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## **Comparative Analysis Of Migrant Worker Policy In Asian Countries**

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### **ABSTRACT**

This research paper highlights present issues of immigrant workers in 4 Asian countries. The paper begins with a solid introduction of the current situation. Thereafter, it illustrates the nationalistic policies for migrant workers. Subsequently, the paper describes a host and sender countries of issues relevant to migrant workers as well as the trade unions. In addition, the paper provides suggestions and proposals within the discussion section and lastly gives a conclusion with a futuristic viewpoint.

**Keywords:** ASEAN countries, migrant worker, migrant policy

## INTRODUCTION

Foreign immigrants are working all across the South Asian landscape. During the period spanning from the later parts of the nineteenth century to the early twentieth century, Southeast Asian nations experienced a mass influx of migrant of Chinese and Indian working class. Being an important hallmark of Asian globalization, the labour movements not only provide the much needed linkage between the Empire and the colonies, but also availed the countries the opportunity to tap the various benefits associated with trade and commodity exchanges beyond the frontiers. Shortly after the first quarter of the twentieth century however, the transnational movements became largely restricted due to stiffer border control measures imposed by the colonial administrations coupled with their introduction of policies geared towards controlling the density of Chinese and Indian migrants in the colonies. Consequently, mass movement of migrant workers in search of blue-collar jobs became largely controlled by the 60s as the colonies regained their independence and thus implementing even stiffer immigration laws (Kaur, 2006,p.43).

By the 1970s and 1980s, Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand, which were the main newly industrializing Southeast Asian nations, embraced the export-oriented industrialization approach, focusing on the worldwide redistribution and relocation of manufacturing sites as well as the setting up of subsidiary production sites for the region. With the sprouting of these production plants, these countries eventually ran out of the quantity of workforce required to sustain the rate of production; and thus, had to resort to the more populated nations of the region for the extra labor required to be at par with the rate of industrialization. In this way, labour migration eventually became an integral component in the economic progress of these countries, embedded in their economies regardless of the turbulence in the labor market (Athukorala & Manning, 1999).Also, the population dwells in the rural areas and subsequently moves into the city area to find better opportunities. The rural communities are reservoirs of

menial labour. In case of a particular country, the migration rate is measured by demand of labour in city areas. Thus, mostly the labor movement is from rural areas to city areas. Urbanization and industrialization are new phenomena in the case of South East Asia; vast quantities of urban labor workers were immigrant laborers. Another facet shown here is that population growth in the city areas of South East Asian states is least due to birth rate. Thus, the rate of migration was the sole cause of population saturation.

In response to the labor migration patterns, these countries also established monitoring and control mechanisms to the flow of migrant workers, resulting in the sprouting of a new dimension in the geopolitical history of temporary labor migration in Southeast Asia. In particular, this new dimension of migration can be best explained with reference to the rising level of regional blocks and the corresponding sprouting of regional migration patterns and migration gateways. In a comparative study on three migration factors, namely, immigration policies, institutional structures and governance of migration, among Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines and Indonesia, indicated striking similarities among these Southeast Asian nations. Moreover, the labor laws of these nations also exhibit underlying issues of gender, ethnicity and race; all of which play significant roles in their scale of preference in the recruitment of migrant workers. Given the lack of adequate legislative protection for migrant workers in these countries, their rights are often advocated by the civil society organizations and associated NGOs.

## **DISCUSSION. THE NATIONAL POLICIES FOR IMMIGRANT LABOURERS**

In the migration systems framework, the whole of Southeast Asia is perceived as a single labour migration system. Using this framework, a state is regarded as either mainly emigration or mainly immigration. For example, the Philippines, Cambodia,



Burma, Lao PDR, Viet Nam, and Indonesia are all regarded as belonging to the former, whereas Singapore, Brunei, Malaysia and Thailand belong to the latter. Similarly, in the ASEAN region, two major migration corridors were identified, namely, the archipelagic ASEAN corridor and the Mekong sub-regional corridor. The main destinations in the former are Malaysia, Singapore and Brunei; with the workers emigrating mainly from Indonesia and the Philippines. In the latter, the main destination is Thailand; with the workers emigrating mainly from the states sharing the Mekong River such as Burma, Cambodia, Lao PDR and Viet Nam. Eventually, the formation of growth triangles geared towards the facilitating trade, mobility of capital and the movement of labour, led to the formation of three sub-systems. These are the Sijori Growth Triangle (comprising of Singapore, Johor in Malaysia and Riau in Indonesia); the Brunei–Indonesia–Malaysia–Philippines East ASEAN growth area (BIMP- EAGA); and the Northern ASEAN sub-region (consisting of Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand) (Battistella & Asis, 2003, pp. 4–9).

On the other hand, Apart from the political benefits, the economic cooperation among the ASEAN member states, which is mainly based on the concept of economic complementarity, also reshaped the migration pattern of job seekers across the region. This partnership not only enhanced the free movement of people and goods but also constitutes an integral feature of globalization in the region. As nicely worded by the Secretary General of the United Nations, Kofi Annan:

"Today, ASEAN is not only a well-functioning, indispensable reality in the region. It is a real force to be reckoned with far beyond the region. It is also a trusted partner of the United Nations in the field of development." (Ibid)

Another important treaty of importance in the region is the Framework Agreement on Enhancing ASEAN Economic Cooperation, which was signed in Singapore in 1992, was meant to improve the competitiveness of the ASEAN region as a viable investment zone (ASEAN Investment Area (ALA)) by the year 2010.

Among the objectives of the agreement are:

(a) To develop a more liberal and transparent business environment among the ASEAN member states so as to:

- I. Enhance the level of both local and foreign direct investment in the region.
- II. Employ concerted effort in promoting ASEAN as a green investment zone.
- III. Enhance the competitiveness of the economic sectors of the ASEAN.
- IV. Eventually eradicate or minimize all forms of investment regulations that may serve as deterrents to conducive investment climate in the ASEAN

(b) The mentioned objectives are all geared towards ensuring an obstacle-free investment zone by the year 2010 (ASEAN Website).

According to Article 4e, the AIA seeks to ensure "freer flow of capital, skilled labour and professionals, and technology amongst Member States." Specifically, labour-related issues are normally addressed during the region's labour ministerial meetings (the ASEAN Secretariat).

Table 1 shows a comparison of the economic indicators for Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand, and their less economically stable labour-emigration countries.

Map 1 illustrates the general flow of ILM across Southeast Asia. It can be seen that the majority of the migration is towards the major NICs namely, Malaysia, Thailand and Singapore.

By a closer look at the ILM flows, one can clearly see the presence of interesting phenomena. In Singapore, for example, immigration not only constitutes a pivotal component of the national economic policy required to maintain the right concoction of the labour force but also plays an important role in the national demographic policy. For example, in the year 1990, Singaporeans constituted about 86% of the overall population of 3 million, which dropped to 60 % two decades later (i.e. 2012) with the overall population rising to 5 million (Economist, 14 November 2012). In contrast,

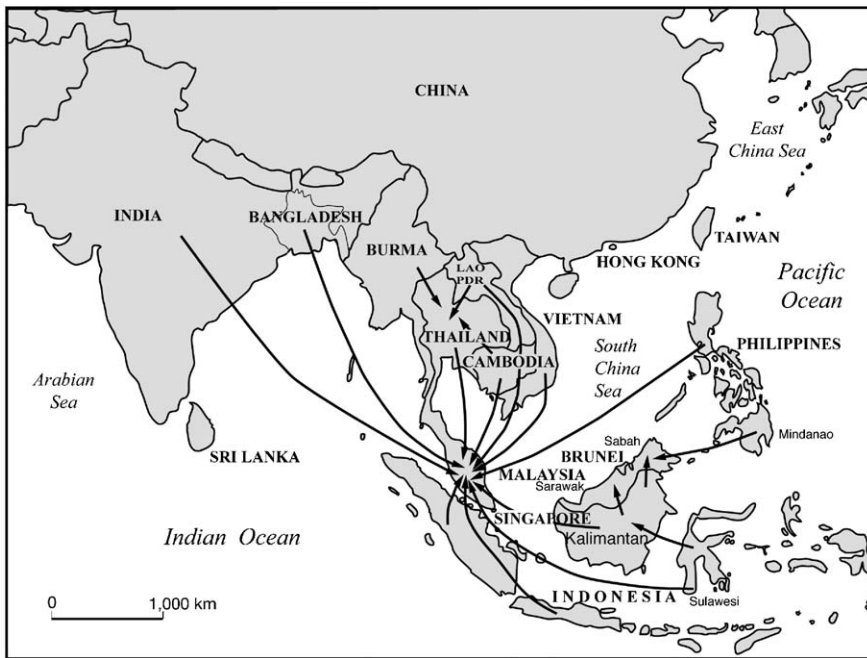
the foreign nationals constituted about 25 % of the overall work force in 2004, however, by the year 2012, this number grew up to about one third of the 3 million work force of the country (Migration News, Vol. 17, no. 1, January 2012). On the other hand, Malaysia comprises of about 12 million workforce, including an estimated 3 million foreign workers. However, out of this number, only about 2.2 million foreign workers are authorized. In Thailand, foreign workers constitute about 1.8 million in 2008, including about 1.3 million unregistered migrant workforce (Bangkok Post, 11 January 2009; Martin, 2007).

Table 1. *Southeast Asian migration corridor: main economic indicators*

Country	Per Capita GDP (b) (current international) (US\$)	Human development index (a)	Per Capita foreign direct investment (b) (% of GDP)	Unemployment (b) (% of total labour force)	% of population below poverty
Cambodia	944	0.526	11.10	2	35.9
Indonesia	3,557	0.629	2.2	6.6	18.2
Malaysia	10,432	0.769	3.2	3	7.5
Philippines	2,587	0.654	1.1	7	34.0
Singapore	51,709	0.895	20.6	2.8	-
Thailand	5,480	0.690	2.9	0.7	9.8
Viet Nam	1,755	0.617	5.4	1.8	28.9

Sources: (a) United Nations Development Programme, Human Development Index 2012; (b) World Bank, World Development Indicators 2012; (c) Asian Development Bank, Key Indicators 2011, cited in Asian Development Bank, Workers' Remittance Flows in Southeast Asia, 2013, p.50.

Notes: FDI = foreign direct investment, GDP = gross domestic product, HDI = human development index



*Figure 1. Direction of labour migration flows in Southeast Asia since the 1990s.*

Source: Adapted from Amarjit Kaur, *Wage labour in Southeast Asia since 1840: Globalisation, the international division of labour and labour transformations* (Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 2004), p. 212

The labour laws in the case of South East Asia were outlined, when there wasn't cross country migration. It was written keeping local population in view. So for states, where the migrant labourers are less observed in case of Vietnam, Indonesia and Philippines; there weren't legal laws for the migrant community at all. In case of countries, where the rate of immigration is sky rocketing, there are well placed laws for labours with airtight regulations. In law enforcement duality exists and so is the case with immigrant and local labourers. There are a variety of reasons for special rules and regulations in place for migrant labourers. But, that discussion is extremely lengthy to elaborate here. Hence, dualism is created in the labour market, which creates a window of opportunity for migrant labourers and local labours to get subjugated.

The immigration laws should decide the fate of migrant workers. A comparison has been done for some countries, which show a similar trend in dealing with migrant labours. Commencing from intake and hiring process, the migrant workers have a designated quota and terms defined by the immigration agencies. In most of the countries, the companies send an application for hiring menial labor in case of the host countries. The recruitment procedures are particularly hefty and that's why recruitment agencies come into play (having links with government agencies). All the countries agree on the fact that immigrant labours are brought into a country when there is a shortage observed. But, then again, this provision can alter or diversify.

The local labourers are preferred mostly paves way for rising restrictions on work visa and extension of residential visa. Apart from Singapore, because of As enshrined in the national Manpower 21 Report of Singapore, tapping the foreign workforce as a supplement to the national labour supply is an important component of the national economic strategy which is likely to continue to the near future. Among the six core strategies outlined are: Integrated Manpower Planning; Lifelong Learning for Lifelong Employability; Augmenting the Talent Pool; Transforming the Work Environment; Developing a Vibrant Manpower Industry; and Harnessing Collective Energies.

In Singapore, the legal issues relating to foreign workers are clearly stipulated in a trio of acts. These are the Immigration Act, the Employment of Foreign Workers' Act and the Penal Code. The Immigration Act stipulates the immigration regulation regarding the entry of migrant workers into Singapore. It also provides the grounds for law enforcement on illegal migrant workers and their employers. The Employment of Foreign Workers' Act stipulates the requirements for employment of migrant workers such as the issuance of visas and work permits as well as the levy of tokens on foreign workers. The Employment Agencies Act, on the other hand, sets out to ensure that employment agents do not over charge job seekers beyond the stipulated levels

prescribed by the government. Finally, the Penal Code outlines the punishments and penalties inflicted due to nonpayment or physical abuse of employees (Kaur, 2006 ,p.43).

The Singapore government initiated programs geared towards luring foreign expatriates into the country. These includes, for example, permanent residency offers, healthcare subsidies, educational facilities for dependents as well as provisions for affordable housing units; with the majority of these foreign workers from Malaysia, UK, USA, Japan, South Korea, China as well as India (Yeoh, 2007). With the passing of time, the quantity of migrant workers occupying professional, technical and management level positions increased significantly; rising from 11% in 1970 to 40% in 1999 (Gaur, 2006 ,p.195). On the other hand, the national policy on the hiring of low-skilled work force is based on the notion that the need for such skills is momentarily, in that the quantity required increases during eras of economic boom and the reverse is the case during eras of depression (Stalker, 1997, p. 255). Furthermore, the country also makes strives towards minimizing their reliance on low-skilled manpower. Unlike their neighbours such as Malaysia and Thailand both of which enjoy a wide expanse of land and thus, exhibit a celebrated agricultural sector, Singapore lacks the competitive advantage in agriculture and thus specializes more on manufacturing; with the majority of low-skilled workers being absorbed in product manufacturing industry, construction companies, shipping and other blue-collar jobs such as household jobs, care taking, etc. However, the country's immigration policies are regularly amended in favour of highly skilled foreign personnel, businesses and entrepreneurs.

In general, Malaysia absorbs the largest number of foreign workers across Southeast Asia. In fact, the country is regarded as both an importer and exporter of human capital. However, after a brief period of rapid transformation spanning for about a decade, Malaysia eventually became a net importer of labour by the year 1993.

In fact, this transformation began well before the nation realized full employment, with the national GNP standing at only \$1800, unlike Japan, Korea and Taiwan (Lim, 1996, p. 319, 327). The country's reliance on foreign labour also transpired amidst rising pro-nationalist tendencies with a growth rate of 2 to 3% work force; a rate which is largely greater than that of the majority of Southeast Asian states.

According to most commentators, the scarcity in the supply of labour in Malaysia is associated to the country's implementation of the New Economic Policy (NEP) in 1970, after the racial riot of May 1969 (Kaur, 2001, p. 165, 220-1). The NEP, which was primarily adopted for eradicating poverty, regardless of race, and for removing racial identity on one's economic function, resulted in the de concentration of Malays in subsistence agriculture and reenergizing their presence in other economic sectors. In this way, the Malaysian government began an explicit programmer of nation building with specific focus on construction, agriculture, enlarging the government machinery, and creating more white-collar jobs for members of the Malay race. Interestingly, this period also coincided with the nation's adoption of export-oriented industrialization policies, which resulted in more employment, especially with the sprouting of manufacturing companies as well as the implementation of control mechanisms in the labor market (Kaur, 2004, p.32).

Despite the rising employment opportunities brought about by the NEP, the racially inclined policies had major negative impacts on the Chinese and Indian Malaysians. Specifically, the policies not only resulted in the adoption of smaller family units among these races, in response to the shrinking of their share of the economic boom, but also resulted in the migration of a large number of these races to neighboring countries such as Singapore and Taiwan in search of greener pastures. A good point in time is 1991, when over 100,000 Malaysians secured various employments in Singapore, with about a quarter of this number commuting to work on a daily basis from Malaysia (Kaur, 2006, p.43); while a substantial number also

permanently migrated to such countries as Canada and Australia. In a study by the World Bank (1995), it was estimated that Malaysia created over 14 million employment opportunities during the six years preceding 1993, during which the domestic workforce was only growing by 3.9%. In their bid to fill the employment gap, the Indonesian immigrants were often the most preferred choice due to the striking similarities in the social, cultural, religious and linguistic dimensions between the two neighboring states. In this way, there is a continuous influx of Indonesians into the country, especially for low-skilled jobs in such sectors as plantation agriculture, construction and household jobs. While the influx of Indonesian workers was largely informal, the Malaysian government, in 1984, signed a bilateral agreement with the government of Indonesia (called the Medan Agreement) for the controlled supply of labour into the former from the latter for jobs related to plantation agriculture and household sectors. The following year, Malaysia signed a similar agreement with the Philippines for accessibility of Malaysia's domestic sector to Filipino job seekers; and by 1986, job seekers from such countries as Bangladesh and Thailand were also allowed to be recruited for the mentioned sectors (Kaur, 2006). In contrast to the Singapore scenario, the agreement between Malaysia and her labour-exporting neighbours enabled the country to amicably respond to the changing demands for labour by enhancing the immigration policies at par with the prevailing market conditions. In summary, Malaysia employs a fine blend of stiffening and lightening of border controls in a bid to curb the mass influx of legal and even illegal migrant workforce.

Like Singapore, the legal framework concerning foreign workers consists of the Immigration Act, the Employment of Foreign Workers' Act and the Penal Code. The country also adopted policies geared towards scouting for highly skilled foreign workforce through the implementation of programmes similar to those of Singapore. Nevertheless, the country's racially-inclined tendencies often result in conflict of interest with the desire for foreign skilled labour. Yet, the bilateral agreements signed



with her main labour exporters effectively avoided Malaysia from excessively depending on a single country (Kaur, 2005, p. 3–30). While the agreements are government to government, the private sector, which essentially employs these immigrants, is allowed to set up agencies for recruiting purposes.

In general, Malaysia enacts strict policies with respect to migrant workers. For example, the country's immigration policy barred migrant workers from bringing their families into Malaysia; and pregnancy could also result in the revocation of documents and the deportation of a female migrant worker (Lim, 1996, p. 319, 327).; both of which could be regarded as infringements on the basic rights of workers. Similarly, it is prohibited for a foreign worker to marry a domestic woman, violation of which could result in the revocation of the worker's documents and eventual deportation (Gurowitz, 2000).

In case of Malaysia and Singapore, the laws for immigrant indicate that work permits are given, if employers approve. The worker's work visa is terminated when the contract ends. This airtight control on immigrant is kept for keeping the surge of immigrants in control. It develops skill and capacity of the market. Singapore has achieved this to a greater extent. The migrant workers are kept limited to low skill and hardworking jobs. Then, the training programmes are tough and cut throat. In case of Malaysia, the high degree usage of immigrant workers has paved way for a different scenario. In case of agriculture and construction, the reliance on immigrant force has permitted the employers to exploit them and pay a minimum wage while providing substandard conditions for work. The de facto local labourers' protection is also taken from the employers as tax in hiring foreign immigrants. In case of Singapore, a monthly tax is to be paid by the employers. Same is the case in Thailand and Malaysia. The employers hand over this load to the immigrant labourers.

In case of Vietnam, Indonesia and Philippines, the immigrants give tax for working in a foreign environment. This translates into a large foreign cash flow in turn.

For Singapore, most of the migrant workers among the unskilled and semi-skilled enter the country with the assistance of recruiting agencies who normally hire them on contractual terms not exceeding two years, with the possibility of renewing only once. In general, these migrant workers are paid lower wages and salaries compared to their Singaporean and Malaysian counterparts. By the year 2000 for example, the monthly wages of Thais and Bangladeshis stood at \$450-600 while their monthly expenses stood at \$ (Kaur, 2001, p. 165, 220). Domestic workers, on the other hand, enjoy no standardized payment categories or contract terms. Their monthly wages are mainly dependent on the country of origin, where people from the Philippines are the most well-paid, followed by those from Indonesia and then Sri Lanka. The country also maintains three different categories of visas for the migrant workforce. These are semi-permanent residence, foreign professionals and seasonal workers. The semi-permanent residence status is accompanied by a semi-permanent work permit, and enables the migrant to work anywhere across the country with a five year validity period. Foreign professionals, on the other hand, are entitled to work permits which are renewed after a specific period of time and are only allowed to be employed in specific types of jobs. Finally, seasonal workers are usually those migrants who are usually given work permits with short validity periods (usually not exceeding two years with the possibility of renewal). Migrant workers who fall into the first category may also be considered for citizenship upon filing an application. These people are also free from restrictions on the type of job they can apply, and are allowed to reside with their families as well; even though these family members are not automatically given the green light to employment. Despite the fact that migrants holding work permit are often tied to a single firm, they are generally accorded unlimited opportunities to extend permit validity. Unskilled labourers are also entitled to work permits but do not enjoy the same level of privilege as the working professionals (Frost and Chiu, 2003). It could be recalled that for Malaysia, Indonesia forms the largest share of

foreign workers, employed mainly in the construction and household jobs, as shown in Table 2; which can be explained in terms of the former's preference for the latter. In general, the weak governance mechanism of Malaysia results in making the low and the unskilled workers vulnerable and marginalized; and can further jeopardize their legal protection and right to free movement within the country. The involvement of numerous government ministries in the recruitment of these migrants also poses a significant loophole in the whole process; and makes it somewhat impossible for disgruntled migrants to seek redress. Thus, such people often end up as undocumented migrant workers once their employment contracts are unlawfully terminated, thus, further exposing them to further persecution and vulnerability. Moreover, since their workers' passports are usually under the custody of their employers, they can easily be arrested by the local policing corps locally referred to as the Rela. In cases of capture, these undocumented workers risk being detained and subsequently tried and charged in immigration tribunals. Thus, despite the fact that only 3% of the crimes are committed by migrants, an overwhelming 33% of prisoners are migrants Ramachelvam (2008); majority of whom are imprisoned on immigration related charges, and given the fact that such offences are treated as civil cases, they may face long periods of detention without trial or with trials at very slow pace.

Earlier, the Malaysian government gave the employers the right to directly hire migrant workers, for those employers in need of not less than 50 employees. However, by the year 2006, the government began to encourage the setting up of hiring agencies, and for small and medium sized enterprises which are in need of below 50 migrant workers, to be dealing with these agencies. This period also coincided with a boom in the presence of multinational corporations such as Nike for the production of clothing and foot ware carrying their brand name. Furthermore, the relocation of a number of manufacturing firms in China and Bangladesh, in search of cheaper labour, resulted in the closure of some medium and large-scale production units.

Table 2. *Malaysia: migrant workers by nationality and sector, November 2007*

Nationalit	Domesti	Constructio	Manufacturin	Service	Plantatio	Agricultur	Total
Indonesia	296,984	210,838	206,898	40,116	267,615	102,629	1,155,08
Bangladesh	17	49,289	151,376	26,069	24,552	15,016	266,319
Nepal	30	4624	178,714	28,764	2810	8171	223,113
Burma	30	15,111	79,425	20,617	1483	6556	123,222
India	99	7577	30,803	60,750	23,298	21,631	144,158
Vietnam	10	5220	106,686	2826	90	623	115,464
Philippines	10,397	1686	2856	2765	5038	2581	25,323
Thailand	417	1105	790	15,216	63	555	18,056
Pakistan	1	4387	3296	1829	816	5080	15,409
Cambodia	6825	176	2404	231	201	86	9923
Others	893	2508	2857	3174	369	248	10,049
Total	315,703	302,440	766,105	202,357	356,335	163,176	2,106,11

Source: Malaysia, Department of Immigration, cited in Suaram, Malaysia Human Rights Report 2007, p. 155.

In Malaysia, the government's involvement in the hiring of low-skilled workers can be likened to bonded labour; and is in fact regarded as one with the worst attached conditions across Southeast Asia— for it eventually gives birth to maltreatment, exploitation and lack of adequate legal protection for foreign employees. In fact, according to a report by the human trafficking watchdog, the Malaysian government was put in tier 3 because the country is “not fully complying with the Trafficking Victims Protection Act's minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking and not making significant efforts to do so” (US Department of State Trafficking in Persons Report 2007); which was enough for the country to attract US sanctions on aid in specific areas. In response to the report, the US Senate Committee on Foreign Relations conducted an inquiry into the matter and further confirmed that Malaysia not only partakes in the trafficking and extortion of Burmese migrants along their border with Thailand, but also pointed blaming fingers at members of the nation's law enforcement agents such as the police, immigration and officers of the

Rela (US Committee on Foreign Relations, 111th Congress Report, 3 April 2009; Tenaganita, 2008). Despite the Malaysian government's announcement that it is taking action against officials in the police and immigration department found guilty of such crimes, the country was again placed in Tier 3 of the US State Department's Report in 2009.

A similar study by the Amnesty International under their Demand Dignity campaign in Peninsular Malaysia also reported that recruitment agencies are culpable of human trafficking, which is further aggravated by the *laissez-faire* attitude of the government towards the plight of these foreigners. As rightly worded by the Amnesty International, the Malaysian government cannot be vindicated in that it enacted very "loose regulation of agents, abusive labour laws and policies and the practice of allowing employers to confiscate their workers' passports" (Amnesty International, 2010).

Being the fourth largest nation of the world, Indonesia has a population of 226 million people with a growth rate of 1.24% per annum. Out of this number, the country comprises of 115 million labour force (as shown in table one).

In the 70s, when the demand for foreign labour began to hike in the Middle East, migrant workers from Indonesia began to flow out in their numbers in a bid to capitalize on the new job opportunities in such areas as construction and the household. From the 90s, the Government of Indonesia adopted a policy of labour exportation geared towards sending its citizens overseas for the purpose of picking paid jobs. Through the successful implementation of the policy, Indonesian migrant workers grew up to 712,160 by the year 2006, out of which about 75% were women (IOM, 2008); and by 2007, it was reported that when the undocumented migrant workers are included, the total number could hit over 4 million (IOM, 2008). Among the major destinations of these migrants are Hong Kong, Kuwait, Malaysia, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan; where the majority of the migrants are

employed as low-skilled or semi-skilled labourers in such economic sectors as agriculture, construction as well as the manufacturing sectors.

Economically, these migrant workers exert a significant impact on the Indonesian economy through the transfer of remittances. In 2008, for example, these remittances hit \$6.6 billion, with the projection that the number is likely to rise steadily (IOM, 2010).

Table 3. *Indonesian Migrants and Top Destination Countries (2009)*

Destination Countries	Total
Saudi Arabia	257,217
Malaysia	222,198
Taiwan province of China	50,810
Singapore	37,496
Hong Kong SAR	29,973
UEA	28,184
Kuwait	25,756

Source: BNP2TKI (The National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers) cited in (IOM 2010:9)

In the year 2004, the country introduced a National Social Security policy (No. 40 of 2004) obliging employers to pay social security schemes for their employees;

and for the government to assist poverty-stricken citizens. The main areas of focus of this social security policy are: health insurance, employment-related injury, old age, invalidity, and death benefits. For the achievement of these goals, four social security schemes were set. These are Jamsostek, Taspen, Askes, and Asabri (ILO, 2008). The Jamsostek scheme mainly focuses on employers and employees in the private sector, while the remaining three schemes are all focused on employees of the public sector as well as the men and women in the various security services. For most employees, the Jamsostek significantly enhances their healthcare and provides them with a substantial financial security.

With employees making routine contributions to the fund, the Jamsostek scheme focuses on a quartet of areas, namely health, employment injury, old age and death benefits (ILO, 2008). In a report by the ILO (2010), it is argued that the Indonesian social security system exhibits a narrowed mandate in terms of its coverage. As enshrined in the Jamsostek, for example, the scheme is applicable for staff of firms employing above 10 employees or those companies whose total monthly salaries hit Rp1 million (US \$117); even though voluntary membership is acceptable for smaller firms. In fact, up to the year 2007, only about 16.8 million of the 36 million employees in Indonesia are actually registered with the Jamsostek, Taspen, and Asabri schemes, depicting a 47% absorption rate (ILO, 2008), and this number is mainly dominated by the employees in the government sector and the larger private sector players, with minimal participation by the smaller informal establishments. Despite the fact that the majority of employees covered by insurance are those in the formal sector, much less than half of the employees in this sector are actually covered by the Jamsostek.

By the year 2007, the Philippines maintained an overall population of 88.57 million (National Statistics Office, 2011), including a 39.691 million labour force, out of which 36.821 million are employed (Bureau of Labour and Employment Statistics, 2011). While the formal sector consists of only 5,322,320, the informal sector consists

of well over 24,666,680 people by the year 2005. Among the sectors classified as informal include household jobs, vendors, small-scale farmers and fish mongers, non-corporate construction workers, minor transport operators, barangay health personnel, waste collection personnel, etc. (Ofreneo, 2009). Like Indonesia, the Philippines is also considered as a labour-exporting country, ranking third in this respect (UN, 2008). In a bid to provide a lasting solution to the unemployment problem, the president at the time, Ferdinand Marcos, implemented the idea of labour exportation to countries in need of extra labour. In a study by the Commission on Filipinos Overseas, it is reported that over 8.5 million migrants from the Philippines are working in foreign lands, including 92%, 47% and 45% regular, permanent and temporary migrants respectively (Commission on Filipinos Overseas, 2011). Out of this number, about half a million are reported to be undocumented. Among the major destinations of these migrants are the United States, Saudi Arabia, Canada, UAE, Australia, Malaysia, Japan, UK, Hong Kong, and Singapore; remitting over \$17.35 billion per annum into the Filipino national economy by the year 2009.

For the Filipino migrant workers, there are two main methods of hiring. They can either be hired through the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA) or via the recruitment agencies similar to those of Malaysia and Singapore. Apart from their recruitment role, the POEA is also responsible of monitoring the activities of the other recruiting agencies.

While the Filipino workers in the home front enjoy the benefits of social security, migrant workers in foreign countries are not by default entitled to social security. This is mainly due to such problems as non-availability of bilateral social security agreements with the host countries as well as the difficulty associated with cross-border transfer of social security benefits. In a bid to solve these problems, the Filipino Government introduced the idea of Social Security System Programme to Overseas Migrant Workers. This scheme was specifically developed for targeting the



Philipino workers beyond the borders; and for which, membership is purely voluntary. In addition, the government also negotiates for bilateral agreements with the labour-importing countries for social security cover for these migrant workers. In this way, the government signed up to 49 bilateral labour agreements with the major players by the year 2010 (CMA– Phils, 2010). In a further attempt to ensure enough protection for its citizens working overseas, the government also established the Office of the Undersecretary for Migrant Workers Affairs (OUMWA) at the Department of Foreign Affairs; and for countries with a high density of migrant Philipino workers, the establishment of a Filipino Workers Resource Center is mandatory. These government regulations coupled with the assistance from the 67 Philipino embassies, 23 consulates, 4 permanent missions, 1 extension office, as well as 38 Philippine Labour Overseas Offices provide extensive support to the working Filipinos overseas. (Department of Foreign Affairs, 2011).

## **IMMIGRANT LABOURERS AND TRADE UNIONS**

Another body that sets out to protect the rights of migrant workers is the trade unions. In Malaysia, the trade unions regard themselves as entities that work closely with employers and the government. In general, union members are entitled to equal rights and benefits regardless of nationality. For example, the construction union BATU (Building, Construction and Timber Industries Employees Union) endeavours to resolve emerging disputes concerning its members including migrant workers who are members. Some employers also assist their foreign employees to gain entry into the trade unions by subsidizing their union dues. The trade unions don't reject the hiring of immigrant labourers as they claim to implement equal rights for local/ immigrants. But, these trade unions still work in the interest of national employees/ labourers for that matter. That's their top priority.

The trade unions in essence favour the local workforce more than the

immigrant workforce. The interests of the local labourers are greatly protected. In countries, where there is a surge of immigrant workers, the trade unions become uncomfortable and sometimes hostile. The immigrant workers were hired to decline the wages and working conditions of the local workers. Thus, these local workers deem the foreign workers as a threat. They are prepared to work for even lower wages.

On the other hand, foreign workers in Singapore are provided with the opportunity to enhance their skills and to further attain recognized certification courses in their areas of expertise. Also, as an encouragement for employers to enable their foreign employees to improve their skill through certification courses, foreign employees with these certificates attract lower levies on their employers. Thus, about 9000 foreign employees benefited from the Basic Education for Skills Training (BEST) and Work Improvement through Secondary Education (WISE) programmers organized by the unions (SNTUC Background Paper, 2005). A study on Bangladeshi migrant workers also indicated that “a significant number of migrants had upgraded their skills over time” Rahman and Fee (2005) . Nevertheless, such opportunities are limited to employees in specified sectors.

In case of both Thailand and Malaysia, the surge foreign immigrants are seen as a threat to local work force. The trade unions don't defend the immigrants for that matter. The countries where immigrants are surging in, welfare and benefits are kept far away from immigrants. The South East Asian countries don't actually discriminate the collaboration of immigrants on a national level. Moreover, the migrants can form labour unions and join associations if they please. Now, Malaysian government has added a new clause thereby restricting the workers from joining labour unions and political activities for that matter. Moreover, the Minister of Human Resource has many times expressed his uneasiness at labours joining the trade unions and political parties.

The Malaysian labour rules don't prevent the labours from associating with a

trade union. The only clause in this case in Trade Union Act is not to spearhead the union themselves and form a trade union themselves. These nice clauses are often neglected by the immigrants. But, the immigrants have not been able to form a trade union, as there are certain hindrances blocking their path. Below outlined are certain obstacles:

- The language barrier
- Bullying by the employers
- Migrants are hired on contractual basis and joining political parties/ labour unions is not healthy for the work contract
- The majority of the immigrants are illegal and in the absence of proper identification/ papers, they can't take part in unions
- The laborers don't actually comprehend the functions and roles of a trade union in essence

There are tons of socio-cultural barriers apart from legal hindrances; these trade unions are still finding their own feet. The charity organizations and NGO's have taken up the job of working for these immigrants. There has been a growing awareness of joining trade unions by the immigrants. In case of Malaysia, many industries have commenced hiring immigrants for services for instance electronics, transport, forestry and construction. Trade unions are behind this. Vietnam is the latest entrant in the labor market and has created an organization for supporting the foreign migrant workforce (Ramachelvam, 2008). Vietnamese trade unions are keeping themselves busy with service providing initiatives.

The services are as defined by the unions:

- Introducing short term foreign courses
- Furnishing information on customs, legislation and working conditions of foreign countries

- The migrant laborers must have equal rights in terms of training, employment, wages, social security and integration in a foreign country
- Links must be formed between sending/ receiving countries for safeguarding the interests and legitimate rights of immigrants (Pollock, 2007 , p. 183).

There have been cases where migrant workers have been successful in shaping labor unions as in the case of Taiwan, South Korea and Hong Kong. They were organized keeping the immigrant forces closely. The local activist trade unions were also kept in the loop. But, that isn't the swansong; Malaysia, Thailand and Singapore are singing. They don't recognize and acknowledge trade unions shaped for immigrants. These three countries have a long way to go in order to attain ground on social protection for immigrants.

#### ASEAN and immigrant workers

However, there exists ASEAN standards for regional and international serving the rights of immigrants moving from one country to another. Social protection is a top priority here for labours across ASEAN landscape.

There are challenges for the local workers to gain access to basic social protection systems, which are in place in the ASEAN states. On paper, the policies and integrated strategies are observing more and more number of workers having access to social/ security protection in these countries. But recent statistics show that only 60% of the labours have access to social protection. Most importantly, in January 2007 ASEAN agreed to the Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers (DPPMW) which labour migration was specifically outlined as one priority area for developing programmers and working together with cooperation ILO. According to, there are proper laws on rights and protection of immigrants. There is an increasing interest in promoting these rights during the time of migration. Another important milestone in the protection of the rights of migrant workers in the ASEAN region was the introduction of the ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community

(ASCC) Blueprint in 2009, which contained clauses on human rights and justice as significant component of the community. Here, the ASCC specifically underscored its important role of promoting and safeguarding the rights and liberties of migrant workers. As mentioned in the community's blueprint, migrant workers' right protection was necessary "to ensure fair and comprehensive migration policies and adequate protection for all migrant workers in accordance with the laws, regulations and policies of respective ASEAN Member States as well as implement the DPPMW.

Then, there are clear rules and regulations allowing immigrants to social protection within the circle of ASEAN and also took up the following activities:

To provide civic education programmers on the rights of migrant workers

- To assist in the design of national migrant workers' pre-departure counseling
- To closely collaborate with the IOM and ILO in awareness campaigns for "safe migration"
- To participate in the campaign against smuggling and trafficking of persons across the ASEAN
- To cooperate with the ASEAN Inter-Governmental Commission on Human Rights (AICHR) and -other interested regional groupings for the promotion and protection of labour rights.

Unlike the Philippines, Indonesian workers overseas lack adequate protection from the Indonesian Government. By law, government support is mainly limited to the pre-departure stage. This includes, for example, skills improvement training as well as the provision of some information about the destination country.

In general, Malaysia classifies foreigners into three categories, namely: documented migrants, who mainly include low-skilled workers; expatriates, who mainly occupy management level jobs; and irregular migrants, which entails the illegal

migrants (IOM, 2010). The government also enshrined legal clauses establishing benefits for migrant workers. These include the accrual of wages and salaries, shift work, overtime payments, rest days, paid holidays, annual leave, as well as sick leave. Monetary compensation of migrant workers in the event of work-related accidents is also clearly stipulated in the Workmen's Compensation Act 1992.

The access to basic immigration rights to labours moving to and fro ASEAN states is pretty scanty. Philippines is the sole exception here, which has actually attempted to raise the immigrant status of the Philippines labours on foreign shores. The challenges facing this daunting task were sky high. Then, Thailand, Singapore and Indonesia lack the implementation of these practices for enabling better social protection for immigrants moving to and from their respective homelands. Indonesian migrant workers are provided limited social protection from their home government. Legally, support is provided at the pre-departure stage. Indonesian migrants should access training courses to aid them in improving their work skills, and to provide them with information about their destination countries.

Malaysian Immigration law categorizes migrants into three groups: (1) documented migrants who are mostly low-skilled employees; (2) expatriate workers who are employed in managerial and executive positions; and (3) irregular migrants who violate immigration laws by entering without authorization (IOM, 2010). Malaysia's Employment Act 1955 establishes the statutory benefits for labour migrants, including payment of wages, working hours, shift work, overtime, rest days, holiday pay, annual leave, and sick leave. The Workmen's Compensation Act 1992 provides some coverage related to work-related accidents for labour migrants.

Malaysia and Indonesia have signed labour migration MOUs covering short-term contract labourers and Indonesian domestic workers. However, Indonesian migrants, especially irregular migrants and domestic workers, continue to experience overcrowded accommodations, inadequate diets, improper health care, and physical

and psychological abuse (IOM, 2010). The Indonesian Embassy in Malaysia assists in providing protection for migrants, including shelters with a capacity of 70 people. The embassy also provides orientation programmers for new migrants arriving in Malaysia.

The immigrants are provided certain rights for instance medical rights and few scanty rights differing to various degrees, none of these three countries have actually thought of developing an action plan. Their movements to and from bordering countries gives them none of the fundamental rights they rightfully deserve. Indonesia has reinstated MOU's, which could give a plausible explanation for attempting to create breathing space for immigrants. Then again, no action plan has been created as of yet. Power is abused according to activists. Singapore has long been negating the immigrant social protection as a dismissive issue.

Thailand is a unique instance in this case, since it possesses a nondiscriminatory standard in permitting the immigrants, who crossed the nationality barrier and are legally imported, to have full access to their social immigration system. This has been achieved after twenty years of failed attempts at tackling the immigrant social issues which goes beyond medical care and failing again and again to safeguard the immigrant's fundamental rights. The past governments haven't been able to put their theories into practice as the massive number of immigrants isn't exactly aware of such rights. Thailand government has slapped the same rules and regulations as that of labors to immigrants for contribution rates and safety (not violating their rights). But, then there is no credible explanation of these rights and their implementation. Luckily enough, the system works appropriately for the immigrants.

In contrast to Malaysia, the Singapore Government explicitly made is a national policy to curtail the presence of irregular migrants in Singapore (IOM, 2010). Also, the rights and liberties of migrant workers are clearly guaranteed in a score of acts, namely the Employment Act, Employment of Foreign Manpower Act, Work

Injury Compensation Act as well as Workplace Safety and Health Act. Among the key areas of specific concern these score of acts seek to protect migrant workers from their employers include medical cover, personal safety, decent accommodation, timely salary payments as well as acceptable food and period of rest. While these policies help a great deal in preventing the abuse of migrant employees in the hands of their employers, scores of these migrants continue to face unfair treatments in such forms as callous work conditions, excessive workloads and unsuitable compensation packages. For example, within the six years preceding the year 2005, over 147 migrant workers, including 122 Indonesians, perished when they fell or jumped from their employers' apartments (Human Rights Watch, 2005; as cited in IOM, 2010). In response to these problems, the Singapore Government, in collaboration with the Indonesian Embassy in Singapore, designed various policies and programmes at the advantage of migrant workers. Specifically, the Government developed mandatory courses for these migrant workers, carries out routine spot checks at work places with migrant workers, and provides guidance and counseling to their employers. In addition, collaboration between the government and the civil society organizations help to further protect migrant workers. In collaboration with Indonesia, Singapore also maintains a 24 hour service telephone line for support to migrants and also arranges regular meetings with the Indonesian community (IOM, 2010).

The employers tend to decline signing documents which ensure the cooperation for working with immigrants. Then there is no implementation either. In case of Philippines, the case study shows that implementing the social protection rights for immigrants can take decades to enforce, apart from collaborating with the bordering states to permit the same rights across neighbouring countries as the immigrant migrates to a neighbouring country. Thailand actually needs to put its money where its mouth is. The clear scenario emerging from this research project is the problem of social protection for the immigrant labourers demands total



commitment from ASEAN community. The ASEAN community and member states need to act as a whole in this case. Assigning social protection for the immigrants is a tough challenge which needs stiff implementation from all countries in question, access to information/ data and enforcing common practices.

The nature of the immigrant workers is very volatile and one fact should be noted that these immigrants won't be given nationality in all of the ASEAN states as a resident or in working status deeply means that more collaboration is needed from member ASEAN states. It is the duty of the ASEAN community to allot rights to immigrants on a foreign soil and assign them their due rights, which should remain with them as move from one ASEAN state to another. There has been an absence of such issues and discussions. Bilateral collaboration is a distant dream as of yet. The international standards are pretty clear on immigration stance which should be implemented by ASEAN community.

It is quite a task to even propose the issues concerned with immigrant social protection, as the majority of the immigrants linked within the ASEAN community are unknown and allotting human and social security protection in this sector, in conjunction with international standards is a tough ask. The nature of the immigration with ASEAN community is pretty irrational. Addressing it is pretty important though while developing the framework of social protection for immigrants. Irrespective of regular and irregular, the rights of the immigrants remain a top priority.

## CONCLUSION

Contemporary labour migration within Southeast Asian countries, mainly consists of regional labour movements. It is additionally contract-driven, which is particularly characterized by a expanding, require for a spectrum of abilities with numerous career niche categories.. Within Thailand, Singapore as well as Malaysia

mainly men are employed are employment shunned by locals and are generally compensated cheaper wages compared to nation's staff and so they frequently function within dreadful functioning conditions. Their labour enables these places to help keep the competitiveness inside the global financial system. A good evaluation connected with regulation practices implies that the particular labour-importing places seem to confront comparable complications with governance connected with migration connected with low- knowledgeable migrant staff, especially home-based staff. Almost no protections as well as absence of legal rights are generally main contributory factors leading to the particular workers' exploitation.

The following suggestions were drafted in a proposal with the sole aim of assigning rights to social protection of immigrants:

1: The members of the ASEAN states must be able to derive and propose models of regional multi-lateral agreements/ frameworks as well as principles/ standards pertaining to immigrant social protection, which is drafted after considerable research, policy development, ethical practices, international human rights, rights of labours and rights of immigrants must be standardized with respect to United Nations and International Labour Organization.

The immigrant social protection must be a pivotal part of ASEAN's action in case of drafting a regional immigrant framework, which stipulates that the immigrants work force must be treated equally and should be given social protection same as that given to national labours. Their immigration history and residency must not be taken in account. There are three countries which should spearhead the commitment in this regard given their strategic importance in ASEAN community with huge number of immigrants travelling to and from their borders; Philippines, Malaysia, Thailand and Indonesia should spearhead the ASEAN immigrant situation.

2: ILO, IOM, migrant worker networks, academics, civil society groups, trade unions and employer associations must be able to allot resources and develop practical

policy platforms for keeping the interests of ASEAN member countries for developing the fundamental regional social protection system for immigrants. Ethical practices and sharing of expertise is critical in this case, but so is learning from the practical experiences of European Union and regional groups which have shaped and improved social security platforms for immigrants. It will change the climate for immigrants, bring them benefits and modify the model furthermore. Moreover, assistance from regional social security groups and international groups should also be incorporated.

3: It will take time to design and implement this regional framework, all countries and states who are the member of ASEAN should look for employing the present MOU agreements for the ASEAN migrants who aspire to reside and work. In case, there are no disagreements should then look to commence contracts and bilateral frameworks (part of the general labour agreement/ social security agreements). This is a method of outlining the practices, policies and system to guarantee well defined and concrete migrant rights for social protection. These practices, policies and systems should be designed after collecting data from research, policy development, ethical practices, worldwide human rights, labour rights and protecting migrant rights according to United Nations and International Labour Organization. There are only three countries which are keeping this promise intact by giving migrants social protection, developing new ways of accessing social protection, and keeping in view the fact that large amount of population is involved here in case of Thailand, Indonesia and Philippines should be the torchbearers of implementing this policy. They should also develop a model for best practices for the security/ safety of migrant workers and shared with member ASEAN countries. These three countries must be the centre of attention of civil societies too.

4: Furthermore research and campaign strategies must be developed for broadening and shaping migrant social protection systems for regional, domestic and bilateral capacities. Thus, more stress should be given to social protection/ welfare of

all the members of the ASEAN countries in case of the national work force and forming a final shape of ASEAN standardized protection and welfare. Moreover, broadened access to social protection in case of migrant workers must be given along with assigning social protection for all members of sector workers/ migrants. Equal treatment must be the aim to attain here. The migrant networks should assist the regional and domestic work force as well as social security networks. The migrant workers are employed in informal segments too. Until and unless social protection to informal access is given, the migrants will face tough hurdles in attaining such rights.

5: The concerned government personnel/ officials (apart from social security personnel/ officials (included)), parliamentarians/ politicians/ senators, regional migrant networks, trade unions, employer alliances, academics and human rights groups should seek help from International Labour Organization, IOM and OHCHR to gain exposure by attending seminars and workshops. Moreover, experience should be shared for developing models of migrant's social security for them to comprehend the fundamentals of social protection frameworks. Another prime focus should be on negotiating key social security contracts.

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## **Teaching in HIGHER education: Students’ perceptions of effective teaching and good teachers**

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### **ABSTRACT**

This study explores Chinese students’ perceptions of effective teaching and good teachers. The qualitative data were collected via semi-structured interviews with 72 associate degree students in Hong Kong. Adopting a thematic analysis, three main themes are found: teaching approaches and content, teacher-student relationship, and teacher’s personal characteristics and roles. The results show that the students perceive effective teaching as teaching in an interesting, clear, and adaptive way. In addition to teaching expertise, the learners also value teachers’ appreciation, care, and friendly relations with students. Enthusiasm and a sense of humor are perceived as significant personal traits of good teachers. Contrary to the traditional Chinese educational philosophy and Confucian-Heritage cultural values, the students place little importance on teachers as a role model. The findings also suggest that students’ perceptions of learning and learning styles may shape their conceptions of excellent teaching and exemplary teachers. This research not only sheds valuable new light on interrelationship between teacher’s personal characteristics, teaching methods, and teacher-student relationship, but also yields practical implications for school administrators, teachers, and teacher trainers.

**Keywords:** good teaching, good teachers, students’ perceptions, higher education



## 1 INTRODUCTION

The quest for teaching excellence has currently gained increasing attention. Teaching effectiveness and quality of teachers are important factors affecting students' development (Yin et al., 2016). Hence, it is important to know the key attributes of quality teaching and good teachers. Though conceptions of a teacher are related to conceptions of teaching, they are not the same because the role of a teacher may be far beyond performing teaching solely. Indeed, it appears that the attributes of teaching excellence and best teachers always overlap. In general, terms such as “good”, “ideal”, “effective”, “exemplary”, “outstanding”, “professional”, “excellent”, “best”, “great”, “superior”, “successful”, and “quality” teaching and/or teachers are applied interchangeably in reference to facilitate student learning (Alhija, 2017). In spite of a growing number of studies on good teaching and ideal professors, it is difficult to achieve a single agreed definition (Devlin & Samarawickrema, 2010). Students' perspectives are considered to be one of the most vital ones because they are the key stakeholders in the teaching and learning process (Hande, Kamath, & Souza, 2014). Student ideals of teaching might affect the quality of classroom interaction, their learning, attendance, and even career choice.

Because of increasing accountability, the quality of teaching of self-finance educational institutes has become under scrutiny in Hong Kong. Owing to the education reform and the government's advocates, there has been robust development in the sub-degree education sector. Although post-secondary education is an important sector, hitherto, it has surprisingly received little attention from educators and researchers (Chan, 2013). Given the rising public concern about the quality of teaching of Associate Degree (AD) and Higher Diploma (HD) programmes and the significant role of students, it is crucial to examine conceptions of effective teaching and good teachers through sub-degree students' lens.

## 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous studies on learners' conceptions of quality teaching and good teachers have mainly examined the perceptions of students in tertiary environments and western contexts (e.g. Basow, 2000; Woods, Badzinski, Fritz, & Yeates, 2012). Prior literature on Chinese learners hitherto is not extensive. Chinese students' views about a good teacher were examined in the large-scale survey conducted by Szalay, Strohl, Fu, and Lao (1994), which revealed that the participants viewed their teachers in an idealized role endowed with a great deal of authority, esteem, and respect. It also found that Chinese students not only considered their teachers as transmitters of knowledge, but also as "an idealized role model, a resource for solving all types of human problems, and a model for lifestyle as well" (p. 245). Cortazzi and Jin (1996) investigated 135 Chinese university students in Tianjin about their perceptions of good teachers by asking them to write essays on this topic and five major traits were found: "deep knowledge" (67%), "patient" (25%), "humorous" (23.7%), "good moral example" (21.5%), and "friendliness" (21.5%). Focusing on a single discipline, Xiao and Dyson (1999) examined Chinese students' perceptions of accounting teaching and found similar results. The most important characteristics included knowledgeable, the adoption of effective teaching approaches, being responsible and conscientious, making teaching interesting, an ability to encourage and facilitate independent thinking, and an ability to provide moral and behavioural guidance. Previous Chinese studies have generally showed that role model (*Wei Ren Shi Biao*) and conduct guidance are key attributes of a good teacher. It is suggested that the traditional Chinese educational philosophy and beliefs still have a certain impact on Chinese teachers and students.

Besides these, there are some cross-cultural studies, Jin and Cortazzi's (1998) research revealed significantly different emphases between Chinese and British students on the conceptual items as indicators of a good teacher. Good British teachers

were held to “arouse students’ interest”, “explain clearly”, “use effective teaching methods”, and “organize a variety of classroom activities”. In contrast, good Chinese teachers were generally believed to “have deep knowledge”, “have an answer to students’ questions”, and “to be good moral examples”. Such results embraced the conceptions of “knowledge delivery” and “conduct guidance” identified by Gao and Watkins (2001). Lai (2000) examined the perceptions of a good teacher held by secondary school students and found that Hong Kong students did not consider teaching methods as important as the Mainland Chinese and British students did. They were rather passive and dependent and preferred their teachers to explain everything clearly so that they could acquire knowledge in the fastest way. They did not care whether the teacher could help them to learn independently. The disparities among the respondents in the above research indicate that an understanding gap might appear in an educational setting where students are from different contexts and bring with them different conceptions and beliefs about excellent teaching and outstanding teachers.

### **3 RESEARCH AIMS**

The research pertaining to effective teaching and good teachers is bountiful, yet often conflictual in findings of characteristics of successful teaching and competences of exemplary teachers. Results of previous studies suggest that conceptions are context-dependent, cultural-bound and dynamic, and will inevitably change to some degree as societies change and time goes by. This gives the importance of studying conceptions of best teachers and good teaching in different institutional environments and cultural contexts.

In previous literature, most participants were advanced students in universities and, for the most part, were studying in Western contexts. Concerns about the teaching quality of self-financed post-secondary education in Hong Kong have been

increasingly raised; however, little is known about students' perceptions of teaching effectiveness and few of these arguments have been based on empirical investigation. In addition, most of prior studies on students' conceptions of good teaching and teachers are based on quantitative ratings; however, have not fully examined the traits and qualities students value. Qualitative studies addressing students' conceptions of ideal teachers and good teaching are generally rare but necessary (Könings, Brand-Gruwel, & Elen, 2012; Raufelder et al., 2016; Tobbell & O'Donnell, 2013).

Thus, the major aim of the present research is to explore how students perceive effective teaching and exemplary teachers by using a qualitative research design. Analyzing data by thematic analysis may promise greater objectivity than questionnaire-based survey (Smith & Osborn, 2008). The current study foregrounds the viewpoints of Chinese associate-degree (AD) adolescent students in Hong Kong, thereby offering significant insights into their needs and expectations from their teachers and yielding practical implications for various stakeholders.

## **4 METHODOLOGY**

### **4.1. Participants**

A subsample of 72 associate-degree adolescent students were selected from the sample pool for a larger project which exploring quality of teaching of the self-financed sub-degree education in Hong Kong. The data were collected from four educational institutes and the participants were recruited through email invitations. Participation was voluntary, and students were assured that their responses would remain confidential. The participants were full-time students studying Associate Degree programmes from three disciplines. 23 (31.9%) students were from the stream of Science and Technology, 21 (29.2%) from Arts and Humanities, and 28 (38.9%) from Business. Females and males comprised 54.2 % (n=39) and 45.8% (n=33) respectively. The participants were between 17 and 20 years old (Mage = 18.7; SD = .86).

## **4.2 Instrument**

Since the present study aims to examine student conceptions of effective teaching and good teachers, a qualitative method—semi-structured interview was used to explore how students perceived quality teaching and to discover the qualities and traits with students themselves used to conceive ideal teachers. The questioning was carefully designed based on prior literature so as to impose a real open framework. In the interviews, the students were asked to describe the types of teaching they perceived as good teaching and what made an exemplary teacher. Each interview, lasting 15-20 minutes, was conducted in Cantonese (1<sup>st</sup> language of the participants), recorded digitally and manually transcribed. In the process of transcription, all respondents were assigned pseudonyms. The qualitative data were analysed in Chinese, and the excerpts used to illustrate the results were translated into English.

## **4.3 Data analysis**

The qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). After the data were manually transcribed, initial codes were created and applied to the data set. The participants' comments were content analysed and categorised into separate descriptors, staying close to respondents' own words. Codes indicating similar content were grouped and thematic groups that described good teaching and teachers were yielded. After reviewing and refining the main themes, subthemes under each category were identified, revised, and refined. The main themes and subthemes were extracted from the interview transcriptions manually until no further ones could be extracted. Owing to the gap in empirical research that might provide a potential framework for data interpretation, the data were analysed inductively (Raufelder et al., 2016). A total of three main themes were identified in descriptions of attributes of effective teaching and traits of excellent teachers.

## 5 RESULTS

Adopting qualitative thematic analysis, the results showed three main themes (see Table 1) featuring attributes of good teaching and good teachers: (1) teaching approaches and content, (2) teacher-student relationship, and (3) teacher's personal characteristics and roles.

The first main theme of "teaching approaches and content" was subdivided into i) teaching in an interesting way, ii) teaching in a clear way, and iii) teaching in an adaptive way, and iv) exam-oriented teaching. Secondly, "teacher-student relationship" implied three subthemes: i) encouragement and appreciation, ii) caring for students, and iii) friendliness. The third main theme concerning "teacher's personal characteristics and roles" was split into i) humorous, ii) enthusiastic, iii) knowledge transmitter, and iv) role model.

**Table 1** Themes and subthemes of good teaching and good teachers

	n	Percentage
Theme 1: Teaching approaches and content		
Subtheme 1: Teaching in an interesting way	65	90.3%
Subtheme 2: Teaching in a clear way	57	79.2%
Subtheme 3: Teaching in an adaptive way	38	52.8%
Subtheme 4: exam-oriented teaching	52	72.2
Theme 2: Teacher-student relationship		
Subtheme 1: encouragement and appreciation	33	45.8%
Subtheme 2: caring for students	62	86.1%
Subtheme 3: friendliness	58	80.6%

Theme 3: Teacher's personal characteristics and roles		
Subtheme 1: humorous	25	34.7%
Subtheme 2: enthusiastic	48	66.7%
Subtheme 3: knowledge transmitter	35	48.6%
Subtheme 4: role model	7	9.7%

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### **5.1 Theme 1: Teaching approaches and content**

The majority of students stated pedagogy as an essential trait of good teaching and emphasized the importance of teaching in an interesting, clear, and adaptive way.

#### **5.1.1 Subtheme 1: teaching in an interesting way**

Over 90% of the participants emphasized teaching in a motivating, interesting, and fascinating manner as an influential factor. Students expected teachers to create open, stimulating, and creative learning climate which they could learn happily and interact with their peers collaboratively.

“Good teachers should be able to teach interestingly.” (Terry, 17 years)

#### **5.1.2 Subtheme 2: teaching in a clear way**

Most informants (n=57) addressed the importance of teachers' elocutionary skills and clarity of the lesson. They pointed out that well-organised class, teaching in an understandable manner, good presentation skills, and appropriate use of instructional aids were essential characteristics of effective teaching.

“I think a good teacher should be able to teach in a clear way that I can understand easily.” (Vincent, 18 years)

#### **5.1.3 Subtheme 3: teaching in an adaptive way**

38 participants mentioned that a good teacher would be flexible and able to adopt a variety of pedagogies, teaching and learning materials, and class activities according to different students' needs, abilities, and learning progresses.

"Different classmates have different needs. I think good teachers should take our various needs into account." (Owen, 20 years)

#### **5.1.4 Subtheme 4 exam-oriented teaching**

While the associate-degree programmes aim to provide post-secondary students with opportunity to acquire broad-based general education, the need for exam-oriented teaching was highlighted by the participants in the interviews. Even without the pressure of public examinations, the students were still very sensitive to assessments and grades. They perceived good teachers should provide them measurement-oriented materials and help them to get good grades in assessment tasks. "I think a good teacher is a teacher who can help me to pass the course, for example providing exam-oriented drills." (George, 18 years)

### **5.2 Theme 2: Teacher–student-relationship**

The majority of participants stated that ideal teachers could not only transfer skills and knowledge, but also build a good rapport with students and interact with them on a personal level. In the narratives, the participants showed their personal needs for praise and care. These expectations are further specified in 3 subthemes.

#### **5.2.1 Subtheme 1: encouragement and appreciation**

Around a half ( $n = 33$ ) of students reported their desire to be praised and recognized by their teachers. They believed that teachers' positive feedback was a direct indication of their success.

"I'm very happy when my teachers praise me. It's really encouraging." (Ada, 19 years)



### **5.2.2 Subtheme 2: caring for students**

About 86% of the participants expressed the need for teacher's concern and care. The students placed importance on teacher's sensitivity to their learning and individual needs.

"I like teachers who are willing to make effort and time to help when we have problems, no matter study problems or personal issues." (Pauline, 20 years)

### **5.2.3 Subtheme 3: friendliness**

Mutual feelings of sympathy, respect, and affection were also perceived as important attributes of exemplary teachers. Many participants (n = 58) desired a healthy, friendly, and good relationship with their teachers. Instead of the traditional authoritative role, they wished their teachers could be their "friends" and get along with them even outside of the classroom.

"I hope my teachers can be my friends who are kind and nice." (Sally, 17 years)

## **5.3 Theme 3: Teacher's personal characteristics and roles**

The results showed that teachers' personal characteristics and roles were related to teacher-student relationship, teachers' performance and practice, and students' perceptions of best teachers. According to the students' narratives, many participants talked about personal traits of ideal teachers. They tended to cherish teachers who were "humorous" and "enthusiastic", while they placed less importance on teachers' roles of "knowledge transmitter" and "role model".

### **5.3.1 Subtheme 1: humorous**

While the participants expected their teachers to retain their assertiveness and authority, about one-third of the students expressed that a sense of humor was a

valuable personal quality. They found humorous teachers tended to make the class “more fun” and “interesting”.

“I like teachers who are humorous. For example, they can make some jokes in the class.”

(Mimi, 18 years)

### **5.3.2 Subtheme 2: enthusiastic**

The results revealed that many respondents (n=48) valued teachers’ enthusiasm for both the subject and teaching. They tended to classify their teachers as “good” if they perceived their teachers were enthusiastic and compassionate.

“Good teachers should love teaching and love their students.” (Miller, 20 years)

### **5.3.3 Subtheme 3: knowledge transmitter**

Around a half of participants expressed that the primary role of a good teacher was to transmit knowledge. The results suggested that the students tended to rely overwhelmingly on their teachers. It seemed that some students preferred their teachers to pour knowledge into their heads instead of assisting them in the construction of knowledge by creating discovery experiences.

“A teacher is a source of knowledge. Good teachers should tell me directly what they know.” (Richard, 19 years)

### **5.3.4 Subtheme 4: role model**

There were only seven participants commented that ideal teachers should be a role model or a moral guide to cultivate students’ conduct and moral value. They did not put great emphasis on the morality and ethics of teachers nor the Confucian education model.

“A good teacher should also teach us how to be a good person.” (Stephen, 20 years)

## 6 DISCUSSION

The present research concurs with past literature that students perceive good teachers should be caring, friendly, and humorous (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996) as well as possess professional knowledge and elocutionary skills (Fledman, 1996).

### 6.1 Teaching approaches and content

The present results seem to be consistent with perceptions of Chinese students in Xiao and Dyson's (1999) study that important attributes of good teaching include effective teaching skills, making teaching interesting, and stimulating students' motivation. Moreover, in line with Kember and Wong's (2000) study that focused on Hong Kong undergraduates, the participants in the present study value logical organised delivery, systematic step-by-step covering of the content, and clear teaching information. One thing worth mentioning is that the results suggest that teachers' professional subject knowledge might not guarantee outstanding teaching performance. Stronger academic background might not necessarily lead to better teaching effectiveness. It seems there are more and more teachers possess a doctorate degree, but not many of them have received formal teacher training (Robinson & Hope, 2013). In addition to subject matter content knowledge, it is important for teachers to capture pedagogical content knowledge in order to advance quality teaching. The results also substantiate previous findings in the literature (e.g. Woods et al., 2012) that the students highlight the importance of adaptiveness and use of effective pedagogies. Best teachers should be able to use a variety of teaching methods, choose appropriate materials based on students' aptitudes and personal interests, make sure students fully understand the materials, motivate students by providing stimulating and supportive learning environment. This reflects the traditional notion

of Confucianism “*Yin Cai Shi Jiao*” (all individuals should be educated according to their abilities) has penetrated into conceptions of good teaching and teachers.

In contrast to many researchers (e.g. Kirkpatrick & Zang, 2011) who emphasize the backwash effect of exam-oriented education and suggest that exam-oriented teaching is not favourably received by students, the participants pointed out the practical benefits of measurement-oriented teaching. While the exam-dominated culture of Hong Kong education has long been criticized, the results suggest that the students still focus overwhelmingly on academic performance and thus prefer to have extensive exam-oriented materials and practice so that they might get a higher GPA and gain admission offers from publicly funded universities. Holding these short-term pragmatic objectives, they believe assessment-oriented materials and goal-oriented teaching are practical and useful to help them to improve their exam techniques and achieve better academic results.

## **6.2 Teacher-student relationship**

In line with previous research (e.g. Phillipson & Lam, 2011), the results suggest that teachers’ praise is an inexpensive and effective modifier of student performance. It is perhaps due to the Chinese culture, it is less common for teachers to praise students, especially low-achieving learners. It appears that sub-degree students might sometimes be labelled as lower-achievers comparing with undergraduate students. Hence, the participants might have a stronger desire for appreciation. It is suggested that appreciation may encourage students’ self-efficacy and enhance teacher-student relationship. The results also support previous research (e.g. Devlin & O’Shea, 2012) that many students need teachers’ individual consideration for their personal needs and problems. It is observed that many associate degree students, especially final-year students, generally struggle to find a job or pursue further study when they graduate. They need insightful advice to help actualize their career or study aspirations.

It is probably because of Chinese cultural values and Confucianism, the teacher's identity is traditionally regarded as authoritative and thus there is teacher-student power distance (Wenren, 2014). Indeed, this traditional value of high power distance has been changing. The results reveal that the participants prefer student-centered learning and fair teacher-student relationship. In the class, they can "have more freedom" and "challenge their teachers". Students nowadays generally expect teachers to use polite words, respect their ideas, and address their concerns (Kasuya, 2008). It is suggested that the roles, power distance, and relationship between teachers and students have significant changes.

### **6.3 Teacher's personal characteristics and roles**

The results imply that enthusiastic and humorous teachers tend to be more able to adopt innovative teaching methods, create a stimulating learning environment, and promote creative thinking. It is suggested that the use of humor may not only minimize boredom, but also provide social, cognitive, and pedagogical benefits, such as enhancing teacher-student interaction and teaching effectiveness (Hackathorn, Garczynski, Blankmeyer, Tennial, & Solomon, 2012). Furthermore, the results are in accordance with the literature in the area, which shows enthusiasm is an oft-cited characteristic of ideal teachers (e.g. Basow, 2000; Devlin & Samarawickrema, 2010; Hativa, Barak, & Simhi, 2001). It is suggested that passionate teachers are more likely to reflect on how and what they teach and strive for excellence far beyond transmission of knowledge and assessment of measurable achievement.

Regarding to teachers' roles, the results indicate that while the students value a student-oriented approach, it appears that they tend to take a passive role in learning and expect their teachers to act as a knowledge transmitter. This resonates to Bond's (2010) assertion that students' conceptions of learning and learning styles might shape their perceptions of good teaching. When students perceive their role as a

learner is to absorb the knowledge delivered by the teacher, they tend to prefer a didactic teaching process of transmitting knowledge. Previous studies (e.g. Gao & Watkins, 2001) have generally suggested that the Chinese teacher is expected to be a good moral role model in all aspects of life because of the Chinese cultural value of “*Jiao Shu Yu Ren*” (teaching entails development of a good person) and “*Wei Ren Shi Biao*” (a teacher being a role model for students). Teachers have traditionally been regarded as a role model of moral value to cultivate students’ attitudes and good citizenship in Confucian heritage contexts. However, this research shows that only less than 10% of the students value the importance of moral example. It appears that the students perceive achieving short term goals (e.g. getting a job or admission offer) is more significant than moral development.

## 7 CONCLUSION

To conclude, in line with previous literature, the results of the present study reveal 3 main themes featuring attributes of quality teaching and good teachers: (1) teaching approaches and content, (2) teacher-student relationship, and (3) teacher’s personal characteristics and roles. It is worthwhile noting that the findings suggest that students perceive teachers’ personal traits might be inter-related with their teaching methods and rapport with students. For instance, teachers who are enthusiastic, dedicated, and devoted tend to take a more active role to care about their students and teach clearly and adaptively by using a variety of pedagogies in respond to students’ needs. Teachers who are humorous and friendly may be more likely to teach in an interesting way and develop positive teacher-student relations.

In terms of traditional Chinese beliefs, contrary to some studies conducted in Chinese contexts, the results of the present research suggest while the Chinese philosophy of “*Yin Cai Shi Jiao*” still has a considerable impact on today’s Chinese teachers and students, some Confucian-Heritage cultural values, such as role model

(*Wei Ren Shi Biao*), might no longer penetrate into conceptions of exemplary teachers. It is generally believed that perceptions are context-dependent and cultural-bound, the results of this study reveal the unique characteristics of Hong Kong culture, which was developed in a sophisticated fusion of East and West. The present study supports Lai's (2000) assertion that Hong Kong culture is influenced jointly by both the traditional Confucian and the modern Western ways of thinking owing to its colonial background.

This study sheds valuable new light on associate degree students' conceptions of outstanding teaching and best teachers and yields several practical implications for school administrators, teacher trainers as well as teachers. In general, the results show the discrepancy of teachers' subject matter content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. While faculties rising the academic requirements of teachers, school administrators may need to provide appropriate training or workshops to help teachers to develop content-specific pedagogical knowledge. This study demonstrates the changing impact of the traditional Chinese educational philosophy and beliefs. Thus, it is important for teacher trainers to equip pre-service and in-service teachers with updated knowledge and skills. Teacher reflection is a significant part of teacher growth and quality teaching. Understanding of students' conceptions of excellent teaching and exemplary teachers is important for teachers themselves to reflect on their own teaching approaches and content, relationship with students, and their roles in this ever-changing society. This study also implies students' learning goals and styles may shape their perceptions of effective teaching and good teachers. The results concur with previous research (e.g. Kember & Wong, 2000; Lai, 2000) that many Hong Kong students are relatively dependent and focus overwhelmingly on direct knowledge transmission and assessment results. It is important for various stakeholders to take effective measures to promote all-around development and whole-person education.

Despite its strengths and important results, this current research is not free of limitation. First, the small sample size may limit the generalizability of the findings. Moreover, only qualitative data of students' overall perceptions were content analysed. Hence, further research may explore students' views in relation to different background characteristics, such as gender, field of study, and type of sub-degree programmes. It might also be useful to investigate and compare conceptions of quality teaching and good teachers perceived by various stakeholders, such as teachers and faculties.

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## **An Investigation Of Pre-Service Preschool Teachers’ Occupational Anxiety Levels In Terms Of Different Variables**

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### **ABSTRACT**

Can we train well-equipped teachers who can achieve expected education quality in schools in these days? Do teacher candidates feel ready for their profession? The occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers must be observed regularly in order to let them improve their self-confidence about their profession and take precautions to foster their self-confidence. The aim of this study is to determine the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers and to investigate

their anxiety levels in terms of teacher candidates' gender and associate's degree. A questionnaire was used as a data collection tool and quantitative approach was employed in this study. Questionnaires were conducted to 226 4<sup>th</sup> grade pre-service preschool teachers in Necmettin Erbakan University, Ahmet Keleşoğlu Education Faculty, Program of Preschool Education. Data of the study were collected with the Occupational Anxiety Scale, developed by Cabi & Yalçınalp (2013). Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 21.0 and data were analyzed using the percentage, frequency and Mann Whitney U tests. The study results revealed that the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers is not very high and they feel ready to perform their job. The most remarkable finding of the study is that pre-service preschool teachers have very high anxiety levels about finding a position in a public school in the future.

**Keywords:** occupational anxiety, teacher training, preschool teachers, perception

## INTRODUCTION

Education is a very significant factor in terms of countries' development and societies' improvement. Unless education is administered by well equipped, experienced and intelligent teachers, it is not possible to achieve the expected goals. In addition, it is believed that the personality traits and mental health of the teachers have quite vital effects on their behaviors in the class (Gözler, Bozgeyikli, and et.al., 2017; Sürücü & Ünal, 2018). In this respect, the undergraduate education of teachers has a great importance. During their undergraduate education, teacher candidates acquire values and develop attitudes towards their job in addition to pedagogical content knowledge. Positive attitudes gained by pre-service teachers during their undergraduate education will let them do their job precisely, develop positive attitudes

and behaviors towards their students and transfer the innovations in their field into their teaching environment more easily (Çeliköz & Çetin, 2004).

In order to train the teacher candidates more effectively for real teaching environments, the factors affecting them negatively must be determined and efficient solutions must be found to solve those problems. Anxiety, which is one of the biggest problems for every individual in a society, influences teacher candidates negatively as well (Çelen & Bulut 2015). Because teachers come across various factors which reduce quality of their lives and raise their anxiety levels. Overcrowded classrooms resulting in learning difficulties, teachers' anxiety about being inadequate and teachers' lack of self-confidence about their profession are some of those factors. Besides, it was also determined that the novice teachers have higher level of anxiety than veteran teachers (Wagner, 2009 as cited in Gözler, Bozgeyikli, and et.al., 2017).

It was indicated that anxiety arises generally from genetic and biological factors, teachers, their past experiences and the factors existing in the individual's social environment. Furthermore; individuals with high level of anxiety are more strict, anxious and extremely focused on pleasing the others while moderate level of anxiety has protective, stimulant and motivating effects on the individuals (Özgüven,1994; Cloninger,1988; Kutlu,2001). If anxiety is well-managed by the individual, it helps the individual to endeavor much more to be successful and take precautions against the possible future problems (Akgün, Gönen and et.al., 2007). Therefore, the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service teachers should be moderate and they should have positive attitudes towards their future profession so that those positive attitudes will help them to love their job and be more successful (as cited in Kalemoglu Varol, Erbaş, Ünlü, 2014:114).

According to Fuller, Bown and Katz, teachers' occupational anxiety levels are connected with some specific periods of time and areas. There are various classifications for those anxiety types. But, in the general sense it is possible to collect

them under 3 titles like 1) Self-centered Anxiety 2) Profession Centered Anxiety 3) Student-centered Anxiety (Saban, Korkmaz and et al., 2004, 198).

An individual with self-centered anxiety generally has these questions in his mind with regard to his success as a teacher; 1- Is teaching an appropriate job for me? 2- How will I do my job every day? 3- What will the school principle and the other teachers think about me when my classroom is noisy? On the other hand, an individual with profession centered anxiety has the following questions in his mind: 1- How should education and instruction be conducted in different classrooms? 2 – How can I reach to new materials, techniques and ideas related to my subject? 3- Who can help me best in order to be successful as a teacher? And teachers or pre-service teachers with student centered anxieties ask the following questions to themselves: 1- How can I achieve fast and easy learning for all the students? 2- How can I make life-long learning very important for all the students? 3- How can I help the students with special educational needs so that they can maintain their learning out of school, too? (Saban, & Korkmaz and et al., 2004).

Özeyin&Tokinan (2013) describes “performance anxiety” as a common experience affecting the individuals who display performance such as speakers, actors / actresses, musicians, dancers or athletes and being triggered by intense mental and physical disorders. She explains the reasons of musical performance anxiety as physiological, cognitive, and psychological characteristics, previous performance experiences, audiences (family members, friends, teachers etc.), perfectionism, fear of failure, risk of negative evaluation etc.

It was stated that anxiety may affect all the individuals from professionals to the students and it can arise before or during a performance (Gorges and et al., (2007); Lang, (2000). Anxiety may result from family, culture, behavioral, psychodynamic, cognitive or biological characteristics, perfectionism, focusing on oneself in a crowd, professional characteristics etc. (as cited in Özevin&Tokinan, 2013). For instance, a

youth's feeling of being successful and achieving a good performance in front of a crowd during a musical event may increase his anxiety. Similarly, an event to be performed in front of a crowd (live performance etc.) by an art teacher may affect his anxiety, too.

According to Kurtuldu and Ayaydin's (2010) research, anxiety levels of fine arts students increase as their class level increases.

It was found that when students of music teaching and art teaching are compared, they have equal anxiety levels in terms of profession centered anxiety and self-centered anxiety, but students of music teaching department have higher level of anxiety in terms of student centered anxiety in comparison to art teaching department students.

105 teacher candidates' occupational anxiety levels were analyzed by Temiz (2016). Participants were selected from Nigde University Faculty of Education Pedagogical Formation program in 2013-2014 academic year. Selected candidates were studying at Music, Mathematics, Turkish and Science departments. Findings showed that there is a significant difference between music and mathematics fields in terms of self-centered anxieties. Similarly, significant difference was observed between music and mathematics, and music and science fields in terms of profession-centered anxieties. Student centered anxieties did not show any differences in terms of their fields.

The results show similarities with the findings of Saban and et al.'s (2004) research which is about determining the anxiety levels of Social Sciences Teaching, Science Teaching, Primary School Teaching and Mathematic Teaching departments' candidate teachers.

Can we train well-equipped pre-school teachers to achieve a qualified education in schools while the pre-school education is getting more and more important in these days? Do pre-school teacher candidates feel ready for their

profession? Findings about pre-school teacher candidates' anxiety levels are getting more and more crucial in order to help them to improve self-confidence about their job and take some precautions to enhance it. The purpose of this study is to determine the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service pre-school teachers and to investigate if their anxiety levels differ in terms of their gender or not. In this context, the answers to the following questions have been sought:

1. What is the level of occupational anxiety of pre-service preschool teachers?
2. Do the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers show a significant difference in terms of their gender?

## **METHODOLOGY**

This research aiming to find the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers is a quantitative study.

### **Population and Sampling**

The participants of the research composed of 226 4<sup>th</sup> grade pre-service preschool teachers in Necmettin Erbakan University, Ahmet Keleşoğlu Education Faculty, Program of Preschool Education. 28 questionnaires with missing data were excluded.

### **Data Collection Tool**

The data of the study has been collected by using occupational anxiety scale developed by Cabi&Yalçınalp (2013) which provides an opportunity of examining occupational anxiety levels about teaching profession in more detail. The scale, which has been used to determine the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers, consists of 45 items and 8 sub dimensions such as Job Oriented Anxiety, Anxiety of Classroom Management, Anxiety of Interaction with Students, Anxiety of Interaction with Colleagues and Students' Parents, Anxiety of Self-improvement,



Anxiety of Disharmony, Anxiety of Finding a Position in a Public School, Anxiety of Interaction with School Administrators. The items of the scale are scored on a five-point Likert-type Scale ranging from “1= I am very anxious about” to “5= I am not at all anxious about”. Cronbach Alpha consistency coefficients were calculated in order to determine the reliability of the scale and values between .94 and .67 were found (Cabi&Yalçinalp, 2013). In the present study, Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficients were found to be .95.

### **Data Analysis**

In the present study, descriptive statistics were employed in order to determine the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers. Firstly, means and standard deviations of pre-service preschool teachers’ answers with regard to each variable were found, and normality and variance homogeneity were checked. The interval coefficients of 4 intervals included in 5 point likert-type scale ( $5-1 = 4$ ) are  $(4/5) 0.80$ . That is, “I am extremely anxious about= 1-1.79”, “I am very anxious about=1.80-2.59”, “I am somewhat anxious about =2.60-3.39”, I am slightly anxious about = 3.40-4.19” and “I am not at all anxious about = 4.20-5” So, it is possible to say that when the score average increases, the level of anxiety decreases. For the data with non-normal distribution, Mann Whitney U test was employed while comparing the total score obtained from the scale in terms of “gender variable” with sub-factors’ scores.

## **FINDINGS**

### **Occupational Anxiety Level of Pre-Service Preschool Teachers**

The first problem sentence of the study is “What is the occupational anxiety level of pre-service preschool teachers?”. In order to find an answer for this problem, descriptive statistic results were analyzed. Table 1 shows arithmetic mean and standard

deviation values of occupational anxiety level scores of pre-service preschool teachers with regard to the scale’s sub-dimensions.

**Table 1 :** Descriptive statistics data of the occupational anxiety level scores of pre-service preschool teachers

Factors	n	X	SS
Job Oriented Anxiety	226	3,78	,820
Anxiety of Classroom Management	226	3,55	,908
Anxiety of Interaction with Students	226	3,63	,991
Anxiety of Interaction with Colleagues and Students’ Parents	226	<b>3,98</b>	,869
Anxiety of Self-improvement	226	3,75	1,171
Anxiety of Finding a Position in a Public School	226	<b>2,20</b>	1,003
Anxiety of Disharmony	226	3,65	1,081
Anxiety of Interaction with School Administrators	226	3,57	,876
<b>TOTAL</b>	226	<b>3,52</b>	,683

The mean of pre-service preschool teachers’ occupational anxiety score is 3, 52. Since this value corresponds to the scale’s “I am slightly anxious about” article, we might say that our students are not very anxious about practicing their profession. In terms of scale’s sub-dimensions, it was found that “Anxiety of Finding a Position in a Public School” article has the lowest mean as “2,20”. Since this value corresponds to the scale’s “I am very anxious about” article, we might say that our students are most anxious about finding a position in a public school. In terms of scale’s sub-dimensions, the highest mean score “3,98” belonged to “Anxiety of Interaction with Colleagues and Students’ Parents” article. Since this value corresponds to the scale’s “I am slightly

anxious about” article, we can say that our students are least anxious about the interaction with their colleagues and students’ parents.

### Differences in Pre-Service Preschool Teachers’ Occupational Anxiety Levels According to Their Gender

The second problem sentence of the study is if occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers show a significant difference in terms of their gender.

Mann-Whitney U test was employed in order to analyze the data with non-normal distribution in order to find if there is a significant difference in occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers in terms of gender variable, and the results were shown in the Table 2.

Table 2. Mann-Whitney U test results of occupational anxiety scores of pre-service preschool teachers in terms of gender variable

Factor	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Mann-Whitney U	p
Job Oriented Anxiety	Female	183	111,38	20382,00	3546,000	,31
	Male	43	122,53	5269,00		
Anxiety of Socio-economic status	Female	183	113,39	20750,50	3914,500	,95
	Male	43	113,97	4900,50		
Anxiety of interaction with students	Female	183	113,13	20703,00	3867,000	,86
	Male	43	115,07	4948,00		
	Female	183	110,88	20291,00		

Anxiety of					3455,000	
Interaction with					,21	
Colleagues and	Male	43	124,65	5360,00		
Students'						
Parents						
Anxiety of Self-	Female	183	109,99	20128,50	3292,500	,09
improvement	Male	43	128,43	5522,50		
Anxiety of	Female	183	112,73	20629,50	3793,500	,71
Finding a						
Position in a	Male	43	116,78	5021,50		
Public School						
Anxiety of	Female	183	239,09	58339,00	3789,500	,70
Disharmony	Male	43	285,47	80789,00		
Anxiety of	Female	183	258,41	63052,00	3674,500	,49
Interaction with						
School	Male	43	268,82	76076,00		
Administrators						
TOTAL	Female	183	113,39	20750,50	3696,000	
Occupational					,53	
Anxiety	Male	43	113,97	4900,50		

There is no significant difference between the occupational anxiety score means of pre-service preschool teachers in terms of gender variable. According to the findings of the present study, while female and male students' total occupational anxiety score means (Female=113,39; male=113,97 ) are very close to each other, a slight difference has been found in favor of male students. Therefore, we can say that

male students are slightly more anxious than female students. That slight difference is in favor of male students in terms of all sub dimensions.

## **CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS**

In this study, it was aimed to determine the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers and compare their occupational anxiety levels in terms of different variables. At first, the occupational anxiety levels of pre-service preschool teachers were determined. In the light of findings, we can say that occupational anxiety level of the pre-service teachers is not very high and they feel ready to practice their profession. That result is confirming the findings of Temiz (2016). Especially art and physical education teachers', who present individual performance, individual anxiety levels are found to be higher than the others (Köse, 2006). Practicing a performance alone in front of a crowd might be the main reason of that anxiety. Teachers of subjects, which are suitable for employing cooperative learning techniques, have more anxiety of interaction with students. The most striking result about pre-service preschool teachers is that they have very high level anxiety of finding a position in a public school.

That type of anxiety comes into prominence in researches about occupational anxiety. That situation matches up with the problem of unemployment among the young population in our country. In terms of gender variable, female and male students' occupational anxiety levels are very close to each other and there is no significant difference between male and female students about feeling ready to practice their profession.

In accordance with the findings of the study, seminars about teaching profession and its importance can be conducted in order to decrease the occupational anxiety levels of the students in their faculties apart from their present curriculum and

hidden curriculum. Then, Ministry of National Education can conduct a needs analysis about personnel requirement and decrease the number of students to be accepted to the teacher training programs in order to decrease the pre-service teachers' anxiety of finding a position in a public school. Furthermore, future qualitative studies can be conducted in order to examine the reasons of this research's results. A new research can be done with larger study groups.

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## **Coping Strategies And Academic Engagement Of Part-Time Undergraduate Student Teachers In Nigeria**

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### **ABSTRACT**

Empirical evidence is inadequate in Nigeria to understand the link between the coping strategies and academic engagement of part-time student teachers who face challenges that might impede their academic success. This study adopted the quantitative research paradigm to ascertain part-time undergraduate student teachers' coping strategy and their academic engagement. One hundred and fifty-five (155) undergraduate part-time student teachers of Nnamdi Azikiwe University formed the



sample size. Major findings showed that respondents adopted more of problem-focused coping than emotion-focused coping strategies and were academically engaged. Significant mean differences did not occur based on gender and marital status in the dimensions of coping strategies and academic engagement except in extra-curricular engagement but occurred in coping efficacy, emotional support coping and disengagement coping dimensions affective liking for school, extra-curricular engagement and cognitive engagement based on students' specialty. Significant positive relationships occurred in almost all the dimensions of coping and academic engagement and the predictive powers of the independent variables on the dependent variables were ascertained. Demographic variables did not significantly moderate the relationship between problem-focused coping dimensions and the academic engagement while they did on emotion-focused coping and academic engagement. Conclusions were drawn and recommendations made based on the findings.

**Keywords:** part-time programme, coping strategy, academic engagement, problem-focused, emotion-focused, student teachers

## INTRODUCTION

Established in literature is the fact that educational adventures have a level of stress associated with them. Deasy, Coughlan, Pironom, Jourdan and Mannix-McNamara (2014) have noted that the way students cope with psychological distress has significant consequence for their mental health and academic performance. They pointed out that students who receive their trainings in certain courses such as education that comprise practicum programmes are vulnerable to academic stress. This could be worse when students are on part-time programmes in the aforementioned courses because they are laden with responsibilities other than their academics. In stressful circumstances such as combining academics with other

responsibilities, adoption of appropriate coping strategies becomes critical (Lembas, Starkowska, Mak, Konecka, Bikowska, Groszewska & Korzonek, 2017).

Part-time programmes are established in universities to enable those who could not transit from secondary school to university to continue their education while they may be engaged in other responsibilities. Recognizing the fact that different countries have peculiar reasons for establishing part-time programmes, Irinoye, Ayalomowo, Tijnai (nd) stated that in Nigeria, it is adopted to remedy inadequate carrying capacity of regular programmes in the conventional universities. This is as a result of the fact that the number of students who apply to be trained in regular programmes are more than the admission opportunities in Nigerian universities. This has led to an upsurge in the number of students enrolling in part-time programmes given the inadequate admission opportunities for qualified candidates and difficult financial realities on ground. In the UK, the essence of part-time programmes is to raise, update, and improve the skill level of those in employment and thereby filling in gaps in the required skills in industries (Callender & Wilkinson, 2012).

Part-time programmes in universities have attracted the most vulnerable groups in the society giving them the opportunity to access university education (Butcher, 2015). Even though in Nigeria, some are pushed to enroll in the part-time programmes simply because they could not gain admission in the regular programme, many who are part-timers are students who work to sponsor their education. Others, especially women, are married and as a matter of culture are expected to take care of their homes simultaneously. Osafo (2016) found that married women who are in distance education in South Africa perform laborious home chores before coming to school which resulted to a stressful intersection between family affairs and the academic activities. They were also found to adopt very inefficient coping strategies. Students who are on part-time programmes in the university have identified their major sources of stress to include 'excessive assignment, inadequate time to study,

work, financial fears and family issues' (Gyambrah, Sesay & Amponsah, 2017:33), high cost of courses leading individuals to borrow from family, or even credit card debt to fund their studies, clashes in lecture timetable and credit over-load as a result of short duration of their programme (Butcher, 2015; Persuad & Persuad, 2016). In a study comparing the stress levels of full-time and part-time undergraduate students conducted by Persuad et al. (2016), findings indicated that part-time learners had higher stress level in summer courses which is linked to their full-time employment. Also, Gyambrah, et al (2017) have noted that stress level of part-time students are high which will likely affect their engagement with their studies leading to stressful academic experience.

Engagement is seen as 'students' attitude towards schooling and the participation in school activities' (Willms, 2003:8) which is an index for their identification and value for academic endeavour. This attachment and value for school activities comprises psychological and behavioural components which have to do with the feeling of being accepted and valued by stakeholders in school as well as visible participation in both curricular and extra-curricular activities (Willms, 2003). Engagement with academic activities is linked with not just positive changes in abilities and skills but also with better psychological adjustment in schools (Wilson, Jones, Bocell, Crowford, Kim, Veilluex, Floyd-Smith, Bettles & Plett, 2015). Researchers have shown that engagement is related to students' achievement (Casuso-Holgado, Cuesta-Vargas, Moreno-Morales, Labajos-Manzanares, Barón-López & Vega-Cuesta, 2013; Hoff & Lopus, 2014; Lee, 2014). A number of research works have identified factors that facilitate student academic engagement. Among the factors are self-efficacy (Wilson, Jones, Bocell, Crowford, Kim, Veilluex, Floyd-Smith, Bettles, & Plett, 2015), perception of school environment (Wang & Eccles, 2013), and peer influence (You, 2011).

However, the academic engagement of a student could be related to the extent the student could cope with challenges in the course of the programme. Feeling stressed in school has been found to be related to less satisfaction with school (Lovenjak & Peklaj, 2016). A learner who is less satisfied in school is likely not to be engaged with the school activities. This, in a way, could be remediated if an individual has productive coping strategies which are enablers for continuation in challenging academic situations. Considering the myriad challenges faced by undergraduate part-time students and the impact they could have on the engagement with school activities, the researchers examined the following:

- a. The coping skills and academic engagement mean scores of undergraduate and if significant differences occurred as a result of gender, marital status and specialty area.
- b. If the dimension of copings strategies of part- time undergraduate students relate with their academic engagement.
- c. Whether the dimension of copings skills of part- time undergraduate students predict their academic engagement.
- d. Whether the effect of the dimensions of coping skills of part-time undergraduate students on their academic engagement is dependent on their gender, marital status and specialty area.

## **METHODOLOGY**

The study adopted the quantitative research paradigm in which quantitative data were collected and analyzed. The mean differences and relationships existing among variables were ascertained without attempting to manipulate them.

### **Sample and sampling technique**

The sample size was 155 undergraduate part-time student teachers enrolled in the Continuing Education Programme of the Nnamdi Azikiwe University in the 2017/2018 session. Nnamdi Azikiwe University which is located in the Southeastern

part of Nigeria is one of the Federal Universities authorized to run part-time programme by the regulatory body – National Universities Commission. It has been observed that attrition rate is high among students enrolled in this programme which necessitated the research. The sample size was drawn using purposive sampling technique given the fact that participants were students who have spent at least one year in the programme. It is believed that they would be in a position to adjudge their coping skills in cognizance of the stress they have pass through in the programme. As such, those who were enrolled in the 2<sup>nd</sup> year and third year educational psychology course which is a faculty-wide course were chosen as participants. Two hundred students agreed to participant in the study while forty-five students eventually dropped out of the study while 155 students completed the questionnaire.

### **Instruments for data collection**

Two adapted instruments were used in collecting the data in this study. The first was questionnaire on students' coping skills originally used by Struthers, Perry and Menec (2000) on college students which was a modified version of dispositional COPE scale which had 48 items measuring thoughts, actions, and strategies following students' poor academic performances. However, the modified version titled SCOPE by Struthers, et al.'s contained 30 items with two broad clusters. The first cluster, problem-focused coping (PFC), contained 15 items and four sub-scales (General Active Coping (factor loading = .77), Academic Planning (.77), Active Study Coping (.67), and Efficacy (.62) while the second cluster, emotion-focused coping (EFC), contained 15 items and four sub-scales (Emotional Venting (.41), General Emotional Support (.37), Denial (.78), and Academic Disengagement (.72)). The overall reliability coefficient was 0.80 for PFC and 0.70 for EFC. In the present work, the scale was reduced to four point scale of strongly agree (SA), agree (A), disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD) and subjected to face and content validity by experts in Educational Psychology in the Faculty of Education, Nnamdi Azikiwe University,

Awka. The reliability coefficients for problem-focused coping using Cronbach Alpha were 0.41, 0.53, 0.86, 0.57 respectively and for emotion-focused, 0.69, 0.69, 0.83 and 0.88 respectively.

The second instrument is adapted from the work of Hart, Stewart and Jimerson (2011) titled Student Engagement in Schools Questionnaire (SESQ). This is a 33-item questionnaire with five factors (Affective: liking for learning, affective liking for school; Behavioural: Effort and persistence, extra-curricular; cognitive engagement). In the present study, two items that cross-loaded in Hart, et al.'s (2011) were not included in the final draft of the questionnaire. Hence, there were 31 items used in the SESQ. The scales adopted in the present study is the four-point Likert scale of strongly agree (SA), agree (A), disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD) and subjected to face and content validity by experts in Educational Psychology in the Faculty of Education, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka. The reliability coefficients using Cronbach Alpha were 0.50, 0.56, 0.59, 0.91 and 0.87 respectively.

### **Data collection procedure**

First of all, informed consent of the students was sought and obtained. They were told that the purpose of the exercise was purely for research and that their responses would be used only for research purposes and kept confidential within the confines of the law and ethical practices. The copies of the questionnaire were given to them. They were instructed that there were no wrong or right answers but that they should respond sincerely as it applies to them. They were also given the option of either filling in the questionnaire immediately after the class and submit or go home with it and submit the next class. Very few were able to fill in the questionnaire immediately after the class and submit because many reported that they had other classes after the session. The majority went home with it and submitted the next class.

## DATA ANALYSIS

The SPSS version 22 was used for the analysis of data collected. Mean, t-test and ANOVA were used to ascertain the mean differences of undergraduate part-time student teachers on their coping skills and academic engagement, Pearson correlation coefficient was used to ascertain the relationship existing among the dimensions of coping skills and academic engagement, multiple regression analysis was used to predict academic engagement from the dimensions of coping skills of students while the moderator multiple regression analysis (MMRA) was used to ascertain if the effect of the dimensions of coping skills of part-time undergraduate students on their academic engagement is dependent on their gender, marital status and specialty areas. In doing this dummy variables and interaction were created and used to run the MMRA. Hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

### Results

**Table 1: Distribution of respondents by socio-demographic characteristics**

	Variables	Frequency	Percent(%)
Gender	Male	44	28.4
	Female	111	71.6
Marital status	Single	105	67.7
	Married	50	32.3
Area of specialization	Arts Education	76	49.0
	Science Education	47	30.3
	Social Science Education	32	20.6

Table 1 showed that 28.4% of the respondents are male students while 71.6% are female students, 67.7% are not married and 32.3% are married, 49.0% of the students are in arts education, 30.3% are in science education while 20.6% of students are in social science education.

**Table 2: Mean and test of mean differences of dimensions of coping strategies based on socio-demographic variables**

			Coping strategy clusters															
			Problem-focused coping								Emotion-focused coping							
			Academic planning coping		General Active coping		Coping efficacy coping		Study guide coping		Emotional support		Denial		Emotion venting		disengagement	
Name	Class	No	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$p$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$p$
Gender	Male	44	3.85		3.73		3.69		3.59		2.27		2.64		3.12		2.03	
	Female	111		.227	3.84	.103	3.73	.718	3.57	.866	2.39	.311	2.63	.949	3.18	.404	1.98	.592
Marital Status	Single	105	3.87		3.80		3.73		3.54		2.41		2.63		3.18		2.01	
	Married	50	3.93	.150	3.85	.505	3.70	.765	3.67	.225	2.24	.122	2.65	.813	3.12	.311	1.97	.594
Speciali-ty	Arts Edu	76	3.91		3.83		3.77		3.60		2.37		2.61		3.17		1.90	
	Social Sc.	47	3.93		3.87		3.87		3.57		2.18		2.72		3.23		2.18	
	Edu			.055		.074		.011		.953		.018		.277		.053		.007
	Science Edu	32	3.79		3.68		3.38		3.57		2.59		2.59		3.02		1.95	



Table 2 showed student teachers' mean scores on the coping strategies based on the socio-demographic variables. Female students scored slightly higher in problem-focused coping dimensions than male students while male students scored marginally higher in emotion-focused coping dimensions than female students. There were no significant differences based on gender. Students who are married scored slightly higher in problem-focused than the unmarried students while those who are single scored slightly more than the married in emotion-focused coping. There were no significant mean differences across the coping dimensions based on marital status. Those in social sciences had higher mean score in both problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping than other students in other specialty areas. Significant differences occurred in coping efficacy, emotional support coping and disengagement coping dimensions.

**Table 3: Mean and test of mean differences of dimensions of academic engagement based on socio-demographic variables**

			Academic Engagement Clusters									
			Affective Sub-Clusters				Behavioural Sub-Clusters					
			Affective for learning	liking	Affective for school	liking	Effort Persistence	and	Extra-Curricular engagement		Cognitive Engagement	
Name	Class	No	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$P$	( $\bar{x}$ )	$p$
	Male	44	3.90		3.82		3.58		3.08		3.81	
Gender				.636		.396		.734		.024		.455

	Female	111	3.88		3.74		3.59		3.18		3.85	
Marital	Single	105	3.88		3.85		3.60		3.17		3.84	
Status	Married	50	3.90	.635	3.82	.525	3.57	.676	3.15	.642	3.84	.964
	Arts Edu	76	3.88		3.88		3.60		3.14		3.85	
Specialty	Social Sc.	47	3.92		3.91		3.65		3.22		3.93	
	Edu											
	Science Edu	32	3.82	.332	3.67	.004	3.47	.056	3.06	.021	3.68	.005

Table 3 showed that male and female; single and married students were all academically engaged in school. Male students score slightly higher in affecting liking for learning, effort persistence than female students; married students scored slightly higher in affecting liking for learning, and extra-curricular engagement than unmarried students. Significant differences in mean did not occur based on gender and marital status except in extra-curricular engagement. Students in Social science education appeared to be more academically engaged in school than students in other specialty areas, and significant mean differences occurred as a result of specialty.

**Table 4: Pearson r table on coping and academic engagement of undergraduate part-time student teachers**

Variable	No	Affective liking for learning (r)	Affective liking for school(r)	Effortful persistence(r)	Behavior extracurricular(r)	Cognitive engagement (r)
Problem-Focused Coping						
Academic planning coping	155	.443**	.634**	.684**	.160*	.586**
General Active Coping	155	.360**	.504**	.541**	-.068	.640**
Coping efficacy	155	.499**	.622**	.639**	.047	.587**
Study guide coping	155	.477**	.609**	.593**	.144	.628**
Emotion-Focused Coping						
Emotional support	155	.380**	.407**	.605**	-.263**	.420**
Denial	155	-.318**	-.294**	-.334**	.169*	-.537**
Emotion Venting	155	.255**	.321**	.348**	.108	.397**
Disengageme nt	155	.224**	.438**	.365**	.224**	.228**

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).; \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4 showed the Pearson  $r$  of undergraduate part-time student teachers. Significant positive relationships occurred in almost all the dimensions of coping and academic engagement. Negative significant relationships occurred in denial and the dimensions of academic engagement (except behavior extra-curricular), emotional support, general active coping and behavior extracurricular.

**Table 5: Multiple regression analysis for predictor variables and academic engagement of part-time undergraduate student teachers**

			Standardized		
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Coefficients	T	<i>p</i>
Problem-Focused Coping	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	<i>B</i>		
1 (Constant)	45.927	6.825		6.729	.000
Academic planning coping	1.468	.698	.181	2.104	.037
General Active Coping	1.021	.534	.192	1.912	.058
Coping efficacy	1.526	.228	.440	6.696	.000
Study guide coping	.517	.277	.116	1.867	.064
R	.771				
R <sup>2</sup>	.594				
F	54.874				0.000
Emotion-Focused Coping					
1 (Constant)	82.697	6.778		12.201	.000
Emotional support	-1.213	.308	-.284	-3.940	.000
Denial	1.227	.382	.241	3.214	.002
Emotional venting	1.860	.386	.338	4.824	.000
Disengagement	.255	.314	.059	.812	.418
R	.612				
R <sup>2</sup>	.375				
F	22.456				0.000

The result in table 5 showed that the multiple regression coefficient (*R*) was 0.771 while *R*<sup>2</sup> was 0.594. This is an indication that problem-focused coping dimensions jointly contributed 59.4% to explain the variances in response and the corresponding *F* (2, 155) = 54.874, is statistically significant as shown by the *p*-value (0.000) which was less than the stipulated significance level (0.05). It was therefore concluded that those predictors are jointly significant. Using standardized (*B*), the *B*s for problem-focused coping dimensions, only academic planning and coping efficacy made individual significant contributions.

On emotion-focused coping dimensions, the multiple regression coefficient (*R*) was 0.612 while *R*<sup>2</sup> was 0.375. This indicates that emotion-focused coping dimensions jointly contributed 37.5% to explain the variances in the responses and the corresponding *F* (2, 155) = 22.456, is statistically significant as shown by the *p*-value (0,000). Also the dimensions; emotional support, denial and emotional venting made individual significant contributions.

**Table 6: Moderator multiple regression analysis for problem-focused coping strategy dimensions and academic engagement**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	.771 <sup>a</sup>	.594	.583	.64558643	.594	54.874	4	150	.000
2	.772 <sup>b</sup>	.596	.577	.65074015	.002	.211	3	147	.889
3	.774 <sup>c</sup>	.599	.577	.65007460	.004	1.301	1	146	.256

The R Square Change in table 6 showed a 0.04% increase explained by the addition of the interaction term. The increase is not statistically significant which shows that the demographic variables (gender, marital status and specialty) do not moderate the relationship between problem-focused coping dimensions and the academic engagement of undergraduate part-time students.

**Table 7: Moderator multiple regression analysis for emotion-focused coping strategy dimensions and academic engagement**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics				Sig. F Change
						F	Change	df1	df2	
1	.771 <sup>a</sup>	.594	.583	.64558643	.594	54.874		4	150	.000
2	.772 <sup>b</sup>	.596	.577	.65074015	.002	.211		3	147	.889
3	.785 <sup>c</sup>	.616	.595	.63634017	.020	7.728		1	146	.006

The R Square Change in table 7 showed a 2% increase explained by the addition of the interaction term. The increase is statistically significant which shows that the demographic variables(gender, marital status and specialty) under study do moderate the relationship between emotion-focused coping dimensions and the academic engagement of undergraduate part-time students.

**DISCUSSION**

Findings from the study showed that part-time undergraduate student teachers adopted more of problem-focused coping strategies in the studies than emotion-focused strategies. This shows that in coping with stressful academic, respondents relied on strategies that can alter the situation (Struthers, Perry & Menec, 2000). This finding agrees with other studies in which students reported that they adopted more of problem-based/positive coping strategies in handling academic-related stress (Majumdar & Ray, 2010; Kwaah & Essielfie, 2017). However, the mean ratings on maladaptive coping strategies were also high showing that a good number of students are involved in using strategies that may not help them cope. Such strategies include denial, disengagement, and venting. These could jeopardize the success of the learner. Studies with undergraduate students (even though not with part-time students) in other climes have shown that most undergraduate students adopt very deficient coping strategies in handling academic stress which is deleterious to their mental well-being (Deasy, Coughlan, Pironom, Jourdan & Mannix-

McNamara, 2014). The fact that, students' mean scores are high in almost all the dimensions of coping strategies shows that they adopt both positive and negative coping strategies in their studies. This is in agreement with the findings of Dexter, Huff, Rudecki and Abraham (2018) which revealed that college students in the United States deal with stressors in both positive and negative ways.

Considering gender differences in coping, female students scored higher in emotion-focused coping strategies than male students while male students scored higher than female in problem-focused coping strategies even though significant mean differences did not occur. This agrees with similar studies by Matud (2004); Deasy, Coughlan, Pironom, Jourdan and Mannix-McNamara (2014) who reported that female students adopt more emotion-focused coping strategies (escape-avoidance coping) than male students. In other words, they tend to handle stressful situations by enduring than trying to alter them. Also, studies show that high masculine individuals were more likely to engage in problem-focused coping strategies (Sharp, 2014). These may confirm the conclusion of Osafo (2016) who noted that some married female students do not have effective coping strategies since problem-focused coping strategies appear to be better than emotion-focused strategies. However, the study differs with the study of Craciun (2012) who found that male and female students differ significantly in their choice of coping strategies.

Also, students who are married scored slightly higher in problem-focused coping than those who are unmarried while those who are unmarried scored slightly more than the married in emotion-focused coping. There were no significant differences in the mean scores of married and unmarried students in the coping dimensions. What this implies is that, even though no significant differences occurred in the dimensions of coping strategies, married students adopted better coping strategies than their unmarried counterparts. This might have resulted from the fact that being exposed to higher level of stress could have helped in equipping them with

more appropriate coping skills than those who are unmarried. Findings in stress studies have revealed that married students are more stressed than unmarried students (Persuad, et al, 2016)

Those in Social Science Education had the highest mean score in both problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping, followed by those in Arts Education. Significant differences occurred in coping efficacy, emotional support coping and disengagement coping dimensions. What this implies, is that those in social science had more coping strategies than others. The fact that students in the sciences scored lower may indicate that their courses may be more tasking than others. Many studies in stress with students in the sciences showed that they are stressed (Benavente, da Silva, Higashi, Guido & Costa, 2014; Bamuhair, Farhan, Althubaiti, Agha, Rahman, & Ibrahim, 2015). Though there is dearth of literature comparing coping strategies based on disciplines, insight into the nature of disciplines could help explain why those in social sciences could cope better than others. Their discipline could help them understand the nature and feelings of human beings thereby helping them to adjust in stressful situations.

Also findings showed that respondents are academically engaged. What this means is that they have a high sense of belongingness that could enable them persist in their studies. They scored high in the dimensions of affective liking for school, effort persistence and cognitive engagement and lower in affective liking for learning and extra-curricular engagement. Male and female students were all academically engaged in school. Male students score slightly higher in affective liking for learning and effort persistence. There were no significant differences in mean based on gender except on extra-curricular engagement dimension. Similar findings, even though not on part-time student teachers, have shown that gender may not necessarily lead to significant mean differences (Casuso-Holgado, et al, 2013).



Equally interesting is the fact that both married and unmarried students were all academically engaged in such a way that there were no significant differences in all the dimensions of academic engagement. One would have thought that those who are not married would have been better engaged academically than those who are married going by additional responsibilities. This points out the fact that other factors such as self-efficacy (Ugwu, Onyishi & Tyoyima, 2013), satisfaction with programme (Çalışkan & Mercangöz, 2013) resilience, perception of challenge and motivation (O'Brien, 2015) could influence academic engagement and counter the effects stress could have on it. Students in Social Science Education appeared to be more academically engaged in school than others and mean differences occurred as a result of specialty in the dimensions of affective liking for school, extra-curricular and cognitive engagement.

A major finding in this study is the significant positive relationships occurring in almost all the dimensions of coping and academic engagement. Negative significant relationships occurred in denial coping dimension and the dimensions of academic engagement (except in behavior extra-curricular), emotional support, general active coping and behavior extracurricular. However, the relationship is higher among the dimensions of problem-focused coping and academic engagement than among the dimensions of emotion-focused coping strategies. The dimensions of the problem and emotion-focused coping strategies significantly jointly predicted their academic engagement, even though only the coping self-efficacy and active planning made individual contributions to academic engagement in the problem-focused dimension. The prediction was higher in problem-focused dimensions. This shows that part-time student teachers' coping strategies are related to their engagement in school showing the importance of coping in academic engagement. The fact that the strength of the relationship is positively stronger and even the predictive power more, in problem-focused coping strategy indicates that coping strategies that alter the challenging

situation will enable students to be more engaged. Jacobs (2015) found a significant relationship between South African students' coping and their academic engagement. This agrees with the views of Skinner and Pitzer (2012:21) that the 'same personal and interpersonal resources that promote engagement may shape students' reactions to challenges and obstacles, with academic coping an especially important bridge back to reengagement'. Against hypothetical assumptions are the positive relationships that existed among such 'unproductive' coping strategies as venting and disengagement with students' academic engagement. One would have expected negative relationships. However, it has been noted that where the problem-focused coping strategies are unavailable, that such emotion-focused strategies could be effective (see Jacobs, 2015). This necessitates intervention programmes on effective coping strategies. Also, the relationship between the dimensions of problem-focused strategy and academic engagement was not moderated by the socio-demographic variables under consideration indicating that problem-focused coping is a strong predictor of the respondents' academic engagement. However, the relationships existing among the dimensions of emotion-focused coping and academic engagement were moderated by the socio-demographic variables.

## CONCLUSION

This study is one of the first attempts to investigate part-time undergraduate student teachers' academic coping strategies and their academic engagement in Nigeria. There is dearth of works on this student population in Nigeria more especially when it comes to their engagement with their studies. It is concluded in this study that the respondents adopted more of problem-focused coping and are academically engaged in their study; their coping and academic engagement were significantly related. These variables were not greatly moderated by the socio-demographic variables considered in this work. This is an eye-opener to school counselors and

psychologists on how intervention programmes should be provided for part-time student teachers' in Nigeria. They should emphasis problem-focused strategies in order to enhance academic engagement and students who rely so much on inefficient dimensions of emotion-focused coping strategies should be counseled. The limitations of this study borders on the small sample size. Future studies should adopt triangulated research approaches so that more robust understanding could be ascertained.

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## **The Development Of Research Competence Based On Quantum Calculation Of Molecular Systems**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The integration of instruction and research represents one of the fundamental goals of contemporary educational system. Elaborating effective mechanisms for applying research methods able to make science more attractive could solve the problem of motivating young people to study in this difficult but necessary field for society development. The study proposes a model of using chemical synthesis, studying molecular structure and composition of coordination compounds, applying quantum-chemical calculations and testing biological properties.

The set of applied methods allows for a detailed analysis of certain features related to the structure and properties of new chemical compounds and is recommended for application within university courses and at pre-university level for interested students.

**Keywords:** research competences, innovation, pedagogical model, quantum calculations, interdisciplinarity.

## INTRODUCTION

One of the major tasks of contemporary pedagogy consists in developing effective mechanisms for harmonious integration of technologies within the accelerated development of field knowledge based on the forecasted needs of tomorrow's society citizen. The achievement of this task involves deep inter and trans disciplinary connections [1, 2]. It's obvious that Chemistry has the tightest bonds with Physics and Biology yet, due to the dynamical development of informational technologies and their implementation in different fields, including research and instruction, it appears the need to elaborate different strategies of developing students' competences of using ICT within the chemistry field [3].

The modern paradigm of university education requires an effective integration of instruction and research- process that would allow for a faster and easier transfer of new scientific findings within university curricula. Moreover, the students will graduate with solid competences based on the interconnection of knowledge-application-innovation domains.

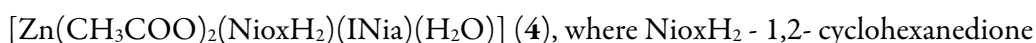
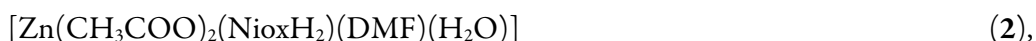
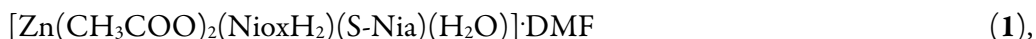
The motivation for a quality and conscious instruction in the field of Natural and Exact sciences can be achieved only by means of some well analyzed algorithms, where instruction and research are indispensable and lead to the development of the research competence with the formation of innovative thinking elements [4-6]. Within chemistry, there can be proposed several models that would permit to achieve complex studies of molecular characteristics [7], and chemical processes, allowing pupils/ students to go through simple substances → the synthesis of complex systems – analysis of composition and structure based on chemical and physical methods → molecular energy calculation, determining the substitution and condensation possibilities in certain functional groups → determining the useful properties and the domains of practical application.



In order to organize some profound studies, it is proposed the analysis of an instruction-research integrated application model, where the synthesis of coordination compounds is preceded by studies with the application of physical, informational and biological methods, so as to form in pupils/students competences of deep and complete analysis (experimental and chemical) of new chemical compounds. The Model bases on the application GAMESS program, that contains different calculation methods, starting with those of molecular mechanics and dynamics, semi-empirical methods, *ab initio* methods based on Hartree-Fock theory or methods based on the theory of density functional, and can be used for the calculation of a very wide range of molecular properties [8].

## METHODS AND MATERIALS

The new coordination compounds of zinc with 1,2-cyclohexanedione dioxime:



where NioxH<sub>2</sub> - 1,2- cyclohexanedione dioxime, S-Nia – thio-nicotinamide, Nia – nicotinamide, INia – izo-nicotinamide, DMF – dimethylformamide were synthesized according to the method [9]. The composition and structure of complexes were established basing on elemental analysis, IR spectroscopy and X-rays diffraction [9]. Elemental analyses were performed on an Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH Vario El III elemental analyzer. The IR spectra were obtained in Vaseline on a FT IR Spectrum-100 Perkin Elmer spectrometer in the range of 400-4000 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The crystalline structure of complexes was determined on the Xcalibur CCD "Oxford Diffraction" diffractometer.

The quantum chemical study is widely used to explain the formation of molecular orbitals (OM) in the complexes of transition metals with different ligands

and to analyze the chemical bonds within these compounds. It is known that coordinating the ligand to the metal ion leads to the displacement of electronic density and the modification of reaction capacity. The determination of the difference between the boundary levels of OM reagents (especially the HOMO and LUMO orbitals) can be useful for discussing the most favorable ways to get chemical reactions, because usually the reaction takes place between two centers that have a greater difference between electronic densities on boundary orbitals. In such a way it can be obtained important information about the bond character within the complexes of transition metals and the properties of these complexes.

The optimization of electronical structure and geometry of ligand molecules in the given nuclear configurations was performed *ab initio* using the SCF method in the *ROHF* approximation, using the 6-31G basis [10] for atomic functions. No symmetry restriction has been applied during optimization of geometry. To optimize complexes **1-4**, the GAMESS program package was used [8].

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As a result of the interaction of zinc acetate with 1,2-cyclohexanedione dioxime and a nicotinamide ligand, there were synthesized the mononuclear coordination compounds **1-4**, in which the dioxime chelate ligand bidentately coordinates within the zinc ion, while other ligands bind monodentately.

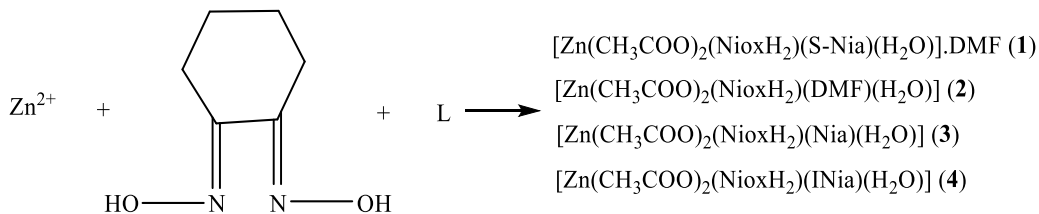
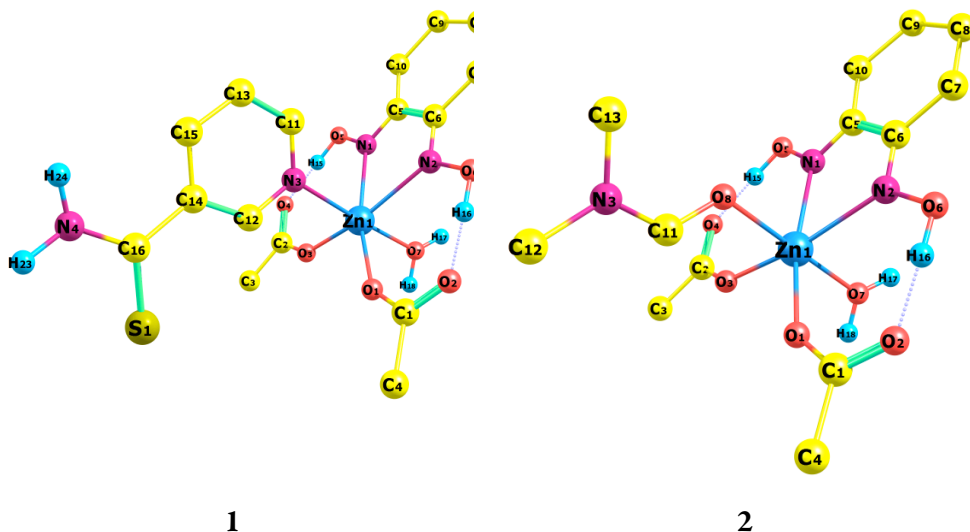


Fig. 1. Scheme of synthesis reactions of coordination compounds **1-4**.

## THEORETICAL RESULTS

### *Geometric structures*

Optimization takes place in several stages, where for each coordinate modification the electron energy is calculated in the given nucleus configuration. There have been performed geometric optimization calculations for compounds **1-4** studied by *ab initio* HF with basic sets 6-31G, in singlet spin state and  $C_1$  symmetry. The calculations reproduce the almost octahedral symmetry of the metal center observed at the decipherment of X-ray structures, the geometric parameters being close, with small deviations, to the crystallographic data. The geometric structures and parameters of complexes **1-4** are represented in Figure 2 and Table 1.



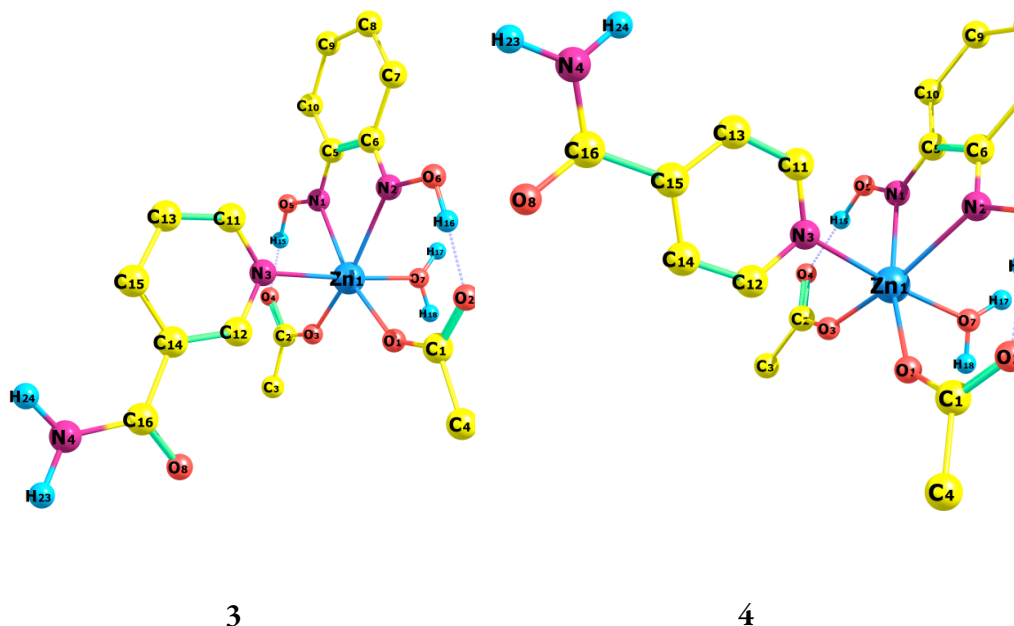


Fig. 2. Geometric structure of complexes **1-4**.

The values of the distances between the central ion Zn1 and oxygen atoms O1, O3 (acetate), O7 (water), respectively nitrogen N1, N2 (oxime) and N3 (ligand), by which the bonds in compounds **1-4** are made, are shown in Table 1, that additionally presents the experimental values.

Table 1. Selected geometric parameters by X-ray and theoretical calculations at HF/6-31 of complexes **1-4** (theoretical/experimental [9]).

Compound	R(Å), (theor./exp.)			
	Zn-N <sub>ox</sub>	Zn-O <sub>ac</sub>	Zn-O <sub>w</sub>	Zn-L
<b>1</b>	2.34/2.20	2.00/2.04	2.18/2.08	1.26/2.14
<b>2</b>	2.31/2.19	2.03/2.04	2.16/2.14	2.14/2.18
<b>3</b>	2.34/-	2.00/-	2.18/-	2.25/-
<b>4</b>	2.33/-	2.00/-	2.17/-	2.25/-

The geometric parameters obtained on the basis of quantum-chemical calculations are close to the experimental ones, with small deviations. Theoretically, the distances between the central ions and the ligand Zn-N1, Zn-N2 in the oxime group and Zn-O1, Zn-O3 in the acetate are equal, which can not be experimentally proved, where the lengths of the bonds slightly differ (not essentially) due to complex packaging in the crystal. For complexes **3** and **4** experimental values are missing.

#### ***HOMO–LUMO energy gap and related molecular properties***

The *ab initio* method is an important tool used to calculate the electron distribution in HOMO, LUMO boundary orbitals presented, respectively, in Figure 3 and 4. The energy values of OM and the gap-energy for compounds **1-4** are presented in Table 2.

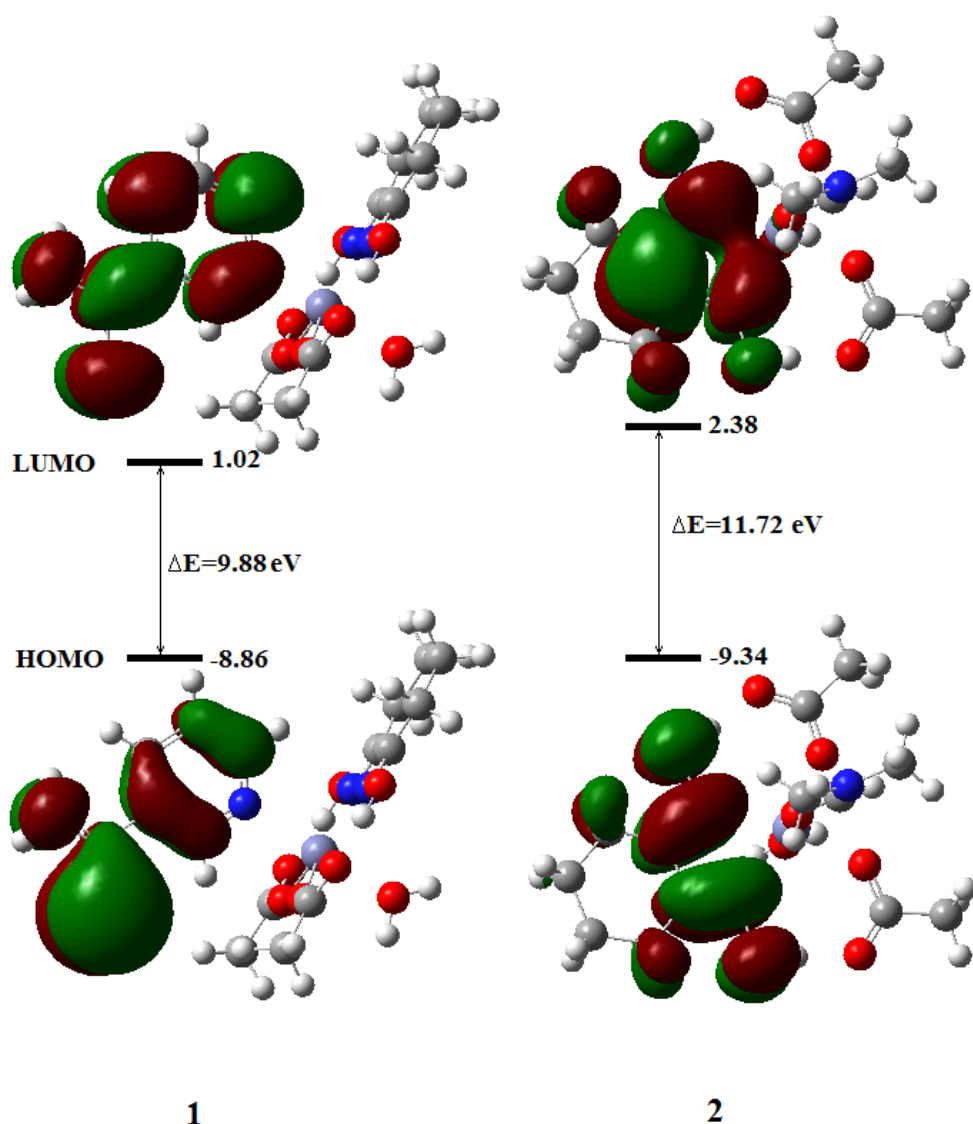


Fig. 3. Schematic representations of HOMO and LUMO molecular orbitals of the studied complexes **1** and **2** at the 6-31G.

The study of molecular areas for the two types of molecular orbitals (HOMO and LUMO), Figures 3 and 4, show the contribution of atomic orbitals to their formation. The value of  $E_{\text{HOMO}}$  energy is associated with the capacity to donate electrons to a molecule. Instead, the  $E_{\text{LUMO}}$  energy value is related to the electron

affinity, respectively. The binding capacity of the ligand to the central ion (metal) increases with the increase of HOMO energy values.

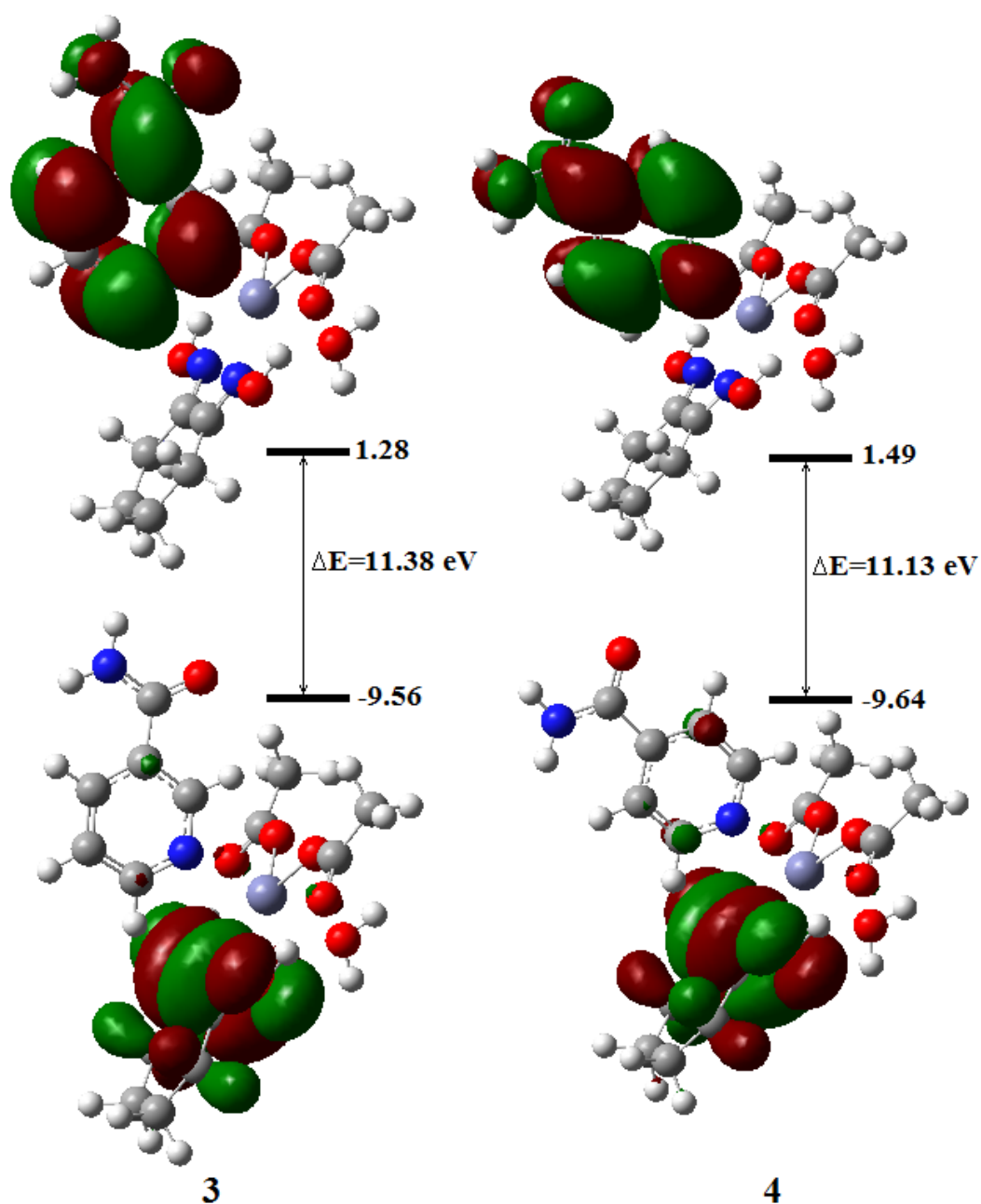


Fig. 4. Schematic representations of HOMO and LUMO molecular orbitals of the studied complexes **3** and **4** at the 6-31G.

The energy difference between HOMO and LUMO levels ( $\Delta E = E_{\text{LUMO}} - E_{\text{HOMO}}$ ) is also a chemically important molecular descriptor that explains the stability of the complex, one of its low values indicating that the molecule is highly reactive. Moreover,  $\Delta E$  can be considered a critical parameter for assessing electrical properties of molecular transport. Concerning the energy difference between HOMO and LUMO orbitals, it can be observed that the most stable is complex **2**, having  $\Delta E = 11.72$  eV (Table 2).

Table 2. Calculated HOMO and LUMO energies and HOMO-LUMO gap energies in eV calculated at *ab initio* level using the 6-31G basis set.

Energy Parameters	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
$E_{\text{HOMO}}$	-8.86	-9.34	-9.56	-9.64
$E_{\text{LUMO}}$	1.02	2.38	1.82	1.49
$\Delta E = E_{\text{LUMO}} - E_{\text{HOMO}}$	9.88	<b>11.72</b>	11.38	11.13
<b>Total energy (a.u.)</b>	-3536.18	-3046.11	-3213.53	-3213.53

The results obtained are consistent with similar complex compounds [11].

The HOMO and LUMO border molecular orbitals are important features that indicate how a molecule interacts with other chemical species. The HOMO molecular orbital acts as an electron donor while the LUMO orbital acts as an electron acceptor. Some general quantum descriptors that have been calculated by different quantum-chemical methods are: absolute electronegativity ( $\chi$ ), absolute rigidity ( $\eta$ ) and softness ( $\sigma$ ) Table 3 [12]:

$$\chi = -\frac{E_{\text{LUMO}} + E_{\text{HOMO}}}{2}, \quad \eta = \frac{I - A}{2} \text{ and } \sigma = \frac{1}{\eta}$$

where: I – ionization potential;



A – electronic affinity.

According to Koopman's theorem [13] I and A are the energies of boundary orbitals, as follows:

$$I = -E_{HOMO} \text{ and } A = -E_{LUMO}$$

results:

$$\eta = \frac{E_{LUMO} - E_{HOMO}}{2} = \frac{\Delta E}{2}.$$

The measure of the ability to retain own electrons and capture foreign electrons is described by  $\chi$  electronegativity. Hardness is a size that shows the opposition of an atomic or molecular system to the variation in electronic density in the system.

Another molecular parameter resulting from quantum-chemical calculations is the electrical dipole moment ( $\mu$ ), that is a measure of positive and negative electric charges separation in an electrical charge system, and thus a measure of system polarization. The dipole moment ( $\mu$ ) may also be related to the dipole-dipole interaction of molecules and the metal surface:

$$\mu = \frac{E_{HOMO} + E_{LUMO}}{2}$$

Using the dipole moment ( $\mu$ ) and absolute hardness ( $\eta$ ) it can be calculated the general index of electrophilicity ( $\omega$ ) introduced by Parr [14]:

$$\omega = \frac{\mu^2}{2\eta}.$$

This parameter ( $\omega$ ) measures the sensibility of chemical species to accepting electrons. Thus the low values of ( $\omega$ ) suggest a good nucleophile, while the high values indicate the presence of a good electrophile. Table 3 exposes absolute electronegativity ( $\chi$ ), absolute rigidity ( $\eta$ ), softness ( $\sigma$ ), dipole moment ( $\mu$ ) and electrophilicity ( $\omega$ ) for the studied molecules.

Table 3. Absolute electronegativity ( $\chi$ ), absolute rigidity ( $\eta$ ), softness ( $\sigma$ ), dipole moment ( $\mu$ ) and electrophilicity ( $\omega$ ).

Quantum Chemical Parameters	1	2	3	4
<b>Absolute electronegativity <math>\chi</math></b> (eV)	3.92	3.48	3.87	4.08
<b>Ionization potential I</b> (eV)	8.86	9.34	9.56	9.64
<b>Electron affinity A</b> (eV)	-1.02	-2.38	-1.82	-1.49
<b>Absolute rigidity <math>\eta</math></b> (eV)	4.94	5.86	5.69	5.57
<b>Softness <math>\sigma</math></b> (eV) <sup>-1</sup>	0.20	0.17	0.17	0.18
<b>Dipole moment <math>\mu</math></b> (debye)	-3.92	-3.48	-3.87	-4.08
<b>Electrophilicity <math>\omega</math></b> (eV)	1.55	1.03	1.32	1.49

### *Mulliken atomic charges*

One of the molecular properties immediately resulting from electronic structure calculations is charge distribution. Although there is no single definition of the number of electrons of an atom in a molecule, it has been found useful to carry out such a population analysis. Due to its simplicity, Mulliken population analysis (MPA) has become the most familiar method for counting electrons that are associated with a particular atom in a molecule.

The distribution of charge on atoms suggests the formation of donor and acceptor pairs involving the transfer of charge into molecule. Atomic charge is used to describe electronegativity equalization processes and charge transfer within chemical reactions. Mulliken charges of the atoms were calculated for each compound and are presented in Table 4.

Comparing the Mulliken charges on the ligand atoms connecting the central ion obtained from the optimized structure, it can be seen a higher negative value

localized on the oxygen and nitrogen atoms connecting the central ion (Table 4). Hence, these atoms act as electron donors and in all cases there is an electrostatic attraction between the metal surface and the ligand molecules.

Table 4. Mulliken atomic charges calculated by HF/6-31G method.

1	2	3	4
$q_{Zn}=1.47$	$q_{Zn}=1.42$	$q_{Zn}=1.47$	$q_{Zn}=1.47$
$q_{N1}=-0.34$	$q_{N1}=-0.35$	$q_{N1}=-0.34$	$q_{N1}=-0.33$
$q_{N2}=-0.34$	$q_{N2}=-0.35$	$q_{N2}=-0.34$	$q_{N2}=-0.33$
$q_{N3}=-0.79$	$q_{O1}=-0.86$	$q_{N3}=-0.79$	$q_{N3}=-0.76$
$q_{O1}=-0.86$	$q_{O3}=-0.86$	$q_{O1}=-0.86$	$q_{O1}=-0.86$
$q_{O3}=-0.86$	$q_{O7}=-0.86$	$q_{O3}=-0.86$	$q_{O3}=-0.86$
$q_{O7}=-0.86$	$q_{O8}=-0.74$	$q_{O7}=-0.85$	$q_{O7}=-0.85$

Thus, using quantum-chemical calculations, four complex compounds were optimized. The main descriptors, such as ionization energy (I), electron affinity (A), HOMO-LUMO ( $\Delta E$ ) difference, dipole moment ( $\mu$ ), hardness ( $\eta$ ) and softness ( $\sigma$ ) were obtained from the *ab initio* calculations and used to identify differences in the stability and reactivity of the studied compounds.

Even if the calculations are performed in the gas phase and the experimental data are for the solid state, where the effect of the crystal field can affect the relative energies and geometric structures, the obtained quantum-chemical modeling calculations are consistent with the experimental ones.

**Biological properties.** As a result of microbiological tests, it was found that among complexes with 1,2-cyclohexanedione dioxime, after influence on this micromycete, **1**, **3**, **4** have a similar effect. The optimal concentration can be considered as 5 mg / L which allows growth by 42.79-57.14% (5th cultivation day) [9].

## CONCLUSIONS

The use of a complex set of research methods (chemical, physical, biological, computational) allows the complex and multilateral study of chemical compounds, which increases the probability of pupils/ students motivation for the analysis of complicated phenomena of nature. The studied model proposes the integration of experimental and theoretical methods using contemporary information technologies. We have described the synthesis of zinc complexes **1-4**. Structural data for these complexes revealed that a single coordination geometry is favored, by at least several u.a.e. Theoretical data, which were in good agreement with experimental data, indicated that the preference for creating a single coordination geometry was due to both steric and electronic effects. Quantum chemical calculations were carried out and there is a good correlation between the quantum chemical calculations and the experimentally obtained results.

The complex study model of chemical compounds is proposed for the university level, and for the pre-university level - in case the gifted pupils show interest.

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## **The Impact Of Gender Reassignment On The Professional Career Path And Power Relations**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The present paper deals on a general level with the relationship between transsexuality and power, approaching the extent to which gender reassignment and the transition from one gender to another influence the position of power of the people involved. Specifically, the research presented here aimed to analyse the interconnection between gender, work, leadership and power position in the case of transgender people who have gone through a process of gender transition. Using a qualitative methodology, which involved a sociological case study within there were conducted three semi-structured in-depth interviews and a two-week participant observation, there was on one hand ensued to identify to what extent there is a proportionality between the reassignment of gender and the position of power, and on the other hand how transsexuality and gender reassignment/ transition impact the professional career path and the leadership position of the concerned persons. The results of the empirical study highlight the complexity of the relationship between

gender and power, pointing out not only the dependence between them, but also their transcendence rapport and its circumstances.

**Keywords:** *gender reassignment; transsexuality; power; professional career; gendered habitus; hegemonic masculinity*

## INTRODUCTION

Transsexuality is no longer a taboo topic in the social sciences. It is a subject of research often found in gender studies, as well as in sociology and psychology, in analyses which aim mainly the investigation of identity construction processes, and emotional and social impact of bodily transformations.

Although there are many approaches to transsexuality and to the transition from one gender to another, being particularly framed in the constructivist, deconstructivist and feminist theoretical perspectives, most studies address mainly the individual level rather than that of the social practices, including that of behaviours and interactions specific to social contexts. Moreover, although there exist studies that specifically approach – mostly through analysing some case studies – the impact of gender reassignment on the professional situation of people who are going through such a process, few researches directly address the relationship between transsexuality and power, respectively the extent to which transition from one gender to another influences the degree of power (economic, social, political – in the sense of M. Weber 1922) of the people involved.

This paper proposes an approach to this issue, aiming to analyse the relationship between gender, work and power in the case of transgender people who have gone through the transition from one gender to another. Specifically, the general objective of the empirical research was to identify to what extent there is a proportionality between the reassignment of gender and the position of power,

respectively how transsexuality and gender reassignment/ transition influence the professional career of the concerned persons.

## RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER AND POWER. THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The broader theoretical perspective in which the present research can be included is that opened by Pierre Bourdieu's theory of action, significant being in this context particularly his conceptualizations on "habitus" and "masculine domination". Action is explained by Bourdieu through the concept of *habitus* and it is less seen as a result of goals or purposes (Bourdieu 1998b). Habitus represents "the materializing social behaviour" (Bourdieu and Wacquant 1996, 161) and is the result of the *acquired disposition*. It refers to the embedded experience of the individual and his/her attitude in the social world, to his/her habits, his/her lifestyle, behaviours and values (see Fuchs-Heinritz and König 2005, 113). By means of habitus people are able to generate social practices and to participate in social life (ibid. 114). Bourdieu points out that the individual is socialized within himself/herself, being endowed with preformed dispositions of thinking and behaviour that facilitate, but also limit his/her action.

According to Bourdieu (1998b), the reproduction of the social structure results from the habitus of individuals. Habitus represents an exchange between the individual and society, which enables individual to action (Bourdieu 1998b, 21), and reflects the embedment – in the proper sense, as reflection or transposition in the body – of social structures (Hermann and Strunk 2012, 45). It relates to all the mechanisms that guide behaviour (hence not the behaviour itself), featuring an "embedded structure" of which the individual can no longer disembarass oneself (idem) neither by simple reflection of behaviour, nor by any behavioural changes.



Habitus is continuously constructed and rebuilt not only by social rules and games, but also in terms of gender affiliation. Bourdieu “transposed” his concept of habitus in addressing gender inequality only in the mid-90s (Schölper 2008, 17), by using the term “gendered and gendering habitus” (Bourdieu 1997, 167) to analyse the “antagonistic principles of masculine and feminine identity” (ibid. 185). This means that each of the two genders exists only through the opposite relationship to the other gender (Bourdieu 2005, 46). According to Bourdieu, the dichotomy of genders is a universal principle of perception and classification, a system of categories of thinking and action, which is objectified in social world and incorporated into habitus (ibid. 159). Each gender is produced by an effort of construction, the body being different shaped and impregnated in a “pre-reflective, normalizing” way (idem).

The division into genders seems to be “in the nature of things”, in other words it fits in the sphere of things to which people refer as “normal, natural, inevitable”. This division can be assessed equally – in an objectified state – in things (e.g. in the division by gender of things in a house), in the whole social world, and – in an incorporated state – in bodies, in the habits of social actors, functioning as systematic schemes of perception, thinking and action (Bourdieu 2005, 19-20).

The symbolic organization of the gender division of labour and, furthermore, the whole natural and social order, is based on an “arbitrary construction of biology and especially of bodies – male and female”, construction that seems to have a natural foundation (ibid. 44). Its special force arises from what Bourdieu calls “the masculine socio-idea”, which simultaneously compresses and performs two operations: legitimizes the relationship of domination, impregnating it a “biological nature”, which, in fact, is itself a naturalized social construction (ibid. 44-5).

This masculine socio-idea (*sociodicee*) objectifies in a special form of relations of domination and power (Schölper 2008, 18), which Bourdieu conceptualizes as “symbolic violence”. This relates to any form of gentle, invisible, subtle violence, which

is imperceptible to its victims and is exerted essentially by the purely symbolic means of communication and knowledge, or, more specifically, through interpretation, recognition and, to the highest degree, emotions and feelings (Bourdieu 2005, 8).

Masculine domination insinuates through the naturalized social order a violent relationship, which at the same time “unites and divides” men and women (Bourdieu 1997, 163). According to this way of relationship, men and women appear as opposite sides of a whole, completing/ fulfilling it together, but with the male as the dominating side and the female as the subdued side.

Both women and men are subjected to the process of socialization; neither feminine nor masculine dispositions are given by nature. But while women assume negative virtues as resignation, silence and devotion, men must permanently claim and exercise domination and, moreover, they have to actively differentiate from the other gender (Bourdieu 2005, 90). The status of men in terms of a *vir* implies a moral obligation to be “masculine”, a *virtus*, which asserts itself in a self-evident, inherent, unquestionable and undisputable way (idem). This *virtus* “governs honour” and “conducts (in a two-way manner) the thoughts and behaviours of a man as a power” (ibid. 91), “directs its actions following the principle of a logical necessity” (idem), but acts also as a trap or as a burden, men being forced “to confirm their masculinity” in any condition and at all costs (ibid. 92).

R.W. Connell (1995) emphasizes also the link between the specific habitus and the social existence of gender by defining the gender as the ways in which the “reproductive arena”, which includes the “bodily structures and processes of human reproduction”, organizes practice at all levels of social organization – from identities, to symbolic rituals and to large-scale institutions (Connell 1995, 71). In the gender relations Connell considers masculinity as the central feature, and she defines it as “simultaneously a place in gender relations, the practices through which men and women engage the place in gender, and the effects of these practices on bodily

experience, personality and culture” (idem). Thus masculinity has, according to Connell, three components: a social position; a set of practices and characteristics understood to be “masculine”; the effects of the collective embodiment and enactment of these practices on individuals, relationships, institutional structures, and global relations of domination (Connell 2000). Furthermore she defines hegemonic masculinity as “the configuration of gender practice which embodies the currently accepted answer to the problem of the legitimacy of patriarchy, which guarantees (or is taken to guarantee) the dominant position of men and the subordination of women” (Connell 1995, 77).

According to Christopher Clark (2013), “power” is not a feature of individuals, groups or organizations, but rather it “articulates a relationship among them” (Clark 2013, 188). Since power is put into practice by means of various ways – from reward, protection and persuasion to threat respectively use of force – it is “neither a substantial entity, nor an institution, let alone something that one possesses, but an attribute of the relationships, within which it is applied” (ibid. 189).

Power and masculinity stand in a special connection, because the social construct of masculinity is inseparably conceived of that of power. As regards gender relations, the symbolic link between masculinity and power applies both to its heterosocial and its homosocial dimension (Meuser 2010, 327).

As Connell (1999, 205) emphasizes, hegemonic masculinity is a phenomenon of the occidental modernity. Following Antonio Gramsci and his theory of cultural hegemony, Connell comprehends the concept of “hegemony” as a form of rule or domination, which is less enforced by means of coercion and violence, than is produced and reproduced by the culturally mediated creation of an (implicit) consent of subordinate groups with their position: by shared values and common interpretive patterns (see Meuser 2010, 327-8). Thus, hegemony refers to the cultural dominance in society as a whole, but does not mean complete control. It is based on the consent

of the subordinates with their social situation and also presupposes a minimal permeability between the social classes (ibid. 329), and these are specific only to modern societies. In other words, hegemony is a form of regulation of social relations, characterized by an “openness of the social” (idem), and this openness is typical of modern societies.

However, the societies in which hegemonic masculinity functions as a highly effective symbolic resource for the reproduction of the power relations between genders are undergoing significant changes (Connell 1998). These changes are designated by terms as globalization, dissolution of boundaries, market radicalization, and casualization of working and living conditions (Meuser 2010, 329). In these circumstances, the question arises whether at the same time with the development of post-Fordist capitalism a revision of the concept of “hegemony” would be necessary. Moreover, as Meuser in the light of the current changes in male living conditions discusses, the question arises to what extent the concept of hegemonic masculinity is still viable to understand masculinity and gender relations in the present.

On the other hand, Meuser (ibid. 333) points out that hegemonic masculinity itself becomes more flexible. For example, a development of the pattern of hegemonic masculinity can be observed, which brings with it an increasing integration of the features and activities that previously have been connoted as “feminine” (ibid. 332). Therefore this concept may require reformulation or new explanations.

## **RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY**

For the objectives and the development of my research questions were highly relevant the already mentioned concepts of “gendered and gendering habitus” (Bourdieu 1997) and “masculinity” and “hegemonic masculinity” (Connell 1995). Following Bourdieu (1997; 1998a), power and domination mechanisms are taken into account not only with regard to the generating of inequality, but also with regard to

the incorporation of the social order and the simultaneously existing processes of self-affirmation. According to Bourdieu, the impacts of the habitus are always gendered and gendering at the same time. In this context, the following question arises: what happens in the case of transgender people after gender reassignment/ gender transition, provided that they are socialized with a habitus and some schemes which are gendered/ gender-specific?

Starting from this theoretical and conceptual framework, the general objective of my empirical study was to investigate the relationship between power and gender in the case of the transgender persons who are experiencing gender reassignment. Consequently, my goal was to find out to what extent transsexuality and gender transition influence the professional career of concerned persons and how gender reassignment affects their power position. Specifically, I examined to what extent the power and leading position is proportional to the gender affiliation and if it changes to the same degree with the transition from one gender to another.

There was used a qualitative methodology, involving a sociological case study, within which I conducted three semi-structured in-depth interviews and a two-week participant observation. I chose these qualitative methods given the exploratory nature of the research on the concerned subject. In the context of my investigation, “exploratory” means that the problem examined has not been often researched, and consequently has not been clearly defined. In this respect, as in other exploratory studies, my aim is to become familiar with the studied phenomenon and to gain new insights into it. In this way, the problem can be better clarified later on and hypotheses can be developed for further researches.

The subject of the case study was a transgender man-to-woman who is the owner and active leader of several companies and has gone through gender reassignment seven years ago. There were interviewed the transgender person herself<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> In this paper the investigated transgender man-to-women, which was the subject of

and two of her employees<sup>2</sup>, whereas the two-week participant observation took place in one of her companies, in which she was present every day.

For the data analysis of in-depth interviews there was used a qualitative content analysis (see Miles and Huberman 1994), which implies operations of theoretical categorization and codification, contextualization, decodification of significance, conceptualization, discovery of regularities, explanations and causal connections (Miles and Huberman 1994, 10), formulation and verification of the conclusions and preservation of theoretical coherence (ibid. 263). The interpretation of the interviews is based on a hermeneutic approach, which is used to understand the connection and influence between the viewpoint of the interviewed person regarding the world, and himself/ herself, his/her experiences and the social conditions.

The evaluation of the data resulting from the participant observation consisted primarily of the codification of the observation data, which means the exhaustive inventory of the collected data (the notes), their systematic review, the interpretation by means of general categories, the reflection on their pertinence and the insertion into the final research report (see Peretz 2004, 100). The purpose of the exhaustive inventory and analysis was to find meanings in the totality of the information, which are relevant to the general objective and to the specific research questions of the present study.

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my case study, will be regarded as the “investigated person” or “Daniela” (a pseudonym – due to the anonymization of the data the name was changed). Quotations in boxes from the interview with her are marked at the end with “I.D.” – from “Interview (with) Daniela”.

<sup>2</sup> A man and a women, which – in order to protect their privacy – are named with the pseudonyms “Werner” and “Susanne”. Quotations in boxes from their interviews are marked at the end with “I.W.” [for “Interview (with) Werner”] and “I.S.” [for “Interview (with) Susanne”].

## RESULTS

### *Biographic background*

The investigated person (Daniela K.)<sup>3</sup> was born 1962 and to the male gender assigned. However, according to her testimony, she has “ascertained for the first time already at the age of 6 years” that she is “slightly different” than her male peers. She was raised (as a boy) in a strict Catholic family, in which she was denied any “feminine manifestations”.

When she was 18 years old, she met her present wife, Anna<sup>4</sup>, whom Daniela disclosed her situation – namely, that “inside” she is a woman. Anna understood and accepted it, so they moved together and later married. Over the years Daniela lived as a man outside (in society), but as a woman at home. However, the gender reassignment was made only after a long time, beginning with 2009, after a bodily as well as a psychic burnout and a period of time in which she had to stay home.

Professionally, she was an employee of a big company in Germany until 1990, when she launched her own business by setting up her first company. Subsequently she founded alone or as business associate other four companies, mainly conducted by herself. Currently she owns and leads successfully three companies.

### *Professional career*

Regarding the work and career of the investigated person – the transgender man-to-woman entrepreneur –, the interview with her revealed that transsexuality had an ambivalent impact on them before gender reassignment.

On one hand she thinks that during childhood and adolescence the fact of being transsexual had negative effects by not being concerned with a career (or building a career) but with her body and with the wish to change her body, as well as to obscure or disguise all this to other people. On the other hand, this dissimulation

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<sup>3</sup> See the note 1.

<sup>4</sup> For the reasons mentioned in notes 1 and 2, this is also a pseudonym.

furthered her, because she always tried and strove to prove that “nothing was wrong” with her (him at that time) and that she (he) was “a real man”.

I always had to show that I am a man. A man must have success. A man has to work, he has to have a family, he has to build a house, I got all of this from home. Of course I behaved well and did everything nicely (I.D.).

As can be seen in the above quote, Daniela was “functional” (in the sense of the concept of hegemonic masculinity defined by Connell 1995), married, had a wife, built a house, ultimately she has succeeded by becoming owner of several companies, all this to show that she is “a man”, adjusting herself to the image of hegemonic masculinity in which she was socialized.

However, the investigated person declares at present to be satisfied with her own professional career and perceives herself as a successful businesswoman. Both interviewed employees see Daniela as well as a competent and capable entrepreneur, although they acknowledge that they have no great knowledge about running a company. But the success of her companies over a long period of time, as well as her hard work, shows in their view competency and effectiveness.

#### *Leadership and power position*

It can be noticed from the above remarks, on one hand, the great significance of the “gendered and gendering habitus” and of the acquired dispositions, and on the other hand, the power of the “*Hastobe*” or the *virtus* (Bourdieu 2005), which governs the honour of men, directs their thoughts and practices, and conducts their actions “in the manner of a logical necessity”.

This masculine *virtus* did cost the investigated person, according to her statement, “very much strength”. For this reason, the substantiation of her “true, real gender” was a relief both for her and – in her opinion – also for the people involved in



her business. She believes that the employees regard her gender reassignment as a positive, not a negative factor, because not only the state of her companies remained consistent, but also her leadership style changed positively. However there should be mentioned here that the investigated person does not regard this change as a result of a deliberate, targeted adaptation to a “feminine style of leadership”, but as a consequence of the physical/ bodily hormonal changes and the psychic/ mental relaxation, due to the fact that her whole attitude towards life improved. Thus, she no longer has to conceal her “woman-being”, she may show her feelings and weakness, i.e. she does not have to fight “with herself” anymore.

Overall, I became much more calm, more balanced, I don't have to hide anymore. [...] With me, the psyche has also acted on the organs, that is now gone, so in this respect I have actually done myself a favor that I have now made the step [the gender reassignment]. [...]

When in the past something was wrong, I immediately made an insurrection, and showed how great I am, these are typical things. [...] Through the hormones not only does the body change, but also overall the feeling of life changes, one becomes more relaxed, quieter... In the past I used to be so frenzied, this is no longer the case today. But I don't think this is explained by the womanhood as such, this may be the case, but it is so rather because now I can express my feelings freely, I am also allowed to be anxious or something else, I do not have to bring out the “masculine”, it is something completely different (I.D.).

The collected data reveal however a contradiction when the results of the interviews with the employees and the participant observation are compared with the information obtained from the interview with the examined person.

The interviewed employees perceive indeed the continuity that took place in the company after their employers gender reassignment as something positive, since their jobs have remained the same, the company activities have continued as before, and even the behaviours and activities of their boss have remained unchanged. In this respect the viewpoints of the employees agree with those of the transgender entrepreneur. But the self-perception of the subject of the case study according to which she became “quieter, more relaxed, more balanced, more agreeable” as a result of showing her feelings (including weaknesses) and her general improvement of the attitude towards life, was not confirmed by her interviewed employees. On the contrary, they say that their employer’s style of leadership has remained constant after the gender transition, and that she is rather an authoritarian (female) leader, as it was once an authoritarian male leader. Moreover, one of the two interviewed employees mentions that in her opinion Daniela appears to have even become more dominant and harder at the moment, which means she is even more “masculine”.

For me personally, nothing has changed since she lives as a woman. On the contrary, sometimes I had the feeling that she now has to prove even more in the company that “she is wearing the pants” and to some extent she reacts to us employees even more severely (I.S.).

From this it can be concluded, that, with respect to her leadership and power position, the investigated person continues to prove her “hegemonic masculinity”. Thus, one can notice that authority and power are associated with masculinity (more precisely, with hegemonic masculinity). In this regard, the examined transgender entrepreneur strives even more, at least in the perception of one of her employees, to confirm her affiliation to hegemonic masculinity, especially since she now physically no longer belongs to the “appropriate” gender – “man”. It can be assumed that, in the

researched case, these perceived rather “male” power-related behaviors outweigh the efforts of the investigated person towards “femininity”. This conclusion was confirmed also by the results of the participant observation.

This could be interpreted to the effect that, for the investigated transgender businesswoman, beyond her gender transition, her leadership and power position are the most important.

Furthermore, on the basis of findings from the participant observation, it can be concluded, that Daniela practices rather a domineering leadership style and proves to be a determined, goal-oriented person. She maintains social distance to all her employees and lets them feel her position of power. In the theoretical terms of Connell (1987; 1995) one can say, that the investigated man-to-woman transgender person cannot be assigned to any form of femininity, but to “hegemonic masculinity”, given that her social practices – behaviours, attitudes, relationship management, etc. , her style of leadership, and her way of exercising power can be viewed as characteristics of hegemonic masculinity.

The findings from the interviews with the employees endorse these conclusions. Werner and Susanne perceive, that their boss behaves rather patriarchal than democratic. Paradoxically they consider that convenient, because this leadership style of Daniela would show the continuity in the company, including, in their view, the security of their jobs.

We are employees and do what we are told and what the work requires. And within the person Daniela there is nothing democratic. She is not taking suggestions at all, she rules her companies absolutely authoritarian (I.S.).

For me, Daniela behaves more like a man in women's clothes (do not tell her that!), but that is only my personal view. [...] She performs specific “bossish” activities, as I

said, Daniela is Daniela as a person, woman or man does not matter, she behaves the same. But I am totally OK with this situation, I wouldn't want big changes in the company, a leadership style suddenly "feminine", or, God forbid, substantial changes that would have included layoffs or something like that (I.W.).

From the interview with the investigated person results that the gender reassignment and the act of "outing" have not proved to be disruptive factors for her power position and power maintenance. Several times during the interview, she mentions that after the outing nothing changed with regard to her work, leadership and power position. She narrated, that she had explanatory conversations – when she was still a "man" – with her friends and acquaintances, as well as with her employees, customers and business partners, in which she expounded her situation and the forthcoming process of outing and gender reassignment. In her view, all of them reacted "consistently positive" to this information. She states that – especially since she did not try to set herself up particularly "feminine" after the gender transition, that is, to "adopt any exaggerated feminine" movements or behaviors, or to avoid male-considered activities –, her employees and business associates felt probably a sense of continuity, which for her own sake ultimately meant an unproblematic preservation of her power position.

However, if the discussion regarding her power and authority is approached more in-depth, it can be seen, that gender – namely "being a man" back then – plays a decisive role even in the present, now that she is a woman. All companies of the interviewee were founded as "man" and led so for many years. She is aware that as such (as a man) she gained the trust of the people involved and built up an authority ("man authority").

For all these people, the reassignment of her gender should not be important, given that Daniela had already the knowledge and the business capabilities of a "man".

Furthermore, she concedes that she could never, as a woman, have established the companies and reached her position of power.

Certainly, at the beginning, so when I started, I could have never started as a woman, definitely, because back then that would have not worked at all. I first ordered machines, rented the facility, and then went to a bank and said, now finance me please. As a woman they would have called me crazy and I would have been thrown out, definitely, so that would not have been possible as woman at that time (I.D.).

Likewise, after a few less positive experiences, as a woman, she became aware of how difficult it is now to build a new authority, “as a woman”, with regard to new acquaintances, and, moreover, how difficult it would be for her at present if she did not already have an authority “as a man”.

I find it to some extent frightening, how women are hoaxed... [...] One is underestimated as a woman, which is “normal”. This is how I learned it. There are many small things in life, where men simply say, so, that’s just the way, that could not be otherwise, and that’s it. And that’s just what you have to accept... [...] Unfortunately I notice again and again, let’s say that, that men like to rip women off, not all of them, certainly not, but there are many. Well, with me they have now bad luck, but with many [women] they get through with it (I.D.).

It has thus become apparent, that the gender stereotypes still exist and produce different assessments concerning men and women. In this way, women’s competences are questioned solely on the basis of their gender, whereas under equal conditions, men are attributed greater knowledge and higher professional, business and executive capabilities.

They [people/ men] mean then, I find it hard to believe, that because I'm a woman, they just look at me: check it out, that was a guy, now he's running around as a woman, come on, we just ride roughshod over her. [...] I mean, they think, I am suddenly dumb and stupid (I.D.).

Such observations underline the existence of gender stereotypes, according to which women and men are different because of their sex/ gender, they behave different, and they have different characteristics. Furthermore, it can be noted that this stereotypical categorization is not neutral, but it comes along with hierarchization. In pursuance of still common gender stereotypes, the male gender would be superior to the female one as regards to intellect, knowledge, abilities, competences and so on.

## **Discussion and conclusions**

This paper presents some of the findings of a research which approached the relationship between power and gender in the case of the transgender persons who are experiencing gender reassignment, and aimed to find out to what extent transsexuality and gender reassignment impact professional career and power position of the concerned persons.

As regards to the influence on the professional career, the results of the present research pointed out that transsexuality can have potentially ambivalent effects. On one hand, due to the special concern with own body, which does not correspond to the mental gender affiliation, as well as the concerns of hiding these contradictions towards other people, transsexuality may prove to be an obstacle to a smooth professional development and, eventually, can negatively affect the career and professional path of the concerned persons. On the other hand, as a result of all the strivings these persons undergo in order to adjust to the social norms, expectations and

demands – e.g. to embody “proper” the social assigned gender (proving that “nothing is wrong with them”) and to fit themselves into the image of hegemonic masculinity or femininity in which they have been primary socialized – some of them turn out to be strong-willed and persevering individuals, which eventually can concretize as accomplishments and success.

As concerns power, leadership and authority, the findings of this study highlight the essential role of gender for the road to power, and point out that male gender facilitates the attainment of a higher power position and the building of a strong authority. In addition, it has been revealed, that power is an attribute of relations (see Clark 2013), and that it is (or can be) preserved and strengthened through these relationships, even if a gender reassignment took place. All this signifies, that gender is of great importance for the ascent to power positions and for the legitimation of success, but when one has accomplished to attain a power position, it can be preserved by power relations, regardless of gender.

Moreover, the interviews with the two employees suggest that the position of power of their transgender employer is more important than her gender affiliation. During the interviews, when referring to their superior, they primarily refer to her power-related position (they designated her mainly as “boss”) and not to her gender (male/ female). This shows, that they are subordinate to a position and a status, not to a person, even if that person undertook a gender reassignment and thus experienced a transition from one gender (in the sense of Connell’s “social place”) to the other.

Therefore, the conclusion can be drawn that, at least in the case study presented here, the power and leadership position is not proportional to the gender transition and affiliation, in that it does not change to the same degree as the reassignment of gender.

In this context, the questions arise as to whether power transcends gender, whether, in an intersectional view, class membership exceeds gender, and to what

extent these occur. Such issues need further research and in-depth approaches, both theoretical and empirical.

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## Organisations and the Communication Crisis

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### ABSTRACT

In creating this approach, we started from re-updating the concept of communication crisis, in order to track the effects this disruption has on the image of organisations. For, as we know, to build an image favourable for an institutional structure involves hard, continuous work, and the deterioration of this image in a period of crisis can determine its evolution, it can even lead to the disappearance of that organisation. We tried to emphasise the correct and rapid ways by which the crisis can be managed, and communication is the fastest and one of the most efficient means. Public relations play an essential role at this stage, because they help in developing the messages to be transmitted to various types of audiences. *Communication during the crisis highlights the pragmatic aspect of communication, because when the information is lapidary, there is not enough time to collect data and to inform you.*

**Key words:** *communication, crisis, image.*

01. Contemporary companies form a world of interdependencies where communication is absolutely necessary. If for the human being the information and communication form a necessity, for the organisational being, communication is the act that can trigger its existence, can facilitate its expansion or can determine its stagnation, even its disappearance. The communication crisis becomes a component of the organisational crisis. It can precede, accompany and amplify the structural crisis of the organisation. A poor internal communication regarding the organisation's changes and prospects often lead to triggering a major conflict between the members of the organisation and management often degenerates in an organisational crisis. From the same perspective, we can state that an incoherent, ambiguous and contradictory external communication on the proposed goals and possibilities to achieve them can put the organisation in a situation of conflict with the companies in the environment where they operate. The consequences of the situation of conflict can be objectified in drastic measures or decisions, with negative consequences in the operation of the organisation and in public promotion of its own interests, thus creating conditions favourable for its entrance in crisis. We refer here to the organisations that have not publicly communicated the degree of risk of their operation or of the services provided on the market. These may be nuclear plants, plants of chemical or biological products, the production of which, but especially the result of this production could affect the environment, health and safety of people.

02. When an organisation is in crisis, the immediate consequences arise on the forms of communication. These, whether internal or external, become chaotic, unplanned, incoherent.

*Externally*, communication is usually limited to reactions of defence, of justification and response to journalists' questions. As a result of the communication crisis, the organisation may lose local, national and even international relations with other relevant organisations and categories of audiences, which could set a true support

in overcoming the crisis. At these times, the whole activity of the organisation changes, because managements make efforts to particularly solve the material, financial and technological matters; less attention is given to the involvement of the human factor whose actions may be unpredictable and counterproductive for the organisation.

*Internally*, when an organisation is faced with a crisis of change, communication takes the form of negotiations to solve the conflicts between employers and unions (between the management and employees). As the factors that triggered the communication crisis are numerous, just as surprising and complex can communication itself become. Its evolution towards the climax can be slow, under the conditions it is marked by the market success of organisation's products, services or by the image promoted by leaders. There are also situations where the evolution of the communication crisis can be sudden and devastating; this happens when inside or outside the organisation (between the organisation and the extra-organisational environment), contradictions and differences occur, which degenerate into conflicts.

03. The communication crisis can manifest locally, at the level of an organisational structure or between two levels of an organisation, without getting a general character. Once installed in the whole organisation, the internal communication crisis can cause the occurrence and development of an external communication crisis. The reverse of the situation is also possible, meaning a crisis in the external communication leads to a communication crisis in an organisation.

At the level of development registered by the current organisational structures, the communication crises are many times unavoidable and result in a series of effects that change the position of the organisation on the market and can affect its image. It is known that in order to resist in the environment of competition, in order to be credible, an organisation must take care of its own image. This is created with difficulty and maintained by observing high standards. When it develops by themselves,

communication crises may cause organisational disturbances, and what is even more severe is that they can have undesirable effects on the organisation's image.

A first change the communication crisis triggers refers to *reducing the efficiency of communication* inside the organisation; due to the uncontrolled development of some channels parallel to the official ones and due to the amplification of redundant messages, as well as of rumours, the members of the organisation can no longer communicate optimally. Also, leaders are no longer recognised as credible sources of information, their place being taken by informal sources from inside or outside the organisation. Thus, there appears a filter between the management and lower structure, which blocks, distorts or delays even the administrative-type communication (decision-reporting). The organisation can no longer be managed and enters a managerial crisis.

Moreover, *the communication crisis affects the symbolic structure of the organisation*, a situation that leads to the emergence of communicative and social conflicts. In an organisation under communication crisis, the hierarchy, observance of power distinctions are no longer recognised, and the emotional way of expression replaces the rational one. The released energies give rise to some confrontations and reports of unpredictable forces, and conflicts deepen. Deep ruptures occur, the effects of which accumulate and move from institutional to organisational, then to the groups inside the organisation. These are moments of tension, because the unity of the group members disappears also in the face of danger; a situation of confusion is installed that annihilates any effort of lucidity and differentiation. The perception of crisis is marked by a radical and sudden inversion of a normal state of continuous balance. All the characteristics of the normal, such as: feelings of calm, security and communicational sharing, the capacity to make projects to differentiate, negotiate the conflicts in a spirit that does not shake the sense of security at the level of groups or individuals, the positive representation of the others, of the unit of the project, of the constructive

imagery, compatible with the organisation's origins and objectives, having the adhesion of the members, can be found by designing the contrary elements: restlessness, insecurity, isolation, incapacity of design, refusal to negotiate, structuring the negative representations about the others and about the organisation's perspectives. At these moments, the communication crisis becomes synonymous with the conflict. And, as it is known, once triggered, the conflict is self-powered until one of the parties is defeated, gives in or mediation intervenes. The one directly affected now is the individual who observes their values have been violated and will become defensive. Defence may include two stages: the former includes the tendency of self-depreciation and withdrawal from the opponent; the second stage follows, supported by the depreciative assessment of the other and by exerting the pressures, communicative and psychological attacks on the opponent. At the level of organisations and social groups, it can degenerate into an open conflict such as strikes, demonstrations and violent confrontations.

04. The idea we want to emphasise is that in most cases, *the communication crisis generates the image crisis of the organisation*. Once triggered, internal communicative conflicts affect the identity of the organisation, the mechanism of training and promoting the self-image being thus interrupted. By interrupting the flow of information or distorting the functional and deliberate messages the organisation transmits to the external environment, the credibility of its actions is reduced. The quotas of trust, notoriety and legitimacy of the organisation decline, giving rise to the premises of producing the image crisis. Under these conditions, the organisation cannot function normally, its public image leads to major disturbances in all scopes of activity. It is a difficult time, which requires the reconfiguration of the organisation's social image through an act of imaginative rollover. A new communicative identity can also be created.

Not even the *external environment* will not be protected by the communication crisis. As a roller, other organisations can be involved in the communication crisis too, depending on their degree of dependence against the organisation generating the crisis. It is a common situation in the companies that have more than one company under their subordination; their operation depends on the decision-making and communication capacity of the powerful company. The stronger the hierarchical connections are, the stronger is the influence of the crisis. The autonomous administrations would be classified in this category (black coal, lignite, gas, oil, forests); banks with their territorial branches; political parties with local branches.

05. Seen as an important time in an organisation's life, the communication crisis can have the most varied effects, which can change the image of the organisation, among others. Only its members can overcome the difficult stages, can manage the crisis by **creating the structures and mechanisms dedicated to the development of organisational communication. These elements are related to** public relations, the role of which is to develop the internal and external communication, by specific forms of gaining the public trust, sympathy and support.

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## **The Role Of The Social Class And The Family In The Formation Of Values In The Context Of The Democratisation Of Education**

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### **ABSTRACT**

In this paper we are trying to analyse some important theoretical approaches that explain the role of the family and the social class on the formation of children's values. The analysis of these theoretical perspectives is based on the process of democratization of education, a process which aimed at precisely diminishing the role of social classes in building children's educational choices and, thus, promoting a better equality of chances, through the weakening of the link between social origins and educational outcomes. The theoretical sociological perspectives analysed in this article (M. Kohn and D. Alwin) are similar and they start from the same idea, namely that social stratification is important for understanding the values of both children and parents. Also, we have tried to see whether the views of the two sociologists are still applicable and can be used to explain social, economic and educational realities in the last decades.

**Keywords:** *democratisation of education; social class; value; level of education; parental role*



## A SHORT INTRODUCTION ON THE DEMOCRATISATION OF EDUCATION

The twentieth century was a century in which democratic or totalitarian societies placed a special emphasis on education. The first (*democratic*) have done so to increase the economic and social efficiency of the members of society, and the second (*totalitarian*) have done it in the name of an utopian ideology, but, undoubtedly, having an economic purpose and, especially, a purpose of image and manipulation (and an argumentative example of this idea can be the analysis of the Romanian totalitariat society and the 1948 Education Reform).

Regardless of what type of society we are talking about - democratic or totalitarian ones - the democratisation process has had overall positive consequences: it has contributed to the increase of the the population's confidence in education systems, contributed to the reduction of the illiteracy rate and, most importantly, “has strengthened the sense of equality in education, supported also by the accelerated economic development” (Neagu, 2012, p. 24) from the 50s and the 60s. In fact, this period of democratisation of education coincides with the post-World War II demographic period, called by the demographs the “baby boom” period, a period when the number of children who had to be educated increased a lot.

During the last five decades, thanks to the democratization of education, we have witnessed an incredible increase of number of pupils, which has led in many cases to an artificial increase of illusions, in relation to the social success of young people who have a degree of education superior to the “uncertain finality and which finally prove to be not so very useful” (Pulouauec, 2010, p. 11). This situation can be seen also today, and we can call it an effect of this democratisation process: a lot of youth who are entering the higher education systems (all over the European countries) and who, after the graduation, don't succeed to have a job, according to their level of education

and/or qualification. And this “artificial increase of illusions”, that Pulouauec was writing about, led them to be under-employed (in ‘Big Mac’ Jobs) or even unemployed. Briefly, the educational expansion induced by the democratization of education has led to a devaluation of diplomas, an increase in unemployment among young graduates, and a precarious integration into the labour market and other problems that youths are facing in today's society.

The phenomenon of democratization of education is related to the problem of equalizing the chances of access to different forms and levels of education. In some scientific papers on this topic, it is mentioned that this process has two dimensions “a) a quantitative dimension – which refers to the development or increase of participation in education and b) a qualitative dimension – which refers to the effective reduction of inequalities in education” (Duru-Bellat, 2002, p. 20; van Zanten, 2003).

When describing and explaining the process of democratization of education, E. Păun specifies that the quantitative aspect of the education determines a “democratization of the participation in education”, while the qualitative aspect determines a “democratization of the success” (Păun, 2017). The term “quantitative democracy” is also used, for example, to describe an increase in the schooling rate of a category of pupils; at the same time, the term “qualitative democracy” refers to the diminishing or “weakening of the link between social origins and educational outcomes” (Merle, 2002, p. 79).

There are “two ways of analysing at the relationship of the school system to social classes. Education can be considered as a good, just as health, leisure or domestic comfort; it can be seen that the different social classes do not have equal access to it. On the other hand, we can consider the school system as an active and discriminating institution, which sorts out the children and generates social differences. In the first

case, it is about the inequalities in the consumption of education; in the second, it is about the role of education in the genesis of inequalities” (Prost, 1981).

Since the 1960s, the participation of pupils in education has undergone significant changes (has increased a lot), regardless of the type of family they belonged to; but the most important changes have occurred among the children of the working class. If, in the 1960s, getting a high school diploma (graduating high-school) was considered to be a difficult target, it is now a minimal ambition of parents for their children. For example, according to the results of some surveys in France (INSEE, 2003) in 1962 and, for comparison, in 2003, it was found that, while in 1962 only 15% of working-class parents considered that it was very important for their child to graduate high-school (Baudelot and Establet, 2000), in 2003 this percentage had reached to 88%. This introductory mention to this report emphasizes the fact that the level of educational ambition (of children and, also, of parents for their children) will always vary according to social class and, thus, the democratisation of education did not succeeded, in its qualitative dimension. So, parents form middle or upper classes will always want the best and highest schools for their children and they will try to offer them more educational opportunities than working-class children cannot benefit.

## **THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL CLASS ON PARENTAL VALUES. THE PERSPECTIVE OF M. KOHN**

Even if the factors that influence the values of the children are multiple and include not only the parents, but also the education environment, the community, the media, the friends, it is useful to analyse also the theoretical paradigm that tries to explain how the social class/profession/parents level of education are forming the social values of their children.

The educational and professional aspirations of adolescents are considered as outcomes of the socio-economic status of their parents. The most common explication is that children from high class families have higher educational, professional and personal aspirations, than children with a lower social status. Sociological studies that have analysed this problem focus mainly on the father's influence on the son's acquisition of a certain social status (see, for example, the studies elaborated by Mortimer et al. 1986, or Alwin, 1984).

All of these studies start with the same question: *Does the family have some influence (it does or does not have some advantages) on children's access to better schools, to better social contracts and, implicitly, to obtain better economic resources?* From there, there is a second question: *does the socioeconomic status of the family affect the self-image, life-image, career orientation or the values of children?*

It is a theoretical paradigm that puts forward the idea that people who occupy privileged positions in the social structure value self-perfection and their children social development, more than people occupying less privileged places, in the same social hierarchy. This paradigm, which emphasizes that social stratification is important for understanding the values of both children and parents, has been extensively developed in the work of Melvin Kohn (in studies that the American sociologist has published, especially, between 1959 and 1990).

One of the conclusions that Kohn has proposed by his works (especially those published in 1969 and 1986) is that working conditions shape the value of the worker and they are also reflected in parent-child relationships at home. More specifically, the American sociologist argues that “middle-class people usually have a job that emphasizes self-reliance or self-orientation and, thus, promote the same value in their children's education; on the other hand, people of the working class have jobs that require compliance or obedience and this is reflected, therefore, also in the family guidance of their children” (Kohn, 1969).

The contrast between autonomy and conformity for different social classes is then extended from the generation of parents to that of children; it's a model transmitted from a generation to another. The serial development of parents' social classes - parental values - parental behaviour - will also be transmitted to children, especially (intergenerational process) with regard to their educational values. (Kohn, 1986).

In explaining how this is the social class that distinguishes values, Kohn, but also other researchers of this topic, have focused on jobs as one of the most important concerns of the social classes. They concluded that "blue-collar" occupations are devoid of complexity and most of the time, they are routine jobs. In these jobs, success is determined by the respect for the rules. On the other hand, in "white-collar" professions, success is determined by individual initiatives. This difference between professional conditions gives rise to adaptable values. These adaptive values, in turn, affect children's educational and professional orientations.

In his studies, Kohn analyzed how fathers and mothers transmit values to their children and found that there was a correlation between social class and the desired parental characteristics of children. For example, he concluded that the higher the social class is, the more the parents had to appreciate their children's things such as responsibility, common sense and good judgment, things related rather to autonomy, than to obedience to parents. He also found that the lower the social class was, parents were more interested in evaluating good manners to their children, to obedience-based characteristics, than having a self-development or to be attentive to others (characteristics to autonomy and independence).

For Kohn, the impact of social class on parental values is not impressive in terms of scale, but rather in terms of coherence, meaning that the relationship persists across a variety of elements that measure parental values and across a variety of national and temporal contexts (Kohn, 1969, p. 51; Kohn et al. 1986). Kohn has tried to

evaluate the applicability of the inter-generational transmission hypothesis by transnational data (in the United States, Poland and Japan) that he has analysed during the period 1986-1990. The conclusion of these data reports was that the occupation of the parents influences the values of the education of the children, and also, the values of their children (Kohn et al. 1986; Kohn and Słomczyński, 1990). Middle class parents usually develop recreational activities, such as sports or travel, and Kohn finds that these activities represent an important cultural capital (like Bourdieu was mentioning) that will help teach children and give them confidence that they will succeed later in life.

The conclusion that Kohn advances in his work is also found in other scientific papers, published in the mid-20th century, claiming that as one person moves up the social ladder, he wants his child to pursue higher education, and, later, to practice a profession that would give him a higher social status (Stendler, 1951, pp. 37-45).

In fact, studies in the sociology of values have shown that there are differences between social classes, in terms of conditions and ways of life, which, in turn, translate into different points of view and values, specific to each social class; at the same time working-class parents are more concerned about the conformism of their children (*survival values*, in Inglehart's view), as middle-class parents are concerned about the autonomy of their children (*self-expression values*, in Inglehart view). Although Kohn is the one who has conducted the most field research on this topic, there are other authors who came to the same conclusions developed by the American sociologist, for example Alwin (in 1989); Gecas and Seff (in 1990); Mortimer et al. (in 1986) etc.

## THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTS' OCCUPATION AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION ON THE VALUES OF CHILDREN. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

By his studies, Duane F. Alwin attempted to separate the intertwined effects of occupation and education (1989, pp. 327-345) and found a support for Kohn's thesis: the career guidance measures explain more the development of parental values than the educational measures. The level of education is an important mediating variable between values and profession. For Alwin, over time, the influence of occupation on parental values diminishes and that of education remains consistent. (Alwin, 1984, pp. 359-382). Indeed, we can say that the influence of occupation has diminished over time because the entire system of occupation (in terms of characteristics, work-values related, earning) has varied a lot over the time.

In fact, in his studies, Alwin shows that at the very beginning of the 20th century, what parents wanted differ much from what parents want in our days – they wanted only to have obedient children. Starting from the point that children are not valuing the same thing and, sometimes the “social class, gender, religion can be also barriers in communication” (Vlăduțescu et al., 2014, p. 274). For pointing out that children ‘values are influenced by several factors, Alwin has focused his studies on different people, belonging to different social classes, races and religions. He found out that at the beginning of the 20th century, what parents wanted for their children differed from a social group to another but, over time, the desire to have obedient children declined, as parents wanted more autonomy and independence for their children (postmodern values). It is the same this that we may observe also in analysing the dynamic of the values, from the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century to it ends.

For example, in an article published in 1988, Alwin “identifies a substantial change in parenting values among middle class members, as well among those from

working class. Strict obedience and fidelity to the church were the most important traits in 1924 sample, but in 1978 sample they declined sharply". At the same time, the importance of other values has increased (here Alwin is analysing values like independence or tolerance). The author considered that "there were general plausible reasons for these changes. Among them was the evolution of modernization in technology and social organization. The growth of organizational roles required more education, those who contributed to the need for greater independence and autonomy" (Lantagne, 2009, p. 6; Alwin, 1988).

In another paper, from 1989, Duane F. Alwin "examined the changes that have occurred over the past two decades in parental assessments of the qualities valued by their children. Thus, he is pointing out that since 1964, there seemed to be even more preference for autonomy and lower preferences for compliance". Alwin offered many different reasons for this change, one of them referring to changes in composition of the society: changes in the distribution of teaching and employment positions, favouring again the employment of white-collar professions etc. (Lantagne, 2009, p.8; Alwin, 1989).

Also, in a paper from 2002, published by another author, Monica Kirkpatrick Johnson, it is argued that the professions of parents influence the personality of children, having an important role in the process of "polishing" values related to professional success, work, to education and culture. As expected, based on theoretical models of parental influence, youth with more educated parents tend to place less emphasis on extrinsic rewards and safety and feel they have a higher influence than those with less education. Other aspects of social origin also play an important role in shaping the initial values of work. Also, youth from the rural communities give a less importance to extrinsic rewards than youth from the urban communities. This may reflect a global difference in the value of materialism among people in different types of communities. Another argument presented by the author is that young people from



upper-class are more or less assured of decent compensation and job stability and, therefore, place greater emphasis on job characteristics related to the energy, as, for example, the decision-making authority or the job challenge (Kirkpatrick Johnson<sup>2002</sup>, p. 1327).

Regarding to the transmission of value in the family, two problems arise and are important to be mentioned: inter and intra generational influences. Most researches examine the relationship between parent values and children's values. Viktor Gecas and Monica Seff listed three main mechanisms by which parental values influence children's values: “(a) influences of the professional/social class, (b) perceptions of similarity of values and (c) parenting behaviours /child-rearing practices” (Gecas and Seff, 1990, pp. 941-958).

In their empirical study, conducted on a sample of 228 people, Gecas and Seff analyzed the place that self-esteem occupies in the value system of an individual and its maintenance, according to the social and economic level. Thus, respondents indicated that the variables associated with self-esteem are: the professional prestige, the income and the education. At the same time, the authors present that the effects of social-structural variables on self-esteem depend on the extent to which these variables work: when the social-structural variables are more pronounced, their impact on the concept of *self* is stronger. In this sense, the concept of self is somewhat flexible, providing different information to assess one's self-esteem in different social conditions. In short, other study, published by Gecas and Schwalbe, sought to analyse the relationship between social class and self-esteem, arguing that the effects of social class on self-esteem are largely experienced through the occupational conditions that affect the dimensions of the social class: the self-assessment, self-efficacy and self-esteem (Gecas and Schwalbe, 1983, pp. 77-88). In other words, values have an important role in the process of personality construction and they “might potentially be an important

variable in predicting the individuals' self-esteem and perceived social support" (Deniz, Dilmaç, Hamarta, 2016, p. 67)

Moreover, from a sociological point of view, this idea represents the expression of the theory of the social nature of self, which we find at the American sociologist William James: according to him, "self-esteem" is related to "the rate of success" of an individual. Self-esteem is dynamic, varies, and is described in the correlation between an individual's success rate and aspirations. So, individuals who have a positive self-image enjoy a healthy, individual and collective lifestyle. Individuals whose image is permanently compromised will be pushed into bottlenecks, sickness and suffering, and "respect" and "self-esteem" will collapse (Bădescu, 2002, 2011).

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## **The Importance of Knowing The Emotions and Personality of The Patient In Completing The Odontal Therapeutic Act**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The present study proposes an analysis of the importance of knowing the emotions, in the context of fact if, a few years ago, dentistry focused strictly on the treatment of somatic symptoms, without giving importance to the psychic and emotional aspects of the patient, the dentists recently sought to improve themselves in the field of patient psychology and state prior to his presentation to the cabinet, as well as post-procedure.

Within the present context we wanted to reflect that the majority of the population has a certain fear of visiting the dentist, some people even developing a phobia, which will have harmful effects not only on the oral cavity but also throughout the body. The success of the odontal therapeutic act is largely conditioned by the physician's ability to empathize with the patient, to know his lifestyle and how he manages his emotions, but also to determine the type of personality he / she falls into.

The physician should also take into account the patient's bio-psycho-social factors in order to be able to issue a correct diagnosis. At present, a correlation between

oral cavities and psychological/social ones can easily be observed. For example, psychological stress is in most cases the causal factor of gingival inflammation. Another example can be the social factor: parents' beliefs about how oral hygiene and nutrition are achieved. Thus, it is highlighted that correct interpretation and correlation of psychological and social factors with buccal dentistry can be an effective method of diagnosing and establishing a treatment plan.

**Keywords:** psychological training, anxiety, management of emotions,

## INTRODUCTION

As a science, psychology has over the years seen a number of defining approaches, including:

"Psychology is the science that studies the psyche using a set of objective methods for the separation of its functioning laws with the aim of knowing, optimizing and improving human existence" (Zlate, 2000; see also Drămnescu & Enăchescu, 2018), while one of the founders of modern psychology, William James, stated in 1890 that psychology is "the science of mental life," and as a distinguished personality of the twentieth century, we have Paul Popescu Neveanu (1978), who defines psychology as "the science dealing with psychic phenomena and capacities following their description and explanation based on the discovery of a set of laws, regularities, or determinants".

There are also many interdisciplinary branches of psychology such as medical psychology, legal psychology, military psychology, neuropsychology, social psychology, biological psychology, etc. (Vlăduțescu, Siminică & Dumitru, 2015; Voinea, Negrea & Teodorescu, 2016).

As far as the psychology in dental medicine is concerned, it is divided into two categories: psychodynia (adults) and psychopedagogy (children). (Iorgulescu, 2017, p.

19). If, in the twentieth century, psychology was treated as an inconstant element that may be missing from the dental medical act, in the 21st century it is an integral part of the odonto-periodontal therapy that leads to successful treatment.

Also, in dental medicine, according to the Bologna Convention, which requires the study of behavioral sciences in dentistry faculties, it can be noticed that combining psychology with behavioral sciences leads to a better knowledge of the behavior of the human being, having as a starting point several perspectives: social, psychological, economic, ethical. (Iorgulescu, 2017, pp. 19-20). Behavioral sciences also help the physician to strengthen his / her relationship with the patient, but also to easily identify factors that contribute to the patient's decision whether or not to be present in the dental office. (Schou, 2000, p. 326). An interesting approach to behavioral science in dentistry can be found in the book "Behavioral Sciences for Dentistry" written by G. Humphris and M. Ling that treats the patient's behavior in the dental office from three perspectives: the psychological perspective where fears, anxieties, before and during treatment and post-surgery are identified, the social perspective where the reasons why a patient chooses to visit the dentist or otherwise avoid the visit and the economic perspective regarding the financial possibility of certain states and social categories to have a visit to the dentist, and afford dental treatments.

## **THE ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGY IN CONTEMPORARY DENTAL MEDICINE**

As far as the collaboration between dentists and psychologists is concerned, it can be said that this has not been approached for a long time, but after 2000 there was a significant increase in Romania and in other states. For example, if in the US until 1940 there were about 50 scientific articles combining dental psychology, between 1971-1972 350 articles appeared, and in 1973-1974 about 685 articles. (Iorgulescu, 2017, p. 21). A remarkable personality, Mackenzie (psychologist and dentist),

concluded in 1977 that there is a category of dentists physically applying techniques and elements of psychology during dental care, while the second category needs guidance, psychological training.

Behavioral sciences are used daily in the dental office because in many cases it helps to establish a correct diagnosis, to develop a treatment plan, but also to establish a certain type of behavior towards the dental care of the patient. Clinical case: N.A. patient came to the dental office with her 5 year old child for a routine check. During the dental check, the presence of the bacterial plaque in the dental structures, but also the periodontal irritation, as a consequence of the plaque accumulation, was noted in the observation sheet. In her anamnesis, the mother (being a guardian) was asked about the frequency of brushing and its correctness. The mother's answer was that she did not attach any special importance because they are temporary teeth and will be replaced by permanent teeth. Therefore, it can be noted that the adoption of such a behavior on the mother's part is the result of insufficient information regarding oral health. As a result, it was explained to the mother that not taking care of temporary dentition that results in cavities and periodontal diseases, which will have a detrimental effect on permanent dentition. Thus, the mother understood the interdependence between the health status of temporary teeth ("baby teeth") and definitive teeth.

An important aspect in a patient's behavior towards a particular ritual of oral cavity health is time. For example, the younger the patient, the easier is for the dentist to change his conception of a habit that he practices wrongly. If the patient is older, his perceptions and health beliefs are much more difficult to change, basically going into a routine, without the need to make a change. (Schou, 2000, p. 326). In general, older people may notice some degree of reticence towards something new, something that would disrupt their daily rhythm and remove them from the comfort zone.

One of the dental medicine universities that attaches particular importance to behavioral sciences and psychology is the TUFTS University in the United States of America, which has a special department called the Behavioral Sciences Sector, and has the motto: "We teach students to treat people, not teeth." Within this department, dentistry students will attend three courses of behavioral science where they will learn about the correlation between psychiatric disorders and oro-dental conditions. Also, during these courses, they will improve their communication skills with the patient according to their age, sex, affection. (Iorgulescu, 2017, pp. 28-29).

Another area targeted by Dental Behavior is represented by changes in the behavior of patients of extreme ages: children, elderly people. Both categories tend to develop complexities of inferiority due to the aesthetic aspect of the dental-facial structure. If the children predominate orthodontic problems (inconsistency, vestibularization, or the palatation of the teeth), the problem in the elderly is the installation of the edentulous state, translated by tooth loss, which may be partial or total. (Rindasu, 1998, pp. 113-114). As a treatment plan for children, it is necessary to use orthodontic devices, which in turn generates a series of psychological problems: long time of wearing, discomfort in phonation, in nutrition, difficulties in oral hygiene, perception from others. In the case of the older patient, one can observe the reluctance to carry a total prosthesis and its rejection by accusing a state of uneasiness. Frequently, the total prosthetic patient tends to consider himself a "disabled" person, this being a mental intolerance of the prosthesis (Manolea, 2011, pp. 29-30). There is this patient concept because it associates, for example, the loss of a member and replacing it with a prosthesis with the loss of teeth and replacing them with a dental prosthesis. However, if the person with complete dental loss does not accept prosthesis, will suffer symptoms such as: chewing disorder, phonation, physiognomy (characterized by an unpleasant aspect by: accentuating naso-labial ditches, clogging of cheeks, reducing the vertical dimension of the lower floor, ), but also mental



disorders manifested by behavioral changes, often aggressiveness, hostility, irritability, which can also affect those around the patient (Rindasu, 1998, pp. 114-115).

**MANAGING PATIENT EMOTIONS IN THE DENTAL OFFICE**

Certainly, most individuals tend to perceive emotion as a feeling. However, emotion has a complex structure that embraces both what we feel and what we think and how we act. Also, emotions are characterized by three aspects: physical, behavioral and cognitive aspect. (Hasson, 2016, pp. 16-18). Clinical case: The 25-year-old M.M patient is present in the dental office to perform routine check-ups and hygiene. The patient, who is known to have anxiety because of unpleasant previous experiences, has:

<b>Physical appearance</b>	<b>Behavior</b>	<b>Cognitive aspects</b>
Tachycardia	Postural rigidity	M.M. described the treatment as painless but the anxiety he suffered from caused the amplification of each stimulus
Blushing of the skin	Lack of reactions	
Excessive sweating		
Saliva abundance		

A dentist with experience and training in patient psychology and emotions knows the concept of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is the ability of a person to know their emotions, understand them, and know how to handle them (Hasson, 2016, pp. 28-31). However, in most situations, the dentist is the one who teaches patients how to control their emotions in the dental office. We make this statement because a large part of the population is scared about the visit to the dentist and without the help of the doctor, this condition can not be improved, even if there is a situation when it becomes aggravating. When a patient suffers a trauma in the

dental office, he will avoid going for control or even refuse to ever come back to the dentist no matter how big the problems are. Few patients, however, know that dental or dental disorders directly affect other organs or organ systems. For example, by installing the edentation (tooth loss), foods are no longer properly fragmented, leading to problems of the digestive system. (Rindasu, 1998, pp. 114-115). The presence of inflammations at the level of the dental structures can lead to germs in the bloodstream and may lead to cardiovascular diseases.

Concerning patient anxiety in the field of dental medicine, we can often notice people suffering from pre-operative anxiety. In practice, these people tend to anticipate what happens during and after treatment, putting the negative consequences in the forefront. Often, the patient has a lot of worries about pain, complications that may arise, the success of the medical act. One important aspect is the effectiveness of local anesthesia in the case of an anxious personality, because due to fear, a large amount of adrenaline is discharged into the body, which decreases the effect of anesthetics, sometimes rendering it ineffective (Iorgulescu, 2017, p. 100).

As theories about anxiety we can highlight the predisposing theory supported by Seligman (1975). This describes how the fear of a particular situation / object can be transmitted from one generation to the next. We can not talk about a gene of anxiety, but about the existence of a gene that predisposes to a certain type of anxiety in the descendants. In dentistry, this theory has a fairly high frequency, observing numerous cases where dentist fear is present in both parents and children. One of the reasons why anxiety is present in both generations is that parents have suffered a traumatic experience with the dentist and tend to transmit fear to children, even indirectly. A first step would be for the dentist to give a short briefing to the parents before their first visit to the dentist. Parents will be advised to describe their first visit to the dentist in a pleasant, jovial way to attract the child's interest, but also to provide a safe state. It is also advisable for the adult to wait in the waiting room during the

child's treatment in order to strengthen the dentist-patient relationship. Another reason the adult will stay in the waiting room is to prevent the child from influencing the treatment to be administered. Example: Many parents are threatening their children that if they do not stay well, the doctor will inject them; Once this threat is drawn, the child will develop an associative anxiety towards the dentist. So the baby - the future adult will have a reaction of fear and the simple thought of visiting the dentist will be associated with the injection. Of course, the child can be accompanied in the office by parents when necessary, usually between 0-2 years when they can not move and do not understand what is going on or in cases of serious pathologies such as psychiatric problems. At the same time, parents or other persons designated as guardians are required to complete and sign the child's anamnesis. The anamnesis is also to be done with the child patient, but in the form of an interview with the parents, in the form of a questionnaire, in order to have a legal document. Establishing the history together with the child has a beneficial role because the anamnesis is not only a simple act of legal proof, but also an effective method of psychoanalysis (Freud, 1980). With the help of an anamnesis, the dentist can determine the type of personality of the child, his temper, his fears, the experiences that lead him to adopt certain behaviors.

Besides the emotions expressed verbally (conscious) by the patient, the dentist must also be mindful of non-verbal (unconscious) emotions. Non-verbal emotions can take on different forms: gestures, mimic, the way we look at a person, the position we adopt, etc. This non-verbal communication is important in the dental field as it is a base for building verbal communication, basically completing verbal communication. In the case of this type of communication, a confusion can occur if the individual focuses on a particular subject verbally, but through non-verbal communication fails to convey a message in accordance with the verbal. (Hasson, 2016, pp. 69-71). Frequently, in the dental office, non-verbal communication also fulfills the role of

patient support. Clinical case: Patient A.F., 52 years old, came to the dental office to perform a dental extraction of a lower molar. She is known as a patient with a fear of needles, as well as other dental treatments. The procedure was hampered by the need for anesthesia and the patient has become more tense due to the use of the needle. In this regard, it was decided to explain to the patient that we would apply a spray with local anesthetic at the puncture site to prevent feeling the needle sting. After applying the spray, the anesthetic puncture was performed normally without the patient having behavioral reactions. During dental extraction, the nurse held the patient's hand for encouragement, to give her confidence and support. At the end of the intervention, the patient appreciated this gesture and said she felt a sense of safety and protection.

Another element of non-verbal communication in dentistry is proxemics. This gives us information about the distance between the medic and the patient. There are four types of distances: intimate, personal, social, and public. (Hasson, 2016, pp. 76-77). Generally, there is either intimate or personal distance between the dentist and the patient due to the dental maneuvers to be performed. This approach often helps to build a friendly relationship between the dentist and his patient. Thus, a patient's affectivity to his doctor is often generated. Of course, if affectivity is framed within normal and moral limits, it can be a contributing factor in strengthening the physician-patient relationship. Also, the close relationship between motivation and affectivity must be emphasized. (Andronic, 2004, pp. 88-89). The higher the degree of affectivity, the greater the patient's motivation to attend the dental check on a regular basis and to follow the prescribed treatment.

Regarding the management of emotions (Popescu & Ștefan, 2014; Popescu, 2015), it should be mentioned that management does not imply the inhibition of emotions, but their approach in a beneficial way to both the psyche and the organic structure. In the dental office, we most commonly encounter fear-based emotions. Although fear is a short-lived emotion that ends its action with the disappearance of

the stimulus that causes it, it produces an intense psychological struggle. In this situation, it is advisable to use various strategies that distract attention. In the process of managing the patient's emotions, the dentist must show empathy. Empathy is often characteristic of people with a developed emotional intelligence. (Hasson, 2016, p. 99). With the help of empathy, the dentist manages to understand what the patient feels, what he thinks trying to translate into his place. However, it is worth noting that most doctors who empathize with patients become affected by their problems and instead of being objective about understanding the emotions they find themselves in a situation where they are dominated by the negative experiences of the patients. This overwhelming problem leads to the establishment of subjectivism which results in inconsistencies and even the failure of the odontal therapeutic act. Therefore, the dentist must effectively use his / her empathic capacity without damaging his / her own health or endangering local dental interventions.

There are many people who call on the dentist for a botulinum toxin (botox) treatment to correct wrinkles. Few know, however, that some patients are developing an obsession with this type of procedure after the first treatment. These patients are quick to resort to alleviating the small defects that can occur at the facial level. They are at the point where they no longer perceive the difference between the expression wrinkles that arise from the various states of emotion they display through facial expressions / microexpressions and wrinkles caused by aging. By introducing an exaggerated amount of botulinum toxin we see how the patient gets a perfect skin, but that is inexpressive. Often this inexpressiveness gives the feeling of "wax". A novel element is that an "inexpressive" person suffers from a decrease in the functionality of the mirror neurons. (Hasson, 2016, pp. 101-102). Mirror neurons are the ones that help us understand facial expressions. And if the individual is no longer able to display his own facial expressions, the less he will be able to interpret the expressions of others.

- Addressing patients with special needs in the dental office

## 4CLINICAL CASES

### Case no 1:

*The 49-year-old H.C. patient is present in the dental office with the desire to rebuild her smile because it has been severely affected by excessive tobacco consumption (3 packs / day). The patient is diagnosed with schizophrenia, is undergoing psychiatric treatment, and when her health gets worse, she comes to the cabinet with her mother. She has been a patient of this cabinet for 20 years. Three months ago she was again admitted to a psychiatric center for 2 months because she refused to take her medication, had auditory and visual hallucinations, causing her to flee from her home, being found after two days out of town by police officers notified by her mother. The requested treatment required the patient to be present for 3 sessions. In the first session, she was fully cleaned (scraping, brushing, air-flow). The session went well, and the patient was familiar with the procedures, because they were performed every 6-8 months. The second session involved the placing fillings, in which case a little discomfort occurred in the oral cavity due to the need to isolate the buccal environment in order to avoid penetration of the saliva into the canal. Because of the discomfort, the patient began to experience a state of restlessness, anxiety. So, it was decided to give her a little break, in order to calm her and to explain why this procedure is required. During the break we tried to address other subjects with the patient, in order to relax and distract her. Finally, the meeting ended with the patient being satisfied with the functionality, but also with the aspect of the work. At the third meeting we did the professional whitening. During this session, the patient came already disturbed / agitated, which made it difficult to apply the treatment, and we had to take a break frequently, as she claimed to have symptoms such as dental pain, irritation of the mucosa when applying the whitening gel. However, from a medical point of view, these symptoms should not have occurred, because before the proper treatment we made the desensitization of the teeth (pain can not occur), but also the isolation of the gum with the*

*gingival barrier (the mucosal irritation can not appear). To check for the signs of inflammation (rubor, tumor, calor, dolor) at the gum level, we removed a small part of the barrier and I noticed that the mucosa has a normal appearance. Most likely, the patient was impatient, scared of complications that might arise, putting negative aspects at the forefront. This fear of complications has its roots in the searches the patient has made on the internet about the treatment he was about to get. After completing the treatment, the patient was informed of what foods and drinks they should avoid, was fluoridated to rehydrate her teeth, and prescribed calcium for one week. The problem arose after three days when the patient showed up in the office and said that because of calcium there was insomnia for 3 days and considered that the psychiatric medication it takes interferes with calcium. We have documented from a pharmaceutical point of view and it was concluded that the medications they took did not produce adverse effects in combination with calcium. Again we calmed the patient, talked with her, and offered her the opportunity to argue her views, and concluded that he would stop oral calcium administration and brush her with the calcium toothpaste.*

## **Case no 2:**

*Patient S.E., aged 4, presented herself with her grandmother in the dental office. Her grandmother decided to make this visit because she was aware that the girl had abrasions on all her teeth. The patient was diagnosed with ADHD in Bucharest, but she was not receiving any medication, only therapy sessions. It is important to know that ADHD patients have bruxism, as is the case with this little girl, which results in teeth abrasion. Also, another symptom of ADHD, manifested in the oral cavity is xerostomia (Iorgulescu, 2017, p. 216-217). The patient asked for a glass of water every 15-20 minutes because she claimed her mouth was dry. The first visit to the dentist started by building a friendly relationship with the little patient, but also by getting her acquainted with the dental domain. The first step was to paint with her dental cards (toothfairies, toothpaste,*

*brushes, little teeth) and explain to her what could happen if she neglects her teeth. Then we watched together an educational video, where she learned why it is good to go to the dentist and how many times a day we need to brush our teeth. In the next step, we applied the Tell.Show.Do method that proves to be effective for all children. It means telling the child about certain materials, instruments, apparatus in the cabinet, and we will present them, and then let him play with them, of course under the careful supervision of the doctor, so as not to get hurt. However, throughout the visit, I noticed that the patient was overactive, unable to carry an activity to the end.*

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it can be argued that the dental sphere is not only related to the treatment of dental-facial affections, but is an extremely complex field that encompasses both knowledge of human psychology and general medicine. In order for a dental-facial treatment to be considered successful, it must meet three conditions: to be functional, to be aesthetic and to not affect the patient's psyche.

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## **Internal Communication Campaigns And Employees’ Motivation**

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### **ABSTRACT**

Internal communication is a complex vital process for the organizational success in a dynamic global market. At the beginning of the paper we will take into account the defining of the concept of internal communication, summarizing its importance, because internal communication solves problems as important as the need to increase the awareness about a product, such as the motivation of the employees and the creation of a work environment in which they really want to be in. Afterwards we will focus on the internal communication campaign and the presentation of the stages that must be followed in order to accomplish an internal communication campaign. For establishing the stages, we will follow a plan which represents a summary of the different presentations models present in specialized literature, adjusted though for internal audiences. Further we will discuss about the importance of such a campaign at the employee level and we will exemplify a few internal communication campaigns awarded within different PR international competitions from the recent years.

**Keywords:** employees, campaign, communication, internal, motivation

The 20<sup>th</sup> century is known as the era of internal communication. Stephen Windsor-Lewis in his speech from October 2002, from the release of Internal Communication Alliance (known today under the name of CIPR Inside), affirmed that “this study subject has advanced very much” and that this is “an essential element in the business environment”. He is the one who added a new item on the phrase list which refer to internal communication – “communication of the organizational leadership” (Smith, Mounter 2008: 9).

Internal communication or *organizational communication* is a process, usually intentional, of message exchange between people, groups and organizational levels within the organization with the purpose of the achievement of both individual and collective goals (Cornescu, Mihăilescu, Stanciu, 2003: 239).

Another definition of internal communication comes from the business environment: *internal communication represents all the communication interactions which take place within an organization/company between the general manager and the owner or co-associates of the company, between the manager and the employees of the enterprise, as well as between employees at different levels* (Pálfi 2013: 13).

An important part of an organization is internal communication or communication with the employees, representing the vital flux that makes possible the accomplishments of an organization. Moreover, the majority of the leaders from the entire world have come to admit the fact that a good communication strategy is a key element which determines the success of an organization. People have become more and more aware of the fact that successful organizations communicate with their employees, and a way of communicating with the employees is through internal communication campaigns.

The internal communication campaigns can stimulate the employees, motivating them to do all that they possibly can at the work place and, in their turn to help the company where they work to remain relevant and flourishing.

The communication campaign is an activity which includes certain training stages, research and conceptions work, for the elaboration of the programme, the implementation into practice and a permanent assessment of the steps taken.

In order to make an internal communication campaign and the establishment of the stages, we will follow the plan presented by Diana-Maria Cismaru (Cismaru 2008: 139), plan which follows the algorithm realised by Cristina Coman (Coman 2001: 81), which represents a summary of the different models presented in specialized literature, adjusted though for internal audiences.

The stages of internal communication campaigns:

*The definition of the problem.* The term of “problem” does not represent only the negative aspects which can appear in an organization, such as the increase or decrease of the number of employees, but also aspects that can appear on certain favourable occasions of which the organization can take advantage for fulfilling its objectives, such as the possibility of developing the organization or to set up a new company. This stage does not suppose the blame of certain people or people categories, and the identification of the problem, does not have to also include the way to solve it.

*The analysis of the situation* supposes the stage in which in a work file are collected all the known data regarding the problem at hands, and for the analysis to be correct appropriate research methods are used according to the determined purpose.

*Establishing objectives.* The objectives of a company can be divided into two main categories: informational objectives, which can represent a product, a service or an organization, and what concerns the internal audience, are easily to be attained in the case in which the organisation has a well-designed information system, and motivational objectives, which follow to determine certain actions of the audience, being necessary the collaboration with the human resources department and even with external organizational consultancy companies, but the product of these campaigns

with motivational objectives may be unexpectedly effective in finding solutions to some chronic internal problems.

*Identification of audience categories.* For establishing a subordination system of the audience segments in order of their importance for realising the campaign objectives, it starts from the identification of the values, interests and expectations of the internal audiences and according to this classification, the resources and structure of the messages will be allocated.

*Establishing strategies.* Within the strategy there should be realised the correspondence with: the objectives set, the audiences chosen as the target of the campaign, the available resources, the already existing internal style of communication. The strategy is concretized in the “communication axis”, a single phase that releases the essence of the campaign and which will then generate the key messages transmitted.

*Establishing tactics.* This stage includes both the action itself and the communication channel. For each communication instrument the campaign plan must comprise the following information must comprise the following information: the description of the activity, the execution deadline, special requests (space, audio-video equipment), estimated budget, the person responsible for completion.

*Fixing schedule and budget.* Because internal communication campaigns take place over a shorter timeframe than external communication ones, the easiest way to build the calendar is preferable: the narrative calendar can be a good form of presentation (the short duration of the campaign allows for such an option).

The calendar helps for the calculation of a more advantageous budget variant, is mentioned the fact that in few organizations are allocated large budgets for in-house communication campaigns, so calculations need to be done carefully.

*The assessment of the campaign* supposes several steps: are established one at a time the number of people who retained the message, the number of people who

changed their opinions after receiving the message, the number of people who changed their attitude after receiving the messages. Continuing in the ascending order, it is set the number of people who adopt the behaviour suggested by the message, the number of those who promote or repeat this behaviour.

In the internal communication campaigns the assessment raises fewer problems than the assessment of external communication campaigns, because the subjects (employees) can be very easily investigated (they are an accessible audience). Also, if for external target audiences, the survey is mandatory, for internal audiences, methods can be diversified: for behavioural objectives, the observation method or, where appropriate, sociometric analysis can be used to determine the degree of achievement of objectives.

Here are a few examples of internal communication campaigns awarded within different international PR competitions of the last few years, which proves the importance of internal communication campaigns in motivating employees.

We start with a campaign awarded within [SABRE 2013](#), in the category *Best Employee Communications* and silver medallist in the category *Internal Communication* at [Cannes Lions 2012](#). The SABRE Awards have always been about engagement, credibility, and relationship building. *Plumbers without borders* was internally developed for Comfort, a Swedish plumber franchise. The purpose of the campaign was to create a community of plumbers who feel like doing something important, like fire-fighters or policemen: that saves lives. Thus, in partnership with an NGO (SOS-Kinderdorf), Comfort plumbers created a special water purifier that was sent to countries like Bulgaria, Lithuania and Benin. The slogan of the campaign is *Safe water and sanitation are basic human rights!*.

Another awarded campaign, this time within PR Week US Awards 2013, is the one developed by the agency Ruder Finn for the Citi banking group on its anniversary of 200 years from its foundation. Its objective was to celebrate the diversity of its

260.000 employees, being reached through a series of programmes dedicated to them. They were invited to participate in a video clip, to participate in a sports and photography competition, to volunteer on a global day of the community. Among the results: the music video that celebrated Citi has gathered more than 60.000 views, over 100.000 employees were involved in the photography competition and 43.000 in the sports competition. Thus, at the end of the campaign, 99.75% of the group's employees knew about Citi's 200<sup>th</sup> anniversary.

The internal communication campaigns for Liverpool Community Health NHS Trust (LCH Trust), developed by the communication department of the company together with the agency Splinter Design, was awarded within [PR Week Awards 2013](#) in London. The campaign aimed to convince employees to vaccinate against influenza through a series of 50s visuals that spoke to them about the importance of the vaccine. To the posters that were glued through the LCH headquarters and shared on the social networks and intranet of the company were added: a video clip that circulated on the intranet of the organization and that showed the heads of several departments vaccinating, invitations for vaccination on employees' payslips and the choice from amongst the employees of some vaccine endorsers. Among the results: 71% of the LCH members were vaccinated against the influenza, 24% more than in the previous year.

We conclude with two awarded Romanian internal communication campaigns. The first of them was awarded within [Romanian PR Awards 2013](#), where it obtained the Golden Award for Excellence in the category Internal Communication. *The bakery of good deeds* is a campaign through which BCR encouraged his employees to volunteer and to get involved in the development of the community. The project represents a competition between employees who have to come up with ideas for solving some community problems which are related to education, environment, social, animal protection or health.

Another Romanian internal communication campaign which has been awarded is *Play to Win*, developed by Coca-Cola HBC Romania and Image PR. *Play to Win* is an internal communication programme which proposes itself to facilitate changing the organizational culture within Coca-Cola HBC Romania, which was awarded in 2013 within LACP Magellan Awards. The competition is organised by the League of American Communications Professionals (LACP). The Coca-Cola programme was started in 2012 and continued in 2013. In addition to the Platinum Award won, *Play to Win* was also awarded the special distinction of *Most engaging program*.

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## **Virtual Reality, Augmented Reality and Mixed Reality - Trends in Pedagogy**

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### **ABSTRACT**

Virtual reality has recently become a trend that each and everyone appreciates, which everybody wants – and constantly tries – to understand, is a topic that is stirring interest at all times. Using virtual reality, along with several other fields related to it, may seem unstable at first, but once the necessary information is assimilated, their utility starts to sound promising. Our study aims to bring together the benefits of virtual, augmented and mixed reality within a classroom, emphasizing their use in the formation of a teacher. Starting with an investigative approach based on J. C. Flanagan's Critical Incident Technique, and combined with P.C. Smith and L.M. Kendall's Development of Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (which is purposed to identify the main competencies a teacher that is correctly adapted to the Digital Natives era should possess), this study aims to emphasize the potential applicability of virtual reality in constructing certain competencies, such as communicative, informational, technological, instrumental, decisional, appreciative or competencies related to using new technologies. The conclusions reflect a series of advantages and disadvantages of the virtual environment and the applicative way in which these can be used to complete what we already possess or we aspire to obtain.

## INTRODUCTION

Concepts like virtual reality augmented reality and mixed reality are quite popular nowadays when technology manages to reach a point where it can raise tough questions and can give people an opportunity to form a perspective for the future, regardless of the field in which it operates. However, the use of technology has a prominent influence in the field of education and – ultimately – pedagogy. The idea of exploring the virtual environment has been taken into consideration many times in the past when technology was not advanced enough to sustain potential projects. Around the years 1980 and 1990, when the idea of utopias began to attract scientists and make them interested in achieving such a thing, the concept of virtual reality was finally outlined (Ferrington & Loge, 1992; Rosca, 2017).

To briefly define the idea of virtual reality, it can be represented by the term version, meaning that it thoroughly signifies an accentuated version of the immediate reality, a version that was created with the help of technology which was supposed to combine the mass information with devices that are capable of transposing it into a virtual environment. Living an immersive experience was an open opportunity for the large audience with the emergence of headset systems. Around the year 1986, Ivan Sutherland creates the very first head-mount device that he calls The Sword of Damocles. Nowadays, headsets are more than popular, the possibility of purchasing them along with matching smartphones being possible at any given moment. Many schools already decided to purchase different VR setups to make learning more effective, and professors will be able to take advantage of the benefits of virtual reality too (Pan, Cheok, Yang, Zhu, Shi, 2006; Vlăduțescu, Negrea & Voinea, 2017). Teaching is the starting point of the entire educational system, taking into account that – without a well-prepared teacher – students will never be properly trained.

Thinking a little bit further, augmented reality and mixed reality will surely find their place in the future pedagogy system. Augmented reality refers to a combination between the virtual and the real environment, meaning that the virtual set user can interact with real objects around him, as long as he is located in a specially designed AR room. The field in which augmented reality is mainly used is medicine, where future physicians get to learn different techniques using devices built to mimic reality as close as possible (Gallagher, McClure, McGuigan, Crothers, Browning, 1999; Teodorescu & Buşu, 2015). The same goes for pilots who get to learn how to fly a new aircraft model. The possibilities are truly numerous. For example, in pedagogy, a teacher will be able to experience the impression of sustaining a speech in front of a large crowd. This opportunity would offer a teacher the necessary instruments to enhance his communication skills and, at the same time, all the competencies included in the repertoire of his profession. The competency involved in this process is mostly the communicative one, which will be explored later in this paper.

## **SKILLS STUDIED IN A CONTROLLED ENVIRONMENT**

As far as communication is concerned, a teacher needs to possess a whole system of skills in order to cope with his attributions. A person who is not able to create an atmosphere that is somewhat conducive to learning, to interact effectively with students or to ensure the active participation in learning would require a longer period of time to train students properly. This is the exact reason why introducing the virtual reality to learning is more of a necessity rather than an option. Virtual reality is meant to improve both didactic skills and the learning process itself.

Communication represents an instrumental competency, which means that it uses several factors to effectively transmit a message. This is the moment when virtual, mixed or augmented reality intervene. This concept can be slightly contradictory, given that specialists tend to consider this type of interaction a kind of pseudo-

communication since the act is not actually happening. Being part of the Digital Natives era, people are caught up in a continuous informational flow in which communication is possible without actually studying the real meaning of the word. A VR headset, combined with different feedback haptic tools could replace certain learning environments that were previously impossible to imitate, giving the user the possibility to interact with either other VR users or virtual realities somehow included in the real world. This way, the user doesn't have to actively involve, in the respective activity but just experience it (Mateu, Alamán, 2015). In this sense, a competency can surely be improved without the presence of an active effort from the user. The virtual environment allows information to be manipulated at will, sending it in the desired direction, which makes the process of learning easier for anyone. Where there were initially required a lot of resources and substantial efforts from a person is now enough room for saving time, money and effort.

The benefits of learning in a virtual environment are numerous, especially if taking into account the present learning methods. Let us consider Second Life as an example. Initially perceived as a game, this second life offers the users the chance to build their own type of society, based on their preferences and mentalities. At the same time, this society can be used to teach other people around the world, giving professors the occasion to get better at their job or to train themselves for the real situation beforehand. This system was already adopted in medicine (Schmidt, Stewart, 2009).

Yet the problem of the budget is still present. Because this is a topic that's rarely adopted and discussed, people are still reticent to the idea of purchasing and implementing VR devices in schools or institutions (Bricken, 1991).

It is worth knowing that the products of this late technological revolution are no longer inaccessible, as can be seen in the following table:

Apparition date	Device	Type
1970	Flight simulator, simulation headsets in the military field	VR & AR
1980	Interactive maps, stereo viewfinders	VR & AR & MR
1990	Surge Sense8, Virtuality, MotionCabinas	VR & AR & MR
2000	Oculus Rift, Morpheus	VR

*The most popular VR/AR/MR devices and their apparition date*

To bring the value of VR/AR/MR technologies inside the classrooms and laboratories of all schools in order to train both young students and teachers is not a bold project anymore; it became a necessity or even an obligation of future teaching.

## WHAT ARE THE COSTS AND THE GAINS?

Starting from these premises, as well as from the conclusions of other researchers that substantiated the present actions (Călin & Cernat, 2016; Călin & Bîrsănescu, 2017; Strungă & Bunăiașu, 2013; Bunăiașu, 2013; Vlăduțescu, 2018; Negrea & Voinea, 2016) – ideas that are organized within the particularities of the Romanian socio-cultural and educational context – our study intends to identify what the competencies that could be developed are (only if the pedagogical-formative approaches were implemented effectively, including VR/AR/MR technologies) and what the advantages and the disadvantages, respectively, of the implementation, are in training young people and adults.

The research was based on J. C. Flanagan's Critical Incident Technique (Flanagan, 1954), combined with P.C. Smith and L.M. Kendall's Development of Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (Smith & Kendall, 1963), the desired outcome being obtaining an inventory of the competency elements that can be formed or developed through approaches that are related to these new technologies, as well as the

advantages and disadvantages of these approaches in view of the importance perceived by the main beneficiaries of the training – young students, 186 students of the Faculty of Automation, Computers and Electronics from the University of Craiova, fresh graduates of the teacher-training courses, were subjects for this study. They were asked the following questions:

*If you were to use and implement technologies in teaching, such as those associated with the concepts of virtual reality, augmented reality or mixed reality, which skills do you believe you'd develop?*

*In your opinion, what are the advantages and disadvantages of using and implementing virtual reality, augmented reality and mixed reality technologies in teaching?*

Our study focuses on a two-stage exploratory process, associated with the aforementioned questions, each stage sectioning in four different steps.

Stage I – identifying possible competency elements that can be formed using VR, AR, MR

*Step 1:* Initially, the subjects who participated in the study were asked to come up with a list with all the conduits, skills, competencies that they think they could develop by using VR, AR, MR technologies. The lists have been centralized, the ones with similar meanings have been separated and only the top ten ones were included in a singular list (the ones with the highest occurrence answers). The ones that were redundant for the study were left behind, and the final list was subject to a new debate. Students were requested to develop explanatory definitions for each dimension (the duration of the whole step was approximately 30-60 minutes).

*Step 2:* The dimension list, together with all the definitions, were distributed to a group of 20 different specialists in the field of employee training and new technologies. They were supposed to give one or two examples to describe the

competency present in the list. After collecting all the examples, they have been synthesized on one single list (without repeating or trivial answers).

*Step 3:* A new group of 20 experts has been gathered. They were given a list of their own dimensions and definitions and another list of examples (from step 2). The lists were arranged in a random manner. The task of this group was to assign each example to the category it was written for. The operation is called retroversion and its purpose was to observe if the examples corresponded qualitatively. The examples that couldn't be assigned to the category they belong were removed. Only the items with a relay frequency greater than 67% were kept in the study. Also, a dimension was removed if not assigned at least 60% of the items originally allocated.

*Step 4:* Subjects were asked to choose the elements of competence they consider most clearly constructive from the final list, by using and implementing teaching technologies such as those associated with virtual reality, augmented reality and mixed reality concepts. We also note that only those formulas with a percentage higher than 10% out of the opinions expressed have been kept.

The centralized results are shown in Table 1.

Competency Element description	Opinion	
	percentage (%)	Rank
Communicative – clear, coherent communication	74	1
Informative – relevant and actual information	53	2
Technological – understanding and using new technologies	50	3
Instrumental – the transition from theory to practice	42	4
Decisional – efficient decision-making skill	32	5
Evaluational – objective evaluation	12	6

Table 1. The inventory of form conditions

Stage II

As for stage two, a similar manner was approached to evaluate the advantages and

disadvantages that young students think that the implementation of VR, AR, MR technologies in the learning process would include. The results obtained are presented in Tables 2 and 3.

Advantages	Opinion	
	percentage (%)	Rank
A new perspective on the learning process	57	1
Encouraging practice over theory	49	2
Developing imagination and creativity	45	3
Long-term, powerful motivation	33	4
Efficient long-distance learning	26	5
Affordable technology	22	6
Exploiting domains easier	13	7

Table 2. The inventory of advantages

Disadvantages	Opinion	
	percentage (%)	Rank
The lack of trained teachers (in using VR, AR, MR technologies)	56	1
Inexistent digital infrastructure	46	2
No funding for digitalization	33	3
Medical affections caused by VR, AR, MR technologies	25	4
Technology addiction and ignoring other types of teaching	19	5

Table 3. The inventory of disadvantages

### FINAL THOUGHTS

Teacher training gives us the opportunity to change the level of professional preparation and even culture. A virtual classroom involves instructional and formative activities that can capture exactly the essence of long-term training, in an effective manner. Our study is by no means an exhaustive one. It certainly contains a dose of



subjectivism, which is inevitable in a research that is based on the opinions of some subjects. The benefits and disadvantages of VR, AR and MR are numerous, so it wouldn't be possible to go through all the existent possibilities in terms of ups and downs. However, it is essential to note that by integrating VR, AR, MR into the classroom, both students and teachers are given a new perspective on learning. The collaboration between students and teachers is maximized by the need to find new solutions for new situations. In addition, integrating an innovative classroom system will keep students engaged, by keeping their attention stimulated.

Also, VR, AR and MR technology can help students widely develop their imagination, their creative spirit through the opportunities they offer. In this manner, a student is encouraged and motivated to overcome his limits, enjoying – and not avoiding – the new. It also acts in the direction of developing the ability to empathize with others. Disadvantages are part of the picture too. Certain educational institutions cannot afford even the cheapest VR, AR and MR technologies due to the financial situation of the respective region. Most teachers are not quite ready to include these technologies in the education system. This is also caused by the preference of many teachers to emphasize theory instead of practice, along with the fear of new. Limitations can also come from the manner in which an institution is legislatively managed. Technology can also cause addiction that can lead to completely ignoring traditional study materials. Students are more likely to show their preference for technology to the detriment of books, textbooks or other traditional materials. The frequent and long-term use of certain VR, AR and MR technologies may have medical repercussions, such as the occurrence of migraines or vision issues.

However, paraphrasing the conclusions of a study on the current requirements of a school manual (Calin RA, 2016), this approach allows us to (re)remember that the students and young people of the present are different; that school, manuals or teachers are no longer taking advantage of their *volens nolens* attention. This attention

is now won by avoiding a war against the interactivity and the attractiveness of technologies and the Internet in general. Instead of a war, the opportunities offered by them should be fructified and backed up by a masterly discourse, argumentation, explanation, conviction, and fascination.

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## **Causes And Legal Status Of The Absolute Nullity Of The Civil Legal Act**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The significance of invalidity as a civil law institution is quite clear and concise, namely it is that sanction of civil law that affects the legal act in the case of non-compliance with the legal provisions governing its validity. Therefore, the legal act is not valid due to non-observance of its essential conditions. Nullity is also a legal institution applicable to all legal acts and, as a consequence, to all contracts, the contract being the main source of civil liability.

In order to have a more precise idea of the institution of nullity of the civil legal act, it must be mentioned that it also involves an operation to delimitate it from other causes of ineffectiveness of the civil legal act. Such a delimitation also contributes to avoiding the confusion of the civil legal act with other sanctions of civil law, which is not admissible, because it is a different legal concept, each with its own legal regime.

Regarding the legal regime of absolute nullity, it must be emphasized that it refers to the rules governing this legal institution. Both the doctrine and the jurisprudence specifically provide for the absolute nullity of the civil legal act.

**Keywords:** absolute nullity, legal status, civil legal act

## INTRODUCTION

In current legislation there is no unanimously accepted definition of the notion of nullity, and in the literature there are divergences in defining this concept. Thus, Tr. Ionașcu and E. Barrasch define the nullity as "the sanction of the violation by legal act, violation at the time when the act was made, of a provision of the law".

Ionascu defines the nullity of the law, the sanction that intervenes after the defeat of the legal provision, lacking the civil legal act of the effects in respect of which he was terminated.

In doctrine and jurisprudence, the following causes are considered to be the sanction of the absolute nullity of the civil legal act (Pop & Beleiu, 1975, p. 362-365; Beleiu, 2001, p. 220-221; Pop, 1993, p. 188; Boroi, 2001, p. 232; Dogaru, 2000, p. 230):

- Infringement of the legal provisions on civil capacity, but only in the case of non-observance of a special incapacity of use of the natural person established for the protection of a general interest by the lack of capacity of the legal person or by the non-observance of the specialty principle of the legal person without lucrative purpose [art. 206 par. (2) and (3) of the new Civil Code];
- total lack of consent (for example, when the manifestation of will was expressed without the intent to produce legal effects), unless the law provides for the sanction of relative nullity;
- the invalidity of the object of the civil legal act or of the object of the obligation;
- the invalidity of the cause (s) of the civil legal act, but only when the cause is unlawful (including in the case of law fraud) or immoral cause, unless otherwise provided by law;
- non-compliance with the form required by law for validity;

- non-observance of the pre-emptive right in the express (and limitative) cases stipulated by the law, namely the non-observance of the preemptive right of the state in the case provided by art. 45 par. (5) of the Law on Forestry Code no. 46/2008, as subsequently amended and supplemented, in the case provided by art. 36 par. (5) of the Law no. 182/2000 on the protection of the mobile national cultural heritage, republished, as subsequently amended and supplemented, as well as in the case provided by art. 4 par. (4) of the Law no. 422/2001 on the protection of historical monuments, art. 9 par. (2) of the Law no. 379/2003 on the regime of graves and war memorial works, with subsequent amendments (with the mention that in the latter two cases there is a pre-emptive right of the state in favor of the administrative-territorial units).

## **LEGAL REGIME OF NULLITY**

Regarding the legal regime of absolute nullity, it is governed by three aspects:

- Persons who can invoke the nullity;
- the prescription of the right to action;
- The possibility of covering the nullity by confirming the legal act.

The first aspect of the legal regime shows that absolute nullity protects a general interest, so this civil law sanction can be invoked by any interested person. Therefore, absolute nullity may be invoked by the parties of the legal act, the advancing cause of the parties (the persons who are successors to the rights of the parties) and, last but not least, third parties who justify their own interest.

It has been pointed out that the sanction of civil law, namely absolute nullity, cannot be invoked by a person completely foreign of the legal act, because it would not justify its own interest.

Also, absolute nullity can be invoked ex officio by the court, the prosecutor, and by other bodies provided by law. Law no. 18/1991 on the land fund contains prohibitions of alienation sanctioned with absolute nullity, thus Art. 32 par. 1 and 2 stipulating that: "The land assigned according to art. 19 para. (1), art. 21 and art. 43 cannot be alienated by acts between live for 10 years, counted from the beginning of the year following that in which the registration of the property was made under the sanction of the absolute nullity of the act of alienation.

A declaration of invalidity may be brought to justice by the City Hall, the Prefecture, the Prosecutor, and any interested person. "

The second aspect of the legal regime refers to the fact that absolute nullity is not to be affected by limitation period. According to this feature, this sanction of civil law can be invoked at any time, unlike the relative nullity that can be invoked within the period of limitation.

According to art. 1249 of the Civil Code, "unless otherwise provided by law, absolute nullity may be invoked at any time, either by way of action or by way of exception. Relative nullity may be invoked by action only within the limitation period prescribed by law. However, the party required to execute the contract may at any time oppose the relative nullity of the contract even after the limitation period for the right of action in annulment has expired (Dogaru & Popa & Danisor & Cercel, 2008, p.1008)

There are exceptions to the rule that absolute nullity is not affected by the limitation period, in this sense art. 46 paragraph 5 of Law no. 10/2001 on the legal status of immovable properties abusively taken over from 6 March 1945 to 22 December 1989 providing that "by way of derogation from the common law, irrespective of the cause of nullity, the right of action shall be prescribed within one year starting from the moment of at the entry into force of the present law. "

The third aspect of the legal regime of absolute nullity points out that invalidity cannot be covered by confirmation.

According to the doctrine (Dogaru & Popa & Danisor & Cercel, 2008, p.1009), the confirmation is the legal act by which the party entitled to invoke the nullity waives the right to bring an action for nullity or the right to oppose the nullity exception.

Given that both express and tacit confirmation of absolute nullity is inadmissible by law, it results implicitly that a confirmatory act is also hit by absolute nullity.

It should also be pointed out that there should be no confusion between nullity as a civil law sanction and other causes of ineffectiveness of the legal act.

Thus, between inopportunity and nullity there are both similarities and essential differences. Inapplicability is the sanction that occurs in the case of non-disclosure of third party of publicity requirements for certain legal acts.

It is also considered a case of inopportunity the one regarding the conclusion of a legal act through the representation process, but with the lack or the overcoming of the power to represent.

The main differences between inopportunity and nullity are:

- nullity implies an invalid act, while inopportunity implies a validly concluded act;
- if in the case of nullity the effects concern both parties and third parties, in the event of unnecessary effects the act occurs against the parties, but the rights and obligations arising from the act cannot be opposed to third parties;
- to nullity, the causes are contemporaneous with the conclusion of the act, whereas inopportunity implies the inability to assume formalities after its conclusion;



- relative nullity can be covered by confirmation, while inopportunity can be removed in terms of representation by ratification.

Another important delimitation is the one between nullity and the sanction of the reduction which is the civil sanction applicable in the case of legal acts concluded with the non-obstruction of certain prohibitions established by law for protecting persons or for the restoration of the balance of the benefits in a synallagmatic contract concluded for pecuniary and commutative purposes.

The main differences between nullity and reduction refer to the following:

- the nullity is applicable to all legal effects whereas reduction applies to either excessive liberalities or contracts concluded for pecuniary and commutative purposes;
- the nullity implies an invalidated act, whereas the reduction involves a valid act;
- the cause of invalidity lies in the failure to comply with a legal provision on the validity of a legal act, whereas reduction is determined either by the breach of the right of reserved share of heirs or by the existence of a clear disproportion between contractual benefits, even if existing at the date of conclusion of the legal act.

## CONCLUSION

In other words, nullity is the sanction of civil law that occurs if, at the conclusion of the civil legal act, the legal provisions regarding the substantive or formal conditions are not observed.

Nullity is not the only cause of ineffectiveness of the civil legal act, which leads to the deprivation of the civil legal act of the effects for which it was concluded, but there are other causes that appear after the conclusion of the act, such as revocation and inopportunity (Dogaru & Popa & Danisor & Cercel, 2008, p.996).

The doctrine emphasizes that the delimitation of nullity from these other causes of ineffectiveness of the legal act is important for a better configuration of the concept of "nullity of the civil legal act and for preventing their confusion (Beleiu, 2001, p. 213-216; Boroi, 2001, p. 223-226; Cosma, 1969, p. 415; Chelaru, 2003, p. 166-169; Dogaru, 2000, p. 315-319)

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## **Clinical Psychological Aspects within The Concept of Pediatric Dentistry**

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### **Abstract**

In this paper we aim to describe the pediatric dentistry (pedodontics) which is a branch of dental medicine dealing exclusively with children and adolescents, being a field that has experienced an impressive development over the past years in our country, being introduced as a specialty in the program of residency in 2016.

The purpose of this article is to highlight a number of clinical and psychological aspects resulting from a study of a sample of 10 children on the behavior adopted in the dental office in two distinct situations: in the presence of parents and in their absence. It is extremely important that at the age of 6 months the child should have his first visit at the dentist, followed by yearly checks, in order to familiarize the child with dentistry, thus preventing the establishment of anxiety towards the dentist.

Based on the analysis of the two situations, we noticed the following: children who were assisted by parents in the dental office tended to be much more agitated, non-cooperating, permanently anxious, being mostly influenced by the way in which

the parent talks, threatens or even involuntarily induces their fear of the dentist. In the case of unaccompanied children, a stronger relationship was observed between the patient and the dentist, the children being more attentive to what their doctor explains, gained confidence and became more self-assured, becoming aware of the role of maintaining a good oral hygiene.

**Keywords:** baby tooth, child psychology, clinical cases, pediatric dentistry, Tooth Fairy

## THE PURPOSE OF PEDIATRIC DENTISTRY

Pediatric dentistry aims at maintaining the oral health of children and adolescents, preventing the occurrence of oral cavity diseases and the curative treatment of injuries already installed. Unlike other branches of dentistry, pedodontics involves the accumulation of knowledge in the following areas: child and adolescent psychology, child development, age-related prophylactic and curative methods and techniques. If doctors in other dental care sectors tend to tackle dental stomach injuries in adults, dental pediatricians know that there are major physiological and psychological differences. A temporary tooth ("baby tooth") is not similar to a permanent tooth from a morphological and functional point of view, nor from the point of view of its histological composition. The first significant difference is the physiological rhythm of growth and formation of the tooth, given that the temporary tooth is subjected to the rhizome process. The rhizome process translates into the resorption of the root, which leads to the mobility of the dental crown and finally to the exfoliation of the tooth from the dental arch. (Bataiosu, pp. 34-35). With regard to the number of teeth it is noted that temporary dentition is characterized by a smaller number of dental units (20), because the premolars are not present, they appear later, replacing the one and two temporary molars. Also, temporary teeth have a lighter color

compared to permanent teeth that tend to develop yellow or even gray nuances. (Bataiosu, p.24). The reason why it is often necessary to extract the temporary tooth compared to the permanent tooth is not that it will eventually disappear from the arcade shortly and there will be another tooth in its place, but the fact that the roots of temporary teeth present a complex morphology, sometimes having a "ribbon" aspect. This morphology leads to the failure of the endodontic treatment of tooth preservation and maintenance.

Not only the teeth of children and adolescents are different from adult dental structures, but also the tissues of the oral cavity. These have a high degree of sensitivity, especially to radiation and trauma, and this is the reason why it is recommended to reduce the time for radiological examinations, but also to protect children who play different sports. The increased sensitivity of young tissues derives from the fact that these tissues are incomplete, not yet mature.

As far as the management of dental pain in children is concerned, the tendency of parents to resort to various sources such as pharmaceutical workers or general practitioners for the purpose of treatment has been observed over time. This has often led to a worsening of the already existing situation because the pathology of the child's oro-maxillofacial sphere is extremely complex and does not respond to the same type of medication as in the case of an adult. (Mason, 1997). Another major problem faced by pediatricians is the lack of information from parents about the frequency and role of dental checks. Most children come to the dental office when teeth damage is at an advanced stage. Although the severity of the condition does not produce a psychological impact on the physiological aspect (Granville, 2018), but only a strong emotional impact caused by pain, during the teen years is unaesthetical. Starting from this type of situation, the period of adolescence will be marked by depressive episodes, anxiety or even anorexia / bulimia. At a difficult age, of contrasts, but also of the discovery of one's own identity, the teenager will be deeply marked by the perception

of those around him (especially his group of friends, colleagues). The degree of influence of the crowd is a key element in the emergence of social and psychological disorders, and the unfavorable aspect of teeth is a factor that is not to be neglected in this context. According to McDougall (1920) primitive instincts occupy an important place in triggering anxiety and anger. Thus, through the acidic comments of people around the adolescent, as well as through social discrimination or marginalization, we can witness the installation of the anonymity effect (Le Bon, 1908; Voinea, Negrea & Teodorescu, 2016). Therefore, the child should not be considered a "small adult" because he is a particular entity with completely different body structures from an anatomical, physiological and psychological point of view (Călin & Teodorescu, 2016; Vlăduțescu, 2018; Unguru & Sandu, 2018).

## **CHILD AND ADOLESCENT ANXIETY IN THE DENTAL OFFICE**

Anxiety can be defined as a fear of a situation / thing without a well-founded reason (Anne, 2009, p. 13). Anxiety theories are divided into two categories: biological theories and psychoanalytic theories. Biological theories emphasize the fact that many biological processes are related to this disorder, but the enigma of these theories lies in the uncertainty about the moment when these processes are triggered (Iorgulescu, 2017, p. 72). There are two possibilities: either biological processes are secondary to a psychological mechanism or vice versa. The psychoanalytic theories of anxiety are divided into three main classes: Freudian, non-Freudian theories, and the cognitive theory of social learning. Freudian theory claims that there are three types of anxiety: objective, moral and neurotic (Freud, 1933). He also argues that moral and neurotic anxiety are the ones that lead to the establishment of psychological disorders. Objective anxiety occurs in the case of all individuals and is considered to be a rational

process, representing the ability of the human being to defend itself from dangers in the external environment.

The dental anxiety of children and adolescents in most cases is the result of an inappropriate approach to the first visit to the dentist. The failure of the first visit to the dentist can be blamed on the medical staff, parents or both sides. This first contact of the child with dentistry is of particular importance because it will influence for a very long time the child's conception of how to perceive the dental act. Some of the dentist's mistakes that may compromise the consultation are: stiffness, poor communication, the use of formal language containing medical terms that can trigger fear (eg injection, syringe, extractors, scalpel). Parents are often very stressed at the first visit of the child to the dentist, which makes their anxiety condition immediately perceived by the child and it leads to anxiety, agitation, irritability. (Iorgulescu, pp. 121-122, 2017). In this case the nurse has a pivotal role, her tasks being: creating a friendly environment to calm and encourage the little patient; in clinical cases requiring anesthesia it is advisable to have the syringe prepared in a place inaccessible to the child's visual area or even the use of caps for syringe in various forms (animals, princesses, superheroes). (Porter, p. 86, 2011).

Within the FAD concept (fear and anxiety of the dentist), H.R. Chapman and K. Turner (1999) have stated that there are five factors to trigger anxiety:

- fear of pain and its anticipation;
- distrust, but also the fear of being betrayed;
- fear of losing control of the situation;
- fear of the unknown;
- fear of intrusion.

As methods of preventing or reducing anxiety in the dental office, we mention the Tell.Show.Do method and the MEOPA method. (Statov, p. 5, 12, 2011). The Tell.Show.Do method involves explaining to the patient what treatment will be given,

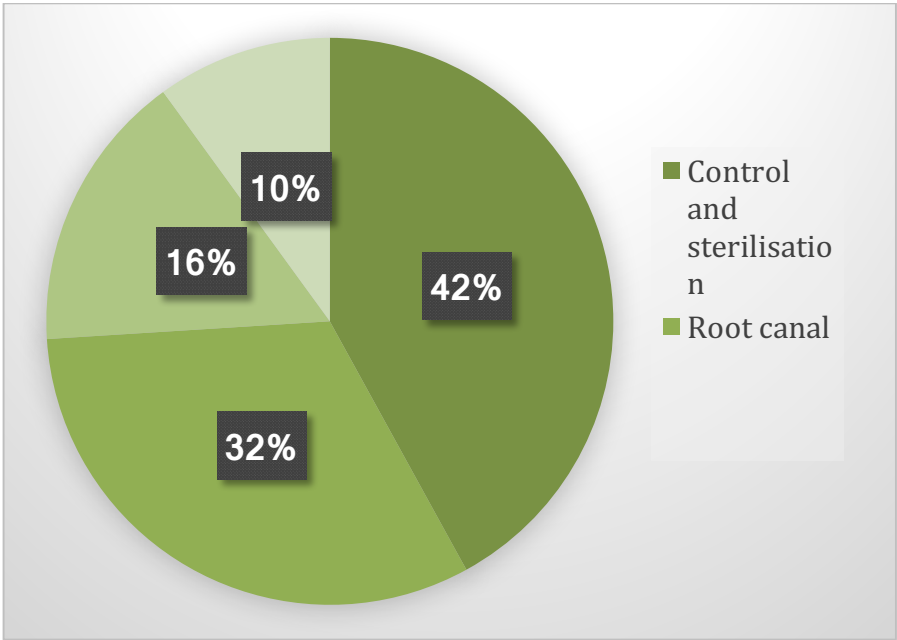
but in a positive, encouraging and non-complex or fearful medical terms way, the next step is to demonstrate the doctor's procedure, and the last step, being the most attractive for the little patient, consists in handling and exploring various instruments, appliances or dental materials. (they are carefully chosen to prevent possible injuries during their operation). The MEOPA method refers to anaesthesia that is carried out with the help of nitrous oxide to induce the relaxation state. However, this technique provides for a number of contraindications such as:

- patients with nasal obstruction or obstruction at the Eustachio tube;
- patients with perforations in the eardrum;
- discerning or non-cooperating patients; those with severe psychiatric disorders;
- patients with obstructive chronic bronchopneumopathy;
- patients with oncological conditions who undergo chemotherapy with bleomycin;
- patients with multiple sclerosis neuromuscular diseases;
- patients with hippocampus, especially vitamin B12, because nitrous oxide reduces vitamin B12 levels.

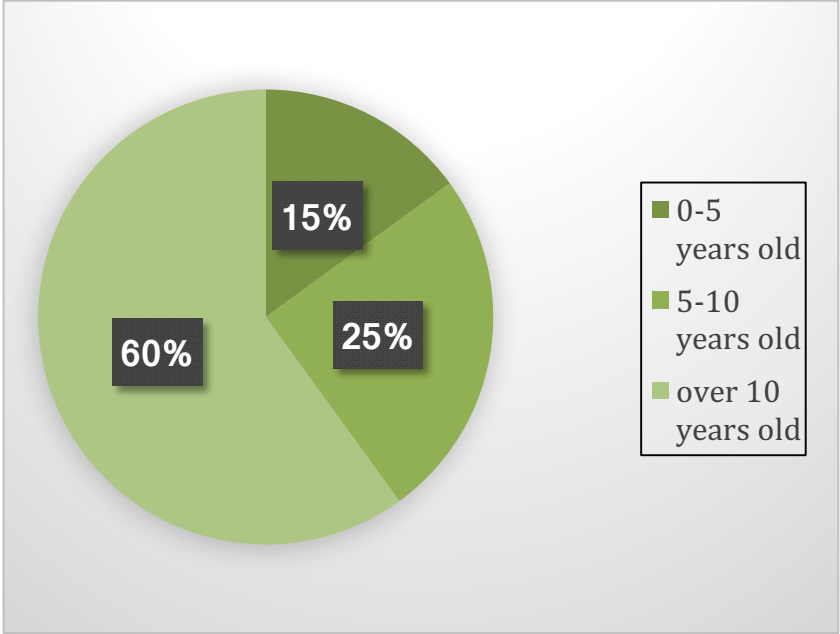
We conducted a study on the assessment of anxiety in a sample of 178 adolescents, using the questionnaire method containing simple, multiple complement questions and a last free-answer question. The results obtained indicated:



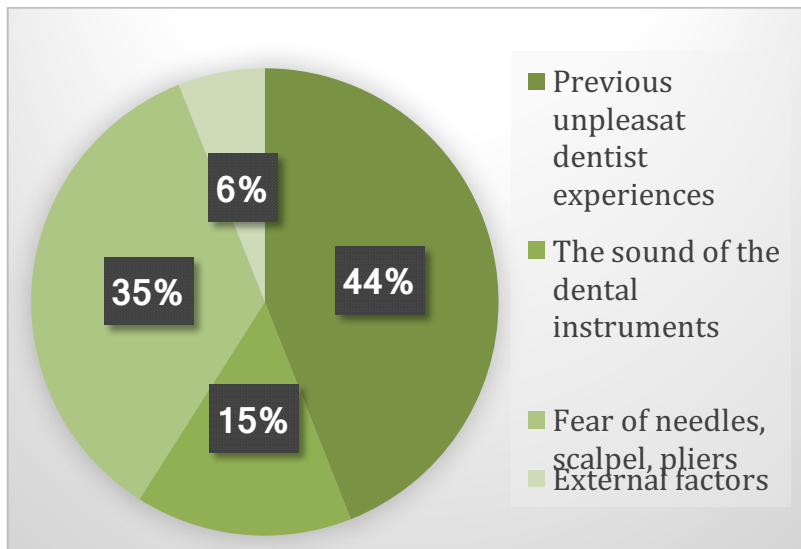
**I. Frequent reasons for presenting to the dentist:**



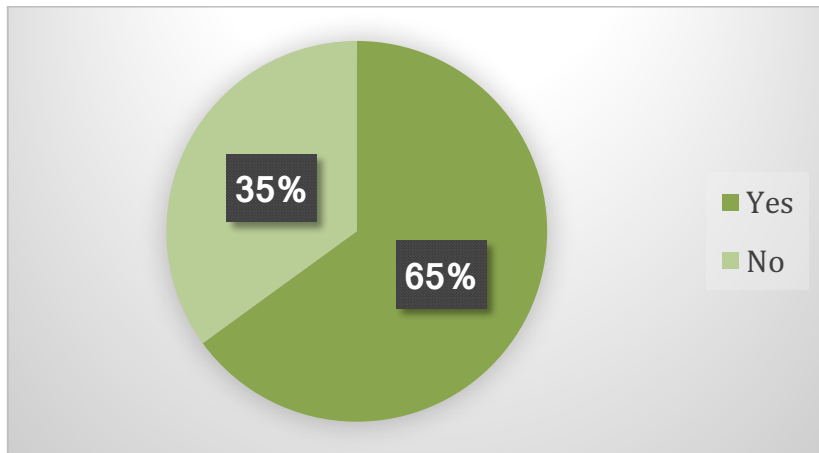
**II. First visit to the dentist**



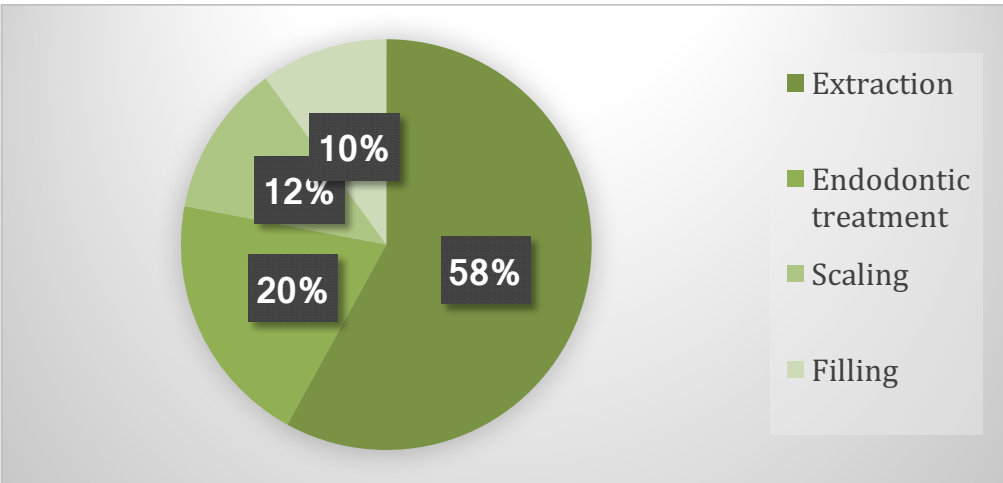
**III. Causes of dental anxiety**



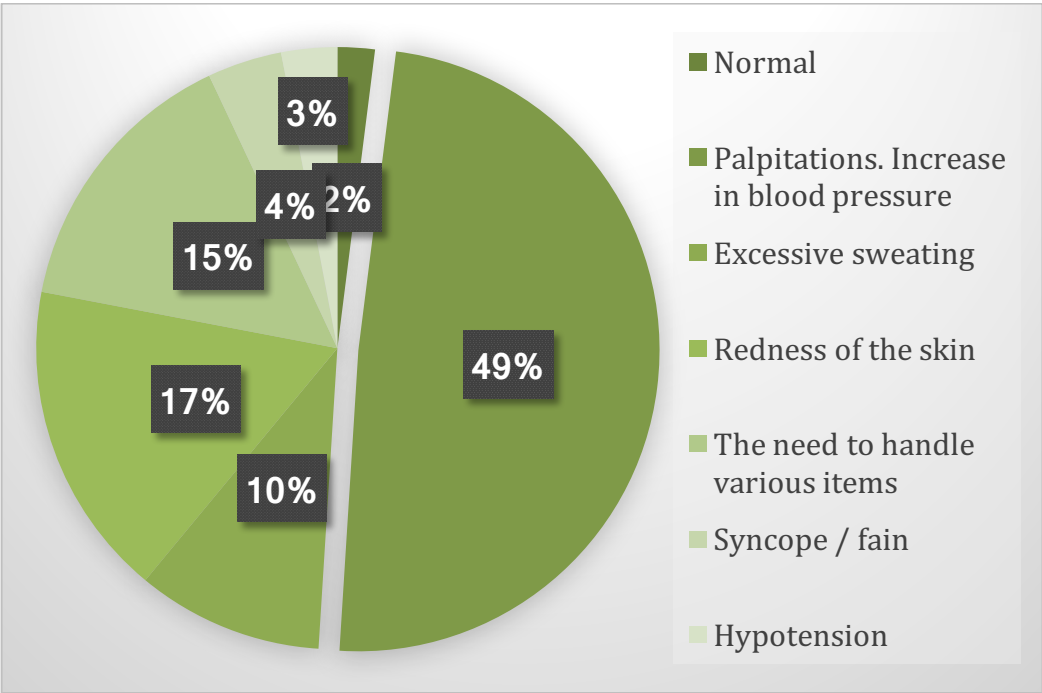
**IV. Would gas anaesthesia be a solution to ameliorate dental anxiety?**



**V. Selection of the most traumatic dental treatment**



**VI. Patient status during dental treatment:**



## CLINICAL CASES

We conducted a study in a dental office on a sample of 10 patients aged between 7 and 16 years old, divided into two categories: those who are accompanied in the dental office by the parent and those who come unaccompanied.

### **Case no. 1**

The F.A., 8-year-old male, appeared in the dental office for periodic and hygiene control. He insisted on being accompanied by his mother in the cabinet, and the discussions with him and his mother revealed that he had an unpleasant previous experience of visiting the dentist because the dentist had not had enough patience with him, even raising his voice. This incident prompted the child to avoid as much as possible visits to the dentist. When examining the oral cavity, we discovered multiple cavities, the coronary fracture of a tooth, bacterial plaque deposits and tartar due to the increased consumption of sweets and carbonated beverages, but also the dental presence of a temporary tooth whose functional period had ended by about one year. We decided to limit ourselves to familiarizing the child with the dental sphere at this first session, and turned to activities such as the coloring of dental illustrations with an educational role, watching a movie explaining the role of oral hygiene and periodic control to the dentist. At the second session, we ensured that the child's condition was normal, relaxed and we started with minimally invasive (non-traumatic) maneuvers: professional brushing, scaling, then we explained the role of tooth sealing and let him choose the color he wanted to seal his teeth (he chose the blue color), I made local fluoridation, leaving the aroma of the fluoride to the patient's choice (chose caramel flavor). The second meeting ended successfully, meeting all the goals we have set ourselves. In the third session, we went to more complex operations: occlusal coronary obturation and temporary superior incisor extraction. If there were no complications

in the case of obturation, there were some hesitations in the extraction process from the child, but I was relieved, we performed anesthesia with anesthesia spray at the site of extraction and only used compressions for extraction, to avoid fear. At the end of the session, I gave the little patient a letter that she had to complete on herself to the Tooth Fairy. It should be noticed that during all sessions the child has been agitated and anxious every time his mother intervened, thus hindering the act of the therapist and requiring a longer time for the session.

### **Case no 2**

The 16-year-old B.P., male, is present in the dental office for hygiene and coronary obturation at the lower two molar. He chose to come unaccompanied by the parent, waiting in the waiting room where he completed the anamnesis, because at the age of 16 the patient is still minor and the consent regarding the dental services is given by the parent / guardian authority. In the endo-oral examination, we noticed, besides the problems the patient had evoked, a dento-alveolar incongruence through severe spacing, namely the existence of large spaces between the teeth, as well as an accentuated vestibularisation of the teeth. Following the discussion with the patient, I found out that he refused to wear an orthodontic device because school colleagues and a group of friends often made jokes and mischievous remarks about this treatment. At that moment, I asked him a series of questions to find out about his orthodontic treatment and came to the conclusion that he does not consider the braces as an unpleasant accessory, but the opinions and influence of those around him are those that he was saying, have determined not to follow the treatment. After giving him many examples of personalities who wore braces, and also his own example (currently wearing braces), he started to look at things differently and be more confident in the decisions he should take. Thus, the patient gained courage and after having done his

treatment, he went and made an appointment to the orthodontist to correct the aesthetics of his teeth.

## **BABY BOTTLE CAVITIES - PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS**

Most parents tend to neglect cavities of the temporary teeth, and this attitude leads to irreparable negative consequences. This type of cavity occurs because of nocturnal breastfeeding, the use of excess sweet liquids, and of the frequent use of the baby bottle after the child has acquired the first temporary tooth. (Bataiosu, pp. 43-44, 2010). One of the major consequences of bottle feeding, that has a strong psychological and social impact, is due to the location of the cavities on the front teeth, which are always visible. Thus, a baby with baby bottle cavities will end up with problems when it comes to entering a social environment such as kindergarten. At an early age, children are prone to criticise, but also to make negative assessments of the physiognomy, the result being social isolation, separation from the social environment, and also lowering school performance. Another negative consequence of bottle feeding is the fact that this affection influences the development of permanent teeth. We can see that in most cases, if a child has been affected by this type of cavity, it will present permanent structural defects, defects characterized by both chromatic changes (teeth with yellow or brown spots) and changes in structure (imperfect amelogenesis or dentinogenesis, translated by insufficient development of enamel or dentin, resulting in fractures of the tooth, which develops a high degree of fragility). The loss of pertinent dental structures at the age of adolescence will drastically affect the facial appearance, and the teenager will be prone to psychological disorders such as depression, anorexia or bulimia. As preventive treatment, we can indicate fluoridation both locally and globally (Pătroi, 2001, p. 64-75).

## MANAGING THE CHILD'S EMOTIONS IN THE DENTAL OFFICE

In the case of very young children, aged between 6 months and 2 years, both the dentist and the parents often face the problem of crying. They must understand that crying is a way of indirectly communicating states, feelings, or even systemic disorders (Nessia, 2008, p. 44). In this situation, it is very important to remain calm and to find out the cause that triggered crying and solving it. A state of restlessness and anxiety on the part of the doctor or parent would only amplify the child's already installed state. Also, the dentist can inform parents about the behavioral aspects of the child or behavioral changes, identifying anxiety or depression in the anamnesis (Jacques, 2011, p. 43). Of particular importance is the communication of the doctor with the patient. To make communication more effective, but also to make the child behave appropriately without affecting his / her self-esteem, it is advisable for the physician to predominantly use first-person messages (Thomas, 2011, pp. 129-130). like "I'm disappointed that you did not wash your teeth as I told you," compared to second-person messages: "You're a disobedient child!" If in the first situation one can notice a transmission of the feeling of disappointment of the doctor to the child, in the second situation the child will understand only that he is disobedient and bad.

In the case of adolescents, the situation is much more different, because they are at an age when they discover themselves, they form an image of both their own person and the world around them (Ann, 2000, pp. 256-257), often being dominated by internal conflicts. (Boyte, 2017, p. 16). The dentist must show patience and understanding about their aesthetic requirements and explain the negative consequences of the treatments for which they generally opt (lip augmentation, dental bleaching, dental jewelry). Another extremely important feature of the doctor is empathy (Gill, 2016, p. 51). In many situations, he has to translate into the patient's

place and understand why the patient chose to make different changes in his oro-facial appearance.

## ART TECHNIQUE IN PEDIATRIC DENTAL TREATMENTS

The ART technique (atraumatic restorative treatment) is a treatment solution that can be applied to both temporary and permanent teeth for people with anxiety about the dentist. (Bataiosu, 2010, p. 60). The method consists in the removal of the superficial altered layer of the teeth using only hand tools, not rotational ones, with the aim of not traumatizing the child by the noise produced (Tuculina, 2009, p. 18). This method has numerous advantages, such as the use of biocompatible fillings that continuously remove fluorine and help to remineralize the structure (glass ionomer cement), is a minimally invasive method and has a low price (Srivastava, 2011, p. 199). As a disadvantage of the method, we can mention that it can not be used in clinical situations with profound lesions.

## CONCLUSION

To conclude, pediatric dentistry is a complex area of dental medicine that is not strictly limited to the treatment of oral cavity lesions and disorders, but it integrates in addition to the dental and psychological notions of the child, as well as knowledge from the field of pediatrics with the purpose of understanding the stages of child growth and development.

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## **Metonymy And The Cult Of Intensity In Media Discourse**

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### **ABSTRACT**

In the present paper, we present a new perspective on the features of the current media message. The Romanian media, under pressure of the markets, rapid digitization, and a considerable effort to synchronize with Western markets, builds on peaks of intensity, emotion, the mood of the crowds and far less (or sometimes not at all) on facts. The abolition of the eventual discontinuity and the consolidation of a media reality seem relevant to the present Romanian media landscape.

**Keywords:** media, metonimie, emoție, informație.

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

In front of information captured from the outside, the journalist follows procedures of selection, hierarchisation, contextualization, interpretation so that, in the end, a certain aspect of an event is presented to the public as news. Depending on the number of people involved or affected, you can move to a second stage when you turn the news into a media event. In this way, the news has become an epicenter of the media event. From our point of view, the media event automatically means informational pressure, or more attention from the public.

Once the taste of the audience was caught, the sale of events, not of information, became a media goal. The processes listed above have been given a new status - they are no longer applied to transform information into news, respectively to facilitate information transfer, but to build events.

Our idea is that, at present, the media offer means a generalization of news as an event, so that today's media means the cultivation of a mood fueled by dependence on events, that is, peaks of informational and emotional intensity. To this end, the above-mentioned professional processes have been transferred from fact to sense, on the basis of acceptability, acceptance, conviction and persuasion, on the basis of emotion and seduction.

## **2 SENSORY DISCOURSE AND METONYMIC DISCOURSE**

The author of the media text (journalistic, advertising or social media) has moved the selection criteria from the paradigmatic axis to the syntagmatic axis, namely from intensive, metaphorical discourse, to extensive, metonymic discourse. The part, the fragment, the cut-out are collected for the construction of another world, the media world. Behind the alibi of representativeness we can find the rays of a new world, the already decoded world, which the receiver no longer has to understand, but just to live and feel. The sensoriality of this media, whose dawn can be found in

tabloidization, shortens the comprehension processes through systematic insertions of comprehensive impulses.

Metonymy means combination, fragments that can replace the whole. The substitute media world is, in fact, a continuation, as a contiguous image of the immediate, of reality. Hence, the immanent credibility, *per se*, of the media discourse. Metonymia does not replace, but continues (μ Group, Henry Albert, Le Guern, et al.), goes further, or, in the case of media discourse, brings closer to the the receiver certain parts that are considered relevant to the construction of the message and the media world.

We follow Lacan, who saw the metonymic effect as a movement. The same movement was named by Paul Ricoeur as a meaning transfer through an assignment operation. In other words, this assignment, this transfer or movement gives the powers of a whole to the fragment. Selection and hierarchization become stages of investing, not warnings. They contain in them the promise of the whole, as in an inexhaustible fractal. Thus, for example, competition between discourses, between channels of information and competition between brands is no longer a quantitative, but a qualitative competition.

Exclusivity, the truth, the reporter who "knows everything" about an event, the issues solved by a promoted product, the rhetorical questions, the comfortable, predictable questions, the type of guest in the studio that provides predictable answers (and when they don't, they are eliminated from the debate), the incomprehensible and insinuating tones of the hosts of the debates or of the actors from various advertising clips are common features that equally argue the journalistic and advertising discourse, which bring power to the media discourse (on any kind of channel).

The fragment, the example, the experiment, the test have become recipients of the certainty, respectively of the truth. Not versions, but solutions and responses are offered to the excited audience and thus captive. Therefore, in the logic of metonymy,

as defined by Albert Henry, contextualization and interpretation become the creative stages of identity of the message.

Metonymy "substitutes a word for a different term of comprehension" (Henry, 1971, 19). This is how the resemblance is not the basis of media selection, but the difference. The journalist does not repeat, replay, but bring novelties, completes, by virtue of the promise of complete, correct information. The issuer does not inform, but guides attention, as noted by Maurice le Guern: "The metonymic relationship involves a change of reference, a shift of attention" (Guern, 1973, 14) to the producer / receiver. Both Albert Henry and Maurice le Guern noticed this openness that presupposes metonymy. Based on conceptual contiguity, on logical comprehension, the metonymic relations „are external, extralinguistic" (Henry). It is a relationship that is outside the linguistic language and does not change the structure of a language (Guern). We talk about psychological comprehension and extension. (Henry).

In the name of logic, a mood of perplexity, total openness and availability for acceptance is built. Logical links, transfers, differences, mix things and words, the world and world discourse. Thus, the discourse about the world is the world, the represented part (filmed, photographed, described) carries in itself the promise of the whole.

### **3 THE MEDIA PUBLISHER AS AN ACTOR OF THE DIGITAL METONYMIC DISCOURSE**

Metonymia also involves an assumption, personalization. The self is intrised to the operations of building the metonymic discourse. Selection, cropping (even by virtue of consistency and comprehension) are underwriting operations of the issuer. Selection personalizes. In this way, media reality is a reality built by an ego and fully accepted by a segment of audience (Albert Henry, and in Le Guern,). Metonymy directs, that is, attracts attention, affirms, confirms, resonates, according to the

internal rhythms (and pressures) of the issuer. The media issuer is a undoubtedly unassailable actor.

Media communication, in its defining traits, urgency and completeness, fits perfectly on the metonymic process. Metonymy, said Crevier, "abbreviates" (in Le Guern, p. 80). Concision is a process of seduction, of the fuzzing of the silence of reception. The receiver, bombarded by information, does not have time to follow his own decoding paths. In the face of the essentials and illustrative example, there is only time for acceptance and consensus.

The media discourse has thus become an agglomeration of fragments, which seem to be supposed, to be explained and seem to reconstitute (or, at least, they assume) a discourse of the truth, the real. In fact, the end of the news, the show, the advertising clip, of the communication segment also means the end of that discursive world it created. The receiver was not informed about the world, but about that which the issuer wanted him to understand and communicate. These fragments, these sequences invested with the title of news, events, subjects, converge into a pseudo-immediate, a pseudo-reality (Baudrillard, 2008) increasingly crowded with issuers.

We need to open a little discussion about the "information superhighway", a unanimously accepted phrase among media communication theorists. This assumes the balance of messages between the different pairs of issuers and receivers - the same message is routed in the context of *one-to-many*, but also in the context of *many-to-many* (in an informational arbitrariness). The motorway does not mean (just) more information, but also more persuasive effort, or more energy invested in the message and the force of its penetration. This force increases exponentially with the number of issuers. In our view, "deaconification of practice" (Baudrillard, 2008, p. 151) was produced by digitization, since one of the most profound effects of digitization is the accessibility of creation. In Baudrillard's footsteps, as we see a logical and metonymic transition from the pop artist to the blogger and web designer, we can recognize a move

from the institutionally assumed media issuer to the citizen, the individual issuer with an assumed affective identity.

In this way, reality is pulverized in states, not in fact, nor in the news or media reports. From now on, raw information (utility, instrumental) articulates the media world, not reality. The show of crowds becomes the digital show built by producers (of artistic origin, which may not rely on inspiration, but rely on flair, may not have any recognized talent, but certainly have abilities that turn them into skilled film editors, text editors, photographers and publishers), a desacralized show in which the media builds its own concise, expressive, seductive and comfortable universe. The producers' effort is to seduce. The show is suggested through the shooting angle, the lens type, the tone, the letter body or colors. It rebuilds, in this way, an externality dedicated to the spectator, ie a state of participation, as though, extremely convincing, as the more he consumes the more the psyche becomes involved.

## CONCLUSION

Baudrillard called these constructs "pseudo-events" in a "hyperrealism unrealism" (p. 161). We can ask ourselves whether metonymy means falsification, if the perspective, the fragment transforms the event into a pseudo-phenomenon. Is this a false neoreality? "Medium is the message," said Marshall McLuhan when he saw the destruction of the boundaries and the limits of communication. Similarly, Baudrillard, in the quoted paper, gave the Caesar, and the context, almost everything. Gradually, with each issuer, the media has become the message.

Channels of communication have become matrices, selection and creative bands. The media bubble is a coincidence of intense emotional peaks that constrain the receiver to a unique reception convention.



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## **THE IMPLIED MESSAGE**

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### **Abstract**

This study aims to emphasize on a preliminary basis that any communication takes into account as understandable an idea of a message. Using the hermeneutical method and a corpus of philosophical texts, the research argues that any speech, whether linguistic, philosophical, administrative, etc. is driven, trained, articulated by the thought of a message; so, it is concluded that in any communication the message is understandable. Rarely, communication takes the understandable message explicitly as a theme; in any case, however, communication is always impregnated by the thought of an implicit understandable message.

**Keywords:** message, implicit message, explicit message, understandable message

## 1. Introduction

The message concept can only develop within a conceptual device that also includes communication. There is no message without message, but no message without communication. Therefore, any communication map that does not mark the message is an incomplete map. Diacronic speaking, the basics of the message concept were laid by the mathematical theory of communication, of cybernetics, and were consolidated by the theory of information. Important contributions to its initiation have brought linguistics, semantics and semiotics, pragmatics and communication science [Communicative - J.-A. De Vito (1982), Communicative - G. Métayer (1972)].

There is a legitimate question: where was philosophy at this time? The inference that philosophy stood on one side or that she was behind in the message is a false message.

In a surface photograph of philosophy, the message does not appear. But if an X-ray is done, it will be noticed that the message is right in the heart of philosophy. It's not abnormal at all. Man is self-discerning from the outside to the inside. Hands are in the field of primary evidence, while the brain is a scientific evidence. No philosopher would have written or spoken unless he had something to say. This "to say" is loaded with an assumption to be validated and that means what is to be said is a thought before the thought of saying. If something becomes an object of practice, then it is in the constitution and it is also given. Whoever has something to say has before he starts to say it. What he has to say does not always coincide with what will be said later. "To be said" anticipates the message. What we have to say is the message. Something to say, something to show, something to indicate, something to show, something to be exposed, something to be represented, some forms of message. Once the question is asked, the answer is as it is. These forms can be narrowed into the message concept. They differ according to the material used and the intended purposes. Since a "to say" is aware, part of it has become a message. E. Benveniste denotes this to be said: "What the locator wants to say" (Benveniste, 1966, p. 36). Each communication gesture initiates a process, attracts something to say.

## 2. History and concept

The first science that proposes an intent entered into history is philosophy. Socrates introduced in philosophy the message “know yourself”. Hegel definitely assigns him to Socrates (Hegel, 1963). Professor Gheorghe Vlăduțescu, after Diogene Laerțiu, assigns Thales' apoteogism to Miletus (Vlăduțescu, 1996, p. 9). E. Husserl, in *Cartesian Meditations*, analyzes the message as belonging to the delphic temple, and, after passing it through the epiche filter, states: “Thus the delfic word (...) acquires a new meaning. You must first lose the world through the epoch, in order to regain it later in the universal reflection on your own self” (Husserl, 1994, p. 197). What does it mean that the message acquires a “new meaning”? This means that the message has an old meaning, meaning it includes meaning, meaning it is meaning. For Husserl and Hegel the idea that the message is made of meaning is understood (Alkilani, 2017), it is self-evident. That is why E. Husserl only poses a new significance.

What can be said as intuition is that in the philosophy so far the concept of philosophical message has been understood (de Beer & Mentz, 2017; Baic, 2018; Renea, 2018). Our belief that great philosophers have not used the concept of message should not be invested in the negativity of lack of message (Karpf, 2016; Qatawneh, 2018), but in the wisdom of never denying it. Hegel's nothing, like that of Heidegger, concretises a message. The philosopher of “nothingness” becomes the core of cardinal significance. The second definition of the Absolute, Hegel points out, is nothing. The highest form of nothingness is freedom. The being is, however, precisely what is absolutely devoid of determinants, and the same lack of determination is nothing. The truth of being, as well as of nothing, is the unity of both, that is, the becoming. Being and nothing is the same thing. Being is the transition to nothing and the nothingness of the being. By becoming, both are overcome, and the result is being-in-fact (Dasein).

Science does not want to know anything about Nothing. By removing him, she calls him back. Nothing is properly recognized as such. Thinking, by its essence, is always the thought of something. It is not possible for us to do anything from the Nothing. Nothing is more original than nonsense and denial. Nothing is the complete denial of the totality of being. Fear Nothing. Only

Nothing brings Dasein to Being as Being. The pure being and the pure thing are one and the same thing - this Hegel's proposition is justified. Human Dasein can relate to something of the being only when it is maintained in Nothing. The passage beyond being occurs in the essence of Dasein. But this passage beyond is metaphysical. Philosophy moves only through the leap in the fundamental possibilities of Dasein. To accomplish this jump, it is decisive to give space to the being in its entirety, also to get caught in Nothing. This is the fundamental question of metaphysics that Nothing itself compels us to ask: Why is it actually being, and not, rather, Nothing? If we did not know anything about Heidegger then this philosophy - a message of nothing - could be attributed to Hegel.

Here we have Hegel's nothing, the italic text (Hegel, 1995, pp. 153-169) and Heidegger's Nothing (1988, pp. 36-51). Dasein is common. Heidegger continues on Hegel, stepping back. The dialectic of becoming is turned into a metaphysics of the passage ("going beyond being" - Heidegger). The Message of Nothing-Nothing is like being about being: self-knowledge.

Philosophy does not refrain from invoking the message, but considering the message-message as a non-conceptual normality leaves the message to say itself. For the receiver, the message actually comes after. The transmitter emits it without completely dominating it, the receiver only knows it after (Karpf, 2016; Frunză, 2018; Kakalejčík, Bucko, Resende & Ferencova, 2018). Everyone has their own message. Their coincidence is in the rare part of the probability. As the receiver appreciates having received a specific message, the transmitter must have sent another message. In reality, the message is a building, a house that is not called a house until after it has been finished and is good to live. Lifting a home is a cognitive process of progressive installation of "home". The house is being built parallel to the cognitive implementation of the "home" idea. Analogously, the message is effectively generated during communication, in cognitive convergence with the insertion of message cognition. Sending a message is the cognitive process of installing the idea and the message-substance (Motoi & Popescu, 2017; Jøsang, 2018).

The philosophical message is being built up to the middle of the 20th century without the philosophical message concept. Spirit gradually gathers material: signs, signals, symbols, clues,

meanings, meanings, meanings, meanings, in a word, meanings (Roşca, 2017; Rehor & Vrchota, 2018; Drămnescu & Enăchescu, 2018).

The concern of philosophers for this type of material comes from a preoccupation, from the care of a higher order: that of the message. To be able to convey their ideas, they have to give them a perceptible form. As such, they build messages using these materials. The processing of raw material is also a fundamental process. Moreover, once a material of signification has been used, the message triggers, the intention is not necessary or any other effort (Craig, 2018; Qatawneh, 2018; Бенчев; Starovoytova & Namango).

The construction material used predominantly by philosophers in the fulfillment of their conceptual organization of projects is the meaning. Philosophical work also attracts signs, clues, meanings, signals, concepts, concepts (Anton, 2016; Nicolescu, 2017; Unguru & Sandu, 2018).

For Kant, “the pure concepts of the intellect have no meaning”, when they are separated from the things in themselves (noumena)“ (...) “The pure concepts of the intellect appear to have a much greater significance (Kant, 1987, p. 149). Without this understanding the categories are totally useless. The essence of the category system: through this system the true meaning of the pure concepts of the intellect and the condition of their use can be precisely determined “The already formed knowledge of logical relations, Hegel argues (Hegel, 1995, p. 15), is the first condition for a correct understanding of a philosophical fact.” “The fact of philosophy is already developed consciousness. There is only reflection in the sense of thought following thought“ (Hegel, 1995, p.10).

To support our idea, from E. Husserl we will remember that “any great philosophy is not only a historical fact but also has in the development of the life of the spirit of mankind, even a teleological function of a particular kind, be the ultimate assessment of the experience of life, the cultural formation, the wisdom of its age. Let us pause for a moment to clarify these concepts. As a personal habitus, the experience is the sedimentation of acts of an attitude of natural experience achieved in life“ (Husserl, 1996 p. 57).

In Heidegger's conception, the raw material for the edification of the world is language. "Thinking, it shows, builds the shelter of being" (Heidegger, 1988, p. 337). "Language is the place of shelter of the being, given by the being and fully grown by it, the shelter of man's essence. Language is the place of shelter of the being, in which the ec-sister man lives, belonging to the truth of the being, which he watches. Not man is the essence, but the being as a dimension of ecstatic ec-sistence" (Heidegger, 1988, p. 315). "Language is not essentially the exteriorization of an organism, nor the expression of a living being. If the essence of the tongue is concerned, it cannot be conceived by its character as a sign, and perhaps not of its significance. Language is the appearance, which both illuminates and conceals, of being itself" (1988, p. 308). "We think the phonetic and graphic structure as the body of the word, the melody and the rhythm as the soul of the tongue, and the value of meaning as its spirit" (Heidegger, 1988, p. 314).

L. Wittgenstein, among the great philosophers, was the one who was at his closest time to the debate about the raw matter of the message. Neither did he cross the boundary that separates, and at the same time binds the order of significance to the order of the message. The sign, meaning and meaning appear to him: "The unused sign is meaningless. If everything behaves as if a sign had meaning, then it really has significance" (Wittgenstein, 1991, p. 52). Philosophical discourse is built as "a critique of language" (Wittgenstein, 1991, p. 54). The message is critical itself.

In his debut, re-edited in 1993, Constantin Noica commits to weigh "every meaning and meaning" (Noica, 1993, p. 7), to use only the facts that have one meaning, for the philosopher must realize the "meaning" (Noica, 1993, p. 34). Creators, the Romanian philosopher shows, "imbibes things with new meanings" (Noica, 1993, p. 50). "The question of the foundation of knowledge" is "whether to understand means to find or to make meaning" (Noica, 1993, p. 51, 52). He also considered that the word "cumine" means the intimacy of human communication, since "it only occurs if there is a rest, and the better, the greater the rest area. Communication is data, signals, meaning (or even meaning; Communism is meaningless" (Noica, 1987, p. 190). The rest to which the Romanian philosopher refers is what the addressee understands in the message he was sent to.

### 3. Conclusion

It follows that, in the perimeter of philosophy, as it was normal, semiotic-semantic materials are used to form the message, and philosophical messages are built just before the abstract and general idea of the message has been created. Significant practice is, as usual, before the theory of practice itself.

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