

Journal of Regional & Socio-Economic Issues
Volume 6, Special Issue 2, September 2016
ISSN 2049-1409

Guest Editor: Ass. Prof. Dr. Efstratios Papanis

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JOURNAL OF REGIONAL SOCIO- ECONOMIC ISSUES (JRSEI)

SPECIAL ISSUE

Journal of Regional & Socio-Economic Issues (Print) ISSN 2049-1395

Journal of Regional & Socio-Economic Issues (Online) ISSN 2049-1409

Indexed by Copernicus Index, DOAJ (Director of Open Access Journal), EBSCO, Cabell's Index

The journal is catalogued in the following catalogues: ROAD: Directory of Open Access Scholarly Resources, OCLC WorldCat, EconBiz - ECONIS, CITEFACTOR, OpenAccess

JOURNAL OF REGIONAL SOCIO-ECONOMIC ISSUES (JRSEI)

ISSN No. 2049-1409

Aims of the Journal: Journal of Regional Socio-Economic Issues (JRSEI) is an international multidisciplinary refereed journal the purpose of which is to present papers manuscripts linked to all aspects of regional socio-economic and business and related issues. The views expressed in this journal are the personal views of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of JRSEI journal. The journal invites contributions from both academic and industry scholars. Electronic submissions are highly encouraged (mail to: gkorres@geo.aegean.gr).

Indexed by Copernicus Index, DOAJ (Director of Open Access Journal), EBSCO, Cabell's Index International Institute of Organized Research (I2OR) database

The journal is catalogued in the following catalogues: ROAD: Directory of Open Access Scholarly Resources, OCLC WorldCat, EconBiz - ECONIS, CITEFACTOR, OpenAccess

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- **Prof. Dr. George Zestos**, Christopher Newport University, gzeustos@cnu.edu

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Editorial Note

This special issue, JRSEI, Volume 6, September 2016 provides a range of approaches towards counseling and coaching supported by scientific evidence and applied research, combined with counseling and coaching practices, maintaining an integrative approach by recognizing that the disciplines of counseling and psychology lay the necessary foundation for both personal and social development, promoting an in depth understanding of these topics, promoting, motivating, and supporting health, wellbeing, and positive behavior change, especially highly valued, particularly within the current economic crisis, in which human resources management is rather essential.

This issue aims to enable readers to develop an understanding of current best-practice and evidence-based approaches in coaching and counseling, in motivating and supporting behavior change, wellbeing and personal growth, as well as advanced interpersonal communication skills, and conflict resolution strategies.

This special issue, JRSEI, Volume 6, September 2016 is based on selected papers regarding socio-economic issues and perspectives of a wide range on modern topics, such as: Emotional Intelligence, Consulting & Education, Intercultural Counselling in Theory and in Practice, Mentoring and coaching, Educational Leadership and Counselling, Mentoring Guidance and Education, The emotional intelligence in adult education, E-counselling, Anger Management and Conflict Resolution, and Career Counselling. More specifically, this special issue JRSEI, Volume 6, September 2016 includes the following reviewed papers:

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The authors of this special issue hereby declare that all papers included in this special issue are the result of their own actual work and originally authored by them, except explicitly stated otherwise in the text. Authors declare to be aware of and understand the journal's policy on plagiarism and except where states otherwise by reference or acknowledgment, the papers presented are entirely their own and any due references used are being clearly indicated and have been provided on all supporting literatures and resources.

Furthermore, I would like to express my deep thanks to the advisory committee, namely, Dr. Agni Vicky, Dr. Aikaterini Kokkinou, Dr. Kougioumtzis Georgios and Ms. Helen Prassa for their helpful comments and for continuing support regarding the publication of this volume.

The views expressed in this journal are the personal views of the authors, remain under their sole responsibility, and do not necessarily reflect the views of JRSEI journal.
The Editor,

Assistant Professor Dr. Efstratios Papanis
Department of Sociology, University of the Aegean

Advisory Committee

Dr. Agni Vicky

Dr. Aikaterini Kokkinou

Dr. Kougioumtzis Georgios

Ms. Helen Prassa, MA

Emotional Intelligence, Consulting & Education

Abstract:

In this paper, an attempt is made to highlight the importance of Emotional Intelligence in schools for both pupils and for teachers. In this context, the term is determined conceptually and reference is made to the types of intelligence, according to the theory of multiple intelligences. In addition, this paper shows the relevancy of emotional intelligence in the teaching context and highlights the importance of the role of teachers in enhancing the emotional intelligence of students. Finally, potential causes of conflict within schools are presented and the importance of developing psycho-emotional basic skills such as empathy is also highlighted.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, multiple intelligence, school environment, social development programs, emotional development programs, school conflicts

Barouma Christina¹ and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹ Barouma Christina, Health and Welfare Management, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance, Email: christinabarou@yahoo.gr

² Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance), Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr;

1. Introduction

In recent years, emotional intelligence and the necessity of its development by both the students and the teachers have become a matter of frequent discussion. The existing education system is knowledge-based and mainly enhances the linguistic and logical-mathematical skills of the students. As a result, any special inclinations that students may have cannot be expressed.

Goleman (2011) characteristically indicates that emotional intelligence is a more important factor for success in a person's life than cognitive intelligence. Given this conclusion, the objective of this paper is to present the concept of emotional intelligence and the proposal for inclusion of particular personal development programs in the weekly curriculum. Additionally, it attempts to show the diversity of human-driven theory of multiple intelligences, as well as to demonstrate the usefulness of the development of emotional competence both by students and teachers, within the framework of the school community.

Moreover, it is clear that the teacher who has emotional competence can highlight the students' individual inclinations and deeply understand their feelings and desires. Also, he has the ability to handle and resolve potential conflicts that may arise within and outside school. School, in this way, can function as a motivational framework that will promote a positive atmosphere and generate positive benefits both for students and for teachers. School will function as a community of mutual cooperation and shared care.

2. Emotional Intelligence

2.1. Investigation of the concept

Emotional intelligence is defined as “the subset of social intelligence that refers to the ability to detect one’s own feelings and emotions as well as those of others, to distinguish them and to use this information to guide their own thinking and actions” (Mayer & Salovey, 1990: 189). In other words, the ability to express, perceive and regulate emotion. The concept first appeared as social intelligence by the American psychologist Edward Thorndike in 1920, who defined it as the ability a person has to understand and interact with the social environment. The term emotional intelligence means to declare the direct interaction between cognition and emotion.

2.2. The theory of multiple intelligences of Gardner

According to Howard Gardner (1983; 1993; 1999), intelligence is divided into eight types, which are different in each person. There is interaction between nature (biological forces and

hereditary predispositions) and nurture (environmental powers and life experience). With the approach of Gardner (1983: 62-69; 1999), the individual forms of intelligence that a man possesses are:

- ✚ Musical - rhythmic: the ability of composing, performing and enjoying music.
- ✚ Spatial: the ability of observation and dexterity in handling objects.
- ✚ Linguistic: the ability to use language in spoken and written form.
- ✚ Logical-mathematical: the ability to handle symbols, objects and complex projects and relationships.
- ✚ Kinesthetic: the ability to skillfully use motor skills (dancers, athletes).
- ✚ Interpersonal: the ability of someone to understand the mood and motivation of other people's behavior.
- ✚ Intrapersonal: the ability to interpret the deeper feelings and desires of our own self.
- ✚ Naturalistic: the ability to recognize, be sensitized and connect with the natural surroundings.

In addition, emotional intelligence involves intuition, creativity, adaptability, emotional flexibility, stress control, integrity, authenticity, self-awareness, the feature of leadership capability and the ability to solve conflicts (Goleman, 1995: 291). At this point, it is worth noting that mental intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EQ) are two distinctly different abilities of man. However, they are connected together, as one complements the other. The quotient (IQ) refers to the cognitive aspect of a person and much of this intelligence is endowed at birth, while the quotient (EQ) is associated with feelings, which can be strengthened through learning at all ages (Goleman, 2011).

3. Application of the theory of multiple intelligences in the classroom

3.1 The application of Gardner's theory

The adoption of Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences by teachers may reshape teaching routine regarding its quality. Since, according to this theory, it is estimated that all eight types of intelligence are necessary for the smooth functioning and development of society, teachers need to be aware of them and use them in teaching. Thus, the theory of multiple intelligences suggests that teachers must recognize and teach a broader range of skills and talents. Of course, this finding is in clear conflict with the traditional knowledge-based education system which typically gives more emphasis on the development and use of linguistic and mathematical intelligence. Another consequence of the acceptance of this theory is that

teachers need to structure the presentation of educational material in such a way that all intelligence types may be served.

For example, when teaching the revolutionary war, the teacher can show his students battle maps or have the students listen to revolutionary war song; he can also organize a role playing game for the signing of the Lausanne Treaty or give students a novel to read, which includes data on everyday life of this period. This type of presentation not only excites the students, but also allows the teacher to approach the subject in many varied ways and from a greater range of viewpoints. With the use of various types of intelligence and a reformed teaching approach, more students can be activated (even those who usually are less active) and a deeper understanding of the material can be launched.

In fact, it needs to be noted that, to some extent, everybody has all eight types of intelligence. However, each student has developed different kinds of intelligence. This means that each child has its own unique cognitive strengths and weaknesses. These sets of intelligences can determine how easy (or difficult) it is for a student to learn information when presented in a particular way-this is commonly referred to as a type of learning. Of course, we can find many a type of learning in a classroom. Of course, it is extremely difficult for a teacher to apply educational approaches and techniques that respond to all types of learning of the students in each lesson. Still, he can educate his students on how to use their own more developed types of intelligence to help themselves in understanding a topic (Lazear, 1992: 23-26). For example, the teacher may suggest that a musically intelligent child create his own song about what happened during the revolution.

3.2 Towards a more authentic assessment

Since the educational system has emphasized the importance of the development of mathematical and linguistic intelligence, the success of students is often based only on the measurable skills of these two types of intelligence. Supporters of Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences consider this unfair. Children who have high musical intelligence, for example, might be left out from gifted children programs or be placed in special classes, just because they do not have the right scores in language or mathematics.

It is, therefore, necessary for teachers to seek various ways of teaching in order to have a clear picture of the strengths and weaknesses of their students. Since all children do not learn the same way, they cannot be evaluated in a similar manner. Moreover, it is useful that the teacher should make the "intelligence profile" of each student. Knowing how each student learns enables the teacher to properly assess the child's progress (Lazear, 1992: 36). This

personalized practice assessment will enable the teacher to take more informed decisions about what to teach and how to present it. Traditional test methods (: multiple choice tests, short answer tests, essays) require students to show their knowledge in a predetermined manner. Supporters of Gardner's theory argue that the best approach for their assessment is to allow students to explain the material in their own way, using their own type of intelligence. Preferred methods of assessment will include students' portfolios, independent projects, magazines that the student makes and creative work. An excellent source for a deeper discussion of these different assessment practices are those of Lazear (1992).

4. Emotional intelligence at school

4.1 Emotional intelligence and educational work

Teaching in schools requires knowledge, skills and emotional practices. Teachers are confronted both with their own feelings and the feelings of others, such as students, parents, colleagues and superiors throughout their careers. This makes the level of emotional intelligence of teachers be a key factor for the quality of the work they perform.

A teacher with developed emotional intelligence creates a positive and motivational classroom environment, and emphasizes the support and encouragement of relationships with students (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009: 491-525).

4.2 Social and emotional development programs

That is the reason why special programs to help schools in promoting social and emotional intelligence of teachers have been developed this last decade, but especially for children. Indicatively, we present some of these programs in schools:

4.2.1 "Well Being" program

The program aims to strengthen self-esteem and confidence, responsibility and self-motivation, communication skills and the general development of students' personality, with the aim to enable students to adopt positive attitudes and behaviors through active and experiential learning (http://www.moec.gov.cy/agogi_ygeias/pro_ev_zin_index.html).

4.2.2 Program "Social and emotional education in School"

In order for the teacher to be able to face challenges in school, this program aims to strengthen the consultative dimension of his role, contributing in this way to the formation of a more effective school. In addition, the program aims to raise awareness and psychosocial support for students, as well as to help them develop basic skills, such as self-awareness, communication, expression and management of emotions, and acceptance of diversity.

4.2.3 Program “Daphne - Conflict management through Art”

The objective of this program is both prevention and management of bullying incidents and conflicts that arise in schools, because of ethnicity or gender. Also, it raises awareness of young people and activates them in regard to social issues through experiential tasks with the use of art.

In general, the results from the application of these programs in schools contribute to the development of a positive atmosphere and generate positive benefits both for students and for teachers who participate. In summary, students realize the various dimensions of communication (nonverbal communication, ambiguous messages, and communication skills); they become aware of more characteristics of their personality and improve their psychosocial competence (social skills, management of stressful situations, emotional intelligence).

5. Emotional intelligence and conflicts at school

5.1 Empathy

An important component of emotional intelligence is “empathy”, a term used by C. Rogers (1958; 1959; 1992) to describe the mental ability to understand and identify the emotions and experiences of another person (Vrotsou & Kougioumtzis, 2015: 34). Both the student and the teacher need to be able to understand the position of others and to accept the interlocutor with appreciation.

As this skill is particularly advantageous, cultivating emotional intelligence plays a very important role in strengthening relationships within the school community. However, the number of teachers who long for personal development and receive appropriate training so as to have high emotional competence and be able to handle difficult situations and provide emotional support to students, is not high. Moreover, when the relationship between the teacher and the pupil is not particularly good or can be characterized as negative, he cannot teach effectively, and ends up conveying negative feelings to the student, making the whole learning process difficult.

5.2 Teachers and parents

It is reasonable that potential confrontations between teachers and students may result in causing conflicts between teachers and parents. However, one of the important roles of the teacher is to highlight the importance of affection and sincere interpersonal relationship of his students with their parents. Of course, a prerequisite in this case is that the teacher has first managed to build these bonds with his students.

Accordingly, a teacher who has empathy can inform and discuss with the parent about the child's performance without prejudice, in a sincere and responsible way. What is equally important is proper management of the personality of each parent separately while informing parents about their child's performance and behavior. The teacher needs to seek regular meetings with parents to get to know them and build a relationship of trust with them. If a teacher has met each parent separately, he will be able to inform him of any bad performance of the student or deviant behavior, avoiding misunderstandings or even intense emotional reactions on their behalf.

According to a published research conducted by the University of Patras entitled "Routine of the teacher of secondary school", we focus on some conclusions that might be a cause of conflict among teachers or even among teachers and students and their parents within the school unit. The survey results indicate that only a small percentage of teachers have substantial contact with each other. Thus, without having anything to discuss, they consider breaks tiring. All teachers seek to leave school quickly after the completion of their course, without seeking to form relationships with their colleagues. This the reason they experience feelings of inertia. Therefore, due to lack of communication they are likely to cause latent conflicts among them and not to fulfill one of their most important tasks within the school community which is the undertaking of common projects (Kosmopoulos, 2000: 5). The result of these conflicts among teachers may even be an imperfect or tactless way of informing parents and guardians about student performance.

An important part of successful teaching is that the teacher should obtain information about the student from his parents on matters relating to their family matters or even any health problems that might be troubling the student's environment. By taking such information, teachers are enabled to define a common course of action on how to handle each student and his parent separately. Insufficient cooperation among faculty can cause conflicts with parents or even with the school administration.

6. Conclusions

Sociological surveys have highlighted the importance and the positive role played by the social community both within the school and outside it. The importance lies in the successful formation of groups as well as in the building of character and the formation of all those conditions that guarantee better social progress and the achievement of all appropriate social skills.

Consequently, the children's relationships with significant others (family, peers, teachers) have a decisive influence on the development of their personality and their social-emotional development as well. Children learn to understand themselves, their feelings and how to acquire quality interpersonal relationships through the experiences acquired by their family members, teachers and other professionals involved in their care. Thus, the need for developing a healthy and happy individual is clearly related with their emotional competence, the acquisition of which requires an appropriate emotional education. Professionals working with students can support the development of emotional intelligence of children, by developing a positive atmosphere for communication and mutual trust with the students; they encourage expression of emotions and the identification of their own emotions and those of others. This is also achieved through the design and implementation of education programs.

Taking into account the above assumptions, school can prove effective if:

It promotes learning without pressure and discipline problems.

Teachers are aware of teaching skills for all types of students' intelligence.

- ✚ Emphasis is given on basic skills training and students engage themselves in school study for longer periods of time.
- ✚ Clear educational objectives are provided, which facilitate the monitoring and assessment of pupils' performance.
- ✚ There are managers with leadership and management skills, who set goals, maintain discipline, observe the educational process in the classroom and create incentives for learning.

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Intercultural Counseling in Theory and in Practice

Abstract:

The counseling process with people from different cultures is a complex process of communication, encounter and cooperation. Training on topics of “intercultural counseling and theory” is necessary nowadays because of mass immigration and the multicultural environments of countries. For the implementation of intercultural counseling in practice, the counselor is invited to look into issues of civilisation, culture, acculturation of immigrants, multiculturalism and interculturalism. It is necessary to develop abilities, skills, effective communication strategies, empathy and to redefine his own cultural identity in relation to the different “Other.”

Keywords: intercultural counseling, intercultural theory, intercultural counselor, culture, civilization-acculturation, counselor’s cultural identity, cultural empathy

Leze Evaggelia¹

¹ Leze Evaggelia G., Ph.D. of Psychology, Scientific Associate at ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: lenaezel@yahoo.gr

1. Introduction

Due to a growing, massive and global phenomenon of migrating populations nowadays, cross-border movement of professionals and skilled scientists, the inclusion of both foreign and native students in immigrant and refugee host countries schools as well as rapid technological developments and globalization of economy and information, the continuous education and substantial training of adult workers is rendered necessary. Both teachers and mental health and career counselors are invited to train in matters of “Intercultural Counseling” and “Intercultural Education” in order to develop the necessary professional skills and redefine their “cultural identity” in order to form a constructive consultative relationship with people (adults and children) of different cultural backgrounds.

2. Basic Concepts of Intercultural Theory

2.1. Differentiation of the terms “intercultural” - “multicultural”

The term “multiculturalism” refers to the coexistence of different cultures and, in particular, to the recognition of the existence of equality of cultures of different ethnic groups and the right to self-develop the uniqueness that characterizes these groups (Shiraev & Levy, 2007). While the term “interculturalism” is associated with the interaction, solidarity and constructive cooperation between people of different ethnic-cultural origin and language selection and constitutes a dynamic cultural osmosis of the diversity of individuals and groups who seek to meet, communicate and relate socially. Thus, “multiculturalism” is a datum and “interculturalism” is a desideratum. However, the second term is not automatically derived from the first, but it presupposes it (Gundara, 1986; Mark, 1996; Kanakidou, & Papagianni, 1997; Gotovos, 2002).

2.2. Basic principles and guidelines of “Intercultural Education”

The basic principles of “Intercultural Education” are: 1) recognition of equality of cultures, 2) equality of educational capital, 3) equal opportunities in education and in life, 4) human development in a cultural and multicultural context 5) empathy, 6) solidarity, 7) respect for cultural diversity of the “Other” and 8) elimination of nationalist thinking and freedom from stereotypes and prejudices. Also, the *basic guidelines of “Intercultural Education”* are related to what it represents. Namely, it recommends: 1) “Social Learning”, 2) “Political Education”, 3) “Antiracist Education” and 4) “Pedagogical Support” (Damanakis, 1997; Georgogiannis, 1997; Pantazis, 2003).

2.3. Acculturation and psychological adjustment of immigrants in a host country

The concept of “acculturation” indicates the differentiated behaviour of immigrants in a culturally different society from the country of origin. The choice of this behaviour refers to learning specific ways of socialization and intercultural contact and depends on various individual factors which existed before the transition to the new environment. Immigrants experience “acculturation stress” as the most distinctive psychobiological reaction to stressful situations, associated with the reorganisation of their personality, loss of symbolic elements of their sociability and their acculturation (Berry, 1997). The “psychological adjustment tactics” that the immigrant will select (i.e. “assimilation” or “separation” or “marginalisation” or “harmonization”), will positively or negatively affect his social contact with the natives, his feelings and the reconstruction of his individual and ethno cultural identity in the new framework (Papastylianou, 2000; Savvides, Zisis & Rondos, 2006).

2.4. Culture-Civilisation

The concept of “civilisation” includes ethnicity, nationality, gender, age, economic-professional- educational level, the natural and technical environment, religion, history, social-cultural-political institutions, types of housing and architectural style, allocation of labor, customs and traditions, myths, traditions, spiritual-artistic creations and scientific achievements, language, everyday behaviour of ancestors and descendants and regulations of interpersonal relations. There is also “subjective culture” in the sense of our subjective assessments in accordance with the traditions of our own cultural context, which are usually positive for one self’s image and negative regarding the conduct of foreigners (Triandis, 1978; Georgas, 1990; Pedersen & Ivey, 1993; Paleologou & Evangelou, 2003).

The concept of “culture” is the sum of all individual and collective values, practices, ideas and concepts, symbols and actions and in general a self-determination model, which is transferred from generation to generation and suggests a sense of identity and community among people with the same cultural characteristics (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). According to Peterson (2004), culture resembles an “iceberg”, where on the visible surface there are external elements of our cultural identity (e.g. language, music, fashion, food) and on the invisible side there are our values, attitudes, beliefs, legal framework, social norms and cognitive processes. Hamburger (as cited in Pentini, 2005) distinguishes culture in: a) “personal culture” (e.g. style, values, habits), b) “practical culture” (way of the individual’s reaction and learned behaviours) c) “general culture” (way of interaction according to written

and unwritten laws, common habits of groups.) and d) “public culture” (i.e. the “official” language of the country).

2.5. Attitudes-Values-Stereotypes-Prejudices

“Attitudes” refer to all fixed-subjective perceptions, beliefs, feelings, preferences and fears of people towards people, situations, events and social phenomena. “Values” are constant benchmarks, structural concepts (that have been adopted consciously or unconsciously) and life guidelines, which affect the choice of role models, people’s actions and “how they should” or “how they should not” behave. They are classified into “positive” and “negative values”, to “inner values” (e.g. justice), into “values-purposes” (e.g. freedom, happiness), in “personal”, “social”, “intercultural” and “professional” values. “Stereotypes” constitute a simplified categorisation and generalized perception of individuals or social groups. Adopting stereotypes automatically refers to acceptance of the view that all members of a group to which the same characteristics are assigned, without having examined whether they actually correspond to reality. Stereotypes are classified into racial, religious, cultural, professional and stereotypes associated with gender, opposition to the law, physical appearance and social status. Vulnerable social groups to these stereotypes are: immigrants-refugees-repatriates, the disabled, the unemployed, homosexuals, former and current drug addicts, prisoners and ex-prisoners, AIDS patients and AIDS carriers, gypsies and religious minorities. “Prejudices” are a priori stereotypes and attitudes, which are characterized by negative emotions and hostility and are differentiated from “discrimination” (because the latter involves the element of negative power over others). They are related to how children are educated, and they are formed under the influence of sociocultural influences in time. They depend on the personality type of people who have them (Georgas, 1990; Riga, 1992; Sidiropoulou, 1993; Kalantzi-Azizi, Zoniou-Sideris & Vlachou, 1996 ; Gard, 1997).

3. Intercultural Counseling: conceptual approach

“Intercultural Counseling” is a tendency to understand and a multifaceted angle of viewing a multicultural- pluralistic society. It is a complex process, because, on the one hand, it is based on the theoretical background of Counseling Psychology and various counseling approaches (e.g., person-centered, systemic, psychodynamic, cognitive-behavioral, open questions techniques, active listening, reflections, paraphrases) (Malikiosi-Loizou 2001; Malikiosi-Loizou, 2007) and, on the other hand, it draws upon Intercultural Theory.

“Intercultural Counseling” refers to the kind of counseling relationship in which the counselor and the consultee come from different cultural groups and have different perceptions of the social and psychological reality (Das, 1995). Counselors are most effective when they are freed from their own prejudices and stereotypes and they incorporate intercultural principles in their work and do not assess the cultural elements of “Others” under the light of their own cultural identity (Kalatzi-Azizi, 1996; Krivas, 1999; Triarchi-Hermann, 2004). They become “interculturally conscious” when they can distinguish the readily observable from the interpretable and when they do not rush to interpret the behaviour of a different “Other” until they have learnt about the culture which influences his behaviour (Hofstede & Pedersen, 2002).

The key elements of effective Intercultural Counseling are: a) the counselor’s personal experiences and information about different cultures, prejudices and racism as well as their way of acquisition, b) personal choices and other influences (e.g. family, school, social networks, work environment, religion, political beliefs), c) his attitudes and expectations, d) active listening skills and e) the counselor’s status of power, who should be aware of his position and role and how these are perceived by the consultee (d’ Ardenne & Mahtani, 1989).

4. Profile of an Intercultural Counselor (skills - abilities - intercultural communication)

4.1 Skills

Generally, due to the globalization of employment, the international qualifications of workers employed outside their home country are: a) language proficiency, b) intercultural competence (interaction with people of different cultures) and c) international vocational competence (skills required in specific occupations). Intercultural skills are based on these three categories of international qualifications, but they still need to be better defined despite the amount of importance they are given by countries with different economic structure (EKEP-Y.P.E.P.TH., 2011).

In particular, an “*Intercultural Counselor’s*” skills are summarized in the following (Pedersen, 2002): 1) the ability to operate among various cultures, 2) his willingness to redefine his own views and attitudes about diversity issues, culture, race and racism, 3) being aware of his own prejudices and stereotypes, 4) addressing the “acculturation stress” of immigrants in the new context, 5) feeling loose and comfortable with the cultural differences of himself and the “Other”, 6) being aware of his negative emotional reactions, which may impede the counseling process, 7) recognizing the limits of his own abilities and skills, 8)

knowledge of social services for immigrants, 9) knowledge of other cultures and consciousness of his own cultural history and 10) understanding how cultural differences shape the personality of the consultee and affect his emotions, behaviour, career choices as well as the way he addresses problems and seeks help that is compatible to his characteristics.

An effective intercultural counselor should have: a) “intercultural knowledge” (understanding of the social role and culture of 'minority' groups living in his country, awareness of the difficulties they encounter in their daily contact with social services), b) “intercultural awareness” (knowledge of his own value system and cultural background, acceptance of cultural diversity, awareness that Counseling theory has political and moral foundations, cognizance of the possibility that the consultee might be referenced to another counselor of the same culture as his own) and c) “intercultural skills” (acquisition of verbal and non- verbal skills, sharing and respecting the worldview of the “minority” individual, flexibility to adapt or change the framework for the benefit of the culturally different consultee) (Pedersen & Ivey, 1993). Also, it is necessary to distinguish the differences between assimilative and intercultural approach so as not to impose his 'dominant' cultural identity (Nieto, 1992) and to critically assess the multicultural approach, in which different cultures may be treated equally, but only on the surface and with a folklore mood (McGee & Banks, 1989).

4.2 Competencies

In a more general way of speaking, *the “intercultural competency” of a trainer of adults* includes all those social skills that allow him to recognise and accept heterogeneity and creatively manage the components that affect it. It is associated with those skills, with which he can be functional communication wise -practically between different cultures- and able to revise his previous attitudes and opinions, thus, developing effective contact strategies with different “Others” (Walker, 2005). In particular, *“intercultural career counselors”* should be able to: a) identify the “sources of stress' of immigrants that lead to social isolation, b) recognize the needs and career patterns of immigrants, because they usually choose more “realistic” than scientific occupations, c) have access to career information sources, d) delve into the system of cultural values of immigrants through strategies and e) contribute to the elimination of certain obstacles (e.g. immigrants' low expectations, lack of educational-vocational opportunities) (Smith, 1980).

4.3 Difficulties in intercultural counseling process

Counseling is a process of communication, social influence and interpersonal interaction. Elimination of any difficulties arising due to the cultural diversity of the counselor and the consultee is a prerequisite in order for the process to be carried out effectively and smoothly.

These difficulties concern: 1) verbal and non-verbal communication (e.g. refutation of expectations-verbal misunderstandings with possible confirmation of negative stereotypes about the different “Other”, non-verbal misunderstandings due to cultural differences in gestures and smile) / (Pierson & Bond, 1982; Gass & Varonis, 1985; Matsumoto & Kudoh, 1993; Albright et al., 1997). In this case, the counselor could make use of an interpreter or use simpler language with examples, questions, clarifications, comments and other alternative ways (Kleftaras, 2009), 2) if counseling is considered as an “authoritarian” process on the part of the immigrant, where the “father figure” of the counselor is more directive and energetic while the conversation is taking place (Giotsidi & Stalikas, 2004), c) the immigrant's low socioeconomic level, which causes him anxiety, loneliness, low self-esteem and depression (Williams, Ketring & Salts, 2005), d) a difficulty of self-revelation (due to cultural reasons) and introspection of the immigrant towards the counselor (due to “individualism” - “collectiveness” values) (Williams 2003; Farber 2006), e) if the counselor and the immigrant perceive mental health and psychological disorders with variegated - in their assessment - symptoms differently (Sue & Sue, 1999), g) the possible misunderstandings arising from the different understanding of the cultural dimension of time by the counselor and the immigrant (Ho, 1997; Kleftaras, 2009) and h) the immigrant's type of acculturation, which will affect the degree of his willingness to meet with the counselor, the desire to cooperate with him and the kind of problems that he will bring as a “request” (Brown & Brooks, 1991; Rojewski, 1997).

5. Counselor's Cultural Empathy – Counselor's Cultural Identity

5.1 Cultural identity of people with different cultures

The main traits of “*cultural identity*” of people with different cultures are (McLeod, 2005):

1) a “sense and reflection of the reality” experienced (e.g. Western societies are dominated by the duality of mind-matter, while in eastern societies the concept of totality is dominant), 2) “self-perception and sense of the self” (i.e. value of “individualism” in the western world - value of “collectiveness” in the eastern world), 3) a “perception of ethics and values” (e.g. in traditional cultures: moral teachings, fate, sacrifice, communal ownership are essential standard values, whereas in modern societies autonomy, independence and responsibility of the individual are considered as being important), 4) a “sense and perception of time” (e.g. in

traditional societies: the concept of “past” and “ancestry” are basic guidelines in the present and respect for the elderly is thought to be a significant value, while modern cultures are future oriented and the past is considered only part of their heritage) and 5) a 'sense of place' which bears different meanings among people from different cultures (e.g. immigration either has just a big emotional and social cost or is deemed to be the cause for better personal development and quality of life).

5.2 Developmental model of a counselor’s cultural identity model by Sabnani, Ponterotto & Borodovsky

According to the “developmental model of a counselor’s cultural identity “by Sabnani, Ponterotto & Borodovsky (Kleftaras, 2003), the counselor goes through the stages of: a) “pre-exposure” (lack of awareness-raising in multicultural issues, no awareness of his own prejudices), b) “conflict”: in which he realizes cultural diversity, experiencing confusion as to the management of diversity and his intercultural knowledge is incomplete, c) “fanaticism” or “resistance” (he is critical of the “dominant culture “or a strong supporter of immigrants) and d) “redefinition” and “integration” (developing cultural awareness, clarification of his cultural identity).

5.3 A counselor’s cultural empathy

A counselor’s “cultural empathy” refers to his ability to understand, process and honestly convey life experiences of his own culture to the consultee, without being culturally discriminating or deviating from the principles of the therapeutic process (Stalikas, Giotsidi & Mertika, 2007). It involves “intercultural receptivity” and “active listening”, 'intercultural understanding' and 'intercultural cooperation skills “, but the counselor does not consider himself an “authority” (Dyche & Zayas, 2001). For Ridley & Lingle (1996) and Ridley & Udipi (2002), “cultural empathy” is distinguished in: a) the “cultural empathic awareness” (internal perception of the immigrant’s different cultural self and cultural experiences) and b) the “cultural empathic response “(effective transfer of understanding of the different cultural self of the consultee). These basic dimensions are assisted by the “cognitive”, “emotional” and “communicational” empathy of the counselor (Wang et al., 2003; Parham & Brown, 2003).

6. Conclusions

All the above highlight the important role of “Intercultural Counseling” in theory and in practice. The awakening of intercultural awareness and the development of intercultural skills by the counselor, teacher and adults’ trainer nowadays can be achieved through relevant service training of high standards (theoretical and experiential), reflective inner speculation and renegotiation of their individual and cultural identity. It is through these transformative learning and internal procedures that their profile becomes meaningful, since with their open mindedness and critical thinking they become responsible and efficient professionals in a multicultural environment.

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Differentiated Teaching / Instruction & Counseling

Abstract:

This paper studies the way of introducing differentiated instruction in the whole counseling process carried out during the educational process. Firstly, the conceptual and theoretical framework of differentiated instruction is described in relation to neuroscience and Gardner's multiple intelligences theory. The forms of differentiation on the learning process are also described. Finally, a presentation of research follows in relation to the conditions and the effectiveness of various applications of differentiated teaching.

Keywords: Differentiated teaching/instruction, cooperative method, multiple intelligence, neuroscience

Kambitis Ioannis¹, Halioulia Eleni² and Kougioumtzis Georgios³

¹ Kambitis Ioannis, M.Sc., Civil Engineer, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: ikabltis@yahoo.gr

² Halioulia Eleni, M.Ed., Economist, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: elenahalioulia@yahoo.gr

³ Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D, M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling and Guidance). Email: gekougioum@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

One of the principles in teaching is its differentiation. This is also referred to as the principle of individuation, as it supports teaching according to the inclinations and interests of each child. It regards the adaptation of content, style, methods and degree of difficulty of students to their individual capabilities, needs and interests. The teacher-counselor tries to handle the students of the same class in a differentiated way with multiple and different objectives, motivation, questions, assessment procedures and, generally, with the whole educational approach. This task requires flexibility, as It is difficult but, nevertheless, necessary in modern heterogeneous classrooms. *“Differentiated instruction is a teaching philosophy, which is based on the principle that teachers should adapt their teaching to students diversities [...] instead of applying the same way equally to all students, teachers should modify their teaching to correspond to different levels of students’ readiness, to different ways of learning and to different interests. Therefore, the teacher plans in advance different ways to help the student to understand and show what he has learned”* (Tomlinson, 2010).

1.1. Theoretical background

The theoretical framework of differentiated instruction is based on the premise that no theory alone can constitute sufficient basis for the educational-counseling practice. This results in differentiated educational process be considered both as a reflective action of “pedagogical care” (Aoki, 1992: 21) as well as a socio-cultural construction of useful knowledge. The work of Habermas (1972) relates to the concept of empowerment, which helps students to understand themselves, as It occurs in the world, and is in contrast with instrumental knowledge (Koutselini, 1997). Instead, the students’ empowerment leads to their reinforcement and strengthens their understanding of the correctness of the methodological rule, of procedures, as well as of cognitive and meta-cognitive learning strategies. Differentiated teaching is one of the applications of a post-modern example of a curriculum for teaching and learning and is based on the theories of constructivism and interaction (Vygotsky, 1978).

The theoretical background regarding differentiation of teaching is wide. It is essentially based on learning theories and practices. According to the theory of constructivism, knowledge is encoded and processed based on earlier concepts, semantic networks and cognitive schemata (Vosniadou, 1994; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). Therefore, knowledge is built, as it is based on previous, prerequisite knowledge. The most crucial and necessary approaches of the concept being considered here are the following:

1.1.1 Differentiated teaching and neuroscience

Neuroscience and all related to the areas of the brain research are now one of the most important tools for designing a differentiated instruction (Politano & Paquin, 2002). Awareness of the existence of different difficulties faced by individual students during the learning process serves as an important tool for the teacher-counselor, to understand individual differences and to help the student more effectively.

Researchers, Politano & Paquin, (2002) describe nine factors, which – when considered – allow a counseling process-teaching to utilize all functions of the brain, regardless of the learning environment which is offered to the student-consultee. These parameters are the uniqueness of each consultee, evaluation, sensations, emotions, brain connections, his environment, and his profile which allow him to interconnect ideas with experiences, physical activity, memory assistance, his personal body biorhythms, and a feeling of safety (Tomlinson, 2010). The main causes of differentiation are the above individual differences of students – consultees regarding different learning conditions.

This results in a successful counseling process during teaching which involves the skillful guidance of the learner's brain in order to process, store and recall information. The student-consultee, therefore, ought to be able to construct the meaning of ideas through meaningful connections of differentiated teaching that the teacher-counselor implements. Therefore, differentiated teaching is a teaching and learning approach which stems from the position that teaching is necessary to start at the point where the students are, rather than relying on a predetermined action plan, which ignores their readiness, interest and learning profile (Tomlinson, 2010). Teachers-counselors need to know how to respond to the growing diversity of current classes, recognizing the strengths of each student, as well as his/her limitations.

1.1.2 Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences

1.1.2.1 Gardner, Goleman and intelligence types

Gardner's theory (1999) focuses on the existence of eight types of intelligence: linguistic, logical-mathematical, visual-spatial, musical, body-kinesthetic, naturalistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal. Differentiation is based on the acknowledgement of value and that value exists in every person (Adami, 2004: 91). In this way, Gardner becomes the most systematic representative of a direction which describes differences among people as to the content of intelligence. Gardner's theory would be incomplete without making reference to the general idea of Daniel Goleman (2011) regarding emotional intelligence. Still, it needs to be noted

that Gardner claims that other types of intelligence are also likely to be distinguished. Each individual is a mixture of different types of intelligence. These differ in their evolution as well as among individuals.

1.1.2.2 Requirements for successful differentiation by teachers-counselors

Teachers, therefore, are required to take into account not only what they teach but also who they teach, in order to achieve a successful counseling process-teaching (Koutselini, 2008: 40). If the teaching techniques, used by the teacher, are based solely on a single type of intelligence, then the opportunities for those students who have other types of intelligence are minimized.

Creating opportunities for all students through various techniques and forms of assessment leads to acquisition of learning. Gardner (1993) – as part of his theory on multiple intelligence – presents a set of cognitive abilities which are distinct and independent, but complement each other and only when all together, do they enable an individual to resolve possible problems and to come up with output.

It could be argued that the complexity and plasticity of the brain lead to its ability to link different areas of separate intelligence together, thus, each supporting another in common or separate functions. Basically, differentiation is constituted by the teachers' efforts to meet the diversity of students in their classroom. Whenever a teacher addresses a child or a group with a different approach in the way he teaches, he applies the above principles of Gardner's theory.

2. Research - Teaching Intervention - Programs on the implementation of differentiated teaching

2.1 The “key” to success on differentiated teaching

There is research - studies - educational programs which have been implemented and argue that the use of differentiated instruction has positive effects on the learning process. It is very interesting that most of this research is action research, which aim to investigate the conditions that must be met for the efficacy of the use of differentiated instruction in the classroom. Of course, a mere differentiation of the teaching material by the teacher is not enough to bring about any positive effects on the performance of the student or his effective involvement in the learning process. Many times, in fact, differentiation of the teaching material is not a desideratum, since these investigations - studies - programs have clearly demonstrated that the “key” to successful differentiated instruction are the phases that the

teacher as a counselor will follow, as well as the use of information and communication technologies, and the implementation of activities that are meaningful for the students in their daily lives.

2.1 Related research

2.2.1 Factors-actions-perceptions which bring about differentiation

Stavrou and Koutselini's (2015) action research in their article "Teachers' active involvement in action research for the differentiation of teaching-learning: understanding students' needs and the weaknesses of the curriculum" focuses on differentiating teaching and learning in mixed-readiness classes. More specifically, it is the description of an intervention by a group of teachers, who in collaboration with the University of Cyprus, organized an educational program consisting of differentiated reading-comprehension lessons. These courses were implemented from October 2012 to April 2013. The researchers have used a variety of research tools such as daily records, lesson observations, and semi-structured interviews with students, as well as assessment essays before and after the intervention.

Most research tools were of a reflective nature, since reflection gave the opportunity for constructive dialogue among teachers and redesigning throughout the intervention. After having realized a lack of such a curriculum which would assist them in the complex task of differentiation, the teachers-researchers identified the students' reading skills and the reading strategies that they followed through interviews they conducted. So, they accordingly designed differentiated courses of reading comprehension strategies. In their article, the researchers present the problems which arose in the course of implementing the principles of differentiation.

Of all the qualitative research data, which mainly arose from daily records, the inability of teachers to adequately diagnose students' readiness levels, their inexperience in lesson planning, an inadequacy in classroom organization and their previous perceptions of themselves as carriers – transmitters of knowledge are those standing out. After analyzing the research data, the ways in which teachers – through individual and collective reflection, both realized and revised their incorrect assumptions about learning and were also strengthened by developing actions – were highlighted. Some of the differentiated teaching actions which were notable and seemed to have corresponded to the needs of students, are articles in the school magazine, participation in interactive debate competitions in the classroom and encouragement to students to bring their own texts which they have studied and made an impression on them. An interesting conclusion from this action research is the importance of

releasing teachers from approaches of the curricula which are of an algorithmic nature, which aim at controlling teachers and crushing their personality (Koutselini, 2010).

2.2.2 Techniques for students' involvement in the educational process

In a research by Theofanelli and Papadimitriou (2016), conducted with the use of a questionnaire, 182 teachers answered a questionnaire containing closed-ended and open-ended questions. The participants were teachers who teach German or It in Primary and Secondary schools in Central-West-East Macedonia, Thrace, the Northern Aegean and the Dodecanese. The objective was to investigate the instructional practices used by teachers to engage their students in their daily educational process. The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative research data showed that 78% of teachers responded that they integrate activities related to everyday school life on a daily basis. This selection of teachers is consistent with the principles of differentiated teaching, as learning content is associated with the students' daily needs, their experiences, their interests and teachers are given the opportunity to meet their pupils' learning style, based which they are asked to readjust and redesign the activities that they will allocate as well as the course of teaching that they will follow.

An even greater percentage of teachers (79.2%) use the technique of open-ended questions. The technique of using open-ended questions contributes to exploratory learning and the acquisition of problem-solving strategies. The benefits to the learning process and, thus, for the students are many. With open-ended questions there is no single correct answer, so students exploit their individuality and their personal ideas to resolve a problematic situation while practicing their communication skills, and interacting with each other. Thus, differentiated teaching is achieved and the students are also reinforced.

Moreover, 32% of teachers responded that they use formative assessment daily, 51.5% use it at least once a month and 16.6% do not use it at all. Formative assessment is a key part of differentiated instruction as it provides the teacher with a personalization of knowledge since students have the opportunity to test their knowledge and identify their deficiencies. Apart from formative assessment, a similar percentage uses Internet applications to differentiate their teaching on a daily basis. 63.7% of teachers uses such applications at least once a month. There are web applications which can contribute to the differentiation of teaching. Their use by the teacher contributes to the involvement of students in the learning process, as long as the learning objectives they serve are clear.

2.2.3 Differentiated teaching for the management of linguistic diversity

Accordingly, in an article by Kyriakou and Hatzipanagiotou (2013) describes a research conducted in June 2012, in order to investigate the role of School Management in treating linguistic diversity in schools. The research was carried out with the use of questionnaires which were answered by 32 Principals, serving in Primary, Secondary and Vocational schools in the Province of Paphos, Cyprus, in 2012. These were schools which demonstrated higher percentages of immigrant students compared to other areas of Cyprus. By analyzing the results using SPSS, It was noted that about half of the teachers who participated in the research encounter issues related to linguistic diversity a few times a month, while 28.1% of the principals face such issues on a daily basis.

It is worth noting that a large percentage of school principals (37.5%) reported on how they handled cases related to linguistic diversity. Some of the techniques used by head teachers is dialogue, the use of an interpreter, the involvement of students and assigning them a leading role, differentiated teaching and mentoring. The principals were asked to rank 11 techniques according to efficiency, based on their personal perception and after processing the results It was clearly demonstrated that the most effective strategy for managing various forms of heterogeneity is differentiated teaching, followed by a series of less effective techniques such as personalized learning and students' involvement. At the question about the strategy they themselves use to address issues arising from linguistic diversity at school, the head teachers were asked to choose three of the most effective strategies and they singled out the three techniques mentioned above.

2.3 Programs - Educational Interventions

2.3.1 Cooperative - Interdisciplinary approach with the use of multimodal texts

A program developed regarding the effectiveness of differentiated teaching involved urging children to the pursuit of knowledge and the connection of learning with its sources through the use of multimodal texts (images, music, and videos). According to the theory of multimodality, each text is a system of multiple modes (Hodolidou, 1999). Karageorgou and Chatzigeorgiadou (2012) utilizing the theory of multimodality and the basic principles of differentiated teaching, sought to achieve the participation of all students in the teaching process, regardless of learning readiness and performance. They planned activities in a pre-school classroom attended by 19 students. The activities were designed with an interdisciplinary approach (Language, Arts, New Technologies, Statistics, Personal and Social Development), with clear objectives and integrated use of multimodal texts. They

implemented a cooperative approach, creating pairs of mixed abilities (an older and a younger toddler). Thus, the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978) was applied. It was characteristic of differentiated teaching that the children's work was an "open worksheet". So, they were provided with the freedom to express themselves creatively, based on their capabilities. Also, the freedom of an "Open Worksheet" gave them the opportunity to interact with each other and with the teaching material of the curriculum. The program results were classified as positive, reinforcing the belief that the implementation of differentiated instruction can be sufficiently supported and extend into metacognitive skills development through the use of multimodal texts. Also, this program shows that the implementation of activities in open computing environments favors the cooperative and exploratory learning, which are a type of strategic choices in a teacher's planning for the activation of students regardless of knowledge level and learning readiness level.

2.3.2 Differentiated teaching scenarios by applying LAMS

Ziskos and Papadakis (2015) investigated the application of differentiated teaching scenarios in secondary education with the support of technology. More specifically, they assessed the learning outcomes in the course "Computer Applications" in the first grade of Lyceum, by exploiting the new service of Learning Activity Management of the Greek School Network, which is based on the free, open source software LAMS. The research was conducted in five schools of the Prefecture of Pieria, in 2014-15. At first, sequences of learning activities were designed and implemented with the aim of actualizing sample teachings supported by the Learning Activity Management System (LAMS), and then through research, which was a combination of a qualitative and quantitative method, students' interest was investigated, as well as their performance improvement or not and the extent to which using a Learning Management System helps in the implementation of differentiated Teaching in Computer Applications course in the first grade of Lyceum.

The research data was collected through electronic questionnaires and through the semi-structured interview technique (using Skype) with Computer Studies teachers of the selected classes. The analysis of the results led to the conclusion that students (75%) wish to have the teaching of a school subject enriched with the use of a Learning Management System. Also, the investigation showed that students (80%) believe they would change their performance with the use of technology. A major research component on differentiated teaching is the repeatability of a distance lesson at a later time. This possibility seemed to be recognized as positive by 75% of students. The pupils' improved performance was also noted

by the teachers interviewed, who stressed that the use of technology may remove the obstacles to the implementation of differentiated instruction, and that the implementation of LAMS allowed teachers to give students tasks of different complexity in order to meet the students' different learning styles and different levels of knowledge and readiness.

2.3.3 Differentiated teaching to develop social skills

In a recent article (Dimou, 2014) presents the case of a student with Down syndrome and deficit in social skills. The child, Arion, is involved in a number of activities aimed at learning and improving social skills. More specifically, these activities relate to the initiation of interacting with peers in order to develop a friendly relationship. In the article, it is argued that teachers are able – in the context of the school schedule – to develop their own programs which result from the differentiation of content or the curriculum teaching. In this case, they used the Flexible Attendance Zone and utilized the Interdisciplinary Unified Framework Curriculum of Special Education which is a detailed description of the differentiated teaching framework in which they will take place. It was assumed from the start that there was a need for differentiation in the objectives, the means, the activities, the teaching approach, classroom organization and student assessment, due to the fact that in a classroom there are students with a very good performance, others with quite a good one and others with below average performance both in academic and social skills.

In this case, the differentiation started with the assessment and analysis of learning needs, as a makeshift recording protocol of Arion's behavior was used as well as of two other of his classmates who faced difficulties. Subsequently, differentiation continued in the teaching approach and the organization of the classroom. In language lessons aiming to teach punctuation, leaflets from a fairytale about friendship were distributed, and a classroom discussion about the characteristics of friends was conducted. The class was divided into three mixed ability groups. Regarding differentiation in the learning activities, some children filled out a worksheet with four questions, while Arion and the children who had difficulty in writing answered them using an audio recorder. Then, they were presented with images of children and the groups were asked to discuss the reasons why these children felt so. Some students wrote their answers on sheets of paper and others, like Arion, read and colored the correct answers. It was through discussion that what you can do in order not to feel sad came about and the children wrote the lines for a play. Arion and the other children filled out a leaflet with fewer words. Having acted the play in groups, Arion stuck labels given to him about friendship under some images and then he answered the four questions again using the

audio recorder. The recording protocol of Arion's behavior and his classmates was filled once again for a week. In the above case of study It is concluded that in differentiated teaching the role of the teacher is more organizational and pedagogical and that by applying differentiated teaching the teacher puts into practice the principles of equal opportunities in education, of cooperation and active learning as well the principle of respect in the uniqueness of each student.

2.3.4 Differentiated instruction to support students with mental retardation

Moreover, Thoma and Kolovos (2014) in one of their works showed a suggested lesson plan for sixth grade of elementary school. With this lesson plan which is based on the principles of differentiated teaching and inclusive education⁴, two students with mild and moderate mental retardation were given the opportunity to unimpeded participation in the learning process. In the scenario designed, the learning process is supported by the pedagogical use of ICT. More specifically, based on the theory of constructivism, they suggested the use of the Internet (YouTube, Google Chrome browser, digital Wikipedia communities, google docs for file sharing), of the mind map software Inspiration, of the exploratory software Google Earth and of the generic software PowerPoint as well as the open-software Revelation Natural Art for creating images. Among the activities designed by teachers which both differentiate the content according to the students' interests and needs, is creating a PowerPoint presentation with the information-images that made an impression on them, delegating specific roles within the group (such as information specialist), creating a world travel guide using Google docs, and illustrating-advertising this travel guide using Revelation Natural Art software. These activities are meaningful for the students, because they connect the subject of teaching with daily life, such as travelling and practicing certain professions (sailor, pilot). They also activate communication skills while children work in groups and contribute to the activation of students and their emotional development, through the selection of images and taking responsibility over the execution of specific roles in the group.

Along with the above benefits of enriched teaching, during the implementation of the proposed project the teacher has the opportunity to encourage both students initially to express their opinion and then to design part of the whole activity with his help (e.g. to deal only with the name of the main seas around Greece). Thus, the two students with mental retardation are not isolated but on the contrary, the cultivation of self-respect, self-esteem and

⁴ Inclusive education is that kind of teaching oriented to fight discrimination, to create hospitable school communities and to achieve the goal of "education for all".

confidence is strengthened, while other students learn to accept and respect difference, since the outcome of the final project is a collaborative effort of all students.

2.3.5 Differentiated instruction to support student with Asperger syndrome

In another study, conducted in the classroom of 19 children in the sixth grade of primary school, one of whom was a student diagnosed with Asperger syndrome, a teaching scenario applied a combination of differentiated instruction using mind maps (Tzaferi, 2014). Specifically, in order to facilitate the particular student in understanding and thus learn History, the Parallel Support co-teacher used mind mapping first on paper and then on a Tablet, utilizing software and the technique of representation of concepts. The teacher found the technique of representation to be effective and suggested its use for the rest of the students. The teacher followed one of the basic principles of differentiated teaching, which is continuous evaluation throughout the teaching course. Continuous assessment enabled the teacher to further differentiate the learning content and to customize the course of each student to achieve their goals. The assessment of the results made at the end of the learning process has shown that through the specific intervention, the student with Asperger's syndrome managed to meet the objectives of the course, both on a knowledge level and a level of attitudes. Moreover, as pointed out by the author, the student actively managed to integrate his diversity in the classroom in the course of subsequent lessons. There was a significant improvement of the attitude of his classmates towards him, as well. The author proposes the use of the mind mapping technique in various ways: to present to the students new knowledge, as a tool for assessing the student's understanding of the material taught, and as a means of individual and group learning. Finally, the author suggests the use of mind mapping by all students, as it was proved that students' thoughts are better organized through this technique.

3. Conclusions

In conclusion, we would say that it is important the teacher should receive training in educational learning theories, so that he may flexibly transform these learning theories into theories teachings. Differentiated instruction is a complex process; It is a kind of teaching theory based on the assumption that teaching approaches need to vary and be adapted in relation, of course, to the individual diversity of the student (Hall, 2002).

Today, more than ever, diversity is recognized regarding the socio-economic and cultural background of students of Greek school. Modern teachers can no longer face their

classes in a static manner, as a whole with a stable profile, but individually (internal-external differentiation of instruction), and should identify and positively highlight the capabilities and differences between students, as well as actively apply sound pedagogical and teaching approaches to their teaching.

Of course, the teacher as a counselor and partner of the whole learning process needs to possess knowledge of different fields in order to be able to cope with this complicated and complex task. These fields are:

- ✚ Knowledge on teaching methodology, which include planning, conduct and assessment.
- ✚ Knowledge on the human relationship between teachers and students and among students, on the group dynamics and the management of human conflicts and problems that constantly arise. Knowledge of the particular developmental and psychosocial characteristics of all ages and particularly, knowledge relating to how students learn.
- ✚ Knowledge concerning the social characteristics of school, as a teacher and his students belong to the social context of school and this in turn constitutes differentiated teaching and a reflection of a particular society.

In conclusion, we could say that the interdependent knowledge associated with differentiated teaching constitutes the framework of modern teaching science, aimed at its successful introduction in everyday teaching practice, however, it is beneficial to be slowly and steadily introduced (Wehrmann, 2000).

The researches described prove that differentiation of teaching is a social process, and not just a teaching and organizational strategy. This is shown by the fact that differentiated instruction is used to solve problems caused by linguistic diversity. A basic prerequisite for effective differentiated teaching is to mitigate the social inequalities of students through activities and processes of building their self-image. Applying the principles of differentiated instruction, such as teaching planning based on the constructivist learning theory and individualized assistance, graduation and variety of activities to maximize the students' activation and respect for students' working pace in everyday teaching practice, is not possible without the support, systematic training and release of teachers from the algorithmic approach of the curricula.

Teachers need to be released from this approach, but also of the possible misconceptions and beliefs / certainties they have. At the same time, it is imperative to understand how these beliefs affect the transformation of their theoretical knowledge into teaching practice. The techniques that enhance the differentiation of teaching methodology, such as the use of art, literature, music and movement, providing frequent feedback along

with focus on the child's strengths as a technique of psychological support, are only some of the techniques often used by teachers as counselors and collaborators of their students in inclusive classrooms and classrooms of mixed ability.

Besides, the implementation of differentiated instruction is effective and excites students regardless of gender, level of readiness and socioeconomic level. Internal or external motivation of students causing their active participation varies from student to student, but their interest in learning can be positively influenced when the actions of the teacher -as counselor, partner, facilitator and motivator of students are such that contribute to creating an authentic⁵ and interesting learning environment.

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⁵ An authentic learning environment is that environment which activates students' interest, through activities which are meaningful to them, relates to their everyday life, considers their different learning styles, as well as any other of their needs.

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Mentoring and coaching: Selective affinity of concepts and educational applications

Abstract:

As the practice of the teaching is becoming increasingly complex, and at the same time difficult, the need for the adoption of mentoring for training teachers deems as a highly necessary and beneficial institution. This text presents a brief reference to the reasons justifying the necessity for the institutionalization of mentoring for teachers, followed by a deeper clarification of the concept of mentoring in particular contrast with the corresponding term of coaching. Also, the specific characteristics of each concept are quoted. Finally, the stages of professional development of teachers are outlined and the usefulness of mentoring as a relationship is stressed.

Keywords: Educational and teaching guidance of teachers, mentoring, coaching

Kougioumtzis Georgios¹

¹ Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance), email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

With the rise of various difficulties and problems encountered in the classroom, teaching and in general the educational work of a teacher has become increasingly difficult. It is not only the absence of adequate practical training for (future) teachers during their (initial) university education or a lack of infrastructure that cause such a difficulty, but also the various changes enacted in Education as a system. This reference relates to changes in Greek Education System such as “New School”, “Piloting High School”, “New Vocational School”, and the Reformed Curricula for A class of General Lyceum, without them, however, being followed by relevant Curricula² for the remaining classes of Lyceum or having changed the way assessment for admission to higher education is performed. Consequently, certain innovations have been introduced in the Greek Education System such as self-evaluation processes of the school unit, the establishment of the institution of excellence in education, the establishment of Schools of Exemplary Performance and Experimental schools in addition to a large number of innovative activities and programs; the demand for pedagogical use of Technology in educational practice has been made clear as well. The existing differentiated – and often vague – educational setting is even more burdened by the ongoing socio-economic crisis.

Despite the current situation, we generally assess that at the starting point-and possibly in the middle- of a career, when there is support and guidance from experienced and more qualified teachers, then, even if the conditions are rather unfavorable, things work better for the benefit of new teachers, learners and the educational community and society collectively. Indeed, with respect to the concept of mentoring the words of nobelist Greek poet G. Seferis to his former student and later his literary editor – C. P. Savvides – are quite indicative and instructive: “I imagined for a moment to myself, if I were at the start, as you [...] and even now I ponder how I would have won a long time ago, if I had the chance to find an older friend who would help me to, say, set my queries on the right track” (Mitsou, 1997: 235).

Accordingly, the existence of an “older friend”, as Seferis mentions, is very crucial to every aspect of human life – and even more so in primary and secondary school – because teaching is essentially a solitary process. The need, therefore, for developing a closer communication, cooperation and guidance among teachers would be highly beneficial to all members of the educational community. Thus, in the context of this study and the experience from the educational systems of more developed countries, it is necessary to investigate the

² The truth is that, despite the fact that the Institute of Educational Policies of the Greek Ministry of Education have developed new reformed Curricula, these curricula have not been applied yet.

role and nature of mentor teachers and to express the expectation for the introduction of such an institution into Greek primary and secondary education (Kougioumtzis, 2014: 124-125). Therefore, in order to better clarify the meaning of guidance, we need to attempt a deeper conceptual definition.

2. The concept of mentoring

Although the use and application of the concept of mentoring (Kougioumtzis, 2015: 76-77) has been particularly widespread in recent decades, it is rather difficult to be scientifically and conceptually defined (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999: 92). Special mention needs to be made to the multiple interpretive version of the word “mentor”: According to Hansman (2002: 10), the word mentor is assigned as a coach, teacher, guide, mentor, detector / tracker, visionary, pilot, consultant, supporter, director, conductor, caretaker (: caregiver), friend. More generally, mentoring is rendered as a guidance process by someone more experienced for someone who is beginning a process (Jackson, 1995: 111) or someone who – for various reasons – needs support.

As far as etymology is concerned, the term is Greek and works conceptually as repatriated loan (Roberts, 2000: 145-168; Asante, 2011: 23), as in 1699 the French writer François Fénelon (1968, reissued), in his work *Les Aventures de Télémaque (The Adventures of Telemachus)* presents Mentor-Athena accompanying Telemachus on his journey, advising him as a friend, giving him directions and eventually bringing him closer to his father, Odysseus. In this way, the word “mentor” in French, and then borrowed by other European languages and Modern Greek, generally means a counselor and friend, who acts as a spiritual guide and mentor (Tobin, 2004: 114-117).

3. Distinction between the concepts of mentoring and coaching

Mentoring (guidance) is often confused with coaching (training). However, although they have great relevance, they are not corresponding terms (Management Mentors, 2013): A mentor is able to play the role of a coacher, but a coacher is not a mentor. This guidance (mentoring) is ‘relational’, as it refers to the development of a deeper and broader (mid to long term) relation. On the other hand, the concept of coaching is ‘functional’, as it is understood as a project that has a specific (short term) orientation and aims to teaching strategies and developing specific and special skills.

Although the concept of mentoring also includes specific aims and the process of developing skills, this process serves as the basis for developing a broader relation between

mentor and mentee. In particular, the focus of this relation goes beyond the original intention to achieve an expanded framework of aims and touches even broader dimensions: It may include aspects such as the balance between work and life itself, targeting the pursuit of a harmonious interaction between professional and personal life while building up one's self-perception, which eventually aims at strengthening one's confidence.

Thus, although coaching has a short duration, depending on the objective which is to be achieved, mentoring – so as to be successful – requires a long period during which both partners can learn from each other and jointly develop mutual trust.

Consequently, coaching is performance-driven, as it aims at either enhancing existing skills or acquiring new ones. Once the goal has been achieved, collaboration is terminated. On the contrary, mentoring aims to assure personal and professional development. Its purpose is to contribute to the multi-dimensional development of the mentee.

In addition, coaching does not require planning or the long time lapse for implementing coaching / training program. On the other hand, mentoring requires a planning phase in order to determine the strategic purpose of the guidance, the core issues of the mentoring relation, the specific guidance models and the specific elements that will define the relation.

Another critical point is that the person higher in rank to the person who is supervised by a coach / manager often provides feedback on the needs which he considers his subordinate has. So, the coach / trainer uses these insights to shape the entire training process. By contrast, in the mentoring process, the mentee's superior maintains a discreet presence and participates indirectly. Although the person higher in rank may initially make recommendations regarding the optimal use of his mentoring experience, he has no communication whatsoever with the instructor throughout the mentoring relation.

In conclusion, the term coaching can be applied to the formation of an informal relationship between two people, where one person has more experience and expertise than the other one and offers advice and coaching for the acquisition of some Identified and targeted skill. On the contrary, the concept of mentoring involves the formation of a deep and substantial quality relationship, falling in the wider sense of a professional and personal development.

Subsequently, having clarified the differences between these two related concepts, it is necessary to look at the stages that a teacher goes through in order to create an adequate and effective level of quality professional development, both during his preparation and his practice of teaching as a profession.

4. Stages of professional development of a teacher

In general, based on the study of the Department for Education and Employment (1999), the stages which a teacher goes through while in the process of setting up their professional development are the following: (a) Initial basic training during their undergraduate studies at a university department as a prospective teacher (initial training), (b) pre-service training, where the graduate is now a trainee teacher who monitors and teaches classes of other colleagues for some teaching hours, and (c), introductory training and guidance (induction), where the teacher has taken on formal teaching in a class, with him belonging to a school unit and facing existent difficulties of daily teaching (PI Cyprus, 2008: 11).

As the status of a teacher is not only created by the acquisition of theoretical knowledge, but it is considered as particularly beneficial to combine experience and practice university departments and schools have developed partnerships to launch an interconnection between theory and practice. Partnerships already exist in other states abroad and in recent years in Greece as well. The recent (2013) creation of a central web service named “Atlas” (<http://atlas.grnet.gr/>) is relevant in this regard. “Atlas” acts as the Central Support System of Internship for Greek University Students. This is a service which interconnects those Institutions providing internships with all the Academic Institutions of the country and has created a related single database. In particular, students of teachers colleges-as prospective teachers- are able to implement aspects of a lesson plan alongside their theoretical training under the supervision of an experienced teacher. They have the chance to set teaching objectives, assess and be assessed and receive feedback in order to redesign – in collaboration with their mentor – their further actions (Bouglas, 2008: 3).

5. Teacher Mentoring

Of course, although mentoring is often an integral part of introductory training, the latter is of a more extended nature and is definitely not confined to developing a mentoring relation. More specifically, while a mentoring relation refers to individualized assistance and support from experienced to new teachers, introductory training refers to a comprehensive, organized and institutionalized framework of support which includes-apart from a mentoring relation-participation in professional development programs, networks or online communities, and assessment processes of both the new teachers and the provided programs (P.I. Cyprus, 2008: 12-13).

Undoubtedly, a key criterion for the “formation” of properly trained and qualified teachers, who have high skill and awareness of their status, is introducing programs not only in the form of the existing introductory training (: induction), but of a more expanded mentoring process (: mentoring), with a view to a smooth integration of new teachers into the educational environment of school. Besides, this wider educational aim, whose ultimate goal is higher learning results, could be achieved much more effectively by teachers who are properly trained and qualified.

Indeed, in addition to introductory training, mentoring aims to provide an orientation, vision and multi-level support to newly appointed teachers. Accordingly, it is particularly important that in the context of guidance the novice teacher has the opportunity to discuss with the mentor of some unexpected events or problems in his class, in the familiarity of his own school unit so as not to limit himself to one theoretical reflection or even a practical experience as a “guest” teacher in an unfamiliar learning environment (Bouglas, 2008: 4-5).

The acquisition of a teacher’s first experiences undoubtedly plays a key role in shaping their course of personal and professional development. Besides, during their first and second year of service, teachers usually exhibit more interest, receptiveness and willingness to learn. Moreover, since their initial basic training (: university studies) might prove to be less than adequate, the integration of new teachers in actual teaching conditions is accompanied by several problems. Thus, the necessary communication and cooperation with an experienced and supportive mentor will help in reducing the pressure resulting from facing difficulties, so new teachers can effectively face class and time management problems, and therefore focus on the process of learning much more quickly than new teachers who are not supported (Evertson & Smithey, 2000: 294-304; Breaux & Wong, 2003; Roehrig, Bohn, Turner, & Pressley, 2008: 684-702; Davis & Higdon, 2008: 261-274; Stanulis & Floden, 2009: 112-122).

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Person-centered Counselor Training: Experiential activities as a means of developing skills

I hear and I forget. I see and I remember. I do and I understand.
Confucius, 551-479 BC

Abstract:

Experiential activities confirm the determination that knowledge is not transferred, but it is mostly acquired through an active participation and experience of the trainees. This involves a combination of body and an investigation and cultivation of emotions in a process of understanding themselves, which proves to exceed intellectual speech exercises. This text treats the potentialities of the outstanding technique of role playing, through an example of an activity in counselor training of a person-centered approach, with a focus on non-verbal communication and two fundamental concepts, empathy and acceptance.

Keywords: Experiential activities, person-centered education counselors, non-verbal communication, adult education, role-playing, empathy, acceptance

Constantinides Manos¹ and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹ Constantinides Manos, Ph.D.st., M.Sc., Social Worker, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: amanatiko14@yahoo.gr

² Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Experience: Learning through experience

Learning is not the accumulation of scraps of knowledge. It is a growth, where every act of knowledge develops the learner, and thus may constitute an even more complex objectivities-and the more complex the object is, the more astute becomes the subject.

Edmund Husserl³

1.1 Investigation of the concept

The term experience is based on the philosophies of existentialism and phenomenology (Spiegelberg, 2012: 688-695). It has been used by both the wider field of psychoanalysis and pedagogy (Taflaridou-Kaloutsi & Papaflessa, 2007: 33-40). Experiential teaching is defined as the “grid of teaching procedures which are motivated by experiential situations, namely the needs and problems of everyday life, and by the experiences, questions and concerns arising in the social environment” (Chrysafidis, 1998: 17). The central idea of experiential learning seems to be structured around the relationship between experience and education (Bakirtzis, Ippeki & Georgopoulos, 2011: 141).

1.2 Experiential techniques

Experiential techniques promote learning processes both on a cognitive and emotional level so as to master a subject. Experiential teaching is a form of alternative teaching. While traditional forms of learning have learners adopt a passive attitude, experiential activities make them think and mobilize them. More specifically, in response to the stimuli received from the experience of an activity they are encouraged to delve into parts of themselves, modify any dysfunctional behaviours and attitudes, and develop their own personal way of expression and reflection (Wilsey, Arnold, Criado & Mykita, 2013: 82-83).

1.3 Benefits of using experiential techniques

The activities bring about significant benefits as participants-trainees enter in a process of cooperation and are activated while trying to apply the knowledge they have gained during the educational process. Taflaridou-Kaloutsi & Papaflessa (2007: 48) report that experiential activities are appropriate “when the goal is to foster not only analytical skills but also social responsibility, empathy, emotional learning in general.” Archontaki & Philip (2003: 74-76), among others, indicate the following facilitating advantages in the use of experiential activities:

³ Edmund Husserl, interpreted by Quentin Lauer, in May (2016: 374).

- i. Experiential activities, as they are usually in the form of a game, allow participants to spontaneously open up and unfold themselves in a genuine way.
- ii. Common experience makes the conversation more interesting and activities are an effective method for pleasant and quick learning of social skills.
- iii. Interaction between the participants is strengthened.
- iv. Their self-awareness is increased.
- v. Development of interpersonal relationships is facilitated.
- vi. It becomes easier for them to approach issues that concern them.

1.4 Person centered model and experiential education

In the person-centered model, in which empathy, acceptance and uncritical attitude are prominent (Vrotsou & Kougioumtzis, 2015: 34-35), education through experiences is considered as being by far the most appropriate method of teaching communication skills. Learners are given the opportunity to express and manage their emotions with the help of the educator-coordinator of the team, and to better understand aspects of themselves as well as receive new knowledge, which arises as a result of their interaction with the other participants (Kelley & Kelley, 2013: 321-324). The role of emotions in the consolidation of knowledge along with experiential education, as Philippou & Karantana underline (2010: 43), help them to *“be able to change attitudes and behaviours and to develop values”*. The authors continue, noting that *“the students are guided through experiential teaching in emotional integration and development of personal and social skills.”*

2. Beyond the principle of speech...: The body never lies

“In the beginning, there was the body”

2.1 Non-verbal communication

Non-verbal communication is not just about body language (gestures, facial expressions, body movements, a look or clothing) but also about silences, touching, interpersonal distance and time (Kourti, 2007: 15; Galanis, 1999: 117). Body language is *“everything but the words”* (Kourti, 2007: 13). 90% of interpersonal communication is conducted through non-verbal channels (Wainright, 1992, as cited in Papadakis-Michaelides, 1998: 15).

Body language is universal. It reflects the way people communicate, especially their feelings (Ruthrof, 2015: 27-28; Hinzman & Kelly, 2013: 152-155). Martha Graham says that

“the body says what words cannot” (Samarakis, 2008: 17). Since it is the body which is involved, the activities seem like a game, offering the participants satisfaction and enabling them to express themselves spontaneously and in a genuine way. The coordinator, motivator and facilitator in person-centered education – among other roles – has the role to form an appropriate atmosphere in which adult learners would feel that they play in a serious way, similar to the seriousness exhibited by children at play. The importance placed on the body⁴ by the person-centered approach is reflected in the assessment that *“emotions are associated with other neurophysiological and physical manifestations, and are felt first and foremost in the body, in the form of physical sensations and discomfort”* (Stalikas, 2005: 144-145).

Kourti (2007: 13) states that *“research is impressive as for the responsibility of non-verbal communication in the creation of meaning and emphasizes that non-verbal communication is the most powerful element of the communication process, as the”* how do we say this” constitutes a kind of *“silent instruction”* to interpret not only the content of communication, but also the relationship that people who communicate develop” *“If there is a discrepancy between language and physical statement (expression) then two different messages are communicated that could easily lead to misunderstanding and misinterpretation”* (Galanis, 1999: 119). *“When there is a conflict between the verbal and non-verbal channel, people trust non-verbal messages»* (Argyle, Alkema & Gilmour, 1971; Mehrabian & Wiener, 1967, as cited in Papadakis-Michaelides, 1998: 215).

3. Adult learning and group process

We learn only what moves us

“Adult education has given a central place to the learner and a great part of vocational training has emphasized professional experience” (Marsick, 1987, as cited in Jarvis, 2004: 108). Experiential learning *“emphasizes the “here” and “now”, and leads people to emotional integration and the development of personal and social skills, and not to the acquisition of dry information and knowledge”* (Philip & Karantana, 2010: 37).

“When the group is used as a means of learning, we can accomplish many more changes than we can imagine” (Miles, 1981, as cited in Jaques, 2004). The main concept of person-centered approach is self-actualization of learners and *“the aim of education is a fully functional man”* (Jarvis, 2004: 149). Besides, *“Rogers uses psychotherapeutic techniques for*

⁴ Focusing, for example, is a technique of the person-centered approach, and was proposed by Gendlin, who was a learner and founder of experiential psychotherapy. More information in: Stalikas, A. (2005). *Therapeutic interventions*. Athens: Ellinika Grammata. [Document In Greek].

educational purposes” (Jarvis, 2004: 149). Yalom (2006, as cited in Philippou & Karantana, 2010: 37-38) recognizes that change factors supporting the process of change in an experiential group is *“information sharing, feedback, sharing of experiences and concerns, development of confidence, recognition, expression and management of emotions, development of communication skills, observation and safe trial of new positive behaviours and their adoption”*.

3.1 Features of experiential learning

Adults learn when they act and engage themselves in the educational process. According to Mucchielli (Courau, 2000: 28), if we are careful, we hold approximately 10% of what we read, 20% of what we hear, 30% of what we see, 50% of what we see and hear at the same time, 80% of what we say, 90% of what we say while we perform activities that require thought and in which we are involved actively. The more energetic an adult is, the better he learns. Therefore, it is necessary that the instructor should select techniques that promote learners’ active participation (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2014: 290), while at the same time reducing traditional teacher-training methods. The more the educational process is based on group synergy, the more effective the learning (Courau, 2000: 29).

Key prerequisites for effective adult learning also include *“a connection of education with everyday life and their needs and experiences as well as an investigation concerning the obstacles encountered and the discovery of ways to overcome them. Finally, respect for personal ways and styles in learning”* (Athanasius, Balntoukas & Panaoura, 2014: 22).

The coordinator-instructor’s role is a successful coordination of the educational group with which he collaborates – in fact, this is one of the prime aims that he ought to set. The instructor-motivator, as Philippou & Karantana are noting (2010: 39), *“listens carefully to his team, understands their needs of the “here and now”, their desires, their tensions, their difficulties, their limits, and gets inspiration for his next intervention”*. Clearly, the coordinator also learns through this process, because he enriches his own experience, and manages multiple stimuli and trains various adult groups in many areas. Certainly, the techniques he makes use of are many and cover a range of issues. He also uses the participants’ existing knowledge to reveal all that they have to offer, while at the same time – during the educational process or in retrospect– he connects everything that is reciprocated / performed / exported with theory.

3.2 Simulation (role-playing)

Although there is a wide variety of techniques in adult learning, this text will focus on simulation and especially in role-playing. According to Noyé & Piveteau (1999: 49) it is about “*adopting [the] behaviour of a certain personality so that the members can better understand a situation and their own reaction in similar situations*”. The emphasis that role playing gives to the problem allows the connection of education and professional life connection, and is a clear advantage over other options (Knowles, 2013: 90).

4. The clock of counseling

The clock of counseling⁵ is a role-playing activity, which helps during the process of development of the group: The educational group is divided into counselors, consultees and observers. The counselors stand with their backs to the wall and face the center of the room equally spaced in a circle. The same number of consultees take their place facing the counselors – in pairs. The observers stand at a distance and sideways from the pair they observe. The observers take notes and record the non-verbal communication that the counselor expresses with each consultee who is visiting him. The distance between counselor and consultee in each pair has to be so much as not to hear what is being said between the two. Observers do not try to read lips⁶, they just record anything regarding non-verbal communication, both body language as well as eye contact.

The coordinator gives the following instructions: Each consultee selects a question / issue that concerns him and presents it to each one of the counselors in the same way and briefly. He stresses whichever theoretical, fictitious or problems do not help the process of the activity and have nothing to offer but difficulty for the group. The time given may be, for example, 4-5 minutes for each session (or it may be extended depending on the available time). By the end of the session, each consultee moves to the right hand side counselor, that is, clockwise. After the necessary time has lapsed (which can be indicated, for example, by clapping), the consultee ought to –if he has not completed his session with the counselor– to extend the time only by half a minute in order to complete the session, and then move on to another counselor. That is why the coordinator needs to point out that the issue that the consultees choose should be such that can be discussed as part of this activity, which has a limited time frame, while it can be presented clearly and definitely in a short time. Consultees are the only ones to move, whereas the counselors stay put, waiting for the next consultee

⁵ It is included in the books of Llamas-Gordo, F. (2010) και Frizen, S.J. (1993).

⁶ Lip reading is the act of watching the mouth area of a person while they are speaking and trying to understand what they are saying, without hearing their voice.

each time. When a consultee reaches the last counselor, the line ends and the activity is resumed, but with alternate roles this time.

In case a group – especially if it is big – has been divided into three parts-for example, ten counselors, ten consultees and ten observers, the corresponding changes are made. This means that, if time allows it, each participant may play all three roles or only two of them, e.g. counselor and consultee, observer and counselor, observer and consultee. At the end of the activity, there is a plenary session to discuss how the members felt about the activity. Then you can start on the feedback of verbal or non-verbal communication and develop themes of analysis-processing of the activity, which has the benefit of many possible additions and elaborations, depending on the ability of the group.

5. Discussion, processing and analysis of the activity

The only person who is educated is the one who has learned how to learn and change.

Carl Rogers

This activity allows the investigation of Rogerian basic concepts of empathy, acceptance, and numerous events that take place in a meeting / session. Of course, the coordinator may expand the techniques applied. He may, for example, expand in reframing, paraphrasing, clarifying, emotional reflection, the output comment, as well as reception issues and farewell.

Accordingly, processing of non-verbal communication of the members may greatly add to the understanding and consolidation of knowledge (Quiroz, Hernan, 2000: 4). By giving the floor to observers, the counselors' feedback pushes the discussion on all those issues that a counsellor needs to know of. At this point, the counselors usually try to interpret the issues mentioned by their observer, such as "Yes, I crossed my hands, because my consultee came and presented his issue prepared / solved and so he gave me room to say something" or "I felt powerless to speak" ... expanding the processing of the activity may include comparison with techniques of other approaches, knowledge of various sciences or the members' experiences from their working environment.

At the same time, processing of the activity focuses on phenomena and concepts / principles of person-centered approach to the business relationship, which is a two-way process between counselor and consultee and is achieved through systematic communication, which includes specific goals and objectives of solving problematic situations and are associated with the consultee. Achievement of this process is a consciously planned action and requires wide knowledge of human behaviour and capabilities for handling dynamic phenomena arising in the course of its development. Of course, this study will focus on empathy and acceptance:

5.1 Empathy

“Empathy is the most proactive, tense psychosomatic movement for accurate understanding, but mostly an encounter of the other at every moment, in every step of communication” (Kosmopoulos & Moulaloudis, 2003, as cited in Koletsi & Tragou, 2013: 166-167). Rogers considers a counselor’s empathic attitude as a *“very important prerequisite and condition for development and treatment”* (Bakirtzis, 1996: 105). *“This understanding allows the person to be open to new aspects of his experience and thus gain greater genuineness / congruence”* (Bakirtzis, 1996, 107). The counselor correctly understands the feelings and personal meanings that the client is experiencing and communicates this understanding to the client (Rogers, 2006: 101).

By giving the floor to the counselors, the coordinator-motivator can ask, for example, what it was like having to give help in such a short time or having to hear ten consultees. He can also ask what strategies they had to muster, if they followed some techniques or if they felt strained by some of the consultees and how they handled it, what feelings were caused and what they did about them. Also, if any concepts or theories came to mind, how they felt or what they thought ... the counselors’ expression of emotions highlights the need of the learner to talk about his direct experience.

“Empathy is the ability of a person to resonate emotionally and intellectually with others without having to identify himself with them» (Yalom, 2004: 45). By asking the consultees about how they felt with each counselor, what words or phrases made an impression on them, whose speech and attitude they believe facilitated them, if there is great difference in the counselors’ way of help, the concept of empathy is thoroughly discussed in the group. Some consultees report that a large majority told them to do something specific or see something as a possible prospect, others said that there was great variation, others say the counselors were of great help for the reason that some of the counselors did get to see a different perspective of the their problem, some were surprised by the variety of the ways they were handled and treated by the counselors.

Empathy refers to *“the effort of the therapist to see the world through the perspective of his client, while maintaining personal autonomy and control of himself”* (Stalikas & Merton, 2004: 34). In the words of Carl Rogers empathy is *“one’s ability to understand the inner frame of reference of another with accuracy, with the emotional components and meanings inherent in it, as if he was the other man, but without ever forgetting the term ‘as if’ ”* (Rogers, 1959, as cited in Malikiosi-Loizou, 2001: 110).

Rogers, among other learning principles, states that “*when self-criticism and self-assessment dominate the educational process, whereas evaluation by third parties comes second, then independence, creativity and autonomy are promoted and encouraged*” (Jaques, 2004: 98). The questions that need to be answered in this activity are summarized by Koletsi & Tragou (2013: 173): Is the empathy I demonstrate being understood? Does the client receive understanding? Do I stick with the feeling of the client? Do I provide the right environment in order to guide his personal development?

5.2 Acceptance

For Rogers, acceptance or caring or award, which he called unconditional positive regard, is an attitude which is important in creating an atmosphere for change (Rogers, 2006: 101). Bakirtzis (1996: 109) referring to Rogers emphasizes that “*within a protective-supportive atmosphere of unconditional positive regard, it is possible that the client accomplishes authentic learning*”. Gordon (2009: 42) points out that “*accepting someone “as he is” is an act of love. Feeling that you are accepted is tantamount to feeling that you are loved*”.

It is necessary, therefore, that the counselor should feel genuine warmth and be “open” to the consultee in order to be able to help him, so that “a bridge is built through which help can be given” (Mouzakitis, 1998: 13). An acceptance that includes warmth, interest, therapeutic understanding, intent on helping the person to regain control of his life. The discussion introduces the principle of acceptance and participants express the difficulties they had in accepting, recognizing and forming a relationship with another person, an element that is the first step in their cooperation. Taber & Taber (1978, as cited in Mouzakitis, 1998: 14) emphasize that a relationship starts when there is a sharing of feelings between two people and the impact that they have on their lives. Acceptance means therapeutic understanding.

The questions that highlight this fundamental concept in person-centered training / therapy are: “Do I respect the consultee / the patient? Does he have a feeling of acceptance during therapy? Is there warmth? Is he encouraged? Can he cope with acceptance? Does he trust me? How does he interpret the acceptance I show him? What is it that makes it difficult for me to show unconditional acceptance?” (Koletsi & Tragou, 2013: 173).

6. Instead of a conclusion

According to Panta (2015: 11-12), activities are a way of seeking methods to satisfy the learner’s need for independence. Activities and games -except others- serve as pretexts for group discussions about personal desires, fears, anxieties, features and capabilities. They

provide stimuli for reflection and discussion in the group. Besides, activities facilitate the development of trust and personal relationships, while one exposes himself more easily to fewer people than in front of a large group.

Activities as an option in executive/counselor training is of particular importance because it assists the development and expansion of their knowledge. Also, through activities each counselor in training is provided with self-knowledge in an empirical and genuine way. Participants enter in the process so as to cooperate, to be activated and to apply, at the same time, the knowledge gained through the educational process, by relaxing some of the pressure of their desire for acceptance and the process of information acquisition / assimilation (Karatzolas et al., 2006). Finally, activities and participation of learners in them is an attractive type of endoscopy, which helps to enhance self-awareness.

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Educational Leadership and Counseling: Common Places

Abstract:

A careful look at the theory of leadership would reveal the existence of common properties between the leader of an educational unit and the guidance counselor, highlighting distinct overlap between the two fields. At cognitive leadership and counseling skills, which are reviewed in this paper, overlaps are detected in the fields of intellectual encouragement, constant motivation, and facilitation in selecting the direction of professional development, re-attributing meaning, problem solving and co-creation of new solutions.

Keywords: educational leadership, guidance counseling, comparative investigation, common places.

Louka Dimitra¹, Lampros Giannikopoulos² and Kougioumtzis Georgios³

¹ Louka Dimitra, Ph.D., Social Anthropology, M.Ed. Leadership in Education, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: dimlouka@hotmail.com

² Giannikopoulos Lampros, M.Ed. Leadership in Education, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: lagiannik@gmail.com

³ Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

Although a first reading would take as absolutely distinct the exercise of counseling art correlative with the application of transformative leadership in the educational context, theory of leadership reveals how many of the counseling skills exist already at admissions that define the conceptualization of leadership. In the assignment that follows, the transferability of views of counseling in the practice of effective leadership is shown. At the same time, the proportions will be identified and what is discussed is how counseling skills of the cognitive level are transferred in the contextual of leadership, assisting in the best possible version.

2. Encouragement

In transformational leadership, the leader's personal responsibility is the challenge and conceptual repositioning of employees correlative with preconceptions of the past along with strong encouragement, so that they can perceive current situations under a new light (Bass & Riggio, 2006). At the same time, in the academic context, the views of Bass (1999) for learning enhancement are associated with the ability of intellectual stimulation. Being consistent with the above position, the field of counseling demonstrates the counselor's intention to assist the consultee so as to see an unsolved problem in a new context, stimulating an innovative understanding (Yalom, 2002). The focus on maintaining this information can be linked to the ability of the counselor to provide mental stimulation in consulting.

3. Constant motivation

School management is effective when expectations of the leader, of the subsistents and their work converge (Saitis, 2008). According to Camilleri (2007), fifteen theories and about thirty variations discuss the concept of motivation which is a particularly important skill for understanding behavior and it is fully connected with the concept of job satisfaction.

An effective leader possesses the skill of constant motivation utilizing motives that are connected with the phase of life the people's needs go through. The leader motivates the teachers to incur creative initiatives, supporting each teacher individually. He creates the feeling that all of them contribute to the success of the school events and as a result they become valuable partners (Ryback 1998, ref. to Makris, 2013). In agreement with the concept of influence, inspirational motivation expresses the grade up to which the leader possesses the skill to inspire (Bass & Riggio, 2006). By comparison, motivation performed by the counselor during consulting sessions, so that the consultee can move towards the change of the situations that concern him through strengthening confidence in himself, is a necessary

precondition for a successful selection (Burke, Arkowitz, & Menchola, 2003). In addition, in family counseling, the model of functionalist family therapy was built around the idea that in order to have a beneficial effect on the overall effort, all family members should be interested and motivated up to a sufficient extent to participate (Sexton & Alexander, 2005). Both in counseling and in transformational leadership, the task of inspiration to motivate people into action that will bring about change is present.

4. Assisting the selection of direction

In the case of leadership, transformative leaders have the responsibility for planning and imparting direction to subordinates. In the profession of counseling, the responsibility for setting goals and creating plans is deposited mainly on the consultee, but the counselor shall remain responsible for facilitating the process, so that the predetermined goals are successfully achieved. According to the new notion of the role of a career counselor, the counselor is perceived as a vocational guidance specialist but, additionally, as a facilitator and "co-manufacturer of the consultee's personal development as well as his/her design of life (Amundson, 2006; Brott, 2005; Savickas, 1994). Besides, the Code of Conduct of EOPPEP (2013: 8) notes that the counselor "respects the dignity, personality and freedom of the person [...]. Treats him/her with courtesy and in a friendly manner and supports decision making or the search for solutions with the aim of professional development and prosperity". An effective counselor conducts interventions which focus on the concept of self that the consultee has, also helps him/her to clearly distinguish the way he/she sees the world enriching one's vision with a fresh look (Moss & Glowiak, 2013), as there is no single view of reality but multiple views, like many correct ways of thinking and acting (Krivas, 2011).

Meanwhile, an effective leader organizes, reforms and upgrades his colleagues' work and facilitates communication between all involved, seeking for close cooperation among stakeholders. Moreover, the former faces the problems arising with accuracy and provides teachers with pedagogical and teaching instructions contributing to the programming of educational work, while, at the same time, he provides teachers with the possibility of autonomy (Stravakou, 2003).

5. Development

As for the counseling relationship, Rogers (1961: 39) stated that one of the two parties has the intention to promote the growth, maturity and improve the life management of the other. The objectives of each guidance counselor aim at changing the consultee's behavior and his/her

way of life, increasing awareness or insight and understanding resulting in a change of thinking and conceptions of one's self (Brammer & MacDonald, 1996). The consultee becomes, simultaneously, a lifelong learner (Krumboltz, 2009). At the same time, the success of a leader depends mainly on how they will face the human factor (Saitis, 1992). Specifically, Leithwood & Riehl (2003) argue that a successful leader of a school unit provides personal support to the members of the staff and simultaneously promotes a continuous and systematic improvement through cultivation of cognitive thinking. Additionally, the particular leader recognizes the work of teachers and encourages their improvement through professional development, which is necessary in modern conditions to which they should adjust so as to become lifelong learners and respond to the level of professionalism required. Moreover, the configuration of psychosocial identity of each person, depending, each time, on social positions and roles occupied by the person, is a lifelong process.

6. Searching for the meaning

Bass & Bass (2008), describe leaders as the providers of « understanding and meaning of situations and those who follow them are considered to be characterized by confusion, ambivalence, vagueness, ambiguity or uncertainty » (Bass & Bass, 2008: 17). Subsequently, leaders are the people who give meaning to a situation in order to facilitate the orientation of the employees. The concept of attributing meaning has been described as an integral part in the consultative guidance process as well (Savickas, 1993). The ethics code of the American Society Advisory (ACA, 2006) describes counseling as a process in which the provision of direction and an action plan of the consultee is deposited to the counselor. The counselor has helped the consultee to acquire the awareness of the alternative outlets and the latter is encouraged to take responsibility for taking action in one or more of these (Moss & Glowiak, 2013: 4). However, the personal development of the consultee follows the direction he/she has chosen.

The core of both processes involves the orientation and signification of situations for those people who seek inspirational assistance for action as to the direction they choose on their own, both by the leader and the counselor. Freire (1998) focuses on action which should engage individuals in occupying prominent positions of power through the use of a non-hierarchical dialogue. This dialogue promotes the possibility to define and satisfy the needs of all people in a most scholarly manner. Meanwhile, the open dialogue on the causes of

problems, which is followed by the action of improving conditions, is the foundation of distributed leadership (Lewis & Borunda, 2006: 408).

7. Solution of a problem

The ability to transform characterizes a leader who produces work by daring changes based on the conception and implementation of radical solutions to effectively face the issues whenever they arise (Theophilidis & Stylianidis, 2000). Meanwhile, the leader presents the school vision with clarity, creating those conditions that allow the achievement of the objectives. The range of the leader's influence makes possible his/her negotiating role in resolving disputes. He/She promotes any kind of cooperation, while facing directly and decisively the situations of uncertainty displaying all possible alternative solutions (Stivaktakis, 2005). Additionally, in the case of leadership, the skill of lateral thinking is considered a major parameter, that is the ability to investigate «alternatives as solutions» (De Bono, 2002: 11). For this purpose, the strategy of "brainstorming" serves to highlight lateral thinking allowing for searching and finding a variety of different proposals to resolve the conflict and choose the most appropriate solution through the participation of all parties (Zavlanos, 2002: 241). Furthermore, in counseling, where the action is seen as a key element, among other techniques, the "brainstorm" technique is used in activities that may be undertaken by consultees so as to improve their situation. Errors, in this context, are evaluated as learning experiences rather than failure (Krumboltz, 2009).

The transformative leader encourages the involvement of teachers in the decision-making process so that they may gain the power they need to operate, and he/she has sensitivity which is expressed through his/her understanding to feelings, aspirations and needs of his subordinates (Theophilidis & Stylianidis, 2000). Various problem solving strategies can be applied in the practice of school leadership (Metcalf, 1995). There are some techniques used such as praise and complimentary comments so that the building of the solution can provide continuity of the existing strengths and shift the focus of the problem to a variety of possible alternatives (De jong & Berg, 2002). At the same time, finding exceptions is another strategy which allows people to see change as a probability based on past successes (de Shazer, 1988; De jong & Berg, 2002). In a work context, the above techniques can be applied to all members and, therefore bring about change in the whole system (Metcalf, 1995), so as for the school's vision to become more open to changes transforming the school climate in a positive manner.

The techniques that support problem solving in the counseling sector are presented at the consultative model of de Shazer (1988). Accordingly, the solution to this problem is based on strengthening of existing strengths and past successes rather than focusing on the problem (De Jong & Berg, 2002). In individual counseling, the person is encouraged to try innovative behaviors if praised for what he has achieved so far. While attempting to solve the problem, the consultee is asked to remember and describe moments of his life during which the situation had a positive outcome because of his choices.

8. Co-Creating New Solutions

At the same time, the focus of constructivist vision in counseling includes the perception that realities constitute co-constructions using language as a means (Mortola & Carlson, 2003). Reality is not a single one and the counselor should pay particular attention to the consultees' narratives which are accepted as the dominant, present realities. The counselor can help the consultees to broaden their understanding of highlighting the exceptions to the problems, co-creating new solutions and co-constructing healthier narratives (Wachter, 2004; Krumboltz, 2009).

The counselor helps the consultee learn how to act, to achieve a more satisfactory selection of profession and personal life rather than choose a single profession. The former stimulates the latter's appetite for continuous learning without attempting to match the consultee's personal characteristics with relevant professions. At the same time, they engage the consultee in exploratory actions in order to create non predesigned but beneficial for him events. In modern, constantly changing conditions this process helps him/her to accept uncertainty as an unexpected condition and to use it in his favor so as to capitalize the circumstances and design new experiences (Krumboltz, 2009). According to the Happenstance Learning Theory (Krumboltz, 2009, 2011), career management requires 5 necessary skills: curiosity, to discover new learning experiences, persistence, which is considered as stable energy investment in the objectives, flexibility, or ability to adapt to new situations, optimism and risk-taking ability. The effectiveness of counseling intervention is evaluated in accordance with the consultee's achievements in the real world in leading a satisfactory life.

The consultee is involved in a reflective journey of a more satisfactory life and career identity (Reid & West, 2011). The co-construction activities of the counselor and the consultee help in the reconstruction of old signification causing new visions (Krivas, 2011) through the description of career experiences (Del Corso & Rehfuss, 2011). The consultees

are considered to be experts in the issues of their own life (Bujold, 2004), while the counselors facilitate the development of their professional learning experiences. Simultaneously, based on the approach of chaos, people are facilitated to prepare for the changes and exploit them to their advantage (McIlveen, 2009) by maintaining their optimism even in uncontrollable situations. In this case, the focus in the counseling process is transferred from "contingent thought" to highlighting the possibilities (Pryor, Amundson & Bright, 2008).

Meanwhile, the leader in the case of distributed leadership recognizes that "interpretations of the world around us are pluralistic» (Bruner, 1996: 15), understanding that professionals participate in communities that construct the reality of the world around us. The truth of this world is not vicarious, but instead it is a participatory construction which is greatly used in schools where the selected methodology defines what serves the promotion and fulfillment of the community's all members' capabilities (Lewis & Borunda, 2006: 407). In this context, the leader remains open to the views of others. He is flexible, activating colleagues and is connected closely with them on a personal level (Stivaktakis, 2005), since "Exploring a topic means to investigate the perceptions of individuals as to the reality and their actions [...], the selected methodology imposes the co-exploratory activity of people» (Freire 1998: 87). An effective leader gives feedback as a critical friend who is involved in an ongoing constructive dialogue with teachers (Blase & Blase, 2000: 133), gives praise which affects, among other properties, empowerment, risk taking, innovation and creativity (Blase & Blase, 2000: 134). According to Oduro (2004), in the supporting factors which assist the implementation of distributed leadership, taking responsibility and risk are included. Proportionally, Egan (2010) reports that the counselor should possess those skills to help his consultee to choose appropriate strategies and actions that will result in an effective change. The result of the advisory procedure should be a change in the consultee's life, in accordance with the objectives set. Indeed, the consultee should acquire the skill of risk-taking according to Krumboltz (2009).

In conclusion, it could be said that further comparative investigation of the two fields could contribute to the clarification of effective counseling skills of a transformative leader but also to the emergence of leadership that should be inherent in the role of a guidance counselor, under the future possibility of its implementation to the Greek educational system.

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Counseling and Psychological Support to Teachers

Abstract:

It is reasonable that the multidimensional nature of the role of the teacher causes difficulties, sometimes even unapproachable, related to issues such as teacher's scientific training, relationships with students, colleagues and parents, students' learning difficulties and – often – unsatisfactory working conditions. If we add personal experiences and the difficulties that every reasonable man has, it is clear that we are referring to an occupation in which counseling and psychological support is required and needs to be provided profusely. This study, therefore, is focused on exploring the needs of Primary and Secondary Education in Schools of the prefecture of Evvoia (Greece), regarding counseling and psychological support. The research, which was conducted in January 2016, showed that the needs of teachers on issues of Counseling and psychological support are not just a theoretical research hypothesis, but a fact and revealed the deficit in counseling for work-related stress and burnout issues.

Keywords: Teacher, occupational stress, burnout, counseling and psychological support

Basoukou Eleni¹ and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹ Basoukou Eleni, Philologist, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance, email: elbas79@hotmail.com

² Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance), email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

Working as a teacher in recent years has changed significantly (Kougioumtzis, 2014b). Besides imparting academic knowledge, teachers – nowadays – are facing new challenges and unprecedented situations in the classroom and at school, and are often asked to identify the serious problems of the students and cater for both their own increased needs and for the smooth operation of the school unit (Malikiosi-Loizou, 2011).

The fundamental issue of burnout, which occurs as a consequence of the lack of satisfaction and the constant experiencing of occupational stress on the part of teachers, impedes the practice of their important role and they ought to be given as many creative and substantial solutions as possible (Pappa, 2006).

This study aims to examine the extent to which counseling and psychological support for teachers can improve educational reality and / or everyday teaching.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1 Teachers

The teacher is a key element of the educational process (Neave, 1998) and plays one of the most catalytic roles in the implementation of any educational policy. As Armour & Balboa (2000) argue, the teaching profession is a process of lifelong learning, which involves continuous learning of a higher level and participation in a dialogue on the creation of new knowledge. Moreover, teachers as intellectuals, according to Giroux (as cited in Arnidou, 2007), are cultural producers involved in public issues and constitute the main agents for adopting any educational reform. They also generate curricula, participate in the dialogue with the young and actively train students in critical literacy, democracy and social justice (Kougioumtzis & Bikos, 2015), enhancing thereby their transforming and reformative role (Kougioumtzis, 2016).

2.2 Education

The term “educational work” includes all actions, activities, processes and material produced, aiming to accomplish educational and cultural outcomes and may be better explained as a task formed and performed at three levels: (a) work within the educational system, (b) work within the School unit or institution and (c) classroom work and work of a specific teacher (Papadopoulos, 2015).

According to the Greek Law no.1566/1985, the purpose of primary and secondary education in Greece is to contribute to the overall, harmonious and balanced development of

mental and psychosomatic abilities of the students, so that they – regardless of gender and origin – have the potential to develop into complete personalities and live creatively.

2.3 Need

2.3.1 Conceptual approach

The concept of “need” is often used in everyday life, but the significance it acquires depends on a broader context. According to Suarez (1994), need is dimension, a discrepancy between the actual and the desired state, which is the result of ideals, preferences and expectations so – in order to identify any needs – we are required to correlate reality with the desired state and the needs will stem from this comparison.

Vergidis and Karalis (1999) believe that “need” could fall under several different conceptual contexts, depending on the theoretical background through which it is being approached. According to the psychological approach, needs are classified depending on their urgency for satisfaction. This is the reason why Maslow refers to primary and secondary needs, creating a pyramid, where secondary needs (biological, cognitive, aesthetic) are placed at the lowest levels, while at the top of the pyramid we find the individual’s need for self-actualization. This classification associates educational needs with other important social needs, while satisfaction of secondary needs becomes the basis for satisfying superiors.

2.3.2 Teachers’ needs

The needs of teachers could be divided into three categories: In personal needs, which satisfy individual interests; in professional ones, where the emphasis is on professional development and prestige, and in teaching needs, which are referenced to teaching practice (Christofilopoulou, 2004). The need for counseling and psychological support, which is detected in this study, mainly relates to the first two categories, without excluding the impact of this need on teaching practice.

2.4 Counseling

2.4.1 Investigation of the concept

The term “Counseling” is used to describe any process by which a person is aided through discussion to clarify thoughts and feelings, to overcome difficulties and to learn more about himself (Malikiosi-Loizou, 2012).

Dimitropoulos (2005) concisely defines Counseling as a field of knowledge whose actual application is part of a network of services, which the author calls institutions for

human assistance without a finite and strictly defined outline – within the framework of which all efforts of societies to support, to assist and facilitate their members – are included.

2.4.2 Purpose of Counseling

As for its purpose, Counseling is a method of approach and intervention, a means of ensuring that the person facing – or trying to prevent – a problem receives assistance. Therefore, counseling is both a process and career process as well as a set of skills for the implementation of methodology in one's attempt to assist or prevent a problem (Nelson-Jones, 1983 and 1995, as cited in Dimitropoulos, 2005).

2.4.3 Career Counseling

One of the branches of Counseling is Vocational Counseling or Career Counseling, which deals with assisting in occupation and employment concerns, and generally aims to assist the individual in his quest for normal development, completion, self-actualization and successful adaptation (Dimitropoulos, 1998).

2.4.4 Counseling Psychology

Counseling Psychology is a specialization of Psychology which facilitates lifelong personal and interpersonal functionality, focusing on emotional, social, professional, educational and developmental concerns, as well as on problems related to health (Malikiosi-Loizos, 2012).

2.5 Professional adaptation and job satisfaction

“Professional adaptation” is the state of relationships between the individual and their working environment in which the individual, based on their own abilities and needs, is in perfect harmony with their work. Thus, the needs of the employee are satisfied to the greatest possible extent, while the objectives set by the professional environment are also being implemented (Dimitropoulos, 1998).

Ginzberg (1951, as cited in Dimitropoulos, 1998) focuses on three types of job satisfaction: (1) The internal, as a result of a pleasant feeling arising from participation in productive activities or of a feeling “creation” that an individual experiences, when they accomplish self-expression through performance. (2) The consequent, which is a function of natural, social and psychological conditions which characterize the working environment (e.g. cleanliness, air conditioning, employee-centered administration, social climate, collaborative colleagues). (3) The external, related to payment from work and may be of any material form.

2.6 Human motivation and the path to self-actualization

Dimitropoulos (2004) cites that an individual's work motivation plays an important role in their overall professional adaptation and satisfaction. Moreover, he points out that after 1950 there have been theories which argue that the motives to work are not only economic, but they are also directly and inextricably linked with human needs. According to these theories, the individual acts and reacts with a motive to meet their occasional needs. Therefore, work motivation plays a significant role in the professional behavior of the individual.

2.6.1 Maslow's theory

One of the best known and almost universally accepted theories of motivation is Maslow's theory of needs, which prioritizes human needs as follows: physiological-biological needs (for food, shelter, sleep and any other need associated with the natural existence of man) are the first ones, followed by the need for security (for a secure job, home, being provided with care and any other need which is related to the existence of a stable and non-threatening environment), then he adds social needs (for relationships, acceptance, friendship), the need for appreciation or recognition (self-esteem, power, prestige) and, finally, the need for self-actualization (clearly psychological needs which are brought about when people find that they can do what they think they are able to do).

2.6.2 Teachers' motivation

According to an article by Roimpa and Nomikou (2015), in Greek public education, the teachers' physiological needs and security needs are satisfied to a great extent by the administration, through a unified payroll system and ensured tenure. On the contrary, their social needs and those of appreciation and completion, are satisfied through their own behavior and their individual effort. Studies conducted for finding the factors for teachers' satisfaction (Saitis, 2007; Eliophotou-Menon & Saitis, 2006; Koustelios, 2001) demonstrate convergence of conclusions. These conclusions are extremely useful because they distinctly show that teachers' satisfaction is multifactorial and that it is directly linked to the subjective features of each employee, as well as to motivation by administration. More specifically, one of the most recent studies (Saitis, 2007), identifies a grading scale of satisfaction factors as follows (Roimpa & Nomikou, 2015):

- ✚ The role of the principal and school climate.
- ✚ Promotion prospects and the advantages of the teaching profession.
- ✚ Rewards recognizing the teachers' efforts and their performance by the administration.

- ✚ Their compensation.
- ✚ General school organization.
- ✚ Teachers' feelings towards their work.
- ✚ Cooperation among teachers.

2.7 Teachers' stress

2.7.1 Investigation of the concept of stress

One of the key psychological issues plaguing teachers of today is considered to be “stress”, which falls under the general category of stress generated by one’s occupation and is known in the literature as “occupational stress”.

The definition of “stress” depends on the approach of the experts using the definition in question. Selye (1956, as cited in Pappa, 2006) talked about the body's response to a pressing situation and about the relation of a total physical response to any environmental stressor. Lazarus (1993, as cited in Pappa, 2006) argues that stress is the result of an active interaction of the individual with their environment and that it may have physiological, psychological or sociological parameters, which are not necessarily independent from one another. When the person realizes that the demands of a situation are disproportionately greater than their abilities, then the body reacts (Sarafino, 1993). Kyriakou and Sutcliffe (1978) define stress as a teacher’s reaction, which manifests itself as an expression of negative emotions – such as wrath or depression –accompanied by any pathogenic physiological changes, such as palpitation; it is about features that act as results of being under pressure and the demands faced by the teacher, which are definitely related to his professional role.

2.7.2 Effects of stress / pressure

Teacher’s stress may manifest itself as confusion, aggression, unwillingness, and an increased tendency to absenteeism or a decline in the performance of both the teacher and students. Aspects of the teacher’s performance, such as creativity and effective application of teaching techniques suffer when he is experiencing intense stress (Pappa, 2006).

2.7.3 Factors which cause stress / pressure

Generally speaking, according to Pappa (2006), stress may occur when the employee does not “fit” well enough his line of work or when his job involves assuming responsibility for the safety, welfare or behavior of others. It is clear that humanistic professions, and particularly the teaching profession, have many of these elements.

The main stressors are usually: undisciplined students, the negative attitude of students for school, lack of preparation time, the lack or ambiguity of a framework which defines the role of the teacher. Also, the personality of each teacher and his ideology have been identified to be important factors contributing to the genesis and treatment of stress (Pappa, 2006). Other important stressors are a lack of motivation on the part of students, lack of time to solve problems which arise daily, the difficulty of teachers to understand each other, and even an incomplete infrastructure (Kloska & Raemasut, 1985).

2.8 Burnout

2.8.1 Investigation of the concept

Burnout is a problem faced by employees in various workplaces, especially those ones classified as socio human oriented, and it is associated with the employees' dissatisfaction by the parameters which shape their working place and the working conditions (Roimpa & Nomikou, 2015).

The term "burnout" was first used by Freudenberger (1975), to characterize the saturation and gradual exhaustion of the individual caused by their occupation.

2.8.2 Burnout and teachers

Teachers' burnout is a physical and mental exhaustion syndrome, in which teachers are overwhelmed by feelings of anxiety, a loss of interest and any positive feelings for their students; they are not satisfied with their work, forming a negative image for themselves and fail to address any problems encountered in the educational process (Chatzipemos, 2006). According to research results worldwide, burnout seems to concern a very large number of teachers (Mouzoura, 2005).

Four main models regarding the study of teachers' burnout syndrome have appeared in the literature: the model of Edelwich & Brodsky (1980), the model of Cherniss (1980), the one of Pines (Pines & Aronson, 1988) and the model of Maslach (1982), which is prevailing. Burnout Syndrome, according to Maslach & Jackson (1986, as cited in Davrazos, 2015), is defined as "*a continuous change of feelings, which teachers experience as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and low personal accomplishment.*"

2.8.3 The Model of Maslach

Emotional exhaustion: It is characterized by lack of energy and the feeling that the emotional reserves of the employee have run out, with no renewal resources (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1997). A common symptom is unwillingness to go to work (Kantas, 1996).

Depersonalization: It refers to the development of neutral or negative emotions and to the professional's withdrawal from the recipients of his services, who are often treated disparagingly (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

Personal unaccomplishment: People feel unhappy and frustrated about their achievements (Kantas, 1996), thus, imposing on themselves the idea that they are unsuccessful. They gradually develop depression, which can lead to them either seeking help from a specialist or to quitting their job (Maslach, 1982). As for teachers, in particular, a sense of low personal achievement from their job derives from the aspirations they have when they enter this line of work, by which they wish to help students learn and grow, something which they ultimately feel they cannot achieve (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1997).

2.8.4 Burnout stages

The phenomenon of burnout does not suddenly appear, but undergoes four consecutive stages from onset to its climax (Chatzipemos, 2006):

- i. Stage of enthusiasm: The newly appointed teacher enters the workplace with very high goals and expectations.
- ii. Stage of doubt and inertia: The teacher doubts about whether his work meets his expectations and deepest needs.
- iii. Stage of frustration and defeat: The teacher considers every effort of his to be futile.
- iv. Stage of apathy: The teacher remains in school, apathetic to any educational innovation, needs or students' problems.

2.8.5 Burnout causes

According to Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter (2001), the causes of burnout ought to be sought both in the characteristics of work and the working environment as well as in the individual characteristics of employees. In the communication bulletin of the Company of Psychosocial Health of Children and Adolescents, the appearance of the syndrome is justified both by the structure and functioning of the educational system and by the teacher's personality and characteristics.

2.8.6 Burnout effects

The effects of burnout on the individual (Unger, 1980) can be divided into physical, psychological and behavioral while Chatzipemos (2006) notes psychosomatic reactions, a decline in self-esteem, poor concentration, feelings of inadequacy and guilt, socialization problems. Davrazos (2015) in *Neos Paidagogos* refers to the effects that occur in School as an Organization.

2.9 Counseling in the workplace

Dimitropoulos (2005) notes that Counseling in the workplace in Greece has not yet received the emphasis it needs, except for some multinational companies. He therefore proposes the existence of a Workplace Counselor (a Counseling professional specializing in employees' counseling and professional psychology) in any place where people are working and who will accommodate their employees within or outside working hours and who will discuss with them problems that may be encountered regarding their jobs or not. A Workplace Counselor in a properly organized office in any private or public service works positively for everyone, employees and employers, improving working relationships and production, reducing accidents, reducing absenteeism, improving the relationship between work and family environment, by reducing mental and physical fatigue.

2.10 The contribution of Counseling in dealing with the problems of teachers

The American Psychological Association, outlining the objectives of the counseling process, indicate that a counseling psychologist helps people with physical, emotional and mental disorders to improve their quality of life and to increase their ability to live a more functional life. This is achieved by discussing and setting personal goals, cultivating a motivational / reinforcing climate and focusing on positive psychology. The ultimate goal is to strengthen the potential advantages and reinforce their potential for achieving optimal functionality and quality of life (Malikiosi-Loizos, 2012).

Furthermore, Counseling primarily addresses normal, healthy individuals in order to help them ensure proper development, through anticipation and prevention of problems (Dimitropoulos, 2005).

Vocational Guidance for Dimitropoulos (2004) addresses all those to whom it is directed and Counseling as a whole, as long as they need assistance and guidance on matters concerning their career, educational and professional development so as to avoid personal deadlocks. Pappa (2006) points out that teachers are in need of helpers when exercising their

role, receiving emotional support and guidance for themselves and believes that cooperation with a school psychologist can be instrumental in these areas. Specifically, a school psychologist can direct teachers in positive outlets for solving any difficulties they face and to help them to adopt effective strategies for the management of difficulties. In the following part, we attempt a minimal presentation of focused investigation on the need of teachers in the context of counseling and psychological support.

3. Research part

3.1 Research regarding teachers' burnout

According to Chatzipemos (2006), in the communication bulletin of the Company for Psychosocial Health of Children and Adolescents, some research in America and Europe have shown that of all employees in humanistic professions teachers are the ones who are particularly affected. Based on the international literature 5-25% of teachers suffer from the syndrome of burnout, whereas in Greece 10% of teachers are experiencing high emotional exhaustion. In Greece, one of the first significant researches was carried out by Alexopoulos in 1990 (Papagianni & Reppa, 2008).

Due to the extent this phenomenon has reached, there has been a proposal to set up an official body of Counseling and Vocational Guidance, within the framework of Greek Education Directorates, which will address and provide services to teachers (Hatzipanagiotou, 2012).

3.2 Research questions and objectives of the present research

Given that in recent years occupational stress has become a major issue, the following are to be investigated:

- i. The degree of work stress and burnout on the basis of their negative effects on the health of teachers and on their teaching practice.
- ii. The potential usefulness of counseling teachers under these circumstances.
- iii. The context of counseling, as modern teachers need it to be.

3.3 Research methodology

The research problem often dictates methodology (Trow, 1957, as cited in Avramidis & Kaliva, 2006). Thus, in the present investigation, a qualitative approach was chosen, which provides access in depth of the participants' personal perceptions and feelings (Bell, 1999). More specifically, the method of semi-structured interview was used as a data collection tool (Patton, 1987).

The guide of the interview was based on three thematic axes corresponding to research objectives. For the purposes of the investigation we received oral interviews of a total of 10 teachers, five primary school teachers and five secondary school teachers of different specialties from the Prefecture of Evvoia (Greece).

3.4 Data processing based on the thematic axes of the interview

Some insights from the data processing based on the research axes are outlined here:

First research axis:

All teachers interviewed admit to experiencing work stress to a greater or lesser degree and note that many colleagues of theirs are suffering and need help, while teachers of Secondary Education state less vulnerable to such difficulties. Nine out of ten teachers recognize stress as a negative factor in the quality of their work and in their personal lives.

Second research axis:

Counseling as a discipline was not really unheard of, but somewhat vague for nine out of 10 teachers. However, a provider of counseling and psychological support for teachers is characterized not only useful but also needed by the vast majority of the questioned teachers, who listened in surprise and obvious delight about the possibility of being offered such a service in the Greek educational system.

In regard to work factors that cause stress and complicate their daily lives, it could generally be inferred as a result of processing the research data that Counseling will primarily benefit teachers to improve the quality of their relationships, which in schools run in five key areas: Relationships with students, parents, colleagues, the Principal and themselves.

All the teachers, but especially those of primary education, highlighted classroom management problems and the formation of a good attitude toward students with physical or social particularities. Therefore, they consider that Counseling will provide teachers with relevant help and the strength to build a constructive relationship with their students.

Great emphasis was also given to problems related to parents, who are considered to be critically interfering with educational work, causing not only changes in the planned work of teachers, but sometimes they also upset the teachers mentally. In addition, teachers of the research sample believe that parents are often responsible for the less harmonious relationship that is developed between teacher and students.

Accordingly, some teachers make reference to the importance of cooperation with the school principal, especially in matters relating to parents and the problems caused in their communication with their colleagues.

Third research axis:

The views of the questioned teachers converge on the need for a parallel provision of individual or group counseling by a specialist.

4. Conclusions

The main conclusion confirms the results of some quantitative research, which are the most numerous to date on relevant issues: Greek teachers at appreciable rates are experiencing their profession as a stressful one, while this prolonged work-related stress has a direct and substantial effect on their mental and physical health, as well as on their professional performance and their capability to respond adequately to parameters / functions associated with their role as teachers. Consequently, the research demonstrates the need for counseling intervention and psychological support so that teachers be able to protect themselves mentally and to safeguard not only the integrity of their health, but also the performance of their educational work.

Meanwhile, the research data explicitly concludes the influence of burnout on the teachers' personal lives, emphasizing the influence on their family environment. Additionally, significant findings resulting from this research project is that teachers are aware of the role of the Counselor only in the context of learning, which is the only context in which such an institution exists.

It was also found that many of the problems for which the teachers surveyed say they need counseling and psychological support, relate or are identical to the factors of job satisfaction, cited in the theoretical part.

A significant finding arising from this qualitative research is that issues, which psychologically affect a large number of teachers and influence their work to the point that they resent aspects of their profession and seek counseling, are classroom management and the internal turmoil which is caused by student discipline and compliance to rules in the course of teaching, particularly in primary education, their relationships with the students' parents and the special cases of children who need special skills in order to be handled. It is demonstrated, in fact, that Greek teachers do not have adequate psycho educational training, and therefore, this inadequacy might often generate multiple difficulties (Kougioumtzis, 2014b).

An important observation is also a finding that work burnout and the need for Counseling does not necessarily occur regarding age, experience, education levels and the

teacher's gender, but it rather arises from the conditions and the working environment in connection with the idiosyncrasy of the individual (Papagianni & Reppa, 2008).

Given the indicative results of this research and other earlier research which have dealt with the issue, the need for establishing a body of counseling and psychological support for teachers, which will shield their mental health and decisively improve their task performance in a qualitative way, becomes evident. The research participants suggested that there should be a special advisor with double action in schools: Teachers seek both face to face contact with a specialist and private discussions about specific problems that concern them, as well as group communication among teachers, aiming to both theoretical information and experiential action towards farming skills that facilitate management of school problems and impairment of their personal stress.

As a result of the discussion of the results obtained from this research, it is suggested introducing the institutionalization of a counseling and psychological support service exclusively for teachers. At the same time, it is necessary to organize workshops in which teachers will be informed regularly on solving everyday problems at school and urged into reflection (Kougioumtzis, 2014a) and endoscopy, in order to acquire self-knowledge and strengthen their internal forces.

Of course, providing teachers with counseling and psychological support is not a panacea, unless the state provide simultaneous proper care for continuous training, adequate infrastructure, adequate remuneration in conjunction with a moral satisfaction, while giving teachers the opportunity to participate in the general design and planning of educational work.

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Abstract:

The present study refers to dyscalculia, a learning difficulty that is related to mathematics and its use and comprehension by students and adults. Dyscalculia was initially studied about four decades ago and in the past few years it has been a concern of the scientific community more intensely. At the beginning of our work, the definitions that have been given for the examined term of Dyscalculia are presented in time sequence followed by the features that children with dyscalculia display. The categorisations of dyscalculia and the tests that aim at its diagnosis constitute the next parts of the study. More specifically, the study refers to diagnosis in Greece, as well as to indicative ways of intervention for its treatment. The last part of the study is related to special techniques for teaching mathematics to children with dyscalculia and the way in which we can make use of new technologies in the aid of students with dyscalculia, so that they can achieve better results in mathematics.

Keywords: Dyscalculia, diagnosis process, special techniques of treatment, new technologies and dyscalculia

Kakia Dimitra¹ and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹Kakia Dimitra, M.Ed., Mathematician, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: dkakia@hotmail.com

²Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Dyscalculia definition

Dyscalculia is the term that is used to describe the learning difficulties students face in mathematics in a simple but concise way. The term dyscalculia – of Latin origin – has prevailed in international bibliography. Accordingly, we will mention in chronological order the definitions that were given for dyscalculia by various researchers and scientific associations.

Among the pioneers in the recording and study of dyscalculia is Richard Cohn, an American neurologist researcher, who in 1961 (as it is referred in Agaliotis, 2000: 45), in his article that was published in the journal “Archives of Neurology”, supported that: *“the difficulties in the acquisition of mathematical terms, despite the absence of any obvious problem, are likely to be attributed to a dysfunction of the central nervous system (as in a certain developmental disorder), which has similar results to acquired cerebral lesions of adults”*. In order to determine this condition, Cohn introduced the term “dyscalculia”.

Five years later, Luria (1966, as it is referred in Agaliotis, 2000: 49) referred to the opinion that supports that *“the particular disorders of children’s mathematical ability are connected with certain dysfunctions of the brain, like damage of the bregmatic-occipital region, which are connected with difficulties in understanding numbers, while damage in the frontal region causes difficulties in decoding information during “problem solving”*.

A year later, Johnson & Myklebust (1967, as it is referred in Agaliotis, 2000: 51) presented for the first time an analytical description of the phenomenon of dyscalculia making reference to the general abilities and lacks that children with dyscalculia usually have. They, more specifically, referred to the clearly mathematical skills and several fields which present serious difficulties.

The Czech researcher-neuropsychologist Kosc (1974: 165) was the first to give a definition for dyscalculia, which received general acceptance by the scientific and research community in 1974. According to Agaliotis (2011), Kosc (1974: 172), based on the findings of his research in 374 children from Bratislava, reached the conclusion that *“dyscalculia is a structural disorder of mathematical abilities, which is rooted in a genetic or congenital disorder of those brain parts, which are the direct anatomic-physiological sublayers responsible for the maturation of mathematical ability, according to age, without a simultaneous disorder of general intellectual function”*.

This definition emphasises the causes of this condition, which are attributed to a special internal pathology. Also, it should be pointed out that Kosc excludes any other possible causes of dyscalculia in his definition.

The Hungarian researcher M. Sharma in 1986 (as it is referred in Agaliotis, 2011: 87) came up with a definition that is oriented to the functional and observational behaviour of students according to which “*dyscalculia refers to a disorder in the ability of using or learning Mathematics, that is to say a non-sufficiently developed sense of number and numerical relations, as well as a difficulty in learning and applying algorithms*”. Sharma’s definition emphasizes the difficulty which is also implied by the term dyscalculia itself, that is to say, the difficulty in handling numbers and their relations, and presents the obstacles that these students face in their effort to conceive the structure and function of the numerical system.

According to the American Psychiatric Association, Developmental Dyscalculia «is a cognitive disorder of childhood that affects the ability of an otherwise intelligent child to learn Mathematics» (American Psychiatric Association, 1987).

Baroody & Ginsburg (1991) define dyscalculia as a special disorder in learning mathematics and operations, which is connected with an organic disorder.

Lerner (1993) suggests that the term dyscalculia refers to a serious difficulty in learning and using Mathematics. Just like dyslexia, a term used for a serious reading difficulty, dyscalculia bears a medical (neurological) dimension.

The definition given by Geary (2004: 8) for dyscalculia, which is characterized as a special learning difficulty in Mathematics, is that it is “*a mathematic learning disability which can be expressed as a lack of those abilities to handle concepts or processes which determine the field of Mathematics and which, theoretically, are caused either due to underlying lacks in the central executional function or in the linguistic systems of information representation and management or in the optical field*”.

Recently, Szucs and Goswami (2013: 25) “*have defined Developmental Dyscalculia as a standard low mathematical performance of developmental origin, which is related to some kind of cognitive function and representation. This disorder appears when a motivation for the study of Mathematics and typical access to appropriate mathematical education coexist*”. Their research concludes that most of the individuals who are weak in Mathematics, do not necessarily have Developmental Dyscalculia.

Studies that have been conducted in various countries showed that Dyscalculia influences about 3, 5% to 6, 5% of the school population, depending on the country of research, with almost the same frequency in boys and girls. Of course, it should be noted that – as it also emerges from the definition of the American Psychiatric Union – there is a distinction between the terms of Developmental Dyscalculia and acquired Dyscalculia.

When using the term Developmental Dyscalculia, we refer to individuals of school age, who are students who come in contact with Mathematics for the first time and acquire mathematical knowledge and skills. The latter – acquired Dyscalculia – refers to individuals who have learnt Mathematics, but later on, during childhood, adolescence or more often adulthood, they lose this ability due to a certain acquired disorder which has to do with some damage in the brain. This term means that the syndrome of dyscalculia is a mathematical disorder of cognitive nature, which is observed during the stage of development of the individual. It also means that the child's performance in Mathematics is far beneath his intellectual potential.

2. Features of children with dyscalculia according to age

In the following section, we will list certain indicative characteristics that children with dyscalculia have, as they are observed in relation with students' age and educational level (Bafalouka, 2011:23):

Preschool age:

- Difficulty in learning how to count.
- Difficulty in recognizing standardized numbers.
- Difficulty in matching numbers with what they represent (e.g. number 4 with four fingers or four glasses)
- Weak memory in remembering numbers.
- Difficulty in organizing tasks in logical order.

Primary School:

- Difficulty in learning basic arithmetic (mainly subtraction, multiplication and division).
- Inability to solve mathematical problems.
- Difficulty in their long-term memory regarding mathematical terms and functions.
- Inability to familiarize themselves with mathematical language.
- Avoiding strategy games.
- Difficulty in precisely placing numbers on the number line (Papanis& Antena, 2011: 37).
- Difficulty in recalling by memory simple numerical facts, like those of the multiplication table. Even when they have accomplished to learn them after a lot of hard work, they tend to forget them in a very short time.

- Difficulty in calculating mentally and automatically; they insist on counting using their fingers.
- Difficulty in remembering mathematical terminology (e.g. sum, length, numerator, denominator, hypotenuse) (Benianaki, 2011: 74).
- Difficulty in memorising the given and requested data of a problem.

Secondary Education and adulthood:

- Inability to estimate and handle bills (e.g. bill for clothes or food purchases, banking accounts, settlement of a loan etc.).
- Difficulty in handling time and planning.
- Difficulty in learning mathematical terms apart from very simple ones.
- Difficulty in developing strategies for the resolution of mathematical problems.

3. Dyscalculia categorizations

A first categorization of the phenomenon was realized by Kosciuszko, who defined six basic forms of Dyscalculia with the following features:

- i. **Verbal Dyscalculia**, which is expressed with a difficulty in understanding and using mathematical terms and a weakness in verbal attribution of mathematical relations. In verbal Dyscalculia, for example, the child finds difficulty in saying the number that expresses a specific quantity of objects that he sees, in naming a number which is presented to him, in naming the symbols of operations.
- ii. **Practognostic Dyscalculia**, which is related to a difficulty in manipulating real objects and pictures mathematically, a weakness in arranging a number of objects and comparing sizes and quantities. The child, in this case, finds difficulty or is unable to place a number of bars in size order or to compare two bars and understand which one is larger or if they are equal. It is also difficult for the child to group objects and to match them one by one, for example, a number with a certain quantity of pencils.
- iii. **Lexical Dyscalculia**, which becomes evident through a weakness in recognising mathematical symbols, such as digits, numbers, signs of operations. If Lexical Dyscalculia is of a very serious form, the child is likely to be unable to read the numbers or the signs of operations (+, -, * :). Otherwise, if it is of a lighter form, the child cannot read multidigit numbers, especially, if they contain zeros, fractions, decimal numbers, and roots.

- iv. **Ideognostical Dyscalculia**, which is related to a difficulty in understanding mathematical concepts and relations, and performing mental operations. In this case, the child finds it difficult to understand the relative distance of numbers, that the number 2 is closer to the number 3 than to the number 4.
- v. **Operational Dyscalculia**, which refers to the weakness in performing arithmetic operations. In this case, the children find it difficult to remember and follow algorithms. In Functional Dyscalculia, for example, the student confuses operations and performs an addition where he ought to apply a multiplication.
- vi. **Graphical Dyscalculia**, which is a difficulty in handling mathematical symbols in writing, proportional to Lexical Dyscalculia. Graphic Dyscalculia often coexists with dysgraphia and dyslexia. In more serious cases of this form, the child is not in position to write down numbers that are dictated to him, to write numerical words and he might have a problem in copying them as well.

In 1978 S. Farnham-Diggory, based on the research and opinions of Luria, presented a new categorisation of mathematical ability disorders. More specifically, she defined the following four categories of disorders (Agaliotis, 2000: 127):

- i. **Weaknesses in logic and space estimation**, which are expressed with a weakness of the individual to comprehend phrases, such as “the triangle that is found under the circle”, as well as with a difficulty in the writing of multidigit numbers, mainly when these contain the digit “0”.
- ii. **Difficulties in planning**, which become evident by the individual’s difficulty to develop a plan for solving a problem and by how easily he comes up with a solution, without trying to verify it.
- iii. **Insistence in processes** that are no longer appropriate, something that is certified by an effort to reapply certain techniques, ideas or operations which were previously successful or suitable, however, when applied in new conditions, they are not at all suitable.
- iv. **Weakness in the performance** of simple operations, which may coexist with a well sustained ability to understand problems.

Another Dyscalculia categorization was developed by S. N. Badian in 1983 (Kassotaki, 2015: 11). Badian concluded in the following five categories of dyscalculia:

- i. In **numbers alexia or agraphia**, that is to say an inability to recognise and write numerical symbols.
- ii. In **spatial Dyscalculia**, which is a difficulty in estimating the dimensions and relations of space.
- iii. In **difficulty with computational procedures**, which is the inability to implement numerical operations.
- iv. In **attentional sequential dyscalculia**, that is to say a difficulty in maintaining one's attention to a sequence of specific mathematical procedures, such as algorithms.
- v. In the **mixed type**, which includes any possible combination of the previous forms.

4. Diagnosis of dyscalculia

The most reliable way of diagnosing developmental dyscalculia is one's performance at standardised tests, which check arithmetic skills (Griva, 2012). Some of these standardised tests which are used in the last few years in experimental studies for assessment of arithmetic skills are the following:

✚ **Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale IV (SB-IV) – Quantitative Reasoning subtest.** It is a test which measures the level of mathematics reasoning, the ability of applying basic mathematical processes, as well as the level of understanding of mathematical terms, symbols and vocabulary (Griva, 2012)

✚ **Woodcock-Johnson Test of Academic Achievement-Revised (WJ-R) – Calculation subtest, Applied Problems, and Mathematics Reasoning subtest.** This test measures the skills, the precision and the speed in the execution of the four mathematical operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication and division). Additionally, it measures the ability of a person to complete mathematical operations which are based on real world scenarios and their understanding of mathematical terms and quantitative relations (Griva, 2012: 24).

✚ **Arithmetic Battery.** This test checks three elements: one's understanding of numbers and their production of numbers, as well as arithmetic operations. Regarding one's understanding of numbers, the test includes activities in which somebody needs to make use of arithmetic symbols, to put numbers in sequence, to compare arithmetic quantities and recognise number values, depending on the positional value of each digit. Regarding one's production of numbers, activities are implemented where children are asked to count out loud various objects, e.g. full stops, to count reversely, to write down numbers, to sequence numbers vertically, depending on the value of their digits. Finally, regarding arithmetic

operations, children are asked to solve simple arithmetic operations verbally and to perform written calculations up to four-digit numbers (Shalev & Gross-Tsur, 2001: 337-342).

+ Wechsler Individual Achievement Test – Mathematics Reasoning subtest. The activities included in this test evaluate and check basic arithmetic skills, such as counting and the performance of basic arithmetic operations. It is important that this test, contrary to the others, check advanced skills as well, such as the ability to read graphic representations and finding the time (Griva, 2012: 32).

5. Diagnosis of dyscalculia in Greece

In Greece, the institutions responsible for the diagnosis of learning difficulties are CEDDS, (Centres of Differential-diagnosis, Diagnosis and Support), supervised by the Ministry of Education. The interested parent has to address one of these centres or any other equivalent medical-pedagogical centre. The parent or guardian fills in an application form in collaboration with a teacher who will also fill in a form with his observations on the particular child. The main part of diagnosis is undertaken by social workers, psychologists, special educators and teachers of secondary and primary education. The diagnosis begins with the use of a **WISC-III test** (Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children), which helps to examine the intelligence quotients of a child and whether they are in accordance with the child's performance at school (Perikleidakis, 2003: 85).

If there is a significant regression between the child's intelligence quotients and a low performance in non-standardised tests, as well as the personal observations of the examiners, then a diagnosis of dyscalculia is concluded. After our contacting several diagnostic centres, we were informed that there is no specialised standardised test which is used for the diagnosis of dyscalculia in Greece. This fact led us to the conclusion that there are no statistics data or percentages as for children with dyscalculia in Greece. There is a lot of vague information as far as Dyscalculia is concerned and the people responsible claim that the cases of dyscalculia are but a few, without of course making an explicit distinction between dyslectic students and those who face problems in mathematics.

6. Intervention for dyscalculia treatment

Intervention may begin at any phase of school life, though, the faster the difficulties are discovered, the more effective the intervention will be. Also, the programme and the type of intervention should be worked out based on the individualised cognitive profile in Mathematics that was outlined during the evaluation process of learning difficulties. The

outline of individualised profiles in Mathematics may become the base for the teachers' planning guided, and therefore, effective programmes of treating difficulties in Mathematics (Karagiannakis and Cooreman, 2014: 265-275).

The fundamental objective of the expert who will attempt an intervention is the redefinition of the relation between student and numbers specifically and Mathematics in general, with him giving emphasis on the essential understanding of arithmetic terms through making a connection between school Mathematics and the student's everyday life. While designing an intervention programme the hierarchical nature of Mathematics as a course should be taken into account. Thus, any possible difficulties ought to be treated in a targeted and methodical way, starting from those concepts which have not been conquered, regardless of the age of each student (Karagiannakis, 2012:145).

Furthermore, intervention for learning difficulties in Mathematics needs to have two main – equally important – axes: The first one aims at making up for any lack or misinterpretations of previous knowledge, by using as well as discovering a variety of alternative methods to be adapted accordingly to the cognitive profile of each student. The second one ought to meet the requirements of the curriculum, so that the student may cope with the work that he has to do for school, thus, acquiring self-confidence (Kanari, 2011: 57).

Teaching should follow a multi-sensory approach, including tactile, visual and auditory stimuli. Use of special forms of teaching with explicit and reliable educational supervisory material is considered to be essential. For example, the use of cards, a rosary with beads, Cuisenaire bars, a cubic palm or fingers help children to represent numbers simultaneously as quantity, as an Arabic number and as a word. Measuring tape, coins and copies of bank notes as well as parts of the human body can help students approach mathematical terms experientially, in order to connect the usually abstract frame of traditional school Mathematics with that of their everyday life. Allowing the child to interact with the previously mentioned materials, to express his ideas but also his difficulties, creates those conditions appropriate for gaining insight into existing mathematical knowledge and for discovering new one, as well (Perikleidakis, 2003: 77).

In conclusion, Dyscalculia treatment should focus on ways of teaching, which mainly take into consideration the strong features of each student, despite any difficulties they face. In this way, the student will experience a feeling of success in Mathematics, thus ensuring he is positively motivated to continue his effort. On the contrary, teaching and programmes of intervention which aim exclusively at treating the student's weaknesses contribute to recycling the problem and result in further exposure of the student to failures, which are

certain to not constitute a motive for his active involvement (Karagiannakis & Cooreman, 2014: 265-275). Consequently, effective treatment of difficulties in Mathematics begins as soon as the student experiences a feeling of success, acquires self-confidence and believes that it is worth the effort.

7. Special techniques of teaching mathematics to children with dyscalculia

The basic special techniques of teaching Mathematics to children with dyscalculia are presented below:

- Choice of a simple form of the arithmetic operation that complicates the child.
- Oral description of the aim, the practical applications and the stages of arithmetic operations by the teacher (Argyris, 2010: 32).
- Oral detailed presentation of the successive steps of the performance of the operation by the teacher.
- Oral presentation of the steps of the operation by the child, as they were presented previously.
- Written presentation of operation rules by the child, in order to use them whenever it is necessary. Simultaneous learning of rules and memorization of simple operations (multiplication table).
- Familiarization of the student with the visual aspect of the operation performance and the corresponding rules with real actions. The student guides the teacher or his schoolmate during the performance of the operation that he is learning (Markadas, 2011: 86).
- Introduction of concrete material and explanation of the mathematical aspect of the operation. Use of a variety of material and a slow pace of learning (Argyris, 2010).
- The arithmetic operation is performed with written symbols.
- Concern for the treatment of writing-kinetic problems and spatial orientation problems.
- Practice in reading the exercises (Argyris, 2010).
- Use of a microcomputer for checking the answers.
- Recording and analysis of students' errors.
- Generalization and transfer of learning.

8. Computers and dyscalculia

Despite the fact that computers have begun being used in the educational process greatly for a decade now, there are only a few programmes of intervention that have been created exclusively for the treatment of dyscalculia. After meticulous search on the Internet and the

websites of institutions which deal with dyscalculia as well as databases of scientific journals, no software which is used for intervention in children with dyscalculia could be found. On the other hand, most websites are related to the treatment of more general difficulties in mathematics. The software that has been developed in the field of dyscalculia mainly have to do with its diagnosis and they are mostly commercial, for example, “Dyscalculia Screener”.

One of the very few free programmes that we found during our search was “Number Race”, which has been designed by Anna Wilson and Java was used for its construction, so that it could be used in various calculating machines, regardless of the platform and operating system. Its initial development was done in French, while it was immediately after developed in English, German, Swedish and Finnish. A Greek translation followed and it is a freeware (Perikleidakis, 2003: 123).

Computers and generally New Technologies have been incorporated in the Curricula of Studies in our country and since their introduction in education a dialogue concerning their contribution to learning has begun and more specifically their contribution to students with learning difficulties. Of course, we adopt the opinion of many experts who support that computer should not be characterized as the cure-all for the resolution of learning problems. As Stasinou (1989) claims, along with its advantages, the computer also has certain operational attributes that constitute the problem of its weaknesses.

More specifically, he suggests that the verbal messages someone receives via the computer are just monotonous, thus they do not have the human directness that distinguishes the characteristics of human relationships in their natural dimension. It is “artificial speech” which lacks directness and spontaneity, while it works without a conscience and any sentimental tones. Thus, it cannot satisfy the human need for a “warm smile of reward”, a need that is particularly increased among children with learning difficulties and it can't substitute the personality of a teacher, either.

Another equally important problem is the choice of software, since there are programmes that do not promote the process of learning at all (Tzouriadou, 1991: 87). This ascertainment denotes the need for the teacher's continuous updating and follow-up of the developments in the field of educational software. Another problem is to what extent the various software programmes that are in the market and are addressed to teachers and parents have been sufficiently tested as tools and as individual relative applications, before they are finally applied to the children (Markadas, 2011: 42).

There are not many researches which examine the effectiveness of various programmes and whether they actually achieve the objectives that they have set. This is the reason why it

is supported that it is necessary to develop new educational methods which will successfully incorporate the right use of computers in the learning process. However, in all fairness, in the last few years there has been an explicit orientation to this direction. It is obvious that both the hardware and the software should be adapted to suit children with learning difficulties (Stasinou, 2013: 286). It is a fact that technology and computers bear great capacities for supporting children with dyslexia and dyscalculia. However, these capacities might as well remain but a prospect, if the educational system does not create the suitable conditions, in order for the teachers to be able to apply different and creative solutions, which correspond to the needs of our students. Accordingly, the development of a more open and more flexible curriculum is considered essential.

Such a curriculum is not only essential for a more substantial integration of children with dyslexia and dyscalculia in the classroom and for all the children with learning difficulties (2001), but also for a more effective introduction of ICT in daily teaching reality. It should be pointed out that both primary and high school teachers are being educated on the use of ICT in increasing numbers and they are not cautious of the use of computers in daily school practice (Stasinou, 2013: 257).

Consequently, making use of these two important steps in combination with the design of programmes concurrent with the needs of children with learning difficulties, may provide more effective ways of supporting this particular group of students.

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Website

<http://www.dyslexia.gr/index.php/learning-disabilities/dysarithmisi>

Mentoring Guidance and Education

*I turn my experience into a stepping stone
to help you climb a little bit higher[...]
Anonymous*

Abstract:

Mentoring, otherwise known as guidance of new teachers by their more experienced peers, constitutes one of the most successful forms of professional counseling. This institution was first encountered at the end of the 1970s. In 2010, the Ministry of Education in Greece held a public consultation in order to create the future mentoring programmes. Within the same framework, the requirements, qualifications and duties of mentors were defined, as was the duration of the mentor-mentee relationship and issues to be addressed. However, the institution of mentoring is virtually inactive in Greece, since the mentoring programmes have not yet been officially implemented. The advisory relationship between the mentor and newly-appointed teacher should be developed within a framework of open discussion and should be characterized by full understanding and unconditional acceptance. Concerning their personal and professional development, the beneficial effects of mentoring for both involved parties are multiple. Also, it is ultimately the function of schools themselves which is enhanced indirectly through the improvement of the quality of teaching.

Key Words: mentoring, mentor-guide, mentee, teacher, school, benefits, potential drawbacks

**Louka Dimitra¹, Petsiou Charikleia², Papagiannaki Niki³, Tzanopoulou Kyriaki⁴ and
Kougioumtzis Georgios⁵**

¹Louka Dimitra, Ph.D., Social Anthropology, M.Ed. Leadership in Education, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: dimlouka@hotmail.com

² Petsiou Charikleia, Mathematician, M.Ed. Leadership in Education, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: harapetsiou@yahoo.gr

³ Papagiannaki Niki, Social Worker, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: vittorian@gmail.com

⁴ Tzanopoulou Kyriaki, Business Administration, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: ktzanopoulou@hotmail.com

⁵ Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa

1. Introduction

Both in Greece and in other countries, it has been noted that teaching staff with experience of ten years or more have not received support or guidance from a more experienced teacher who could take on the official role of mentor. Instead, inexperienced teachers received training and support through their colleagues or from informal sources of knowledge.

Over the past twenty years, a considerable number of schools have implemented educational programmes for the support of newly-appointed teachers, which involved collaboration between the latter and an older, more experienced teacher who served as mentor (Rowley, 1999: 20). In addition, mentoring can be applied with equally positive results to more experienced teachers, as was proven by a recent study in Greece (Kougioumtzis, 2014a: 1).

The educational system in Greece introduced the institution of mentors through Law 3848/2010 ar. 4 par. 5, 6, 7. According to this law, every newly-appointed teacher is to be prepared for their teaching duties and trained to adjust to the teaching environment they are joining during their first two years of service. After this, the school inspector responsible for this stage of the process collaborates with the school principal to select a teacher with greater experience, either from within the same school or the same group of schools, who is to be appointed as “mentor” of his new colleague.

2. The term of Mentoring and its application to work

Through the study of relevant bibliography, it can be concluded that there is not one single term which is universally accepted, therefore making it impossible to fully understand the meaning of mentoring (Kemmis, Heikkinen, Fransson, Aspfors & Edwards-Groves, 2014: 155). The term "mentoring" stems from the English language, but originally derives from Greek (Roberts, 2000: 145-168; Asande, 2011: 23, as cited in Kougioumtzis, 2015: 75). In the English bibliography, different terms are alternately used, such as “mentoring”, “coaching” or “supervision” (Sundli, 2007: 206), while its meaning is approached as an ambiguous practice (Kemmis et al., 2014: 155). A mentor constitutes a “parental figure, a counselor, a supporter, a teaching role model, a coach and a guide” (Hall, Draper, Smith & Bullough, 2008: 328).

In this paper, mentoring is accepted as a process, with emphasis on the long term advisory relationship (Mentorship) which is formed between an experienced teacher in the role of Mentor and a less experienced teacher in the role of Mentee (Theodorou & Petridou,

2014: 144). The aim of this relationship is to enhance the Mentee's knowledge and to aid his professional development (Bullough, 2012: 63). This form of guidance can be applied within different and distinguishable frameworks, and its starting point can be found in both a group of specific aims and several theoretical approaches (Dominguez & Hager, 2013). At the same time, its implementation varies in its duration, its methods and its intensity⁶ (Bullough, 2012).

3.The specific qualities of a mentor

The main quality that a mentor should possess is dedication to the duty which he/she has taken on. To begin with, the mentor should receive training through certain programmes which will clearly define the aspects of his/her role. He/she understands that that his/her position requires effort, constantly being kept updated and generally dedicating time and energy to the task at hand. At the same time, he/she must seek training in relation to the tools which will help him/her achieve his/her aims, as well as keeping up-to-date with scientific studies and developments in the field. (Rowley, 1999: 21).

According to Kougioumtzis (2014b: 10), "apart from the knowledge already acquired and the opinion already formed, it is often necessary for the guide to expand his/her knowledge, to readjust his/her assessments, to rethink his/her judgments and to shift the point of view through which he/she approaches the educational reality". Therefore, the mentor should be in a position to readjust and enrich his/her skills, the knowledge he/she has acquired, while respecting the mentee's character, rather than aiming to create a mere transmitter of his/her own ideas. All of the above constitute the qualities of a properly trained mentor (Lasley, 1996: 66).

Based on the personality theory of Carl Rogers (1957: 95-103), the foundations of the relationship between the newly-appointed teacher and the mentor should be understanding, empathy, acceptance without criticism and generally psychological and emotional support. The mentor should be free of egoism and should not treat his/her new colleague as ignorant, naïve or underqualified for the position he/she is being trained for. A mentor should be able to set aside his/her personal beliefs and values and accept the new teacher as he/she is, while dealing with potential weaknesses as challenges, upon which he/she will work to turn them into strengths. He/she should take into consideration any concerns the mentee may have, as well as the stage of professional development the trainee is at, using all this as a reference in order to improve his/her teaching performance (Hobson et al., 2009: 209).

⁶ In the bibliography relevant to the stages of professional development, different distinctions between the stages can be encountered, depending on parameters such as years of professional experience, personal development, interventions of the state (Papanaoim, 2005) and the development of the school (Xohellis, 2006).

The main method to be used on the part of the mentor should be a dialogue based on common experience, with an aim to enhancing the latter. This can be achieved either through joint teaching sessions, through the mentee's observation of the mentor's teaching methods, through the joint planning of a teaching session, or through joint observation of other teachers' teaching methods. (Rowley, 1999: 21).

Through his/her training as a mentor, he/she must realize that the most important element in the guiding process is description rather than interpretation. The interpersonal relationship which is formed between the parties (mentor and mentee) is unique and special, and the former is obliged to understand the needs of the latter, through the use of the means with which his/her training has equipped him/her. A fundamental factor which will determine this is self-awareness and knowledge of his/her own communicative abilities, as well as objective observation of the trainee's teaching, to whatever extent this is possible (Rowley, 1999: 22). The mentee should be trained in such a way that he/she can freely choose to take on responsibility (Lasley, 1996: 67).

The mentor who always has the most "correct" answers to every question and the "best" solutions to every problem that may arise is rarely appreciated by the mentee. The mentor's attitude should encourage the "correct" answers and solutions to arise through the mentee's research experience. The relationship between the two parties (the mentor and the teacher) should be characterized by equality and interaction. The trainer should be open to learning from the trainee too, as he/she is not only giving, but also receiving training. He/she aims to achieve professional development through attending seminars, reading articles written by other professionals in the field, but also through writing his/her own work. However, the most important characteristic should be that he/she listens to any queries on the part of the teacher and communicates his/her knowledge (Rowley, 1999: 22).

The mentor's ability to transfer to the mentee his/her faith and positive belief that any person can turn a present challenge into a future important achievement is of great importance (Lasley, 1996: 69). The mentor should not miss a chance to stress the importance of human dynamics and prospects, as he/she is open-minded and so secure in his/herself that he/she can share his/her personal difficulties with the teacher, as well as the process through which he/she overcame these in the past.

4. Benefits of using mentoring in Education

When the advisory relationship is characterized by equality on a collaborative and communicative level, then the benefits of mentoring will be not only numerous but also

important, with a positive effect on all parties involved (Gilbreath, Rose & Dietrich, 2008: 379-393). More specifically, within the educational framework, the mentor, the mentee and the school which constitutes the framework within which successful guidance will take place, will all benefit (Fragoulis & Valkanos, 2011: 3). A more detailed outline of the benefits to all three involved parties follows.

4.1 Benefits for the mentee

The process of mentoring helps the mentees to feel more resilient, thus enabling them to achieve their goals in a more determined way, while simultaneously deriving greater satisfaction from their work. Andrews (1987, as cited in Kalogirou, Spyropoulou & Pandeli, 2010: 200), mentions that the institution of mentoring enhances the development of newly-appointed teachers. This particular form of development is personal, because through the support they receive, their confidence is enhanced, thus visibly improving their psychological state. On a secondary level, this leads to a smoother transition to the next stages of their life.

The development of newly-appointed teachers is professional too, as mentoring constitutes an intermediate stage between academic theory and professional practice, while offering the opportunity for lifelong learning and development (Gotovos, Mavrogiorgos & Papakonstantinou, 2000). Additionally, the improvement of a teacher's teaching ability and performance can come about when successful strategies are implemented on his/her part. The support offered by a mentor and the empathy which he/she provides within the advisory relationship, helps teachers with their professional enhancement, as well as with the acquisition of further professional experience.

This development is also social. Through the enhanced social skills that teachers acquire, they can strengthen their position among their colleagues. They can also develop social relationships within the school framework, thus eradicating any feelings of isolation that are often associated with professionals entering a work environment which is new to them.

4.2 Benefits for the mentor

The mentor focuses on how to meet the mentee's needs in the best possible way within the work environment (Everard & Morris, 1999: 45). At the same time, it seems that the mentor himself/herself also benefits through the process of professional mentoring on a personal, professional and social level.

The mentor's personal belief in what he/she is capable of achieving is enhanced, he/she can improve his/her self-image, and consequently his/her self-confidence is boosted.

He/she is also inspired by the mentee's creativity and energy, while moving in the direction of self-improvement through teaching. In the international bibliography, it is emphasized that there are possible benefits to be gained by the mentor through the opportunity to critically assess his/her own practice (Simpson, Hastings & Hill, 2007, as cited in Hobson et al., 2009: 209).

On a professional level, the mentor is provided with the opportunity to climb the professional ladder through the professional recognition which he/she achieves (Hagger & McIntyre, 2006), while developing his/her skills through the acquisition of knowledge during his/her advisory relationship with the mentee (Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005). On a social level, the mentor is constantly discovering new challenges and his/her actions can have a beneficial effect on the next generations of teachers. Finally, through the constant enhancement of his/her effective communication skills (Moor et al., 2005), the mentor manages to gain recognition, initially among his/her colleagues and consequently on a broader social level.

4.3 Benefits for the school

According to Papanis (2011), international research has shown that teachers who used to partake in a relationship of professional guidance, now form better relationships with the students, parents and colleagues. They motivate their students and promote collaboration. Therefore, mentoring reconstructs the atmosphere and functionality of a school on multiple levels. Teamwork is encouraged, participation in group projects is increased and trust among colleagues is enhanced. It can therefore be concluded that mentoring upgrades the overall function of the school, by bringing about changes in school culture. Educational services are improved through the adoption of positive practices and the introduction of innovative actions. Teachers themselves aim to constantly improve themselves in their professional role and as a result, the school functions more successfully by meeting its targets (Koutouzis, 1999: 172).

5. Potential drawbacks of mentoring

Despite the benefits that all involved parties can derive from an applied mentoring process, the possible appearance of certain impeding factors should not be ignored. Insufficient training, limited experience, inadequate interest and difficulties that the mentor may face in committing to an advisory relationship, could all lead the mentee to be less willing to collaborate. The same applies to cases where the mentoring programme is inadequately designed (Theodorou & Petridou, 2014: 145). In fact, trust is the basis upon which every advisory relationship should be built.

Obstacles in communication, mutual lack of recognition of the relationship, insufficient time and competitive behavior can all negatively affect the relationship between mentor and mentee. (Clutterbuck, 2004: 42). Additionally, the process of mentoring can be oppressive, leading the mentee to feel as if there is lack of freedom, in the event that the mentor tries to impose his/her own programme. Through his/her role, the mentor should respect the mentee's freedom and autonomy. Accommodating and making use of errors is equally important, but more importantly, a mentor should have faith in the mentee's developmental potential, as well as trust in his/her ability to make decisions.

6. Conclusions

New trends in education, as recorded in the international bibliography, promote the need for the introduction of improvement methods regarding all integral parts of the school community. Through the institution of mentoring, the need that teachers have to reevaluate and critically assess situations, is intertwined with the need for improvement and a monitored supportive relationship within the framework of the school.

Through the study of the selected Greek and English bibliography, the benefits and multiple uses of the institution of mentoring can easily be noted, as mentoring supports teachers, in that it helps them form their identity (self-perception) and familiarizes them, while smoothing out any conflict that may arise in their relationship with the educational process. Mentoring can be classified under the general discussion which has arisen due to the new conditions which exist in schools and the necessary action which needs to be taken to form educational policies, in order to enable teachers to meet the changing needs of modern society.

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Applied Philosophical Counseling and Education

Abstract:

In the present study, the application of philosophical counseling in education through the “Philosophy for Children” program is being considered. The “Philosophy for Children” program may benefit participants in three levels: (a) The intellectual level through setting aims concerning comprehension, analysis, argumentation, development of critical, logical and creative thinking, (b) the social level through active listening, respect for the views of others, children's proper function within the group, a democratic attitude, lenience and big-heartedness towards different views and (c) the existential level through the gradual composition of student identity, the acquisition of self-consciousness, the upgrading of their self-awareness, self-observation and the emergence of moral values.

Keywords: Philosophy for children, applied counseling, education

Papapetrou Vassiliki¹ and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹ Papapetrou Vassiliki, Philologist, M.Ed., Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: vasoup@gmail.com

² Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. The theoretical framework of “Philosophy for Children”

Philosophy for Children (Pfc) is considered a new movement which appeared in America in the early 1970s, by Matthew Lipman being its innovative rapporteur. This pioneering introduction has a philosophical and pedagogical background. It sets the basic principle that philosophy constitutes an activity which needs to be exercised by preschool and primary school children through research, dialogue and critical process. Teachers are those who coordinate this activity, and the reason for the beginning of the activity can be a fairy tale or even a song.

Lipman, who was deeply influenced by the philosophy of Socrates, adopts philosophy in its interactive form. Philosophy, according to Socrates, does not either constitute an account of theories or an acquisition of knowledge, nor a trade but a method to lead a quality life (Vlastos, 1996). The “Philosophy for Children” program is addressing those children who have reached a basic level in language. For this reason, the program starts at a preschool age and is not addressed to younger ages, in which children can carry out logical reasoning, but they are not able to express thoughts linguistically. The program is founded on the Socratic Method, whereby the student expresses conquered knowledge under the supervision of a teacher, but he or she has not been able to express it clearly up to now (Papapetrou, Stavropoulou & Kougioumtzis, 2015: 203-210).

Matthew Lipman challenged the Cartesian philosophical tradition which asserts that philosophy transcends childhood limits, since children are not able to reflect on their own or develop arguments, as they have not gained the necessary level of abstract thinking. Matthew Lipman condemned this view, by conducting his own research with children, through which he demonstrated what he embraced as a theory (Eleftherakis et al., 2011: 4-5). He himself wrote the first philosophical novel for children: The “Harry Stottlemeier’s Discovery” (Lipman, 1982), which narrates the adventures of Harry and his companions, who have discussions about the outside world, knowledge and the mind. The heroes’ discussions introduce children to fundamental philosophical problems, while at the same time they raise issues and debate among them. The book was taught at a piloting stage at Montclair Public School in New Jersey in 1970 with admirable response. In the mid-70s the Institute for the Advancement of Philosophy for Children was established, also known as IAPC.

Lipman applied his method comprising empirical research. His first story entitled “Harry Stottlemeier’s Discovery” was implemented on a group of primary school children in a pilot phase for nine weeks, twice a week, 40 minutes each time. These children were tested on their ability to make arguments (reasoning) both during the period preceding and the

period succeeding their attendance of the philosophy program. There has, therefore, been evident improvement of children's reasoning capability, after joining this program, which affected beneficially the formation of the "movement" which in our time has prevailed as "Philosophy for Children" (Brandt, 1988: 34-35).

"Philosophy for Children" promotes "superior" thinking (higher order thinking), the main variables of which are critical thinking, creative thinking and "collaborative" thinking or caring thinking. Collaborative thinking implies that each member who takes part in a discussion is motivated to structure and communicate his/her thoughts with the people in the group who collaborate with him/her in the discussion (Bernstein, 2002: 17-24). These variables inevitably result in the improvement of the quality of life in a well-governed society, an element, which according to Lipman, constitutes the orientation of "Philosophy for Children" (Lipman, 1998).

Of course, there had been Kant who argued that people need to learn -and practise- thinking from an early age (Kant, 1979: 42-52). PFC was founded on this philosophical principle in 1960 in America, where the first projects were recorded. Specifically, the National Institute of Education at a conference under the auspices of the Centre for Learning Research and Development of the University of Pittsburgh, explained the urgency to identify those educational practices appropriate to enhance children's skills regarding thinking, understanding and learning (Meimeti, 2011: 32). In this way, the usefulness of teaching general thinking and, in particular, critical thinking emerges (Lipman, 2006: 47).

Nowadays, more than fifty countries around the world have incorporated the course "Philosophy for Children" in the curriculum of primary and secondary education, and have prepared several specific handbooks for children and teachers at an experimental level (childrenandphilosophy.webnode.com).

"Philosophy for Children" has been founded on theories of important philosophers. Lipman, before formulating the syllabus of the PFC, looked into the philosophy of Socrates, whose Method inspired him, as well as into the idea of philosophy as a way of life. Lipman has also been greatly influenced by Wittgenstein (1922,) regarding the adoption of philosophy as a technique and complex social relations, which are expressed through the subtlety of language. Gilbert Ryle (1954) who analyzed the relationship between language, education and self-learning has also been a great influence on him, whereas George Herbert Mead (1910) dealt with the social nature of the self (Naji, 2005: 4). John Dewey (1980, 1982), Lev Vygotsky (1993) and Piaget (1979) also had a decisive impact on Lipman's work, regarding its educational, psychological and social dimension.

Specifically, John Dewey emphasized the thought of a child in the classroom, the creation and expression of emotions. According to this great educator, learning takes place through experience, which results from the interaction of the child with the environment (“learning by doing”). Learning is achieved through reflection (Kougioumtzis, 2014: 120-126) of our daily experiences and by establishing relationships with the social environment (Glassman, 2001: 8). This was the reason why he opted for the formation of a curriculum based on the social life of the learner. He disapproved of the allocation of teaching material in subjects. He even made a counter-proposal to form the curriculum based on authentic situations which might arise from the interaction with the wider social environment (Cyprian, 2007: 211), just as in the PFC program. Something similar is also noted in the range of topics covered by the teaching material. According to Dewey, it is advisable that the content of the teaching material be adapted to meet the age requirements and interests of the learners. In this way, children will be given the opportunity to discuss subjects appropriate for their age. At the same time, they will have the opportunity to focus on their inclinations and to indulge in their favourite pastimes in a more systematic way (Gasparatou, 2012).

Lev Vygotsky acknowledged and supported the interaction between discussion in the classroom and the mind of the child, between the child and society- thanks to the “politically correct” mediation of the teacher and finally the interaction between the language at an adult life stage and the increasingly cultivated mental perception of the child. Meanwhile, he also held dear the idea that mental adequacy was based on social interaction (Vygotsky, 1993) and that it is a process that has a direct connection with the historical, social and cultural dimension of the framework within which it takes place (Fisher, 2008: 46). Language plays a key role within this framework, functioning as a cultural countervailing factor, as it is through language that children practise structuring their thinking, sensing their environment and form their identity. The impact of cultural elements – which help in the process of creating their cognitive structures – is an unavoidable consequence of the above (Fisher, 2008: 19).

The teacher’s role in this process is regulatory: he/she is scanning the children's actions in an attempt to detect the level of their knowledge while providing them with the appropriate supervision and assistance with a view to enhance their mental development. Specifically, the teacher, based on the approach of Vygotsky, works interactively with children, assigning himself the role of a tutor, coordinating, and directing children and offering his/her assistance whenever they actually need it. Of course, it is not only the teacher who offers assistance to the children in case they do not have the necessary tools to face mental challenges. The role of more capable peers, who operate as connoisseurs of the subject

in question, is also important. As a result the dialogue among the children becomes more creative and prosperous (Knight & Collins, 2010: 315).

Vygotsky called this activation process of the children's potential skills Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). He defined it as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, as cited in Mooney, 2000: 147).

Jean Piaget highlighted the relations between thinking and behavior in the theory of constructivism, according to which children are placed in the center of the educational process, thus supporting a child-centered learning. Children learn through experience by autonomous interaction with the same objects. In this way, they gradually build knowledge about the real world (Forman & Landry, 2006: 301-303). The way teachers could intervene is by asking questions that encourage children to "think critically about their experiences" (Nourot, 2006: 74-76).

Lipman is inspired by Piaget with respect to the structure of an analytical "Philosophy for Children" program in levels, so that certain philosophical concepts are reflected at each level which are then "taught" to children. Lipman appears to take into account both the age of the children and their mental maturity.

Meanwhile, Piaget supported the view that whatever children do, they need it to incorporate some meaning. This view is adopted by Splitter & Sharp (1995: 22), who argue that young children cannot benefit when they come into contact with adult words and theories that have no meaning to them. This results in their inability to understand what has not emerged from their own experience.

The basic dimension of Wittgenstein's philosophy embedded in the philosophy program for children of Lipman, is the view of philosophy as an activity. According to Lipman, philosophy is not the study and indulgence in the work of important philosophers, but mainly the supply of skills for clear thinking and reasoning. Lipman recognizes that philosophy is not a set of new knowledge but a technique through which children can face the difficulties of everyday life critically, as in Wittgenstein's philosophy (Lipman, 1988; Fisher, 2008).

As Wittgenstein says, "philosophy is not teaching but an activity. A philosophical work consists essentially of clarifications. The result of philosophy is not to make philosophical proposals, but to clarify these proposals. Philosophy should clarify and strictly define thoughts that are usually, sort of speak, blurred and confusing" (Tr. 4.112). Its main

concern is to avert misunderstandings, to clarify proposals and eliminate any metaphysical elements and eventually neutralize any possible philosophical problem that may occur (Tr. 4113).

The crucial role of Ryle (*The concept of Mind*), who is considered to be one of the architects of behaviorism, is evident-even indirectly- in the “Philosophy for Children” that Lipman creates. Lipman is inspired mainly by an article written by Ryle, titled “Formal and Informal Logic”, which is included in his book entitled *Dilemmas* (1954). In this article, Ryle separates logic in formal and informal (formal and informal logic), and through this distinction he demonstrates the differentiation between logical (formal logicians) and philosophers (general philosophers): The first ones believe that philosophical problems have a logical basis and can only be solved by logicians because they are the ones who have the appropriate methods and techniques, while philosophers argue that a philosophical problem ceases to be interesting, if it only requires logical-mathematical ways of approach.

According to logicians, words, e.g. “If”, “then”, “not”, which are included in proposals of reason, are neutral and are used to structure proposals and allow their logical analysis. On the other hand, philosophers argue that they do not use neutral words, but words with conceptual meaning, for example, the word “bliss”. Therefore, content also matters, and not only form (Ryle, 1954).

Ryle (1954: 118-120) embraces the view that any conceptual meaning has been removed from “neutral” words of logic, such as “if”, “then”, but if such words are incorporated into recommendations, then they are coated with a different meaning, depending on the way these “neutral” words are linked to the rest of the syntax.

Ryle, indeed, detects restrictions in the conceptual neutrality of words, that is, there are words more neutral than others. For example, the conjunction “and” in the sentence “She drank arsenic and she is ill”, completely transforms the meaning turning it into a meaningless sentence if the terms that “and” links are reversed “She is ill and she drank arsenic” (Ryle, 1954: 118).

Lipman employs the techniques of logicians, such as “neutral” words, in order to introduce children into their role within the proposals in a ludic way, with a view to construct credible reasoning. Children can employ these words to generate reflections, even if they cannot explain the grammatical and syntactic status of those words (Lipman, 1988; Fisher, 2008).

Mead values education as the exchange of ideas between students and teacher, through conducting discussions in the classroom. The school curriculum material need not be offered

as knowledge derived from an external source, but it ought to be presented in the form of problems, which have direct links with the children's experiences. Therefore, the dialogues in the classroom are related to a subject, which the teacher makes sure to "distil" through children's experiences (Mead, 1910). Mead recognizes that an exploratory way of conversation is the most effective way to organize the classroom. In a classroom, in which conversation has an exploratory nature, children cultivate active listening skills and build their views on the views of others, by enriching them.

Mead, also makes specific reference to the textbooks used, which must be direct and "vivid" to comply with the age, interests and needs of children. Mead dreams of a classroom in which passivity among students will not exist. Mead's views find direct application both in the methodology and the textbooks suggested by Lipman (Lipman, 1988).

By applying philosophical counseling for children, students are able to develop their confidence in order to project similar views for a team. It is vital for children to acquire life skills such as independence, socialization and mental skills that will help them improve their versatility and adaptability to a variety of life situations. Otherwise, they will face difficulties to deal with adverse psychological states in their adult life (Lipman, 1988; Fisher, 2008).

Philosophical counseling to children usually refers to linguistic skill. For example, when the child learns different words relating to anger, he/she is unable to differentiate their description concerning the graduation of this feeling. Thus, the child is able to distinguish between the concepts of "anger" and "mischief" both conceptually and verbally. Then, it is actually much easier for the child and their environment to better understand the feelings of the child itself and to deal with them more effectively (Genishi & Dyson, 1984; Schiefelbusch & Pickar, 1984).

It is important that counseling to students should be initiated by an understanding of their advantageous position, despite the hypothetical conversation, with the teacher posing questions tailored to suit their own language. Philosophical dialogues among students are usually carried out using a much more limited vocabulary. However, simple language must not be identified with simplistic thinking. Philosophical counseling for children is an advisory field which employs the dialectic method and is based on a number of topics, mainly developed by Matthew Lipman under the "Philosophy for Children Program" framework. This approach focuses on the concept of the "community of questions" with the help of which children learn to respect, listen and understand a wide range of views (Raabe, 2000).

Counseling for children is in fact a difficult task, since it is difficult to be a child and discuss with an adult. Lipman's program (2002, 2006) was structured around four axes, which

are labeled with numeric notation in one of the two acronyms as P4C: the concepts of “community”, “philosophical inquiry”, “student-centralized approach” and “reflection”. The detailed program of Lipman is structured in levels, which target different age groups of children and their particular interests. Each level uses a short novel in teaching, whose main character is a child at the same age of the children that the novel addresses. The novel’s hero either directly or indirectly raises concerns which are viewed as cognitive and emotional stimuli while they effectively activate the children’s interest and lead to the beginning of an exploratory dialogue between the children and the teacher in the classroom.

The concept of community refers to a group of people (social setting), who seek to use dialogue (interaction among participants), in order to study concepts arising from a text. Particular emphasis is given to the collective spirit of “Philosophy for Children”. The children of a class read a short story “out loud” and highlight the main points of the text. Then, the children present their views on the issue under discussion with proper motivation from the teacher or from each other, and making use of the Socratic Method. This presentation of their views is performed in an atmosphere of mutual respect, “discipline” and active listening while complementing one another. All their views are noted down in a table along with the name of the person who bears each idea (Lipman, 1998: 1-6).

The notion of philosophical inquiry refers to the diverse views expressed on the same subject, due to the different types of intelligences of the students and their different perspectives on the issue in question. In this way, a synthesis of different views is achieved, which gives the opportunity to all the children to share their thoughts and evaluate collaboratively which of these views prevail. This process involves argumentation but without the need of classifying views as “correct” or “incorrect” (fallibilism) (Lipman, 1998: 1-6).

The process of philosophical inquiry, within the research community, takes place at both an individual and a collective level. Each child presents his own ideas, but if new knowledge is to be accomplished, there must be an input from all participants, who collectively think like a “big mind”. Everybody, through philosophical research, asks questions on a topic that stimulates reflection. The classroom is converted into a field of mutual sharing of views with adequate and logical reasoning. Children think critically on the ideas that have been presented so far. Through critical thinking, the ideas expressed are improved or totally transformed in order for everyone to reach one single view which will be both a stimulus and a starting point for further discussion (Coles, 1991: 35).

Reading stories, as incentive to start a philosophical debate, according to Wartenberg (2009), meets two children features: the need of children to discuss issues related to the real world and whatever upsets them so as to be able to understand it.

Lipman's movement "Philosophy for Children", (1988, 2002, 2006) promotes the idea that the practice of philosophy as a practical activity in the classroom –and not limited to absolute mental activity – can deliver multiple benefits at three levels, which affect one another: the individual, the social, the state. Its main implementation tools are the following: (a) inquiry-based learning in the context of (philosophical) community (community of inquiry), (b) a process of discursive confrontation of views (debate) and (c) the mastery of thought processes (thinking) and reflection (reflective thinking or thinking about thinking). This method aims to: (a) the framing of cultivation of rationality (critical thinking at Lipman, 2006: 24), creativity and autonomy of thinking (critical, creative, inclusive), (b) shaping the character and structuring the child's personality, through the gradual emergence of his identity, acquiring self-consciousness, developing ethical, emotional and cognitive skills, (c) education for active citizenship in the direction of forming a citizen with morals and an attitude inspired by democracy. A citizen who is tolerant and lenient towards the diversity of others and against the use of violence. A citizen who is a devotee of peace, (d) offer assistance to the conquest of language use mainly oral and (e) the updating of teaching relating to the learning of philosophical thought itself (Chatzistefanidou, 2011: 6). Generally, the Pfc program aims to:

- ✚ Elicit the views and opinions of students on the issue in question (Eliciting Views or Opinions) (Lipman, Sharp, & Oscanyan, 1980: 113).
- ✚ Provide a frame for the students to express their thoughts through the process of clarification and restatement (Helping Students express themselves: Clarification and Restatement).
- ✚ Interpret themselves or provide assistance to the children to clarify their views (Explicating students' views).
- ✚ Frame the students to explain their positions (Interpretation).
- ✚ Emphasize the continuity of consistency (Seeking consistency).
- ✚ Inquire explanations on the views expressed (both the teacher and children) (Requesting Definitions).

- ✚ Support children to use words accurately so that they are perceived by the rest of the audience.
- ✚ Give guidance to children about how they can discover faults and inaccuracies in the wording of reasoning (Indicating Fallacies).
- ✚ Address children and ask them to analyze their arguments so as to establish their positions (Requesting Reasons).
- ✚ Elicit from children any supplementary ideas so they can establish their positions and submit these ideas under critical scrutiny, along with children (Eliciting and Examining alternatives) (Lipman et al., 1980: 114-124).

2. Stories as educational material

The selection of sources is considered to be of outmost importance, because it has an effect on learning interaction, thereafter. The material generated by the teacher's research, is one that stimulates thinking, in order to realize philosophical research. For this reason it is advisable that the selected material should include challenges. It should also be pleasant and ambiguous and trigger the minds of children allowing them to reflect and formulate questions, as opposed to materials that highlight a particular way of thinking (Haynes, 2009: 62-63). A subtler and well worded story may attract the children's interest and provide safeguards for the participation of everyone in the philosophical research (Fisher, 2008: 75).

For a story to be considered as subtler it needs to address the emotions, memory and imagination of each child (Fisher, 2008: 75). An emblematic element of these stories is that they have the advantage to mold other worlds that, while distracting us from present time, they simultaneously unite us with it, and indeed, it is found that, as a figment of human imagination, the stories are consistent with human life (Fisher, 2008: 73-76).

Furthermore, these stories are aligned with human life at another point which is structure. Like human life, they have a beginning, middle and end. In stories, however, the end is immediately disclosed. The ending is what closes what has already started at the beginning of the story and takes place in the course. Therefore, one can draw conclusions from the story and be guided by satisfaction with the outcome – related to “catharsis” experienced by the ancient through the teaching of tragedies (Fisher, 2008: 73-74).

The curriculum of the PfC is divided into levels, which are consistent with the various age groups of children and their particular interests. At each level, a short story is “presented”

starring a child of the same age as the children being taught. The hero of the story poses direct or indirect questions which trigger reflection. These questions act as cognitive and emotional challenges while they are linked to the interests of students and start an extensive philosophical discussion in the classroom (Lipman, 1988: 146-147).

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The Teacher's Role as a Counselor

Abstract

As society evolves and people's needs proliferate, the role of education is increasingly decisive for the qualitative reform of everyday life. As part of this special assessment the teacher assumes the role of an early counselor within the school environment, besides that of a teacher. Particular reference is made to socio-educational models, to school-family collaboration and communication skills, as well as to those aspects that highlight the status of the teacher as a counselor.

Keywords: Socio-educational models, school-family collaboration, communication skills, the teacher as a counselor

Louka Dimitra¹ and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹ Louka Dimitra, Ph.D., Social Anthropology, MEd Leadership in Education, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: dimlouka@hotmail.com

² Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gekougioum@ppp.uoa

1. Introduction

In modern conditions of global mobility and the ever-growing economic crisis, teachers, educational leaders and the school community in general have to manage a variety of emerging needs of students which are a result of differing cultural experiences and images, low economic status, violence and special family circumstances (Walsh, Howard & Buckley, 1999). In this context, the provocative or deviant behaviour of a student is regarded as a consequence of behavioural and emotional disorders that affect his development in every aspect of his life, while he is placed in a high risk position regarding school success (Kaiser & Rasminsky, 2009).

2. Socio-educational models

2.1. Critical-sociological model

According to the critical-sociological model, the described situation is the result of standard norms and Reasons on what is correct / appropriate which are displayed by institutionalized education policy. Normalising school practices integrate the divergent student in "special" cases, whether we refer to a person with disabilities, or a learning disability or of different origin, through the concepts of diversity, divergence and disability, which are used as reasons to exclude these students from the educational norm (Erevelles, 2006: 366).

The kind of relationships that these specific students will establish with adults in the school environment will either empower them to acquire the necessary – for school success and therefore their future career choice – knowledge and skills, or inactivate them (Cummins, 1986). Aiming at a multilevel empowerment of students and due to the complexity of the issues arising and need to be resolved, it is necessary to activate other important qualities from each part of the student's life that have an impact on him (Keys, Bemak & Lockhart, 1998), as their solution only through the actions of people within the school environment is impossible (Gehrke, 1998).

2.2 Socio-ecological model

Additionally, in line with the socio-ecological model, when the development of the child is considered as a process that depends on a variety of biological and environmental factors (Gutkin, 2009), any intervention which aims at creating a balanced person requires collaborative and cross entanglement of shared responsibility of each human entity – teachers, parents, students – associated with the target-student.

2.3 Bronfenbrenner's theory of ecological systems

At the same time, the theory of ecological systems of Bronfenbrenner (1979; 1986) recognizes the influence of interconnections between school, family and community on the balanced development of the child, through the child's integration in the different systems they form. The joint action of these frameworks is recognized as a protective agent which ensures the educational adaptability of students, assisting in addressing personal and systemic stressful stimuli which are, potentially, a hindrance to learning and school success (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001; Epstein, 1995). At the same time, it strengthens their social capital (Lockwood, 1996; Coleman, 1987, 1988) through the establishment of trust networks.

3. School – family collaboration

Cooperation between school and family, if built on solid foundations, produces guarantees for the best possible response and resolution of differentiated problems related to each student (Taylor & Adelman, 2000; Rubin, 2002), improves educational outcomes and strengthens the parents' role. Furthermore, it is important to note that the role of the teacher, the atmosphere in the school but also the support of the leader of the school unit are decisive factors for parental involvement in a participatory pupil support process and not the social profile of the family—as far as the parents' educational and financial status is concerned (Henderson & Mapp, 2002).

A partnership between school, parents and the community is a constructive practice when each of the participating teams converses with others in a framework of equality, sets goals and work together on the implementation process (Keys, Bemak, Carpenter & King-Sears, 1998). A collaborative relationship is founded through the practice of open dialogue. Participants respect the opinions of others without having to make any criticism and attempt to understand different perspectives, recognizing the diverse experiences that form the basis for the formulation of the extent and the way of reality intake, ultimately shaping collective representations that are the basis of every plan for cooperation and decision-making (Dorfman, 1998).

4. The teacher's role

4.1 Broader reference

In the Greek education system, the classroom teacher is the person who has the institutional capacity to deal on a daily basis with the personal and cognitive difficulties faced by a student. Although the learning progress of a child also depends on various other factors, such

as peer pressure and parents, the role of the teacher is perceived as dominant (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004) and plays a small but very important role in shaping the student's future career choice (Metheny, McWhirter & O' Neil, 2008: 220, as cited in Perry, Liu & Yvona, 2010: 274).

Due to the central position held by the teacher, he is emerging as the key strategic link between school staff, family and other community members. The counseling dimension of his position indicates a redefinition of his role through a sheer understanding of how the various cultural norms affect relations, perceptions of school success, the counseling process and solving problems, acquiring specific cultural and national family counseling skills (Keys & Bemak, 1997). At the same time, he works as an intermediary who needs to be characterized by an understanding of the system of values of people from different cultural contexts interconnecting and communicating the culture of minority students in the school community.

4.2 The teacher as a counselor

In essence, the teacher-taking on a role that in other countries is distinct as that of an education counselor- must possess collaborative, defensive, consultative, intercultural and leadership skills (Keys, Bemak, Carpenter & King-Sears, 1998; Seashore, Jones, Seppanen & Associates, 2001; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001). Indeed, as various surveys have clearly stated, the teacher's influence on the inclusion and acceptance of students is very important, in addition to his contribution during any decision making and expression of students' emotions (Gordon, 1955; Kaback, 1955; Krugman, 1954; Pearson & Sauer, 1954). It is assumed that teachers, in addition to focusing on the learning process, often highlight the counseling aspect of their educational role, through their contribution to the formation of the student's personality. The teacher's contribution to the emergence of students' talents, aptitudes and specific tendencies, as well as their wider support to their students is a normal educational process. Moreover, the provision of counseling work on behalf of the teacher is not confined to childhood, but accompanies the student throughout his educational life (Gunawan, 2015).

Therefore, the teacher as a professional, who is asked to assist in this process, needs to have a lot of skills and knowledge of the educational reality. These skills come under the intercultural and ecological model. Thus, the teacher needs to be educated on understanding the impact of the concepts of race, ethnicity, economic class, gender, religion and sexual orientation when formulating his own identity, like those with whom he converses during the counselling process (Okun & Kantrowitz, 2008). As an effective leader for solving problems while at the same time shaping people with critical thinking, he should instill in students the

necessary self-esteem that will allow them to effectively address the uncertainty of modern working conditions as adults (Dow & Mayer, 2004).

Moreover, since the development process of a child is an integral part of their future career choice as it is connected and directly affects the formation of their personality, it is a dynamic process that starts in childhood and matures at the end of secondary school (Roe, 1970; Ginzberg, 1972; Holland, 1992; Super, 1994; Janetius, 2010). For this reason, this counseling assistance in identifying the aptitudes and interests of every child is vital to the educational and community framework of developing countries, since professional maturity is defined correlative with self-awareness, professional information and personal involvement in the knowledge offered (Salami, 2008; Kaur, 2011). Of course, a very important skill of the teacher is his high level of effective communication.

5. Interpersonal skills

However, during the educational process there may be potential difficulties in communication which may be related to the completeness, clarity and veracity of messages. Also, possible partiality on the part of the teacher, selective perception, premature and hasty assessment, and unsuccessful ways of expressing a message, natural wariness and mistrust may be adverse influences.

Similarly, positive elements in the communication between the teacher and students or parents are understanding, mutual appreciation and mutual respect, intimacy and warmth in interpersonal contact. Also, discretion, confidentiality, comfort in expressing (positive or negative) feelings and the development of a feeling of devotion.

In fact, some strengthening techniques of communication in the classroom could be suggested. Among these we could mention the use of the suggestion box and the creation of a suggestion system, in the context of an open door, which the teacher implements in order to improve the overall communication process. What is more, publishing a short magazine which will be designed, created, and edited by the students of the class / school could prove quite open and communicative.

Accordingly, a positive element which reinforces effectiveness in a multilevel is the psycho-emotional maturity of the teacher, who enlivens communication and fertilizes the educational process. Basic parameters are his dedication to the teaching profession and his willingness to offer, an increased sense of responsibility and a spirit of sportsmanship and cooperativeness. Additionally, sociability, collegiality and a high sense of social

consciousness, in conjunction with a dignified attitude, tact, self-control and the widespread anthropocentric life vision are also basic.

Of course, the main *human structural component* of the classroom is constituted by the teacher and students. Other teachers, the principal and vice principal of the school unit, the assisting staff (janitor, school guard, cleaning staff), parents and possibly bodies of the local community may be involved in the whole educational process of the classroom as an organisation. The multilateral promotion of social and cognitive skills of the students is considered an *objective*, within an environment that fosters the cultivation of a good educational atmosphere and ensures (*collaborative*) *learning*. Finally, communication needs to be bidirectional, based on the principles of understanding, fairness and sincere expression of feelings, benevolent mood, respect, esteem and mutual respect, acceptance of diversity and the desire for continuous improvement. It should also reinforce the willingness to exchange experiences and information, to launch mutual support and facilitate the process of problem solving (Koutouzis, 1999: 250; Athanasoula-Reppa, 1999: 169-175). Of course, the openness of the teacher to the family environment of students is particularly valuable.

6. Cooperation of teachers and parents

The development of cooperation between teachers and parents is, therefore, the optimal strategy for each professional specialty in the educational system when changing a dysfunctional and negative student's behavior pattern, which refers to a high-risk situation, is considered as the objective of the collective effort. Their interaction varies and depends on the characteristics of the teacher's personality, his perceptions and values as well as on the influence of all supportive factors associated with the school environment, by focusing on positive relationships developed with parents, to form the core element of their joint beneficial cooperation for the optimum development of the student (Kennedy, 2011). Students at risk status should be regarded as derivatives of a continuous interaction between the individual, family, school and environmental frameworks. In fact, teachers have to act as a deterrent to certain notions about "problematic" students, which come from the dominant biomedical model of self-understanding that promotes personalized psychological interventions (Thornberg, 2012: 329).

7. Instead of a Conclusion

Teachers should build high expectations for all students conveying their faith in that everybody can be successful and by recognizing their parents as powerful allies in the

educational process of the children, treating them with respect and great care. Furthermore, it is particularly advantageous to cultivate a positive communication environment, demonstrating their conviction that the school is there to serve their family goals and the community in general. Additionally, they must manage conflicts and to find solutions through the use of approaches and strategies such as active listening, full understanding of the particular situation of each student, positive feedback, trust in the student's potentialities and imparting motivation through their cooperation with parents (Thornberg, 2012: 326).

However, teachers have reported that their involvement in collaborative processes is hampered by factors such as lack of time, lack of funding, weakness in designing collaborative processes (Sanders, 2001), lack of appropriate training (Hiatt-Michael, 2001), non-collaborative support of school leadership, colleagues, parents and other community members (Sanders & Harvey, 2002). At the same time it is a fact that members of the school teaching staff also carry ethnocentric views that define what is expected as normal behavior, according to the concepts put forward by the value system of this educational framework, without taking into account the particular concepts that characterize the student because of different origin (Walsh, 2003).

According to this data, we need to pay special attention to scientific assistance which will be offered to teachers so they can successfully establish the dimensions of their professional identity. Civic institutions, taking part of the responsibility which they have, should stand by teachers, pupils and their parents on the step by step implementation of realistic objectives, which strengthen the students and could potentially lead to suitable short-term as well as long-term career choices for them.

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The emotional intelligence in adult education

Abstract:

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship of emotional intelligence and adult education. Specifically we will study the contribution of emotional intelligence to the role of the teacher. This study was conducted in adult students trainers (N = 89) in which (67.4%) is female and the (31.5%) men. Emotional intelligence (EI) proved higher in women trainers. Education may be one of the growth factors of emotional intelligence, as well as years of teaching adult students.

Highlights

- Women have higher emotional intelligence than men
- Education contributes to the development of emotional intelligence of adult trainers
- The educational experience contributes to the development of self-knowledge
- The trainers while parents are showing increased social skills

Keywords: emotional intelligence, educational empowerment, educational techniques, adult education, empathy, self-awareness, self-management, social skills

Elissavet Gkinala¹

¹ Corresponding Author: Elissavet Gkinala. E-mail: soc12020@soc.aegean.gr

1. Introduction

Emotional intelligence is an important concept that occupied Thales of Miletus, Heraclitus, Socrates and Aristotle. The importance of self-knowledge played a central role in ancient Greek philosophy and is reflected in the maxim "know thyself".

Emotional intelligence (EI) is often contrasted with the intelligence quotient (IQ). Usually to see how smart someone is we ask to know the level of his intelligence. However studying emotional intelligence we have to wonder if in fact this factor determines a person's success. The effect and the usefulness of emotion are examined as a structural feature of emotional intelligence in the educational process of adults.

Emotional intelligence (EQ) is displayed as a concept about the 1990. Leading supporters Bar-On, Daniel Goleman, P.Salovey and J.D. Mayer formulated theories that are dominant today (McKinley & Phitayakom, 2015). Before we proceed to the interpretation of the term it is useful to analyze them separately. According to Yazdani & Riahi, the term feeling refers to psychosomatic experience where the person experiences an intense mental state. There is a variety of feelings, either negative or positive. The factors that cause them are external (e.g. a joy of someone when learning good news) or internal (e.g. anxiety for something to be done in the future). Intelligence as a discrete term, takes the importance of the particular and the highest capacity of man to understand things. It is the most basic element of human separation from other living beings. This function includes the solution of various problems, the achievement of goals and initiatives that is based on cognitive functions. Especially popular is the IQ, which measures its levels. Gardner however, comes to reject the existence of a single intelligence. He finds that there are nine different species, which are based in different parts of the brain. According to him, a developed kind concerns the emotional intelligence (Hakkak, Nazarpouri, Moussavi, Ghodsi, 2015).

He refers to the ability of the man to understand the connection between thought and emotion. The man who possesses emotional intelligence can think collectively and can be put in the place of a fellowman, realizing both his own feelings and the other's. (John D.Mayer & Glenn Geher, 1996). Salovey, Mayer and Caruso present one of the main interpretations of emotional intelligence. Defined as an intellectual skill of the man, which is associated with cognitive ability. Their role is crucial and critical as in work environments its existence constitutes a sample of good cooperation between colleagues. Numbers of studies have been conducted on the search of the importance of materiality as it plays a dominant role in social relations. According to a survey that studied the behaviour in relation to emotional

intelligence it was found that people who can understand the emotional fluctuations of others or of others' behaviours then they deserve more favourable treatment. Still, it helps to the predictability of the behaviour of those around us (Raugh & Kell, 2015).

The Goleman defined emotional intelligence as a human ability to guide behaviour through the abilities and skills. He considers that individuals have innate charisma of the development of the emotions and throughout the lifetime, opportunities are presented for their development. To reach this conclusion, he raised four categories: self-understanding, social recognition, organization of self and social skills, where these categories had certain characteristics. Each respondent was invited to describe both himself and others. These features related to the personality of the interviewee itself and the expectations that had of the characteristics of others. R. Bar- On, comes to add five more features on the concept of EI. Divided into five categories: intra-personal ability, interpersonal (diaprosopiki), the ability to manage stress and adaptability. The EI and human knowledge have the same growth prospects (Mishar & Bangun, 2014).

The training is directly related to the development of EI. In an Institute in Malaysia, in a survey of more educational trainers it was proved that the internalization of its principles plays a key role in personality. Based on Goleman's model, claiming that the adult trainer must have the following skills: organization of the order, taking of leadership, initiatives and understanding of the behaviour (Yusof, Ishak, Zahidi, Abidin, Bakar, 2014).

In this research, the following definition was used as it was formed by Goleman: The Goleman (1995), defines emotional intelligence as the individual's ability to recognize emotions (self-knowledge), feelings of others (empathy) and parallel it (the individual) can manage them (self-organization). Linked to the development of social skills, management of the relationships and taking leadership (McKinley & Phitayakom, 2015).

2. Objectives and research hypotheses

This work aims to study the emotional intelligence of adult trainers today. It is examined whether their attitudes and behaviour are related to the characteristics of emotional intelligence. That is, an attempt of creating "emotional profile" of the trainer. To answer the research questions that have already been put, a quantitative research is followed.

To investigate the emotional intelligence of adult trainers the following assumptions are made:

- H1: It concerns the statistically significant difference in emotional intelligence between men and women trainers

- H2: There is a statistically significant difference of emotional intelligence in relation to the years of service of the trainer
- H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and training
- H4: There is statistically significant difference between emotional intelligence and parenting
- H5: There is statistically significant difference between emotional intelligence and the years of teaching experience

3. The importance of emotion in the educational process

The educational process is called to create people ready to respond to rapid social, economic and technological developments. It provides a wide range of knowledge making the learners competent and productive in the context of a society that is constantly changing. Apart from the knowledge that is called to penetrate them it has an additional target to develop the emotional part of themselves. This process is of great importance both to minors and to adult learners. In this case, the adult students have already taken part in a training process during which they formed and evolved their cognitive and emotional world. This has resulted in creating in their mind a certain standard of teaching and therefore with their entrance into new learning programs various emotions are emerged, either negative or positive. Therefore, at their entrance into the new learning environment it is essential for every individual teacher to take it into account. These feelings are caused by external and internal factors therefore special attention should be given to the existing learning environment, as it has direct impact on the emotional and psychological organization of students. They can easily be affected by the interactions between them, by an unpleasant or pleasant event or a stressful teacher (Seehausen, Kaazer, Bajbouz, Heekeren, Jacobs, Klann- Delius, Menninghaus, Prehn, 2015).

At this point questions must be put as to whether the feelings that emerge are important, how emotions are generated and how they affect the educational process. Understanding and memory may be a direct purpose but they are not sufficient for the creation of an integrated person. Empathy that is the perception of the emotional state of a person from the other and ability to be able to be put in his place support teaching. According to Maslow, the learner after covering biological needs (e.g., sleep, food) needs to feel secure in order to proceed later into covering more complex needs, such as self-esteem and self-realization. People usually involved in adult education are mainly characterized by anxiety about the unknown, fear of the kinds of behaviours they encounter and frustration (usually

come from failed educational environments). Usually maintain an aggressive or passive attitude trying in this way to protect themselves from the unknown environment. But perhaps, they feel positive emotions too like hope and optimism in their integration into a different educational environment. The rationalization of all these emotions leads to the discovery and their excess and thus to the preparation for new knowledge. The importance of emotions in teaching is crucial because it can greatly change the learning environment. The adult trainer must understand the emotional state of students even from their inaugural meeting and try to shape the learning environment based on them, with a view to their gradual change (Manual for adult educators, 26-32).

The teacher is the one who can guide students' feelings as he is the coordinator of teaching. This can be achieved through the kind of exercises that he chooses to use for the analysis and the understanding of concepts. Although adult students can have a strong common feature (e.g. people with low educational level) they each set up different reality and take their own meanings through it (Goran & Negoescu, 2015). Creating emotions can take place either verbally through the spoken and written language or nonverbally through paralinguistic elements and body language. In paralinguistic elements belong the tone of the speaker's voice, the intensity of his voice and the complexion. In body language belong the gestures, the look, the attitude of the teacher and the facial expressions. Emphasizing on the above the trainer can create an atmosphere of intimacy and eliminate the negative emotions of the students. Then, in verbal communication it is important the way that the teacher poses questions as the kind of answer will depend on his question. The teacher posing a close question, for example "are you all right?" will get the probable answer "good". Whereas if he uses an open question, for example, "How are you today?" it is more possible that the person won't make a neutral answer. Moreover, in this way a creation of a climate of familiarity is enabled, better communication and acquaintance between trainer and student is made easier, and also the emotional state of people is made understandable. In addition, the paraphrase that falls in active hearing contributes to the creation of a good teacher-student relationship. The paraphrase means the understanding of the other's position. In essence through paraphrase the student understands that the interest of the trainer is real and that he tries to be put in his place and understand him better. The paraphrase is achieved through the recasting the words of the student without changing their meaning. Still, the reflection of the feelings is constructive since the person is able to understand the reason that he/she feels those and in general to better understand himself/herself. Through this feedback he/she realizes that the others accept him/her as he/she has established himself/herself and is now a member of another group, that

of his/her class. He/she has greater comfort in how he/she will be expressed and overcomes the initial feelings of fear and uncertainty about what he/she will encounter and how he/she will express his/her views (Guide for adult trainers, 34-42).

The role of emotion in education in most researches is directly linked to the performance of students. According to Chen positive feelings generated in the classroom have an impact on its cohesion. While unpleasant are connected with wrong educational policies and because of the existence of imbalance in personal lives of teachers. They are in the centre of teaching and are connected with every aspect of teaching and learning. The most common feelings that exist within a class is enthusiasm, joy and satisfaction. According to a research that studied the relationship of emotions of the teacher and the effect of those on students showed that teachers feel joy when there is an increased participation of the class, when their pupils are progressing and when there is a feedback in the classroom. That leads them to love more their profession and to feel bigger satisfaction since they see that their reward comes after the effective exercise of their service. Therefore, the positive image of their profession has an impact on their relationship with their students and vice versa. (J. Chen, 2016). According to Martinez, the positive attitude and those of individuals increases the degree of the things they claim and thus the assessment that they have for themselves. Students are not passive receptors of emotions but instead make efforts for rationalization of beliefs, desires and behaviours. Finally, intersubjective relationships and emotions that arise from them are a determining factor as to how the same person identifies himself/herself. By this way the person sets up his/her social identity and differs from the others, he/she cooperates harmoniously and has available features for personal change.

4. The importance of emotional development of adult trainer

Nowadays, teachers are constantly coming up against a number of problems during the educational process. So they are invited to provide fast and effective solutions that will not depart from the educational objectives that they have set in advance. These challenges require educational training, educational experience and developed emotional skills. It has been proven that the highly emotional development of the teacher is more important for the management and smooth running of the class.

According to (Erdum & Demirel, 2007) the findings of a research on the relationship of emotional intelligence and efficiency of the teacher, showed that, the coexistence of these two to achieve a proper teaching is necessary. It is proved essential as it helps in the decision-making progress, in the organization of the curriculum, in the encouragement of the students

to participate and in making communication between them easier. The decision making should be direct. During the teaching, the teacher must take into consideration the time spent, the time that the adult students can be concentrated on what they are taught and to the extent that the quality time contributes into meeting the learning objectives that had been set already from the contract (Giavrimis, 2015, 12-13). Still, the same feel more satisfaction and have positive attitude towards their profession. They feel more satisfaction from work in relation to teachers who have a lower level of emotional intelligence. Therefore emotional development of the teacher contributes to better performance, but also to his own satisfaction from his work as he feels more productive (Colomeischi & Colomeischi, 2014).

The (Yosof, Ishak, Zahidi, Abidin, & Bakar, 2014) argue that teachers with high emotional development have spiritual maturity and skills, empathy, emotion management, communication and collaboration. Still, teachers when confronted with difficult situations that cause stress are able to manage work-related stress more easily. In this way, the teacher manages to remain calm and attentive without abandoning the educational process. The Goleman argued that those who haven't developed emotional intelligence find it difficult to put limits on themselves, don't feel satisfaction from their offer and are not capable of dealing with challenges easily.

According to, the teacher is the one that guides the educational process while leaving his/her students room for expression and creativity. The trainer has the ability to convey the emotions he feels to his students and in this way to organize the class. Positive emotions that are emitted from the teacher and are experienced by the students are associated with the greatest attention of students while teaching time. At that moment the expression of emotions makes the trainer "significant" in their eyes. Teaching means face to face contact between teacher-student where production of emotions is required (Yin, Lee, Zhang, Jin, 2013).

The teacher daily plays different social roles as beyond the professional life he/she has a personal life too. The balance between these two frames is essential. The balance occurs through the interaction of knowledge and feelings that is through rational and non-rational management of the parameters that affect his/her behaviour. (Day & Leitch, 2001). The social roles that teachers embody are associated largely with the biological gender. Gender defines the responsibilities and obligations of each which are socially constructed. A large number of researches has shown that women teachers have higher rates of emotional intelligence in contrast to men who had higher IQs. Experiential studies have confirmed the existing perception that supports that women considering using more emotion. They were able to cope and better manage diverse feelings in relation to men who showed weakness. This resulted in

reacting with anger trying by this way to “defend” against different behaviours. The reactions of the trainers in a degree are related with the personal life and with the type of socialization received by each gender separately. Emotional skills and experiences are socially constructed and influenced by the gender of the teacher.

In the journal *Teaching and Teacher education* the findings of a survey that examined how the emotional intelligence of teachers is developed were published. It showed that in fact it is difficult for the levels of emotional intelligence to be measured and even if measured it doesn't mean that they meet the real emotional abilities of the teacher. The creation of the profile of the “good teacher” proves difficult through intangible feelings. While there is the opposite view supporting the view of emotions outside the social frame. So it was found that the teachers that can manage and better organize the emotions tend to report that they fell less occupational burnout. Still, contributes to academic performance and better cooperation and connection with the school or program that he/she teaches (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012)

In a recent survey conducted, the levels of the emotional intelligence of the teachers of different educational disciplines were studied. Those involved in the education of groups with particular characteristics, such as adult education proved to have a better ability of understanding and managing emotions. Moreover, they are possessed with more extroversion. These specialties require greater professional commitment and delicate handling because of the students' diversity. All these positive characteristics are those that constitute the personality and temperament of the teacher (Antonanzas, Salavera, Teruel, Sisamon, Ginto, Anaya & Barcelona, 2014).

The Corcoran & Tormey studied the levels of emotional intelligence of undergraduate teachers. They were asked to participate in a series of workshops through activities that will attempt to develop the levels of emotional intelligence. Randomly they were selected thirty students and divided into two groups, where one undertook activities seeking to develop the emotional intelligence through the perception of emotions and the other through the use them. The results showed that for the potential teachers it was difficult to use feelings themselves and their understanding was proved easier (Corcoran & Tormey, 2010). The teacher in order to face all the challenges that arise every day is necessary to strengthen and expand his/her social and emotional skills. Particularly as regards to the new teachers the question always arises whether they are prepared to meet the new requirements. It has been proven that they encounter more obstacles in the emotional training and in the dealing with the challenges. The emotional development of the teacher affects his/her personal achievements, professional success, leadership role and personal satisfaction that he/she receives. At the beginning of

their career it helps them to become more able, to feel more certainty, confidence, security and to remain committed to the objectives they set. Moreover, feelings are associated with social skills increasing sociability. So when he/she is easily approachable by students, inspires confidence and then proves easier to discuss with him/her (Shanmugasundaram & Mohamad, 2011).

During our lives our knowledge and the stimuli we receive lead to brain development. Activities that contribute to the development of emotional intelligence are still associated with the age of the trainer. Depending on the years of work experience, the way of thinking improves, as well as the organization of self and situation management. It was observed that the younger teachers didn't record lower emotional intelligence scores as opposed to those who had more years of service. Conversely they distinguished small differences of social skills, especially between teachers with service from one to five years, and those of 25 years. Goleman argued that social skills of taking leadership, communication and conflict management are those that effectively build relationships between people. Therefore, attention should be paid to the development and improvement of social skills of one person (Birol, Atamturk, Silman, Sensoy, 2009).

5. The educational empowerment of adult trainer

Lightfoot defines empowerment as a process that aims at development of education, "in which he/she acts independently, responsibly, has his/her own options and participates in decisions» (Rinehart, James S., Short, Paula M., 1993). Strengthening of a teacher begins to become more known and takes greater proportions during 1980. It turned out that this procedure had an effect when teachers showed greater professionalism during teaching. Furthermore, it was found that they had more confidence in themselves and constantly wanted to take more initiatives. The teacher in the classroom has a leading role, which gives him/her the ability to critically guide his students to adopt their own attitudes, while providing a pleasant learning atmosphere. So the immediate decision making is considered necessary on problems that may occur either on the subject of the study or either on operational issues.

The teacher who cares for his/her own development and training to become more productive has certain characteristics that are difficult to detect in others. Initially, such a teacher is able to propose through his/her own new visual ideas and goals on the teaching, other than those set out in the curriculum. Furthermore he/she is capable of proposing their own learning models associated with specific characteristics of the students, escaping from the already entrenched models. Such a model will be cut off from traditional learning

processes, based on the ingenuity of the teacher and on innovative designs to create incentives for learning. Still, he/she sees the work that he/she collectively offers, from many angles so he/she does not care only for the production of knowledge, but aims to create people with skills, informed about critical issues and useful for the society (Melenyzer, Beverly, 1990). Still, he/she shows interest both for school, management, colleagues and his/her students. Still, through taking initiatives for an interactive teaching, the appreciation of students to him/her is increased as they recognize the effort for a pleasant and productive teaching. Moreover, he/she is more intimate with his/her students as they coexist in a climate of cooperativeness and solidarity, where the teacher is interested in the progress and performance of his/her students (Edwards, Green, Lyons, 2002). The teacher is well prepared knowing the subject matter that he/she teaches in detail in order to be able to solve any questions without finding himself/herself on a difficult position.

The determination of the teacher is also important and the time that it will take for concrete decisions. But however naturally he/she can make a wrong decision on a question, then it is necessary for him/her to understand his/her mistake and take action to correct it. The teacher as a leader greatly promotes the existence of the group, the collective spirit, the solidarity and the harmonious cooperation among students. Still, he/she invites students to trust his/her by creating honest and respectful relationships. Finally, the teacher promotes a system of ideas and values and non pointless standardized knowledge (Melenyzer, Beverly, 1990).

The strengthening of the teacher has a direct impact on his/her relationship with his/her students. An essential element in order to characterize a teacher "capable" is not only the knowledge on the subject he/she teaches. Instead, it is more important whether he/she is able to handle difficult situations and to confront the management of complex and demanding issues that may arise. Training as mentioned above can help their good management. The way the teacher behaves and acts in class is directly related to the attitude of adults. It comes into direct contact with his/her students so he/she have to prove that his/her interest in them is sincere. It is very easy for students to express their reaction to learning with inadequate participation and passivity as a result to remain quiet and to become less perceptible. According to a small number of researches, which have been conducted to study the performance of the teacher in relation to the students' attitude during teaching, it was found that charismatic leadership can reduce such kind of behaviors, viewing the adult also a former of the teaching. The immediacy of their relationship is the one that can maintain/create an effective learning environment. Immediacy is referring to a "psychological and physical

proximity between the student-teacher, either verbally expressed or not." For example, verbal immediacy is apparent, it is expressed through the teacher's words, once holding a friendly attitude towards them and once he/she is open to hearing all opinions. Nonverbal contact is expressed by the teacher's removal of the desk (hydra), by maintaining eye contact with the students and his/her relaxed posture. In addition, through research it was proved that when there is immediacy in teaching a better performance of the students is being succeeded, as well as a climate of "relaxation" is being avoided (Cakir, 2015). At the same time, that moment they need to maintain high levels of self-control, as difficult as it can be in such an environment. This environment for the teacher beyond learning is also his/hers working environment, where he/she needs to find ways to maintain a balance between these two. Even the teacher who has developed emotional intelligence, coupled with the knowledge that he/she owns can help more effectively his/her students, by focusing on their particular needs (Wonganich, Sujiva, Jiraro, 2014).

Regarding Greece, training or otherwise strengthening of the teachers begins to gain momentum around since the 1970s, and it is found through changes made to the legislation. Since 1995 there is an increase in the number of teachers who are included in training programs. This results in the creation of various programs with different themes that aim to cover the weaknesses of the teachers. Although as there is a will by them for further education in relation to their educational object, weaknesses are identified in their participation (Pedagogical Institute, 364-368).

6. Method

6.1 Structure, content and participants

For the data collection they were formed 40 questions, which came after the literature review and study research related to the issue. Initially, the questionnaire contains questions about the demographics of the respondents (age, sex, duration of educational experience, education level, and number of children) and 30 Likert-type questions that examining the emotional state of adult trainers as it emerges through their attitudes and their behaviors. The scale used is as follows: (1 = almost never), (2 = rare), (3 = occasionally), (4 = frequently), (5 = almost always) Still, three open questions were used, so the respondents will have the opportunity to express in more detail their opinions. These questions are related to the four structural features of emotional intelligence and are divided into four categories.

The first category of questions concerns the self-knowledge of the teacher, the second concerns self-control, the third is related to empathy and the fourth with social educational

skills of the teacher. Through the content of the questions the teacher's reactions are investigated, as well as his/her emotional state, his/her internal processes and his/her behavior towards students while teaching. Participants who answered the questionnaire are adult trainers who work with them online and in the conventional way.

6.2 Results

In the research 89 adult trainers participated of whom 60 were women (67.4%) and 29 were men (31.5%). Thus, we conclude that women are well versed to the researches. Their age according to the frequency of responses is ranging between 36-45 years. As well, work experience is between 20-30 years. Mostly adult trainers worked in the past or are still working today in the Second Chance School (SCS), in Profession Training Institutes (IEK) in Professional Training Centers (KEK) and in Centers for Lifelong Learning (KΔBM).

From the research results it appears that there is a statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and gender. More specifically, it appears that women teachers have a higher level of emotional intelligence and this is demonstrated through self-awareness, self-management, empathy and the social skills they have. This view finds consistent (Day & Leitch, 2001), as they support through empirical studies that women consider using more emotion and can better manage their emotions. This is how the confirmation of the initial hypothesis is succeeded. Still, it turns out that there is a statistically significant relationship between educational seminars and emotional intelligence. It seems that the trainers who said that they have attended training seminars have higher presence of emotional intelligence. Since the percentage of adult trainers who have attended training seminars amounts to (74.2%) we perceive that they retain a positive attitude to their training.

The same is supported by the (Pedagogical Institute 364-368) that there is interest from adult trainers for additional training in Greece. From the result the initial hypothesis which connects training with emotional intelligence is confirmed. Then, from the results of research it seems that there is a statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and parenting. It seems though that adult trainers who have had children have increased social skills. Perhaps this stems from their attempt to act differently depending on the circumstances, since they are the primary socializing institution and role models. Furthermore the relationship between emotional intelligence and the age of adult trainers has been studied. It appears that emotional intelligence is not influenced by age, but certain features of it are influenced. The research showed that an important correlation is presented statistically with regard to self-knowledge and social skills. Indeed it seems that the degree of self-knowledge and social skills increases according to the age. That is, we understand that

the higher age is the adult trainer has more self-knowledge and better social skills. Still the duration of the working experience of adult trainers has been studied. We see that there is a significant relationship between working experience and self-knowledge. Finally, the working experience with adult students relative to emotional intelligence was studied. We observe that there is a statistically important relationship between emotional intelligence and the years of teaching experience in adult students. Self-knowledge, empathy and social skills appear to be affected by the age.

Still we notice that the majority of teachers consider the existence of emotional intelligence very important and necessary tool for the teacher. It was argued that it is an essential supply since it helps the teacher himself/herself and his/her students during teaching. Its usefulness is proved important as it makes the communication and their between interaction easier and resolves any conflicts.

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Counselling for Loss-Mourning to Children

Abstract:

Mourning is a difficult experience for adults, who are more familiarised with unfavorable circumstances in life, let alone for a child when asked to understand and overcome a significant loss. The degree of difficulty encountered by a child is even greater. It is, therefore, important to understand how difficult and different it is for a child to grasp the concept of death and manage grief. This text is a reference to the mourning process for a child, the ways of support and the role played by the school in the whole process.

Keywords: Children, mourning process, reactions, support, school

Danou Georgia¹, Roumelioti Georgia² and Kougioumtzis Georgios³

¹ Danou Georgia, Early Childhood Educator, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: georgiantanou@gmail.com

² Roumelioti Georgia, Sociologist, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: georgiaroum@hotmail.com

³ Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

Life can be very hard for a child, as it might often experience losses, great or small, which are an inevitable part of life and disturb his daily life: an illness, a beloved person who passes away, a car accident, a kitty he lost, a friend who moved house. Adults often pay no particular attention to the loss or mourning of children.

Developing the ability to mourn is one of the most important life skills. We, therefore, need to give children, while they are young, the opportunity to develop such a skill. Experts on bereavement stress the need for adults to talk to children about loss and death- as they also do about the manner in which someone may be mourning-before something difficult in life occurs. At this point the role of school may be very supportive, as school may gradually develop this skill in children with the use of appropriate educational material.

Managing a loss includes the ability to recognize, to process and express our feelings, to give meaning to a loss, to communicate with people around us and to ask for support. It is important that parents and teachers should contribute to the development of this ability from preschool age.

2. Mourning in a child's life

Mourning is associated with any significant loss or separation from persons and situations. For a child, even moving away from house he grew up may be a small loss. When we experience a death, the normal flow of our life is overturned and we have to face many problems both in our daily lives and in our emotional world.

The phase of adjustment between an old and a new situation is called *mourning period*. Mourning signifies not only the period of time we wear black but also our personal grief, the feelings we experience, our fears and our negative thoughts. Everybody mourns in their own way and for as long as it is necessary for them.

The ability to mourn does not occur automatically. It is a complex skill that is gradually taking shape throughout our lives, and it is a skill which presupposes our ability to recognize and be able to define our emotions. Children need the emotional support from family and school to smoothly complete the mourning process.

3. Theorists of mourning

3.1 Bowlby, Fitzgerald, Dyregrov & Worden

According to Bowlby (1980), Fitzgerald (2003), Dyregrov (2008) and Worden (2009), grief- if left untreated-often leads children to depression, anxiety, social withdrawal, behavioral

disorders and has a negative impact on their academic performance at school. But when the feelings that accompany grief are expressed and can be processed, then the psycho-emotional world of the child is positively reinforced and their personality is strengthened.

3.2 Walsh & McGoldrick

Also, it has been observed that the difficulty to mourn is being passed down from generation to generation. Walsh and McGoldrick (1991) observed that when a family is mourning its losses, then the next generation finds it difficult to cope with emotional losses and separations. It is also possible that its members develop serious alcohol problems (Reilly, 1978).

3.3 Kübler-Ross, stages of mourning / loss

Elisabeth Kübler-Ross (1969) in her book *On Death and Dying* identifies five transitional stages of mourning, which an individual has to go through in order to accept death or some other important loss. These stages are denial, anger, negotiation, depression and acceptance. Kübler-Ross' approach is based on clinical experience with people who were in the process of dying themselves.

When in *denial*, the person cannot accept what happened to them; they believe that this is a medical mistake or they will overcome the problem and be healthy very soon. During the stage of *anger*, the individual asks, "Why did something so bad happen to me?" and is often jealous of others who go on with their normal life. During *negotiation*, the person tries to gain time with the help of God or doctors. During *depression*, the patient feels that there is no hope and resigns. Patients are often withdrawn or disrupted and feel that everything is in vain. During the phase of *acceptance*, the patient reconciles with the impending loss and faces it with peace of mind.

Regarding these stages, Kübler-Ross believed that not everybody necessarily follows them in the same order. Thus, one patient may be experiencing many stages together such as anger, denial and depression. Some other patients never come out of the stage of denial, others never reach the acceptance stage.

3.4 Bowlby, separation anxiety of babies - grieving adults

Another important theoretical approach has *separation anxiety in young children* as its starting point. John Bowlby (1960, 1961, and 1980) studied the reactions of infants when they are taken away from their mothers and found that these reactions exhibit many similarities in

the way that adults grieve. According to Bowlby, these reactions evolve in the following phases:

- **Apathy** (numbness): Initially, the infant does not believe that his mother has left. Adults are similar when in *shock* and *denial*.

- **Longing for reconnection**: The baby seeks his mother. In the case of adults, when parted from one of our own, we bring them to mind, talk to them in our minds, we imagine them, we long to see them again.

- **Disorganization and despair**: In this phase we lose hope and the future looks uncertain and indifferent. Nothing has any value and we feel alienated.

- **Reorganization**: There is an acceptance of the situation and the desire to live again. In times of stress, lapses into previous reactions are quite possible.

In conclusion, theories were based either on the separation anxiety of infants when taken away from their mother or on the experience of people dying. What they have in common is a pattern for the successful solution of the loss. First there is the shock, then disorganization is imminent and finally acceptance and reorganization of the individual, who is now able to continue his life.

3.5 Piaget: stages of cognitive development of children and mourning

The study of cognitive development and everyday experience have shown us that children do not understand the concept of death as adults do. Early research on how children understand death were based on Piaget's theory of cognitive development (1954). Eminent Swiss psychologist Piaget (1896-1960) studied the cognitive development of children and their ability to understand the world. The stages of cognitive development which he suggested concluded with an understanding of death:

- ✚ At the *sensorimotor stage* (0-2 years), when the child does not see something, then it does not exist, so the child cannot understand the meaning of death. But the child understands, however, loss and manifests separation anxiety (Bowlby, 1960: 9-52).

- ✚ At the *preoperational stage* (2-7 years) the child feels that death is temporary and reversible and that the body can be revived. According to this view even inanimate objects have a soul. Indeed, this is the time that magical thinking also appears (i.e. the child can cause death through his thought).

- ✚ At the *concrete operational stage* (7-11 years) children recognize that all living things die and that death is irreversible. They understand that the bodily functions cease and the dead cannot breathe, move or see. They believe, however, that death is caused by specific external

causes and that it is not part of the life cycle. Death happens only to others and not their own loved ones.

✚ At the *formal operational stage* (after 11) children recognize death as a universal stage of the life cycle and an inevitable fact.

3.6 Nagy, stages of death perception of children

Maria Nagy, a psychologist from Hungary, argues that children have a more comprehensive understanding of death much earlier. Nagy distinguishes three stages of death perception (Nagy, 1948):

✚ In the first stage (3-5 years) death is temporary, a faded continuation of life or similar to being sleepy. It is not universal.

✚ In the second stage (5-9 years), death is final. Some picture death in the form of a person (Death), but death is not universal or personal.

✚ In the third stage (9+ years) death is final, personal and universal.

We need to remember that age alone does not to determine the child's level of understanding, but it is necessary to take into account other factors as well, such as intelligence, emotional maturity, educational level of the family , as well as whether the child has already been exposed to death situations or health problems (Speece & Brent, 1996: 29-50).

4. Differences between children mourning and adult mourning

There are significant differences in the way that adults and children mourn, including:

i. Children find it difficult to deal with their grief: Young children have not developed their mental and emotional skills in order to understand the phenomenon of death. Thus, there is sadness alternating with periods when children work as if nothing has happened.

ii. Children express their grief in alternative ways: children express their grief through their behavior and sleep habits, physical symptoms, their games and their paintings (Papadatou, 1999: 15-28). Children transform this negative experience into bodily reactions or resort to aggression and hyperactivity so as to cover their sadness and loneliness.

iii. Children experience a deep insecurity: The loss disrupts any sense of security to children. They fear that the other parent might die or that they themselves will get sick and die. They are also wondering who will take the place of the person who passed away (Tremblay & Israel, 1998: 424-438).

iv. Children are afraid that they are the ones who caused the loss: Young children are characterized by feelings of omnipotence; they are afraid that they caused the illness, death or departure of a loved one, and this is the reason why they often feel guilty.

v. Children hide their sadness to protect adults: They hide their grief in order not to upset even more the adults in their family (Smith, 1999).

vi. Children's mourning may become more pronounced over the course of time: It takes more time for children to understand the finality of death and the consequences of the loss (Holland, 2001).

5. Reactions of children due to psychological tension (stress)

Even very young children understand and express their mental stress by:

■ Physical reactions: Very young children have not developed those psychological mechanisms necessary for the management of loss, thus expressing their discomfort with physical reactions (abdominal pain, headache, asthma, allergies).

■ Behavioral reactions: Other children react with frustration and aggressive behavior, others react with withdrawal or hyperactivity –that is, they demonstrate regression to earlier developmental stages (use of feeding bottles, bedwetting, talking like a baby, and fear of the dark).

■ Cognitive reactions: The child experiences a turning point in school performance. He is distracted and has difficulty to remember or memorize. It is important that teachers know the family status of the child and be able to recognize the consequences of the loss.

■ Emotional reactions: They experience intense and conflicting emotions (fear and insecurity, sadness, anger and guilt, longing to see the loved one again).

6. Dealing with mourning / loss

6.1 Steps - mourning management actions

The first thing you need to do when a child is mourning is to give them space to talk and be there to listen. The fact that we recognize the loss and the emotions arising from it relieves the child. The most important thing is to accompany the child through the pain. Make sure you tell them that you love them and you relieve them and take care of their needs.

The second important point is to give the child the opportunity to process feelings. Ways to achieve this is through stories, puppetry, painting and activities through which his feelings are expressed and channeled. Older children can keep a diary with their thoughts.

The third and also very important thing is to reinforce the natural social environment of the child, which is his family and friends, so that they continue to support him (Barnard, Morland & Nagy, 1999).

6.2 Conditions facilitating mourning of the child

Conditions that help a child to mourn are:

- i. We tell the truth: It is necessary that the child realize the reality of death which means that he will not see his loved one ever again. We need to be careful and sensitive as to how we will announce the disturbing news, especially if the event was traumatic (Smith, 1999).
- ii. We inform the child about what happened as soon as possible.
- iii. We give information in small doses, without many details: We don't need to say everything, which might be confusing to the child.
- iv. We use words like "death," "dead" "Dead» (Johnson, 1999): In this way, we are helping to set the foundation for the child to understand the reality of death later on.
- v. We maintain a stable environment for the child as far as possible: Thus, within a framework of stability and security, the child will be able to process this painful experience more easily and more efficiently.
- vi. We don't hide our sorrow, nor are we overwhelmed by it: Adults serve as role models for children, so if the child see adults react in a mature way to mourning, they react accordingly.
- vii. We recognize the length of mourning.
- viii. We give the child a choice: We enable the child itself to choose the manner and extent to which it wishes to be on the side of the beloved person and to participate in their care (Papadatou, 1999: 51-73).

It is important to remain open and to refer to death in our daily life with children. We should grab every small opportunity that is given to us to explain the difference between life and death, and to remember people who have died. It is good to help children to identify their feelings and show them how they can express them, so that they can process their grief.

7. Mourning in school

There are two issues related to loss and death in school (Papadatou, 1999: 119-142): Firstly, at some point all of us will have to support a child in mourning in the classroom. How would we react? What do you need to know to actually help?

Secondly, we can implement an awareness program for children on issues of loss, grief and death BEFORE such an event occurs in their lives. In this way, children are prepared to

better face the losses that they are inevitably going to experience some time in their life. Moreover, children need to be familiarized with the fact that death is part of life; they need to prepare themselves to face the small and great losses, which they will inevitably encounter in their lives and to acquire the skills to reach out to their friends who might be experiencing premature mourning.

School plays an important role and takes up a large part of a child's life. Teachers are persons of reference and trust for children. School does not only offer knowledge, but it also aims to develop the skills that we need in our lives. We learn to work together, to discuss, to develop critical thinking and emotional intelligence (Triliva & Anagnostopoulos, 2008). Family and school can effectively help the child to mourn the death of a grandfather or a grandmother or a pet (Neimeyer, 2000).

8. Instead of an Epilogue

The aim of Mourning Counselling for children is that the child who mourns is able to gradually restructure the relationship with the loved one and to experience a deep peace, holding his beloved person who died deep inside his heart in a beautiful way, without the memory of him causing pain. Thus, the child develops mental reserves to help them assimilate the loss and to integrate it in his life. All children will face issues and anxieties about death at some point in their lives, therefore, it is important to speak freely and ask questions about the issues that concern them.

Parents, teachers and health professionals should enrich their knowledge and skills so that they are able to hear and understand the concerns and reactions of children who mourn. They should be able to support them in this difficult period of their mourning.

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Abstract:

Technological advances could not leave unaffected fields which we consider more “humanistic” or “theoretical”. As the interest of the field of Counseling shifts to efforts to provide consulting services through new technologies, this opens up new paths and highlights the breadth of application and adaptability of its practices, according to the needs that are constantly generated. The purpose of this study is to describe the emergence of the role of e-counseling and the issues / dilemmas posed through its application. Finally, the reference to e-counseling practices currently applied in Greece is very important.

Keywords: E-counseling, distance counseling practices, new technologies

Ouzounoglou Chara¹, Rakatzi Lina², Serleti Maria³ and Kougioumtzis Georgios⁴

1. Introduction

¹ Ouzounoglou Chara, Electronic Engineer, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: houzoster@gmail.com

² Rakatzi Lina, Early Childhood Educator, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: rakatzilina@yahoo.com

³ Serleti Maria, Social Anthropologist, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: ser_64@hotmail.com

⁴ Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

The increasing speed of social change calls for modern man to cope with a multitude of requirements, which often exceeds even him. Counseling can be in many cases the tool to solve difficulties that impede individual and collective balance. The dynamic development of this scientific field answers the questions constantly raised, but at the same time it creates new issues. This complexity and implementation in most areas of human activity that counseling holds, is also proven by the difficulty to attribute a universal definition. The term *counseling* etymologically derives from the verb counsel (late 13c., from Old French conseiller “to advise, counsel”, from Latin consiliari, from consilium “plan, opinion”) and the suffix -ing (counseling “giving professional advice on social or psychological problems”, which dates from 1940).

According to the Greek Advisory Company, the term counseling means “the process of interaction between a consultant and a person or persons who address him which touches at social, cultural, socio-economic and emotional issues. The overall objective of Counseling is to give people opportunities to work out issues of concern in order to live a- at their discretion- more efficient and multifaceted life, personally and as members of a wider society” ([http:// hac.com.gr](http://hac.com.gr)). Counseling has made its appearance in Greece recently, in the early 1950s, when the Ministry of Labor and Education, introduced vocational guidance in the country (Malikiosi-Loizou, 2011).

Of particular interest is the attempt to provide Counseling services with the help of new technologies, which breaks new ground in the field of counseling, highlighting the breadth of applicability and adaptability of its practices, based on the needs that are constantly reformed (Radzi et al., 2014; Reese, Conoley & Brossart, 2006 & 2002). Although the importance of e-counseling is considered as great and probably more facilitating to many because of the expanded use of new technologies by a large part of the population, however, its application is appropriate in specific cases and with clear limitations. The aim of this study is to describe the role of e-counseling – as a subset of counseling – in Greece today and the prospects that exist for consultants and consultees.

2. The beginnings of e-counseling

E-counseling made its appearance in Europe about 45 years ago, where we find the first help service by phone in Belgium in 1959 (Malikiosi-Loizou, 1999). The concept focuses on providing Counseling services, when face to face communication is not feasible. Telecommunications technology and the Internet (e-mail, video conferencing systems, chat, forums, and bulletin boards) are used for e-counseling. E-counseling -in a broader sense, may

also be related to tutoring, guidance and preparation work, supervision of student work and general educational interaction as well as distance learning (e-learning).

The aim of e-counseling is to support people who either cannot address a counselor face to face, or because of easier access to electronic media they turn to distance communication. These days, an intensive effort to create and operate as many as possible websites is being carried out. These websites will be fully updated and organized to meet the increasing needs of people searching for counseling (Richards & Viganó, 2013; Zur, 2012; van Balen, Verdurmen & Ketting, 2001).

Recent years have seen increasing interest in these forms of counseling, which led to the establishment of relevant scientific bodies and to the issuing of directives and rules, which ought to govern the process. These rules are based on the same ethical principles of 'conventional' counseling, while trying to meet the needs arising by the use of new technologies and their introduction in the counseling process (Dimitropoulos, 2006).

3. Traits of counseling

E-counseling is governed by basic characteristics of traditional counseling:

- Formation of a relationship of trust, emotional security and support.
- Encouraging enhancement of skills by experienced people.
- Free flowing communication and correct information.
- Clear definition of the parameters of the Counseling relationship.
- Organization and management of the counseling relationships by supervising experts (Savranidis, Paleologou & Geronimaki, 2003).

4. Characteristics of E-Counseling

E-counseling is governed by these basic characteristics of traditional counseling:

- ✚ Providing a relationship of tolerance on the part of the counselor, which allows the consultee to understand himself to such an extent as to follow a new path.
- ✚ Strengthening students' skills by scientifically trained staff.
- ✚ A clear framework of the parameters of the Counseling relationship, which is only exercised with the will of the individuals.
- ✚ Obtaining and maintaining self-awareness of the consultee and the establishment of limits in accordance with the general socio-cultural framework where he lives.

The role of an e-counselor as a listener-reader who responds sympathetically to the consultees' work makes a difference in terms of the contribution of e-counseling in Institutions using e-learning software.

E-counseling tools have various characteristics:

- Possibility to communicate in large numbers (group communication).
- Communication from any PC with Internet connection, and thus possibility of independence from the limiting factor of distance.
- Asynchronous communication, hence sufficient independence from time commitments, with consequent ease of communication.
- Predominantly written text communication (enriched with the use of multimedia).
- Communication based on PC s or in some cases by phone. In any case the context of the nature of the interaction between tele-consultants and consultee always has to be clear.

5. Possible weaknesses of e-counseling

Of course, despite reasonable benefits from the practice of e-counseling we need to identify the problems / disadvantages that may arise in e-counseling programs, such as:

- Misunderstanding problems during electronic communication.
- Exclusion of technologically illiterate people from the use of e-counseling.
- Technical problems with internet connection, connection speed, software.
- Privacy assurance issues (Savranidis et al., 2003).

6. Technical issues of e-counseling

The basic internet tools which can support several implementations of e-counseling relations between counselors and consultees are:

- Email.
- Discussion groups.
- Systems with bulletin boards

A corresponding tool to develop materials and e-counseling services is development of the web with auxiliary tools of multimedia support and strong interaction (e.g. java, asp). For example:

- An "ask an expert" service, to answer any student questions and needs.
- Support from a personal e-counselor, with communication that is not made public on the internet and with a time frame of cooperation.

- Support from an e-counselor or counselors in the framework of a support student group who share common questions or problems.
- Chat service provision through java for on-line communication between students and e-counselors and among students.
- Filling in on-line questionnaires (in html, asp and java) or psychometric tests or processing Database (matching interests with existing jobs).

Besides the above tools and other Internet services we have to mention teleconferencing capabilities. The prerequisite here is an adequate operating system and video and audio players, as well as the simultaneous presence of counselor and consultee. Communication may be formal or informal, while it is possible to use e-mail or other Internet services assisting in covering all possible needs of communication and collaboration.

7. Technology- assisted distance counseling

7.1 Clarification of concept

The National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC) uses the term “Technology-Assisted Distance Counseling” to determine the counseling procedure which is not conducted with the direct physical presence of the consultant and the client (Face - to - Face Counseling).

7.2 Forms of technology-assisted distance counseling

The same organization distinguishes the following forms of technology-assisted distance counseling:

7.2.1 E-counseling (Telecounseling)

- i. Telephone-based Individual Counseling.
- ii. Telephone-based Couple Counseling.
- iii. Telephone-based Group Counseling.

7.2.2 Counseling over the internet (Internet Counseling)

- i. E-mail-based Individual Internet Counseling.
- ii. Chat-based Individual Internet Counseling.
- iii. Chat-based Couple Internet Counseling.
- iv. Chat-based Group Internet Counseling.
- v. Video-based Individual Internet Counseling.
- vi. Video-based Couple Internet Counseling.
- vii. Video-based Group Counseling (Savranidis et al., 2003).

8. E-counseling in Greece

8.1 Quick reference

Undoubtedly, technological advances have affected all fields of science and the application of their techniques. Computers as a tool in the hands of counselors provide assistance in the collection, recording of information but also help provide information and support to consultees. Audiovisual media such as computers and the telephone, are considered as very useful for the counseling process.

Initially, the phone was widely used for therapeutic purposes, demonstrating its efficacy particularly in cases of critical situations, such as suicide, people's losses, addictions (alcohol, drugs, gambling) or sexual problems. In Greece, the first counseling service by phone was founded in 1986 by the Center for Mental Health and Research, in cooperation with the General Secretariat for Youth (Malikiosi-Loizou, 1999). Such services run on a 24 hour basis and provide support and help maintaining the anonymity of the consultee.

Today, the presence of e-counseling is not only limited to phone use, although the lines of communication are many, but it expands with the use of the computer and the communication facilities it provides (email, video call, discussion forums, and online meetings). As long as technology advances, we discover further applications of it in the Counseling process for human benefit.

Nowadays, there are many that provide support services, without physical presence in the office being required. All someone has to do is use a search engine to understand the extent of these services which we are referring to, in Greece. The "market" seems quite big and promising, especially in crisis management of short-term situations, decision making and changes in the daily reality experienced by every man. Counseling "behind the screen", in Greece, is gaining significant ground over time, following the developments in the industry and also the developments brought about by the increasing use and "abuse" of computers and especially the Internet.

8.2 E-counseling by phone

E-counseling by phone continues just at the same growth rate, as telephone "support lines" touch the dozens, with the public addressing lines as such exceeding by far ten thousand people. As phone counseling we define the service during which the counselor is working with a client, or a group of client on the phone, so that the client is able to investigate and

process personal situations, problems and crises he experiences, in the context of a single Session, a short-term or long-term therapeutic relationship (Giotakos & Triantafyllou, 2006). More specifically, examples are briefly mentioned including the main “telephone helplines” and the work they provide.

8.3 “Support Hotlines”

8.3.1 Life line

It is a Non-Profit Organisation of Paging and Help at Home which has been in operation since May 2006, with the best known social contribution programs: “Red Button”, Silver Alert, SOS 1065 for the elderly, and 116123 European Adult Psychological Support Hotline and volunteer programs.

8.3.2 AIDS Counseling station

210 - 72.22.222 counseling and psychological support by phone on AIDS issues and other STDs. Launched in September 1992 and to date approximately 65,000 people have addressed the station.

8.3.4 National Transplant Organization 1147

8.3.5 Line for Alzheimer’s

2310 909000 it provides information, guidance, support and referral to appropriate specialists.

8.3.6 SOS Telephone Line OKANA 1031

Since September 2000 it has been providing access to information on Psychotropic Substances, short-term personalized counseling, immediate assistance and psychological support to users and their family environment.

8.3.7 Alcoholics Rehabilitation Hotline

210 5323803 NGO addressed to adults addicted to alcohol.

8.3.8 Open Helpline for Gambling 1114

It refers to pathological gambling and provides direct access to information on pathological gambling, help and support even in high risk situations and a first contact with the treatment program. Aimed at people with pathological gambling problems, to professionals and the general public. Operating since 2011 by KETHEA, on a 12-hour basis.

8.3.9 Army Telephone Support Line

800-114-555-1 (Army) and 800-114-555-2 (Air Force). Operating daily since 2003 on a 24 hour basis and providing immediate psychological and support services in crisis situations.

8.3.10 National Helpline for Children SOS 1056 “The Smile of the Child”

It has been operating since 1997 nationwide 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, providing psychological support and counseling for children, adolescents and parents. Also, among other things, it provides information and guidance on matters relating to children's rights and child protection.

8.3.11 SOS Women’s Line 15900

Aimed at women victims of violence with 24-hour counseling and psychological support services throughout the year. From March 2011 to November 2014 it has received about 18,000 calls and 175 emails.

8.3.12 SOS Line “Beside You”

800 11 88 881 provides psychological, legal and other 12hour support to battered women from Europe Women's Network.

8.3.13 Cancer Helpline 1069

It was created by the NGO “Be Strong” and helps people involved with cancer (patients and relatives) to overcome the mental and emotional impact. The innovation in this case is that the line also enables psychosocial support online. Through the website www.bestrong.org.gr one can come into contact with the scientific team of the organization, using chat, video chat, and e-mail.

8.3.14 Helpline for Depression 1034

It was created by the Institute of Mental Health (E.P.I.P.S.Y) in 2008. It provides counseling, psychological support and information on the issues of depression and mental health in general.

8.3.15 Intervention Hotline for Suicide 1018

NGO “Klimaka” was launched in 2007 to increase awareness and intervention to prevent suicides through the use of the above telephone line. It aims at people who are thinking about suicide, people who have attempted suicide in the past, people with suicidal behaviour and people experiencing loss or are worried about another person.

8.3.16 Telephone Support Line for Breastfeeding 10525

It provides correct and responsible information on breastfeeding, with members from the field of medicine, pediatrics, and obstetrics. It is addressed to nursing mothers and health professionals (ALKYONI Program, National Breastfeeding Promotion Initiative).

These telephone support lines are indicative, as there is quite a large number of telephone support lines at this time in Greece. This study is a mere attempt to identify the main lines that appear through search engines.

8.4 Internet e-counseling services

Apart from the existence of SOS telephone lines, if we search the internet, we realise that there are also e-counseling services, as in the case of the NGO “Be Strong”. Taking as an example the tele-services of this NGO, we will be briefly make a reference to the operation of a Counseling platform online.

Thus, the site of this NGO, namely the Support web site, there are two (2) banners, depending on the manner in which a person wishes to communicate-either through texting (Be Strong Chat) or via skype. Between the two banners there is an offline or online indication, depending on whether there is a mental health specialist available at that moment or not. There is also the ability to communicate via e-mail. Up to today, over five hundred (500) people have addressed this body of experts and have received advice and support, through direct text messaging (chat), and about four hundred (400) individuals via e-mail.

9. Possible weaknesses of e-counseling

Of course, although the usefulness of e-counseling is great, the whole process poses several limitations, which by itself creates enough questions of an ethical nature and ethical content. Initially, the matter we should focus on is who is able to provide counseling services from a distance and who will seek and accept such services as a consultee. The “experts” providing these services need to be trained, to have the necessary power to use new technologies and to use e-counseling tools correctly in order to achieve their maximum contribution to resolving the situations experienced by each consultee.

A key question in this kind of consultative process is the substitution of the counselor by a “machine”. E-counseling, as evidenced by the “e-” as the first part of the word, refers to Counseling from a distance. That means that the process is not provided in a counselor’s office, but takes place in a different place for both involved. In some cases, such as sending and receiving e-mail, not only is the place where the counselor and consultee are different, but also the time of communication. The absence of “natural”, “real” presence and its substitution by a “machine” (computer, telephone) generates additional dilemmas on whether the basic principles of counseling are followed and how helpful such a procedure might prove for the individual. However, by an initial investigation of e-counseling services in Greece today, we could say that these services are constantly finding increasing resonance. The increasing access of more and more people to new technologies, the need for access to new technologies, anonymity and the Counseling procedure which is not exercised in person, are some of the reasons why some people turn to “e-counselors”.

10. Instead of a conclusion

Despite whatever differences we find with conventional counseling, the importance of e-counseling is not limited to supposed “disadvantages - advantages”. It is human needs that redefine the questions in the Counseling field and review the roles of the counselor and consultee, eventually providing new meaning to the whole Counseling process and the prospects we have known about so far.

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**Psychoeducational Counselling for Anger Management and Conflict
Resolution**

Abstract:

The implementation and the results of four psychoeducational programs concerning anger management and conflict resolution will be described in this article. The Juvenile Probation Service of Piraeus took the initiative in implementing the programs of primary and secondary prevention of aggression for children and teenagers. The programs were implemented: a) in a class of 12 - year - old pupils of a primary school in the area of Piraeus during sch. year 2015-16, and b) in three small groups of juvenile offenders during the years 2013-2016. The results were positive and encouraging for the continuation of group counselling in both formal and informal education.

Keywords: anger, aggression, juvenile delinquency, psychoeducation, primary/secondary prevention

Afroditi Mallouchou¹ and Christina Moutsopoulou²

1. Introduction

¹ Afroditi Mallouchou, PhD candidate, MSc Social and Educational Policy, University of the Peloponnese, Juvenile probation officer - social worker. Email: afroditimallouchou@gmail.com, 29 Nikitara St., Keratsini, 18756, Greece

² Christina Moutsopoulou, MSc Psychology of Education, Juvenile probation officer – psychologist. Email: chris.mou@windowslive.com, 5a Mytilinis St, Anixi, 14569, Greece

Anger is one of the basic human emotions, already manifest since the beginning of infancy. It constitutes the link of a chain, which is associated with the developmental process of the individual's socialization. The right management of anger is learnt through the complicated procedures of emotional maturation, supported by appropriate training.

On the other hand, aggression is a complicated and manifold phenomenon. It is composed of a multiplicity of factors that are in a continual interaction with each other. Aggression in children and teenagers may cause difficulties in the development of social skills, emotional self-adjustment, moral growth and generally social adaptation (Tarolla, Wagner, Rabinowitz, & Tubman, 2002; Stams et al., 2006). For that reason, it must be handled and prevented with concerted efforts in multiple levels and ambits.

In recent years the increase in the number of violent incidents among children and teenagers is an issue of deep concern for the international community. Conflicts between minors are sometimes part of their routine and have occurred in all societies, in relation to the survival rules modulated by each society. However, some behaviours constitute unusual threat or danger, calling for an immediate and accurate intervention.

2. Psychoeducation

2.1 The meaning of psychoeducation

In this article, when we refer to psychoeducation, we mean a counselling procedure focused on: a) understanding the difficulties that a child or a teenager faces, b) devising and implementing cooperative educational developmental approaches, by which the individual may be empowered and learn pro-social behaviours. Psychoeducation is a contemporary short-term group counselling method which makes good use of the group's potential in order to improve the social communication and cognitive skills of the participants. It also promotes interpersonal learning. Psychoeducational groups aim to enhance the members' personal and interpersonal skills through experiential participation and interaction. They encourage children's and teenagers' autonomy and the development of their adaptive abilities in order to face social challenges in their daily life.

2.2 Objectives of psychoeducation

Some of the basic and most important objectives of a psychoeducational program aiming at children and teenagers are the following:

- To explore, understand and overcome dysfunctional behaviour models.
- To develop social and communication skills.

- To train in recognizing, managing and expressing emotions.
- To strengthen the self-esteem of the participants.
- To help adopt more effective reactions in confrontational situations.
- To provide knowledge to prevent and handle future anger- provoking difficulties.
- To support the belief that the ability to change is within oneself.

3. Education and primary prevention

Education is one of the main formal socialization procedures. Schooling plays a principal and important role in a child's life (Petrie, 2005) and has been recognized –after the family- as the second most important socializing institution (Gilligan, 1998). The school environment is the field which -in addition to providing knowledge- plays a key- role in a child's development at all levels (biological, social, psychological) and ensures the reproduction of the social and cultural context and, in this respect, it ensures social coherence and continuity.

In recent years, both internationally and in the school reality of Greece, there has been a quantitative and qualitative differentiation in the expression of aggressive and violent behaviours among students of primary schools and teenagers of secondary schools. Aggression is expressed in various aspects of life and of course the school reality cannot be an exception. By studying the phenomenon of child and youth violence in Greece, one can notice that in principle there is not much difference to data recorded on a research level in other European countries (Queloz, 2011). The problem may appear aggravated by the media for obvious reasons of publicity, but concern about increasing violence is absolutely justified.

Educational reforms, historically since the establishment of the Greek state until today, concern not only the field of learning, with respect to knowledge and skills (mainly cognitive and artistic skills) acquisition, but also in shaping the pupils' personality with the view of achieving their smooth and successful socialization (Tsiganou, 2009: 141). In recent years teachers and mental health counsellors have been looking into the relationships that children develop with their peers. Research findings show that children who have poor relationships with their peers, may face behavioural and socio - psychological difficulties in later stages of their development (Triliva & Chimienti, 1998β).

Primary prevention is an early and firm step by means of tools and applications at our disposal to prevent the onset of more serious perplexed problems. School-based prevention is relatively new in Greece and involves promoting mental health in children. Preventive educational programs focusing on social skills are widely accepted and applied. The educational philosophy is steadily evolving towards pursuing children's social and

emotional development as educational objectives, besides their school progress (Triliva & Chimienti, 1998a).

3.1 Psychoeducational intervention programs in formal education: “Anger management – Conflict resolution” in primary education

The Juvenile Probation Service of Piraeus in an effort to respond to the needs of the local community and to continue its collaboration with a primary school in the wider region of Piraeus³, accepted the invitation of the School Head concerning the implementation of a psychoeducational program of primary prevention of aggression and conflict resolution in a class of 25 sixth- grade pupils.

The Service, already having developed a similar program for teenage and post-teenage offenders at the level of secondary prevention of delinquency (which will be described below in more detail) agreed to coordinate this school-based intervention with the help of two Juvenile Probation Officers. This intervention was a challenge for the Service and in particular for the two coordinators/animators, mainly because of the experiential interactions within a group of 25 children. However, a structured psychoeducational program targeting at the pupils’ personal development and maturation within the school timetable, which is mainly knowledge-based, seemed to have opened new perspectives for the educational community .

The duration of the program lasted over eight two-hourly weekly meetings (February-March 2016). The meetings were introduced as part of the school subjects “Social and Political Education” and the “Flexible Zone” (zone of inter-discipline projects and discussions). The objectives were: a) to help the children develop their social skills and learn techniques how to better manage their anger and peacefully resolve potential conflicts, and b) to promote effective teamwork and understanding of the notions of anger, rights, respect for diversity, conciliation and solidarity in an experiential manner.

4. Implementation of the program

The program was implemented in an area outside the classroom. The library hall was considered the most appropriate place for group counselling. In this roomy space and under new learning conditions, the pupils were seated in a circle around the large table of the hall. The first meeting was largely characterized by embarrassment, questions, curiosity, perhaps

³ The Juvenile Probation Service had intervened in this school to support psychosocially a pupil who was extremely aggressive and prone to be expelled from his school environment

some fear, but also some expectations. At this stage the main concern of the coordinators was to familiarize all participants with one another.

In the beginning of the program the technique “angry balloons” was presented, which aroused the pupils’ in what would follow in the next meetings. Children, though classmates for six years, began to get to know each other in new ways, as they began to share their thoughts, experiences and feelings.

During the first meeting it was important for the coordinators to explore into the needs, desires and expectations of the participants, as well as to specify the goals of the program. The signing of a contract, which was formed by the members themselves and stated their obligations within the group, was the first step to set the group's limits. Meanwhile, all participants felt responsible for committing themselves to a common purpose. The basic team rules were originally set by the participants themselves and included: commitment to the program, free expression of thoughts and feelings, respect to others, prohibition of verbal or physical violence, active participation of all members.

By recognising the emotion of anger and exploring the reasons that set it off helped participants better understand it. At the sight of the “Human figure” the participants were invited to design the warning signs of anger physiology in order to learn to recognize the physiological signs on both their own body and on others, well before the onset of aggression.

During the second meeting the allegorical meaning of a fairytale was used, which was about an angry green dragon and the soothing effect of the magic box which relieved him from the racking expression of his anger.

The "Diary of anger" which was handed out during the third meeting was the subject of discussion and reflection at the beginning of each subsequent meeting. It gave the opportunity to the children to unfold their conflicts over the past week at home, at school and in the wider social environment and to elaborate further on their experiences under the light of their newly acquired social skills. The pupils understood that aggression and conflict often occur in response to some stimuli. However, they also understood that the most important trigger in feeling angry is how the individual interpretes the perceived stimulus and not the stimulus itself.

The “Circle of change” (KE.TH.E.A, 2000) was used as a tool of behaviour modification. The pupils through the geometrical shape of the circle, began to perceive their change towards non- aggressive/ assertive behaviours not as a one- way journey, but as a circle with four stages (concern, action, maintenance, back- to-start), that can turn in both

directions, in which they should always be ready to stick to their choice when deciding to make changes in their lives.

Recognising, understanding and respecting the emotions of others was the topic of the first social skill card that was distributed to the children; the notion of “empathy” was introduced in this activity. In addition, the “label of self-esteem” with its respective activity helped the children understand the meaning of empathy and its role in shaping healthy interpersonal relationships. They also discovered how many positive personality traits their peers could spot in them.

Practicing in basic anger control techniques (such as: self-guidance, short relaxation, blocking the reaction of anger by a deterring thought) and training in social skills and conflict management techniques (such as assertiveness as a form of self - supporting behaviour without verbal or physical aggression) took place through role- playing games in which all pupils were very eager to get involved.

The last meeting had focused on moral reasoning. The objectives set for the pupils were the following: a) to achieve more mature pro-social thinking by considering other people’s perspectives to moral dilemmas and by behaving with self- confidence and empathy and b) to decide maturely with social responsibility on issues concerning friendship, honesty and respect for the others’ personalities and differences. The main objective was to adopt a pro-social attitude in terms of social justice, solidarity, cooperation and personal responsibility for the well-being of others.

It is worth noting that through this program, which was piloted in a primary school, all pupils had the opportunity to express their thoughts and feelings. The coordinators considered as extremely beneficial the active participation of those "weaker" and “more shy” pupils, who had been hiding for years –whether willingly or not- on the backstage of activities and perhaps for the first time felt the joy of moving onto the stage of action.

The whole project was met with enthusiasm by all pupils and its presentation to parents and teachers was suggested by the School Head. The preparation for the presentation lasted three meetings. Through this procedure all students had the opportunity to apply directly in practice, what they had learned during the psychoeducational counselling program itself. They collaborated harmoniously, took active roles in narrations, role - play and songs (which referred to anger but also to love) and presented the whole program themselves with consistency and responsibility, under the supervision of the coordinators.

4.1 Evaluation of the program

After the completion of the eight meetings the coordinators asked the pupils to evaluate the program by anonymous questionnaires of fifteen questions relating to the following domains: a) infrastructure, b) relationships with other participants and the coordinators, c) methods / techniques and d) general objectives. Most questions could be answered on a five-point Likert scale ("no", "a little", "quite", "a lot", "very much"). There were also some open questions in which the participants were asked to honestly express their thoughts and feelings for the program, as well as their ideas and suggestions for other future programs.

The following findings were drawn from the answers to the questionnaire and through discussions with the children:

- Pupils that take an active role in the preparation and signing of a "contract" are bound to show greater responsibility during the meetings.
- They began to act as a team, to respect other opinions, to communicate with each other without fear or shame, to recognize some positive behaviours in their classmates and to bypass some other negative traits which in principle could bother them the most.
- They became more skillfull at recognizing and expressing their feelings.
- They became more skilfull and empathetic at recognising and understanding the feelings of others.
- They felt that they were helped to control their anger and to avoid fighting.
- They felt that they could beter engage in discussion and self - supportive behaviours in order to defend their rights, rather than to express aggression.
- They expressed the desire for a prolongation of the program or for future implementation of other similar experiential counselling programs at school.

It should be noted that during the program's presentation to parents and teachers, which took place two months after its completion, the teacher of Physical Education pointed out that in the past the two sixth-grade classes had antagonistic relations and often got involved in fights with each other. Recently, the class in which the program was implemented tended to avoid fighting altogether.

From the above it appears that the implementation of group psychoeducational programs in the school environment has multiple benefits for the pupils but also for the whole educational community. Therefore, group prevention programs need to be carried out more frequently as group cooperative procedures may contribute to individual development as well as to more effective group management of confrontational situations.

In conclusion, the school can be seen as key-factor in positively affecting the children's maturation course, by meeting their needs and concerns. It is necessary to view the role of schooling in its essentially educatory purpose. Briefly, education should aim at fully supporting the social and emotional development of children. In this perspective, a vision of a society with less violence and a higher quality of life may be close at hand.

4.2 Youth delinquency and secondary prevention

Ever since the previous century, social scientists have been studying youth delinquency. It is still a contemporary international social issue, perplexed and multi-factorial. Youth and youth delinquency are prompt indicators of the issues that trouble communities (Queloz, 2011: 14). Young people's mal-adaptation to communities and youth delinquency are symptoms of a deeper moral crisis. Signs of this mal-adaptation may become apparent when the individual has difficulty in relating to the values of his/her social environment, and equally when the environment fails to meet the needs of the individual (Magganas, 2004). But youth delinquency can also be considered an expression of the existential anxiety that a young person feels as he/she seeks for his/ her own psychosocial identity. Delinquency arises when the relation between the individual and the social environment gets disrupted (Pitsela, 2006).

Lately, it has become a common topic to address children's and teenagers' aggression. Violent behaviours in children may at-first-glance not seem so alarming, whereas teenage and youth aggression may become dangerous or even threaten human lives.

Aggression prevention programs in Greece have mainly targetted school populations. However, according to research data (Sukhodolsky & Ruchkin, 2004), juvenile offenders have higher levels of aggression in comparison to their peers. Aggression is linked to delinquent behaviour, when the offender uses aggression and at the same time he/she infringes the law. Secondary prevention of aggression/ delinquency should be a prime issue of concern for societies, as most adult criminals started their criminal behaviour in adolescence (Greenwood, 2008). Juvenile probation officers have the duty- amongst others- to prevent youth delinquency and help minors reduce, through counselling, their levels of aggression. In other countries, various psychoeducational programs are put into effect (within Juvenile Probation Services or schools) in order to help children and teenagers enhance their moral reasoning and social skills (Glick & Gibs, 2011).

The adaptation of juvenile offenders to educational and vocational settings is a basic requirement for their successful social progress. But adapting to such contexts requires social skills, psychosocial support, motivation to change their aggressive behaviours into assertive

pro-social behaviours and improve their moral reasoning. But the question remains as such: How can a juvenile offender manage to re-adjust to society, if he/she does not possess the basic moral and psycho-social skills in order to respond to society's demands?

Today, youth delinquency is dealt with in a preventive and restorative manner, as suppressive methods seem to have failed. In line with International and European standards, the Greek penal legislation has supported child-friendly justice. Law 3189/2003- which was innovative for the Greek penal law- reinforced and extended the educational and therapeutic measures to treat juvenile delinquency. An educational measure, for example, may involve the minor in attending socio-psychological programs in state, municipal or private entities (art. 122 of the Penal Code). In this context, juvenile probation officers felt the need to develop a psycho-educational program within their Service to help juvenile offenders reduce their aggressive behaviours.

5. Psychoeducational intervention program in informal education: “Anger management - Conflict resolution” for juvenile offenders

According to the youth welfare and educative spirit of juvenile law, which is mainly based on youth protection and prevention of re-offending, the Juvenile Probation Service of Piraeus implemented a psychoeducational counselling program of secondary prevention of aggression, which aimed at helping the minors reflect on their aggressive behaviours and discuss openly their delinquency choices. Three short- term programs, entitled “Anger management- conflict resolution”, have been completed so far in the Service. The duration of each program was eight weekly two - hourly meetings (May - June 2013, February - March 2014 and March - April 2016). The participants were 15-19 year-old boys, who had committed punishable acts ranging from thefts to serious physical assaults, who additionally showed violent behaviours and were placed under probation/ supervision of the Juvenile Probation Service. Participation in these psycho-educational groups was voluntary. Each group had 5-10 participants.

6. Implementation of the program

Each one of the eight meetings of the program aimed at different aspects of anger management: Recognition of anger, discerning between anger trigger- offs and aggressive behaviours, awareness of the physiological system related to anger expression, cognitive elaboration of threatening stimuli, systematic recording of conflicts and their resolution over the weeks that the program lasted, learning specific techniques of anger control (self-

guidance, short relaxation, preventive thinking), training in techniques to manage conflicts and unfair situations (self- support and self- assertion methods), learning social skills, promoting moral reasoning in matters of friendship, honesty and respect of other people's property, and lastly, assuming personal responsibility. All the above were pursued during individual and group activities, by means of different tools (the "Human figure", the "Anger thermometer", a "Diary of anger", audio-visual resources, skill cards, cards for scenarios/ role- playing, scenarios of moral dilemmas). Moreover, the "Aggression Questionnaire" of Buss & Perry (1992) and the "Questionnaire of sociomoral development" of Glick & Gibbs (2011) were used as indicative tools to measure the participants' beliefs and attitudes.

More specifically, during the diagnostic phase, the teenagers were asked to answer the self- report questionnaire of socio-moral development (adaptation from Glick & Gibbs, 2011). The answers were announced in a circle and the participants could further elaborate on their answers orally. No answer received a negative comment. The following were observed:

- The teenagers gave answers in an axiomatic manner, e.g, "Because one should keep his word" or "It should be so".
- Some answers seemed childish, e.g. "If you do not keep your word, you will get punished", "So that no one can tell me off", which probably refer to a less advanced developmental stage, according to Glick & Gibbs, 2011 (egocentric stage).
- Answers tended to reflect generalisations or stereotypes; "Thieves are the worst kind of people", "Those who made the laws do not obey them".
- There was often a contradiction between the notion of "lawfulness" and "justice": "The law is unfair, but we have to obey it".

Consequently, in order to promote moral reasoning, the teenagers were trained in solving moral dilemmas. At first, they were asked to answer questions, such as "What should the hero of the story say or do?". A table of answers was drawn on a board. Everybody was given the chance to justify their answers/ or change or revise them later on. The final answers of some teenagers were more pro-social than others. These were used as model answers.

The data validity was ensured by the presence of two coordinators-juvenile probation officers and of a third observer- juvenile probation officer during the meetings. For the second group of teenagers the Service had invited an exterior mentor who offered her help and support to the coordinators.

6.1 Evaluation of the program

One can notice a transfer of the teenagers' initial egocentric beliefs to more mature empathetic attitudes, but also a steady step towards assuming personal responsibility concerning the committed act or the involvement in the conflict. Specifically:

- The low tolerance towards a different opinion/ preference was gradually replaced by the belief that the emotion of anger stems from within oneself and therefore it can be placed under control.
- In the beginning, the teenagers described their aggressive behaviour as a learnt automatic reaction to a threat, while their conflicts with other people (known or strangers) related to annoyance, unfairness and showing - off. Later, they realized the power of self- control on their own behaviour.
- The initial lack of empathy towards the victims (which was expressed through mocking) gradually faded, as all members of the group had to take on different roles in the role- playing games. Similarly, at first, the consequences of violence concerned the offenders only (egocentric stage), such as conflict with the law, court proceedings, a violent reaction of the victim and injury of the offender. During the program, the teenagers would take a more global view on the consequences of violence, by considering the victim as well.
- The teenagers had a difficulty in justifying their answers to the questions of moral reasoning. This perhaps reflected their difficulty in expressing their thoughts in words, as most participants had low school achievement. Great effort was put into getting the teenagers consider themselves responsible for their own acts and aggressiveness. The assumption of personal responsibility and the duty of repairing the damage were both central to the discussion with the teenagers.

In general, the teenagers showed consistency in their meetings, which is rather atypical for juvenile offenders. They cooperated and communicated with each other, seemed to retain notions learnt in previous meetings, were open to each other, respected other opinions, actively participated in all activities and expressed their feelings and thoughts. However, they could not always transfer their learnt social skills to their homes, especially when parents used verbal aggression to resolve conflicts.

In particular, despite the short duration of the program, there was a remarkable improvement on the Aggression questionnaire, and especially in the dimension of Physical Aggression. Moral thinking was also promoted to a more advanced developmental stage, owing to group contribution to more mature/ pro-social moral reasoning. During the program, it was apparent how the participants realized the role of self-control in conflict situations.

In conclusion, the above are all positive results from implementing counselling programs of aggression management in groups of juvenile offenders; these programs may effectively contribute to preventing re-offending, and also to support good psycho-educational practices of youth re-inclusion.

7. Discussion

The recent increase in violent behaviours, which according to international literature (Greenwood, 2008) may lead teenagers into future adult delinquent behaviours, should motivate all stakeholders into taking action at all prevention levels (primary and secondary). After the implementation of the above programs, the following were remarked:

- i. The need to implement counselling programs on a more systematic basis at both primary and secondary level of aggression prevention.
- ii. The need to train parents in managing their own anger and the anger of their children, in order to retain effective conflict resolution skills at home.
- iii. The need to train and support teachers in effectively resolving conflicts at school.
- iv. The need to link the Juvenile Probation Service to schools of primary and secondary education.

It should be noticed that for the implementation of the above psychoeducational programs, the cooperation of two coordinators was considered necessary, as this offered a greater range of interventions, ideas, skills and personality traits of both. The differences of the two coordinators enriched the meetings, as they drew upon their good interpersonal relation, their mutual trust and shared a “common” language. Their cooperation was also stress-relieving as it enabled them to share feelings and concerns.

8. Instead of an Epilogue

The implementation of psychoeducational programs in schools, but also at a secondary level for the prevention of violence and delinquency amongst juvenile offenders, seem to help children and teenagers resolve their conflicts in a self-assertive manner, help reduce prejudice, tolerate each other and help repair disrupted interpersonal relations. Moreover, these programs may help deepen the understanding of notions such as empathy, respect, justice, cooperation, human rights and solidarity. Consequently, programs like the above, through experiential training, can help children and teenagers adopt these principles and values not only in their school life, but also in other out-of-school social environments and interpersonal relations.

Psychoeducational counselling programs like the above can be included in both formal and informal educational settings. Through catering for the new generation, what is actually invested upon is the quality of life and a mid-term amelioration of our society.

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Inmates Career Counseling

Abstract:

Inmates are individuals who carry the stigma of incarceration and will be the victims of stereotyped behavior and multiple, direct and indirect discrimination. It is taken for granted that they will face much more employment barriers than the average person because of the low educational level, social stigma, lack of social skills, the criminal record and the long absence from the workplace. Through the implementation of educational programs in detention facilities, the legitimate and elementary commodity of education is offered and the interconnection of incarcerated population with the wider society is ensured. The holistic approach of education, which incorporates effective counseling interventions, serves as preparation for life after “prison” and the social and professional integration of inmates. The introduction of the institution of Second Chance Schools in detention facilities contributes sufficiently effectively towards this direction.

Keywords: Inmates, SCS in detention facilities, career guidance, job search techniques, project method, group intervention, experiential exercises

Patrikakou Anna¹ and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹ Patrikakou Anna, Economist / Career Counselor, Specialization Program in Counseling and Guidance. Email: annapatrikakou@hotmail.com

² Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D, M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling and Guidance). Email: gekougioum@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

The population of inmates is characterized by versatility, showing age, cognitive, cultural, ethnic and criminal diversity. In addition, inmates in whole have current needs for respect, acceptance, freedom and security. Although work is the one that will ensure the satisfaction of their expectations in the future, their needs and their demands extend beyond job search techniques. For this reason, career guidance is primarily aimed at strengthening the counselees so as to be able to function effectively and creatively in the whole consultative process.

The counselees, apart from the job placement techniques, practice social skills through individual and group level interventions. Within a secure framework offered by experiential activities, they learn to manage problematic situations, develop alternative ways of thinking and acting, cultivate their personal empowerment and get suitably prepared for life after their release. The acquisition of such knowledge and skills is not a passive state, but the inmates are actively involved in the process of their empowerment. The role of the counselor focuses on coaching, encouraging and facilitating this process (Rigoutsou, 2005).

2. Education and Counseling in detention facilities

2.1 The objectives of education in detention facilities

In detention facilities, various educational training and skills development programs have implemented, aiming at (Papatzanaki, Pykni & Sereti, 2005; Rigoutsou, 2005):

- ✚ Reconnection with the educational process.
- ✚ Minimizing the “hardships” of incarceration.
- ✚ Creative coverage of dead time.
- ✚ Acquisition and upgrading of basic skills.
- ✚ Acquisition of new skills.
- ✚ Acquisition of social skills.
- ✚ Contributing to the reintegration of the inmate into society.
- ✚ Finding a job after release.
- ✚ Restriction of phenomena of delinquency.

2.2 Benefits of educational programs

Through investigation it has been confirmed that the provision of education within the prison environment reduces relapse (Allen, 1988; Batiuk, 1997; Bazos & Hausman, 2004; Clark, 1991; Steurer, Smith & Tracy, 2001), the reengagement of inmates in delinquent activities and the use of force, while contributing decisively to make prison more humanized

(Newman, Lewis & Beverstock, 1993). Jancic, (1998, as cited in Rigoutsou, 2005) states, in particular, that the international research experience shows that education in prison has a positive impact on inmates and reduces the number of inmates who are put back in prison, and the recurrence of the criminal action in significant numbers.

2.3. Benefits of counseling interventions

Moreover, the application of any correctional program is ineffective without the education of the incarcerated population, as well as social and professional reintegration is impossible without focused and appropriate counseling. Surveys have shown that the involvement of inmates in educational programs greatly improves their social skills (Parker, 1990) and the artistic ones -traits that help in crisis management and problem solving, promote critical thinking and prudence (Ripley, 1993). The educational programs offer academic education but, above all, development of positive and creative aspects of their personality – especially when combined with counseling programs, providing supplies for work seeking and ensure a better life in medium and long term.

3. The institution of Second Chance School in detention facilities

The Second Chance Schools of detention facilities are schools for adults established in “correctional institutions” and consist part of the wider context of the fight against social exclusion.

With regard to the objectives of SCS that operate within the detention facilities they remain the same as those of conventional SCS, which operate outside. Thus, in addition to educational processes for the transmission of basic knowledge, social and cultural educational activities are implemented, as projects are organized with the collaboration of teachers and external associates-volunteers.

Also innovative services of psychological counseling as well as career counseling are established (Basoukou, Panayiotou, Chalioulia & Kougioumtzis, 2015; Patrikakou & Kougioumtzis, 2015), which operate as main re-socialization institutions and aim directly at social and economic reintegration of inmates (Krivas & Kagkalidou, 2003).

3.1 The Greek innovation of Second Chance School in detention facilities

The introduction of the SCS in detention facilities in Greece compared with other European countries, where the specific institution exists, is an exclusive innovative application of Greek

education and correctional system³. Until now a total of 8 SCS operate in the country's detention facilities. Indeed, a growing trend of establishing SCS in detention facilities is noted, which increases the positions offered for education and thus gives the right to participate in the educational process to an increasing number of inmates there.

Although the term 'prison' in criminal law of Greece has been replaced under the Law 1851/1989 with the term 'detention facilities', the use of the term prison is often found even in basic correctional institutions, such as the 'Central Scientific Council of Prisons', the 'Prison Board' or the 'Central Warehouse of Prison Material', while the SCS detention facilities have been recorded by various bodies as SCS in Prisons (SDEF)⁴.

3.2 Operating limitations of SCS in detention facilities

The special field of detention facilities places certain restrictions which differentiate the operation of SCS inside them at some points. The differences of the SCS operating outside detention facilities and are addressed to the general population are located mainly in the target group and the multicomplexity of its problems, the building "sheltered" facility and the impossibility of movement of learners, which makes the constant collaborations and invitations of external associates-volunteers necessary.

3.3 Establishment of Career Counseling

As the concept of vocational guidance is a complex term, various terminologies have been expressed, such as vocational counseling, career counseling and career guidance.

In SCS the use of career counseling has been introduced (Kalava-Milona & Kyriakidis, 2013), serving the point of view that defines career counseling as the composition of educational and vocational counseling, and consists a fundamental, systematic and organized process in counseling adults (McCarthy, 2004; Patrikakou & Kougioumtzis, 2015).

Important elements of career counseling are that it includes support in regard to the total of work and leisure time, to the sequence of jobs and to other roles in life (family, community), which are combined to express the commitment of the individual to work within the framework of total self-development (Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou, 2008).

³ In the European Commission's White Paper on Education and Training of 1995 there is no reference to prisoners as a target group of SCS. According to Vergidis, Asimaki & Tzintzidi (2007: 70), however, the inmates "have all the features of SCS target group", and "have low levels of education and are in fact those who are not only at risk but experience marginalization and exclusion". The first SCS in detention facilities was established in Larissa in 2004.

⁴ The Greek Ministry of Education Research and Religious Affairs addresses the SCS in the same way as a whole, without separating those operating within detention facilities. The official name of these schools contains no term related to enforcement detention to avoid the stigmatization of learners.

4. Career Counseling at SCS

4.1 Counseling approach

The consultative approach of learners in SCS follows the basic principles of counseling of adults, as the participants are 18 and older, although the biological / chronological age, as we know it, does not always coincide with adulthood. Counseling is associated with the personality, preferences, values, interests and abilities of counsees, and all the effort is focused on enhancing personal development.

Career counseling at SCS is designed to help individuals make career choices which will facilitate their adaptation to the professional context and hence to their overall personal development and maturation (Dimitropoulos, 2000).

4.2 Differentiation of Career Counseling in SCS in detention facilities

Career counseling, provided to persons belonging to vulnerable social groups, such as inmates, theoretically does not differ from the procedure which is followed for any other individual of the general population. On a practical level, however, difficulties not faced in other cases, arise from the peculiarities of these individuals:

The experience of incarceration, with everything that entails, is one of them and is added to the other external and internal factors. Symptoms caused by the experience of incarceration make social and professional adaptation of ex-prisoners difficult (Liebling & Maruna, 2005). Aloskofis (2013), sociologist at the judicial prison of Korydallos, referring to the preparation of inmates for release, mentions the need of strengthening, enhancement of confidence and efficiency mechanisms, capacity activation and resilience.

5. Objectives of counseling intervention

One of the goals of counseling is the counsees to realize their potential and identify the type of work for which they believe they have the necessary qualifications. In every counsee there is a potential that can be exploited and developed. The contribution of the counselor is to make it visible to the individual, to teach methods and practices that will activate him so as to be able to manage the difficulties that will arise when trying to access the labor market. The activities of the counseling intervention revolve around personalized diagnosis of personal and social needs of counsees, and the matching of interests and skills to market requirements (Kelidou, 2011).

Information on occupations and job search methods, however, require that a satisfactory level of self-awareness is preceded (Katsanevas, 2009), which is achieved to some extent through activities which are implemented under career counseling.

Consequently career counseling relates to a wide range of career skills (Charokopaki, 2005: 139), which includes:

- Skills and abilities associated with work functions (technical and professional),
- social and personal skills (cognitive, personality, business and interpersonal including job search skills (Candas, 1996)), but also
- broader qualifications related to language proficiency, intercultural competence and international professional competence (Sidiropoulou, 2011, as cited in Charokopaki, 2005).

6. Methodology-Techniques

6.1 Personalized approach

Through the personal and professional account of counselees, the counselor assesses the situation of the specific moment. The evaluation of the personal circumstances of each counselee is achieved through systematic assessment of knowledge, skills, priorities, personality characteristics, experiences, inclinations, interests and occupational preferences (Dimitropoulos, 2002). In the process various tools are utilized, such as interest, values and business decisions tests.

6.2 Self-assessment skills

The self-investigation process leads learners to realize their shortcomings and weaknesses and to further explore their educational needs (language, professional specialization). Of course, it is important that they can assess themselves and connect their personal characteristics with education and employment opportunities. The determination of professional projects is done in cooperation with the counselor by combining the objective possibilities and wishes of counselees.

6.3 Individual training plan

Thus, in the context of career counseling they are informed about education or training opportunities that are offered and they get directed towards their personal aspirations. Alternative career options are explored and objective targets are set in relation to existing data. Then, personal action plan is compiled and the steps to achieve the goals are set out (Rigoutsou, 2005).

6.4 Knowledge of the labor market

The counselor informs counselees about the necessary requirements that are set by some employers, such as acquisition of the English language, car or two-wheel driving license and basic computing literacy. Furthermore, it is important that the counselor have updated information on market trends and the professions in greatest demand, to launch the interest of

the counselees towards them. Some professions, such as technicians, computer programmers, equipment operators and salespeople, have been observed to have high demand over time (Dimitrouli & Tiktapanidou, 2004). It is also important that the counselees familiarize themselves with many professions, some of which potentially they may not be aware of.

6.5 Interface with the labor market

One of the most important interface operations with the labor market is the scheduling of visits by representatives of the business world. Employers who are willing to participate in such actions are many and often urge learners to visit them after the end of their detention.

In this context, it is possible for a counselor to organize lectures, employment programs presentations, examples of vocational rehabilitation of former inmates, interview simulations with real employers, organization of individual-professional portfolios⁵ and presentation of the achievements of learners from the different workshops they got involved in the course of their education.

6.6 Awareness of stereotypes

Additionally, it is important that inmates be sensitized to the professional stereotypes that will hinder their integration into the labor market and be prepared for the limitations that will incur. This may be done through activities for identifying discrimination and decoding of the respective social representations. Through the stimuli that will be given, unfavorable treatment due to diversity can be directly recognized or the removal of the stereotype can be highlighted (Andonopoulou & Dardanou, 2012). Generally, it is advisable the period of detention not be concealed, but instead be presented to employers as a difficult but important experience of their life and personality (Rigoutsou, 2005).

6.7 Job search techniques

There are several ways to approach the issue of job search techniques. The goal is to implement an effective methodology that is adapted to the requirements of each individual counselee. Indeed, emphasis is placed on searching skills and the retention of work, which are ensured largely by the acquisition of new technologies and information management (Charokopaki, 2005).

6.7.1 CV Writing

A CV is successful when it emphasizes the positive elements and degrades the potential negatives. The general rules define that it needs to be simple, complete and clear (Karalis, 2003). The prevailing CV structure is based on core sections, the main ones are:

⁵ Personal skills portfolio.

- ✚ Personal Information
- ✚ Studies or Education-Training
- ✚ Foreign Languages
- ✚ Work Experience
- ✚ Studies-Posts
- ✚ Specific knowledge
- ✚ Other information or activities
- ✚ Interests
- ✚ References

A good resume is necessary in order for someone to be invited to an interview, while it can create the conditions to pass the interview with favorable terms (Marantos, 2000).

6.7.2 Recruitment interview

The recruitment interview is probably the most critical process in trying to find employment. Often it is combined with other methods, such as the completion of specific tests. These tests are a series of carefully selected questions and / or problems in order to outline the personality of the candidate with respect to the offered job. The recruitment interviews are carried out either by a person or by a committee (Billis, 1999).

It is especially important that learners be adequately prepared for this process and be aware of the steps and techniques they need to follow. The preparation includes, among other things, the dress code and non-verbal communication (Karalis, 2003). During their preparation they can write or play roles between them (e.g. employers and unemployed). The simulations can be videotaped and then analyzed / commented in order for them to identify the points that need improvement (Bordone, 2000).

6.7.3 Job Search Channels

6.7.3.1 Social networking

Networking refers to approaching people from the close and wider social network of contacts who can provide job search support. It has been found that more than half of the jobs are occupied through recommendations and acquaintances. It is therefore important that people be activated in this direction. Apart from the environment of friends and relatives there are entities which are exclusively directed at groups of former inmates, such as Epanodos.

6.7.3.2 Classified advertisements

The classifieds are another good source of seeking work, but also an opportunity to be informed about developments in the labor market and the needs of businesses that seek staff. Several newspapers publish special supplements for the labor market, which include job vacancies. Apart from the traditional tactics of print media, the internet is also considered a successful method. In any case, it is necessary that the counselees develop the capacity to evaluate the available job positions and distinguish the characteristics and conditions that are set by employers (Agrafioti, 2011).

6.8 Entrepreneurship Counseling

Setting up a business is an alternative job assurance. Thus, counseling may additionally include business counseling, as many are the inmates who show interest in setting up their own business. Entrepreneurship counseling consists of three stages (Antonopoulou & Dardanou, 2012):

- (a). exploration of the business idea
- (b). development and processing of the business plan,
- (c). implementation of the business plan (business idea development techniques).

The counselor can encourage and guide the counselees to establish a virtual business.

7. The complex role of Career Counselor of SCS in detention facilities

Nejeldo, Arrendodo and Benjamin (1985, as cited in Kalava-Milona & Kyriakidis, 2013) argue that the role of advisor is aimed at promoting the comprehensive development of counselees.

The counselor approaches each counselee with respect, with empathy, without discrimination, accepts him as a distinct personality and develops a special relationship with him, which is based on mutual trust, acceptance and honesty.

In his complex role, the counselor, among other things, guides the counselees to develop positive behaviours which are deemed as necessary for their personal and professional lives as well.

It is important that the counselor, referring to the anyway difficult conditions prevailing in the labor market, indicate that rejection or any misfortune should not be considered a failure and the importance of maintaining optimism and perseverance to fulfill the set objectives.

7.1 Objectives of Career Counselor

According to Kalava-Milona & Kyriakidis (2013: 2), generally in the operational framework of the SCS institution and thus of SCS in detention facilities, *“the career counselor helps the counselee:*

- i. To recognize and come to terms with his identity (who he is, what he is and what he is not) and gradually strengthen self-esteem.
- ii. To investigate and demonstrate his skills, his particular competences, interests and desires.
- iii. To learn to collect all the information which is necessary to pursue and achieve the realization of his objectives.
- iv. To develop critical and synthetic thinking, to be able to take into account all the parameters that concern him and eventually take the most appropriate decisions about his life.
- v. To be able to assume the responsibilities of his actions, to cope with everyday adversities and pursue his goals through persistence, patience, confidence, courage and optimism”.

7.2 Intervention options at individual and group level

The counselor’s work includes providing individual and group counseling and he can organize interventions through experiential workshops or with the form of project, in collaboration with the team of teachers and on topics which arise from the needs of learners (Giotsa, 2010). The project method is appropriate for the development of skills and it is ideal for application in group counseling.

8. Utilization of Project Method in Counseling

The approach of a counseling intervention through the methodology of the project allows to better meet the interests of counselees, who will bestir themselves in order to find answers to their questions. During the implementation of a project in a counseling intervention, the opportunity is given to the counselees to combine knowledge, experiences and skills from different fields in order to solve a problem, thus forming their own point of view (Paraskevopoulos, 2008).

8.1 Objectives of counseling through the implementation of project

Within the general objectives of counseling, through the project method in particular, “*cultivation of qualifications and professional skills is sought, such as* (Kalava-Milona & Kyriakidis, 2013: 14):

- ✚ Development of interpersonal relationships and sociability.
- ✚ Organizational capacity, methodicalness, partnership and teamwork.
- ✚ Self-action, imagination and creativity development.
- ✚ Research activity, ability of criticism and synthetic thinking.
- ✚ Flexibility in terms of labor requirements.
- ✚ Tackling hardship and overcoming personal weaknesses.
- ✚ Taking responsibility, risk and solving personal weaknesses.
- ✚ Self-control, patience, perseverance”.

8.2 Benefits of the project implementation process

8.2.1 Benefits individually

Through the project process skills are cultivated such as critical thinking and autonomy, also competencies of comparison, search and recovery of information, initiative and self-assessment, which lead a person to “learn how to learn”- features that facilitate the integration, retention and development in the labor market (Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou, Alexopoulou, Argyropoulou, Drosos & Tampouri, 2008: 89).

8.2.2 Benefits at a group level

The group self-acts, gaining a sense of personal responsibility and habits of self-discipline and self-management, while the grown-esteem and self-confidence of its members is cultivated through personal achievement and their contribution to the final work. Learners develop interpersonal communication, take initiatives, cultivate creative thinking, settle conflicts, define goals, plan activities, cooperate effectively and take joint responsibility for the result (Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al., 2008).

9. The group process in group intervention

9.1 The power of “relating” in group intervention

Regarding the “change” which is sought in a counseling intervention, significant assumptions are acknowledged in the field of neuroscience which refers to the impact of teamwork and the catalytic power of “relating”, defining the relationships which are developed in a group,

particularly those which give emphasis on positive dimension, which operates as the main agent of change. Synchronization and group cohesion involves learning and social behavior (Gournas, 2012).

The benefits of the group counseling process entail the expansion of all its results to the adoption of a rational and flexible way of thinking and behavior, with positive results in the social and occupational functioning of counselees.

9.2 Development of social and emotional skills within the group

Through the team, social skills are developed, while individual abilities are recognized and evolve, contributing to the development of the required flexibility in working life. Social skills are responsible for successfully carrying out activities which are related to all events of one's life (Panagiotopoulos & Panagiotopoulou, 2005). Emotional skills are also activated which are necessary for someone to identify the mechanisms of conflicts and their resolution (Goleman, 1997).

It is important that the counselees recognize the skills and competencies available, understand what is required for the various business sectors, and at what point they find themselves in connection with them. The awareness and the development of those which are required help the most to their personal development and prepare them for the labor market.

9.3 Group dynamics

The process, which takes place into the context of a team leads to the activation of its members, utilizing communication (sensations, feelings, images, nonverbal patterns), expression of feelings and processing of personal experiences (Polemi-Todoulou, 2003). The dynamic interaction, developed through cooperation between members of a group, has a catalytic effect on the behaviour of each member individually and the overall activity of the group. As Lewin says (1951), at a group level, this potential is far greater than the total of the dynamic that each member individually has or that is applicable to a binary relationship. This dynamic is associated with the raised topic each time and coordination skills of the counselor.

9.4 Coordination of group process by the Counselor

In order for the counselor to be able to understand the group process and manage the coordination he should consider equally the individual and collective dimension. With the intervention methods he will apply, he will achieve the change of the members' attitudes, the management of emotions and the ways to improve the function of the team (Douglas, 1997).

It is necessary that the counselor link the team goals with the needs of its members, so as to encourage members to get involved personally in the group and express themselves freely. To encourage participation, he should offer choices in their ways of expression and be flexible regarding the free activity and expression of all team members.

The advantage of group counseling, as McLeod (2005) says, is that it offers to the counselor information of a different quality for the counselee, but also different direct intervention opportunities in the “here and now” with many benefits, which result from the process, for their counsees.

10. Application of experiential exercises

Integrating experiential exercises in a group intervention leads team members to be activated physically, cognitively and emotionally. Through these the counsees are invited to live and to consciously understand their own thoughts, feelings, actions and reactions in a situation.

10.1 The role of experiential exercises in group counseling

Within the group, the active participation and gaining experience is achieved through role-playing, simulations, symbols, structures and other techniques. The exercises, though they resemble artificial mock-statements are actually a direct experience for the participants, which brings them into contact with themselves and others. While remaining themselves at the same time they experience genuine feelings, reactions and insights that are derived from their personal involvement (Archontaki & Philippou, 2010). The action undertaken through experiential exercises leads to the scientifically confirmed contribution of participatory experiential techniques to the cultivation of individual and team skills.

10.2 Benefits of experiential exercises

According to Archontaki & Philippou (2010: 75-76), “*the application advantages of experiential exercises are:*

- ✚ They mobilize the body, emotion and mind. The total involvement in what is happening allows someone to increase awareness and ownership of the new information.
- ✚ They often have the form of a game, so people open up, they work in an automatic and spontaneous way, and express genuine elements of themselves.
- ✚ They provide a safe environment in which people can try new behaviours, discover new ways of communication and develop their imagination and creativity.
- ✚ Increase interactions, thus facilitating team communication and team building.

✚ They give the opportunity to all people to have a role, so even the more reluctant get engaged.

✚ They make discussion that follows more interesting, as it is derived from common experience.

✚ People come into action and thus take responsibility to work independently and gain confidence in them.

✚ It is an effective method for a pleasant and quick learning of social skills”.

10.3 The experiential activities as evaluation tools

McMahon & Patton (2002) and Goldman (1990) refer to experiential activities which serve as quality assessment tools, while the latter emphasizes its exploitation in vulnerable social groups and at group level for the general population. Willis (2003) and Goldman (1990) argue that career counselors can devise their own creative evaluation and decision-making activities, and implement them following the same guidelines as traditional counseling activities. The application of creative art activities can cause emotional awakening and relaxing and lead counsees to decision-making through an unconscious level of thought (Willis, 2003).

10.4 Preconditions of incorporation of experiential exercises

According to Willis (2003), some conditions should be met before a counselor decides to integrate creative activities in the counseling evaluation and decision making process. Thus, he needs to:

- i. Know the exact purpose of the intervention, recognizing the characteristics and requests of the counselee.
- ii. Plan or choose activities that suit the needs and style of counsees, as people are different (visually, auditorily, kinesthetically, linguistically), with respect to the processing and communication capabilities.
- iii. Apply intervention art activities in combination with the best practices of career counseling in order to help the counsees to get the full picture.
- iv. Process the experience of counsees in depth in order to understand and explore hidden meanings and not rule out decisions and choices.
- v. Help the counsees to understand what the “results” of their activity are and what they mean. It is important to know that the art activities are not standard procedures, they are not used predictively and their value lies in what the counsees produce while planning their careers.

11. Conclusions

Inmates by definition experience the consequences of social exclusion and are a particularly vulnerable social group. The recognition of the multivariable influences that prevail in the population of inmates and the finding of combinational intervention approaches are particularly important for an effective career counseling process.

Through counseling intervention the strengthening and substantial preparation of counselee for social and professional reintegration should be pursued, fulfilling the purpose of SCS and in particular the SCS in prisons, for the overall development of the learners, their fuller participation in the economic, social and cultural scene and the effective participation in the workplace in the future.

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Art, Emotional Intelligence & Counseling: Detection of the effect of making art and its applications in Career Counseling

Abstract:

The present work aims to investigate the concepts of emotional intelligence, empathy, the ability of decision making, goal setting, social skills, expressive and creative arts and group counseling. In this study, a literature research on the above concepts was carried out as well as an empirical one on a population of inmate learners in the 2nd Second Chance School of Korydallos in Korydallos Judicial Prison, who took part in art workshops, investigating mainly the levels of emotional intelligence and empathy they show. At a second level, we ventured to conjunct the elements arising from research findings and the ones deriving from the international theory and research as well, concerning the importance of taking advantage of the expressive and creative arts in group career counseling and the designing of intervention aiming at the development of the emotional intelligence.

Key-words: emotional intelligence, empathy, career counseling, social skills, decision making, goal setting, expressive and creative arts, group experiential intervention

Patrikakou Anna¹ and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹ Patrikakou Anna, Economist / Career Counselor, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance, email: annapatrikakou@hotmail.com

² Kougioumtzis Georgios, Ph.D, M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance), email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

In recent years, the needs of various social groups who require career counseling have increased. Thus, career counsellors are in need of seeking alternative methods, especially when they work with vulnerable social groups.

In this case study, the learners with their participation in workshops that are organized in the context of social and cultural education and their involvement in various forms of art are able to activate and develop necessary emotional intelligence and empathy competencies. The development of these competencies will enhance to a great extent the process of career counseling; whose main goal is the personal development of the counselees.

2. Emotional intelligence and professional success

Emotional intelligence, as proven in research, is positively related to good interpersonal relationships, good mental health, high level of empathy and success in various domains of life including professional (Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall & Salovey, 2006; Nellis, et al., 2011).

2.1 Exploring the concept of emotional Intelligence

Researchers suggest that emotional intelligence presuppose the ability of perception, assessment and expression of emotions of oneself and others (Goleman, 2000; Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000), self-awareness, ability of decision making, offering, creativity (Bar-On 2000; Goleman, 2000) and the skill of conflict resolution as well (Goleman, 1997). Mayer et al. (2000) claim that the concept in question does not include only the properties related to emotions but also others indirectly related to competencies such as self-esteem, adaptability, and social skills. The most widely accepted definition of emotional intelligence is the one given by Salovey & Mayer (1990 as cited in Mayer & Salovey, 1993: 433) who define emotional intelligence as *“a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions”*.

2.2 The teachable and evolving nature of emotional intelligence

Additionally, emotional intelligence is a flexible skill which evolves throughout a person's life (Bat-On, 2000; Mayer et al., 2000) and can be taught and developed by means of new experiences and stimuli. (Zeidner, Matthews, Roberts & MacCann, 2003; Goleman, 2000).

Neuroscience³ claims the emotional brain center “learns” differently from the cognizance center. Thus, somebody can be trained to enhance the use of various parts of his brain. Consequently, the trained person is feasible to apply this knowledge so as to manage problems, to devise new ideas and develop his personal emotional intelligence.

3. Emotional intelligence and professional success

Many researchers (Bar-On, 2000; Goleman, 2000; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) perceive empathy as a basic parameter of emotional intelligence and point out that its development conduces to professional success (Cherniss, 2000). In fact, it is supported that empathy gives the easy and accurate identification ability of the perspective of others and contributes to the achievement of success in professional and social life. (Goleman, Boyatzis & MacKee, 2002).

3.1 Approach of the concept of empathy

According to Malikiosi-Loizou (2003: 296) the term empathy “denotes emotional involvement” and includes “the ability of co-experiencing other people’s situation, the ability of understanding and sharing of his emotions, thoughts and behavior”. According to others, empathy is an ability of high level perception of emotions of others and it is followed by high self-confidence (Delaney & Kaiser 2001; Coppock, 2007, as cited in Dukakis, Valkanos & Brinia, 2015). While others define it as an essential dimension of social competence (Juntilla, Voeten, Kaukiainen & Vauras, 2006). Salovey and Mayer have expressed a different point of view (1990) defining empathy as a substantial human competency besides a) self-awareness b) control of emotions c) self-activation d) handling relationships.

3.2 Interconnection of empathy and emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is positively associated with the fundamental skill of empathy (Schutte et al., 2001) and it is of great interest to detect these traits in populations with delinquent behavior and poor vocational integration.

4. The emotional dimension of the decision making ability

Furthermore, there exist studies that focus on the effect of emotions in the process of decision making (Malikiosi-Loizou, 1994; Planalp & Fitness, 1999; Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou, Argyropoulou & Drosos, 2011). Among other things, this ability is associated both with the subjective and emotional aspects of the personality of the individual and with the developed

³ It concerns a scientific field which includes various scientific disciplines (Biology, Biochemistry, Pharmacology, Anatomy, Physiology, Neurology, Neuropsychology, Psychiatry, and Psychology) that are occupied with the structure, development, function, chemistry, pharmacology and pathology of neurons and neurological system. Thus, the whole approach moves in both molecular and psychological level.

competencies. It must be noted that the effective and cognitive domains exist in the process of decision making (Malakiosi-Loizou, 1994). The values, the motives, the preconceptions and the environment of oneself affect the processing of information, bringing out emotions that play an important role (Zeelenberg, Nelissen, Breugelmans & Pieters, 2008). Germeijs & Verschueren (2007) claim that one of the requirements of the process of decision making is the self-exploration.

4.1 The effect of emotional intelligence in the process of decision making

It is reasonable that the process of decision making includes special characteristics which are related to both the individual's personality and external factors that affect the process as well (Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al., 2011). As a result, the level of emotional intelligence is a major parameter which has to be taken into account when designing career counseling intervention. Of course, empirical research is limited regarding the emotional process which affects decision making, generally and career decision making, more specifically (Finucane, Alhakami, Slovic, & Johnson, 2000).

5. The influence of art on a personal, social and professional level

On the other hand, there is a great number of studies (Koltz & Odegard, 2012; Veach & Gladding, 2007) which pinpoint the effect of making art on the emotions and the development of the individual. Every form of art offers the chance to explore personal issues, through verbal and nonverbal expression. Some of the important benefits arising are related to the enhancement of self-esteem, self-awareness, the improved management of interpersonal relationships, the overall empowerment and consequently the overall development and growth in a personal, social and professional level (Gladding, 2006; Hagood, 2000; Anderson, 1995; Brooke, 1995). Through art and various personal and group activities, the thought unshackles from certain tight frames, moves into symbolic fields and the behavior acquires flexibility and adaptability to social situations (Michaelidou & Petra, 2015).

6. Art and inmates

More specifically, in the population of inmates arts can function as a means to reconnect with education and the general cognitive development, the development of interpersonal and contemplative skills and the exploration of new value systems. The vast majority of inmates show low self-esteem, while they often experience a feeling of failure and shame for early exit from the education process and the multiple difficulties in finding work (Winters, 1997).

Moreover, inmates have a sense of rejection and very often have a negative image for education and its functions and reduced motivation to attend educational and counseling procedures. Of course, with the contribution of the art making reservations bent and dysfunctional emotions progressively eliminate.

It has been found that the inmates derive great satisfaction from their involvement in creative art activities, as, for most it is the first given opportunity to cultivate and develop the positive aspects of their personality (Kett, 1995, as cited in Papatzanaki, Pykni & Sereti, 2010). Utilizing the tools provided by art, without even realizing it, the prisoners themselves are driven to a healthy and beneficial for them direction. We draw many examples of impressive results prisoners made from the international literature (Wood, 2011; Brown, 2002), which are recorded in detention facilities, bearing witness to the possibilities offered by art. Through engaging in art they have managed to discover their talents and redefine themselves.

6.1 The art benefits in detention facilities

The making of art in detention facilities provides practical and psychological benefits for prisoners, which are decisive for their spiritual and social well-being, such as:

- Empowering learning skills (Johnson, 2007).
- Integration of knowledge, emotions and skills (Johnson, 2007).
- Utilization of the “exposure” in seeking employment after release (Clements, 2004).
- Acquisition and identity consolidation through positive achievements (Currie, 1989).
- Strengthening accountability and independence, individual participation in the correctional process (Parkes & Bibly, 2010).
- Self-improvement with a positive impact on self and society (Johnson, 2008).
- Smoothing of negativity and aggression (Currie, 1989).
- Increase of self-esteem, which affects the choices, objectives and the ability to overcome difficulties (Heenan, 2006; Gussak, 2004).

7. Art as a counseling intervention means

The creative and expressive arts hold a special significance in the scientific field of counseling and their applicability to counseling interventions has been investigated repeatedly (Pavlovich & Kranhke, 2012; Iliadi, 2006; Simons & Hicks, 2006). According to Iliadi (2006), art is a powerful tool, a means of expression and communication but also a counseling intervention means. In recent decades there is a growing use of art as a counseling tool with

impressive results in both children and adults, whereas, respectively, we find important references to interventions through art at an individual and group level (Koltz & Odegard, 2012).

In this consultative framework and with arts as tools, various forms of intervention have developed, such as drama therapy, psychodrama, music therapy, dance therapy, painting therapy, mask therapy and phototherapy (Gladding, 2011), which are applied individually or in combination (Jennings & Minde, 1996).

Gladding (2011) argues that the use of art in counseling brings the following advantages:

- Development of playful mood and formation of pleasant atmosphere.
- Development and improvement of interpersonal relationships.
- Promoting communication.
- Recognition of the multifaceted character of human nature.
- Objectivity as arts are perceived as neutral and do not induce resistance to change.
- Integration and encouragement of participation of non-speaking counsees in the counseling process.

7.1 Counseling adults through art

In addition, benefits regarding particularly counseling adults are recorded by other scholars, as art:

- Unlocks the unconscious and help to express covert conflicts and to recognize feelings and thoughts (Liebmann, 1990).
- Works as a transfer of conflicts, of emotions and experiences (Ulak & Cummings, 1997).
- Helps to objectively see themselves or the situation they find themselves in (Rubin, 2001).
- Provides a tangible record of development and change (Ganim, 2000; Liebmann, 1990).
- Inspires and helps to connect with the transcendent and developed part of their personality (Mills & Crowley, 1986).
- Provides an actively reinforcing process in which they act more and think less (France & Allen, 1997).
- Works as a bridge specifically for issues that are emotionally difficult to be expressed (Brooke, 1995; Trowbridge, 1995).

- Leads to awareness of the emergence and creation of images of the unconscious, internal mental resources, which take shape and form so they become “real”, tangible and external (Nowell-Hall, 1987).
- Allows in depth personal expression and reduces self-censorship (Wenger, 2008).

7.2 Creativity as key axis of counseling intervention

The central axis of the counseling process, while arts are used, is essentially creativity. This occurs because the creativity developed through the making of art becomes the trigger to emerge unconscious situations that take shape, and as such they can become part of the consciousness of those who practice it. In fact, many people often find it difficult to find words to express their feelings, fears, experiences and desires. However, when they create the artwork, experiences are displayed with symbols and, thus, the artwork functions as a symbolic language of expression of their internal feelings, while helping them to build a bridge between the inner and outer reality (Jung, 1980).

7.3 The value of expression and creation in Counseling

Of course, it needs to be noted that the value of art lies in the possibility of personal expression and release of participants and not on the final production of an artistic work, as the composition process acts as a trigger for its launch. Archontaki & Filippou (2010: 59) report that interventions through art “*are not so interested in the aesthetic result as the process of creation and of expression of the person's emotional world*”. The counseling intervention techniques through art activate unconscious mechanisms. Thus a direct and effective link is achieved with oneself and with various issues that trouble counselees. Consequently, art becomes a “*means of expressing emotions, motivations, desires and memories, as an occasion of communication, as a process of transition from oneself to another, from fantasy to reality,*” as “*the relationship between the inner world of unmentionable representations and the world of external conventions*” (Tzanakis & Tsourtou, 2007: 13), as empathy process (Nowell-Hall, 1987). Also, Simons & Hicks (2006) argue that the man through the process of creative discovery is led to the acquisition of self-esteem and confidence.

8. Applications of expressive and creative arts in Career Counseling

8.1 Deficit of art applications in Career Counseling

References to career counseling applications with art utilization is minimal or individual practices are referred (McMahon & Patton, 2006; Adams, 2003; Willis, 2000), although experiential approach with integration of art in career counseling has been backed on by many (Ziff & Beamish, 2004; Merry, 1997). Even fewer references are identified in training for career counsellors in this direction. Moreover, there is a large deficit in the relevant literature. However, there are books which offer few but specific experiential activities, to be used by career counsellors, as the ones of Pope & Minor (2000) and McMahon & Patton (2003) although few of them take advantage of the expressive and creative arts. Most of them are influenced by the suggestions of Heppner, O'Brien, Hinkelman & Humphrey (1994) to use guided visualization, genogram, metaphor, life mapping and collage.

8.2 Need to reform the methods of Career Counseling

Career counsellors responding to changing circumstances and complexity of social needs, more and more apply methods which derive from therapies through art, as these are reported by Gladding (2011) and others, in the implementation of counseling interventions, overcoming considerations of previous decades. Besides, limited efficacy and reduced satisfaction of counselees has been observed compared with the traditional counseling process (Tsergas, Kalouri & Botou, 2013). Incorporating these techniques in the process of developing the skills and capabilities of consultees offers the possibility of spontaneous creative expression, the emergence of a combination of skills that can be used in the educational and professional investigation and many other advantages. Individuals involved in such counseling process experiment with the internal dialogue that they develop and emotions that are emerged, thus they get strengthened in order to address real issues in their lives.

In any case, the training of career counsellors in implementing creative and expressive art activities in a career counseling intervention is useful, as well as a good knowledge of the theoretical background in order for them to come to valid and useful results for the counselees.

9. Research on 2nd Second Chance School of Korydallos⁴ in Korydallos Judicial Prison⁵

9.1 Research on a population of inmates

In an effort to interconnect the emotional intelligence and empathy with the making of art, as to where these concepts assist in career counseling intervention, we investigated whether the participants in art workshops in 2nd SCS of Korydallos in Korydallos Judicial Prison show high levels in these two areas. The investigation was done in the period of completion of the school year 2014-2015 and at the end of the art workshops, using self-report questionnaires (TEI-QUE SF, IRI). Our sample consisted of 50 students who participated in organized activities in theater, painting, music, dance and photography. The research was approved by the Department of the school and conducted under the supervision and support of the Director of the school George Zouganelis.

9.2 Research results

Data analysis showed that respondents presented high levels of emotional intelligence and empathy constituting a significant clue as to our hypothesis, advocating the view of scholars that the preoccupation with the expressive and creative arts is directly related to these two factors and what they include.

Considering research findings that identify low adaptation and self-awareness in the general population of inmates and evidence that show low emotional intelligence is one of the factors contributing to delinquent behavior in young ages at least (Santesso, Reker, Schmidt & Segalowitz, 2006), these results are an indication that the making of art affects the development of emotional intelligence and empathy, even though we cannot rule out other factors, of course.

Also variations came up regarding the different types of art that were practiced. Of course, their participation in different workshops is not necessarily the main cause for these variations, however, we think that the differences appearing are remarkable and deserve further investigation.

10. Conclusions

10.1 Making art promotes the development of emotional intelligence

⁴ 2nd SCS of Korydallos was renamed with the MD K1 / 68473/2016 to 2nd SCS of Korydallos -George Zouganelis as honor to the late director of the school George Zouganelis, at the request of his students.

⁵ Notwithstanding the legislative amendments to the recent reform of the penal code (Law. 4274/2014) that they provide A, B and C type prisons, in practice they still act as judicial prisons where enclosed pretrial detainees, debtors, short sentences convicts and foreigners whose extradition is sought. Still they remain in them prisoners who are serving long sentences, many times by the end of the sentence serving, too. This creates suitable conditions for the operation of educational structures.

The findings resulting from this research process in combination with the findings we found through our literature review conclude that the art is a communication and expression channel, and may have many applications in the development of emotional intelligence, especially in environments of vulnerable groups such as inmates. Creative activities that promote emotional involvement and self-exploration lead to deep self-awareness and awareness of the possibilities and limitations, which are prerequisites for the learners to make responsible career choices (Lamprecht, 2002). At the same time, self-awareness, self-expression and communication skills in a context of holistic counseling approach is fundamental for the successful empowerment and change in their behavior.

10.2 Making art strengthens the decision-making and goal setting abilities

Regarding the relationship between art making and decision-making and goal setting abilities it has been found that this sample shows positive thoughts and feelings and high optimism—something that suggests the positive effect of the art making in these abilities. As documented in theory, this effect is reflected on the strong decision-making ability and goal setting as well. In fact, there are studies that confirm that feelings are involved in shaping the mood people have. The mood then helps individuals to identify many prospects in their future plans (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Specifically, it has been found that the good mood makes it easier for people to believe that they have a wide range of abilities (Forgas, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 1993) and having this conviction as a motive they pursue their educational and professional development.

11. Concluding Remarks

Art can function as emotional learning that is the process by which emotional intelligence can develop. By improving emotional and social skills, learners are expected to develop sounder career and success strategies and increase the chances for personal development and social and vocational adjustment in the future. Expression and processes performed in full with art making consist a tool for counseling intervention, reinforcement of the personality, strengthening and decisive preparing of learners for social and professional reintegration.

The prospect of inclusion of expression and creativity in career counseling methodology will offer options beyond the confines of the traditional process by giving it more value. We believe that the application of group counseling intervention which will exploit the expressive and creative arts within experiential counseling workshops will be particularly efficient, especially in high-vulnerability groups.

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The Internet as a dominant but potentially dangerous tool for social development: Internet safety tips for parents and students

Abstract:

This article reports on the findings regarding the intensity and duration of Internet use and social networks by underage users based on data from recent surveys. It is imperative not to underestimate the gravity of this new social reality which determines young people's everyday life. Education should seek ways to sensitise and inform children and parents. It is noted that educational training should aim at acquiring knowledge about potential risks of online navigation and the necessity of taking security measures for protecting personal data. Additionally, it should highlight the importance and comprehension of the network of rules that govern good behavior at online services.

Key words: Internet, Social Networks, Personal Data Privacy, Netiquette.

Chryssanthi Palazi¹, V. Efopoulos² and St. Chytiroglou³

I210 Analysis of Education

¹ Chryssanthi Palazi, Director of the Youth Advisory Board – Greece. Email: palazi@gmail.com

² Vasilios Efopoulos, School Adviser at the Ministry of Education-Greece. Email: vefop@sch.gr

³ Stefania Chytiroglou, MA Interaction Design- Napier University Edinburgh. Email: s.chytiroglou@gmail.com

1. Introduction

The Internet is undoubtedly a necessary tool for accessing information, establishing socialization processes and providing entertainment. Technology offers unlimited educational opportunities and awareness especially for young people since they develop brain synapses, improve their reflexes, acquire quick thinking, build information management, enhance their professional profile and highlight their potentials through Internet usage. Nevertheless, excessive preoccupation with this medium is quite risky as far as its usage is concerned. Illuminating the situation concerning a) the duration and the intensity of Internet use especially for social networking by adolescents and b) teachers' attitude towards this kind of behavior that takes now a significant amount of time of students' everyday life, there are three recent case studies regarding children, adolescents and teachers (Eurydice 2009).

IDC's research report that took place on March of 2013 (IDC, 2013) at the United States at a random sample of 7,446 people [aged 18-44] of its population that are either iPhone or Android users showed quite interesting results concerning mobile usage and social networking. The number of children, who acquaint themselves with modern technological devices at an early stage, is increasing rapidly in developed countries. One could easily predict that the international scientific community will have to confront alterations and impacts caused by their usage. Especially at the age group of 18-24, their usage is:

- 38% mobile texts
- 40% mobile minutes
- 34% Facebook messages
- 34% E-mails
- 39% Checking Facebook and Twitter

Moreover, 4 out of 5 users of the same age group check their mobile as soon as they wake up:

- 89% within 15 minutes
- 74% immediately [updates]
- 54% immediately [alarm clock]

“A further aspect that this research indicates is that the period of time with zero interaction with these specific devices is limited to 2 hours plus sleeping hours”, highlights Mr. G. Goudevenos (Goudevenos, 2016). He continues stating: “Even though this research concerns young adults, these young adults, once they were kids that grew up playing with these devices”.

2. The Research

The research that was conducted in 2015 at the Adolescent Health Unit of the 2nd Department of Pediatrics of the University of Athens, Pediatric Hospital “P. & A. Kyriakoy” (Hospital Director: Professor Marisa Tsolia) also produced interesting results. It occurred at primary schools in Athens with the participation of 655 students of the last two grades, 54.3% of which were boys.

According to the statistics that the Scientific Head of the Unit, Assistant Professor of Pediatrics-Adolescent Medicine, Ms. Artemis Tsitsika (Tsitsika, 2011) revealed that the children who participated in the research:

- They first started using the Internet at the average age of 6.2
- One out of two [52%] is a member of at least one social networking website, e.g. a fake Facebook account
- They use Facebook for over two hours [18.5%] on a typical school day (weekday)
- They use Facebook for over two hours [36%] on weekends or bank holidays
- 20% of children use a mobile phone (smartphone or other similar device)
- 22% of children access the Internet from their own bedroom on a daily basis
- 39% of them access the Internet for social interaction and networking
- 8.5% of them use the Internet in order to do their homework
- 52% of children reported that they have a better knowledge of technology than their parents

3. The Survey

The survey results of Drasi Enimerosi’s online questionnaire (www.Saferinternet.gr, 2009), concerned teachers of all educational levels. It was conducted from 23-10-2012 till 15-01-2013. Briefly the main points of the research are the following:

- 72% of teachers claim that minors know more about the Internet than their teachers and parents. However, 68.6% of them also claim that minors do not comprehend what “netiquette” is, disregarding the network of rules that govern good behavior at online services.
- Moreover, 60.1% of teachers report that minors are not aware of the fact that their online behavior may have consequences in the physical world.
- 65.1% of teachers believe that the above mentioned fact is quite worrying since minors do not know which kind of behavior is illegal concerning social networking.

- Furthermore, 49.6% of teachers argue that minors disregard other people's opinion on the Internet.
- Additionally, 61.5% of them claim that children do not seek consent for uploading photographs or videos that display other people (friends, classmates, acquaintances, other people).
- In the same context, 39.4% of teachers reveal that they have faced online harassment incidents / mockery / defamation conducted via mobile, Facebook or other social networking service that occurred between students at some point in their teaching career.

Hence arises the imperative necessity for education to appreciate this new social reality which determines young people's everyday life and seek ways to provide guidance for raising awareness to children (Campbell, Butler & Kift, 2008, Calvete et.al., 2010). This guidance should focus on:

- (a). teaching children about the looming dangers of internet use and the safety measures that need to be taken, in order to protect their personal data and accounts they have online,
- (b). Teaching children "netiquette" guideline that refers to rules of behavior when communicating on the Internet.

4. Protection of personal data

A lot of online companies collect personal data in the name of efficiency and the best possible provision of services. Data required for creating an online account usually include name, country of origin, date of birth, sex, level of education and job description. Sometimes, user's mobile phone number is also required. Mobile is used for sending the confirmation code in order to maintain a high level of safe use of the new account.

Such personal data are provided by users themselves while creating a new account in a web service. In most cases though, there are other data that are recorded without the user realising it. This data collection includes:

- Information acquired by the user while using online search engines (such as Google Web Search)
- Online search for hotels – accommodation at specific websites (such as booking.com)
- Online search for airline flights and tickets at relevant services (such as skyscanner.net).

Recording personal data also occurs in cases of queries (tickets) at online support services. It even occurs while chatting online with a trained staff member (service that the user activates in order to learn more about the product/service specification that the website provides him with).

The online companies acquire users' interaction data through the services they offer and through Cookies technology. Almost always users accept websites using Cookies without realising the procedure. More often than not, users do not read the message of accepting the terms and conditions of Cookies technology (or part of it).

As a result, they ignore the fact that by clicking "I Accept" in order to proceed on further actions, they essentially give consent to "Cookies Policy", enabling the website to gather and process personal information.

Thus, Microsoft Corporation (<https://privacy.microsoft.com/en-us/privacystatement>), for example, inform us for its policy that:

"Microsoft uses the data we collect to provide you the products we offer, which includes using data to improve and personalize your experiences. We also may use the data to communicate with you, for example, informing you about your account, security updates and product information. And we use data to help show more relevant ads, whether in our own products like MSN and Bing, or in products offered by third parties."

Therefore, as soon as the user creates an account at Microsoft he automatically agrees to view advertisements that are relevant with its own personal data (as they are collected by Microsoft) through msn.com website and bing.com search engine.

Moreover, Skyscanner Ltd (<https://www.skyscanner.net/cookiepolicy.aspx>) inform us that:

"Our website tries to serve advertisements that are relevant to you by displaying Google AdSense interest-based advertisements. We also use third party advertising solutions (including Google AdWords and Facebook) to serve you advertisements relating to the Skyscanner services when you are on Google, Facebook or other websites that are a part of the advertising inventory of these solutions. These advertisements are tailored by Google using cookies which will track your behavior across the web, again using anonymous statistical rather than personally identifiable information, including information relating to your use of the Skyscanner services, your location and demographic characteristics. Third party advertisers may also use cookies, for such purposes of ensuring relevant advertisements are being displayed, to help prevent the same adverts being served twice to the same user, and to ensure that adverts are correctly sized and don't detract from your experience of the site."

Ergo, if one searches for flights to a specific destination through Skyscanner he will likely view advertisements displaying flights, hotels and other services that are relevant to this destination through visiting other websites such as Facebook (behavioral advertising).

It is an undeniable fact that very few users actually read the "Terms & Conditions" and the "Privacy Policy" while surfing websites. Most of the times, methods related to personal data management are described in abstruse and difficult form in both of them. The majority of users blindly accept the terms and conditions.

Only a small number of people will have second thoughts about registering to an online service. Users should consider that once they register they automatically accept to the Terms and Conditions and the Privacy Policy. This is usually written in small lowercase letters and it is not comprehensible by everyone.

It is quite useful for people that create a google account to visit history.google.com website in order to check their online activity as it is recorded by this company. Visiting this website (<https://privacy.google.com/intl/en/your-data.html>) will help users realize that every single search in a website and everything they created, altered or watched through Google services is documented and presented. The company is of course obliged to inform you that *“we collect data to make these services work for you”* and continues stating that *“we use data to make our services faster, smarter, and more useful to you”*. Nevertheless, whether this occurs with user’s approval is under consideration.

Most of the companies inform and reassure users by emphasizing that the absolute control of their personal data is under beneficiaries’ supervision. Thus, the user-visitor has the power to act upon the documented data by deleting them or articles in an easy manner. In many cases, he may alter his profile’s settings and decide which data should be related with his account.

It is easily perceivable that a categorized personal database may be created through the data collected from the several social networking services that the user is accessing. This database includes preferences, habits and records, activity and reactions that the users post on their online profiles in general. It is quite obvious that the collected data may be used in many alternative ways, the simplest of which is the display of targeted advertisements. In many cases, advertising registrations are differentiated per user as mentioned above (behavioral advertising).

For this reason, online users should be informed and concerned before they publicize personal data at these services.

The EU obligates the online services-companies to follow new restricted rules as far as users’ registration and data collection is concerned in order to avoid charges or prosecutions. Previously, certain companies (such as Facebook) have been strongly criticized for continuing to maintain data that the user has documented upon registration, even when he wishes to delete them. The new EU data protection rules purport to strengthen citizens’ fundamental rights as far as their personal data are concerned in the new digital age of smartphones, social networking services and internet banking.

<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EL/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A32016L0680>

“Directive (EU) 2016/680 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 27 April 2016 on the protection of natural persons with regard to the processing of personal data by competent authorities for the purposes of the prevention, investigation, detection or prosecution of criminal offences or the execution of criminal penalties, and on the free movement of such data, and repealing Council Framework Decision 2008/977/JHA”

European Interactive Digital Advertising Alliance (EIDAA) provides the online user with a guide to online behavioral advertising and privacy at <http://www.youronlinechoices.com/gr/>. This webpage has useful information and advice that help users manage their online privacy, pursue a process in order to exempt from behavioral advertising and submit a complaint in case they continue being bombarded with behavioral advertising, even though they asked for exemption.

5. Advice for parents and children

We suggest to parents:

- Visit, get to know the websites their children like to surf the most
- Create their own account at the social networks their children visit and if it is possible to add them as “friends”
- Read the “Privacy Policy” at these social networking websites. They should read carefully the whole text, comprehend it and highlight the parts that concern personal data management which need further attention
- Discuss about the online services and networks with their own child. One issue that can be discussed is the unrestrained access at these services and whatever this entails. Consider how it is possible to be provided with such a free service and where the company’s revenue (that manages each service) come from. Is this collection of data somehow the source of revenue for this company?
- Read the settings that every online service offers regarding user’s personal data. More often than not, these default settings leave user’s personal data exposed to all members of the service. Find these settings that make your account secure and talk to your children about this procedure
- Discuss with your children about their posts or their friends’ posts. Seek for examples of people that their career and life was affected due to an insignificant post
- Discuss cases where a friend’s post would bother them and find it difficult or impossible to deal with (Dehue, Bolman & Völlink 2008, Duerager & Livingstone, 2012, Athanasiades et al., 2016).

6. Advice for Children

- Set their own – sensible – boundaries regarding social networking use. They should try to maintain a balance between social networking and their personal relationships with friends and family
- Protect their account with strong complex passwords and change them regularly. Every password should contain upper and lowercase letters, numbers and special characters
- Understand the dangers of communicating with strangers via social networks
- They should not blindly post photographs on social networks. While uploading photos:
 - They should not mention the location of the uploaded image (location tracking deactivation, geotag)
 - Control approval upon tag requests of other users
 - They should not contain that is inappropriate and obscene
- They should not publish information concerning bank accounts, passwords, phone numbers, addresses and any information in general that relates to their personal and financial situation
- Choose the appropriate settings in their profile in order to protect their personal data (for example, allow only friends to view their posts)

7. The “Network Etiquette”

“Network Etiquette” or “Netiquette” is a set of rules that define the ethical and proper behavior of Internet users. Its rules apply to all forms of electronic communication: instant messaging, emails, blogs, discussion forums, chat rooms and social networks.

A quite essential issue concerning web presence management becomes imperative due to new data regarding timing and intensity of Internet use -particularly social networks- by young people. They should manage their online presence (Sourander et al., 2010) in a way that is not harmful for other users and is respectful, regarding freedom of expression, following netiquette rules without though affecting their personal image that anyone may have direct access.

It's quite a common sight for online adult users to comment on posts (texts or photographs) more frequently than young adults. Sometimes, this social platform of written expression becomes the occasion for someone to express themselves in Greek or greeklish with comments that encourage in turn other users to get involved in discussions that “friends” of “friends” will view, commend (likes and emoticons), comment or share (Özgür, 2010). As a result, a “climate” is created encouraging gossip about a person (or two people’s

relationship). Even though this climate is initiated at the social environment of Facebook, which is the epitome of virtual reality's communication between "friends" (the notion of "friend" on Facebook is not literally interpreted), it extends to the school or social environment in the end (Patchin & Hinduja, 2006). Especially in small communities of provincial cities (Bauman, 2010), even if the children do not attend the same school, it is bound to meet each other at the youth hangouts of the city and discuss about the Facebook event with the hundreds of likes and comments, which it will eventually become the focus of the public, "the talk of the town" as it is called in Internet slang (Tettegah, Betout & Taylor, 2006, Sourander et al., 2010).

Usually the result of such an online dispute defined by intense and duration, may be the exchange of offensive words, emotional outbreaks, extortions and even marginalization, threats and sometimes mild physical abuse (Chisholm, 2006, Rigby, 2008, Kowalski et al., 2008, Vandebosch & Cleemput, 2009, Psalti, 2012, Athanasiades et al., 2015).

According to saferinternet.gr, the basic rules of "Netiquette" are:

- Rule No.1: It is important to remember that, as in real life, people should follow the same code of conduct on Internet. Following these norms is crucial for the proper functioning of virtual worlds.
- Rule No.2: We should not forget that there is a human, not a machine, at the other end of the connection. Therefore, we need to think carefully before typing a message since chatting online may come to a bitter end due to the fact that the recipient may not understand the style and content of our messages. He cannot see our face nor hear us.
- Rule No.3: We should respect the privacy of other users. We should not look through their emails, documents or personal information.
- Rule No.4: We should not use capital letters while typing a message because it is tantamount to shouting and interpreted as high voice tone.
- Rule No.5: We should avoid chain emails if the message is not majorly important or it is not related to a humanitarian purpose. Such a chain email may block or slow down the recipient's mail system.
- Rule No.6: We should not send junk or spam emails.
- Rule No.7: We should respect the amount of time we spend communicating with people and their Internet connection speed which may be much slower than ours. Thus, we should avoid sending large file attachments over email, which can significantly slow down the recipient's email delivery. Nevertheless, if need to send such a file, we should inform the recipient first.

- Rule No.8: If we need to send emails to multiple recipients who do not know each other, even if they are all friends of ours, we should keep their email addresses hidden from each other by adding them to the “Bcc” line (Blind carbon copy). In this way, we avoid publishing each recipient’s email address, since it is considered personal information. Similarly, we should not forward emails to third parties, unless we erase the email addresses contained in the email first.
- Rule No.9: Even though it is not forbidden to speak our mind online, “Netiquette” dictates that we should respect other people’s opinion and not quarrel online lest we become unpleasant to the other discussants.
- Rule No.10: Let’s not be critical of spelling/syntax errors or even “nonsense” (according to our opinion) questions of other people while chatting/emailing them. It does not matter. If, however, we want to highlight them, we should do it discreetly without hurting these people, and certainly not in a public social network.
- Rule No.11: We should be sure of the validity of the information we upload/share online. Moreover, we should bear in mind that the information we post may affect other users because we are liable for any kind of publication that may mislead or disorient them.
- Rule No.12: We should avoid using greeklish, while communicating formally with other people (e.g. our teachers). In addition, shortcuts or emoticons are not appropriate either in such messages.

8. Conclusion

The extensive and widespread use of the Internet by children, is a topical and large in scope subject matter (Keith & Martin, 2005, Murray, 2008). Nevertheless, teachers should sensitize children and inform them on managing their web presence (LaRose, Rifon & Enbody, 2008, Shariff, 2008). According to Ms. Art. Tsitika (Τσίτσικα, 2011), Assistant Professor of Pediatrics-Adolescent Medicine, she ascertains that given the tendency of minors to excess, experimentation and lack of "filtering" of stimuli, children and adolescents need guidance and navigation at this amazing tool called Internet, in order to avoid extreme behaviors (addiction) or cyberbullying (Sygkollitou, Psalti @ Kapatzia, 2010).

Children should also be provided with certain useful instructions, regarding the protection of their personal data personal data given uncritically through the use of the Internet and social networking services (via posts, messages, photographs, mobile phone numbers, personal information, voice messages, credit card numbers, even through location tracking by activating the GPS of the mobile phone as required, for example, by various

popular applications and services (Kapatzia & Sygkollitou, 2009 b, Jones, Mitchell & Finkelhor, 2013).

Parents should constantly seek to be informed of their children's web presence as well as the type and intensity of their Internet browsing. They should not prevent or forbid their children from using the Internet but raise awareness and inform them about potential risks to their personal data and the way they expose their "image" to the society as a whole (Tynes, 2006, Kapatzia & Sygkollitou 2009 a).

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Existential Counseling and Education

Abstract:

The following thesis is an attempt to present the philosophical theory of existentialism, and the way it was incorporated into the process of counseling. Representatives of philosophical theories and counseling approaches are presented, while at the same time we attempt to list the basic standpoints of existentialist theories from which such counseling theories spring. Man himself, our actual existence, our anxiety, our reason and meaning to the world are placed at center stage of the consultation process. Consequently, the potential use of this consultative approach in education is investigated, equipping teachers and learners with faith in the Individual.

Keywords: existentialism, counseling, understanding, dialectics, education

Verykiou Joanna¹ and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹ Verykiou Joanna, M.A., Philologist, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: jverikiou@yahoo.gr

² Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

The combination of the principles of existential philosophy with the phenomenological method is inherent in the whole therapeutic and consultative approach which is joint with the existential theory. Exploring the causes that led to the formation and development of this theory, we should mention that it was in the twentieth century when the question of the existential meaning of human life and the suffering that accompanies it was asked and found to the fore. This question led to the development of existential counseling. An important factor that contributed to the development of this approach was the industrial revolution and the great wars, which have led individuals to alienation from themselves. Another reason was the observed failure of the mechanistic way of interpretation of new data with the use of the Freudian and behavioural model. That is why counselors and psychotherapists turned to existentialist philosophers. In particular, they relied on the theories of Kierkegaard, Heidegger, Marcel and Sartre.

The Danish philosopher Kierkegaard is considered the father of the philosophy of existentialism, whose fundamental idea was faith in Man himself and in the truth that each subject “bears within”. His thinking was the springboard for Heidegger, who is regarded as the rapporteur of existential analysis. He defined himself as an ontologist. The Da-seinanalyse theory was concerned with the understanding of Man as an entity. Within the framework of consultancy more than one are considered to be its representatives, namely – May, Frankl, Boss.

The philosophy of existentialism is governed by a main principle and that is the being itself. The individual, despite living within the context of society, is free. As a free being, he has the ability to constantly make choices, until he has completed his life cycle. The individual is aware of the responsibility of his actions. According to the theory suggested by Heidegger, Man lives simultaneously in three worlds, the physical world, the world of coexistence and the personal world. When a person feels estranged from himself, then he is ruled by an “existential guilt,” which is a feeling of non-existence or of nothing. This condition results in existential anxiety, which in turn leads to existential neurosis. Here, the person experiences feelings of loneliness, isolation from others and lack of meaning to life itself.

In existential philosophy, Man is viewed not as a static entity, but as a living being. Here, Man is. Therefore, time is functional because it relates to the process of becoming, as the person is not the same at any given time.

2.1 Existential counseling approach and existentialism - Yalom

Existential counseling approach is based on certain theoretical principles emanating from the philosophy of existentialism (Yalom, 1980). These are:

- ✚ Interacting with people and situations leads to acting and thus changing behaviour. Awareness of this process gives us a personal sense of identity, of *being*.
- ✚ Man is aware of his *existence* and *non-existence*. He is aware that at some point he will cease to exist and that gives meaning to his existence.
- ✚ Understanding a person means the necessity of conceiving his world. Each person's world is unique.
- ✚ When human behaviour is hindered and a person is not allowed to build substantial relationships, he is overwhelmed by *existential anxiety* and a sense of disorganization. This disorganization, in turn, leads to *existential melancholy*. Stress is a natural consequence, since he now feels that his existence is being questioned (*social aspect of existence*).
- ✚ Existential anxiety causes *guilt* because a person realizes that his conduct is neither personally nor socially acceptable. Anxiety and guilt may result in mental disorders, which can be addressed through self-knowledge (self-awareness).

2.2 Rollo May: The third power

The designation as a “third power” refers to the ranking of these theories in psychological movements, after Psychoanalysis and Psychology of Behaviour.

Rollo May (1909-1994) was a clinical psychologist and student counselor in American universities. The theory he put forward is based both on Depth Psychology, suggested by Freud, and the theory of Existentialism, introduced by the respective philosophers.

According to Dimitropoulos (1999: 67), the *heuristic* value of the approach is characterized as *pronounced*. It can be applied in a consultative, psychological or educational context.

Heidegger (1996; 2015) defines Man as *Da-sein*. This term is a composition of the German words *da* and *sein*. It translates as “*being there*” or with the word “*existence*”. The essence of *Da-sein* lies in its existence. The ontological way—that is, the way Man may exist—is authenticity or non-authenticity, with these two considered as the abilities to understand one's Self. What triggered May's standpoint is social alienation and how it affects a person. Individual problems are rooted in social features. This source of stress leads to a lack of

purpose in life and loneliness. By stress we mean a response to existential danger, the conflict between “being” and “non-being”. The individual reaches satisfaction when this emptiness, loneliness, non-communication and alienation are converted into understanding one’s Self and potentialities, in being able to choose and to set goals and act in an authentic way. Of course, this is all achieved through the *dynamic evolution* of life. Existentialism is defined by May in the book of Patterson (1996: 430) as a person’s attempt to understand the Individual as a divided entity into subject and object, a perception which plagued Western thought and science immediately after the Renaissance and came about one hundred years after the violent protest of Kigkerkor against the prevailing rationalism during the days of “the totalitarianism of Hegel’s cause”, according to Maritain.

2.3 Common positions of existentialist theories

✚ Da-sein. It lies in existence. Differentiation from other beings, because of *self-awareness*. It is aware of what affects it and conceives time as a continuity. It has the potentiality of choice and decision – and due to this choice, it becomes responsible. The Individual has the freedom to choose whatever it wants. Any references to heredity, environment, upbringing, and culture in order to make a choice or not, are excuses. External influence is present but it is not definitive.

✚ Da-sein exists in Umwelt, Mitwelt, and Eigenwelt³.

✚ The Individual is not static. It evolves dynamically. It “Becomes a whole” when it is constantly involved, by interaction or by meeting with significant others.

✚ Being towards death. “*As the end of Da-sein, death is the ownmost nonrelational certain, and, as such, indefinite and not to be bypassed possibility of Da-sein*” (Heidegger, 1967: 258). Being towards death gives meaning to Existence. Thus, authentic existence becomes possible.

✚ The threat of non-existence is the source of normal stress. This threat is present in all Individuals. This is an ontological characteristic which is rooted in existence as such (May, 1958: 50).

✚ The uniqueness of individuals, our non- existence as copies of one another leads to the concept of the significance of the Individual.

✚ Absolute freedom-within limits, though-like the freedom of the Other and the delimitation of society.

³ It has to do with aspects of our existential reality which are: the environment, the relationships context (the people with whom we develop relationships) and the individual world of each one of us.

✚ The modern Individual, normal or neurotic, is distinguished by alienation to the world and society.

According to May (1973: 8) “There may be some existential psychotherapy. Existentialism is rather more an attitude, an approach to Individuals than a “school” or a “group”. As philosophy has to do with conditions which underlie psychiatric and psychoanalytic techniques, existential approach is not a system or treatment-although it contributes a lot to therapy. It is not a set of techniques, although it gives life to them. It is thought as a concept that apprehends the structure of the Individual and its experience, which to a greater or smaller extent should highlight any technique”.

According to him, existentialism is trapped when treating the Individual as something feasible, analyzable or something that is manageable. In this day and age of anxiety and neuroses, problems of freedom and responsibility toward values are becoming more intense. So are the problems toward the objectives and the meaning of existence. The counselor, here, does not use techniques and structures. According to Patterson, he travels along with the client on a road without a map and a destination. Potentiality, freedom, responsibility and human experience are used to guide him to *intuition*.

2.4 Victor Frankl’s speech therapy (logotherapy)

Victor Frankl (1905-1997) was a doctor (neurologist-psychiatrist), a university professor and inspirer of the “Youth Counseling Centers” in Vienna. He was imprisoned and lived in concentration camps at Auschwitz and Dachau from 1942 until 1945. He was a student of Freud and his “spiritual” theory-Existenz-Analyse – according to Dimitropoulos (1999: 68), is a combination of Freudian and existential theory. The pivoting concept of his theory is the premise that love is the ultimate goal of man, and that this is the means to his salvation.

This is an existential approach that particularly emphasizes the meaning of human existence and man’s will to find this meaning. This man deals with problems of an existential nature, such as death, suffering, work, love and existential frustration. The counselor helps the client to delve deeper into these issues, to determine them and analyze them and finally accept them, so as to gain awareness.

2.4.1 Logotherapy techniques

Logotherapy is the method proposed and adopted by Frankl which includes the following techniques:

2.4.1.1 Paradoxical intention

During this process the counselor intensifies the client's emotional state so as to create fear or anxiety. That is, he puts himself in a situation which causes discomfort. Now, he observes the situation as an onlooker, including himself and laughs at this picture, because he "sees" that none of these paradoxes, which he supposes will happen to him, do not happen. For example, the client believes that if he is left in an elevator for five minutes, he will die. With the counselor's encouragement based on either a real experience or on an assumption of this scenario, the client is assisted, so that he can handle whatever troubles him. The client is forced to use *self-determination*, which leads to therapy. This is mainly used in neurotic persons to reduce anticipatory anxiety.

2.4.1.2 Dereflection or distraction

Here, the client learns to ignore this fear or his reflection and directs his attention to positive thoughts, values and ideas which have personal meaning to him. This technique applies mainly to people who desire something pathologically.

3. The process of existential counseling

The existential approach to counseling is not a *healing system*, but rather an *attitude* towards therapy. It rejects the mechanistic way (techniques), because man is treated as an object. The existential approach emphasizes authentic experience. The person being consulted, in this context, experiences its existence in a subjective way.

3.1 Characteristics of existential counseling

Some characteristics governing existential counseling are:

- ✚ Counselors need to have a variety of techniques available. They should also be versatile and function depending on whom they are addressing and what condition this person is in.
- ✚ Therapists with a psychoanalytic background apply these techniques: Placement herein. Perception of the consultee as existence (the counselor helps the consultee to perceive it and experience it as such). In this context, the coexistence of the counselor and the consultee is a dynamic relational experience in the present time.
- ✚ Lack of an influential relationship towards the consultee on the part of the counselor.
- ✚ Avoidance of any sort of behaviour which prevents the existence of ultimate present time in the relationship on the part of the counselor.

✚ Experiencing the consultee's being as true and unique. This experience leads to an awareness of potentialities and self-motivation based on them (May, 1958: 85), as well as a responsibility against them.

✚ Adoption and development of an engaging behaviour. Commitment to one's *self*.

3.2 Aims of existential counseling

The aims that existential counseling wishes to achieve are (Deurzen, 2012):

- To help man explore the meaning of life, to teach him to live in an authentic way, in accordance with his ideals, his priorities and values.
- To help man develop constructive and effective behaviours so as to develop, maintain and expand his interpersonal relationships.
- To have man form the conviction that he does not need to avoid the truths of life. On the contrary, it is through these truths and experiences he should face life and its aftermath, without avoiding the difficulties and personal responsibility.

3.3 Existentialist counselor's characteristics

The means adopted to achieve *freedom of being* is self-knowledge, awareness of potentialities, responsibility and personal direction. The counselor who adopts this counseling direction needs to have certain features, some of which are (Adamson & Johansson, 2016):

✚ The therapeutic relationship should be understood as an encountering relationship. The existence of decisive inner experience for those involved in it is presupposed. The consultee feels free to speak. Thus, the experience is bidirectional.

✚ Empathy: the counselor needs to understand the consultee as an *Existence in the world–Being in the world*. The means to achieve this are *empathy* and the *phenomenological approach* itself.

✚ Uniqueness of man. Recognising and experiencing his own existence and his personal world to better know himself. Man ought to have an authentic experience of his existence.

In summary, we could say that the aims set by existential counseling are designed to help people appear more true to themselves. They are designed in such a way to help them broaden their perspective regarding oneself and the world around them, and to proceed into the future by making good use of lessons learned and building new experiences by living in the present.

3.4 Selection criteria of existential approach

The selection criteria of existential approach by the counselor are that (Wilkes & Milton, 2006; Deurzen, 2012; Madison, 2014):

- Emphasizes growth of *genuine understanding, action and meaning* through investigation.
- Focuses “*against technique or strategy*” and follows a philosophical research method.
- Uses phenomenological reduction –elicitation of essential truth of an emotional state.
- “Philosophical counseling” is an approach which is founded on the philosophical tradition of phenomenology and existentialism –a non- psychological method of therapy is developed. It relies on the use of “philosophizing” in the therapeutic process and it applies a variety of philosophical ideas in an exploratory, dialogical approach to therapy.

4. Conclusions

In conclusion, existential psychotherapy may benefit those who feature an interest in a continuous exploration of themselves and see their problems as life challenges rather than psychopathological symptoms. Also, those who seek the meaning of life and have profound spiritual and mental pursuits and try to identify their ideological, philosophical and mental attitude towards life may be benefited as well. Equally, it brings benefits to those experiencing significant personal changes such as separation, illness, loss of a loved one, as well as people who are in the process of starting a new life (Wagg, 2016).

According to Emmy van Deurzen, who is the founder of the Society of Existential Analysis and the magazine *Journal of Existential Analysis*, addressing one’s avoidance of situations, such as death, loneliness and failure provides the individual with the ability to overcome such tough situations. The aim of people, therefore, is to attempt to acquire or perfect their own *mor-ability*.⁴

The issue that emerges is whether and to what extent a consultative approach of existential tradition may have application in the field of education. In fact, considering the constantly changing social and political contexts in which students are called to form their personalities, as well as the International Committee’s requests about a modern school regarding not only learning, practice and living with others but also the very existence of the individual, it is advisable to make use of this existentialist counseling framework in education as well. Current demand for a Democratic School without any school violence requires the participatory involvement of all its members with a view to form rules, cultivate the notions of coexistence and tolerance, implement programs related to violence and peace issues and

⁴ Mor-ability is considered to one’s ability to understand what is right and what is wrong in the context of the world he lives in and in relation to the goals he wishes to achieve (Deurzen, 2010: 67).

take measures concerning possible violent incidents. Furthermore, teachers ought to be trained on the management of all these issues. This specific approach-whose main focus is Man and existence-and its adoption renders a functional way of *doing* within the school environment.

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Counseling and Career Choice

Abstract:

Nowadays, there is an increasingly strong need for support and guidance of the individual regarding the choice of profession. The preparation for this purpose can be achieved through the Counseling for Career Choice. This paper discusses the choice of career through a counseling process. More specifically, firstly the concept of career counseling is clarified, with a brief reference to its aims and objectives as well as to the stages of this process. Next, the main theories regarding the choice of career and career development are presented. Finally, the factors affecting career choice and development are highlighted.

Keywords: career choice, career counseling, career development

Poga Nertila-Marianthi¹, Panagiotou Marilena² and Kougioumtzis Georgios³

¹ Poga Nertila-Marianthi, Sociologist, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: ria_poga@hotmail.com

² Panagiotou Marilena, Sociologist, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance. Email: marilena193@gmail.com

³ Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

The choice of career is one of the first and perhaps most important and critical decisions a young person is expected to make in his life. By career choice we refer to the possibility the individual has to freely choose the profession that he wishes to follow and which needs to meet his expectations and abilities. It is clear that the correct choice of career is essential for a young person both in regard of his individual and his social development.

A young person, at an early stage of his life, having taken into account all of those factors associated with the choice of career, is asked to choose with maturity his professional direction. Of course, in modern times, young people find it increasingly difficult to make appropriate career choices, both because of technological and economic developments occurring so rapidly. Career counseling is instrumental in the successful choice of profession, as it is a process that enables the person to make effective career decisions.

2. Career Counseling

2.1 Delimitation of the concept

Career counseling could be defined as the counseling intervention process in which the counselor develops a cooperative relationship with the consultee in order to help him clarify, define and implement any decisions relating to his profession and to adapt to them. Essentially, it is a guiding process carried out by the career consultant to help the consultee investigate and clarify the appropriate solutions on the choice of career (Amundson, Harris-Bowlsbey & Niles, 2008: 9).

2.2 Aims and objectives of career counseling

The main aim of Career Counseling is to strengthen the individual in the decision-making process and, more generally, in his professional development. In particular, its aim is that the individual recognizes and accepts himself, understands his individual characteristics (interests, abilities, inclinations) and shapes his values. Moreover, it motivates the individual to set goals based on realistic context, after having received the right educational and professional information from the counselor. At the same time, it helps the individual with personal, social and professional development, in order to adequately adapt to the social and professional environment. Finally, it aims to develop skills for successful educational and professional transition, positioning and adjustment (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 28-29).

2.3 Career counselor's skills

In order to conduct career counseling, the career counselor follows certain activities, as defined by NCDA⁴. The prerequisites of a qualified counselor for the counseling process are:

- ✚ A theoretical basis and knowledge on career counseling.
- ✚ The ability to conduct and assess individual and group counseling.
- ✚ The provision of information, management and implementation of curricula.
- ✚ Mentoring the consultees and developing their individual skills.
- ✚ Knowledge of legal issues concerning career counseling practice.
- ✚ Excellent skills in the use of technological means for efficient implementation of career counseling (Amundson et al., 2008: 10-11).

3. Stages of career counseling

3.1 Stage of assessment, contract and investigation

The counseling process usually begins with an assessment prior to the signing of a contract of cooperation between the consultant and the consultee. Through the assessment, the consultant is given the chance to gather information about the consultee while the consultee is also able to gather information about the consultant and the services he provides. Then, there is the contract stage which seeks to develop a relationship of understanding and trust between the two parties. This takes place so as both of them further understand both the methods of co-working and the roles of each one. The contract procedure is related to the process of investigation of the thoughts, feelings and actions of the consultee (Sidiropoulou-Demakakou, 2008: 8-9).

3.2 Stage of awareness and understanding

This stage is a process through which the counselor provides assistance to the consultee in order to know himself better. The overriding objective at this stage is to raise awareness of the process on the part of the consultee, both at a mental level and an emotional one. Essentially, the counselor challenges the consultee in order to help him gain a deeper sense of self-consciousness about whatever concerns him and about his behaviour. In other words, this is an attempt to seek a new and more constructive self-perception of the consultee. This is also

⁴ National Career Development Association: it provides career development, editions-publications, templates and support to professionals and educators, who inspire and reinforce people in order to have a successful career and achieve their life-goals.

the foundation, so that the consultee be motivated and decide or move on with the action plan. In this phase, the use of tasks or worksheets seems to be particularly helpful, as it encourages investigation, it enhances the process of career counseling and highlights the professional guidelines of the consultee (Sidiropoulou-Demakakou, 2008: 9).

3.3 Stage of action, results and completion of the counseling process

This stage seems to be a natural evolution of the two previous stages, where the counselor and the consultee slowly reach the last part of the counseling process. Since, they have first defined the aims of career counseling through the signing of the contract, they focus on “action”. At this point, the aim is acquisition of greater self-awareness on the part of the consultee and of a more creative approach to the future. The stage of “action” is associated with the investigation and selection of alternative solutions on issues that the consultee is preoccupied with. At this stage, various tasks and exercises may prove extremely useful. They aim at helping the consultee make a choice (Sidiropoulou-Demakakou, 2008: 9).

4. Theories of career choice and development

4.1 Delimitation of the concept

Career choice and development is a continuous course of evolution with a beginning, duration and an end. In recent decades, this concept seems to have preoccupied many experts, thus a large number of views and theories has been put forward. Theories which focus on career choice and professional development provide career counselors a framework for the design of counseling interventions. The use of these theories lies in the management of each case.

4.2 General categories of theories

Career choice and development theories are usually divided into the following categories:

✚ In *socio-economic theories (or non-psychological)*, according to which the choice of career is based on a system beyond the individual. The factor of “luck” and factors related to the economic principles of supply and demand can be included in extra-individual influences (Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 6-7).

✚ In *psychological theories* (such as developmental and psychodynamic, theories of decision-making and learning theories), which focus on the individual itself, without this meaning that they exclude any possible effects of environmental factors (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 84-85).

✚ In *general theories*, according to which career choice is a dynamic process that is influenced by both social and economic, as well as biological and psychological factors (Markoulis, 1981).

4.2.1 Donald E. Super's evolutionary theory

Super (1953), one of the most important theorists on career choice issues, has developed a model in which the choice of career is a lifelong process. According to him, people differ in their abilities, interests and personality. The focus of his theory is the concept of self-awareness and the opinion or idea that an individual formulates about himself, through the process of interaction with the environment. Super accepts that career choice is an ongoing process irreversible in most of its part, and a compromise between the individual and reality (Dimitropoulos, 2004: 126).

In the course of career development Super distinguishes five life stages:

- i. The stage of growth (0-14 years old), where the person forms his self-image and gradually moves towards the world of work.
- ii. The stage of exploration (14-24 years old), where the investigation process is enhanced towards a particular profession/career.
- iii. The stage of establishment (25-44 years old), where the person has already adapted and intends to successfully pursue the profession chosen.
- iv. The stage of maintenance (45-64 years old), the person is trying to maintain what he has achieved in his career and gradually prepares to retire.
- v. The stage of decline (over 65 years old), where the person is now released from previous career obligations, replacing them with new activities (Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 48; Krivas, 1987).

Each stage, therefore, seems to correspond to a particular period of the individual's life, as well as to certain developmental activities. The completion of this process is accomplished with a compromise (or synthesis) between self-perception and objective reality (Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 48).

Therefore, the choice of a career is a process of self-formation, self-expression and self-implementation (Amundson et al., 2008; Harris-Bowlsbey & Niles, 2008: 26). Vocational maturity is the fundamental concept in Super's theory, which is perceived as readiness for the accomplishment of any career development tasks (Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 51). Generally, Super cites the view that a person's career consists of a number of choices during the transitional stages of life, first during his educational cycle and then during his working cycle.

4.2.2 John L. Holland typological theory

4.2.2.1 Introductory approach

Holland's theory (1985; Prediger & Vansickle, 1992: 111-128), a leading theorist of Occupational Psychology, is one of the most widely used and accepted theories by career development counselors. It focuses on the factors that affect human choices in a given time (Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 9).

According to Holland, during the period of career choice a person is influenced by the interaction of a self-generated heredity combined with a number of cultural and personal strengths. These include parents, social class, culture and circle of friends. A person in the process of career choice seeks a professional environment that is closer to his own personality. Moreover, career choice is a basic expression of the dynamics of an individual.

Therefore, according to Holland, a person's action may be determined by the interaction between the type of his personality and the characteristics of the environment in which he lives and functions. This environment usually makes the expression of his interests and abilities easier. Thus, people are seeking to find an environment and a profession which will enable them to exercise and cultivate their abilities and to express their values and their inclinations as well as to take on satisfactory roles (Cosmidou-Hardy, 2015: 32; Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 9-10).

Moreover, professional success, stability and satisfaction depend on the degree of harmony between the personality of the individual and his working environment. Consequently, Holland considers that there are basic working environment types, corresponding to each personality type. Therefore, those people who choose to work in an environment corresponding to the type of their personalities are more likely to succeed (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 93; Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 11).

4.2.2.2 Holland's hexagonal model (Holland RIASEC hexagon)

Holland proceeded to the formation and development of a hexagonal model (Holland RIASEC hexagon) which represents the correlation between personality type and working environment.

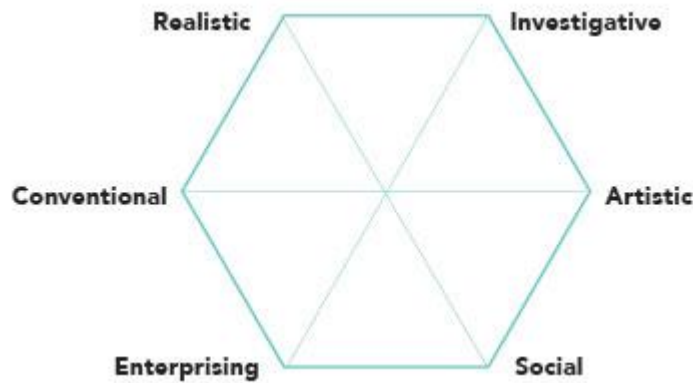


Figure 1: Holland RIASEC hexagon

According to this hexagonal model, the majority of people in today's world can be classified in six personality types on the basis of the characteristics of their personality. These are:

- i. **R** - realistic: people who prefer practical and realistic activities belong to this type.
- ii. **I** - investigative: people who have observation, investigation and analysis skills belong to this type.
- iii. **A** - artistic: individuals of this type are distinguished by artistic and innovative skills and prefer free, ambiguous and unsystematic activities.
- iv. **S** - social: people who turn to activities that involve relationships with other people fit this type.
- v. **E** - enterprising: individuals of this type are characterized by leadership and supervisory skills. They are sociable and ambitious.
- vi. **C** - conventional: people who love order and organization are included in this type (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 93-95; Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 11-13).

In addition, Holland introduces the concepts of:

- (a). consistency: that is the degree of relation between personality types and environments,
- (b). differentiation: that is the degree that the individual or the environment are clearly defined,
- (c). identity: that is the degree of clarity and stability of the objectives and interests or the duties and the rewards of the environment,
- (d). congruence: as long as each personality type coincides with an environment and,
- (e). calculus: that is the hexagonal set-up of types and environments (Cosmidou-Hardy, 2015: 33-34; Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 13-15).

The theory of vocational choice and career of Holland seems to be used more often by career counselors, because of its clarity, making vocational guidance work easier.

4.2.3 A social learning theory of career selection by John D. Krumboltz

The theory of social learning is based on the theory of psychology of behavior, namely on the “theory of cognitive-social learning”, according to which the development of an individual’s personality is mainly a product of social learning (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 105).

According to Krumboltz (Krumboltz, Mitchell & Jones, 1976: 71-81), professional development and career choice is a series of interdependent decisions and preferences. This is a process that begins in childhood and ends with the advent of old age. This development depends on several facilitating and limiting factors, both individual and extra - individual. Some of these factors are some stable / invariable (sex, physical characteristics, race), while others may be varied (social, professional or educational environment) (Dimitropoulos, 2004: 133).

In particular, the theory of Krumboltz is based on four categories of factors, which decisively affect the choices and the development of one's career and are as follows:

- (i). Genetic origins / genetic gifts and special abilities.
- (ii). Environmental conditions and situations.
- (iii). Past learning experiences.
- (iv). Acquisition of task approach skills (Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 32-33).

Through the interaction of these factors, three special effects arise:

- ✚ World-view generalizations, that is, perceptions that the individual forms about the environment and the conditions for his survival.
- ✚ Self-observation generalizations about task efficacy, interests and personal values.
- ✚ Decisions (Dimitropoulos, 2004: 133-134; Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 33-34).

Each individual filters both events and information through his own generalized self-observation and a system of personal views that he has formed within his environment. The existence of irrational beliefs about choices and career development is usually an important obstacle to the identification of goals and to making appropriate choices. Thus, the role of the counselor is crucial in helping the consultee to identify these irrational beliefs and combat them (Amundson et al., 2008: 35).

Career choice, then, is a process that lasts throughout an individual’s life and is influenced by both the individual’s decisions and the social and economic constraints as far as

availability of certain professions and their prerequisites are concerned (Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 36).

4.2.4 The narrative approach of Mark L. Savickas

The theory of Savickas (2004: 42-70) takes Super's theory a step forward. He is considered a representative of the narrative approach and in particular of the constructivist theory, which argues that a person's career is formed, based on self-perception and expresses his goals within the social environment (Amundson et al., 2008: 31).

The theory of Savickas consists of three main components, which include vocational personality, aspects of life and vocational adaptability. In particular, according to him, vocational personality is formed by all traits of a personality type, which relate to the characteristics of professions. Aspects of life are the driving forces by which the individual expresses his self-perception and gives meaning both to his work and to other roles in his life. These are determined by the individual experiences each person experiences. Finally, vocational adaptability includes attitudes, behaviors and skills that enable the individual to make the necessary adjustments in the working place or changes in his career (Amundson et al., 2008: 32).

Therefore, a counselor's main role is to identify and determine both the person's vocational personality and aspects of his life so that the ways he could apply to implement his work and contribute to society may emerge (Thomopoulou, 2011: 26).

The main method is storytelling with the counselor mobilizing the consultee to tell stories of his life, through some guiding questions. Through these questions the aspects of the individual's life are determined and then career choice means implementing these aspects (Amundson et al., 2008: 32-33).

In general, the objectives of the counseling process may be summarized in three statements: Firstly, realization of important and critical issues, as well as intractable problems. Secondly, creation of a career, which facilitates the process of implementing this aspect or solving problems. And thirdly, cultivation and development of ability, with regard to vocational adaptability (Amundson et al., 2008: 33).

5. Factors influencing career choice and development

Career choice and development of the individual, despite the fact that it is the individual's personal responsibility and involves traits of his personality, is directly or indirectly affected

by a combination of factors, since no factor can work individually (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 116). These factors can be divided into individual and extra-individual factors:

5.1 Individual factors

Those factors that exist within the person itself and can be classified into two groups, biological / hereditary and acquired fall in this category:

Biological / hereditary factors are considered those individual factors which are formed in accordance with biological laws or laws of heredity and which are impossible to affect the person himself and his environment. Indicatively, such as sex, physique and limits of cognitive capacity (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 117).

Acquired factors are considered those personal factors that are fixed or upgradeable traits of one's personality, which are a consequence of hereditary origins and environmental interaction. For example, various skills that a person develops, skills acquired or interests (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 117).

5.2 Extra-individual factors

This category includes all those factors resulting from the person's environment:

Family environment as an institution of primary socializing is the first and principal factor determining the individual's career choice, either directly or indirectly. The possible suggestions, prohibitions and advice of parents as well as their values and attitudes play an important role in the decision a person makes. Moreover, the main traits of an individual's personality are formed in the family environment (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 118-119 Kantas & Chantzi, 1991: 103).

School, as an extra-individual factor of secondary importance, contributes decisively to an individual's career choice and development, as it is the background underlying his later life. It is through school that a person is given the opportunity to have his inclinations, interests or talents emerge and also have all these assessed. Their performance sets the foundation for their career choice. The material taught at school, the values that it promotes, the standards it highlights, the occupations that it promotes or even extracurricular activities have a significant impact on career choice (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 119).

Accordingly, *society* is the wider environment within which all other factors that influence an individual's career development coexist. Many young people turn to certain vocational direction, following the example of their peers. The media display specific images in shaping people's lives, and/or encourage engaging in occupations that promote the modern

consumption model. The economic system, in turn, is a key force that directly affects the decisions and practices of community members (Dimitropoulos, 1999: 120).

6. Instead of a conclusion

Career counseling seeks in particular to help the individual to make a realistic choice of career, based on both his personal characteristics (temperament, values, perceptions, inclinations, skills, interests) and also on the possibilities of the job market.

A young person, through the process of career counseling, carefully plans the steps to follow in order to build his future career and feel more confident about his choices and decisions. The choice of vocational direction is a turning point in the life of an individual and need not be treated lightly. On the contrary, it needs to be the result of mature reflection.

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Abstract:

The present preamble focuses on the manifold issue of teachers' counseling, as far as students with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) are concerned. Specifically, the essay begins with an overall description of this particular disorder, as far as the clarification of the term and its social extensions are concerned. In addition, a reference of the meaning of teachers' counseling and the need of use of educational practices is being displayed for treating students with ADHD. Concluding, an attempt of brief review of recent researches is being made, focusing on suggested teaching interventions on students with ADHD.

Key-words: Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder, teachers' counseling, educational practice, teaching interventions, students with ADHD

Vlachakis Ilias¹and Kougioumtzis Georgios²

¹ Vlachakis Ilias P., Social Anthropologist, M.Sc. Public Policy, M.Ed. Bilingual Special Education, Specialization Program in Counselling & Guidance. Email: evlachakis@yahoo.gr

² Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counselling & Guidance). Email: gkougium@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

In recent times, the informative efforts concerning the society have been intensified by various scientific groups, regarding Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), since it is one of the most studied disorders globally. If we do not put into practice appropriate interventions and teaching methods, then aggravating consequences will arise as a result of ADHD, which cause academic difficulties and difficulty in socialization.

Educators are usually responsible for students with ADHD and, because of the interaction hours often spent with them, they become one of the main aids concerning the management of these difficulties of students. Nevertheless, quite often, parents and teachers ignore the early indications of the indicated problems by students with ADHD, leading to a hindrance in their broad development and to additional difficulties in their adult life.

2. Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

2.1. General rudiments

Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) is considered to be one of the most common neuro-biological disorders not only in childhood, but in adult life as well, concerning 5-7% of students. Specialists are usually being occupied by children with ADHD aged 3-7 years old. In most cases, recognition of the problem is being made the moment the child enters school, due to the school demands regarding organization, concentration of attention and compliance with the rules (Adhd Hellas).

It seems to be that boys are more prone to the appearance of ADHD rather than the girls. The ratio of appearance of the disorder between the two sexes varies from 3 to 1 and up to 9 to 1 against the boys. It is estimated that the difference in this frequency of appearance depends on the higher degree of inappropriate conduct or antisocial behavior on boys' part (Nikolopoulos, 2014).

ADHD does not appear as a single disorder. In children 65% with ADHD and in adults 75% with ADHD present one or more mental and developmental disorders that usually co-exist and are often complicated in their evolution and treatment. Children with ADHD face many difficulties concerning family, school and social environment, especially those whose disorder is not yet diagnosed and dealt with (Adhd Hellas).

2.2 Inquiring into the term

ADHD according to DSM-IV-TR³ or HD (Hyperkinetic Disorder) according to ICD-10⁴ is a common behavioral disorder, consisting of non expected behavior during childhood:

³ Diagnostic and Statistical Manual-IV-text revised.

Inattention, Hyperactivity and Impulsivity. Normally, these features are being observed in all children, but they appear to a greater extent and frequency in children with ADHD than in children of the same age (Hellenic Association of Neurosciences, Hellenic Association of Study on ADHD, Pan-Hellenic Union of Life Sciences & Eugenidou Foundation). Based on these two classification systems, it is estimated that the percentage of ADHD of school children is about 3-7% if diagnostic criteria⁵ of DSM-IV-TR are put into practice and about 1-2% if stricter diagnostic criteria⁶ of ICD-10 are implemented (Koumoula, 2012: 50).

2.3 Allocated types of ADHD

Depending on the symptoms that are prominent, the criteria of DSM-IV-TR distinguish three allocated types of ADHD: inattentive type, hyperactive-impulsive type and combined type (Hellenic Association of Neurosciences et al.). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), the criteria of ICD-10, as far as HD is concerned, are stricter and define in an essential way a subset of seriously ill patients, who follow the criteria of the combined type in DSM-IV-TR and do not accept the existence of co-morbidity (such as stress or depression) (Pechlivanidis, Spyropoulou, Galanopoulos, Papachristou & Papadimitriou, 2012: 564).

2.4. Possible etiology of ADHD

As for the exact explanation of ADHD, it is not crystal clear. However, it is the possible result of a combination of factors and until today we are aware of the following:

- Genetic factors: The features of each person are determined by the genes, which are inherited by the parents (Nikolopoulos, 2014).
- Environmental factors: Researches show that there is a connection between smoking and alcohol consumption, during pregnancy, leading to ADHD. Other signs are the age of the mother, the bad state of health and the toxemia.
- Brain damage: Children suffering in the past from brain damage or injuries are likely to present similar behavioral characteristics with those of ADHD.
- Sugar: Most researches do not support the theory that refined sugar causes or worsens symptoms of ADHD.

⁴ International Classification of Diseases.

⁵ Six (or more) of the symptoms of inattention or hyperactivity - impulsiveness, noted the last six months, in an unadjustable and non expected degree to the developmental level of the child. The symptoms must be noted before the age of seven.

⁶ At least six symptoms of inattention and three symptoms of hyperactivity and one symptom of impulsiveness that co-exist during the last six months, in an unadjustable and non expected degree to the developmental level of the child. The symptoms must be noted before the age of seven.

- Food additives: Research in Britain shows possible connection between the consumption of certain food additives, such as artificial colorings or preservatives, and the increased activity (Hellenic Association of Neurosciences et al.).
- Poor parental care: There are no studies showing that ADHD is the result of unfavorable family environment or poor parental care (Nikolopoulos, 2014).

2.5 Clinical portrayal of ADHD by age

Even though there are clear directions and internationally recognized diagnostic criteria, diagnosis of ADHD is a difficult task for the clinical scientist. The image of ADHD is different clinically depending on the developmental stage of the individual. The age of 3-5 (preschool) presents excessive physical activity, difficulty in co-operation among children of the same age and without compliance to those suggested by the adults. The age of 6-12 (school) presents oppositional behavior, conflicts among peers and problems in the school curriculum, apart from the main symptoms of the disorder (inattention, hyperactivity and impulsivity). In adolescence, conflicts at home and at school are to be continued and high risk behaviors are presented, but hyperactivity is decreased. As for the adults, inattention, impulsivity and impairment in general, which are caused by the disorder, remain, but intense physical mobility is significantly decreased (Adhd Hellas).

2.6 Methods of treatment of ADHD

The methods of treatment of ADHD can be categorized in pharmaceutical and non-pharmaceutical methods. The most common classification concerning the methods of treatment of ADHD concerns the following five main categories: a) psychological therapy, b) medical treatment, c) controversial treatments, d) alternative treatment and e) complementary interventions (Smyrniou, 2014).

3. Counseling

As a science Counseling deals with the improvement of the state of mental health of the individual and the support of self-awareness, which help in a better use of reserves in itself in order to achieve self-realization (Applied Psychotherapy & Counseling Center). Counseling helps their consulting so as to analyze their problems, to comprehend them and, finally, to solve them or at least to face them (Kosmidou-Hardy & Galanoudaki-Rapti, 1996).

Its general goal is transferring to individuals the potential and the opportunities to work out the subjects they are occupied with, depending on their judgment so as to lead a more

qualitative life not only by themselves, but as members of the community as well. Its side goals are to face or solve problems, such as decision making, crisis facing, improving relations, conflict resolution and the development of self-awareness. Counseling works out these problems and helps solving them, based on a relationship of respect, acceptance and trust (Hellenic Association of Counseling).

Science of Counseling turns towards facilitating the individual so as to comprehend better what is happening to him/her, encourage to set its personal goals and to find a way out of its personal difficulties on its own. Consequently, it does not create dependent individuals, but it educates them how to become independent and autonomous, to acquire competences concerning problem solving and to develop their potential to the greatest extent, so as to lead a fulfilled and qualitative life. As a procedure it is confidential, having as its feature the conversation. So as to achieve all the above a particular profile of consultant is required, with high education, special awareness and experience (Applied Psychotherapy & Counseling Center).

4. Teachers' Counseling

The teacher's role has changed over the years to a great extent. Except for the transmission and co-production (co-operative production with his students) of knowledge, he is also opposite to new challenges and unprecedented situations, both in the classroom and at school. He is called to detect major problems of students and try to cover their increased needs and he is responsible for the well functioning of the school as well. Therefore, a prerequisite for the fulfillment of these objectives is his training in communication skills and counseling (Malikiosi - Loizou, 2011).

On the one hand, the tutor is in need of communication skills in order to be able to transmit the information of its cognitive object in an effective way and to deal with students' behavior. On the other hand, the tutor, as an educational institution, is often called to help student in personal, social and family issues as well (Emmanouilidou, 2014: 2-3).

The relationship between a student with ADHD and a tutor is of great importance, since he is the one (not the parents) who is going to affect the development of students to a great extent either by his choices or his omissions. A pedagogical quality that is based on relationships and communication affects the entire life of the person. To that the relationship of communication between teacher and student in real classrooms is quite important. Constant negative observations on the part of the teacher lead to the development of unpleasant feelings of the student, resulting in the degradation of his self-esteem and of his own image. The

inspired and effective teacher becomes the co-producer of knowledge and the animating spirit of the student, in order to support him faces his problems (Giannoulaki, 2009).

5. Educational practice on students with ADHD

Teachers who succeed in treating students with ADHD use a three-pronged strategy. They begin with the recognition of the individual needs of the student, stating how, when and why he is distracted, impulsive and hyperactive. Later, they choose different educational practices concerning the appropriate teaching, the interference in behavior and the specific regulations of the class, related to the student's needs. Finally, they combine these practices with an Individualized Educational Program (IEP) and they integrate it in educational activities addressing to other students in class (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

Successful programs for students with ADHD include academic teaching, interventions in behavior and adjustments in classrooms. Then, as a guide, it is described how to synthesize a program with these three components and offer suggestions for practices that can help students with ADHD in the classroom. Several of the proposed practices can reinforce learning to other students in class, who do not have ADHD. Also, these practices are useful for older students as well, although they have been used extensively in primary school students (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

5.1 Academic Teaching

The first important element in order to teach successfully students with ADHD is an effective academic education. Teachers who apply the principles of effective teaching during each course can help prepare their students with ADHD to succeed.

Students with ADHD are able to learn better in a carefully structured academic hour, since an effective teacher in teaching students with ADHD explains from the beginning of the course what he wants his students to learn during the course and presents new tools and information, in relation to previous courses. So as the series of course for students with ADHD ends successfully, the teachers have to ask students periodically if they understand the material presented to them. Furthermore, they need to insist and help students answer correctly before going on with the other students and, therefore, identify which ones need some kind of support. Teachers should be aware to the fact that the transition from one course or a class to others is difficult for students with ADHD. The chances to respond and not be distracted are better when students are being prepared for the changes (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

At the same time, effective teachers before completing their lesson, they should have notified in advance that the lesson ends and they have ascertained that some of the students with ADHD have completed their work. They have also given to students the guidelines for the preparation of the new activity. Effective teachers individualize teaching practices, based on the academic subject and the needs of students in each subject area. Students with ADHD use different ways of learning and memorization of information that do not contain any «reading and listening». The successful teachers in teaching students with ADHD first identify the modules where each student needs more support and then they use special strategies to impart structured opportunities to the student, in order to be able to understand the academic subject that has already been presented in the classroom (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

Many students with ADHD get easily distracted and have difficulty in concentrating on the tasks which are given to them. They can be helped with a teacher as a counselor or as a student coordinator, with a task notepad, colored folders, working with a partner, arranging desks and school bags, having auxiliary optical means for their study as an object reminder, so as to improve the organization of the study and their daily operations (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

Many times, students with ADHD struggle in order to promptly complete their work and to improve the organization of their time they often use practices and special materials, such as clock, calendar, business suites and daily activities program. Sometimes, they find it difficult to learn when there are on their own on how to study properly. If they adjust the worksheets, use Venn diagrams⁷, notes, frequent errors checklist, materials checklist for homework, clean and free desktop and observe their home study, then they can develop learning skills for academic success (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

5.2 Interventions in behavior

The second most important element for a successful teaching, as for students with ADHD, are the behavioral interventions. They often have unsuitable and immature behavior and it is difficult for them to control their impulsivity and hyperactivity. Sometimes, they find it difficult either to create friendships with other students of the class or to understand the social consequences of their actions.

Interventions in behavior are intended to help students adapt more appropriate behaviors in their own learning and that of their peers. The classes that are properly controlled prevent

⁷ The Venn diagram is an image of sets and it is used in education, as it serves as a mnemonic rule for significant relationships between the different acts of sets. In each Venn diagram exist: (a) a rectangle that represents the greatest total that we can consider, depending on what we want to show and usually denoted by Z or U and (b) closed lines, usually curves and circles, where surface enclosing symbolizes the act of set of its own.

many discipline problems and provide an environment that helps learning. When the teacher spends a lot of time in disciplining students, whose behavior has nothing to do with the lesson given, then less time is available to help and support other students. Interventions in behavior need to be treated as an opportunity for more effective and efficient teaching and not as an opportunity to impose punishment (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

Successful teachers use various interventions in behavior in order to help students to learn how to keep control. The most common form is to reward the student, each time he starts and completes an activity or exhibits a certain behavior. So, they reward students with ADHD regularly and they are looking for desired behaviors, to be rewarded before and not after the completion of work by the student. It is important to be noted that the most successful teachers base their intervention strategy of behavior mostly on rewarding rather than on punishment. The punishments may increase the frequency and intensity of undesirable behaviors, if it looks like the mischievous student is rewarded, after having gained the attention of the teacher. Also, imposed punishment teaches students what they should not do, but it does not provide them with the skills they need in order to do what we expect from them to do. The positive reinforcement leads to changes in the perception and moulds the behavior of the student shortly (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

Effective teachers in teaching students with ADHD motivate their students without the use of words. With these forms of motivation they remind students of what is expected from them in learning and behavior in the classroom. Three forms of motivation that help highly are the following: visual signals, the proximity control and hand movements. Students with ADHD in some cases benefit from the training which is designed for them, in order to learn how to manage their behavior. When the teacher teaches students with ADHD how to manage their behavior, in many cases some types of intervention or support behavior are quite helpful. Because of the fact that the personal needs of students vary, it is important for teachers in collaboration with family to assess whether and how these practices are appropriate for each class (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

5.3 Adjustments in teaching class

The third most important element for a successful teaching of students with ADHD are adjustments in teaching class. They often have difficulty in being adapted to the structured classroom environment, in understanding the definition of what is important and in concentrating on the project they have undertaken. Their attention is distracted quite easily, either from other students or from other activities in the classroom. As a result, students with

ADHD can benefit from suitable adjustments, that reduce the distraction and they can concentrate and learn. Choosing the right place for the student with ADHD to sit is one of the most common adjustments that can be made in the classroom. Also, experienced teachers use special teaching tools to change the learning space in class, in order to meet the needs of students with ADHD (Add-Adhd Cyprus).

6. Review of bibliography

According to direct researches of the last decade, a teaching intervention for students with ADHD in order to be effective depends on the perception and experience of teachers, their education and the way of teaching, whereas the need for early intervention of these students and their early detection emerges. Based on the following, it is revealed that ADHD is an open field for research with many further investigation aspects.

Due to the review, it is demonstrated how important the position of a teacher is at school and academic progress of a student with ADHD. Decisive role is played by perception and experience, as it is demonstrated in the investigations of Hong (2005) and Ohan, Visser, Strain & Allen (2009), where teachers with a positive attitude and experience in students with ADHD feel confident about themselves, developing effective educational strategies, that help student not only in behavioral level but in an academic level as well. The teaching form, which emerges in the investigations of Imeraj, Antrop, Sonuga-Barke, Deboutte, Deschepper, Bal & Roeyers (2011) and Steiner, Sheldrick, Frenette, Rene & Perrin (2014), is also important. They demonstrate that students with ADHD work better in small groups, with leading - supportive content and supervision of the teacher.

Moreover, teacher training in ADHD is of great importance, as Kapalka (2008) revealed, Froelich, Breuer, Doepfner & Amonn (2012) and Shaban, Baba, Noah & Marzuki (2015), by providing information on ADHD and training in specialized techniques, was noted that improved the capacity of teachers to confront attention deficit and behavior in the classroom. Finally, a significant role is played by the way of teaching in the Kapalka (2005), Shalev, Tsal & Mevorach (2005) and Christiansen, Hirsch, König, Steinmayr & Roehrlé (2014), as the former focusing on the Barkley technique⁸ proved to be educational effective in reducing ADHD symptoms and in compliance as well. The latter, proposing automated progressive education in screen were led to the same results and the last ones focusing on early

⁸ Initially, the teacher issues a command to the student, which is repeated only once if necessary. Later, if no compliance is obtained by the student to this issue, he proceeds to warning him only once as for the consequence is concerned. Afterwards, he imposes this consequence, in case compliance is not obtained at last.

intervention with specific methodology ascertained that the education of students in behavioral issues was useful and self-efficacy of teachers is enhanced.

7. Conclusion

Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) is the most common neuro-developmental disorder of childhood, which in most cases continues into adulthood with operational burden. The approach to treatment is multi-layered and co-morbid disorders must initially be treated. The best training in the recognition of ADHD in adults will help to a most effective therapy, will improve the health and quality of the life of patients and will reduce the family burden led by the particular disorder (Pechlivanidis et al., 2012: 562).

In conclusion, it strongly suggests the need for an in-depth training of all teachers, through these programs and the implementation of the proposed by these teaching interventions. Starting point is the experience and their active participation, where the training will set up as a target to both of the discovery of further specialized knowledge of ADHD and also the avoidance to franchised views, concerning the incorrect treatment of children with ADHD and reinforce the exclusion of their development, either academically or socially.

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Experimental Junior High Schools

Abstract:

The role of counselling during students' transition from primary school to junior high school is certainly important, as it relates to the gradual adjustment of children to the new social, physical and educational environment. A successful counselling intervention is marked by the harmonious cooperation between family and school. Values such as autonomy, self-esteem, a sense of security and harmonious relations contribute towards this direction. Indeed, the process of transition in the special environment of Model and Experimental Schools requires additional adjustment. In this framework, different transition theories were developed, aimed at interpreting, defining and distinguishing them. The transition of students is inextricably linked with the concepts of self-esteem and self-awareness. These concepts are drastically affecting the intensity of transition stages, which vary from one student to another. School readiness is not always taken for granted and requires the cooperation of family and school environment. The right period to apply smooth transition practices is set at different points in time by each school unit, so that it may respond to the specific needs of its pupils, which are significantly diversified in terms of intensity and character. Specifically for Model and Experimental Schools, factors such as the pupils' admission process, the different environment and the different level of education are estimated as rendering transition counselling a necessity. With the development of appropriate counselling programs, this process can become substantial and creative, marking the successful transition of pupils from one educational level to the next.

Keywords: Transition, counselling, intervention, Model/Experimental Junior High school

Zikos Nikos¹ and Xenaki Antonia²

1. Introduction

¹ Zikos Nikos, Ph.D. Chemistry, Specialization Program in Counseling & Guidance, Zanneio Experimental Junior High School. Email: nzikoschem@yahoo.gr

² Xenaki Antonia, Ph.D. French Language and Literature, 12th Primary School Nea Smyrni. Email: jenakis@hol.gr

Transition is defined as a period during which children adjust “gradually to the new physical, *social and human environment*” (Legendre, 2005: 1404). A successful transition is marked by calmness for pupils-teens, their families and the adults surrounding them. It requires mutual adjustment to different environments involving school, individual, family, social and cultural factors. Smooth - tension-free - transition allows pupils to identify their own strengths and the challenges that may appear, in view to establishing - in a relatively short period - interpersonal relationships in their new environment, to feel a sense of security in the junior high school environment, to develop or preserve a positive attitude towards school and knowledge and to develop an inner sense of confidence about their own school success.

When the school takes into account and responds to the needs of pupils for autonomy, self-esteem, security and good relations, then the entire educational process is significantly reinforced. Before becoming adults, adolescents go through several transitions, each one of which may potentially pose problems. These transitions become even harder when psychological and developmental factors are enmeshed, especially when these coincide with the transition from primary to secondary education. Based on the literature, this period is a period of intense adjustment in which many challenges arise both in physical and psychological, social and environmental terms (Chouinard & Desbiens, 2009).

According to the institutional framework of operation of Model and Experimental Schools, the objectives of these school units regarding pupils are to ensure public and free, high quality education for all, seeking an all-round, harmonious and balanced development of pupils. Moreover, the promotion of creativity, innovation and excellence is specifically targeted, through the establishment of groups where pupils from all schools of the wider educational region may participate (Ministry of Education, Research and Religious Affairs, 2011).

A key point in the operation of Model and Experimental Schools is the admission of pupils. More specifically, for Junior High Schools the circular of the Ministry of Education specifies that the admission of pupils in Model or Experimental Junior High Schools is made according to the following procedure: For existing Experimental Primary Schools and Junior High Schools, which are interconnected, Primary School graduates shall be automatically enrolled in the First class of the connected Junior High School. If the Experimental Junior High School is not connected with an Experimental Primary School, the admission of pupils shall be made exclusively by draw. As regards Model Junior High Schools the admission of all pupils to the First class of Model Junior High School shall be made by written test (Ministry of Education, Research and Religious Affairs, 2016).

From the above we conclude that the First grade of Model or Experimental Junior High Schools consists of pupils coming from different school units, with the exception of Experimental Junior High Schools that are connected to the respective Primary Schools. When, of course, there are vacancies admission of new pupils will be made, which may potentially change the relevant homogeneity that was established during Primary School attendance. However even if there are no vacancies, there may be transfers of pupils between individual classes, since Junior High School classes are made up in strict alphabetical order, while in Primary School a different procedure may be followed.

2. Transition - Theories of Transition

Based on the international bibliography, transition as a term indicates the passage from a familiar situation to an unknown situation and is accompanied by feelings of insecurity (Entwistle, 1988). Literally, in everyday communication, the word “transition” means moving from one place to another, while metaphorically speaking it means the evolutionary process leading from one state to another (Bambiniotis, 2002). Finally, according to the National Organisation for the Certification of Qualifications and Vocational Guidance (EOPPEP) a transition is a change in the fields of career, work, school, an occupational injury, the development of new or enhancement of existing skills (EOPPEP, 2013).

Indeed, based on the literature there is a distinction between physical and social transitions: Physical transitions refer to the change from one developmental stage to the next and are associated with cognitive changes that occur mainly as a result of the development course of individuals. On the other hand, social transitions refer to the integration of individuals in the structure of new social systems, one of the most important being the educational system, which includes several transitions (nursery school → primary school → junior high school → senior high school → higher education) and the military system (Anderson et al., 2000).

Transitions may be desirable or undesirable, planned or accidental and may involve unexpected or painful events, which make them difficult to process. Due to the fact that man has a tendency to resist change and anything new, feelings to the security of what is known and established and therefore not perceived as a threat. Therefore the concept of transition is directly related to self-esteem and self-awareness. Self-esteem is influenced by personal ambitions and the subjective assessments of the individual as regards the achievement or non-achievement of the objectives pursued. Each transition stage entails objectives pursued,

which in turn are shaped by the personal assessment of each individual on himself, something that also characterises children in this transitional period.

In international educational literature the following transition theories stand out:

- Theory of Anxiety

Anxiety disrupts the focus of pupils and makes it difficult for them to manage obstacles during a transition. According to this theory, the transition to an unfamiliar environment prepares the individual for the next transition.

- Theory of social position change

The dominant position of a group ceases to exist during the transition.

- Theory of developmental readiness

Children's readiness depends on the successful use of their maturity in the new educational environment. Maturity occurs both in cognitive and emotional terms. The new educational environment of Junior High School is followed by reasonable growth and psycho-emotional changes.

- Discontinuity Theory

If the transition from one level to the other occurs suddenly, without any preparation, it is considered to be intermittent.

- Accumulative Theory

The stress of change, combined with the period of adolescence, has an impact on the shaping of self-esteem and motivation for learning and acquiring knowledge.

- Ecological systems theory

Children experience changes interacting with their close or wider environment.

3. Transition and Self-Esteem

At this point there are specific self-esteem stages during the transition period. Initially, the individual feels a *numbness*, caused by the shock of change during the transition from something known to something unknown. Soon after the individual adopts a *negative attitude* to moving to the new situation and is oriented towards the old one. As a direct result of this action, initially the self-esteem of the individual is reinforced, in the belief that it is covered by the present situation. However, as the individual realises that the coming change is inevitable he feels depressed and his *self-esteem* dwindles. The course of events drags the individual, who resigns from resistance to change. The self-awareness becomes negative and self-esteem is even further reduced. Then, the individual is forced to try the new situation and,

while experiencing it, internalizes the importance of transition, through which he understands that he has made it and that he is a capable person. Therefore, the individual's self-awareness becomes more positive and his self-esteem increases.

Indicatively, the course of self-esteem is represented in the following figure:

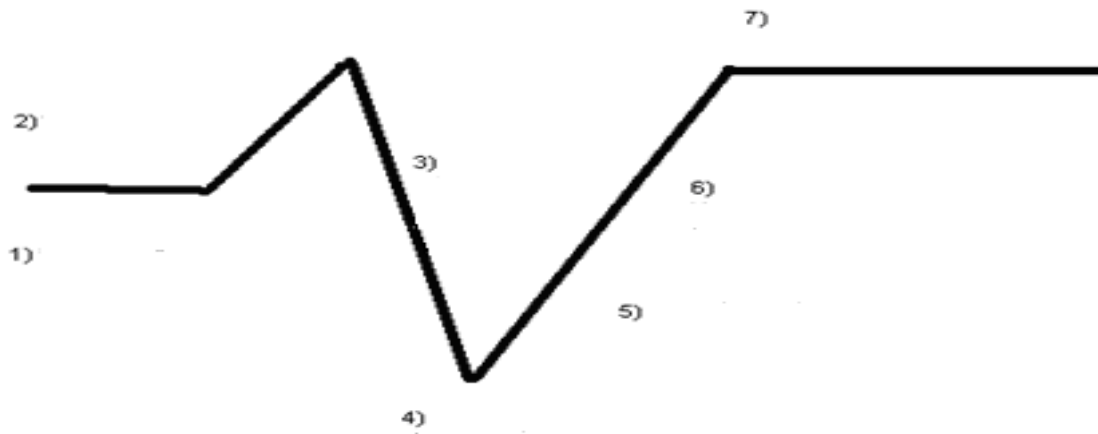


Figure 1. Course of self-esteem

1. Numbness
2. Denial
3. Bad disposition
4. Acceptance of the reality - Abandon
5. Trying something new
6. In search of a meaning pertaining the transition
7. The inner meaning of the experience

Self-esteem is strongly influenced by personal ambitions and subjective assessments, with respect to the objectives pursued. It is the quotient of the individual's successes to its ambitions (Makri-Botsari, 2001). At this point, it is important to underline that the personal assessments of each individual on the self, are largely determined by the way the individual is treated or faced by others (Malikiosi, 1999). Therefore, in any transition stage self-esteem plays a decisive role in the adjustment to the applicable new framework - in this case, school. The *other* operates as a mirror of the self. The social self is called specular self (Tsaousis, 1984).

4. Transition in the Educational Process and Readiness

Therefore, in education, this process is naturally experienced not only by pupils, but by their extended family as well. This occurs when pupils change education levels and more specifically – and more intensely – from Primary to Junior High and from Junior High School to Senior High. Moreover, this period is one of intense adjustment in which many challenges arise, both in physical, social and psychological terms (Chouinard & Desbiens, 2009). Indeed,

it should be noted that this specific change in school life is not a simple process, but one that significantly affects their self-esteem. Pupils, and individuals in general, tend to resist change and new situations. They often seek to remain within the framework or situation they know, as it is more familiar and does not make them feel threatened (Kosmidou-Hardy, 2008).

The school attendance period for Primary School pupils is six years - the longest in the entire school gradation. Pupils in the Sixth grade of Primary School, based on their age, feel as the dominant group in their school environment, which leads them to experience a high sense of self-esteem. However, during the transition to the First grade of Junior High School they immediately turn to members of the smallest age group in their new school unit. Therefore, as a direct result of the change in their social relationship, initially there is a drop in their self-esteem (Marquart, 2003).

Moreover, we need not overlook the fact that pupils from Primary School environment, which includes minimal change of teachers (except for special subjects), are now in a new school environment with continuous change of teachers. When we add to the above the evaluation process which is more demanding in Junior High School – with one-hour exams and an evaluation scale from 0 to 20 – it is easy to understand that the transition of pupils to Junior High School is perhaps the most significant change observed in early adolescence – even more so, than the corresponding transition from Junior High to Senior High School.

Nevertheless, an even more important process is the new allocation of pupils into classes. Even for pupils at the Junior High School of their area, it is not certain that they will be in the same class they were attending while in Primary School. Specifically, in the case of Model and Experimental Schools the admission procedure for pupils (draw or exams) has as immediate result that pupils of the First grade of Junior High will be in a new school environment where they know very few people, and indeed, in some even worse cases, they may not have any fellow pupils they know in the class they are attending. This last parameter, in conjunction with all the above, leads us to the conclusion that the transition process significantly affects the behaviour and overall attitude of these pupils at the beginning of the school year.

Therefore, the anomalous transition to Junior High School level brings about the adverse effect of first grade pupils showing adjustment difficulties in a more intense manner – usually from the first day of the school year – which unfortunately in some cases may last up to the beginning of the next school year (Graham & Hill, 2002). The results of an anomalous transition vary and are mainly detected in reduced school performance and the isolation of

certain pupils. Indeed, the relevant pedagogy literature refers to the term *transition shock*, which indicates stress, insecurity and anxiety experienced by pupils during the initial stage of the entire change-transition. Naturally, in severe cases these symptoms are also observed during the last attendance period at the school of origin (Sixth grade of Primary School) (Lenga & Ogdgen, 2000).

	Protection factors	Risk factors
School-related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good relationships with teachers: the main factor • A person to count on, in times of stress • The liaison between primary and junior high school in organizational, pedagogical and social level • Positive school and classroom atmosphere • Sense of belonging • Participation in extracurricular activities • Utilization of diversity among pupils • Building stable friendships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slowdown of school attendance. • Problems in teacher-student relationship. • Large divergence between primary-junior high school. • Discontinuity in organizational, educational and social level from primary school to junior high school • Introduction of more and dissimilar subjects in the curriculum.
Family-related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parental support (especially in stressful periods) • Participation of parents in supporting school performance • Positive family atmosphere. • Democratic spirit in the family, with emphasis on autonomy. • Good approach between family and school. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of parental support. • Limited school support. • Unpleasant family atmosphere. • Authoritarian or loose family spirit.
Pupil-related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive Self-Esteem. • Physical appearance. • Sense of personal efficiency and effectiveness. • Good socialization/social skills • Personal development capacity, after coping with adversities. • Interest in school subjects. • Trouble shooting strategy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low self-esteem. • Psychological dejection • (victimization, rejection, anxiety, depression) • Insufficient mobilization and lack of interest. • Difficulty in psychosocial and interpersonal adjustment • External and internal behavioural dysfunction. • Negative view about school, combined with underperformance. • Adjustment difficulties • (due to various causes)

Accordingly, it is necessary to emphasize that the intensity of the transition effects vary depending on the pupil. For many pupils transitions are difficult, given the accumulation of risk factors. Scholars Chouinard & Desbiens (2009) and Vaatz-Laaroussi (2009) recorded risk and protection factors. The following table groups these factors into three main categories, depending on whether they are related to pupils themselves, their families or the school environment. School alone cannot intervene to remedy the potential transition difficulties, unless cooperation practices are adopted between the school and the family.

It is important to note that these factors, as well as their results, interact with each other. Research showed that the negative risk factors operate as leverage (multiplicatively) (Rutteretal, 1998).

Number of factors combined	Negative results
1 factor →	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The possibility of someone suffering negative consequences is the same as of those not exposed to any factor.
2 or 3 factors →	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The possibility of negative results is four times higher.
4 factors →	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The possibility of negative results multiplied by ten.

The transition process is largely associated with the concept of school readiness, which based on the literature refers to the pupils' ability to meet specific requirements of school education, hence, to requirements accompanying the transition period (Rim & Kaufman, 2004). In any case, pupils are asked to incorporate the new experiences acquired in the new school environment. School readiness is not always a simple conquest of the pupils, but often the result of a planned educational intervention of teachers and the family.

Moreover, it should be noted that in several cases there is enthusiasm and optimism during the transition, features mainly cultivated by curiosity for the new environment and which need to be enhanced (Konidaris, 2009).

Evaluating all the above, both teachers and education executives, in cooperation with the family environment need to manage the examined phenomenon of transition from Primary to Junior High School, undertaking primarily a counselling role (Alevriadou, 2008).

5. Intervention Schedule

The identification and analysis of pupils' needs on the part of teachers allow the adjustment of actions to the right time. Primary and secondary schools should jointly support pupils, thus ensuring the achievement of objectives for a smooth transition from one stage to another. A

successful/smooth transition is scheduled and carried out over a period of at least twelve months, at different points in time. More specifically:

- Before the admission period of pupils in secondary education (from October to December of the previous year).
- During the admission of pupils in the new school (January, February and March).
- Before the start of the new school year (April, May and June).
- Just before the start of the new school year (July and August).
- After the start of the school year (during its term, up to June of the first grade in secondary education).

Applying smooth transition practices is indicatively proposed in each school unit, which separately develops innovative practices in order to meet the individual needs of pupils.

6. Model - Experimental Schools

The specific nature of Model and Experimental schools perhaps provides a new dimension to the transition. Pupils are in a completely new environment. We must not overlook the fact that the decision to participate in the admission process for school units of this type was taken with the encouragement of their parents and in individual cases there may have been reactions in their family environment.

A large number of pupils will attend a school which spatially will not be close to their home and where they will know but a few individuals. This fact combined with the differences between primary and secondary education makes the transition even more difficult. The majority of adverse effects can be observed from the first days of the school year, but their intensity varies from pupil to pupil.

7. Actions of Intervention

All the above lead us to the conclusion that it is necessary to provide for integration of the transition in any design relating to the educational process. In the case of Model and Experimental Schools, due to the pupils' admission procedure, interventions may have to be more forceful.

First, in terms of educational policy it is necessary to develop programs integrated in education - mainly in the first grade of Junior High School and the first grade of Senior High School - to facilitate pupils in the process with corresponding activities. It is also necessary to ensure that the respective curricula establish continuity between educational levels, so that the transition of pupils becomes smoother.

Moreover, through the process of strengthening self-esteem the various school transitions become less intense. Teachers train pupils to expect the best, helping them become stronger and more able to overcome difficulties. They need to be encouraged to express their wishes, to speak with confidence about their goals and experience positive emotions from their confirmations. Furthermore, it is advantageous to train in accepting themselves, highlighting their strengths and virtues and accepting their weaknesses, thus realizing that their personality is a synthesis of both elements.

Through the acceptance of themselves they understand what it means to be friends with ourselves without trying to adopt the desires of others. Teachers contributing to the facilitation of school transitions need to avoid negative words like *impossible*, *must not*, *difficult*, *unlikely*, *never*, and use positive words such as *should*, avoiding the word *wrong*.

Furthermore, apart from intervention in national terms, intervention can be achieved in terms of school units, personally through the contribution of teachers and of the teachers' association. More specifically, at the beginning of the school year it would be useful to keep a record of the pupils admitted for attendance in the Model or Experimental Junior High School, which will include information concerning the school of origin and the class attended. It is very important for teachers to know the composition of each classroom, regarding the origin of pupils.

Another equally important factor is classroom desk arrangement, namely the selection of pupils sharing desks. When there is no prior school relationship between pupils this process is random or at the suggestion of the head of the class. It would be useful for the head of class to encourage pupils to make a selection, with the help of a sociogram. More specifically, the pupils of each classroom will be asked to write down five names of their classmates with whom they would like to cooperate. First, they will write down their own name and then they will write in order of priority the classmates they prefer. They will also have to indicate whom of their new classmates they already knew. Then the teacher will index the pupils' selections and proceed to choose the pupils sharing the desk of the classroom, while respecting the pupils' suggestions (Todoulou, 2011).

The entire process is very important because it allows teachers to make a first assessment of the existing relations between the pupils of the class. These relations must provide a solid foundation for building cohesion in the class, which will have the same composition of pupils for at least three years, up to the end of the Third grade of Junior High School. However, these relations between specific pupils should in no way become the reason for the social exclusion of certain pupils – particularly of the less popular ones.

In terms of curricula too, it would be useful the first week of the school year for the First grade of Junior High School to be characterised as adjustment week – a week when pupils will learn about the new school unit, the computer lab, the school science lab, the school gym, their classmates and the teachers' association.

The latter, during this week will strengthen relations between the school community, through specific teaching procedures. Specifically, each pupil will be asked to present him/herself to the classroom, mentioning – based on their own assessment – the strengths and weaknesses of their personality.

As a reference to the freshmen induction ceremony held in higher education institutions, the same could also apply in secondary education. Both the teachers' and the parents' associations could get involved in this process. Pupils of the First grade of Junior High School could get a tour around the school facilities and then watch the actions of the school unit, a process that should be carried out in the beginning of the school year, preferably in the second ten-day period of September.

Furthermore, an extremely useful tool towards this direction is the designation of a mentor, which is applied in Model and Experimental Schools and addresses the supervision of University school students by the teachers of the school unit. The teachers of these schools, with the experience gained from this institution, could also extend it among the members of the school community. Specifically, the older pupils of the Third grade of Junior High school could become the mentors for First grade pupils. This role cannot be played by teachers; on the contrary, pupils of the First and Third grade of Junior High School have small age difference and share the same communication code.

At the same time, teaching can contribute to a smooth transition in many ways. First of all, the Clubs of Excellence and Creativity (available exclusively to Model and Experimental Schools) and the School Activity Programs, which take place after school hours and involve pupils from all classes can strengthen pupils' relationships. Teachers play an important role in these programs, since they are free from the stress of the Curriculum that needs be followed in the classroom, they are asked to enhance the sense of familiarity for pupils of the First grade of Junior High School through specific activities. Of course, to achieve the above the specific activities and especially of the Clubs of Excellence and Creativity, which are determined by the Scientific Supervisory Boards of each school, must start at the beginning of the school year.

Moreover, teachers implementing Vocational Orientation Counselling or the relevant Vocational Orientation officer may implement experiential exercises to enhance self-efficacy. Specifically, in order to enhance self-esteem, pupils may:

- Keep a positive / negative diary.
- Write down how they spent their day.
- Encircle all negative words.
- Rewrite the report of the day, avoiding negative words.

Finally, it may help to implement innovative teaching methods, the most characteristic being teamwork in the classroom. Teamwork is a process of mobilization and promotion of pupils' self-motivation, while it cultivates a spirit of cooperation between them. Teamwork teaching is extremely helpful in this direction and strengthens in an extremely effective manner the pedagogical spirit in the classroom (Papavasileiou, 2011). In this manner, pupils become members of a school community and not individual units.

8. Conclusions

The transition of pupils from Primary to Junior High School is a painful process, especially in the case of Model and Experimental Schools. The number of elements that change from one level to another, coupled with the advent of adolescence, make the transition even harder. The intervention of teachers is therefore required in view to making the entire process as smooth as possible, especially for pupils who cannot cope individually and experience the intensity of the phenomena for longer periods. Certainly, teachers too need to be trained further in the identification of such cases among pupils and in immediate intervention, through specific teaching actions for their resolution.

As the transition process is multifactorial, its success in terms of smoothness is based on good cooperation between school and family. Attention should also be given to counselling centres and their significant role in this period for pupils, enhancing them through actions and activities. Consultants, teaching staff and parents are the main pillars – facilitators in this period when pupils require support. The diversity of the environment in a Model and Experimental School certainly requires special management, mainly on the part of teachers who welcome pupils in the First grade of Junior High School. By strengthening self-esteem, self-awareness and self-confidence, pupils are strengthened not only for a certain transitional period, but also as personalities so that they may face with dynamism and effectiveness any similar transitional stage and change in the course of their lives.

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Counseling for the Management of Mourning

Abstract:

This paper refers to the counseling process taking place during mourning. The key consideration is that grief is a normal process, which the person is required to experience in his own way and for a reasonable period of time. However, there are cases where the person experiences grief in a very dysfunctional way and needs specialist help. Particular reference is made to the normal stages of mourning, as presented by Elisabeth Kübler-Ross, the needs mourners profess and to the ways of counseling intervention, with the aim of helping the bereaved person to gradually diminish the tension he experiences and continue living a normal life. Finally, specific techniques are presented through which a person learns to face the new situation and to reshape his behavior, thus, weakening dysfunctional thoughts and habits.

Key-words: Loss, grief/mourning, identity, counseling

**Vlachakis Ilias¹, Kaplani Maria², Micheli Georgia³, Petsa Vasiliki⁴ and
Kougioumtzis Georgios⁵**

¹ Vlachakis Ilias P., Social Anthropologist, M.Sc. Public Policy, M.Ed. Bilingual Special Education, Specialization Program in Counseling and Guidance, Administrative / Sociologist. Email: evlachakis@yahoo.gr

² Kaplani Maria G., Occupational Therapist, Specialization Program in Counselling and Guidance. Email: mariakaplani@gmail.com

³ Micheli Georgia V., Sociologist, Specialization Program in Counselling and Guidance. Email: saragebo@gmail.com

⁴ Petsa Vasiliki P., Graduate Maritime Studies, MBA, Specialization Program in Counselling and Guidance. Email: vvaso90@yahoo.com

⁵ Kougioumtzis Georgios A., Ph.D., M.Ed., Scientific Associate at NKUA & ASPAITE (Specialization Program in Counselling & Guidance). Email: gkougioum@ppp.uoa.gr

1. Introduction

“Mourning is regularly the reaction to the loss of a loved person or to the loss of some abstraction, which has taken the place of one, such as one’s country, liberty, an ideal and so on” (Freud, 2000: 111).

Mourning, although it is far from what we characterize as common and normal behavior, is not considered pathological. Although it shares the same features with depression, such as painful sadness, loss of interest and inhibition of activity, we consider these reactions as an expression of mourning and because we know the cause of this situation, we believe that it will be overcome within a reasonable period and we try to show understanding.

In the process of mourning, during the first stage where we experience a strong emotional load and we deny the actual loss, the person can often be led to avoiding reality, thus manifesting an obsession with this loss. If, however, intense ambivalence is manifested during the period of mourning, the situation assumes a pathological dimension, which is expressed in self-blame and experiencing a feeling of worthlessness (Freud, 2000: 111-112). Thus, counseling can help the person to express and process emotions, with the aim of restoring personal balance, peace of mind and smooth continuation of life.

2. Typical stages of mourning

Psychiatrist Elisabeth Kübler-Ross, in her book *On Death and Dying* in 1969, described a theory which includes five stages which man has to go through, in order to accept loss of death:

- Denial: It functions as a form of defense, so that the person be temporarily protected from the intense and sudden awareness of the impact of the loss.
- Anger: It is addressed to the person itself or to the person who died, to God or anyone considered responsible for this situation.
- Negotiation: Feelings of guilt and alternative scenarios for what the person could have done to save the person who passed away.
- Depression: As the person realizes the loss, the emotional frustration becomes stronger and his mood is bad. The person focuses on fewer and fewer things, because of mourning so as to be able to handle this new reality he experiences more easily.
- Acceptance: Thoughts, symptoms and feelings of hopelessness are gradually becoming less overwhelming, so the person begins to accept the loss and to adjust to the new reality (Culkin & Perrotto, 2005: 258).

This model's core idea is the emotional transition of patients who were aware of their impending death. The first psychological stage begins with denial, followed by anger manifestation, then negotiation and depression appear, and ultimately the eventual acceptance. This theory of Kübler-Ross was generalized and prevailed as a model to process mourning of survivors as well.

In particular, it goes without saying that many people who experience loss do not react to it in the sequence of the five steps described above. Instead, their emotional responses that occur due to the loss vary in shape, sequence and duration from person to person (Neimeyer, 2006: 116-117; Papadatos & Anagnostopoulos, 2012: 137-142).

3. Dominant needs of mourners

3.1 The concept of loss

In everyday practice, people face challenges / events to which they need to react. The course of life of each person includes achieving goals, forming relationships, acquiring material things, while at the same time attempting to maintain and handle all those things he considers valuable and through which he has acquired depth and meaning. On the other hand, people's life is characterized by insignificant or significant losses, which they have no choice of. These losses may involve deprivation (e.g. of a loved one), failure (e.g. failure to gain something important for us or job loss), deprivation of an important quality (e.g. vision), destruction (e.g. total losses after a war or earthquake). The main reactions to loss are psychological, physical, social, emotional and spiritual. Specifically, the manifested mourning is the person trying to adapt to different types of loss. It must be stressed that very significant losses transform the person irrevocably (Neimeyer, 2006: 15-16; Bucay, 2010: 96).

3.2 The challenges of mourning

Each person who is confronted with mourning will react differently, depending on his emotional reserves and the particular form of loss. Immediately, however, during the first moments of grief, the grieving person needs to understand that he is not merely grieving as an individual, but as a member of a larger family system, which is affected by this loss. This is intended to make him identify the loss. The bereaved are experiencing a deep loneliness; social exclusion can lead the person who mourns in isolation, thus, complicating his subsequent adaptation (Neimeyer, 2006: 67-68; Bacque, 2001: 55).

It has been stated that a significant loss experience transforms the person forever. The person is not only deprived of the presence of a loved one, but also his system of values and

beliefs, through which he interpreted life philosophically up to now, is shaken. In this case, this subversion of beliefs induces lasting effects on his character and behavior and on the commitments of the individual as well as on his current values. Therefore, even after his realising of the very reality of death, the person is required to put a lot of time and effort, so as to modify all his beliefs in relation to his life. So, the person who manages to master and overcome his anger is ready to begin the mourning process. Through mourning, the individual processes what has happened, repositions himself to the new situation and rediscovers himself (Neimeyer, 2006: 70; Bucay, 2010: 154; Bacque, 2001: 38).

3.3 Redefinition of the relationship of the survivor with the deceased

Older models associated with the management of mourning direct the person who mourns in forming new relationships, so as to disengage himself emotionally from his relationship with the deceased. This approach involves the belief that people who are experiencing grief need to look ahead and continue their life without being trapped in the past. In contrast, modern studies about mourning result in a different perspective. A significant percentage of mourners feel the presence of their beloved person, even after his death. These recent findings demonstrate that the loss of persons due to death does not actually terminate their connection, but reforms it into something different. The physical presence of the person in the relationship ceases to exist and it assumes a symbolic form. This new perspective gives the survivors a sense of continuity of an important relationship of the past that was interrupted by death, while they are trying to discover a future with meaning (Neimeyer, 2006: 72-73).

3.4 Reconstruction of personal identity and revision of beliefs

Tom Attig describes the concept of identity more as a predominantly social phenomenon than a personal one. It is identity which connects the individual with all those people that he invests his love and concern, as well as with activities and places. In this case, a loss abruptly cuts each link with what determines the individual's identity. Thus, the person enters a difficult process to gradually restore these links by creating ways to connect not only with what was lost, but also with the new reality (Neimeyer, 2006: 74-75).

Accordingly, denial of the loss is a self-defense reaction not only against the unbearable pain, but also against the experience of mental suffering (Bucay, 2010: 90-91). Loss teaches the individual to set new priorities as to what he considers important to address and what not to. His inner-self adopts a new vision and some elements of his personality shrink, while others expand. However, adaptation, survival and maturation are feasible

through this gradual review of the philosophy, whereby he perceives his life, with a simultaneous investigation of his identity, in the context of this new data (Neimeyer, 2006: 74-75).

4. Methods of intervention in mourning counseling

4.1 Reforming conditions

Scientific research shows that the duration of grief may last for months, causing severe disturbances in the functionality of the individual who experiences the loss. The negative effects of loss often lead the person to chronic grief, so that even his life may be threatened. When a person exhibits symptoms of pathological mourning for more than six months, that is, he is unable to calm down mentally and manage everyday life he may be in need of medical help (Bucay, 2010: 158-160).

In earlier times, human suffering because of loss and mourning found a way out through a collective process. Mostly, the family itself assumed a supporting role, as well as informal networks within the framework of their customs and traditions. However, the gradual change of social structures marks the beginning of a change from this collective response to human suffering into an individual and professional management. The individual assumes the responsibility to understand his new psychological situation after a loss in cooperation with a specialist. Thus, he faces the experiences he has through cognitive processes and emotional and intellectual reform. However, mental health professionals should not take the place of the family and social bonds (Dritsas, 2008: 2; Bacque, 2001: 29-30).

4.2 The main aims of mourning counseling

The main aims of mourning counseling are summarized as follows (Worden, 2008: 84-86):

- To support mourners in order for them to understand their new reality after the loss, so that they express the emotions experienced after it.
- To enable mourners and their family environment negotiate all those things involved in the loss on a daily basis.
- To support the family in mourning to say their goodbyes to the patient in an appropriate manner, when conditions allow it, and to reform their behavior.

The scientific community has an impressive number of mourning counseling approaches for the support of mourners and ways to find meaning and solve problems caused by loss and mourning. Both volunteers with specialized training, who are supervised by

professionals and skilled professionals such as psychiatrists, psychologists, mental health counselors, social workers and nurses, can provide palliative services in individual and group context (Dritsas, 2008: 5-6).

4.3 Support steps for mourning management

Indicatively, the help that a person experiencing loss and mourning will receive is through four steps:

- i. When we refer to the deceased, as consultants we use the past tense. Initially, our efforts are focused on establishing whether the person denies the fact of the loved one's death. For example, reminders of the deceased may be comforting to some degree, but only from the standpoint of maintaining a connection with him –meaning that his vision or his work continues. Otherwise, it may mean that the person is unable to recognize the necessary changes in himself and his life after the loss, as if any development of himself has stopped from that incident onwards. In the case of the latter, and if the mourner still keeps personal belongings of the deceased, it is evident that he denies the loss and hinders the process of mourning. The therapist, by using open-ended questions, such as what this act of keeping the deceased's belongings means to him, helps him realize the loss and gradually let go of them. Also, the bereaved person needs to be encouraged to form diverse and symbolic links to the deceased and not have an abrupt separation from the deceased imposed on him (Neimeyer, 2006: 215-216).
- ii. The second step in which the person is possessed by guilt and anger about the loss of the person loved, the therapist encourages him to let himself free, so that he can express his feelings and release his thoughts and behavior. Also, it is necessary that the mourner should understand that it takes time to overcome these intense emotions he feels and instead of feeling pressured to overcome the loss quickly, it is preferable to let himself free to express his grief. At this point, the therapist may ask the person who mourns to write a letter to his loved one. By writing such a letter, the survivor expresses any bitterness and emotions that he has internalized and which cannot be shared with others. In combination with this technique of a letter, the Gestalt technique is also recommended, where the treated person alternately plays the role of himself and his beloved one who passed away, so that he can go on with the dialogue that ended because of his death (Neimeyer, 2006: 181-183).
- iii. The person in mourning may get help by finding a new position in his life for the person who died. Thus, he finds a new way to remember the deceased while he is able to continue

his life. The consultant needs to take into account all the personal and social structures, which make up the texture of the loss for each individual. The bereaved person is helped to form a new firm conviction, which will play an active role in managing his adaptation after mourning, in order for him to reconstruct his system of beliefs, seeking an alternative lifestyle. At the same time, when he feels ready, he is encouraged to form new relationships, in order to compensate for the inconvenience brought about by the loss in his life patterns, work roles and relationships (Neimeyer, 2006: 75 & 246-247).

iv. Finally, during the fourth step, the person in mourning will get help by following practical changes in his roles and everyday life, as well as in his own image and his idea of the world. The therapist helps the treated person restate his beliefs and then challenge them. This modification of beliefs should not be by imposition, but with, the cooperation of the consultee, in order for him to adopt a less rigid belief. This is done with the guidance of the therapist and the use of the Socratic Method (a rational, constructive approach by asking questions, aiming to have the consultee realize whether his beliefs are valid or not in daily practice).

By restating any rigid beliefs, the person who mourns mentally practices a series of more logical and functional beliefs. He realizes that his beliefs are not something strictly true, but ideas that he can evaluate and modify (Beck, 2004: 205-207).

4.3.1 Mourning management techniques

4.3.1.1 Cognitive rehearsal technique

This technique is aimed at modifying beliefs, so as the corresponding changes in behavior are made. With the change in behavior, a belief becomes weaker, thus favoring the continuation of a new behavior, which scales the weakening of this belief. By using this technique the treated person is encouraged to think as if he is functional in some activity of daily life (Beck, 2004: 221-222).

4.3.1.2 Downward arrow technique

We identify an automatic key-thought through which a dysfunctional belief is expressed. The consultant, on the assumption that it is correct, seeks to capture the perception of the patient, i.e. the way in which he specifically interprets external stimuli, and to control the consequences of it. This technique uses the question “what does it mean to you?” in order for the patient to express the emotions that overwhelm him in words (Beck, 2004: 198-200).

4.3.1.3 Stopping obsessive thinking, attention shifting

By using this technique the bereaved person may acquire another tool in the direction of weakening the discomfort he experiences. He learns to immediately evaluate spontaneous negative thoughts and to change the way he thinks. He starts focusing not on the thought that “just passed through his mind”, but on the activity he is involved in at that specific moment or on the conversation that he is probably having with another person (Beck, 2004: 278).

4.3.1.4 Relaxation techniques

During a session, the consultee can practice relaxation exercises (e.g. diaphragmatic breathing, neuromuscular relaxation), so as to assess their effects, that is, whether they help him to reduce the stress and tension experienced (Beck, 2004: 279).

5. Conclusion

A professional consultant should develop a collaborative and supportive relationship with every person facing an issue and address him-especially, when it comes to providing assistance to a person who is experiencing the loss of a loved one who died. As people mourn in different ways, it is expected for them to go through the traditional stages of grief in deferred sequence. At the same time, the family ought to support the member grieving and to facilitate him during this necessary mourning stage. The mourning process may prove rough, but it is a process necessary for the mental and philosophical development of the individual (Neimeyer, 2006: 66 & 83; Bacque, 2001: 30).

In particular, the consultant should develop a cooperative relationship and show his due respect to the consultee, as he has previously “listened to himself” and has understood how he interprets and manages his own losses. Therefore, the consultant is required to work with his own beliefs and prejudices, in order to provide substantial assistance to the consultee. Thus, he will be able -with empathy and respect- to support the person who mourns, so that this person may be able to better understand and effectively assimilate the experience of loss (Humphrey, 2009).

In summary, the mourning person, throughout the counseling process, becomes aware of himself and learns slowly through the grieving process how to relearn “the world”, in the way it was modeled after the loss. At the same time, he gradually realizes that the loss of the beloved person affects other individuals of the family and his social environment. That means that he should not underestimate the pain and grief of others, but to understand that others are

also trying to understand the meaning of this common loss in their own way (Neimeyer, 2006: 66, 83 & 163-164).

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Abstract:

This article examines the role of individuals' self-esteem in the workplace. Implications of self-esteem for individuals' work behavior and attitudes and real aspects and consequences of self-esteem that matter in today's society and labour market. Over the years, people confront challenges of success and failure. The general framework of self-esteem will be evolved but it will be hardly changed from now on. Mistakes and failures are inevitable in the course of any career. What is decisive for future is not the defeat but the state of mind with which can greet it.

A modern business can no longer be run by a few people who think and a horde of autonomous drones. Nowadays, organizations need their employees to have an unprecedented level of independence, self-reliance, self-trust and the capacity to exercise initiative— in brief, the employees must have ample self-esteem. A healthy level of self-esteem can positively impact all aspects of our lives, including our career. The more solid our self-esteem, the more likely we are to cope with challenges, overcome obstacles, and persevere no matter how many times we've failed. The common denominator among most of them: a healthy level of self-esteem and, by extension, a capacity to rebound from failure.

Keywords: self-esteem, workplace, labour market, work

Peroulaki Eleftheria¹

1. Introduction

¹ Corresponding Address: Peroulaki Eleftheria. Email: el.peroulaki@gmail.com

Self-esteem is the result of several different factors, which starts from childhood to adulthood. Someone may be decisively influenced by life events positively or negatively with an impact in the development of self-esteem. Self-esteem is similar to self-worth, the way someone values himself/herself. According to self-esteem, someone knows the overall subjective emotional evaluation of his/her own character. It is about a judgment of oneself as well as an attitude towards their self. Self-esteem includes beliefs about oneself, emotional states, such as triumph, despair, pride or shame. The self-concept is defined as a schema that contains semantic memories about the self. That has the ability to control the processing of self-relevant information. Self-esteem refers on how people feel about themselves. That feeling is pattern and there are no changes (Kernberg, 1975).

2. Self-esteem and work

Self-esteem has been conceptualized as an outcome, motive, and buffer is an outcome of, and necessary ingredient in, the self-verification process that occurs within groups, maintaining both the individual and the group. Verification of role identities increases an individual's worth-based and efficacy-based self-esteem. The self-esteem built up by self-verification buffers the negative emotions that occur when self-verification is problematic, thus allowing continued interaction and continuity in structural arrangements during periods of disruption and change. Last, a desire for self-esteem, produced in part through self verification, stabilizes the group because it motivates individuals to form and maintain relationships that verify identities (Burke P., 2002).

According to Rosenberg (1979), if someone respects himself/herself in in some moments of life, he has respect for himself generally. For example, someone thinks that he is attractive, intelligent, moral, furthermore, he has a positive opinion about himself.

There are differences among people about self-esteem and that is due to different self assessments in society. People with high self-esteem demonstrate insistence after a failure, while on the other hand people with low self-esteem blazon on withdrawal. The difference between these two is not based on their self-image but on their experience and knowledge of success. Self-perception is responsible for gathering and assimilation of information that concerns self. It is about the cognitive dimension, while self-esteem is a kind of emotional appraisal. Main role in someone's self perception is family, school, and friends and work later (Higgins, 1989).

Early of 20th century according to William James, the sense of our worth is a proportion between what we believe we are and what we really do. It is a fraction, which numerator is our artificial actions and denominator is our succeed (James, 1983/1890). Also, our intelligence, decisively influences the way we think with renamed when facing the need to resolve a problem. this paragraph, includes tackle and making strategic decisions (Fontana, 1996).

At a very young age someone reacts according to subjection to rules, learning and having archetypes within the family. The parent's approvals, even deselections have pivotal role to future self-esteem. They give incentives to their children, activating their abilities. Through the impersonation of

archetypes they portray roles from the family environment. Later, in school, children communicate with coevals, where new factors interact, delimitating the self-esteem. At this stage of life, children have to discover, exploit their real skills and manage impulses.

There is an effort to be accepted by others and create personal relations. Especially in adolescence, feelings of shame, incapacity or self-blame, can counteract to the formation of self-esteem. Someone attempts various social identities until he/she finds one to fit in (Coopersmith, 1967).

A child unfurls self-knowledge by the reaction of social environment and the significant people for him/her (important others). Growing up, there is the reaction with other people beside the family environment, peers and teachers (Weare & Gray, 2000). Contacts with their peers and handling interpersonal relationships are a basis for developing flexible social behaviour and moral judgment autonomy (Goehlich, 2003).

In a very competitive environment, such as school, fosters persons having high self-esteem and is unfair to the rest ones. When the educational system is not competitive, weak students' self-esteem is improved, without other students to be obstructed. Success is not overemphasised and failure is not stigmatized either. Low self-esteem students do not feel threat (Andre & Lelord, 2004).

Teachers with low self-esteem, face difficulties in making friendly relationships with children, because they are afraid of their professional image. In addition to this they damage children's self-esteem, as a result students feel discouraged and are depended on adults (Simou & Papanis, 2007).

The educational and social environment have a significant role. Parents encourage boys from early age to fight for their rights and express their will. Timidity, is more justified on girls because they learn obedience, subordination, the importance of being beautiful, which does not help the development of their self-esteem. Girls' self-esteem reflects the social conditions they grew up. Nowadays this becomes a major upheaval in relations between men and women. The feminist movement, the entry of women into the labor market, have reduced the distance between men and women in terms of self-esteem. Another factor is the gender. In boys, the self-esteem is higher than girls. Stereotypical expectations of society for both sex, makes the boys feel more confident of themselves (Feldman, 2010).

Over the years, people confront challenges of success and failure. The general framework of self-esteem will be evolved but it will be hardly changed from now on. Nowadays, there is a pressing need to fill our society with virtues traditionally associated with femininity, such as sensitivity, compassion. The issue is that women occupy a similar position to men in society and gain equal rights, not transformed into male clones (Fontana, 1996). The sense of self-esteem can be conscious in adulthood. An adult experiences some situations and he/she is able to take the responsibility. There is the ability through behaviour to control and evolve his self-esteem.

According to Epstein, experiences that are interdependent to self-esteem differ depending on gender. For example, women have more experiences of acceptance or rejection and men, have more experiences of success or failure (Block & Robins, 1993).

The problem of ego, the phenomenon of contradiction comes that we take deductions that occur in our lives too rigidly and by a complex situation led to another (Freud, 2002).

Low self-esteem, reflects someone's experiences as a child, such as the absence of care, encouragement, love, acceptance, criticism, cynicism, ridicule, physical or mental abuse, the shortage of recognition or praise, the depleted sense of significance, the sense of uniqueness (Hondrou, 2010). People with low self-esteem dally answer to someone about themselves, often they feel annoyed, and when they do, they are not convincing or fail into contradictions. The interlocutor cannot make a comprehensive picture (Baumgardner, 1990).

Adults with low self-esteem think that they have to face permanent setbacks, intolerable conditions, and a sense of pessimism prevails. On the other hand, healthy self-esteem adults tend to interacting with others. They are comfortable in social settings and activities as well as independent pursuits. When challenges arise, they can work toward finding solutions and voice discontent without belittling themselves or others. They know their strength, their weaknesses, and accept them and sense of optimism prevails. Having low confidence is something that has affected almost everyone at some point in their lives. Once it has been dented it can be difficult to get back and sadly, it has a huge impact on personal and professional lives (Blaine & Crocker, 1993).

Culture, is also an affecting factor to self-esteem. A conservative environment for example, might impinge on negatively to the confrontation of nowadays difficulties. Until recently, society used to promote steadfast social roles. The responsibility of men for vocational rehabilitation and financial backing of family and on the other hand, women have the obligation of being good mothers and raise properly their children. The sense of controlling actions and knowledge of consequences, sense of ability and morality, are factors that influence self-esteem (Standford & Donovan, 1984). Ironically, men are better off when it comes to self-esteem on the job, not because they do not have doubts about themselves but because low confidence manifests differently for women than it does to men. Men are better at masking it.

According to Freud, when we feel that we do not want sex, are self-esteem is reduced and this pleases us up. In all phases of our erotic life of a crush to a lasting relationship, there is no effect on our self-esteem. This is a two-way influence. As influenced by the erotic experience, so it affects our behaviour and our choices (Freud, 1952).

Contrary, people with high self-esteem do not pursue to know negative opinion of others. They focus on their positive elements and they do not burden themselves with negative feelings. They seem to trust those who express good words to them (Shrauger, 1975). In this case, low self-esteem persons react by judge them persistently. The importance of self esteem has found particular benefits associated with high employee self esteem. Employees who have a high level of self-esteem will trust their thinking and judgement and are therefore likely to make better decisions. Having these qualities also enables us to create more effective interpersonal and work relationships which means that we can more effectively contribute to the work environment around us. As leaders, high levels of self esteem

mean we are able to focus more positively on other people and their development, rather than spend time berating our own performance (Shauger & Rosenberg, 1970). High self-esteem people insist trying even when they fail or don't consider other advices (McFarlin, Baumeister, Blascovich, 1984). People with high self-esteem accept recognition of their success, but refuse to accept the consequences and responsibility of general failures, seeking more social recognition. In contrast, people with low self-esteem more easily accept criticism (Arkin, 1981).

Maslow, in his article "A theory of human motivation", empathizes that self-esteem is a very special need that redounds a person to recognize himself/herself and reach self-realization. That, will happen if someone feels recognition, attention, self-respect and has social power. Namely, the feeling of completion (Mead, 2008 & www.envisionsoftware.com).

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943), people are motivated to achieve certain needs. When one need s fulfilled, someone seeks to fulfil the next need and so on. There are five motivational needs, depicted as hierarchical levels within a pyramid:

- (1). Biological and physiological needs, such as food, drink, sleep, shelter, sex warmth.
- (2). Safety needs – protection from elements, security, stability, law, order and freedom from fear.
- (3). Love and belongingness needs, like friendship, intimacy, affection and love, family needs, romantic relationships.
- (4). Esteem needs could be achievement, mastery, independence, status, prestige, self-respect, respect from others, dominance.
- (5). Self-actualization needs, such as self-fulfilment, realizing personal potential, seeking personal growth and peak experiences. Maslow noted only one in a hundred people become fully self-actualized because our rewards, motivation primarily based on esteem, love and other social needs (Kosmopoulos, 2006).

Although self-esteem is one of the main characteristics of someone's personality, it still remains a complex meaning that depends on three parameters. Firstly, the love we show to ourselves, the recognition of self's worth, which is rely on no reason. Regardless of defects and limitations. Secondly, the image of ourselves. How we see and evaluate our virtues and defects in accordance with our convictions as it is hard to be ascertained. When our self-image is positive, we feel an internal power and patience to face unpropitious situations. The image of self is configured to family's environment and represent parents' dreams and expectations. In fact, they are aspirations they didn't manage. Finally, the trust to ourselves, that we hardly perceive, is about how we believe that we are able to act in an appropriate way. We usually believe that acting in a difficult condition it depends from many factors but the trust to ourselves is a minor reason. In some cases, someone is possible to think that shows trust to himself/herself but when a difficult situation shows up, his/her self-esteem is being destroyed (Cyrulnik, 1993).

Many researches have shown that when self-esteem is sufficient in a specific sector, must be the same in others, too. Contrarily, when it is not sufficient, it influences negatively the whole feeling of satisfaction for what we are. Self-esteem is equivalent to the overall impact we have about self. What 'feeds' one's self-esteem is the feeling that is being loved by others and that he/she is able to manage aspirations. In fear of overacting, someone feels that in case of promotion his/her capabilities other people may think of a great egocentric self- concept and on the other hand, promoting disadvantages, they may consider of a weak person. In both cases it does not mean that someone is not fully appreciated by himself/herself.

Nevertheless, there are people feeling insignificant, thinking that others know more and spend time observing and emulating them instead of searching own solutions. People with low self- esteem are extremely afraid of other's' judgment. They avoid or do not take decisions and do what people from family environment indicate. They digest pessimistic emotions, so failure has seriously impinging to their psychology (Metalsky,1993).

According to social approaches of self-esteem, the Ego of a individual is shaped through social experiences and interactions. Self- perception is the result of social position or acceptance of the social environment. Self-steem is a result of social achievements (Rogers, 1959).

We all know that having good self-esteem is a key part of happiness. If we do not believe in ourselves we will never achieve our goals or feel grateful for the things we have. There is plenty of information regarding that matter in relationships, friendships and in the workplace. There are many ways self-esteem gets battered at work. The place of work demand is so fast that no one stops to acknowledge even in excellent performances. The demand for productivity has grown impressively significantly that no one feels they are doing enough. Everyone looks at the unfinished workload and feels inadequate. We work an unprecedented number of hours. That encroaches on our downtime and deprives us of the most restorative of experiences (Andre & Lelord, 2004).

Many people feel uncomfortable when they are going to express their real feelings, claim for their rights, and compete against. Even if their rights are entrenched, they remain silent, they do not collide with others because of their fear of exposition. Trying to protect their ego, there's internalised energy that is going to be exploded (Papanis, 2013).

Self-esteem, is a stable lineament of personality. In the work place, people with low self-esteem, are affected more from the environment of work, where are people with high self-esteem (Brockner, 1983). In case there are stressor factors in work place, low self-esteem persons use passive mechanisms to face work stress and they are more affected by the interface. High self-esteem people use more active workarounds (Kinicky & Latack,1990).

A relative review has shown that employees of fire service with low self-esteem are mentioned more often than high self-esteem colleagues, based on role confusion and physical discomfort (Ganster & Scaybrocker, (1990). Work self-esteem can be considered like a subcategory of self-esteem that depends of the self assessment of efficiency. Work self-esteem effects between anxiogenic approval

roles and from work place and overseers' solidarity. These variables have catalytic act to work efficiency (Pierce, Gardner and others, 1989).

Another research has shown that people who believe on the external locus of control, such as society, religion, especially in Greece, have regularly low self-esteem. Although, they have strong mechanisms of defence .In this case, they attribute their success to themselves, an internal locus of control. They have high self-esteem when they are successful in social and work life. In the same way, they show low self-esteem when they fail (Papanis, 2011). Stable self-esteem gives someone strength and power, preventing him/her of thinking the worth of self. Nevertheless, when self-esteem is unstable, someone feels that any adversity is a kind of personal threat, the image of self is in danger and that makes someone really susceptible (Cambell & Fehr, 1990).

The concept of self-esteem has been around since about the 1940s and has been contested for almost nighty years. But whether or not our culture is responsible for ever-increasing self-worth issues, the fact remains that people with higher self-esteem gain better work experiences compared to their less confident counterparts. According to studies, high self-esteem people in work, when they are have been wade in, they have three times more possible memory from everyone else when they are about to itemize mistakes of others (Blaine & Crocker 1993).

Low self-esteem people, feel afraid and do not dare to do something, when they know they are going to be judged. However, when their decisions are not going to be judged or criticized, these two groups of employees do not have many differences between them (Josephs, 1992).

Anxiety, is a situation in work where that a person is called to deal with, when a difficult condition has come up. Whenever someone has to confront a big modification, the certainty someone has, may be reeled. The behaviour differs from those that have low self esteem to high (Andre, Lelord, Legeron,1998).

High self-esteem people believe that they can manage to control an awkward situation that their effort can cause the desired result, in contrast with low self-esteem people who believe mostly in luck (Burger,1995). Stress is a reaction to an emergency situation. Prevents that from trying to avoid the situation or be exempt from it (Freud, 2002).

The biggest challenge to inspiring and maintaining high levels of selfesteem among employees is the ability of an organization to create a sense of employee self-responsibility. In other words, employees must feel a sense of personal control over their work and their activities within the work environment. Employees who understand who they are, what they like to do and what their skills are enjoy a much higher level of personal self-esteem. Those people like to listen to advices in order to improve themselves. Low self-esteem may have a few positive characteristics too. Someone earns acceptance thanks to his/her modesty, listens to different aspects and finally makes an overall view (Brockner, 1983).

The need for positive self-esteem in the workplace is growing in importance. There is now a knowledge economy and this puts increasing demands on individuals at every level of an organization.

Employees should engage in self-management, personal responsibility and a high level of personal self-awareness, to be effective at interpersonal relationships and to work in flexible teams. In addition, employees are no longer expected to simply do what they are told. Instead, employees must use ingenuity to meet the challenges of our global and competitive world. Every employee must be taught to stand up for himself or herself and to defend their own ideas while at the same time, learning to implement self-assertiveness effectively and appropriately. This is a big responsibility and one that requires employees to make good choices, examine alternatives and engage in self-discipline. There though a possibility in a workplace, someone with low self-esteem to has acceptance, estimation and support from other colleagues, when there is not a competitive place where dominates the strongest (Branden, 1994).

Regarding work, research have shown that women are not so favoured as men. Women usually sacrifice more than men, especially in cases such us family existence (Beach & Tesser, 1990). Having children is a revivify to parents, but this is not absolute. It does not improve the self-esteem, however, our level of self- esteem defines how many children we are going to raise (Oates, 1997). Today's organizations and those of the future operate on thinking power, the intelligence and ingenuity of employees who can turn ideas into new discoveries, new products or new services. To nurture this creativity and innovation, organizations must also ensure they nurture employee self-esteem. Focusing on personal control is easily developed if there is a focus on goal setting at all levels of the organization. These goals must be, specific, measurable, agreed to, realistic and time based. Goals and realistic expectations allow employees to determine all of the what, where, when and how of their work and to feel a sense of accomplishment when success is achieved.

Work has become the main social status factor. People are not as tolerant so instead of that they protest. Consequently, we talk about a phenomenon called moral coercion. The various ways of coercion in the workplace aimed at restricting the self-esteem of the worker that is seeking to compel him allegiance or resign. The most common strategy is more indirect, but devastating to self-esteem, regardless of the quality of his work. Such a method is the isolation. Insulate the employee from the rest, do not entrust to him any responsibility. There is no controversy, furthermore, they try to shake him/her emotionally.

Consoling, aims to help the individual to acquire self- esteem, be responsible in society and betake to self-fulfilment. There are several theoretical approaches that may help someone gain self-esteem (Ivey, Gluckshen &Ivey, 1996).

3. Concluding Remarks

Focusing on personal control is easily developed if there is a focus on goal setting at all levels of the organization. These goals must be, specific, measurable, agreed to, realistic and time based. Goals and realistic expectations allow employees to determine what, where, when and how of their work and to feel a sense of accomplishment when success is achieved. A modern business can no longer be run by

a few people who think and a horde of autonomous drones. Today, organizations need their employees to have an unprecedented level of independence, self-reliance, self-trust and the capacity to exercise initiative. In brief, the employees must have ample self-esteem.

Unemployment contributes significantly to the confidence of a person, after following a series of losses as social status, salary, social contacts, which have a direct impact on human mental balance. There is intense feeling of degradation that they do not worth. Some avoid to admit that because they feel ashamed. In a situation such as this, someone cares what other people think about him/her. There is an uncertainty in the future for someone unemployed and obliges him to do an internal review. Unemployment catalytic, revealing all the weaknesses of our character. The overall psychological state determines the consequences of unemployment (Burger, 1995).

Of course, main role have other factors too, such as how long lasting unemployment is or if it is repeated. The self-esteem of someone is affected and this makes it difficult for most people to find a job. Low confidence does not allow him to make great effort to find work. Those who remain unemployed for a long time, not because of their ability to work, but in their ability to search for it. Those who have the responsibility to re-integrate the unemployed into new jobs, must help the unemployed to acquire the lost self-esteem again. The feeling of inferiority and degradation experienced by the unemployed, does not disappear to just find a new job (Winegar, 1990).

Self-esteem is helped by a group of people. The level of self-esteem is linked to the acceptance of others. People with low self-esteem prefer to participate in groups. The way it is possible to cope with a possible failure effectively (Shrauger & Lund, 1975). The prevailing social situation can and should be changed through the action to be taken by the next generation (Goehlich, 2003).

August Comte argues that the most important effects of human society is the formative influence of each generation to the next. An important role has the distinction of social interactions or combinations that exist in all societies and special cultural and educational transfers vary from one society to another by a special environment to another. (Piaget, 1981).

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**“I love her. Why do I feel like a monster?”
Lesbians’ experience in Greek Educational System**

Abstract:

Sexuality and its modes of expression determine each human being's life. A form of sexuality is homosexuality. Controversial to male, female homosexuality - through centuries - is covered by obscurity and silence. This happens in all areas of everyday life (work, education, health). Working for the preparation of our postgraduate thesis, a qualitative research has been conducted, using interviews as main means of collecting information. The research purpose was to investigate the way lesbians live their everyday life and social exclusion they suffer in 21st century Greece. In the paper are being presented the results of the survey concerning the educational area. Specifically, the presentation is focusing on the way a lesbian is experiencing her sexuality within educational area in Greece, and the impact of these experiences in her later life.

Keywords: female homosexuality, education, lesbian, social exclusion

Zacharenia Karathanasi¹

1. Introduction

Each human being's life is being determined by his/her sexuality and modes of expression. Homosexuality nowadays is another form of sexual identity and has been legitimized as

¹ Zacharenia Karathanasi, Kindergarten Teacher in Preschool Special Education / Msc in Gender Studies (Rhodes – Aegean University), Douka 8-10 / Chalkida – Evia – Greece. Email: zkarathanasi@gmail.com

such. Contextually, the word “homosexuality” leads most people’s mind to male homosexuality. The “different” sexuality of homosexual women is covered by obscurity and silence. This happens in all areas of everyday life (work, education, health). Working for the preparation of our postgraduate thesis, a qualitative research has been conducted, using interviews as main means of collecting information.

The research purpose was to investigate the way lesbians live their everyday life and social exclusion they suffer in 21st century Greece. The survey took place in Athens and Thessaloniki, during May and June 2011. The sample involved 11 women with same-sex sexual orientation, aged 26-53 years old, residents of Athens and Thessaloniki. Here are being presented the results of the survey concerning the educational area. Specifically, the presentation is focusing on the way a lesbian is experiencing her sexuality within educational area in Greece, and the impact of these experiences in her later life. The whole thesis has been published as a book chapter in «Modern Sexualities in Contemporary Greece and Cyprus» Eds., C Phellas, M. Kapsou & E Epaminondas, Publishers: Colourful Planet, Greece (in Greek language).

2. Homosexuality: a universal history

Many people believe that word “homosexuality” refers only to “gay men and sex”. Normally, homosexuality is in a close relation with sex, but not exclusively with it. And of course we can’t disregard lesbians. “Each of us has the right to love, to be sexually attracted, regardless to which of two sexes he/she prefers. When talking about love, we are not referring only to sex and passion, but tenderness, companionship and affection as well. In fact, there is definitely no difference between heterosexuality and homosexuality in this point” (Giannelos, 2004).

Homosexuality is as old as human existence. First records were made through written sources, according to overall record of cultures, in texts and through artistic expression in the form of artistic illustration (Aldrich, 2010).

3. Lesbian History

"Between the time of Sappho and the birth of Natalie Clifford Barney (between ca 613 bc and 1876 ad) lies a 'lesbian silence' of twenty-four centuries" (Bertha Harris in *Our Right to Love*, 1978) (<http://www.sapphogr.net/istoria/lesbian.html>, 2010).

It's remarkably little that history recalls for women in general when going back in time. It is even more so for the ones who "dared" resist the "musts" of their era and publicly declare their love for other women. The result of this "invisibility" and absence of references-or existence of so few-on the subject of female homosexuality (lesbianism) is the inability to identify when lesbian history starts. Lesbian history is often presented as an appendix of male homosexual history. According to Norton Rictor (2003) «Such a matter carries the risk of an error, due to the fact that, although both lesbians and gay men share many social and cultural values, on the other hand their personal stories are completely dissimilar and incompatible. The study of lesbian historiography requires the use of a concept of sexuality much broader than the narrow meaning of genetic sexuality". "In general, the portrait of a lesbian has to do with an older woman, sly and often experienced, who is trying to "seduce" younger girls. In the 1970s raises the image of the very active, mannish lesbian with short hair. We could argue that these, occasionally disfiguring images of a lesbian, were intended either to frighten women or to defend the traditional female role" (Giannelos, 2004).

In the newer ages, the story of love between women speaks about women who dress manly and get married to other women, about women who create romantic relationships with other women, about secret dating, about perverted women, about bulldaggers, about butches and fems. What the story of lesbianism itself teaches us is that over the years sexuality was perceived and experienced with many different ways (Rupp, 2010).

In the 1920s – 1930s, according to Susan Gubar (1984), the terms "lesbianism" and "sapphism" started to be used for different reasons, other than those for interpreting the expression of female homosexual desire. They were mainly identified with most women's desire to create exclusively female communities within which they could feel completely free to express themselves (Kantsa, 2010).

4. Homophobia – Lesbophobia: the fear of "the different"

"Homophobia is the fear, disgust or discrimination against homosexuality and/or against homosexuals" (Coming Out, 2012). The term comes from the Greek words "omos-like" and "phobia". Similarly, lesbophobia is the intense negativity against lesbians (contempt, hostility, discrimination, prejudice). Lesbians state that they are facing double

discrimination: from the one side as a result of the classical homophobia and from the other side discrimination caused by sexism (Ilga, 1990).

The term first appeared in 1969 in American clinical psychologist's George Weinberg's, book "Society and the Healthy Homosexual". Homophobia may include hatred, hostility or disapproval of gay people and generally homosexual behavior. Often it manifests itself in a dangerous manner, such as through verbal violence and attacks, beatings and even murders (homophobic crimes). For individuals who act in such ways we use the definition "homophobic". The term homophobia includes general negative attitudes toward homosexuals (<http://el.wikipedia.org/wiki/%CE%9F%CE%BC%CE%BF%CF%86%CE%BF%CE%B2%CE%AF%CE%B1>, 2010).

A similar interpretation on the issue of homophobia is given by Badinter (1994), who considers that "homophobia actually comes from hidden homosexual desires". Many men feel terrible agony facing an effeminate man, mainly because through this image they vividly see their own female characteristics, such as sensitivity and passivity, which are considered to be a sign of weakness. For these people homophobia is interpreted as a psychological defense mechanism, a strategy to avoid recognizing a part of you that is not accepted. But there is also the opposite side, the one of women who do not fear their femininity, so they do not face the issue of homosexuality in the same way. Homophobia is generally associated with other phobias and especially with the one of gender equality. In many patriarchal societies masculinity is equated to heterosexuality (Badinter, 1994).

Surveys have shown that homophobia can be a result of feelings of social insecurity or a result of an attempt of one's own sexual orientation self-assertion. Mostly, however, the negative attitude to homosexuality is caused by centuries' old history where it is seen as a sin, a crime or disease. The oldest and strongest basis for the rejection of homosexuality is religion, at least in countries dominated by the Judeo-Christian tradition (Hekma, 2010). According to Badinter (1994) "conservative religious ideology is the one that requires strict predefined male or female activities and thus identities". Important factors that exacerbate homophobia are also low educational levels and social status, lack of contact with homosexuals and lack of education.

According to Herek (2000a) hostility toward gays and lesbians began to be investigated by psychologists after the emergence of gay movement in the 1970s. There is evidence that over the years, society becomes more receptive to the issue of homosexuality in general. For example, in the USA, most officials talk about their same-sex sexual orientation more openly (Atkinson, 2003). Research findings show that while the American

people become increasingly supportive regarding the fundamental human rights of the gay community, personal perceptions on the issue of homosexuality reveal a personal discomfort with homosexuality (Herek, 2000b).

The term “Lesbophobia” (or “Lesbiphobia”) includes various forms of negativity against lesbians as individuals, as a couple or as a social group. Based on the categories of sex, gender identity and sexual orientation this negativism includes, not only from the attitude but also from the emotions ranging from contempt to the hostility, prejudice and discrimination.

As such, lesbophobia is a form of sexism against women and has similar manifestations to those of homophobia. Cynthia Petersen, Professor of Law at the University of Ottawa, has defined lesbophobia as also including “the fear that women have of loving other women, as well as the fear that men (including gay men) have of women not loving them”.

5. Homophobia/Lesbophobia in Education

Speaking of homosexuality and lesbianism in educational area, we could focus on the following 3 points: (a) bullying and harassment suffered by girls, boys and teachers with same-sex orientation, (b) the impact of these behavioral patterns and (c) the lack of issues about sexuality in the educational curricula.

European Union has noted that “there are significant elements of discrimination regarding sexual orientation in schools, more important being the homophobic bullying”.

Studies and surveys of National Equality Bodies and LGBT (Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans) NGOs (Non-Governmental Organizations) concerning homophobia and discrimination in education provide data for most of the European countries. These figures show that the manifestations of homophobia are a major problem in this area in almost all European countries.

A study conducted by the Equality Authority of Ireland shows that many LGBT people perceive their homosexuality before the age of fifteen, which automatically means that they are going through puberty and school life having knowledge of their sexual identity and staying potentially vulnerable (The Equality Authority, "Implementing Equality for Lesbians, Gays and Bisexuals", 2002).

Moreover, according to a study by ILGA (International Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex Association) Europe, adolescence is a period in life for every human being, critical for socialization, when “girls learn to be girls and boys learn to be boys”. In

both female and male adolescents with “different” sexual orientation, limits regarding gender expression and behavior are set by their peers, teachers, friends and family members (Takács, 2006).

A research carried out in 2006 by ILGA Europe in 37 European countries, which included the responses given by 754 LGBT students, indicates that 61% of the people interviewed claim that they have had negative experiences during their school life, because of their sexual orientation or the identity of their gender, whereas 53% say that they have been bullied (Takács, 2006).

A research of 2006 carried out including 1.100 LGBT people living in the UK, regarding their experiences in the field of education, has suggested that 65% of the teenagers interviewed have experienced bullying inside British schools, due to their sexual orientation. The various forms of harassment include verbal abuse (92%), physical abuse (41%), harassment through the Internet (41%), life threatening (17%) and sexual abuse (12%) (Hunt & Jensen, 2007).

In Sweden, the research states that teachers do not have the proper training to deal with matters relating to LGBT people within the educational system and only a percentage of 8% say that they have had proper training to deal with something like that.

Studies in the UK show that the bullying LGBT students face leads to social exclusion and psychological stress, especially in people who discover their “sexual specificity” while studying at the lowest levels of education (Atkinson, 2003).

A research carried out in Greece, by Deligianni-Kouimtzi and Rentzi (1997-1998), including students of Greek High schools, states that the school environment is a place for homophobic behavior. According to the researchers, when a teenager is recognized to be an LGBT person, within the school environment, is automatically isolated by his/her peers and is treated with hostility (expression of uneasiness, use of offensive/abusive words, isolation, social distancing, ironic comments, physical and verbal abuse and, quite often, “labeling”) (Deligianni-Kouimtzi & Rentzi, 2004).

An electronic survey conducted by LGBT NGOs in all countries-members of European Union shows that 65% of respondents believe that school curricula “do not take into account” or “are minimally involved” with LGBT issues (non-traditional family forms, relationships, gender roles, sexual orientation). Studies in Belgium also show that there is inadequate information and training related to LGBT issues in both teachers and students (Pelleriaux & Van Ouytsel, 2003).

Regarding the position of lesbian teachers, Yvon Appleby in her article states that “the experiences of lesbian teachers are usually referred within a contradictory public relation: the identity as 'women' has now become visible, while their identity as 'lesbian' continues to remain invisible within the educational environment” (Appleby, 1996). Bullying behaviors and harassments, with regards to sexual identity are also the finding of a survey conducted in 2002 by Irwin to 900 people with same-sex sexual orientation working as teachers or academics (Irwin, 2002).

6. Education versus Homophobia/Lesbophobia

Children tend to perceive their surrounding area as consisting more with people they are different with and less with people who look like them. This trend is almost absolute in children up to 6 years (when they enter school) and less rigid in children aged 10-14 years old. This is a logical consequence to the cognitive development of children. Children initially learn to see the differences and later discover and understand the similarities.

The same thing happens to adults: all people we perceive differences much more easily and we discover the similarities with more difficulty, as our senses capture the contrasting traits better than they do with similar ones. At this point it should be highlighted that adults (parents and teachers) also tend to stress the differences to the children much more than they stress any similarities.

We know that young children lack the concept of stability of some traits and this also refers to physical objects for which they don't have the capacity to realise that they remain unaffected. The knowledge of this is important for understanding how children perceive social categories and the inclusion of people into them. For this reason, the categorisation of a person by children is not stable.

Moreover attitudes towards certain categories of people are not stabilized before the perception of this category is stable. This is especially true across ethnic, religious, racial or other groups of people. Children do not have fixed positions, either positive or negative, before they develop the belief that national, religious, racial identity is a constant feature of human being.

From all of the above we can conclude that the perceptions of children about ethnicities, religions, “tribes” etc. are not the result of their personal experience, but a “ready” categorization, an “encyclopaedic knowledge” derived from their environment. We therefore understand that learning the “appropriate attitudes and behaviour” towards certain categories of people is not the result of children's own related experiences, but is something

that exists even before any meeting with people of a particular category or even before the children have the capacity of identifying specific individuals. It's because of the behaviour of adults that the first negative connotation of the differences is registered in a child's mind (Tsiakalos, 2000).

Many people fear that creating an acceptable environment for gay people in schools, encourages homosexuality. This of course is not supported by relevant research. Information does not cause or encourage homosexual behaviour (Stogiannidou, 2004).

As Papazisi (2004) says "A train needs rails to move, without them it will not move. But even if rails exist, it doesn't necessarily mean that the train will pass, or that we have a good transportation network. In order for what we call "equality" to work, we have to change social perceptions. The legal framework, the rails in this instance, is not enough. The legal framework elsewhere it exists, elsewhere it doesn't. What we need is for the train, our personal beliefs, to be moving, changing first and foremost through education, that will remove all our prejudices (as it happened in other areas e.g. area of freedom). If we do not start from education we will never reach real equality, which is a social concept, not legal" (Papazisi, 2004). Tolerance on homosexuality and the fight against homophobia can be combated only through education on sexual diversity.

Regarding the perception of educators on the subject of homosexuality, there is qualitative research data in primary schools, indicating that teachers generally consider the issue of homosexuality as "abnormal", "a disorder", "disturbance and illness", "a violation of heterosexual normality" and believe that homosexuals need to be treated from their fellow human beings with compassion.

"Having taken into consideration that educational institutions are important cultural spaces, within which meanings and practices related to sexuality and gender are manufactured and reproduced, through curricula, school textbooks and 'hidden curricula', knowledge, but much more so attitudes, of the educators on the issue of homosexuals appears to be crucial, as it is expected to affect the occupation and the way of approaching these issues" (Politis, 2006).

A research of the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Himmelstein & Brückner, 2011), between the years 1994-1995 and 2001-2002, entitled "Criminal justice and school sanctions against homosexual youth", demonstrates that homosexual youth faces punishment in both the educational and the social environment (expulsion from school, criminal prosecution, arrest), due to delinquent behaviour, situations that could be avoided if the school tried to reduce these forms of social inequality.

7. Research

7.1 Our research

Human rights are nowadays main part of the agenda in many discussions. We are convinced that everyone should feel freedom in the expression of sexuality. During our effort to find relevant literature on the topic (in Greek and international bibliography) we realized that there are not enough research studies and articles on the subject of homosexuality, and almost nothing exclusively on female homosexuality (lesbianism). This research is an attempt to give voice and visibility to women that are considered “threat” because of their “different” sexuality.

The purpose of our research was to investigate the matter both in an individual level (how do lesbians experience their daily life) and in a society level (what do lesbians think about society’s readiness to accept lesbianism).

Our main research question was “In Greece of 21st century is there social exclusion in lesbians’ everyday life? How do they experience it?”

We were interested in the way that lesbians experience problems arising from their stigmatized sexuality.

7.2 Research Methodology

We decided to use Qualitative Method in our research for the following reasons:

- Our main purpose was the “interpretation” of lesbians’ everyday life. The qualitative approach to their narratives helped us to emerge specific issues that lesbians are facing, related to their sexuality.
- Our research was intending to produce a comprehensive understanding for the issue of lesbianism, based on reach and detailed data, gathered from the participants. That’s why we decided to use a flexible and open in the course of analysis of these data. As Mason states (2003) “Qualitative Method is based on methods of analysis and explanatory construction. Methods that require the understanding of complexity and detail”.

As the main means of information gathering we used the interview and specifically the semi-structured one because in this way, subject is given initiative, regarding the answers he/she will give and researcher is given the possibility to direct the subject to talk about issues needed to be covered (Vamvoukas, 2002). Additionally, researcher can change-if needed-the order of the questions, always with a view to the in-depth exploration of the subject (Vryonides, 2010a).

Before conducting the interviews we planned an “interview bulletin” with open-ended categorized questions. The choice of questions was based on the existing literature and included:

- Knowledge or information about the issue of homosexuality and lesbianism (sexual identity, definition of terms, self-determination, coming out)
- Values and preferences (lesbian daily routine, homophobia-lesbophobia, discrimination, violence, social exclusion)
- Attitudes, opinions and beliefs (marriage-cohabitation, *education area*, thoughts about the future)

Place of Venue: Athens and Thessaloniki

Time of Venue: May and June 2011

Sample involved 11 women with same-sex sexual orientation. 9 of them gave the term “lesbian” when were asked to determine their sexuality, 1 “bisexual” and 1 “queer”.

Their age was between 26-53 years. 8 of them were residents of Athens and 3 of Thessaloniki.

Regarding professional background, 8 of the participants were working in the educational area (teachers, preschool teachers, psychologists, professors), 1 told us that she is a student, 1 unemployed and 1 farmer. 9 from the 11 participants are activists.

7.3 Sampling

For our sample’s selection we used “Snowball Technique”, as the most appropriate approach for vulnerable or marginalized groups (Vamvoukas, 2002).

Prior to the interviews we made a “research” to lesbian websites and lesbian groups, in order to find our “contact persons”. Our first “contact person”, for the sample of Athens, was representative of NGO “Lesb.Equal-Lesbians for the Equality”. Similarly, for the sample of Thessaloniki, our “conduct person” was a member of LOTH (Lesbian Group of Thessaloniki).

The response to our call was immediate and positive from all participants.

From the very beginning and in the process of our survey we faced a lot of restrictions. First of all we faced lack of printed and digital, relevant to the topic, material. Then we felt surprise from the attitude that some individuals faced us (bookstores, school and public libraries). We must say that, at least initially, we were discouraged from “strange looks” and comments like “Why do you deal with a topic like this? You look like a normal pretty woman”.

We observed similar comments and reactions into our job area, coming from our colleagues (especially men). When they heard the topic we were working on, they make the question “How did you decide to work on a topic like this? These topics are good only for movies with sexual content”.

7.4 Presentation – Result Analysis

Here are presented results concerning the third category of our open-ended questions: Attitudes, opinions and beliefs (marriage-cohabitation, *education area*, thoughts about the future).

- The majority of participants in our survey presented themselves as “victims” and school community as “aggressor” during their school life. They repeatedly stated that they were victims of homophobic bullying, because of their sexual orientation.
- Greek educational system was characterized as “inadequate” in addressing homophobic incidents and Greek teachers were characterized untrained and uninformed on LGBT issues (“Greek teacher is the Greek man, coming from Greek society”).
- The majority from our participants emphasized the necessity for greek students to be tough lessons related to sex education, the necessity for greek teachers to be trained in LGBT issues through seminars and finally the necessity for Greek educational system to change general policy as far as homosexuality is concerned. One of our participants said: “Much work is needed to be done, but I still believe that one swallow can bring spring. If these teachers who are able and willing to do so, start slowly working on the matter into their classrooms, with small corrections for the begging, something can be done. Maybe these children become teachers themselves later and carry the burden of change”. Only under this condition Greek school can become a place that disparities to sexual orientation will be reduced.

8. Conclusions

Emphasis was given from ALL our participants to the importance of education and its role in shaping a better future for all people. Nowadays, bullying due to sexual orientation is a common secret into the Greek schools. There is a lot of verbal and / or physical violence, marginalization and labeling among gay and lesbian students.

Greek teachers have difficulties in addressing LGBT issues into the schools.

The “invisibility” of LGBT issues in school curricula, in all levels of the Greek educational system, is the major reason that leads this portion of the student population to

negative self-esteem consequences, to isolation and marginalization. The feeling of loneliness in gay and lesbian students is enhanced further from the “lack of image and text” related to themselves. They can’t find themselves anywhere in the Greek schoolbook. They are invisible, they don’t exist. A girl or a boy with same-sex orientation, having realized his/her “different” sexuality during school life needs to fight for acceptance from the others (teachers, classmates, community). But Greek educational system, with its attitude, creates an “institutional homophobia”. So, this child has to conceal its sexual identity. This concealment may lead LGBT pupils to difficulties concerning their mental balance, sense of social oppression, weakening of self-esteem, use of alcohol and substances.

Homophobic and lesbophobic attitude can appear among LGBT pupils (internal homophobia-lesbophobia).

Greek educational system needs to be adjusted completely. All minorities must be included to our school curricula (not only Roma, immigrants and repatriates). Standards concerning gender roles and family functioning are difficult for LGBT students to eliminate and build even more stairs to the oppression.

Closing, we would like to mention that “different” students are children like all the rest and we have to behave them equally.

The sooner we – their teachers – understand it, the fewer children will be victimized into our schools.

The “Universal Declaration of Human Rights” adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations (1948) and is a description of basic human rights. The Preamble of the Declaration states that “the recognition of dignity and equal rights is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world” and in the first article we read that “All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights”. Similarly, in the twelfth article we can read that “No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interferences in his private life ... nor subjected to insults upon his honor and reputation. Everyone has the right to be protected by law against such interferences or insults”.

Only when we follow this, we will be able to talk about defending human rights in a truly democratic school environment.

The time for barriers and prejudices to be broken has come. The “Colorful World” of homosexual men and women can provide color to “black and white” (or at the best edition “grey”) world of heterosexual! (Karathanasi, 2014).

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Book Reviews
Book Presentations

**Socio-Economic Sustainability,
Regional Development and Spatial Planning:
European and International Dimensions &
Perspectives**

Edited by:

Prof. Dr. George M. Korres
Department of Geography
University of the Aegean

Prof. Dr. Elias Kourliouros
Department of Geography
University of the Aegean

Assoc. Prof. Dr. George O. Tsobanoglou
Department of Sociology
University of the Aegean

Dr. Dr. Aikaterini Kokkinou
Department of Geography
University of the Aegean

Mytilene 2014

This Book of Proceedings, based on the International Conference on ‘Socio-Economic Sustainability, Regional Development and Spatial Planning: European and International Dimensions & Perspectives’, 4-7 July, 2014, Mytilene, Lesbos, Greece, summarizes the debate for the future and prospects of socio-economic and regional development of the European Union, under the fields of European, Economic-Geography, Sociology, Regional Development and Spatial Planning. This Book of Proceedings considers both an economic and social perspective to increase the information base and derive broader conclusions about the social consequences of the economic crisis, with this issue being of particular current research.

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- **Section 4: Social Economy Innovations and Sustainable Communities**
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The Editors,

Prof. Dr.E. Kourliouros, Prof. Dr. G. Korres, Prof. G. Tsobanoglou & Dr. Dr. Aik Kokkinou

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Include all authors, article title, full title of journal, volume number, issue number, month, year, and full page numbers. Example:

Michael Mahmood. "A Multilevel Government Model of Deficits and Inflation," *Economic Journal*, 24, 2, June 2010, pp. 18-30.

Books

Include name of author, full title of book, edition, city and state (or country) of publisher, name of publisher, and year of publication. Example:

Shapiro, John. *Macroeconomics*, 4th ed., New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 2009.

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Public Documents

Include the department or agency responsible for the document, title, any further description such as number in a series, city and state (or country) of publication, publisher, and date of publication. Example:

World Bank. *Educational Attainment of Workers*, Special Labor Force Report 186, Washington, 2010.