class any longer. Shuki was about to be expelled from school. The principal asked me time and again to take Shuki into my class, pleading with me that I was Shuki's last chance. I finally agreed. Shuki transferred to my class and promised that he would behave properly. Unfortunately, the reality was quite different. A month passed and I went to see him at his workplace. I talked to him. I did not realize at the time how much this talk had meant to him. He ended up receiving the best recruit award at the end of his basic training in the army. I am always willing to give a second chance and I believe in every pupil". (Shapira-Lischinski, 2010)

According to school rules (formal climate), Shuki should have been expelled from school. However, Ruth gave him a second chance (caring climate) and thus probably saved him from becoming a criminal. Ruth responded to this ethical dilemma with a strong conviction that she would do whatever she could in order to help her pupil.

The second category of moral dilemmas, identified by research deals with the teachers' perceptions of tension between distributive justice and school standards which follow clear criteria regarding decision making at school. In the following example, the teacher was unhappy with the school criteria and vowed that in the future, he would "follow his conscience".

Iris deserved to be sent abroad as part of a school delegation. However, I was put under a lot of outside pressure to exclude her because the municipality was only willing to pay for residents, and Iris was a dorming pupil. Iris's family was too poor to pay for the trip. I believed in her, but instead of helping her I caved in. Iris lost her trust in me and in adults in general. I am very angry at myself. I folded. There were other ways to fund her trip. I should have listened to my own truth, my values. Sometimes, by avoiding conflicts we cause even bigger and more acute problems. (Shapira-Lischinski, 2010).

In this case Iris deserved to be part of the delegation because she was a very good pupil, but she didn't go because there weren't enough funds. This was an unjust outcome. The teacher was

disappointed with his behaviour and promised himself that in future he would fight for what he thought.

The third category deals with teacher`s double role of mediator of knowledge and educator.

Gil, a high school pedagogical coordinator finds himself torn between two ideological positions: his private ideology and that reflected by the curriculum. Ethical problems can arise from curriculum. Thus, in teaching history, Gil wonders :

Should I declare a particular declaration to be absolutely fair...when I do not believe it to be so? Am I such an authority that students will follow my example? In other words, when freedom of choice is at stake and you`re imposing your will on the students? It depends on the integrity of each teacher and limits need to be somewhere. (Shapira- Lischinski, Oland-Barak, 2009)

The question here is weather Gil should teach the subject in order to fulfil the requirements of the curriculum , or should he use the opportunity to discuss the political issues involved and express his own opinion? Gil is aware of his power in the teacher-student relationship and the risk of using it in a manipulative way.

The fourth category of case studies which we are exemplifying is characterised by a sense of failed responsibility towards a pupil and a problematic situation regarding teachers` professional autonomy. The cases describe conflicts between a teacher`s desire to make a professional decision and family norms with which teachers do not always agree.

a. I was the homeroom teacher for seventh grade. In that school, the parents were constantly interfering. For me, it was a real shock since it was my first year of teaching. One mother, who was a supervisor at the Ministry of Education, was displeased with the girl that I assigned to sit next to her daughter. She wanted me to have her daughter sit next to a more popular child in class so that her daughter would have an easier time socializing. I did not believe that this change was good for her daughter, but she insisted and accused me of not doing enough promote class social life in class. I felt that I did not stand a chance trying to convince her. I knew it was a mistake but I bent under pressure. In the end, her daughter suffered because she did not know how to cope being next to a popular child. I am willing to listen to a parent only up to a point but I am not willing to get all bent out of shape. (Shapira-Lischinsky, 2010).

b. This happened two years ago, with parents who were against the school lunch program. They refused to bring the groceries and left the children without food. I know this was not because of financial difficulties. I took this very hard. I know that I should not expect thanks and that what I`m doing is a mission, but this?.I contacted the municipality`s education office. They supported me. You should know that you can` t accomplish anything in the system if you do it on your own. There is a large staff that is there to support you and you must rely on that support. That is what I did and I won the battle with those parents. I would have done the same thing today. If I believe something is important, I will fight for it even if it means going against parents. I know what is important for my pupils. I am also open to suggestions, but the parents have to understand that we make the decisions in school. (Shapira-Lischinski, 2010).

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II. Organizational Culture

Author: Dan Maniu Duse, Phd - Universitatea Lucian Blaga din Sibiu

In order to outline the problematic of the organizational culture throughout a pertinent analysis, one should analyze the interpretations given by subject-related researchers, interpretations that have attempted to synthesize phenomena that come with the establishment and the becoming of an organization.

The conceptual frame of the organizational culture has its roots in social situations, anthropology, sociology, social psychology and the behavior of the organization. Experts in this field have described culture as being the basic element of society. Some experts find culture as being one of the critical aspects of the organizational adjustment. They describe culture by relating to a system that constantly transmits behavior-models in order to connect human communities to their ecologic surroundings.

The item „culture” proceeds from anthropology. It was mostly used in order to describe in a very large sense the spiritual and physical elements that were transmitted by human communities from generation to generation.

Edward Sapir identifies three main meanings of culture:

- the technical meaning, which aims for the unification of all human elements (the coextensive human culture, identical term with „civilization“)
- culture as a personality ideal, concerning education and training
- culture as spirit or nation genius

According to “American Heritage Dictionary”, culture represents “*totality of creeds, values, behaviors, institutions, and other results of human thinking and work, that are socially transmitted in the frame of some collectivity*”.

“Webster’s New Collegiate Dictionary” formulates the notion of organizational culture as being “*a integration modal of human behavior, that includes thinking, language, action and artifacts, modalities that depend on the human capacity concerning the learning and transmitting process of knowledge to further generations*”.

Ouchi¹ talks about organizational culture as being “a set of symbols, ceremonies, and myths that communicate the basic creeds and values of its organizational members”. Peters and

¹ Ouchi, W., G., Theory Z, Addison . Wesley, Reading, Mass., 1981.

Waterman² consider the organizational culture as “a coherent and dominant set of shared values, transmitted by means symbolic methods as well as stories myths, legends, slogans, anecdotes and short stories”.

We can therefore conclude by saying that organizational culture mainly speaks for values, symbols, rituals, ceremonies, myths, attitudes and behaviors typical for a given society. These elements are then transmitted from generation to generation. Organizational culture can be understood as a way of thinking, feeling and acting, having a enormous influence on results and evolution of a given organization.

1. Main components of the organizational culture

Symbols and Slogans

The symbol-concept characterizes the organizational phenomenon, as well as its manifestation on different levels. Sometimes one can use symbols in relationship to other cultures, in order to underline similarities and differences.

Symbols represent objects, events or ways in which one can submit ideas. They reflect the philosophy, the values, the believes and the expectations one employee might have. Through them, different concepts and behaviors are being transmitted and promoted in the framework of an organization.

While analyzing the symbol system of some organizations, some authors characterize them as being a „collective and symbolic representation of reality“.

Symbols have their own way of existing (semiology- the science on symbols), which reflects itself in the power that generates certain attitudes and behaviors.

Symbols can take several forms. They can be splinted up in action symbols, verbal symbols or material symbols.

- Action-symbols can be understood as behaviors, facts that transmit major meanings for the participants coming from a certain organization.
- Verbal symbols can be found under the form of slogans, logos, jokes, funny stories, special expressions, etc.
- Material symbols: a way of designing a building, the architecture, the offices, the utilized furniture, the clothing, etc.

Symbols can take the form of any object, event, behavior that succeeds in transmitting some messages, stimulation of emotions or motivating the participants of the organization.

² Peters, T., Waterman, R., In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America.s Best Run Companies, New York, Harper & Row, 1982.

Symbols can differ in complexity and coverage. As an example, the slogan of one organization or the parking places for the top managers should be considered as the easiest of all. Meetings and teaching councils highlight complex social relations, values and priorities, which mark a complex symbolism type, next to their role of changing information and adoption of decisions.

The mission of the organization, expressed depending on the school level, can be seen as a symbol with strong effect on its members.

A symbol can be build up out of anything perceived by our mind as a transmitter, and out of anything that is something else than words, graphics, drawings, attitudes, behaviors.

A sign can also be a symbol. The language is a symbol and a very important aspect of the organizational culture.

Each school has its own symbols, which are being utilized by managers in order to express certain values, the organizational culture or their vision concerning the future.

Managers frequently use symbols, which gives them great power. In this way, they do not only appeal to physical and intellectual resources of the organizations participants. They appeal to their emotions as well.

In order to describe the physical effects of the human activity in the organizations frame, existent under the form of buildings, equipment, products etc. we should use the word „artifact“. These are visible and material aspects of the organization, seen, heard and felt by the people.

Artifacts include buildings, the logo of the organization, office characteristics, furniture etc. They are symbols transmitted to the people about the things the managers consider to be important, and about the way one school is different than other similar schools.

Artifacts are important for the organizational culture, though they influence less the individual behavior then the mental elements of the organizational culture.

Human behavior can be conditioned by the physical, technical and artistic environment created in the organization. This environment talks for the values of the organizations members, possibly highlighting a certain hierarchization of these.

Artifacts are the easiest to perceive out of the organizations symbols.

The organization functions and evolves thanks to internal factors that contribute to its development and surviving. The way of combining these internal factors, the characteristics and the cumulated resources, contribute to the attempt of the organization to consolidate a certain behavior, a certain cultural dowry.

One should not forget that the organization deploys its activity in a larger cultural context. This context generates pressure on the organization, creating threat as well as opportunities.

The vales of the organization

Organizational culture is defined by beliefs, values and behavior related norms which represent the basic level on the participants' perception concerning the things that happen in the organization, aspects that are required and accepted, as well as potential threats.

Theoreticians talk about the organizations philosophy and the organizations ideology in order to describe the totality of the beliefs and values present in a given organization.

Ideology expresses itself through a set of beliefs on society, and on how the society actions and evolves. These beliefs, moral principles and values form the ground for the organizational culture. The ideology mobilizes the consciousness and action, through connecting social elements with ethical principles.

A strong ideology can be defining for the relationships build up between the members of the group, as well as for their relationship to the outside public.

Norms and values in organizations require a common perception on the things that are important, positive and desired in that given organization. In this way, ideals and behaviors of the organizational participants should embrace can be foreshadowed. Values are essential for the organizational culture. Theoreticians tried to define them thus: „A value is a conviction which considers that a specific way of leading or of getting to the desired result is preferred at a personal or social level, to another modus, opposite to lead or to exist“³.

Joseph Quigley⁴² defines values as following: „rules or guidelines through which a organization determines its members to manifest themselves accordingly to order, security and growth...“

Beliefs and values are considered to be components of the managerial and organizational vision. For those outside of the organization, these beliefs and values might sound ordinary, common, normal, or on the contrary, exaggerate. On the other hand, these beliefs and values might seem for those inside a certain organization, special, with a certain emotional loading.

In order to identify these beliefs and their power of action for the purpose of the future organizations strategy, Thomas Peters and Robert Waterman⁵ have enunciated 7 dominants involved in gaining success:

- *The belief that you are the best;*
- *Believing in the importance of the details - the secret of a well done thing;*
- *The belief in the importance of treating people like individuals;*
- *Believing in the superior quality of the services;*
- *The belief that most of the organizations members can innovate - the contrary as well: that the organization can cope with opposite situations as well;*

³ Cushner, K., Cherrie, C., Yong, M., Richard, W., Intercultural Interactions: A Practical Guide, Sage Publication, Beverly Hills, 1986

⁴ Quigley, J., Vision, How Leaders develop it, Share it and Sustain it, Mc. Graw-Hill, Washington, 1993.

⁵ Peters, T. Waterman, R. The search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies. Harper and Row, New York, 1982.

- *Believing that non-formal atmosphere contributes to communication;*
- *Believing in the importance of the growth and success.*

In order for these values to be known, respected and embraced by the employees of an organization, it is important to organize at a certain point a presentation, an explanation of the major values which are being desired in guiding the decisions and actions made by the organization, staff both internally as well as externally.

Without a coherent values system, embraced by other components of an organization, the manager is weak, unfocused on well-established targets and easy to influence.

Some of the domains in which we can identify these values are: performance, competence, competitiveness, innovation, quality, customer service, teamwork, care and consideration for people.

Out of a research made in Romanian schools on existent organizational cultures⁶⁵ following values were detected (in order of preference): order, study, people, surviving, network, power, personal success.

Behavior norms

They are asked for by the idea of organizing and functioning of social groups and communities. Norms are those which describe behaviors recognized and accepted by all members of the group, highlighting the expected behaviors by the groups participants from the inside and outside of the organization.

We also find in habits in the organization, some kind of conventions on which most of the members agree. We are talking about norms of formal behavior, settled by official guidelines conceived by the organizations management, and norms of informal behavior, settled unofficial by the members. They are not imposed; usually they are the result of passive acceptance. Norms are supported by explicit values.

According to Michael Armstrong⁷, norms relate to behavior aspects. Some examples:

- the way managers treat the members of their team (managerial style), as well as the way in which the team relates to its managers;
- withdraw work-ethic: „work hard, play hard“, „you arrive early, you leave late“, „if you can not finish your work until closing time it becomes clear that you are inefficient“, „try to look busy“, „try to look relaxed“;

⁶ Iosifescu, S. Culturi organizaționale în școala românească, I, II, ISE, 2001, 2002.

⁷ Armstrong, M. Managementul resurselor umane, Editura CODECS, București, 2003.

- personal status - how much importance do you get; the presence or the absence of obvious symbols on personal status;
- ambition;
- performance - exigent performance standards are general, the highest praise someone can get is connected to the fact that one is a real professional;
- power - recognized as a way of living, exercised through political ways, dependent on competence and ability, rather than on the owned position;
- peak concentration;
- politics - presented in the whole organization and treated like a normal form of behavior; unaccepted under the form of manifestly political behavior;
- expected - loyalty, it speaks out for the approach „swing to grave“ on the career problematic;
- anger - openly expressed; hidden, but expressed through other means, maybe political;
- approachability - managers are expected to be approachable and visible; or on the contrary, everything happens between closed doors;
- formalism - the norm represents a cold approach, formal; given name are/ are not being used at all levels; unwritten rules exist, but everyone knows them (concerning clothing).

Each organization has its own specific code, as a reflection of its members, of the activities and of the settled goals. The codes give new meanings, specific connotations to some words selected by the organizations participants. A particular form is the jargon, used by the organizations members in order to communicate in a more easy way. If a member of the organization doesn't know and can not use the jargon, it is obvious that he is not part of the group.

Rituals and ceremonies

These are collective behavior models, visible in formal, relatively stable situations with a wide symbolic content. Rituals and ceremonies represent some of the most visible forms on symbolic behavior in a organization. Thanks to this collective action mode, believes and values that are considered to be crucial for the survival and development of an organization, get highlighted.

By this I mean rites, rituals, ceremonies and the cult.

Rites are collective actions that mark the beginning or the ending of a given phase, or of a given organizational process. This given process can be the participation of the group consisting of managers at a workshop on leadership, or the elaboration/implementation of different strategies for the organization.

Rites can be classified as following: passage rites, crossing rites, degradation rites, consolidation rites, renewal rites, conflict-reduction rites, integration rites, etc.

Rituals are planned actions, usually with an emotional content, which highlight the ways of expression of the organizational culture. In this way, social models are being confirmed and reproduced.

We can talk about following ritual-types:

- personal, developed by the individual and connected to its role in the organization;
- concentrated on tasks/objectives, which focus on the activity performed by one or more people;
- social, initiated by informal groups;
- organizational, with a bigger formalization of these events.

By rituals we can understand having a festive meal, conducting evaluation and motivation processes, conducting meetings etc. Some examples of organizational rituals are the performance, evaluation, regular meetings, professional development programs, dinners, occasional shows and events, welcoming events for new employees. These aspects highlight the organizational values and revitalize the feelings that bind people together.

The role of ritual is to strengthen the organizational culture, to reduce stress and to transmit symbolic messages to the outside.

Rituals are specific for organizational cultures and are often perceived as unwritten rules of communication. They help strengthen individual and group identity, highlighting how strong organizational culture can be.

Some authors define rituals and rites as being a series of repetitive sequences that transmit a symbolic message through actors and through taken actions.

The ceremony involves a collective, formal and solemn manifestation which highlights the tradition and history of the organization. It is an event that focalizes the organizational culture and that remains for a long period of time in the collective memory.

Under ceremonies we understand jubilees, anniversaries, the opening a new school, the establishment of new specialization programs, or celebrations of the institution.

Through these ceremonies, greater unity is created between members of the organization, feelings of pride are conveyed, new members are initiated, relationships are being developed, the feeling of hope is created.

The cult is another form of group manifestation. It transforms the group into a closed social entity for those from the outside. It claims from the organization members to prove their commitment to the beliefs and promoted values, by sometimes calling for radical actions like the complete giving up on other values and rules, even if these are determined by another system.

In a organizational culture in which cult elements appear, the contact to other cultures is blocked, because of the fact that isolation of the group members is attempted, in order to hold control over the group. This fact contributes to the growth of a very large group cohesion, with powerful and stable connections between the group members, which, unfortunately, in the end, are not always benefice for the group.

If subcultures with religious aspects appear within an organization, we can expect negative consequences affecting the organization. Sooner or later the cult aspect challenges the authority of the organizations leaders, affecting the performance of the organization. There are of course exceptions. Sometimes, cult manifests itself on the plan of a quality-activity, with major performances in education and research.

Stories and myths

Culture shapes the behavior of individuals in the organization, by forming the collective mind , through which one can acknowledge the role and position of each participant. This happens through a synthesis of beliefs and values in organizational stories and myths, as well as transmission and their enrichment by future generations in the organization.

Stories initiate the new entry into what organization-life means, facilitating the meaning which he should give to different events.

The stories are based on real facts, but also contain elements of imaginary fiction as they are transmitted by word of mouth, oral creation bearing the mark. They talk about how obstacles are overcome in the organization, how much security the organization can provide, what is the value of equality in the organization etc.

In this way, the stories talk about morals and values of the organization in a significant and easily way, through a simple and clear message. Stories can be found in the form of legends, scenarios, myths etc.

Legends are stories that show the uniqueness of a group or leader in a simple, but symbolic manner, talking at the same time about the history of the organization.

Scenarios are stories about the future of the organization, like the leaders imagine it to be, in their attempt to anticipate their role and position in future events.

In order for stories to effectively play their role in the organizations culture, they should be known by most participants in the organization.

A good story must meet several qualities:

- to be known by a large number of employees;
- be attractive, to have a living language;
- to send a clear message;

- to be dynamic, to describe a certain action at a certain time and space, but to be easily kept in mind and enriched;
- to be unique.

The stories are used to show the "history" of an organization and how it has evolved in time. A culture, rich in stories and myths, is considered to be a strong culture with a obvious tradition in the context of the respective institutions. Stories sometimes resemble legends, as they treat special events in a given period, highlighting the actions of the "heroes" of the organization. These heroes symbolize the norms and values that are, or may not, be wished for by the organization.

Through their resumption and enrichment over time with jokes or jargon phrases, stories on success or failure of members of the organization, contribute to the establishment and consolidation of ideas and fundamental principles that provide the basis for the organization's activities.

The myth is one of the most sensitive and difficult concepts to link to the real events of one organization. It is common that the origin myth to be just a grain of truth, which is then processed and sent to the organization, a complex that seeks to reflect a collective belief system on the mechanisms of functioning of the surrounding world and the elements necessary to enjoy success.

Myths also may be understood as organizational metaphors, as a form of expression that conveys symbolic messages beyond the actual content of the words, phrases. A myth is in the end similar to a story or legend, both in content as well as purpose. Myths communicate basic beliefs, values that can not always be supported with facts. One way or another, they exist in all organizations. They play a crucial role in establishing and maintaining what is legitimate and acceptable in the organization. Myths offer explanations, they support reconciliation and settle certain organizational dilemmas. It may however be that they get perceived as being negative. Myths may resemble to something unreal and establish rules that can not be touched: "It is a myth."

Etymologically, the term comes from the Latin myth „mutus” - meaning mute and silent, given the significance of things that by their nature can not be expressed anything but symbolic .

They seek to explain the origin of an institution, of a happening, introducing patterns of thought and action.

Myths can be resistant to change. They can even prevent the adaptation of the organization; However, they can transmit significant truths. Accepted myths contribute to the development of internal cohesion and directing employees.

Myths are unique to the organization. They refer to past events and to people considered "historic". They do not need evidence to be demonstrated. They appear to protect employees from certain inaccuracies and to strengthen up certain positions of power.

People use myths to express and explain ideas and to maintain group cohesion, to legitimize its attitude and to communicate certain desires, expectations. They can also be used to lessen the contradictions up and in order to build a bridge between the past and present of the organization.

Myths can serve two important goals to achieve :

- to generate interest for new ideas , information , opportunities ;
- to help understand reality better.

Many people continue to believe in myths even if they have facts proves otherwise. Myths settle matters that are ambiguous, confusing or unacceptable in the organization.

Heroes - are characters that personify the organization's values and strengthen its power. Leaders utilize heroes, stories about them to motivate their supporters. Heroes can be founders of the organization , senior managers or ordinary employees. Trough their behavior, heroes reflect a number of core values of the organization.

2. Implications of organizational culture

Culture often conditions action having, through its function, long and short term effects: on **short-term**, organizational culture is a code that allows members of the organization to understand the world around them and act correctly. On **long-term**, culture facilitates adaptation and dynamic integration , which regulates the relations of the organization with its environment and internal relations among members, ensuring internal and external coherence.

Culture gives the individual a kind of "mental equipment" which allows him to "restore order" in the surrounding complexity, to find regularities and thus to reduce the uncertainty he gets confronted with. This "mental equipment" operates as a code which determines individuals and their behaviors, giving them the necessary elements to discern, to act and to judge.

To discern: the first effect of this code is to condition individual perceptions.

Culture notes:

- what is important and what is not;
- what must be the subject to vigilant attention and what can be observed with one eye;
- what can we expect and what should not surprise us;
- what is normal and what is not.

Perception also contributes to the selective orientation of the individuals attention.

Thus perception is not just detection, it is also interpretation. The individual finds in culture grids for interpretation, explanatory systems, theories that allow him to understand what is going on around him, in the organization and beyond.

Like any code, the cultural will be judged according to its adaptation to the reality that he must seize. How does this shift of perception perform? First, the experience of the organization is mobilized and sent to all its members under various forms: implicit or explicit rules, evoking of previous actions, comparisons and analogies, successes and lessons learned from previous failures.

The perception also mobilizes collective representations and images. The values and beliefs of the organization help to orient perceptions evident, not only retrospectively but prospectively as well, fueling forecasts and predictions made by the organization.

To act: - The second effect of cultural codes is generated by behaviors, namely to show to organizations members how to act. First we have the "programming" through which individuals associate ready-made answers to their problems, so that the perception itself gets codified. Examples of such "programming" effects are numerous in the daily aspects of the organizations social life: manner of dressing, manner of speech and behavior. Current decisions may be subject to these customs: for example, how long is permissible to delay a request from a client?

The most exciting aspect of culture as a determinant of behavior occurs when unusual decision are made: when do the normal rules and principles of the established management fail to be applicable. How to proceed in case of a conflict (a major customer demand is incompatible with the internal rule)? How about exceptional circumstances (unforeseen events; absence of a responsible authority; emergencies ...)?

Culture contains always available information, which are general and abstract enough to be applied to a wide range of circumstances. Thus, it provides answers for guidelines to build responses to unusual situations. This information is stored in beliefs, norms and taboos, but also in „story telling” in “moral codes” and in the behavior of "heroes" of the organization. These stories provide precedence analogies that can help solve problematic situations.

To judge: Culture is a source of legitimacy for behaviors and individuals.

Irregular or unexpected behavior, deviations and innovations will be also confronted with the information stored in culture. If they are legitimate, they will stock precedents and history will feed. They will contribute to accurate beliefs and rules: beliefs inspire behaviors, which in turn will lead to more accurate faith.

Similarly, certain words can cover very different meanings, so that their use is often widespread. For example, what do we mean by an „dynamic” employee? To what extent do we accept that dynamism is usual in our organization?

Culture offers judgment criteria not included in job descriptions, evaluation sheets or board tables. It allows the judgment of the individual compliance to a certain culture, at desired characters; differences will be analyzed and it will be judged whether his behavior is tolerable or not, if it is interesting or not.

3. Relationship organizational culture – national culture

We can not neglect the relationship between national and organizational culture. The success of the Japanese economy in the late '70s and early '80s, along with the decline of American economic domination led to attempt to find a plausible explanation for the obvious differences in productivity and commercial success between the two countries (Meek 1988). Ouchi (1981) found that these differences correspond to the organizational framework of national cultures and argued that some features of Japanese management, especially regarding human resource strategies, can be tailored to US firms. For Ouchi, the link between national and organizational culture is crucial. This research was popularized by the “Excellence Movement“ (Peters and Waterman 1982; Deal and Kennedy 1982).

One of the studies that directly relate to the relationship between national and organizational culture is driven by Hofstede and his staff (1990). They discussed the fact that national, cultural and organizational side derive from different sources. National culture, in their view, comprises a relatively diffuse set of guidelines emerged as primer values formed at the beginning of life in the family and through social mechanisms that operate from the beginning of childhood. Although there are specific values that can be established at the organizational level, in this case the cultural dimension is based here on work practices learned in the organization, especially through social processes that act later in the life of the individual. Hofstede and staff postulates the existence of a collective cultural level that interferes with the level of employment, which is influenced by both values and practices.

The scientist, Geert Hofstede⁸, addressed questions about the work of a number 116,000 of IBM's employees, located in 40 countries (there were 20 variants in terms of language). Practically, from workers to managers, everybody from the organization attended the study.

Analyzing the results, Hofstede discovered four, then five basic dimensions during which work-related values varied in different cultures:

1) **distance imposed by the exercise of power**, distance towards power - the degree to which society members accept an unequal distribution of power:

Great Distance towards power betrays that:

- managers and subordinates consider each other as existential unequal;
- salaries are different, depending on management level and on the upper level and the core of the organization;
- qualifications, income, power and statutes must go together;
- prevalence and preference for authoritarian management styles.

⁸ Hofstede, G. Managementul structurilor multiculturale. Soft-ware-ul gândirii. Editura Economică, București, 1996.

- authority survives only there where it meets obedience. Specific methods for this are delegating specific tasks and not power or responsibilities to members.
- formal aspects prevail in communication, informal discussions between managers and subordinates being quite rare;
- subordinates expect to be told what to do and rarely accept to be involved in actions that attract additional responsibilities, particularly if they haven't been informed directly by their boss.

2) Index "**individualism-collectivism**" refers to the predominance of individual interests to the group interests, namely the groups towards the individuals. The main features of an individualist index expresses itself as follows:

- links between members of the organization are rather weak as intensity and occur in small groups in the informal sphere;
- administrative decisions are exclusively preserved for chiefs, subordinates have to execute, being involved in the analysis and debate only if such a measure is considered to be necessary by the bosses. The heads often require information and take decisions alone.
- to speak out is a characteristic of an honest person;
- communication within the team is reduced to social conversations, even communication with subordinates tends to a minimum;
- there is little loyalty towards the group, which is accepted only as long as individual interests are promoted;
- hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based only on skills and rules;
- the task is more important than the relationship;
- the purpose of education is to learn how to learn, there is the idea that in life you always learn, even after university, which means that the individualistic organization tries to provide qualifications for "modern people";
- diploma increases economic income and the respectability of the individual.

3) The third dimension, „**masculinity-femininity**“ refers to greater social value given in the cultivation of male arrogance, or on the contrary, to sensitivity and modesty in feminine cultures. Specific features identified as being typical for masculine cultures are:

- dominant values in society are material, success and prosperity;
- men are supposedly arrogant, ambitious and tough;
- failure in school is a disaster;

- distinguished teachers are appreciated, as well as brilliance and academic reputation;
- There is a strong desire to have opportunities in order to accomplish big gains;
- when good results are obtained, recognition is needed;
- a specific desire is the opportunity to move to a better job;
- competitive spirit and the need for a stimulating activity is needed;
- the manager is tough and aggressive, but this does not have an offensive meaning;
- Conflict solving means disputing conflicts;
- deep need for order and rigor is present.

4) The fourth dimension, **“avoiding uncertainty”** - shows how members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations. About a great desire to avoid uncertainty, the following can be said :

- uncertainty in life is perceived as a continuous threat that must be fought continuously ;
- negative stress and a need for predictable is reflected by the need of written, concrete rules;
- the dominant idea is “what is different is dangerous” , while in companies with a small degree of „avoiding uncertainty“, the slogan becomes " what is different is curious" ;
- aggression and emotions can be displayed at appropriate times and places ;
- students prefer learning modes with fixed syllabus and are concerned on correct answers;
- it is assumed that teachers have answers to every question ;
- there is an extremely emotional high need for rules;
- resistance occurs to everything new.

5) Last, the dimension of the **“Confucianist” a long or short- term orientation** refers to identifying concerns for the preservation of traditions in institutions, for fulfilling social obligations as long as the system allows the rules, regulations and specific laws .

In cultures with long-term orientation:

- specific endurance , perseverance , prudence , attention to the differences of positions are typical;
- values that are strongly appreciated are perseverance , moderation , organizing relations by statute and supervision of their functions;

- possession of sense of shame;

Short-term oriented cultures emphasize femininity, personal stability, good reputation, social finesse, respect for tradition, protecting the good name.

4. Analyses of cultural organization in schools

In Romania, the research on organizational culture is quite dynamic. The first study was conducted in 1997 and consisted of research in the institutions of our country. The results are characteristic for the transition status, which has had an impact on mentalities, values and attitudes of staff.

The concept of organizational culture is quite complex, under some aspects hardly visible and therefore sometimes difficult to define. In organizational culture, managerial culture plays a crucial role, directing promotion of certain values, behaviors that serve the objectives of the institution, and this is achieved through human resources management tools.

Intervention on culture must begin with a diagnosis which should help us understand how the institution we analyze works. Often, we try to identify the state of things in organizations by means of questions addressed to participants, for example: “Why do you do this?”. Most likely they would answer: “this is the way we do it”.

The use of the concept of organizational culture can be transformed into a powerful management tool, which demonstrates that this theoretical concept exceeds state and becomes practically operational.

Note that history of educational institutions in Romania does not relate to its founding leaders, as it happens in large international companies; history is not related to management of society, but rather with its results (which customers it attracted, what graduates it has, what superior schools they are studying in, what equipment the school owns etc.). We have to retain the idea that the management and the staff customize the institution.

Studying the culture of an organization in the future will become increasingly necessary, as we can not lead an organization without to know the values and rules. The organization is a micro nation with own beliefs and values. Only by knowing the culture of an organization, we can act in accordance with it, and only respecting it, we can make some changes.

Strong cultures are often rigid and inflexible. This is why they are often threatened by the loss of sensibility to internal or external changes which threaten the “healthy living” of an organization. For example, those homogeneous collectives in terms of value and age are often resistant to changes, because “if things go well, why change them?” As environment changes are fast, we can not say that ideal cultures exist. Thus, we must admit that, ideal cultures are the most flexible for the future.

To turn transform a Romanian bureaucratic institution, protected and isolated from its customers in an flexible institution, available and open, we have to be aware that we need time, trust and

perseverance. No program will solve anything unless it is accompanied by changes on a structural level. The people oriented attempt if more hierarchic levels are maintained, is in vain.

There must also be a budgetary autonomy. Most often it takes a lot of courage to impose drastic measures in order to introduce organizational change. Sometimes, a human resource related management is beneficial, the creation of cultural cells in lower hierarchical levels, all of which could stimulate the desired change.

The whole process of intervention on the culture can be adjusted by a behavior of in accordance with the desired culture and by rewarding those who act in accordance with it. It is also required for the position to be periodically redefined, for the changes to be noted and the for the impulses to be constantly given.

To intervene on culture, one should always carry an adaptation of methods to the particular conditions in the institution, as each case is unique. There is no universally valid type of culture of the institution. Culture can not be borrowed, can not be imitated. It develops gradually and it is unique.

We can also say that there is no management of culture, but just the type of management that takes into account the concept of culture, as there are also attentive leaders to such things.

5. Culture and organizational climate

Studies on these two terms are differentiated. Some authors talk about the difference between the two concepts, while others subsume climate, school culture.

If until now we have shown what the defining elements of culture are, we can go on to the pre-school climate, and say that it is represented by the collective perceptions of employees and members of the school, which arise from routine practices in school itself and influence the behavior and attitudes of those who compose the organization. This is the one that influences the performance of members of the school.

According to Emil Paun (1999)⁹, a number of factors operates on school climate, some of which are easy observable, while others have a less visible action. So, we are talking about:

- structural factors, relating to organizations structure, ie o the distribution of the statuses and roles the organization individuals are having. Out of these, the most important are: size of the school, human resources by age and sex, the degree of homogeneity of training etc.;
- instrumental factors that have the conditions and the means to achieve organizational goals. We are talking about physical environment, material basis, relations within the school staff, management style of the manager and team etc.;
- socio-affective factors with a direct role on the motivation of the participants of school. In this category we can find factors that promote acceptance/rejection, affection/indifference,

⁹ Păun, E. Școala – abordare sociopedagogică. Editura Polirom, Iași, 1999.

personal relationship with the director and his team, satisfaction/dissatisfaction with school work, promotion opportunities, motivation techniques etc.

As Daniela Ion Barbu has shown to us, there are six types of school climates spoken about in specialized literature: open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternalistic and closed. Other researchers speak of only four types of climates, as shown in Figure 2.2:

- **Open climate:** is characterized by cooperation and collaboration between team members. These show respect and mutual support. Participants show professionalism, being totally concentrated on achieving objectives. The director supports staff and personnel, he represents an example for his staff and he respects those with whom he works with. Between these types, there exists autonomy, resulting in not feeling the influence of rules, guidelines and bureaucratic control;
- **Closed climate:** assumes a total lack of interest from teachers, who lack motivation, and develop their activity by routine, indifference and disengagement. The director practices inefficient but authoritarian management using excessive control, submitting rigid and unattractive assignments, showing inflexibility and lack of tolerance.

The employed climate is represented by a manager which is rigid, autocratic, trying to control by any means whatever happens in school. Despite such a situation, teachers, characterized by high professionalism, dedication and motivation, ignore the behavior of the director and lead themselves. Collegiality, team spirit and pleasure to work for the benefit of the school dominate between teachers.

		The behavior of the director	
		OPEN	
Teachers behavior	CLOSED	EMPLOYED BEHAVIOR	OPEN CLIMATE
		<p>The behavior of the director: closed</p> <p>Teachers behavior: open</p>	<p>The behavior of the director: open</p> <p>Teachers behavior: closed</p>
		CLOSED CLIMATE	UNEMPLOYED CLIMATE
		<p>The behavior of the director: closed</p> <p>Teachers behavior: closed</p>	<p>The behavior of the director: open</p> <p>Teachers behavior: Closed</p>
		CLOSED	

Figure 2.2. Types of school climate.

Unemployed climate is typical for school in which only the manager demonstrates professionalism. He is strongly motivated and involved, showing openness and supportive behavior. On the other hand we have teachers that are disinterested, disengaged and even interested in sabotaging the efforts made by the school director in his attempt to reach his targets. The director-oriented teachers, constantly trying to stimulate his staff, respects them and offers them ways to succeed professionally while teachers do not get along neither with each other, neither with the director.

Between the four dimensions, the preferred option is obviously the school with an open environment in which participants feel like being part of a huge family, without experiencing pressure or unnecessary rules or behaviors that corset and brake. As a result, job satisfaction is visible, members of the school are highly motivated and performance is accordingly.

Another classification, based on the idea that climate influences the top of the hierarchy to the lower levels, establishes four types of climates:

1. Autocratic explorer: distrust between managers and subordinates is specific. The latter do not have a word to say in decisions concerning the life of the organization, being forced to do what the manager decides. Among the participants we can not find relationships of trust and cooperation, interactions are rare, sporadic and forced. Obviously, the performance has not reached maximum values. Often, the manager calls the punishment, threat, terror, which brings tension and conflicts. It's a hostile environment, the operator concentrated on an excessive control.
2. Benevolent autocratic: there is a false appearance of the involvement of the subordinates. In the end, the manager is the one who decides. The effect is that tensions are not being observed.
3. Democratic - participatory, based on full confidence and increased motivation of participants in the organization. Communication between participants in the organization is open, honest, without blocks. Basically, the organization members are heavily involved in everything that concerns the life of the organization.
4. Democratic - consultative means that employees are permitted to take decisions related to their level of competence, while the manager only takes the peak decisions. This kind of climate approaches to the participatory climate, but doesn't have the same pulses like the participatory.

Finally, researchers talk about:

- Human climate: an open, democratic atmosphere, meeting the needs of participants in the organization;
- Custodial climate where the atmosphere is rigid, conservative, with a great distance between teachers and students. As a result, students seen as people who have to be, by any means, corrected, and which are only obliged to obey the decisions made by teachers.

As a conclusion, we may recall Professor Emil Paun's remark that "there are no ideal climates, but it appears that we can talk about efficient or less efficient climate"¹⁰.

¹⁰ Păun, E. Școala – abordare sociopedagogică. Editura Polirom, Iași, 1999.

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III. Quality Assurance in Education

Authors: Sinan Koruc - Kutahya İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü, and Ismail Dincer Gunes, Ph.D. - Uludag University.

Education is a global phenomenon and it is changing constantly through the internal and international factors which are not in the direct control of the nation states. Just like any other social institution education is a vital part of any society. Each society uses education to prepare their next generation for the future. It is a key element of socialization. As it is obvious from the definition; education is structured culturally. Even though the basic notion of education is similar all over the world, how it is carried out depends on the culture of a given society.

On the other hand there are some global trends that affect nature of education in every country. First and foremost of these trends is the expansion of education from elites to masses (*education for all*). In today's world right to proper education is accepted as one of the basic rights of the children. So, any education system should address the needs of the whole society. Moreover, new trends in teaching and learning systems also create alternative systems of education according to the new demands and needs of society (*fitness for purpose*).

New systems require new approaches to teaching techniques and management styles. While teaching techniques generally constitute the technological applications used in the educational settings, management styles are related with the notion of education process as a whole. In relation to other business management styles, management of educational institution also goes through rapid changes. The demands of the society force not only the private entrepreneurs, but also the governmental institutions to adopt themselves to the constant changing nature of the society. Continuously new management styles are introduced to the public. Providing quality services and quality products have become the focal point of production. Each and every sector in this production process tries to maximize their profits through advancing the quality of their services or products.

Quality management has become the general concept that defines this process. European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP, 2011) defined quality management as “*all activities of management that determine quality policy, objectives and responsibilities, and implement them by means of a quality plan, quality control, and quality assurance within a quality system*”. Total quality management (TQM) “movement” has become an effort to create universal standardized way of managing different aspects of the businesses in a culturally diverse world. From a business administration point of view, quality management is composed of activities and functions of the management to determine the quality policy of the business. Implementation of this policy is also a part of the quality management. If we look at education institution from this plain business administration view, than it is possible to conclude that every educational system should have a quality policy and its implementation should also be overviewed independently. However, although quality was originally derived from industries

and businesses, its definition in an educational context should be different from its meaning in other areas (Elassy, 2015).

Likewise, the Eurostat's Concepts and Definitions Database (CODED, 2009) defined quality management for Vocational Education & Training (VET) organizations as *“the set of systems and frameworks which are in place within a VET organization to manage the quality of outcomes and processes”*. Since the educational system or the framework is determined by the governing bodies, than the purpose of quality management in individualized educational settings is to manage the quality of teaching process and learning outcomes. Realizing these goals requires detailed planning, continuous control over the implementation and assuring the quality of whole process.

So, TQM is a process that also includes quality assurance. It is not possible to think about quality assurance without other components of the TQM. An agency cannot just only state that they are paying attention to quality assurance principles in their activities. Then, we should make it clear that quality assurance is possible with other parts of the TQM. In its most general terms quality assurance can be defined as *“an organisation's guarantee that the product or service it offers meets the accepted quality standards”* (Eurostat, 2010). Furthermore, the Canadian Information Centre for International Credentials (CICIC) provided a more detailed definition of quality assurance for an education system. According to CICIC (2009) *“quality assurance relates to the achievement of educational program standards established by institutions, professional organizations, government, and/or standard-setting bodies established by government”*. Quality assurance mechanisms are then can be defined as the *“processes by which the achievement of these standards is measured”*. According to Eurastat (2010), to achieve quality assurance first of all the definition of *“quality”* in a certain setting must be provided. Then the methods of implementation of that *“quality”* must be clearly specified to ensure conformance. Finally, the ways to measure the desired outcomes must be indicated. Jeliazkova and Westerheijden (2002) developed a phase model to analyze and schematize the developments in educational quality assurance in the higher education sector of The Netherlands. According to them, the development of quality assurance process goes through the phase of standardization, phase of local accountability and phase of diversity and innovation.

The development of education quality assurance mechanisms became a key thrust in many education systems (Tee Ng, 2008). Based on the new TQM movement, Lopez et.al. (2015) stated universities have implemented quality assurance processes in nearly every country of the world and each of them followed different procedures and thus achieved different results.

The whole quality assurance process can be divided into two parts: internal and external quality assurance of education systems. Internal and external quality assurances are not opposed to each other. In fact, they are supporting each other in different ways. Internal assurance can also be called as *“quality culture”* of an institution (Van Damme, 2011). European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) set out the European standards and guidelines for internal and external quality assurance within higher education institutions. According to ENQA (2009) internal assurance should address seven areas. These areas are: (1) policy and procedures for quality assurance, (2) approval, monitoring and periodic review of programs and awards, (3) assessment of students, (4) quality assurance of teaching staff, (5) learning resources and student support, (6) information systems and (7) public information. On the other hand, ENQA also

listed seven additional topics after listing “taking into account the effectiveness of the internal quality assurance processes” as the starting point. The following seven topics are: (1) development of external quality assurance processes, (2) criteria for decisions, (3) processes fit for purpose, (4) reporting, (5) follow-up procedures, (6) periodic reviews and (7) system-wide analyses.

Similar to ENQA’s approach Kistan (1999) also provided the definition of quality assurance at two levels; (1) at the policy level and (2) at the institutional level. According to her, at the policy level “*quality assurance is about power and control of standards measured in terms of accountability*” and at the institutional level “*they are about student experience and achievement*”. Both of these levels are important to understand how quality assurance mechanism works in reality. There are three basic players in this process. These players are the government, market and the schools. Li (2014) proposes a “quality assurance triangle” where each player follows different interest, but somehow play on the same playground and obey the same rules to create a qualified process and outcomes.

Cheng (2003) argued that there are three waves of quality assurance in education. The first wave of educational paradigm “*focused on internal assurance in terms of improving and ensuring that the methods and processes of teaching and learning meet the planned aims*”. The second wave however, “*emphasized interface quality assurance in terms of ensuring organizational effectiveness, stakeholder satisfaction and accountability to the public*”. For the future of quality assurance Cheng (2003) claims that different from the first and the second waves of educational paradigm, quality assurance practices will “*ensure the relevance of aims, contents, practices and outcomes of education to the future of new generations in a new era of globalization, information technology and the knowledge-driven economy*”. Concept of quality assurance will obviously keep a solid ground in education system because of the increasing demands of the public in terms of quality of education.

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IV. Developing emotional intelligence

iv.a. Developing emotional intelligence of students mentees

Author: Carmen Chisiu, Universitatea of Lucian Blaga din Sibiu

In conducting its mentoring is a continuous alternation of teaching, learning and assessment that can't be addressed additive or cumulative, but interactive, in an organic unity.

The mentor is itself a source of learning, a model teacher by that practice. What he used to classes that guides them, it becomes a source of learning for the mentoring.

Therefore, they are not unimportant didactic concept, the style practiced by the mentor and the impact this has on the mentoring relationship.

We try to address the issue of emotional intelligence, both at work and in the mentor teacher. Every time mentor and teacher is, assuming an extra mentoring involvement and responsibility.

In this light, mentor training aims to change in terms of conceptual and practical teaching style practiced app. Change teaching style, in a way which meets the needs of mentees who have characteristics we live time. We can no longer believe in the value of methods used in a society whose main characteristic is stability.

Now, young people need: flexibility, availability to change, dynamism and intellectual autonomy. These are skills that can be practiced by an educational activity in which the student is helped to know their availability to build their own interactive educational trail with others and motivate to go through it.

Self-education and education through examples, for a lifetime of emotional intelligence

The assessment records of work done in courses and seminars for educational psychology, teaching practice and pedagogy studies in the initial training of students at the University, L Blaga from Sibiu show that from a group of 214 students, most have considered personal example of the teacher as the main modality of emotional intelligence practice. Second was valued the guided observation during courses and seminars and third, individual study and personal reflection.

For of education to be successful it is imperative that mentors, know what emotional intelligence is and implies, to exercise on them self in order to develop the necessary skills to become a

worthy example for the mentees. The mentors must use concrete meanings which can guide the mentees in their development.

Do the impact registered, the education through personal example can be considered art, the art of educating.

Never this modelling work has been so difficult as the times we live in. Mentees today are different because the world is different. Education should be considered an art, because in education there are no recipes, nor unique ways, the children no longer consider the adults the sole source of information.

For a mentor to be listened and to have his authority recognized, one must have high personal value so the mentees to admire, to want to be near and to feel like they have something to learn from the adult, to make the mentees feel safe, respected and to encourage to speak their opinion.

In a manner of speaking to be emotionally intelligent means to be wise, to know when to be demanding and when tolerant, to be consistent in actions, ideas and promises and in the relations with people, an example of good communication and cohabitation.

In addition to recognized and accepted authority it is necessary for the mentors to stimulate the mentees trust and self-sufficiency. It is not recommended to expect this attitudes to develop itself. The mentor is the one who can implement this type of relation through personal example.

The mentor is the one who has to send respect and trust toward the mentees in order to receive them back.

In humanistic Psychology, Maslow recommends mentors to create for them and their mentees, as many satisfactory life experiences as possible.

Mentor- mentees joint activities are an example of such experiences.

Activities can be scheduled in advance, for the mentees to organize his daily activity so he can reserve time for the joint program.

Referring to Rogers, another representative of the humanistic Psychology, the mentor is the facilitator in the mentees development. It is proper for us to assume this role, to create as many experiences as possible for our mentees for them to choose the proper one for them.

Mentor must accept their children's own views about the satisfaction of the various experiences.

Combs considers that mentors are responsible to help the mentees build a positive image about himself, that means accepting experiences that are pleasing for the child.

For the same purpose, mentors have, besides their professional activity, personal and social activities which they attend and set an example for the children.

Even if the mentors present an emotionally intelligent behaviour if they lack the methods and instruments through which can ensure the mentees development, the learning will remain spontaneous and imitative.

Mentors who know the methods and tools, but do not use them, do not act emotionally intelligent will show no credibility. Mentees will not contribute to emotional intelligence to develop disciples.

This is why the mentors need to show an emotionally intelligent behaviour so to be a living example and at the same time trained: to know modalities and to master the necessary instrument in order to guide and orient the mentees' emotional intelligence development. Of course they need to be tolerant and empathic; to understand and accept other people's behaviours even if very different from theirs; to be able to use positively the differences between behaviours, to initiate and cultivate two-way communication, to contribute to constructive dialogue.

Besides the tolerance and empathy, it is necessary for mentors to guide and assist to the construction of a tolerant and empathic attitude of the mentees.

Parents need to acknowledge their own emotion so as to be able to guide the mentees in the difficult exercise of identifying their own feelings. It is necessary for the mentee to handle his emotion and to fructify them constructively so as to be used as a resource of learning.

If mentors are those who transform the less pleasant experiences in learning sources and challenges, at their own level mentees will be able to accept failures and also learn to live constructively, with them.

Regardless of the type of education, the mentor is the same: the development of a young person with a well-built mind, in good terms with himself and the people around him, responsible and involved in age-specific activities. For this to happen is necessary for a real and efficient reform to happen among teachers. The reform should begin with teaching the teachers and with the renewal of the art of education, by rebuilding the trust people have in education through personal example.

Expressed in psychological terms, it is necessary to learn to live emotionally intelligent, mentors alike in order to become examples for our mentees.

Our way of being, mentor's way of being is the best method to teach the mentees how to live emotionally intelligent.

In a dynamic, changing world as the one we live in, we need individuals trained to adapt quickly, almost instinctively to changeable and unexpected situations, individuals who beyond academic intelligence and specialized training are emotionally intelligent.

An emotionally intelligent mentor will hold personal value and will enjoy authority in relation with others. He will be a living example for the mentees next to him. Thus, education will become a form of art.

Let's not forget mentees learn by three methods: examples, examples and.....examples!

A mentor gifted with emotional intelligence

A good mentor:

- willing to provide support, help;
- has a high dose of altruism;
- has a positive professional experience;
- has a good reputation;
- stands ready time and energy to devote relationship;
- be open to new learning content availability;
- has the ability to see, to feel the potential benefits of a mentoring relationship.

These qualities and responsibilities undertaken are those that make a good teacher mentor.

How do we find the way by which teachers can mentor the student can mentees through what are doing? The good work that involves a good skilled, moral responsibility and involvement, which will create a climate conducive to learning psycho, trust and mutual respect, motivation.

Through the mentor manifestation of emotional intelligence is cultivated mentees through personal example, call involuntary form of learning, through what we call the hidden curriculum.

About emotional intelligence theory

Concern for study and research in this field has as its starting point the reality seen by each of us and specialists proved that many people with a high IQ or a very well developed academic intelligence, handle every day problems far less well than, a different category of subjects who, despite of having a lower IQ compared to the first, have outstanding achievements. Hence the question: How do the latter succeed in being successful and in facing difficult life circumstances?

Many psychologists have realized that this skill that ensures success in everyday life is distinct from the academic intelligence, it is a specific sensitivity in respect to practical and interpersonal relationships. Thus the new concept of emotional intelligence was born.

The studies on emotional intelligence are relatively recent, from around the 90s. The most representative researcher is Daniel Goleman (Emotional Intelligence, Humanitas, Bucharest, 2005).

Although this term is relatively new, components of emotional intelligence can also be found in Socrates statements (470-399 BC) „Know thyself!" In the Bible, both in the Old and in the New Testament: „Do not do to another what you do not like" and „Love your neighbour as yourself" can be regarded as elements of emotional intelligence.

The emotional intelligence is made out of 4 elements:

- better understanding of emotions;
- efficient handling of own emotion and the significant growth of life quality;
- better understanding of the people around us and a better comfort;
- better interaction with the people around us and the growth of personal productivity.

According to statistical research, the emotional competence is twice more important than technical or intellectual skills.

By developing our emotional intelligence we get to understand manage emotions in order to create harmonious relationships with others.

Benefits of Emotional Intelligence:

- increased performance;
- improved motivation;
- enhanced initiative;
- trust;
- managing staff efficiently;
- excellent teamwork capacity.

The role of emotional intelligence in managing, directing and controlling interpersonal relationships

Goleman concludes that in order to demonstrate interpersonal power you need to possess self – control and to have the ability to overcome anxiety and stress. In accordance with the author's beliefs, the best relationships are based on the art of directing one's emotions and empathy, the social competence through which a person gets to easily understand people and to manage the inconsistencies from the social environment. Given the lack of this quality, the intellectual excellence turns the person in question into an arrogant and insensitive one. This ability facilitates social human contact.

In respect to the interpersonal relationships, the author talks about the role of expressiveness and emotional contagion. Emotional contagion is part of the subtle shifts that occur in any meeting.

We convey and make our own provisions from other states, the emotional exchange being subtle and it's mostly taking place at an imperceptible level.. The explanation, says Goleman, is that

we unconsciously imitate the emotions that we see at others, being unaware of facial expressions, gestures, tone of voice and other nonverbal aspects. Thus, the person recreates for oneself the disposition of the person she is observing.

Goleman noticed that when two people interact, the mental disposition is transferred from the person who expressing feelings more intense to the one who is more passive. Knowing this, by a voluntary act, mothers and parents alike can create a disposition flow for children.

Permanent emotional exchange stake place between us and others, many of them being subliminal emotions that occur at imperceptible levels, but which highly influence the partners behaviour. Emotional intelligence refers the control of these imperceptible and subtle exchanges.

J. Cacioppo, Psychophysilogist, says there is a certain kind of „dancing”, “a synchronicity of emotional transmission. By catching up his ideas, D. Stern, shows that synchronicity occurs between people who have a very strong emotional relationship. It seems to facilitate sending and receiving dispositions. There is a couple synchronicity between partners, between teacher and mentees , between mentor and mentee, between the speaker and the crowd and especially between a mother and her children.

Th. Hatch and H. Gardner believe that the art of leadership is a specific form of social intelligence that refers to recognizing the feelings of others and the ability to make quick emotional connection with them. Around the house the mother generally plays the role of leader in the education of her children. The manifestation of emotional intelligence would make the relationship of the group more harmonious it would increase the mutual support, it would raise the efficiency of its cohabitation.

The researches of the last decade established an interdependent relationship between IQ (intelligence quotient) and EQ (emotional quotient), one without the other being incomplete and ineffective. A high EQ makes us live intensely everything that happens to us and it makes us know ourselves and the others better. If the IQ is somewhat limited by genetic premises, the EQ has infinite development and growth possibilities.

Educating mentee's emotional intelligence

Goleman believes that in order to succeed in life each of us should learn and practice the main dimensions of emotional intelligence. Mentors will be able to develop mentee's emotional and social potential by teaching them to adopt and develop emotional intelligence features, as they are permanently involved in a training activity by helping them:

- to identify and differentiate personal feelings;
- to learn more about how and where they can externalize feelings;
- to develop empathy - the ability to put feelings in agreement with others;
- to read body language and other nonverbal aspects, to achieve better communication;

- to learn to listen;
- to learn to be constructive (affirmative).

In his book *Emotional Intelligence in children's education*, Maurice Elias, Steven Tobias, Brian Friennlander, propose some principles of emotional intelligence, which should be followed in mentee's education:

- Be aware of your own feelings and the feelings of your mentees!
- Have empathy and understand the mentee's point of view! Do not forget that you too were student! Re-read the particularities of every age and try to accept them as valid for your mentees, even if we do not like or do not want to agree with them!
- Gain your balance and you face emotional and behavioural impulses!
- Build positive goals and plans! You are living examples for your mentees!
- Use positive social skills in dealing with mentees and others!

Brazelton shows that the student's attitude towards learning, the way in which the mentees approaches learning are directly related to emotional intelligence.

For learning, of any kind, to lead towards personal success, the following conditions must be met:

- self-confidence - the behaviour to initiate, to experiment the conviction that there are more chances to succeed than to fail in the actions they carry out, to be confident that others will help them when they are in difficulty;

Example - comment:

It is recommended to repeat the next monologue until you accept it as part of your thinking: „What could happen to me more than to be wrong? And if I'm wrong? If I don't try, then failure is certain. If I try there's at least one chance.” These beliefs must be repeated and learned by the mentees. They will help them to engage in activities, which at first sight scares them, but which will prove to be successful and the success will help them increase their self-confidence.

- courage – the tendency to have positive thinking directed towards things that make them happy, but which seem difficult and frighten and at first sight;

Example - comment:

Any experience even less successful is an opportunity to learn. Sometimes a bad experience can in time become „a great one” and it is a chance to learn to avoid such situations in the future.

- intentionality - the feeling of competence and efficiency, the ability to achieve goals, to postpone immediate gratification of needs for a bigger purpose;

- self-control - the ability to control their actions;
- ability to initiate and maintain social relationships with others - the ability to engage in relationships with others and understand them;
- ability to communicate - the willingness and ability to make verbal exchanges, to exchange ideas, to share his emotions with others, including adults;
- cooperation (collaboration) - the ability to balance personal needs with the others in the group.

Ways in which mentees can develop self-confidence

Help your student develop self-confidence is a big responsibility. Ultimately, the future of a student is based on the feeling of self worth on how they try new things on their own, on the feelings that generated these experiences. Confidence comes from the feeling of being able and from the appreciated and important contribution if family's life. As mentors we ought to cultivate the student's self confidence. For this we offer some recommendations.

Pay attention to him as often as possible!

Find time and offer your child attention! Not much time is needed, just stop checking your mail when he's trying to speak to you or turn on the TV, look at him while you're cooking dinner, create the necessary conditions to listen to him and to answer him. Look in his eyes, to assure him that you are listening. Thus, you are sending the message that you consider him important. When you talk, show that you don't ignore his needs:

„Tell me about your drawings and then we'll go make dinner together!"

„When he finishes: Now we have to prepare dinner."

Appreciate your mentee's good manners!

Even if sometimes it is easier to talk about his mistakes, keep in mind that everyone responds well to encouragement. Why would your student differ? So, make an effort and think of all the good things he did in last time. For example, tell him, tell his colleagues: „*David has had a very good communication with mentees from class VI.*" It is better to be specific, instead of „Well done!" I congratulate you for the way you chose the methods used in lessons." All these will make him feel proud, happy and he will know exactly what he did right.

Encourage progress!

Every student needs support. It is necessary to encourage progress, not only to reward the achievement: "I believe you. See you try to use a variety of teaching materials. Go on!" Means to congratulate that has achieved the objectives of the lesson, even if he forgot to explain

homework. It means to smile when used skillful questions while a dialogue with mentees, even if he forgot one of the questions proposed in the project. There is a difference between praise and encouragement. One rewards the task, the other rewards the person: „You did it!” Is different from: „I'm proud of you”. Praise can make a student feel good when he's done something perfect. Encouragement boasts effort. Better say: „Tell me about why she determined to use dominant group work. I see you like.” than: „Is the most beautiful group activity that we have seen it!” Too much praise can have negative effects on self-confidence, it can cause pressure on performance, a continual need to be praised by others. Therefore, praise him and encourage him with a certain limits; this will help him feel good about himself.

Listen to him when he wants to say something, no matter how busy you are!

If your child wants to talk to you, stop and listen to what he has to say. He needs to know that his feelings, thoughts, wishes and opinions matter. Help him feel comfortable with his emotions. „I know you're upset because you taught a class that you have not worked well!” Accepting his emotions without criticizing him validates his feelings and show him that you appreciate what he has to say. Expressing your own feelings: „Today I had a bad experience at one of the classes.” He will gain confidence to express his emotions as well.

Establish rules and observe them together!

Stop at establishing only a few reasonable rules!

For example: „Draft lesson is necessary to be ready checked 2 days before delivery.” Well established rules will help him feel more secure. They may require to be constantly repeated, but soon he will know what to expect. Be clear and consistent! He has to understand that you trust him and wait for him to do what you established as a rule!

Give him the opportunity to choose!

Give him the freedom to choose between two or more possibilities. Ask him if he wants to teach a geography lesson first to class V or VI, if he wants to try a lesson in class or at the museum. By showing him that you trust his judgment he will surely be more confident and he will use every opportunity to make a decision.

Support his taking risks!

Encourage the student to try something new, such as the use of a new method, participation and expressing a point of view to a common method. Do not fear failure! Without taking risks there is a small probability of success! Let your student experience and resist the temptation to intervene! Do not try to 'Save' him when he is showing some frustration, trying to figure out what's with the new situation. To do something for him is not a solution. You can create

dependency and diminish confidence. Find a middle way between your need to protect him and his need to experience and live all the excitement generated by new experiences.

Allow your child to make mistakes!

Of course, by choosing and taking risks, your child can sometimes fail. But it is a valuable lesson for his self-confidence. Learn from your mistakes. They get to know their limits better, they learn to live with rage, to accept defeats as part of life. When he's done something wrong and you want to correct him, make sure he understands it's about his behaviour and not about him as a person. He will make a new attempt with more enthusiasm.

So allow them, if they insist, to participate in a competition, even if it is not yet sufficiently prepared. When you start to complain that it is too difficult to say refrain from quickly telling him: "Didn't I tell you?". Help him to prepare on, smile as if you had a secret understanding.

To succeed in life, Goleman believes that everyone should learn and practice the main dimensions of emotional intelligence:

1. awareness of their emotions:

- to be able to recognize them and name them;
- to be able to understand their cause;
- to recognize the differences between feelings and actions;

Example - comment:

At various pleasant or less pleasant events occurred in class or in the family, mentees are asked to write down a note, without signing it, in which to express their feeling as a result of that event (ahead of demonstrative lesson, the approach of Christmas, the beginning of a new school year, the overcoming of an earthquake, a future test etc.). These notes shall be hanged in order to be viewed by all group members. Then talk about them without making nominations.

2. Control and monitor emotions:

- to be able to control your anger and to tolerate frustration;
- to be able to express your natural anger without aggression ;
- to be able to not destroy yourself, to respect you, to be able to have positive feelings towards you, towards school, towards the whole family ;
- to be able to manipulate stress ;
- to be less impulsive and more self-control.
- to be able to get rid of loneliness and social anxiety.

Example - comment:

Mentees are often asked to reflect on a situation when they were very angry with a friend or a pupil. How did they do? How do they consider they should have reacted in order for the relationship to be on the winning part? Each writes the on a note the solution they consider valuable. The tickets are then revealed to be read and a group discussion shall take place.

The suggested reflection can cover various age specific situations and concerns of the ones they work with. More over, these are realistic situations that may appear in the practice group.

3. personal motivation, perseverance:

- to be more responsible;
- to be able to focus on a task and keep your attention on it;

Example-review:

Mentees will be involved in exercises to fix goals and to monitor the achievement degree.

Examples of goals:

During this week I would like:

- to speak only when asked.
- to express respect for my colleague, by not hitting them.
- to gather my things after I've used them.
- to work continuously at my independent work exercises.

Mentees are taught to use tools for monitoring the achievement of goals, keeping records of the achieved performance.

4. Empathy - reading emotions:

- to be able to look from the other's perspective;
- to learn to listen to others.

Example - comment:

Mime exercises, role playing, mirror games, counterpart game (explained in the exercises of self-knowledge), using group rule : listen when someone speaks.

Activities like, „New” taken from the alternative educational platform Step by step and from the preparatory class are opportunities to learn how to know and understand others.

Exercises based on reflective questions debated in small group discussion. The proposed reflection may cover different situations, specific age and stages. They can also discuss about real situations that happened in the class, stories of practical activities, of the educational group; events from movies or from, theatre plays can be watched together or read from books:

What do you think determined the character... to behave as he did? What would you have done if you were in his place?

5. directing interpersonal relationships:

- develop your ability to analyze and understand interpersonal relationships;
- be able to solve conflicts and negotiate disagreements;
- be open and train your communication skills;
- be popular, friendly and socially involved in a balanced way;
- be prosocial and integrate harmoniously into the group;
- be democratic in the way you behave towards others, in the way you treat them.

Knowing and practicing this way of relating mentor will help step by step development of emotional intelligence mentees by example. For making the best of each person, the emotional ability shall be developed so as the emotional quotient to rise above average.

The outpouring of emotional intelligence is at its highest level, representing the employment foundation of all personal skills who help improving performance and learning. (Goleman, 2005)

Goleman believes that by following specific ways we can induce mentally the overflow condition.

These could be:

- intended attention focusing on the set goal , the essence being actually a state of maximum concentration;
- fairly severe mentees by experimenting a considerable effort to be calm and a sufficient concentration to start work.

A person who finds itself in the pouring state leaves the impression that hard can be actually easy, the performance appearing normal and ordinary.

The outpouring is a compulsory condition to achieve mastery in any profession. Those who have high emotional skills as their life ideal shall make their job a pleasure and their pleasure a job.” Outpouring is a part of the healthiest way to learn. By practicing outpouring, accompanied by a high level of intellectual skills and those specific to a particular field of activity, emotions can facilitate thinking, they can potentiate it, the person being able to find multiple ways to act effectively and to step towards success.

Now that you have an idea about what emotional intelligence is, I propose you try to assess your emotional intelligence and your student’s, by answering a few questions (Elias, M. Tobias, S., Friennlander, B, 2003):

1. How well does my student manage to express his feelings? If you ask him about how he feels, does he talk about a feeling or does he tell you what happened? Is he able to recognize certain emotions with all their intermediate stages? Can he identify the feelings of others?
2. How does he expresses empathy? Does he consider the feelings of others important?? Is he concerned about the feelings of others? When he witnesses discussions about the misfortunes of others, how does here act? Can he understand the different points of view? Can see all the facets of a problem? Can he do this in the middle of a conflict?
3. Does he have the patience to wait for what he wants, especially when it's something he wants very bad? Can he postpone a small pleasure for a big one? How easily does he accept frustration? How does he express anger and other negative feelings?
4. What are his purposes? Are his goals in accordance with what you wanted him to accomplish? Does he ever plan before acting? Does he ever ask for your help to make a plan?
5. How does he solve conflicts? How independent is he in their resolution? Does he listen to the opinions of others or does he ignore them? Can he imagine different ways to solve a conflict?

You will ask yourself the same questions regarding your own behaviour in order to evaluate your own emotional intelligence.

Both for your mentees and for yourself, determine the strengths, the areas you master. Sincerely congratulate and praise your children for the identified strengths as often as you have the chance. Also determine which times of the day are more favourable to develop these skills and which are less favourable. These templates are very important and they will help you to swim in the flow direction. It is very possible that your child will not be able to answer these questions during the first attempt. You can give them some examples from which he can choose his answer.

I propose several methods and tools to practice emotional intelligence with your practice group.

If we manage to be aware of our own emotions and feelings, the control of anger is the second step. Activity „Stay calm!“ is designed help both mentors and mentees (with whom you need to have a lot of patience in order for them to learn the steps) to take a short break before acting. It is a way to control impulsive behaviour. It is an approach that will help solve situations that upset us and that create frustration. (M. Ellias, J. Clabby)

The steps are:

1. Tell yourself, „Stop and look around!“
2. Tell yourself, „Stay calm!“
3. Breathe deeply, count to five, hold your breath, count to two, exhale, count to five.

Repeat these steps until you feel that you've calmed down.

To learn more efficiently you can make a poster, for these stages, which you can hang placed in a visible place in the class room.

This is an activity that mentors can practice and then propose it to their mentees, repeating together first loud, then individually in their mind, until it becomes a habit for everyone. Success is determined by the consistency of the mentor.

After mentees are aware of their emotions and they can control their anger and frustration, mentees must learn to stand up through a confident communication. Mentees need to distinguish between passive aggressive communication and the confident one. By confident communication we can communicate what's better in us.

To use this type of communication it is necessary to be aware of a few items:

- Straight body - expressing confidence without arrogance;
- Look directly to the interlocutor without patronize and without expressing fear or doubt;
- An appropriate language in accordance with the relationship you have with the interlocutor, expressing your feelings effectively, but avoid insults. Try to formulate your questions like this: I think... what do you think? Do you think I could try...? To what extent would you mind if...? What makes you think that...? „I” type messages are considered by Gordon, representative of humanistic psychology, appropriate to express a clear position towards the situation considered in the discussion. Sure it is much easier for mentees to communicate this way, if teachers will use this type of communication as well. Do not forget: Mentees act according to what they see around.
- A calm voice, not a whisper, not screaming, but firm.

This communication method develops confidence and self-esteem.

This method also increases your chances of being understood and respected by others.

Mentors can ask mentees to identify characters who use aggressive, passive or confident communication while watching a movie.

The diary of a problem is an effective tool used in education based on emotional intelligence. The best is to find a way to use diary of problem in the practice group and to use it in a consequent. It can be used to teach mentees to make decisions and act responsible actions thoughtful. This method divides a complex process into stages, which followed consistently, will contribute to the formation of habits for life.

The stages in the diary of a problem are:

- Identification of negative emotions that cause the analyzed situation. They are a warning that lets you know that something must be done. Mentees need to identify and name the emotions they live during that situation.
- It is necessary to identify the problem. You don't need to search the guilty ones.

- Setting goals and writing them down gives a state of relief and it eliminates stress. The goals provide a direction for the action.
- We reflect on what we can do. We find as many ways to deal with this problem. If the student fails to solve the situation on his own, we help them to find some solution.
- For each solution, for each modality in which the problem could be solved, we anticipate the results, the advantages and the risks that may occur which might be either positive or unpleasant.
- Choose the best solution.
- Plan everything, anticipate traps, practice the plan and implement it.
- I see what happened and I reflect about what is best to do next.

General themes that can be managed by using this method are:

- Choosing a school, a career;
- Going to a new practice school and building new relationships with other children;
- Reaction to school notes and to the opinions of teachers regarding the school progress.

Concretely: the diary of a problem can be used in the following situations:

- When discussing current events in the evening around the table;
- When planning joint activities, practice group activities;
- When taking decisions who affect the whole family;
- When you need to solve conflicts between colleagues, between pupil and student who is preparing to become teachers;
- When it is necessary to solve a crisis.

To initiate the diary of problem method it is recommended to use a relaxation exercise to stimulate thinking and creativity, brainstorming, in which all participants will say for what a pan, a pillow, a sponge, a spoon, a box matches can be used, each proposing a different usage scope than the normal one. When the planning moment comes, the creative combination of ideas occurs more easily.

It is very possible that at certain times mentees cannot answer the questions proposed by the method: they cannot identify feelings or any other question they will respond with, „I do not know!“ We ought to treat them with compassion and patience. Eventually we give some examples from which they choose the answer that fits for them.

After you have presented the method I suggest you watch a movie about a family or a soap opera and then discuss the feelings, problems and goals of the characters.

To develop the emotional coefficient of our mentees , it is necessary first to know what emotional intelligence means, to concern ourselves with our development and to act emotionally intelligent. We are a model for them, therefore they eventually will copy us. In time, our reward will be the emotionally intelligent behaviour developed by our mentees .

Each of them can be found in the principles and ways of intervening educational, proposed by the theory of humanistic psychology.

In a dynamic, ever-changing world, like the one we live in, we need individuals trained to adapt quickly, almost instinctively to the unpredictable and ever changing situations, namely individuals who beyond their academic intelligence, beyond the good preparation are able to act just by being emotionally intelligent.

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iv.b. Developing emotional intelligence of mentees by using MSCEIT Model

Authors: Marina Ventura, PhD., Mariana Mendonça, ISCTE- University Institute of Lisbon

Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize self and others' emotions and to respond them properly. It means that the person is able to handle with a lot of internal experiences and that he/she can deal with emotions, using his/her knowledge in terms of actions and thoughts.

In this process the individual has to perceive the emotional states, recognizing and interpreting them. Then it is necessary to identify emotions, labeling the basic ones and being aware of how they interact to create more complex states. Finally, emotional intelligence implies to affect regulation both in themselves and others.

Mayer and Salovey's model (1997) suggests that emotional intelligence (EI) can be divided in four branches:

- a) **Recognizing** emotions and emotional expression. It is important to clearly identify what we are feeling and to be able to explain that to others. This domain also includes the ability to identify others' emotions, whether they express them verbally or not.
- b) The **use** of emotions as a part of the cognitive process. In fact, emotions have an important role in our lives. Since they appear as a priority and they direct our attention, emotional states help us to analyze different perspectives and lead to problem solving. We can use emotions to change our mindset.
- c) Emotional **understanding**, in other words is the ability to think about emotions and find meaning for them. This also involves the capacity to name the emotions, understand the relationship and to recognize the transitions between them.
- d) **Regulation** of self and others' emotions. It means that the individual is open to experience feelings and that he can actively manage them (e.g., improve bad mood, cool down the excitement or just let the emotion flow). This is only possible when there's enough self-knowledge and self-consciousness.

The authors also found that more emotionally intelligent individuals usually:

- Had more sensitive parents in childhood,
- Are non-defensive,
- Are more capable of re-create emotions,

- Chose adaptive emotional models,
- Are able to talk about their feelings,
- Develop knowledge in particular areas such as moral feelings, ethics or leadership.

In short, emotional intelligence helps individuals in adapting to the environment and to improve their relationship with others.

The more you understand emotions, the better you can recognize and express them. On the other hand, the understanding of the other people's emotional expression makes the individual more sensitive toward their needs and helps to adopt a more empathic and responsive behavior.

Emotional intelligence (EI) can be measured and its components (e.g., empathy) are seen as skills that can be improved. For instance, we can ask a person to identify emotions experienced by someone in a picture or by the protagonists in a story. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is an ability-based test designed to measure the four branches of the EI model of Mayer and Salovey (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

Teachers have some big challenges to deal with, since they face different students with different needs and distinct psychological structures. The teacher may be an expert in the subject he is teaching, but we all know that's not enough to achieve success. Here comes the importance of the attunement with others' needs and, in this particular case, with students' needs – themes of EI.

Facing a problem in class, the professional can analyze the situation using his transversal emotional skills. The following are some examples.

A. **Recognize** emotion, asking questions like can help the mentee to self-knowledge:

- *What was your emotional reaction?*
- *How did you feel?*
- *What do you think she felt?*
- *How are you feeling now?*
- *What are you likely to be feeling when you present this tomorrow?*
- *How do you think the team might be feeling?*

To help teachers/ mentees we can ask:

- *How does this student feel after my comment?*
- *How do I feel in this class?*

B. **Use** emotions, asking himself, can help the mentee to understand how is dealing with emotions in order to create a better environment:

- *How are your feelings influencing your thinking on this issue?*
- *Based on our discussion about the feelings involved here, how might these be affecting the team's attitude?*
- *How would you describe your general style of thinking right now?*
- *On a scale of 1 to 10, how open are you to the suggestions they will present at the meeting?*

To help teachers/ mentees we can ask:

- *How does my students' mood influence their thinking?*
- *What are the desirable emotions to get my students attention?*
- *How can affect my student's emotions?*

Thus it may make sense to reserve few minutes of the class to solve a problem between students, if it is harming their predisposition to learn.

C. **Understanding** emotions:

- *Do you have any clues on why you are feeling like this?*
- *What could have led to this change in feeling?*
- *How would you like them to be feeling during the meeting? At the beginning? At the middle and at the end?*
- *What is the best way for you to be feeling when you present this proposal?*

To help teachers/ mentees we can ask:

- *What explanation can you give to the behavior of your students in a specific day?*
- *Comparing between the beginning and the end of your class your students had changed the behavior? What could had motivate that?*

D. And, finally, it would definitely be useful if they can **manage** them:

- *What can you do to achieve this outcome?*
- *How do you think you can change the situation?*
- *Given the importance of being relaxed, what things could you do to create a calm but focusing mood before you going to the meeting?*
- *What strategies can you use to try to create a receptive and open atmosphere?*

To help teachers/ mentees we can ask:

- *How can I regulate my emotion?*
- *How can I manage the disappointment/the excitement of this class?*
- *What strategies could be implemented with a specific group of students?*

In conclusion, we believe that mentoring may be a way to develop both mentor and mentee's EI. Within the secure relationship between the two they can explore feelings related to the job and improve their sensitivity to others' needs.

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V. Classroom management

Author: Carmen Sonia Duse, PhD., Universitatea of Lucian Blaga din Sibiu

„Classroom management” is a concept which describes teaching processes based on mutual respect between teachers and students in the frame of a positive atmosphere, without the presence of disturbances or interruptions.

Nault et Fijalkow (1999) talks about this concept, seeing it as a set of consecutive actions reflected and produced by teachers, in order to establish a positive, pleasant and friendly climate in the classroom learning environment.

Classroom management is directly related to the in the classroom established motivation, discipline and respect.

Experts say that over 60% of the time a lesson is for classroom and behavior management. Each group has its own personality; a universal recipe to master and manage staff can not be formulated. It is so important to master the art and the science of classroom management, in order to build positive relationships to students and to get to learning performance.

Usually, when we talk about classroom management we have in mind a series of steps to-be-talked in order to establish a favorable and respectful atmosphere. The first step is about rules and procedures.

1. Establish a set of rules and procedures in the classroom

When starting a new school year, or when starting to work with a new collective, teachers should make clear that to students that they all have to comply with certain rules and procedures. Without these the teaching act would suffer, and unnecessary time and energy would be wasted. This introduction of rules, regulations and procedures requires explanation and repetition. This is often very time-consuming. Therefore, many beginning teachers in the desire to achieve goals very quickly, are jumping or treated lightly at this stage. The result is that without knowledge about the desired behavior, students have wrong actions and that is disrupting the smooth running of teaching. The teacher must make adjustments and to modify if necessary the curriculum. Sometimes teachers believe that the behavior is implicit, that students should know certain things and that there is no need for repeating. Reality proves otherwise.

The experience shows that teaching processes and class work become more orderly and coherent if there are specified rules and procedures, negotiated and justified.

The first step of this process to establish some rules, according to age, students' characteristics and education level.

The rules must be formulated in a positive and encouraging manner. For primary classes 5-6 rules are recommended, while for secondary, it is allowed to negotiate up to 8 rules with the class, in order to justify for students the need for such rules and to understand their importance.

Rules may consider both elements of class organization (a-e) and behavioral factors (g-m). The rules must be respect during the whole activity, not just sequentially (figure 1).

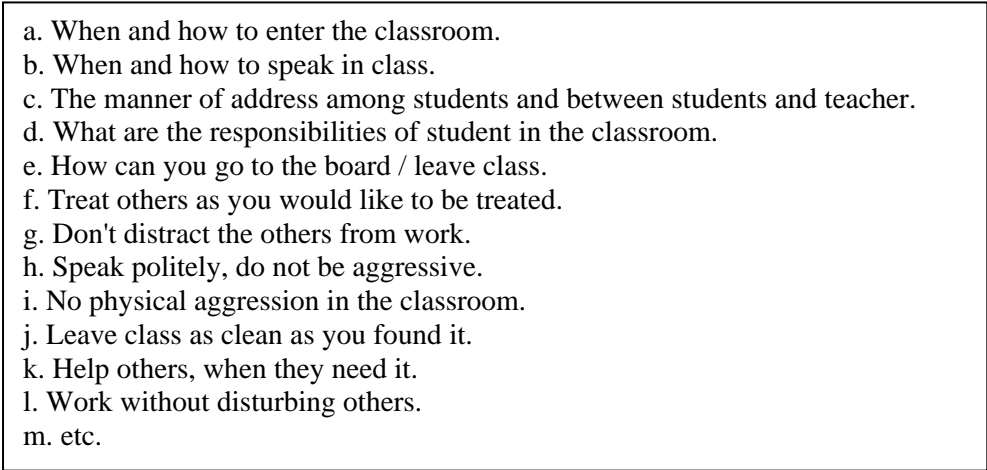
- 
- a. When and how to enter the classroom.
 - b. When and how to speak in class.
 - c. The manner of address among students and between students and teacher.
 - d. What are the responsibilities of student in the classroom.
 - e. How can you go to the board / leave class.
 - f. Treat others as you would like to be treated.
 - g. Don't distract the others from work.
 - h. Speak politely, do not be aggressive.
 - i. No physical aggression in the classroom.
 - j. Leave class as clean as you found it.
 - k. Help others, when they need it.
 - l. Work without disturbing others.
 - m. etc.

Figure 1. Possible rules in classroom.

For these rules to be understood and accepted by the students, the teacher search for justification in connection to the age of the students. "Do so because I say so!" is not an argument to be used because the outcome might be anxiety or even the opposite effect of the one expected.

It is important to talk to students about the importance of these rules in their social life and show them that everywhere, at home, in society, in sports one has to respect rules. Show them what the consequences of not obeying the rules might be: chaos in society.

To get students agree to rules and to obtain their consensus for these, one must negotiate. At the same time, accept suggestions, even if moderate or paraphrase it.

Several authors indicate that it might be useful to ask students to work in small groups and develop own rule-sets, after the importance and necessity of rules is explained to them. This works very well in the higher grades, where students should have a better understanding for these matters. Rules can be written on post-it notes and then, put together on a common panel. The class can discuss and then vote for the most important rules.

If the teacher disagrees with a proposed rule he must explained why a given these rule is rejected. Of course, the teacher is in the end the one who decides if a set of rules is accepted or not.

It is also possible to sign a "contract" with students who commit to follow the rules, otherwise assuming the consequences. Take care and play with the concept of "our rules", not with the concept "the rule which I stand for"!

For a better awareness of their own behavior, students may be asked to evaluate themselves. Geoff Petty suggests the self-assessment from the Figure 2.

Is the student (name) a good teammate?	I respect the rules:			
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
I treat others as I would want to be treated.				
I raise my hand if I want to say something when the teacher talks.				
I help the others when they need it.				
Etc..				
I improved my behavior from the last assessment. Yes No I need to focus in the future on: Name and surname:..... Signature: Date				

Figure 1. Self assessment of the behaviour (G. Petty).

If we want to give a more official form to these rules, we can ask students to prepare “The Constitution of our class”, an important document, which should start with a statements like: “We, the students of class ..., by mutual agreement and by understanding the necessity, decided that we will follow the next rules during our school activity: ...”.

It is indicated that the rules remain on the classroom walls, in the visual field of the students, for the entire school year.

The teacher must be careful with his verbal and nonverbal communication. He should not transmit contradictory signals to the classroom. An example of this would be to not show satisfaction when punishing or giving a small mark, and, conversely, to not be smiling when he remarks a positive behavior or gives a good mark.

It is very important for students to know that breaking rules leads to punishment. Also students should know the possible penalties for breaking rules. When signing for compliance, students already accept any penalties. In this way it can prevented the student's negative behavior arising as a surprise penalty.

Usually, if a student manifests the tendency to do anything contrary to the voted rules, it is enough for the teacher to show them that the rule breached, and the behavior will go out.

By all rules and routines that teachers propose, they must prevent any attempt disruptive behavior. Should this occur, the teacher should immediately take corrective action or the disruption spreads.

Educational researchers shown that it is specific for the novices teachers to mainly focus on content, rather than on teaching classroom management. This is negatively manifested in the relationship with the class. They also tend to overlook the first small deviations of student behavior, which then leads to amplifying and even extending this behavior.

The expectations for junior teacher are to be able to:

- establish and maintain the effective routines/ to conduct activities in the classroom;
- identify problems which hinder the proper conduct of students and group in lesson;
- anticipate behavioral problems and provide alternatives to prevent them;
- identify and implement appropriate methods to solve problems of inappropriate behavior among students.

Another matter within the classroom management is building up confidence in the classroom, supporting the lack of inhibitions, and soften the evil and rude comments between the students. The teacher is not allowed to use aggressive language, to be injurious and he shouldn't label or be depreciative towards students from any point of view. Also, the teacher must prevent ironies between pupils, labeling or even mockery of them. Each student must be encouraged to participate, to engage, to give ideas in connection with the lesson content. In the same way, he must help students to discover their full potential. It is not recommended to make use of "trick questions" or deliberately talk about false hypothesis.

The teacher must be attentive to time management in the classroom. Especially at the beginning of the teaching career, teachers might be surprised about going too fast or too slow. They usually finish too early and do not know what to do. This is why teachers are recommended to assemble a range of support material (exercises, stories, videos, educational games etc.), covering corresponding unmanaged times for every taught subject, also arousing in this way students' motivation for learning.

It is important for the teacher to behave consistent and fair in class. Do not understand that being constant means being rigid. This means that the teacher respects also the rules of the classroom and clearly expresses the limits, without shouting or being aggressive. This is achieved through exercise, and it takes more time to acquire this skill, until this practice is obtained.

Another aspect on which the teacher must focus on is the observation of the whole class, throughout time. This means that the teacher shouldn't sit on the chair, comfortable, quiet, confident about the fact that he owns the class by the distance that interposes between him

and they. On the contrary, this distance might be used by students to do what they like, without regard to the lesson content and very quickly, those students will produce disturbances in the activities. Therefore the teacher must always stand between students inside the classroom space, so he can see them and watch them continuously. When disruptive behavior is preappeared, immediate action can be taken by the teacher, even before the evil occurs. It is useful for the teacher to control his eyes while watching the students, analyzing their feedback expressions and responding appropriately to their questions. In this way one can hope that the educational activity will take place without unpleasant incidents.

Do not forget the consistency of conducting the training of activities, the sequences and their dynamics. If there is downtime or loss of time or shooting time out of various reasons, this will be used by the students for other activities than the ones planned. The quicker they get bored, the more willing they become to disrupt the activity.

In order to increase motivation for learning it is good to use rewarding.

2. Rewards in classroom management

A teacher who uses rewards in school activities is able to center student's attention on desirable behavior more often, creating positive expectations on what will happen in the classroom. He will also strengthen up the teacher-student relationship.

Concerning the types of awarded compensation we can find various forms and variants used in school practice. Thus, starting from a given point in addition to scoring for encouragement, to free trips and camps, all of them take part from the register of assessing behavior.

Students appreciate praise, especially given in public. By this praise, the teacher should not emphasize personal attributes for which the student has no merit. Therefore it is obvious that formulations like "how smart you are!" have to be avoided. "You're very good in my field" does not create the image of a submitted work.

No comparisons should be made between the students: "You're the best in class when it comes to my discipline". It seems that others are no longer given the chance of trying. Either students mediocre as the weak both of them need support and encouragement, otherwise will feel rejected from the start.

Furthermore, praise must specify the desirable behavior so everyone can understand why students get rewarded. It is recommended to say: "You have shown very clearly subject" or "You cleverly solved the problem" rather than "You're very good at my discipline!"

The more the teacher is sincere and enthusiastic, the more the praise will play an important role.

Diplomas are another way in which we can help students understand what appropriate behavior looks like. These can be handed in at any time, not just at the end of school year. In fact, the greater the creativity of the teacher it is, the more ways can be found to highlight the positive behavior of students. With existing softwares we can create attractive diplomas. We can also insert pictures of the awarded student. Supporting and working on focusing student's attention on the problematics of attitudes and behaviors, we can hand in diplomas to students who:

- helped classmates at lessons - week/month;
- took only good marks - week/ month;
- wasn't truant - week/ month;
- didn't chode with colleagues - week/ month etc.

To be noted that these diplomas must cover a period that can range from a week to a month. Also, they can be granted to a group or to a team, if students have made acted in a positive way together.

We can also use web resources to find a lot of such diplomas, extremely ingenious and age-appropriate to work with.

Children may be allowed to go home and show their diplomas to their parents, or they can be kept and displayed in the classroom. In this sense, we can arrange a wall that is to expose the documents received / made by children during a given period, in order to strengthen attention on positive elements.

Another way of enhancing the desired behavior is to send congratulatory letters the parents.

In Romanian education letters who inform the parents that their son / daughter will be punished or will receive a lower mark for behavior etc. are well know. If the same student shows positive behavior, we take this for gratly, often overlooking this fact. This does not lead to positive behavior reinforcement.

American professors propose the title of "star" designated for every week in the classroom, encouraging students and teachers to write notes to pupils containing positive comments. These notes can be collected in a bag of memories. The student will be able to go home and show these tickets to their parents.

Letters which are sent to parents are a sign of willingness to work together with the family, a way of showing concern, for teachers to get more close students.

Recognising and rewarding positive behaviors occupies a very important role in assertive discipline. One of the most renowned specialists in the assertive discipline, Lee Canter, indicates that each child should be praised at least once a day.

Every teacher must recognize students who deserve to be compensated and re-establish timeframes for rewards. He should however be have in mind the rewards-rhythm, because if rewards are given to easily, they have no effect on students behavior.

Finally, the teacher has to build up a climate where students can feel safe and understand expectations.

3. Punishments in the classroom management

As teachers, wanting in or not, we are often put in a position of punishing.

It is important to understand and accept the idea that punishment should be applied only when we have exhausted all other ways to form the desired behavior. Also in literature there are specified a set of rules on sentencing, so it does not harm than more then it does good.

So:

- Do not use punishment in form of learning-activity (extra homework, additional mandatory lecture, memorizing things etc.). Otherwise penalty will influence learning motivation;
- For an act done with malicious intent one penalty will be awarded. Therefore, to avoid amplifying the number punishments, the teacher shouldn't be on the spur of the moment anger;
- Do not apply punishments for whole class in consequence of misdeeds of a single student. Usually such punishments arouse resentment for the long term, and the image of a teacher applying such a punishment suffers in the eyes of students with positive behavior;
- Do not use poor marks for an undesirable behavior. Marks should reflect the pupil's knowledge and not penalties imposed by a certain behavior;
- Physical punishment is prohibited: beating, shaking, pulling hair, ears etc. Such penalties can even bring to criminal charges against the teacher who applied these types of punishment;
- Should not be applied equally verbal aggression of pupils: ironies, sarcasm, bad jokes at the expense of students, encouraging other students to insults etc. Some teachers feel that such behavior stimulates the ambition of the students to demonstrate otherwise. Reality shows that it's not the case. Most of the times the students reaction is a negative-emotional one, with bouts of anger sometimes mastered, sometimes flared up, leading to an explosive situation in the classroom. The teacher should show empathy to understand what the student feels and not to accept public humiliation;

- Does not throw students out of the classroom, although teachers often consider this the only way. Once he's outside, the student feels free to do whatever he feels like: to go out of the school, and other times disturbing, cause even more teacher's authority etc.

The educational systems in different countries allow removal of students from the class, and passing him under the supervision of another teacher or supervisor which will assist the student with the homework. In Romania this is not possible, so the student is not given out in class;

- Do not use the authority of the school principal. What will happen after the principal leaves the classroom? How credible is a teacher and how about his authority image if the principal is the one who restores order in the classroom ?!

We must remember that, regarded as a remedy, punishment has only short-term effects than the students. Most of the times it produces negative emotional reactions with: anxiety, frustration, teacher-student relationship deterioration.

The students who fear punishment are refractory (reluctant) to try new things, because they are afraid of making mistakes. This will have long-term effects on their personality development, which will be fulfilled as expected as a result of their experiences both positive and negative. However, when the teacher initially establishes the set of rules with the students, and the consequences of breaching the rules, the punishment will have positive effects on others. They will look to the teacher as consistent with its principles and with consistency in action.

Punishment must always be accompanied by an enlightening discussion on the nature of the error and the influence of wrong behavior on others.

Also, punishment must immediately follow the error, for a pupil to realize the connection between the two.

4. About team building

The first question might be: why do we need team building? Why should we work with a team, when it is easier to do it with the whole class. The simplest answer is related to learning efficiency. When the teacher uses frontal teaching, students (some of them) lose the contact to the actual learning activity, their role being a passive one– the just have to listen. Research shows that students' attention stretches to a maximum of 20 minutes (routinely 10-15 minutes is considered). Therefore, it is difficult for today's students to listen to the teachers explanations, made in a uniform manner and that take no account of differences between students. If the teacher prefers frontal teaching, it might come to boredom and , to debt established in the classroom mainly because students feel that they have nothing to do.

Comparative studies between traditional teaching-learning versus teaching in small groups has shown that the effects of group learning is distinguished by a better understanding of the taught, a long-term memory retention, better communication between group members and even an improvement own communications, ultimately a better adaptation to the social environment in which they will act as future professionals.

That is why it is necessary to alternate forms of work organization in class, weighing as little digging activities in favor of teamwork, group or individual.

At the beginning of the school year, short exercises can be done in group work in which students solve problems or conduct group discussions. Thus the teacher can see how the students interact and what roles each student undertakes in the group. For the students this arrangement can be considered an introduction in which the advantages of group work will be presented.

Teamwork are likely to ensure better participation and involvement of students, develop critical thinking, encourage group relationship and help students to get accustomed with certain roles in the group. Moreover, research has revealed that millenials generation is more attracted to teamwork than previous generations (Howe and Strauss, 2003 and the Bard, 2004), feeling more comfortable when they succeed or fail within a team, rather than individually.

Therefore, it is one of the most important requirement of current education, to build teams and to teach students to work in teams.

When we want to build teams, it is necessary to respect the particularities of the students (age-related skills, interests, interpersonal relations, etc.).

One way of forming the group may be linked to similar values criteria. In other words, groups of students will not be build in form of extreme categories (eg students with 10 students 5 or 6). Groups can be formed based on individual preferences, but taking into account the capabilities of each student. The teacher must consider the knowledge and skills, learning motivation, students social skills, etc.

In some cases teachers choose students to work in pairs. The disadvantage of this method of organization is that are only two members, there will be not a variety of ideas, they will not have so much creativity and even fitness for a particular activity will be reduced. In addition, a conflict may occur frequently, because dominant partner will try to impose his point of view.

Based on these groups we can then build differentiated learning tasks that facilitate the success of every student and all groups.

Group size is a compromise between being so great to have sufficient intellectual resources for solving tasks and so small that foster group interaction. In practice, we use groups having between 3 to 5 members, rarely seven. The larger the groupis, the bigger the tendency is to

subdivide it into smaller groups. In addition, a group of seven involves difficulties in the team's construction.

Group size must be chosen depending on the lesson's objectives, learning contents, students' age, experience of group work, available materials and equipment, the time for activity etc. Recommended is not more than 4-5 students because group work is difficult. At the same it gets difficult to track participation in each group. If the team has more than 5 members, certainly some of them will remain passive. That is why some experts recommend forming teams of minimum 3 and maximum 5 members.

For group activities following os recommended: teaching exercises, problem-solving, tutorials, study of documents, projects, surveys etc. Forming groups is necessary in order to avoid pre-existing subgroups, or cohesive (for example, a group of three students might be good friends or rivals). Therefore it isn't recommended the self-selected group, nor to emphasized the positive or negative contribution of a student group. Forming teams to participate as a collective whole is the best.

To manage group work, students are allowed to play following roles:

- the Controller – the student who verifys if everyone understands what is working;
- the Reader – the student which is reading in front of the group written materials;
- the Detective – the student seeking for necessary information from different sources;
- the Stopwatch – the student which takes care that the group focuses on the task and the work to be carried out within the time limits set;
- the Active communicator - is one that repeats or re-formulates what others have said;
- The Synthetic – raw the conclusions from the discussions in a way that makes sense;;
- Presenter / rapporteur – the one who presented the results.

Some roles may be missing when the group consists of 5 students. Importantly, whenever students are working in groups to enter every type of role, to understand the requirements and learn to see the problem solved in several ways.

As effect, students take different roles in activities and those roles are changing when students practice different ways of thinking: collecting information, organizing information, processing it, make predictions and conclusions, the teacher explaining to students how to perform the task class supporting them with correct advice in the task.

If we want to have teamwork in the activity, it is necessary for the classroom allowed the arrangement of furniture in different variants. Class arrangement helps students to work together and communicate with each other. Such furniture arrangement should highlight the idea that students are important, that what they communicate is interesting and therefore they should share ideas.

The ways of arranging the furniture in the classroom are multiple, as in Figure 3-7 can follow, below.

When forming working groups, the teacher is expected to operate coherently linked as a team. But reality proves that things are not always so. What is the difference between a group and a team?

A team is made up of members who work together in order to achieve objectives and share these objectives important to their team. A group consists of students who are temporarily in contact for the job without sharing ideas and common aspirations.

The ways of arranging the furniture in the classroom are multiple, as in Figure 1-5 can follow, below.



Fig. 3

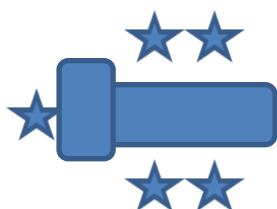


Fig. 4



Fig. 5

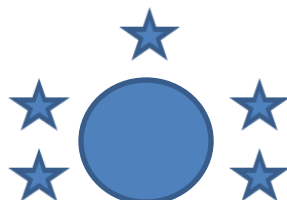


Fig. 6

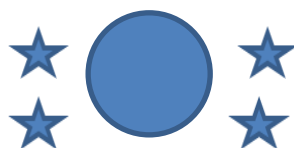


Fig. 7

When forming working groups, the teacher is expected to operate coherently linked as a team. But reality proves that things are not always so. What is the difference between a group and a team?

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In Figure 8. we can see the difference between group and team.

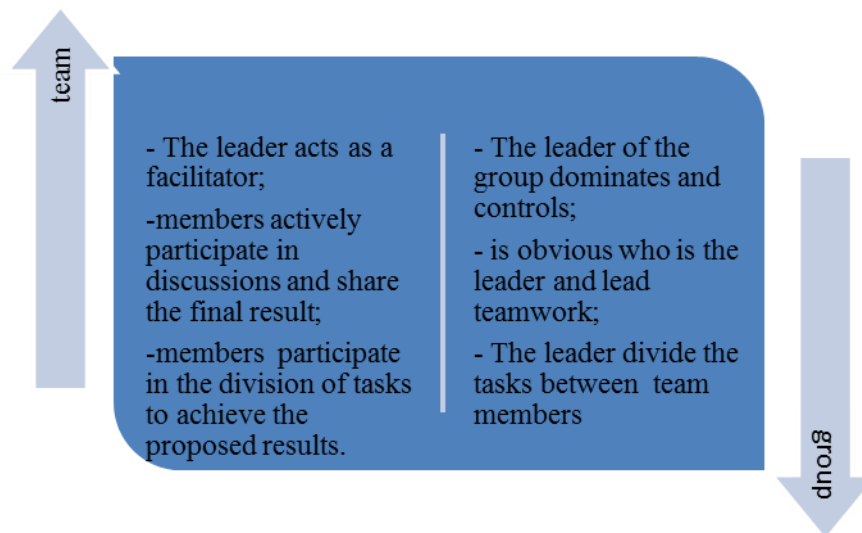


Figure 8. The difference between group and team.

When we try to form a groups this doesn't mean automatically we have formed a team. It's very possible the students to work together for a while, but then, it becomes clear that they will try to work independently, and then trying to pool their work. In this way they can easily come into conflict over issues related to work or personal. Instead, effective team members always work together, take up certain roles and responsibilities, help each other to the greatest extent possible, amicably resolve disputes, and not let personal issues interfere with the operation team (Oakley, B . and others)¹¹.

In order to transform groups into teams, the authors recommended to remember two important sequences: to establish a clear set of guidelines and help members to formulize a common set of expectations. Thus, they propose "Team Policy Statement" and "expectations Agreement". The Policy Statement provides guidance on the effective functioning of the team, emphasizing team roles and responsibilities associated with each role, working procedures, the mission and the strategy of the team.

Team Expectations Agreement is used in dual purpose: on the one hand propose a set of realistic expectations that members assume and agree to perform and on the other hand it prevents abandonment of any of the members. This last idea is based on the drawn conclusion from the research, namely that public commitments are less likely to be breached.

Both documents are given to students for signature in duplicate, one of which remains to the teacher and the other in charge of the group. If any of the students try to evade the teamwork later, the teacher can remember the consent and previously signature.

For team training Larry Michaelsen proposes three guiding principles:

- never use the teams selected by the students themselves;

¹¹ Oakley B, Fleder, R., Brent, R., Elhadj, I. Turning Student Groups into Effective Teams in Journal of Student Centered Learning, Volume 2, No. 1, 2004 / 13.

- create diverse teams;
- make transparent the selection process.

Once students understand their duties, they shall agree the idea that all are equal and each has different strengths that can help the group.

Training the teams and teamwork are more difficult to organize than specific activities of traditional education. If it does not provide student satisfaction, the obtained effect can be contrary to the one desired. So, the students can manifest antipathy towards teaching activity and to the learning, too. Therefore students must be supported to develop their skills in planning stages for work, communication and interpersonal conflicts.

The latter is one of the most difficult issues that arise in group work. For the student, on one hand it appears peer pressure to achieve specific tasks, on the other hand it is very difficult for students to talk when they know that this is likely to lead to conflict. Here comes the role of the teacher, who must prepare students to accept conflict as inevitable and even beneficial to the development team. In this situation, teacher must be a mediator, because pupils themselves haven't found in themselves the resources to overcome the conflict.

A question that often arises when organizing group work link to the contribution of each team member to concrete tasks, especially when one or two students do almost all the work.

Therefore the teacher must create forms of assessment of individual contributions to group work and ways to put the students themselves to evaluate their peers. The information recorded on these forms can help teachers and students in reaching accurate and fair assessment of the contribution of each student in the team.

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VI. School Discipline. Assertive Discipline.

Author: Carmen Sonia Duse, PhD., Universitatea of Lucian Blaga din Sibiu

The term "discipline" is referring to all disciplinary behavior rules and orders that are mandatory for the members of a community. It relates to compliance with the provisions relating the system of rules and behaviors which students should respect in school, to maintain order and tranquility conducive to carrying out teaching activities.

1. Some views on school discipline

When it comes to discipline, this must cover both the students and the school staff, teachers and administrative staff, which must comply with school discipline.

Each school has its own policy on school discipline. In Romania, issues of rights and obligations of students, teachers and other staff category can be found in the Rules of Procedure. It includes rules on the organization and operation of the school in accordance with Education Law (Law No 1/2011) and Rules of organization and functioning of schools from 2005, Teachers Status and Collective Labor Contract

Referring to school discipline, Charlie Taylor, British governmental expert in behaviors in school, has made a checklist of behavior that respects discipline in the school, which has taken account of all the factors involved. The school managers must comply with all provisions in this regard, as following:

Checklist for the school management

1. Regarding the School politics:

- Explain clearly what are the expectations regarding student behavior, so as to be understandable to students, parents and school staff;
- View school rules in conspicuous places in classrooms and hallways of the school. Make sure that students and staff know what it is there;
- View a list of sanctions and awards in each class.

2. Regarding the Leaders:

- Respect fully all provisions of Regulation

3. Regarding the school building:

- There are service teachers who work in the halls and in the schoolyard and who guard the observance of discipline;
- Check and ensure students entering and leaving the rest in an orderly manner;
- Check if the school building is clean and tidy;

4. Staff regarding:

- Know the names of all staff;
- Praise good performance of staff.

5. Regarding students:

- Are praised for good behavior;
- Successes are celebrated.

6. About teaching:

- Monitor teacher about the rewards and punishments for students;
- Ensure that staff praise and support positive, proactive behavior;
- Ensure that staff understand the special needs of students.

7. Regarding the parents:

- Building positive relationships with parents of students with behavioral problems difficult.

Checklist of teachers conduct

1. In the classroom

- know the names of the students in the classroom;
- receives students when they enter the classroom;
- displayed in a visible place in the classroom rules and sanctions and ensure that students know where they are displayed;
- displayed in a visible place rewards in the classroom and ensures that students know where they are displayed;

- visual display a calendar on the wall;
- respect the policy on school behavior.

2. About the students:

- know the names of all students;
- have clearly in mind what to do with students with misconduct;
- ensure that those involved know what to do when applying the plan for correct behavior;
- understand the special needs of children.

3. About teaching:

- ensure that all resources are prepared in advance;
- ensure that all resources are prepared in advance;
- praise the behavior that he wants to see him as often;
- praise more often than criticize;
- Treat students according to their needs;
- Keep calm;
- Have clear procedures for moving from one stage to another in lesson and for its conclusion.

4. Parents:

- offers parents feedback about their children's behavior, letting them know when they are doing good and evil.

As a result, the school should had a clear policy on the achievement of positive discipline. It builds a series of measures used by adults¹² to shape student behavior and to impose certain rules to determine extent permitted and educate. It does not involve the use of violence, although it may include the imposition of non-violent penalties. Applying positive discipline involves teaching behaviors, providing for student more opportunities to learn some essential skills and to become responsible and autonomous, independent. Positive discipline is achieved by focusing on behavior and not the person.

¹² Botiș, A., Tăraș, A. (2004) Positive discipline and how to discipline without hurting, ASCR Publishing House, Cluj-Napoca.

2. Assertive discipline

Being assertive means to support an opinion, to ask you the rights, to restore the authority. Assertive person behave in a way that betrays self-confidence, but also the importance or power it enjoys and the respect of others. Being assertive supposed to express your views, needs and feelings, without ignoring or injuries views, needs and feelings of others.

To understand assertiveness must take into account the characteristics of assertive communication compared to passive or aggressive, so they sum to be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Passive, aggressive, assertive communication (Lee Canter 2008).

Passive person	Aggressive person	Assertive person
Is afraid to speak	Interrupts and talks over others	Uses a conversational tone
Speaks "delicately"	Is blind and deaf to others	Looks straight in the eye and maintain eye contact
Has little or no expression	Intimidates others by "fierce"	The facial expression is according with the sent message
Manifests incompetence and withdrawing	Has a rigid attire, crossed arms, invades personal/intimate space	Has an open expression and posture
Isolates group	Is controlling the group	Participates in group
Agrees with others, despite what he feels	Is only aware of his own feelings and needs	Is always on task
Values more others than himself	Only himself it valorized	Is considering equal to others
Hates to offend others	Hurts others to avoid being offended	Tries not to offend anyone
Does not propose nor achieve goals	Achieves goals, but hurts the others	Usually achieves goals without touching others

Assertive discipline is based on assertive communication and is characterized by certain features:

- is clearly stated from the outset desired behavior;
- the teacher must be unequivocal in determining "I like it" or "I hate it";
- there is a tone of voice, strongly (but not screaming!);

- there is a continuous eye contact with all students;
- use reasonable consequences promises or previously established, and do not use threats and surprise punishments;
- planning assertive ways of disciplining;
- can complete a logbook in which to record major incidents and reviewed measures to be applied and their outcome.
- can request support of the parents in their efforts to help students.

Promoted by L. and M. Canter, Assertive Discipline¹³ is based on strengthening and is an interventionist, behaviorist strategy type.

Canter model involves the teacher to assume leadership of the group class, adopting an attitude assertive from the start and controlling the actions of students at all times.

Studies talk about assertive, hostile and nonassertive teachers equally with assertive, passive and aggressive communication types.

Assertive teacher is the one that respects the rights of students, but also ensures that its rights to be respected.

It shows students the expectations they have on their behavior, insisting that these guidelines must be considered permanent. Meanwhile, students' behavior are constantly reinforced in a positive and/or negative way. All the teacher's behavior is calm, balanced, without deviating from normality.

The hostile (aggressive) teacher is based on sarcasm and / or threat, placing himself in position of superiority regarding his students. He uses discipline retention strategies that affect emotionally the students, causing disrespect, undermines security and belonging needs of students. Most often this style hurts the feelings of students and also violates the rights of students to choose their own conduct, knowingly consequences arising. It is unlikely that learning will occur under the baton of such a teacher.

Nonassertive (passive) teacher communication is a passive, weak, inconsistent, with no requests and without clear expectations for the students. As such a teacher does not offer sets and does not show out ways forward in teaching and therefore does not indicate the path to follow students in learning. As a result students often feel confused and do not know what is expected, specifically from them. There are no standards in teaching nor in learning.

¹³ Canter, L. (2009) Assertive Discipline Positive Behavior Management for Today's Classroom. SOLUTION TREE
Bloomington, USA.

The conclusion of the three styles of behavior is that:

- assertive teachers to fulfill their obligations, they are doing what is must to do and act in the interest of students;
- hostile professors fulfill their obligations, but does not act in the interests of students;
- non-assertive teachers not fulfilling their obligations and they are not acting in the interests of students.

As a result of assertive behavior, teacher manages to implement positive discipline in the classroom, which creates and maintains a positive climate teaching act.

According to Lee Canter¹⁴, assertive discipline is necessary because:

- ensure psychological safety of students;
- applying it prevents wrong committing doing by students, which they would later be ashamed;
- by applying it, students feel free to develop the skills and personality traits or not limited imposed without restrictions;
- using them is built a positive and effective learning environment.

Learning and applying assertive discipline requires five steps, as specified Lee Canter.

1. Recognition and removing blockages

Canter believes that teachers are able to be assertive when required. There are only certain patterns in the minds of teachers, so they expect students to behave badly, to offend and to provoke authority. Assertive discipline is beginning with recognizing and eliminating of these stereotypes, and replacing them with more optimistic expectations. Also, teachers must believe in the idea that they can positively influence student behavior and to help students to correct their behavior, no matter the reasons that cause it.

2. Understanding and internalizing the mode of assertive response

Canter believes that there are three styles of response, as previously mentioned: non-assertive style (passive) hostile style (aggressive) and assertive style.

3. Establish boundaries

Professor Canter insists that teachers know very clearly what assertive behaviors they want to shape and the students need. Therefore, teachers must state first what behavior is

¹⁴ Apud Mills, M. (2010) Effective Classroom Management. An interactive textbook.
<http://booksta.sh/book/678879/effective-classroom-management-an-interactive-textbook-by-michael-mills>.

inappropriate and then communicate this to the students in a positive manner. In other words, teachers must specify the limits of acceptable student behavior.

Once limits have been explained, the next step is to decide both compliance and non-compliance consequences.

To conduct compliance, verbal confirmation is usually sufficient. When meets an inappropriate behavior, teachers should strongly remind students what to do. In this sense, Lee Canter suggests the following:

a. Requires desirable behavior by using questions, requests and focus on his own, as following:

- suggestions - remarks that the teacher specifies the requirements ("the class read quietly");
- focusing on themselves ("so loud that I can not concentrate");
- commands phrased in a positive manner (eg, "Would you please go back to your reading?");
- statements in which are directly telling to the students what to do (eg, "Go back to your exercise right now!")

Canter warns that applications may be unsuccessful and that things can happen differently than the teacher wants. Therefore, he suggests, should apply only to orders that can be followed till the end and the teacher is able to apply consequences.

b. Use non-verbal language to reinforce the message

The voice should express power, without being thundering, sarcastic or intimidating. In the same time, voice not be too cheerful, causing students to play or frivolity. Do not raise your voice to cover uproar in the classroom, on the contrary, it is necessary to speak increasingly more slowly until all students will look up the teacher.

Looking into the eyes - is a form of surveillance and it conveys a message that teacher follows them and that they can't do what they want. However attention is required here, because there are cultural taboos about watching eyes.

Gestures should accompany and reinforce the spoken message. Facial expression, gestures of hands and feet can give the desired force to the transmitted message. But take care, do not use accusatory gestures (index finger) or obscene gestures!

Using the student's name is mandatory, especially when addresses him orders. A general appellation (eg "girl !") is not able to effect the expected behavior.

Physical touch can be accepted in smaller classes where students are easier to usual routines of the school. If are associated with verbal messages, touches serve to reinforce that message. Pay attention to the use of these touches for older students who may react violently.

Moreover, this rapid adaptation is required psychological characteristics of group class, age particularities based on knowledge and behavior of students.

c. Insist in repeating instructions

Insistent repeat the sent message and not allow the students to deviate the discussion on another route. Narrate the desired behavior and verbal repeat firmly, powerfully, that behavior. Do this only when students refuse to listen, respond persist inappropriately, or refuse to take responsibility for their behavior. In order with their complaints, answer: "I understand, but ..." or "We can discuss this later, but now ..."

Do this up to three times; if after the third time did not produce the desired behavior, apply the practical consequences that students know.

4. Apply the positive or negative consequences of behavior

Whether students have approached the desired behavior or not, apply the consequences of this behavior. If students behaved well, rewarded him. If you have done wrong, punish them. It is important that students have already been informed about the consequences, good or bad, that follow their behavior..

Canter makes some recommendations:

- make promises, not threats. Threats wake rebellion in students;
- Select the appropriate consequences, above. Teachers should have a broader range of these consequences, which rely on when necessary. These consequences should be both positive and negative, with varying degrees of severity for infringements.

5. Implement favorable consequences

Usually when we talk about consequences, we consider negative behaviors. Often negative consequences application makes teachers do not feel comfortable. Lee Canter proposes to focus on the application of positive consequences, to form a favorable atmosphere for the educational activities.

To build a favorable climate, suggestions are:

- sending parents positive notes (by letter or on a telephone conversation). Teacher should explain to parents positive behavior of students, emphasizing behavioral change. The effect of these communications is a better relationship between teachers and parents;
- use of special rewards, guiding the students' attention on their behavior;
- providing temporary privileges - for example, the student may stay in the bank with boyfriend / girlfriend, or he can take the class mascot etc.
- rewards in collaboration with the family (eg home when students are given an extra hour to play or hobbies);

•group rewards, when placed graders to write notes highlighted student, notes that the student can go home and show the family, or may devote some pupils others' designs, which then appears on one of the classroom walls.

To build positive discipline in the classroom, the teacher should take the first steps since the beginning of the school year.

It is necessary to be presented to the students at the first meeting which behaviors will not be tolerated and what the consequences will be in case of such behavior.

Students must know the rules of behavior and what would happen if they violate this rules.

As example, the rules from Figure 1.

Rules:

- No one interfere with the learning of a student for any reason.
 - Nobody must cause physical or mental harm to himself or to another member of the school
 - Positive behavior will always be rewarded.
 - Before talking during class stands out and is expected to be appointed.
 - Always speak in turn in classroom.
 - Goes calm on corridors during breaks and without run and without raising voices.
 - At school it comes with all the necessary for the day.
- All indicated topics are obligatory.

Figure 1. Possible Class Rules.

The Canter model speaks about the behavior management cycle (Figure 2) that the teacher must follow when applying assertive discipline.

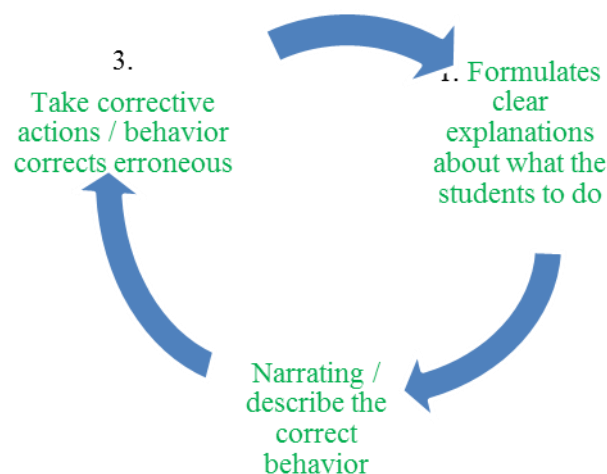


Figure 2. Behaviour management cycle.

Regarding point 1. Formulates clear explanations about what students to do:

Introducing the new lessons must go on creating opening motivation because the students understand that accept those contents that will be useful. Here it is when explaining behaviors that students must follow, insisting on the reason for such behavior. It is recommended to insist on concrete presentation of what students should do during the learning activity. To ensure that students understand what they are asked, they can explain keywords. Select then, one or two students to present the desired behavior, and other students to present not to do. Teacher bears the burden of strict monitoring of behaviors and any attempt to stop the breach.

Teacher's voice should be calm, sure of herself, to "fill" the classroom. The teacher will talk over a student who speaks and will not talk until the student does something else and not listen. Also, the teacher will not enter into debate with students.

Regarding point 2. Narrating / describing the correct behavior:

Teacher must explain clearly to the students what to do and how to do. Explicit behavior is described as:

- a. action verbs such as "No talking!", "Speak softly", "Raise your hand when you want to say something!"
- b. movement, for example: "Hold your place", "Walk", "Once you're done, go straight back!"
- c. participation in activities: "Do what you have", "Take care of your task!", "Go back to your partner!"

All of these behaviors are indicated by observable action verbs. As the explanations are more clear, the probability that students are doing what is asked is the greater.

Regarding point 3. Take corrective actions / corrects misconduct.

If after specifying and internalizing pursued behavior, there are students who violate it, the teacher should intervene immediately and correct. Thus the student is asked to immediately stop disturbing activity and return to the requirements set out above. Here Lee Canter speaks about the choice you have to make the student: to comply with the said or continue perturbing behavior, assuming the appropriate punishment. Some education specialists show that in this way the student is given the opportunity to make sure the election, without the imposition of the teacher. This makes the student more cooperative, more willing to be compliant with the activities rules.

Others, including those who criticize the Canter model, talk about the fact that students do not have the discernment to make positive choices and this model is manipulative.

Ultimately, it is the teacher's choice which way of relationship with the class will address. It's important is for him to achieve participation and involvement of students in active learning.

Assertive professor builds positive relationships and trust with students and teach them appropriate behavior, by means of direct modeling, reinforcement, encouragement, re-wards. The interaction with such teachers are warm and open, helpful and reliable for the students. One such teacher shows respect and builds relationships with students, speaks politely, have patience and treat honestly the students.

Even if we talk about discipline and punishment, let's not forget that the way we treat our students today, will decide the adult's personality of tomorrow's world.

“If a child lives with criticism, he learns to condemn.
If a child lives with hostility, he learns to fight.
If a child lives with fear, he learns to be apprehensive.
If a child lives with pity, he learns to feel sorry for himself.
If a child lives with ridicule, he learns to be shy.
If a child lives with jealousy, he learns what envy is.
If a child lives with shame, he learns to feel guilty.
If a child lives with encouragement, he learns to be confident.
If a child lives with tolerance, he learns to be patient.
If a child lives with praise, he learns to be appreciative.
If a child lives with acceptance, he learns to love.
If a child lives with approval, he learns to like himself.
If a child lives with recognition, he learns that it is good to have a goal.
If a child lives with sharing, he learns about generosity.
If a child lives with honesty and fairness, he learns what truth and justice are.
If a child lives with security, he learns to have faith in himself and in those about him.
If a child lives with friendliness, he learns that the world is a nice place in which to live.
If you live with serenity, your child will live with peace of mind.
With what is your child living?”¹⁵

¹⁵ A poem by Dorothy Law Nolte, source: Canfield, J. & Wells, H. C. (1976). 100 ways to enhance self-concept in the classroom: A handbook for teachers and parents. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

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VII. Conflict Management in Education

Authors: Sinan Koruc - Kutahya İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü, and Ismail Dincer Gunes, Ph.D. - Uludag University

Wherever there are people, there always will be conflict at one time or another (Cardillo, 2015). Conflict happens and it is an interactive process manifested by incompatibility, disagreement or dissonance within or between social entities (Rahim, 2001:365). Conflict is natural and it occurs in any social setting, including among friends, colleagues, families, groups or even strangers for different reasons. Conflict can be explained in terms of different levels. They are interpersonal or intrapersonal as well as among or within groups or organizations (Rout and Omiko, 2007).

People usually act on rational principles, but when it comes to conflict we tend to lose our temper and judgment skills. Since conflict is inevitable, then the individuals should learn how to manage conflict. How an individual manages conflict will affect that person's productivity. Managing conflict includes responding and resolving a conflict. To manage conflict effectively is a learned skill. On the other hand, how individuals naturally respond to conflict are learned behaviors (Lofton, 2010). Conflict management is the ability to be able to identify and handle conflicts sensibly, fairly, and efficiently (Mallappa and Kumar, 2015). The methods of conflict management are complicated as conflict itself. For example, managers have to deal with conflict in the workplace every day and conflict management can take up to 18% of a manager's time (Hignite, Margavio, & Chin, 2002).

If managing conflict relies on learned skills and behaviors, then techniques of management should differ from one person to another. Regardless of the conflict situation Thomas and Kilman (2015) defined five different modes for responding to conflict. (1) **Competing** is assertive and uncooperative - an individual pursues his own concerns at the other person's expense. This is a power-oriented mode in which you use whatever power seems appropriate to win your own position. (2) **Accommodating** is unassertive and cooperative - the complete opposite of competing. When accommodating, the individual neglects his own concerns to satisfy the concerns of the other person; there is an element of self-sacrifice in this mode. (3) **Avoiding** is unassertive and uncooperative - the person neither pursues his own concerns nor those of the other individual. Thus he does not deal with the conflict. (4) **Collaborating** is both assertive and cooperative - the complete opposite of avoiding. Collaborating involves an attempt to work with others to find some solution that fully satisfies their concerns. (5) **Compromising** is moderate in both assertiveness and cooperativeness. The objective is to find some expedient, mutually acceptable solution that partially satisfies both parties. It falls between competing - accommodating and avoiding - collaborating styles.

These conflict-handling modes are available for everybody. However, the degree of utilizing each other changes from one person to another. This variation may have different reasons but people tend to choose any mode based on the type (interpersonal, intrapersonal), degree (low, high), setting (traffic, work, school, home), time (morning, evening) or even number of people who are parts of the conflict.

Education institutions are not exempt from conflict. Conflict also resides in all level of education institutions. It can occur in any combination between students, faculty, administrators and parents (Holton, 1995). Conflict in education institutions is bound to vary based on environment can be ignited by a number of aspects. Factors such as location, campus size, characteristics of administrators, student population, and unionization will all have an effect on conflict (Garcia, 2015). Yet school principals as managers, are expected to be able to creatively address conflicts in their schools. Therefore, just like any other social setting, schools should also establish and accept skills of conflict management as elements of the school culture. Education institutions which are especially more prone to school-based conflict should find ways to institutionalize these management skills.

Preventing, responding or resolving school-based conflict is important to create a safe learning environment. The ultimate objective in preventing conflict in education institution is to enhance the school climate by reducing barriers to teaching and learning and thereby improve academic achievement (Dary and Pickeral, 2013). Conflict resolution education (CRE) programs are among the most effective way of managing various types of school-based conflict. These programs address different sources of conflict which can be found in any education institution and they are intended to help develop critical skills or abilities for constructive conflict management. CRE has been defined as “a spectrum of processes that utilize communication skills and creative and analytic thinking to prevent, manage, and peacefully resolve conflict” (Hess, Orthmann & Wright, 2012:352). Jones (2015) listed four essential components of a school-based conflict resolution program as: (1) an understanding of conflict, (2) principles of conflict resolution, (3) process steps in problem-solving and (4) skills required to use each of these steps effectively.

In a report prepared for the *Ohio Commission on Dispute Resolution & Conflict Management* and the *Ohio Department of Education*, Jones and Kmitta (2002) listed five main goals of conflict resolution programs. These goals are not mutually exclusive; any school can choose certain parts of these goals and create its own CRE program based on its needs and priorities. The goals of these programs are to: (1) **Create a Safe Learning Environment:** Through implementation of these programs a school can decrease incidents of violence; decrease conflicts between groups of students (particularly intergroup conflicts based on racial and ethnic differences); decrease suspensions, absenteeism and dropout rates related to unsafe learning environments. (2) **Create a Constructive Learning Environment:** These programs should help the administrators to improve school climate, improve classroom climate and promote a respectful and caring environment. (3) **Improve Classroom Management:** These programs are targeted to reduce the time teachers’ spend on disciplinary problems in the classroom and increase use of student-centered discipline. (4) **Enhance Students’ Social and Emotional Development:** Expected benefits of these programs are increasing perspective

taking, developing problem-solving abilities, improving emotional awareness and emotional management, reducing aggressive orientations and hostile attributions and increasing the students' use of constructive conflict behaviors in schools and in home and community contexts. (5) **Create a Constructive Conflict Community:** These programs target conflicts emerging outside of school and they tend to increase parental and community involvement in school affairs; link school CRE with larger community CRE efforts and finally develop more peaceful communities.

Based on these goals and models of school-based conflict management programs Jones and Kmitta (2002) created some variations of the more complex models. They identified some of the significant models as "Peer Mediation Cadre Programs", "Whole School Programs", "Additional Student Training", "Additional Staff Training", "Curriculum Infusion", "Community-Linked Programs", "Cadre-Linked Programs" and "Peace and Safety Networks". Jones and Kmitta provided detailed discussion of these models and the ways of implementing these programs in their report as well. To have a successful CRE program, participants must support the program enthusiastically. The possible participant of a CRE program are the administrators, teachers, students, staff, parents, other community members and the site leadership team who are responsible for implementing the program.

CRE programs make a positive difference (Jones & Kmitta, 2000). Greenberg et al. (2003) also suggest that these programs make a difference in improvements in interpersonal skills, quality of peer and adult relationships, and academic achievement; as well as reductions in problem behaviors such as school misbehavior and truancy, violence and aggression. Furthermore, Zins et al., (2004) noted that students' social-emotional competence fosters better academic performance through CRE programs. Another example that shows the effectiveness of CRE programs is the Johnson, Johnson and Tjosvold's (2000) study. They overviewed the research conducted over the past thirty years, noting that these programs has proven impacts for achievement and retention, quality of problem solving, cognitive reasoning, motivation to achieve, and creativity, task involvement, and attitude change.

Organizations that do not acknowledge existing conflict tend to be the organizations that have poor conflict-related guidance policies. Therefore, it is important that education institutions acknowledge the inevitable incidence of conflict and manage it appropriately (Garcia, 2015). Finally, it is important to keep in mind that conflict management that values cooperation may lead to more affirmative results for individuals and organizations. Conflict management that does not value cooperation can lead to more negative outcomes and can intensify conflicts (Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993).

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VIII. The capitalization of sociometric techniques in studying groups/student classrooms

Author: Daniela Cretu, Universitatea of Lucian Blaga din Sibiu

What is sociometry?

The word **sociometry** comes from the Latin “socius”, meaning social and the Latin “metrum,” meaning measure. As these roots imply, sociometry is a way of measuring the degree of relatedness among people.

Sociometry has been developed as theory and method by the Romanian origin psychotherapist/ sociologist Jacob Levy Moreno (1889-1974). Moreno defined sociometry as “the mathematical study of psychological properties of populations, the experimental technique of and the results obtained by application of quantitative methods” (Moreno, 1953, pp. 15-16). Jacob Levy Moreno coined the term sociometry and conducted the first long-term sociometric study from 1932-38 at the New York State Training School for Girls in Hudson, New York. As part of this study, Moreno used sociometric techniques to assign residents to various residential cottages. He found that assignments on the basis of sociometry substantially reduced the number of runaways from the facility (Moreno, as cited in Hoffman, 2001).

Sociometry investigates the type of relationships that groups develop. When they do a certain activity, people make choices (with whom we spend time; whom we work with; whom we sit next to in classes, and other meetings). These choices can be positive (choose/acceptance/attraction) and negative (not-choose/rejection/repulsion) and are based on certain reasons, which can be objective (a person’s qualities) or subjective ones (Sympathies, a good first impression etc.). The sociometric study allows the assessment of an individual’s position in a group/ community, but also knowing the relations that the individual has in a group. **The sociometric techniques** represent a mixture of processes and tools destined to record and measure the configuration and intensity of the interpersonal relations inside a social group (Soponaru, Tincu, 2013). They are helpful in knowing the human interactions that are established within a social group, in assessing dynamics and development in groups, but also for interventions to bring positive change and for determining the extent of change, for reducing conflict and improving communication and group cohesion. Sociometric techniques can be applied in educational, military, in therapy management. Sociometric techniques include: the sociometric test, the sociometric matrix, the sociogram and sociometric indexes.

Sociometric research methodology in the classroom/ students group

The classroom as a group formally constituted on the basis of school regulations provides a common framework in which school activity operates and is one of the areas of sociometric investigation. Within the context of school-group activities, communication relationships develop, but also influence and social/ emotional (preferential) relationships. The interaction between group members is direct, face to face, and consumed on several levels: teacher-student, student-student, student-group, group-group.

One can speak of a formal structure of the group, and an informal one. The formal structure is generated by the investment of group members with different roles, functions, responsibilities in order to achieve certain goals. As a result of this structure, the formal leaders, the official ones (such as the head of the class) appear. At the class level the informal structure (unofficial) develops too, which is the result of inter-relationships that appear between the members of the group. This structure is based on sympathy, antipathy or indifference relationships and the emotional character dominates. In this case we speak of informal leaders (preferred people).

A teacher is expected to know this informal structure too- which can act in convergence or divergence with the official structure. This knowledge is essential to the teacher in order to prepare and implement the intervention strategies inside the group, to improve communication between the group members, to avoid conflicts and to increase the group's cohesion.

In a sociometric research conducted at classroom/ school group level there are certain steps to follow, such as:

- creating the instruments needed to collect information (the sociometric test)
- administering the sociometric test
- the analysis and data processing (by building the sociometric matrix, the sociogram and calculating the sociometric indexes)
- interpretation of results; using them in the educational activity(Soponaru, Tincu, 2013, Cauc, 2007).

Building the information collecting instruments (the sociometric test)

The main instrument to verify the interactions in a group is the sociometric test. The sociometric test contains a series of questions by which the members of a group (classroom) are required to indicate the peers they prefer, respectively they don't prefer to associate with in order to participate in a common activity. For example, in school, students could be asked

to express their options regarding desk mates, group learning activities, creating teams for project activities, who to spend free time with etc. The test must have a real motivation and to match the current activities of the subjects.

The sociometric test is used with a double purpose: it allows the determination of the place an individual takes in the context of inter-personal relationships in a group (how popular, or, by opposition, how isolated/rejected/ignored they are); it allows the detection of the psychological structure of the group, with its various substructures, influence centers, cohesion degrees etc.

When formulating the questions for such a test, one must consider (Soponaru, Tincu, 2013):

- Setting a limit for the preferred area (classroom, work team etc.); depending on the objective, one can choose from the classroom the students are a part of, or might extend to other classrooms too.
- Defining the quality of preference- choice, rejection, indifferent to (e.g. “Name two students who you would like to sit next to in this class” or “Name two students who you would not pick to sit next to”; “Name three classmates with whom you would most like to be in a learning team and the three with whom you would least like to be in a team.”) - one or more of the above; if we are considering creating work groups or desk mates, one criteria might be used. If one wants to study the configuration of the relationships between students of a classroom, more criteria will be used in order to check various activities (studying, free time etc.)
- Limiting or not limiting the number of choices and rejections; the number of expressed choices/ rejections can be limited (usually to three of them) or unlimited. Limiting the answers can be done like this: “name three students who you would like to...”
- Using a preferential scale and describing it; it is recommended that the choices/ rejections are in order of preference, for example: “write, in order of preference, starting with your favorite, who you would like to be in a team with”.
- The sociometric test doesn’t require the reasons for a certain choice. These reasons for choosing or rejecting a certain member of the group are identified by using other methods (observation, interview etc.).

The questions in a sociometric test can also target the way in which the subjects see their own social situation inside the group they are a part of. Adding questions such as: “Who do you think will pick you? Who do you think will reject you?” and combining the sociometric perception with the choices/rejections that were expressed, one can obtain a more profound analysis regarding the subjects’ sociometric status. Following is a version of such a sociometric test.

Sociometric Test

Name/Surname:

Date:

Read the questions bellow carefully and try to be as honest as possible. Write down the answers in order of preference/ rejection.

A) Name three of your colleagues with whom you would like to work in the same team for a project:

1.....

2.....

3.....

B) Name three of your colleagues that you would not choose/ prefer to work with on a project:

1.....

2.....

3.....

C) Who do you think would choose you to work with in the same team on a project?

1.....

2.....

3.....

D) Who do you think wouldn't prefer working in the same team with you on a project?

1.....

2.....

3.....

Administering the sociometric test

Taking into account the fact that the sociometric test requests of the individual to expose personal opinions (positive or negative) towards their colleagues, it is very important to make sure they understand the motivation of the test (better student understanding, optimizing relationships in a group, offering support etc.). It is crucial to gain the subjects' trust and that the confidential character of the test is known and understood by the participants. The test can not be anonymous. In order to analyze and work with the collected information, the subjects' identities must be known. The test can be applied by an adult (can be the teacher, a school psychologist) and it is important to assure objectivity and professionalism.

During the test, it is important that the students don't communicate with each other, answer all questions, consider all the members of the group- even those that are absent when the test takes place. Each student receives a copy of the test and, in order to make choosing and arranging in order of preference/ rejection easier, a list with all the members of the group could also be provided.

Data processing and analysis

The data that gets collected with the help of the sociometric test is then centralized and processed through an instrument called the sociometric matrix. **The sociometric matrix** is a table with two entrances in which the members of the investigated group are alphabetically arranged both on the vertical and horizontal axis. On the horizontal axis, the choices and rejections expressed by every participant are recorded. If the number of choices was limited (for example, to three choices), the first subject that was chosen receives three points, the second choice receives two points and the third choice receives one point. The same method is used for rejections, except the values are negative: the first expressed rejection receives minus three points,, the second one gets -2 points and the third -1 point. On the vertical axis the matrix records the choices and rejections expressed for each subject by all the other members of the group.

Adding up the data on the horizontal axis (choices and rejections the subject expressed) will indicate the degree of emotional expansiveness of each subject. When the number of choices or rejections is limited, there is no point in adding up the lines of the table, as the result will be the same for all the participants. This is recommended only when there is not a limit to the number of choices/rejections. Adding up the data on the vertical axis will indicate the place one takes in the group, also known as the sociometric status.

Here is an example of sociometric matrix, which records the choices and rejections expressed by a group of ten students regarding their team work association.

Table 1: Sociometric matrix.

Students	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
A		2	-1	1	0	3	-2	0	0	-3
B	2		0	0	-3	3	0	-1	1	-2
C	-3	-1		3	-2	1	0	0	0	2
D	2	-2	3		0	0	-3	0	-1	1
E	1	-2	-3	3		2	0	0	0	-1
F	2	3	-1	-2	-3		0	0	1	0
G	-3	0	0	-2	-1	1		0	2	3
H	3	-1	1	0	0	2	0		-3	-2
I	-1	0	0	-3	-2	1	2	0		3
J	-2	-3	0	1	0	-1	2	0	3	
Total - choices	5/10	2/5	2/4	4/8	0	7/13	2/4	0	4/7	4/9
Total - rejections	4/9	5/9	3/5	3/7	5/11	1/1	2/5	1/1	2/4	4/8

Because the students cannot pick themselves, the diagonal boxes are cross-hatched. The sums obtained by adding the columns are then written as a fraction: the numerator represents the number of choices/ rejections a student got and the denominator is the sum of scores, the corresponding rates. This can serve to differentiate between the students with the same number of choices/ rejections, but different quotas (for example, the students I and J have the same number of choices, but different quotas). Also, the student F has the greatest number of choices (7), totaling 13 points, and the student E has the greatest number of rejections (6) with a score of 12.

As we said before, the answers subjects gave to questions regarding how they perceive the preferences expressed towards them by the other members of the group can also be taken into account. In this case, a separate matrix for sociometric perception is created, where we can analyze the expectations subjects have regarding received choices/ rejections.

Based on the sociometric matrix, we can calculate some indexes, by applying some formulas. For example, we can calculate: the sociometric status index, the social status index, emotional expansiveness.

The sociometric status index indicated the number of choices each subject received and is calculated by vertically adding the number of received choices, using the formula:

$$I_{ss} = n / N-1,$$

Where: n = number of choices student XX received;

N = number of group members.

In the matrix we presented, student F has 7 choices. Applying the formula, we get $I_{ss} = 7 / 10-1$, that is 0.77. This is in fact the student who received the most choices, thus being the informal leader of the group.

The preferential status index takes into account both the choices and the rejections each subject received. The formula for this index is:

$$I_{SP} = nA-nR / N-1$$

Where: nA = the number of choices a subject received;

nB = the number of rejections received;

N = the number of members in the group.

Working on the same example, student F has 7 choices and a rejection. If we apply the formula we get $I_{SP} = 7-1 / 9 = 0.66$. The value we obtained is smaller than the sociometric status index because the rejections were also taken into account. The value of this index can

also be negative. For example, student E who has 5 rejections and no choices, the preferential status index will be -0.55.

The value of the preferential status index show the position each subject has in their group. Knowing these positions allows us to check the degree of social inclusion of the group members, how much they are accepted or rejected in their group. In this way we can identify popular students - high acceptance levels, rejects- high level of rejection, controversial students - who are both accepted and rejected, isolated students- their names are mentioned very little or not at all (Leung, Silberling, 2006).

Analyzing the data from the sociometric matrix we can identify examples for each type in this 10 students group (table 2):

Table 2: Sample Sociogram Results.

Names	Number of choices received	Number of rejections received	Difference	Possible status
A	5	4	1	Controversial
B	2	9	-7	Rejected
C	2	3	-1	Controversial
D	4	3	1	Controversial
E	0	5	-5	Rejected
F	7	1	6	Popular (leader)
G	2	2	0	Controversial
H	0	1	-1	Neglected
I	4	2	2	Controversial
J	4	4	0	Controversial

Students A, C, D, G, I and J are controversial because they received choices and rejections too. With 6 choices and just one rejection, F is popular and the leader of the group. B and E are strongly rejected. H. is a neglected student since the name was mentioned only once. Additional observations, communication between students and teacher can help to verify a student's social standing among his peers. It is important for the teacher to know the data and intervene in situations that require, for example, when there are students that are isolated, rejected by their collective or it appears student behavior is misunderstood.

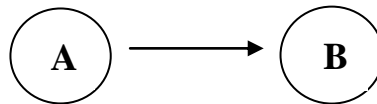
In order to establish the **emotional expansiveness index**, the choices each student in the classroom expressed are added horizontally. In our example it's no use calculating it, because of the limit imposed on the answers, thus making the index equal for all students. In other situations, when students are allowed to make multiple choices (unlimited), the index for emotional expansiveness is different.

The sociometric indexes offer us the possibility to appreciate the student's situation, both through their perspective on the group and the group's attitude towards them.

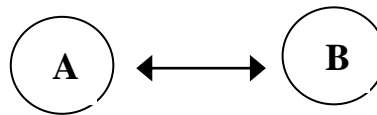
Another instrument used to analyze the social/emotional structure of the group, the place each student has, the sub-groups that form inside the group, the position leaders and rejected students have, choices and rejections (unilateral and bilateral) is the **sociogram**. The **sociogram** is the

chart used to apply sociometry in the classroom. It shows the interrelationships within a group. Its purpose is to discover group structures and the relation of any one person to the group as a whole.

The relationships between group members are represented by lines. For acceptance relations, we use a continuous line, with an arrow pointing at the preferred subject (Cauc, 2007). For example, if A prefers B, this relation is one of **unilateral preference** and is represented graphically like this:

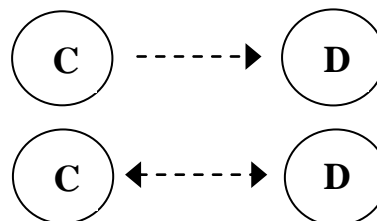


If B also prefers A (**Reciprocal choice**), the graphical representation of the relation is this:



Unilateral rejections are represented by dashed lines with the arrow pointing at the rejected subject (C rejects D).

Reciprocal rejections are expressed through a dashed line with arrows at both ends (C rejects D, but D also rejects C):



The signs are conventional. We can represent girls with circles and boys with triangles, or use different colors for each type of relation.

Sociograms can be **individual** or **collective**. The **individual sociogram** is built for each student in order to show his position (the choices and rejections one gets) in relation with the other members of the group. For example, the sociogram of student D is represented like this:

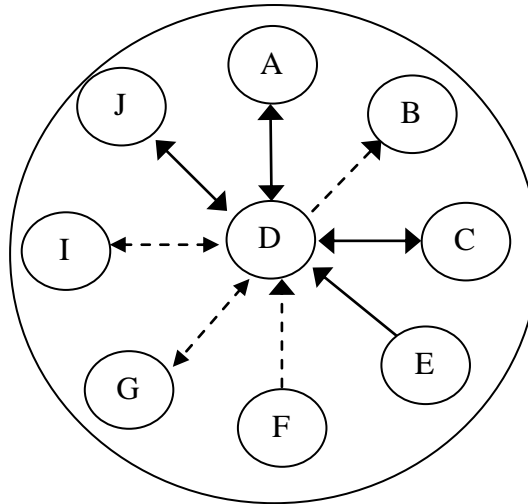


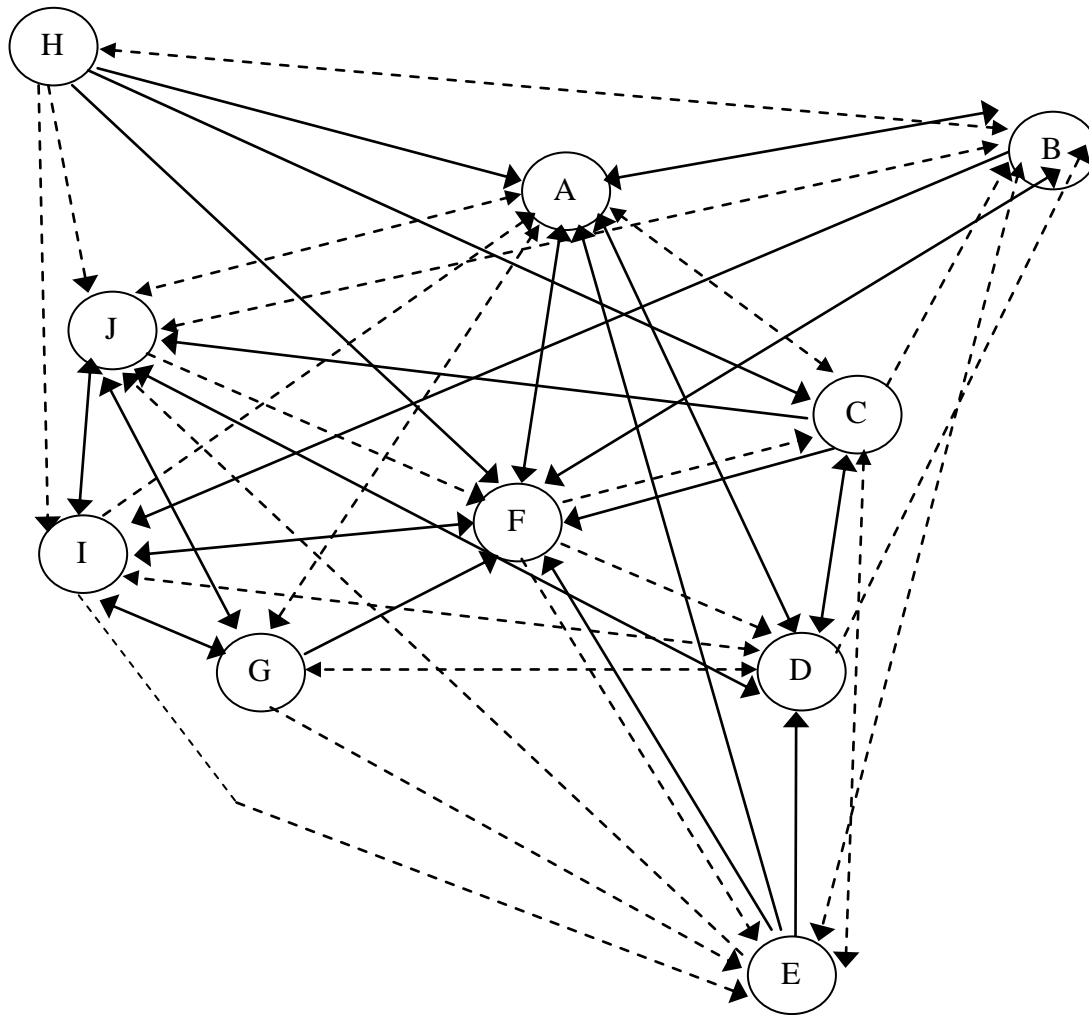
Figure 1: Individual sociogram.

Student D manifests preference for colleagues A, C, J and the preference is bilateral. D rejects B, G and I. The last two also reject him; B doesn't reject D, though. He is also rejected by F, but preferred by student E. With four choices received, but 3 rejections too, student D has a preferential status index of 0.11 and can be considered a controversial student.

Collective sociograms show the relations between individuals at the entire study group level. In figure 2 we are presenting the collective sociogram of the investigated group, the same whose data was presented in the sociometric matrix.

In the center of the collective sociogram we find the leader of the group, student F, with most choices- 7. Then, we have representations for all the other students which received both choices and rejections. We can see that students E and B tend to have the largest number of rejections- 5, while student H is isolated, receives no choice and only a rejection. We can also notice some triads, based on reciprocal choices: A-B-F, I-G-J, D-C-J. These triads can constitute the nucleus of the teams we wish to create. Placing children with mutual nominations into a work group, will facilitate their willingness to work with one another. The fact that student B has the sympathy of the class leader is an opportunity to integrate him into the group. Also, the fact that student E chooses D and D doesn't reject E could be the basis of these two being in the same team.

This could be a first step in order to better integrate student E, which is rejected by the collective. The sociogram offers a "snapshot" of the group's structure at a certain point, but can't tell us about the causes, nature or future evolution of the inter-relations in the group. Still, by comparing more sociograms, created at different moments, we could see a dynamic of the collective, the changes that occur inside the inter-personal networks.



Interpreting results and using them for educational activities

The sociogram is an important tool for teachers in terms of understanding the relationships within classrooms. Its value to the teacher is in its potentiality for developing greater understanding of individual and group behavior, so that he may operate more wisely in group management. The sociometric assessment would allow teachers and educators to gain perspective on how students view each other, and would be especially helpful to identify those students who are in need of additional intervention either at school or from external sources.

Processing the data from the sociogram and the sociometric matrix can bring into focus aspects that are relevant both at an individual level and a group level. Individually, we can establish the position a student has in his group.

Within a group some individuals are more accepted than others. Some are more rejected or isolated and others are controversial (they receive choices and rejections too). For the teacher,

the data obtained from the sociometric testing/ sociogram can constitute a starting point for case analysis (especially in the case of leaders and rejected and isolated students).

For example the informal leader might not be the same as the formal one. In this case, the teacher must analyze the nature of the influence the informal leader has (these influences could be positive or negative), and the relationship with the formal leader. A tense relationship between the two could be a permanent conflict source in the classroom. The rejected or isolated students can be newcomers in the collective or maybe they simply have limited social skills and need help to be integrated in the collective. Or it could be the case of children with special education needs (such as learning problems, mental retardation, attention deficit disorders, autism spectrum disorders and so on), who often have social skills deficits and negative peer perceptions and who also need intervention for adaptive behaviors or socio-emotional problems.

When we analyze the inter-personal relations that are being established in a group it is important to know the reciprocal preferences but also the mutual rejections. The density of rejections is an important clue about the group's unity, or, conversely, the group's splitting potential (Soponaru, Tincu, 2013). Depending on how the relationships are distributed we can identify some network types: dyads (students who choose each other), triangles (three students with reciprocal choices), square (four students who choose each other) or chains (D chooses E, E chooses F and so on). In some cases the group can be split into more sub-groups that can be hostile. This aspect affects group cohesion because of the tensions, conflict and lack of communication that might appear. The presentation of the sociometric test's results must be done very carefully in order not to create conflicts or worsen relationships inside the group.

Because the sociometric test only shows the relations within a group at a certain moment, it's essential that the teacher combines sociometric techniques with other methods (observation, interview, case study and so on), methods that offer more information about the members of the group in study. It is important that the teachers initiate actions by which the students get to know each other better, establish common goals for the group, promote team work in instructional situations and develop support measures for those who need integration in the collective.

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Kontakt:

Maria Karkowska – mf@kszia.internetdsl.pl