

**“NICOLAE BĂLCESCU”
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THE ATTITUDINAL DYNAMICS OF MILITARY HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS TOWARD THE MILITARY CAREER

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Abstract

The macro and micro-social transformations produce significant mutations within the value scale and respectively in relation with individuals' attitudes. Such attitudinal changes are implicitly obvious with military highschool students. The paper aims at highlighting this very attitudinal dynamics

Keywords: military, organization, dynamics, career

1. The evolution of the military profession

The military organization, as a sub-system of the global-social system, takes over and reflects the transformations of this system. It is influenced by the values of traditions and customs of the cultural area where it functions, but it is also influenced by the mutations taking place at the global level. Within such a context, we witness a re-configuration of the military culture, a re-directing of its thinking, as a reflex of the profound changes occurring in the area of socio-politics and, implicitly, in the culture area, nowadays. [1]

Starting from these realities, a new axiological model comes to stage, being specific to the military profession, which, by the professionalization of its military personnel, manages to convert itself into beliefs and attitudes.

The homogenization mechanisms of internal values, specific to a profession and its doers, become clearer, irrespective of their affiliation to a specific environment. Adherence to these values and a minimum compliance with the thinking and action models, promoted by the military culture, are indispensable conditions for the adjustment to a holistic organization, such as the military organization. Therefore, the access to this profession is twice conditioned: on the one side, it depends on the degree in which individuals fulfill their expectations, wishes and values by means of this profession and, on the other side, the condition is imposed by the advantages (moral, or social) that the profession offers. Individuals capable of conforming to the internal values of the profession, or manifesting attitudes promoted by the military institution and compatible with the specific normative system, are favored, from the very selection, by their basic instruction at the military high-schools and academies, and later on, by promotion criteria for the military personnel. When this correlation is nonexistent, there might be a feeling of maladjustment to the profession and a phenomenon of professional re-orientation occurs. Despite the conservatism of the military culture, there is a focus shift from the traditional military values (heroism, discipline etc.), which used to define a professional military individual, toward the assimilation of leading and strategy skills.

The American sociologist Charles Moskos has analyzed the military system passage from the institutional model, based on specific values, toward the occupational model, fact that led to the narrowing of the difference between civilian and military. Consequently, in the context of a competitive market economy and of an utilitarian culture (in which the material values are predominant), the army is constrained to adopt attractive recruitment policies on the labor market, and to resort to the extrinsic motivation, specific to the industrial organization, in order to recruit its personnel. Thus, the army becomes a “profession” just like any others.

By initiating the concept of ‘post-modern army’, the American sociologist emphasizes that the relationship army-society has changed and it has been caused by the perception of new types of threats under the globalization phenomenon, and by new characteristics of the warfare. Nevertheless, the author insists upon the necessity of

preserving the singularity of the military profession and of the institutional characteristics of the army, based on the military culture and its characteristic values.

In conclusion, the professional mobility of the contemporary world does not restrict itself only to changing its professional status (by passing from a profession to another). It implies the amendment in the content and characteristics of a profession, (including the military profession), changes in its professional hierarchy, related to the weight and role of professions, their social prestige and the relationships among professions. [2] Under these circumstances, there is demand for a careful study of the attitudes manifested by the military high-school students toward the military profession, their motivational support in selecting a school or/ and a military career

2. A study of the attitudinal dynamics of the military high-school students toward the military school and/or the military profession

2.1. The aim of the investigation

This research focuses upon the identification of motivational factors that constitute the main reasons for selecting the military school and/or profession, the elements of attraction of the military profession and the level of knowledge related to it, from the perspective of the military high-school students. [3] The data represent a valuable indicator of the quality of the educational activities, of the human and professional models existing in the military high schools, and implicitly, of the military profession chances of imposing itself on the labor market.

2.2. The investigated sampling

The sample population of this study consists of the twelfth graders of the military high-schools, in Romania, namely, 312 respondents, aged between 17 and 20, out of whom 135 are male students (43.3%) and 170 are female students (54.5%). 184 of these students come from urban areas (58.9%). Their families' level of education varies from elementary school to university, while the predominant sector consists of high- school graduates (162 mothers and 127 fathers). See **Figure 1**.

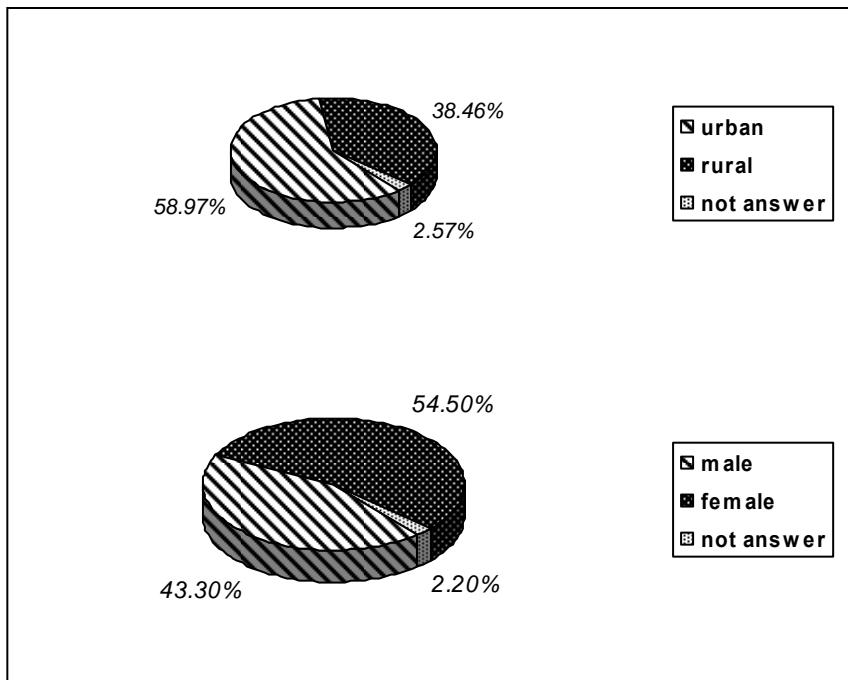


Figure 1: The structure of the investigated sample (acc. to gender/social background)

2.3. Investigation instruments

A survey based on questionnaires was used to collect data, the questionnaire consisted of 12 items, out of which 10 items contained closed answers and 2 of the items required open-ended answers, which, even though difficult to quantify, were designed to allow personal interpretation on behalf of the respondents. The questions aimed at the subjects' perception of the educational offer provided by the military high-school and the military profession, thus, giving the subjects the possibility to express their professional option and motivate their choices.

2.4 Data analysis

The obtained data was analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively, and the following findings resulted:

a) The expectancy level of the military students was confirmed by the educational offer of the military high-schools for 64.09% of the investigated respondents. These students claimed that their expectations related to the military environment were fulfilled, thus offering them a high level of satisfaction. **See figure 2.**

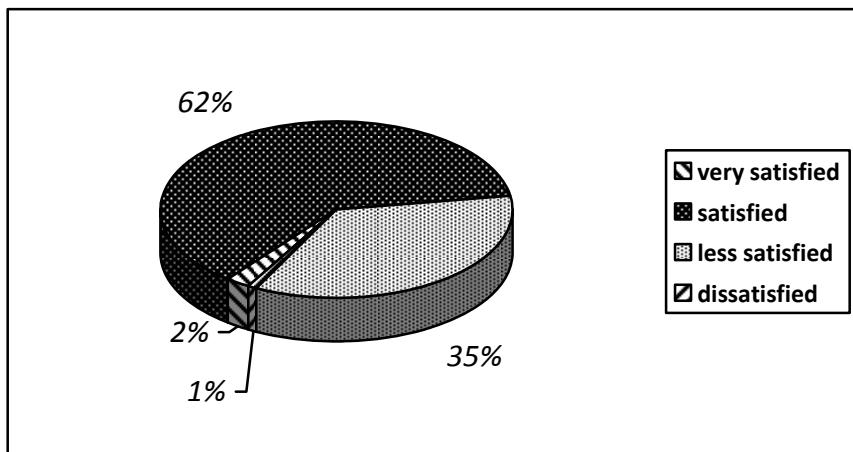


Figure.2: The level of expectancy confirmed by military students in the 12th grade

b) The confirmation of the expectancy offered by the military high-schools to graduates was strengthen by the importance given to their future personal and professional development. **See Figure 3.**

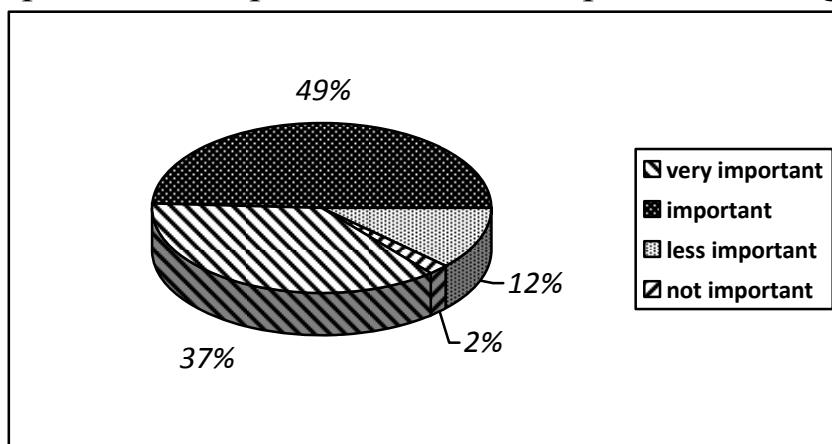


Figure 3: The importance of graduating from a military high-school in relation to personal development (12th grade)

c) Within the educational environment offered by the military high-schools, the decisive factors in personal formation and development were distributed as follows: **See Figure 4.** Mention should be made that a special contributor to the young people's formation was the family (28%), while the officers' group came on a second position and accordingly it would represent a reference group to this study.

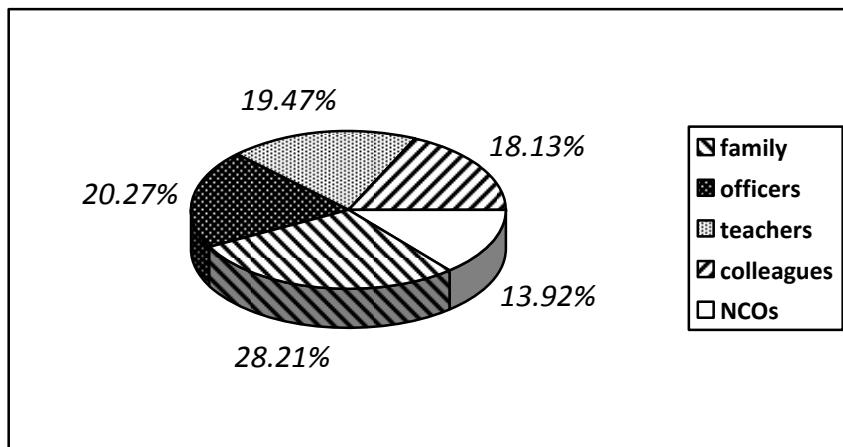


Figure 4: The distribution of educational factors in military high-school (12th graders)

3. Conclusions

The instructive-educational activity performed in the military high-schools meets a double requirement: on the one side, it follows the quality standards imposed by a modern education, on the other side, it focuses on the students' guidance and motivation toward the military career.

Therefore, the highly instructed military high-school graduate, irrespective of his/her professional option, will be able to satisfy both the exigency of a professional army and the civilian society's challenges.

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- [1] Hoffman, O., s.a. *Professions in front of the Future*, Editura Academiei Romane, Bucuresti, 1990.
- [2] Ilut, P. *Axiological Structures from the Psycho-Social Perspective*, EDP, Bucuresti, 1995.
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SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING THE ATTITUDINAL DYNAMICS IN MILITARY HIGHSCHOOLS TOWARD THE MILITARY CAREER

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Abstract

Socio-psychological studies reveal the major impact of the contemporary macro and micro-social transformations. These transformations are equally reflected at the military organization level under the conditions of professional armed forces. The paper aims at illustrating certain socio-psychological aspects, determined by the attitudinal dynamics of military highschool students

Keywords: socio-psychological, dynamics, military

1. Introduction

The quality of the educational environment in the military high-schools confer them the role of indisputable generators of future members of the modern armed forces. [1] The activity of these trainees is oriented toward satisfying the labor market requirements, both the current one and the future one, in the military field of expertise. From this perspective, the educational goals – “the graduate model” – anticipate and shape the competences pursued by the university-leveled military institutes.

The military competences, completing the citizen competences, may be accomplished through specific activities of high

formative value, which reveal to students defining coordinates for the military career and offer them the key to success, through a permanent self-knowledge exercise.

2. Orientation/guidance

The orientation toward the military career was achieved through specific activities in the military high-schools for 67.95% of the questioned respondents. **See Figure 1.**

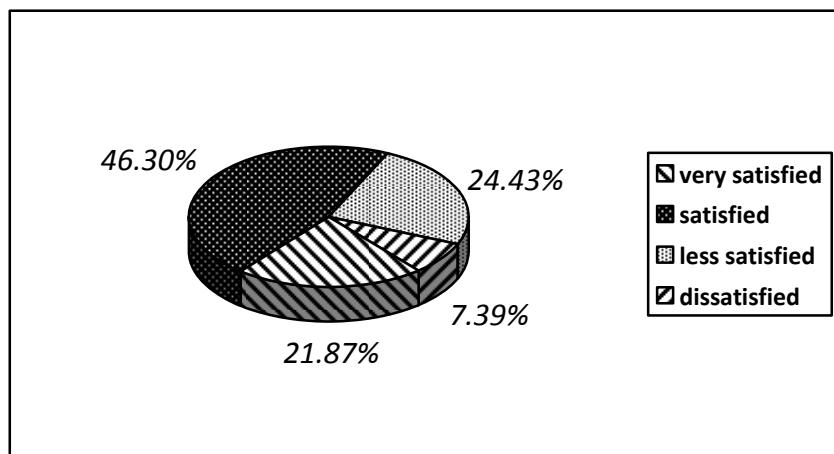


Figure 1: Perception of military-career guidance as accomplished through specific military activities in the military high-school

3. Values

The quality of the educational environment was also confirmed by the positive appreciations stated in the description of the military system. **See Figure 2.**

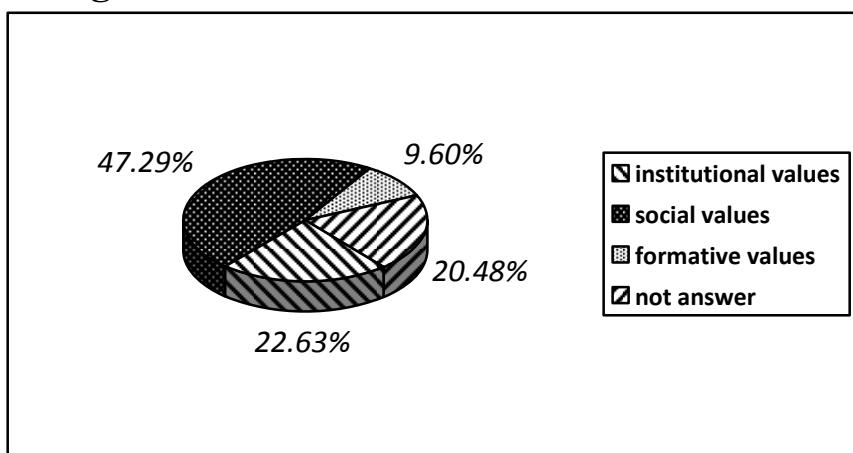


Figure 2: The distribution of positive perceptions regarding the military organization

The configuration and distribution of answers were completed with the professional options expressed by students: 92.94% of the respondents opted for a military career and only 4.16% of them chose to continue with a civilian profession. [3] Nevertheless, the number of students unable to make a decision, when required to confirm their initial choices, increased from 2.9% to 7.7%. The same situation was met in case of students who changed their mind, from 4.16 to 11.85%. **See Figures 3 and 4.**

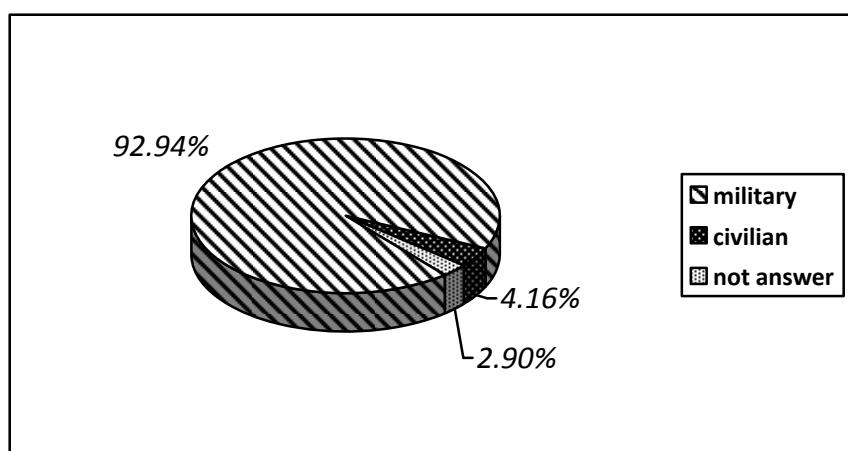


Figure 3: The distribution of professional options (civilian/military)

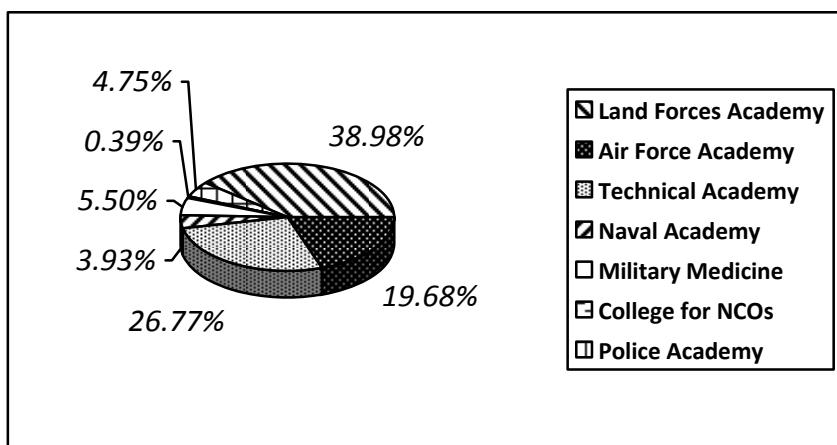


Figure 4: The distribution of professional options in specialized military academies

4. Motivations

The motivational sustainability of those who opted for a military career is shown below: **See Figure 5.**

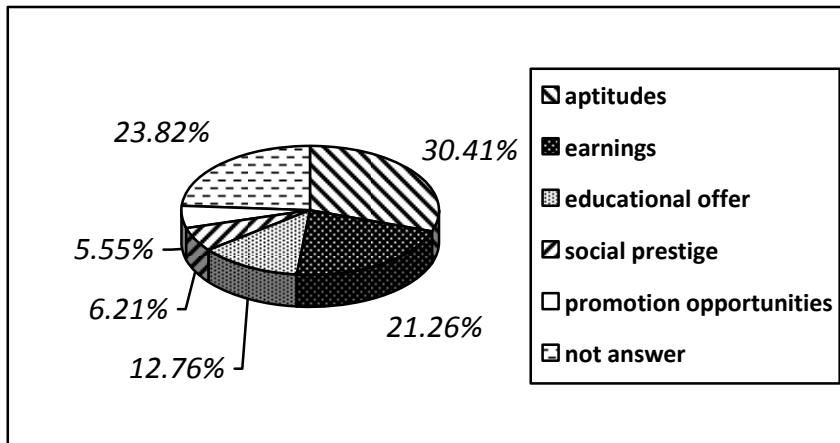


Figure 5: The distribution of motivational factors in the profession selection

The placing of aptitudes on the first position reflects the effort of self-knowledge on behalf of the military young people. This effort is sustained by the school and completed with a personality model compatible with the military career; a model which the young people struggle to reach. [2] One of the possible causes of the increase in the undecided people's number and in the number of those who reorientate themselves toward a different profession may be the mechanical formal imitation of proposed models and values, without their internalization and/ or because of the awareness of the lack of aptitudes necessary for the military career. The second, third and fourth positions are occupied by extrinsic motivations (earnings, social prestige etc.) that indicate the pragmatic orientation of the adolescents.

5. Conclusion

The result of this analysis underlines the fact that the military profession is no longer preferred for its specific values; and, in case it may offer stability, safety and social prestige, it remains an option competing with other professions on the labor market.

References

- [1] Hoffman, O., s.a. *Professions in front of the Future*, Editura Academiei Romane, Bucuresti, 1990.
- [2] Ilut, P. *Axiological Structures from the Psycho-Social Perspective*, EDP, Bucuresti, 1995.
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COMMUNICATION IN PUBLIC SERVICES AND ITS CURRENT STAGE IN ROMANIA

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Abstract

Communication accompanies public services work, contributing to its proper development.

It is also a promoter of public services. A set of communication hindrances appear and need consideration. Starting from the aims targeted by communication in an organization, we can distinguish between internal operational communication, external operational communication and interpersonal communication. After a period of neglect, public services communication in Romania is currently being renewed, due to radical changes in Romanian society since 1990. We are witnessing a reassessment of communication, as a most important factor of public services development.

Keywords: communication, public services, radical changes

1. Communication in public services

As an integrative part of current life, *communication* has become nowadays a factor of paramount importance for society. A living entity sends forth and receives messages continually. This both-way flow is simultaneously a prerequisite and a consequence of the connections established within the environment among its active components, be it individuals or agencies.

Public communication refers to public utility information exchange as well as providing a social bond. [1]

Using as a first criterion the *purposes of communication* in an organisational environment, communication can be identified as

follows: internal operational communication, external operational communication; inter-personal communication.

Internal operational communication includes the entire set of messages connecting the public servants when performing its operational plan, namely all the proceedings developed to reach the specific objective. This communication category includes: orders and instructions given by supervisors, dialogue between workers on work-related issues, reports given by personnel, etc.

External operational communication connects the agency with people and groups from the outside, but in close connection with the mission and the object of its activity, namely service providers, the public. This category includes answers to phone calls, publicity, as well as the steps the public service takes to improve its public relations.

Inter-personal communication is the exchange of information and feelings performed by people anytime and anywhere when together, regardless of the connection between the aims and objectives with the public service.

External communication of our public institution contributes to the notoriety and image of the agency in society. Thus, it fulfills at the same time the function of promoter of public services for the state, and administrative and territorial units.

Institutional communication is an extra-organisational communication through which public services aim to strengthen its image, to foster a climate of trust and approachability among citizens [2].

The main shapes this particular type of communication can take are: publicity, sponsorships, promotions, articles introducing the agency in specialised publications, holding stalls at fairs and forums, organising open door days, etc.

However, the most efficient and also the cheapest type of promotion is most often disregarded. It comes handy to all public officials and basically lies in a *permanent underlining of positive aspects within the public service* they belong to, on all circumstances of external environment contacts, may they be personal or professional. The idea is that each public official can implicitly take in the role of external communicator, and the message is focused on

institutional professionalism, effectiveness and quality. This requires that the public official should *know* (which is part of internal communication effectiveness), *believe* (which is the match between discourse and concrete actions) and *want* (which is to feel the need talk about the public administration agency, strictly related to motivation).

Well aware of new management theories, willing to communicate both internally and externally, public relations resort to *publicity* to make themselves well known and to justify their actions.

There is an acute increase in the number of marketing and communication experts, as well as publicity strategies within the public services field.

However, we have to underline that the communication process can witness a set of communicational barriers [3], at different levels. Thus, at the level of *sender and receiver* (emotional state of the receiver; routine, influencing creativity; sender and receiver's self image and the image on the interlocutor, etc.); *at the language level* (the same words have different meanings for different persons, especially due to diverse training and experience; difficulties of expression); *at context level* (unsuitable physic context – high phonic pollution - , unsuitable information support).

The diversity of the reasons determining the difficulties and obstacles to communication leads to the compulsory existence, within the system, of regulatory, adaptation and transformation instruments [4]. The keystone of this regulation is *feedback*, which allows the receiver (the citizen, for example) to express its reactions and the receiver (the service public spokesperson) to record these reactions.

The ability of the communicator to react to feedback adequately is mandatory for the effectiveness of communication.

One of the difficulties in developing an effective communication process is generated by *cognitive miss-match*. This entails *selecting information sources in compliance with the convictions of the entities involved in sending or receiving the communicated message*.

Public servants display a certain psychological mechanism which can reject or distort information and realities that do not convene to their own convictions. Situations can also be identified when public servants proved totally obtuse, unreceptive to the facts which have

been introduced through a communication process between a citizen and a public official.

2. The current situation of communication within Romanian public agencies

The situation of the public services in Romania is currently not much different from the situation of the global economy, as the whole sector is facing financial hardship, material gaps, lack of specialized contact persons and consistent marketing view, in a strategic vision.

As the Romanian economy can only develop as integrated into the European and world economy, and as all these have become genuine “service economies”, there are arguments to sustain a positive evolution in the field of services (which already own an extremely important share of the Gross National Product and employment in Romania).

The development of communication is connected to the need to adapt public services to ever-changing social demands.

In Romania, this reality is quite obvious, as the *rebirth of communication* after a long time of keeping a low profile was generated by radical changes in the Romanian society since 1990.

After more than a decade, we can talk today about the existence of a continually growing communication. The specific services supply is coming to maturity, while the demand of such services increases yearly both quantitatively and from the point of view of standards.

Managers become more and more aware of the importance of implementing communication in the public services work, as the most responsible and competent are seriously concerned about this.

What we can find nowadays is a *re-evaluation* of communication, at the level of the public services as well as at the level of the Romanian society, in general.

The evaluation of the role communication plays in public services starts from the analysis of the way different categories of the public feel the domain-specific activities. From this point of view, it is interesting to *examine the research into determining the impact of publicity on the average Romanian consumer*.

The perception of the Romanian public on communication should raise a question mark, at least for the public services targeting the end consumer.

More often some managers – especially the former managers of the state companies – are seen to refuse to offer information, of any nature, on the public services they run. To feel safe, free from more or less founded critiques, they deny openness and foster secrecy, justifying their attitude by a neutral and prudent attitude. Such point of view would obviously not be in line with the current development trends of the Romanian society.

Another aspect the Romanian public services should approach when defining their communicative behavior is the fact that economic performance is not the only *criterion nowadays to evaluate their work*. To make progress, a public service should *integrate into the life of the community*, taking up responsibilities in various fields: education, culture, healthcare, sport, etc. Such circumstances produce certain *constraints* regarding the image, and the behaviour of the service in relation with society expands towards an institutional dimension. The mentality according to which the involvement into the life of the community and *taking up social responsibility* is only a *luxury* affordable by multinational companies in Romania of today is utterly wrong. To face growing competitiveness and surpass identity crises, managers should reconsider their position from this angle. Communication is one of the instruments managers can operate with to build and promote their status of “entrepreneur-citizen”.

Social responsibility also requires a strategy of involvement into society and a partnership the public can benefit from.

Undoubtedly, social partnership is a marketing tool, which could be also lucrative and beneficial to public services in the following ways: an enhanced consumers’ trust, good reputation in society, good relations with the government, etc.

No studies have been made so far in Romania on the way *social responsibility is viewed by consumers*. There are certain question marks, such as the fair publicity to social responsibility acts. Another one refers to ethics and can damage community in general or the field they work for keeping simultaneous social responsibility actions.

Time will tell if corporate social responsibility in Romania is a genuine lucrative tool for all public companies and services using it in their relation with community.

Nowadays, *public services in Romania are relatively under-represented on the Internet*, which is a serious disadvantage for both their image and budget.

Considering that companies are the engine of a country's economic upheaval, the state services on the Internet in favour of the later should be consistent with its significance. We are now witnessing a strange phenomenon: governmental purchases and biddings are currently performed on the Internet, which implies lower costs and more openness.

Online blogs and forums can contribute to improving the public services image if included in the communication strategy. On the other hand, they can put off the ones who disregard them.

Romania hosts 5.5 million Internet users, and the number is getting larger each year.

Basically, in this field Romanians follow the so-called *Consumer Generated Media trend* (CGM). This social phenomenon accounts for more than 50% of Internet traffic in Western Europe, according to studies made by Nielsen/Netrating in January 2008. In theory, the number should draw attention, as online discussions target not only large companies, but also all known organisations and services. At the same time, the studies show that *the information sent using these channels are often considered reliable, as they come from a reliable source: other consumers*. Their power should be considered. Blog articles have made consumers allies and led to decisions to change the promotion policy of a service. Thus, it becomes obvious that a public service should consider that the reputation built with publicity campaigns in traditional media (TV, radio, press) can be generally and gradually wiped out through damaging Internet-accessible information on its brands.

Prior to reaching an image crisis, communication experts claim that *CGMs can be used as communication tools to build positive online image*. To succeed, public services should offer relevant content when talking to their online public (journalists, consumers, etc.).

They should also *constantly monitor* what the online environment says about them and what message opinion leaders send online communities about the company. What should the public service do to be a successful part of the online community? Being part of the online environment is like being part of any environment. On the other hand, online communities have a set of rules of their own which one can get only by paying attention to discussions.

We can conclude that each individual public service but also the Romanian society in general should reconsider the role of communication and adopt an appropriate attitude.

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MORAL AND IMMORAL IN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL QUANTIFICATION

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Abstract

Could there be something immoral in economic measurements and quantification? Could there be immorality in statistics? It is often said that statistics is a lie, an untruth, a delusion. Lies are dishonoring and deeply immoral, and are incriminated by both religious and juridical norms. Where do these accusations against statistics come from? They derive from the obvious modern strive for excessive simplifications, from ignoring scientific rigor and from eluding theoretical principles by narrow pragmatic solutions. What is the critical point that shifts to economic thinking? In measurement: the formula. Who released it? Where and when was it released? By whom, where, when and how is it used? In quantification: aggregation and data systematization. We systemize and process data without asking ourselves how much of the economic and social content that we are studying remains in the shapes that we have built.

Keywords: *quantifications, simplifications, formula, misinformation, delusion.*

1. Introduction

In its simplest and most concise definition, ethics is the theory of moral life, comprising the doctrine of the essence of moral, as well as laying the bases for a system of norms, values, moral categories, for a moral code.

What is moral philosophy? Although this question has preoccupied humanity since the oldest times, and philosophical schools are still looking for an answer, most people associate the terms *moral* and *morality* with certain norms of the individual's

conduct in society, norms of conduct deriving, of course, from convictions, attitudes, skills, feelings. Every norm provides a pattern of behaviour, but it also entails the temptation to break the norm, to elude it. I have wondered whether the norm concerns only the individual's behaviour in society towards his fellow human beings, or any individual attitude and action regarding or not, involving or not, „touching” or not, the other individual.

Today, the interest in ethics, morals, has shifted to the world of ideas, sciences, arts, spirituality, politics, fields where questions are frequently asked like: „What is moral in art?”, „What is moral or immoral in research?”, „What is immoral in chemistry?”, „What about in IT?”, „What about in medicine?”, „What about in statistics?”. Was the world of sciences dominated by these questions several centuries ago? No, or at least not as frequently as it is today. A succinct answer, which covers the whole universe of sciences, was formulated simply, disarmingly simply, by a famous painter: „What is immoral in art is to make art without being talented”. Immorality appears and develops where there is no talent, no vocation, no calling, no resonance, no sufficient knowledge (scientific or practical). What is immoral in medicine is to practice medicine without a vocation and knowledge, what is immoral in economic quantification is to use scientific methods without a proper and complete knowledge of these. In both cases, ***it is immoral not to use scientific knowledge wisely, bringing it close to the real world, to the social and economic actuality.***

In this context I have wondered whether there can be anything immoral in economic measurements and quantifications. Can there be immorality in statistics? It is often said that statistics is a lie (an untruth, a delusion). A lie is a dishonoring and deeply immoral act, and it is incriminated by both juridical and religious norms. And still, the disease of the statistical untruth haunts the economic and social space without the possibility of a juridical solution. Moreover, justice expands its activity, it bases its existence on the statistical and economic untruth, on the social untruth and its derivatives (calumny, conflicts, etc...). It is no news that inter-human relations are replete with immorality, and if this is no news, it is no longer important, no longer taken into consideration, it isn't of any interest, it doesn't demand radical solutions, only local „anesthesia”.

I am going to look at the statistical theory and practice, as a main source of information for the decisional act. In his book „The Reign of Quantity and the Signs of the Times” (written and published around 1940) Rene Guenon (7) warns against an illusion, a deception by statistics, because „a rather obvious characteristic of the modern mentality is that of **excessive simplification**”. Simplification of what? Of reality through measurements and quantification. Why? Due to the high speed with which economic and social processes and phenomena take place at present. At the same time, another characteristic of the modern mentality is the tendency to excessively ignore the scientific rigors in the concrete economic and social analyses, especially as regards statistics as it has been developed over time, eluding theoretical principles by narrow pragmatic solutions which serve particular interests or cases.

Where, when, how ... are we wrong?		
Information PROVIDER		Information USER
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measurement, quantification • Data systematization • Using the analysis method • Graphic representation • Result interpretation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowing the statistical instrument, the formula • Knowing the statistical method • Ergodicity. The Bayes principle • The need for information 	

2. How to ignore or to simplify the information by measurement

What does it mean to measure? We determine the value of an indicator, directly, as a ratio of the indicator we measure to its measurement unit. Production by its specific unit of measurement, meters, kgs, etc, or by number of items, transactions by the value volume multiplied by the prices practiced. But to measure also means to determine the value of an indicator indirectly, by using a formula which uses values obtained by direct measurement. Company profitability, work productivity in an economy, unemployment rate, inflation rate, etc.

Here we find the sensitive point: the formula. Regarding which we ask the questions: Who, where, and when launched (designed) it? Who uses it, when, where, and how? Let's not forget that in the theory and practice of statistics, one finds oneself permanently and almost simultaneously in the position of information user and information provider.

There are theoretical areas and of economic analysis which take the formula out of its statistical context, and use it as one would use an instrument taken out of a kit, without remembering to put it back in its place every now and then, in the matrix where it was designed, tested, used and eventually redesigned. In other words, forgetting to re-place the formula within the category it belongs to, to recall again the principles of this category in order to use it correctly. I am thinking here about cost and value analyses at a microeconomic level, but also about inflation and stock exchange analyses at a macroeconomic level. We use indices, create derivatives based on them, and ignore or maybe forget the „mother” category with all that is specific to it. Thus automatism, mimetism, economic and social stereotypes set in, together with all their derivatives.

Ex 1: The Dow Jones index is, at its origin, an average index belonging to the average category. When the stock exchange activity diversified and quotation divisions were introduced, the index was taken out of its matrix (statistical mathematics) and adapted to the economic area where it was used. The effect of share divisions is corrected by the calculation of a divider, which is periodically updated. The indicator is no longer an average value, an instrument that can be generalized for any domain, it was „ripped” out of its matrix, particularized and „stuck” in the subject matter of Wall Street transactions.

In 1997 the Bucharest Stock Exchange launches the BET index, starting from a basic statistical instrument, the Laspeyeres average index. In order to compensate for the artificial effects of divisions, company mergers, or other changes in the share capital on transaction prices, the index value is adjusted by a correction factor „f” on the day when the change affects the quotation.

The artifice of the correction factor reduces the strength and relevance of the indicator, relativizes it and makes it more sensitive in

time and space. Whether we find ourselves in the position of the provider or of the user of statistical information, knowing the artifice added to the basic construction helps our understanding and reasoning.

Ex2: Let's also think about dynamics analyses which use change rates and dynamics indicators incompletely known, and therefore incompletely used. Moreover, the variety of economic areas of analysis has led and is still leading to the appearance of a large number of variants, or surrogate indicators. For example, for one and the same economic phenomenon followed in its evolution, we find that *the change rate after 12 months* is 2.6%, *the annualized change* is 6.4%, *the annual change* is 2.7%, *the change in the current year* is 4.8%, and *the change at the end of the year* is -2.1%. All the expressions above refer to forms of the same indicator: the dynamics index. Are these supportive of a correct economic decision? Yes, if ***we know the formula, the category it belongs to and the specificity conferred to it by the field of analysis.***

3. How do we ignore or how do we simplify the information by quantification?

What happens through quantification? We establish the concrete, discontinue values an indicator may have, we impose conditions on an indicator such that its values vary in waves, discontinuously. We go from quantics, from the atomicity of the economic and social space to the macroscopic world of companies, of institutions, of societies, of the structures which make up the economic and social architecture of this world. An important loss takes place at this stage: we synthesize the results, as they occur in every atom, simply by making them discrete and then adding them up. Then we create their corresponding statistical design, systemize them on the interval scale, obtain statistical distributions, distribution tables, contingency tables, association tables, without asking ourselves how much of the economic and social space we are studying stays in the „shapes” we have created statistically. Some economists say: this is not important because according to the law of large numbers differences compensate each other. If the positive and negative differences mathematically compensate each other, do they remain the same in their economic content? Can they stand compensation?

Ex3: By analysing the turnover, the net profit, the market value of shares, and other indicators for 100 companies, and by using primary data, we find that the percentage of companies having a profit of up to 50 mil in the total registered profit is of 11.4%. By using systemized data we find that this percentage is of 18%. What is the effect of this considerable difference on further economic analyses in which the indicator above, a structure indicator, is used as primary data?

Ex4: We work out regression functions on economic components, or on time series, and make forecasts at a micro or macroeconomic level, without revealing the error („impotence”) of the model. If we are not aware of the model’s sensitivity, if we launch it with precision and use it without any reserves in decision making, if we do not know its degree of significance and don’t „feel” its lack of significance, then reality will retort to our ignorance by disproving the statistical model. I am thinking now about analyses on the financial market and on the stock exchange, about budget plans and analyses, etc whose result has been promptly and harshly contradicted by the real phenomena in those fields.

The social and economic reality is not some easily modelled plasticine, it is a mixture of existence, a material and spiritual dough which theoretical systems must approach with caution. They must approach it in **good knowledge** and **wise patience**, with **deep understanding**, with professional friendship, that is with **talent and vocation**.

4. How does the user ignore or simplify information? Ergodicity.

Going from the area of information production to that of information use, the issue of correct or wrong, moral or immoral still remains of importance. A large part of the information content used in the decisional process is given by the receiver, i.e. the information user. *The information does not consist only of the data and the indicators obtained from the statistical analysis, but also of the specificity given by the user's professional, economic, social, and scientific context.* We speak of transinformation, as a factor reducing entropy (2). From a theoretical perspective, transinformation is defined as the information about the emitter contained in the receiver

field, or as a correspondence between the emitted and the received message. How much of what information users know is statistical information? Using example no 2 from point A, the question which arises is: which of the five indicators is useful in decision making and best answers the need for information?

The issue of ergodicity is being discussed today. Beyond the term's mathematical aspect, beyond its content of subjective probabilities, of statistical averages and of temporal averages, (8) as the mathematical theory of random processes describes them, we must remember that in simple terms, ergodicity refers to the manner in which information users infer various things, reach a conclusion on something based on information about something else. This is a specific aspect of the theory of selection, which searches for the whole truth by looking at the part. When is a generalization correct, and when is it not? The answer to this question is what ergodicity is about. If the generalization leads from individual particular cases, from the part, to a general ergodic whole, then it stands a chance of being correct. When is a collectivity under study (statistical, economic, social) ergodic? The answer to this question sends to Thomas Bayes' theory (formula).

Bayes and his followers explain what is happening with subjective probabilities when you receive or get a new piece of information. For example, when we refer to the information expressed in a statement or in a numerical expression (indicator) we assign it a certain plausibility. How does this plausibility change when we receive some new information? The idea has something in common with the one launched in 1962 by Umberto Eco (5). According to this idea, an individual engaged in communication presents a „first degree” opening as regards assimilation valencies. After receiving the first message he generates a „second degree” opening by integrating this message into an already existing repertoire.

A subjective probability always depends on what the receiving subject, the information user knows at a given time about the phenomenon studied, or about the method of analysis. In other words, the content of information is equally determined by the provider (emitter) and by the user (receiver). If somebody knows the market evolution of a soft drink over the past years, and the methods by

which its dynamics can be studied, then an evolution index, or a seasonality index, or a future estimated level can be more or less plausible, relevant or significant for the one who informs himself. More so for the situations when that someone is the decision maker in a structure.

Information users always find themselves in different areas of action and interest: economic (financial, accounting, marketing, trade, managerial, etc), social (health, justice, education, administration, etc), political, etc. In each of these domains there are specific methods, instruments and procedures of quantitative and qualitative analysis, whose common element is given by statistics and mathematics. Knowing these two theoretical areas becomes thus very important because it considerably influences transinformation.

5. Conclusions

Can we speak of talent when it comes to data use in the economic decision? Talent is an outstanding, natural (inborn or acquired) ability in a given field, and vocation is talent plus something else, talent plus inclination, calling. Are these two attributes enough for professional behaviour? Thinkers, philosophers, essay writers on the problems of the contemporary world add the dimension of moral talent. To be morally talented means to have the intuition of the ethical actuality, of the social, economic reality, that is to elude, maybe to betray the letter of the law, the letter of the scientific theory in order to remain loyal to its spirit. To have moral talent also means the ability to shift attention from a scientific or ethical principle, to one solving a concrete situation according to its maybe unique face, but, as we were saying in the first part of the paper, by preserving the principle.

Any particular economic analysis (of value, of dynamics, of correlation, etc) gives specificity to the scientific instruments and methods used, fills them with meaning. ***To conduct such an analysis with professional responsibility is a commendable act. To do it with professional virtue is excellence. Professional responsibility involves effort, professional virtue involves joy.*** The philosophers of our times note with sadness that today we speak more about professional responsibility than we do about professional joy (9). And this is another abyss in which the world of science turns into darkness.

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AN INTERACTIVE ACCULTURATION MODEL: A SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH

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Abstract

Although acculturation refers to more than cultural changes, psychological theories of acculturation focus primarily on psychological changes such as changes in attitudes and mental health that may be linked to the meeting of two cultures. The aim of this article is to present social psychological issues related to immigrant and in multicultural context. This review of social psychological models of immigrant acculturation strategies demonstrates the need to explain more clearly the interactive nature of immigrant and host community relations.

Keywords: acculturation, immigrant, host community relations

A growing number of people live at the juncture of different cultures. They are immersed in multicultural environments and are likely to define themselves, and likely to be defined, along multiple ethnic or cultural boundaries [1]. Contemporary research on ethnic identity, acculturation, and cultural orientation has revealed that individuals can successfully internalize more than one culture [2].

The most ancient psychological discussion of acculturation appears to be that of Plato in 348 BC. In the early 19th century, DeTocqueville speculated about acculturation processes in Europe and America [3]. The term *acculturation* was introduced by American anthropologists, as early as in 1880, to describe the process of culture change between two different cultural groups who come in contact with each other [4]. G. Stanley Hall was the first psychologist to write about acculturation, and Thomas and Znaniecki presented the first full psychological theory in 1918 [3].

Within anthropology, the first major studies on *acculturation* were carried out, however, only in the 1930s, and the first classical definition of acculturation was presented by R. Redfield, R. Linton, & M. Herskovits in 1936: „those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns of either or both groups... under this definition, acculturation is to be distinguished from culture change, of which it is but one aspect, and assimilation, which is at times a phase of acculturation” [5]. This definition is significant because it distinguishes acculturation from assimilation, and many scholars have continued to use the definition of acculturation provided by R. Redfield, R. Linton, & M. Herskovits (1936). A notable aspect is that it is focused upon cultures, not upon individuals, and that it envisages acculturation as a process in which either one or both parties experiences cultural change.

In cross-cultural psychology it is important to distinguish between group levels and individual levels of acculturation. T. D. Graves (1967) has coined the term *psychological acculturation* to refer to the changes that an individual experiences as a result of being in contact with other cultures and as a result of participating in the process of acculturation that his cultural or ethnic group is undergoing. The distinction between group-level acculturation and psychological acculturation is important for two reasons. One is the phenomena are different at two levels: for example, at the population level changes in social structure, economic base, and political organization frequently occur, while at the individual level the changes are in such phenomena as identity, values, and attitudes. A second reason for distinguishing between the two levels is that not every acculturating individual participates in the collective changes that are under way to the same extent or in the same way [6].

Acculturation refers to the processes by which individuals, communities, and societies react to inter-cultural contact. Advances in communication and transportation technologies, and increasing migration pressures due to demographic, economic, environmental, human rights, and security disparities, make acculturation one of the most important topics for applied research in cross-cultural psychology [3].

Nevertheless, these interest and research efforts have not sufficiently attended to a number of questions central to the field: what is the role of normal human developmental changes in the adaptation of children and adolescents who are undergoing acculturation? Does acculturation affect children and adolescents in the same way? To what extent is acculturation a state or a life-long process? These are some of the questions yet to be fully attended to in acculturation research [7].

There is ambiguity in the criteria for a successful acculturation, as in some theories acculturation means assimilation (i.e., being competent in the host culture - Gordon, 1964), while other scientists conceive of successful acculturation in terms of integration or bicultural (i.e., being competent in both cultures - Birman, 1994). However, an individual who does not learn about the new culture is often seen as not being acculturated, even though this individual may be quite competent in his or her ethnic culture [7].

Contrary to this, recent research findings have made it clear that it is important to recognize the two-dimensional nature of acculturation where individuals may change along two dimensions; i.e., the degree of retention of the original culture, and degree of involvement in the new society [8].

Unidimensional assimilation model

M. M. Gordon (1964) was the first sociologist to propose a *unidimensional assimilation model* to describe the cultural changes undergone by immigrants. In his model, acculturation is presented as a sub-process of assimilation, with biculturalism representing only a transitory phase of the process from complete segregation to total assimilation. The underlying assumption is that a member of one culture loses his or her original cultural identity as he or she acquires a new identity in a second culture [1]. Moreover, in this model, problems of acculturation experienced by immigrants are attributed to the members of the minority group themselves, who are held responsible for their failure in assimilating into the host society [4].

Bidimensional Models of Acculturation

Criticism of the unidimensional assimilation have led to the development of *bidimensional models of acculturation* in which the degree of immigrant identification to aspects of both their own heritage and that of the host society were assessed separately [9]. Within cross-cultural psychology, I. Zak (1973, 1976) and Der-Karabetian (1980) were the first to propose and test the hypothesis that heritage and host cultural identities do not fall at either extreme of one bipolar dimension, but are orthogonal and independent of each other. On the basis of his findings, I. Zak (1973, 1976) proposed that a person may identify himself/herself positively or negatively on both identity dimensions, or positively on one dimension and negatively on the other and vice versa.

Some years later, N. Hutnik (1991, 158) provided a new social psychological perspective on ethnic minority identity. She suggested that „the two dimensions – ethnic minority identification and majority group identification – must be used in conjunction with each other, in order to arrive at an accurate understanding of the various styles of cultural adaptation” of ethnic minority individuals [10].

J. W. Berry (1997) has popularized an alternative model of acculturation which is now frequently used by researchers from many nations. He distinguishes four acculturation strategies on the basis of the degree to which immigrants seeks to maintain the characteristics of their culture of origin and the degree to which they strive to engage in majority culture [11]. J. W. Berry identifies a plethora of factors that may lead particular immigrants to adopt one or other of these four orientations towards acculturation. It is likely that all immigrants face considerable difficulties when first arriving at their chosen destination. The most obvious hindrances are those associated with language skills, the loss of former support networks, the need for accommodation and for employment [13].

The Interactive Acculturation Model (IAM)

The *Interactive Acculturation Model* (IAM) seeks to integrate within a common theoretical framework the following components of immigrants and host community relations in multicultural settings: (1) acculturation orientations adopted by the host community; (2)

acculturation orientations adopted by the host community towards specific groups of immigrants; (3) interpersonal and intergroup relational outcomes that are the product of combinations of immigrant and host community acculturation orientations [14].

	Dimension 1: <i>Do you find that immigrants maintain their cultural identity?</i>		
Dimension 2: <i>Do you accept that immigrants adopt the cultural identity of the host community?</i>	YES	YES	NO
	YES	INTEGRATION	ASSIMILATION
	NO	SEGREGATION	EXCLUSION INDIVIDUALISM

Bidimensional model of *host community* acculturation orientations

Bourhis *et al.* (1997, 379-80) describe this model: the first element consists of the immigrant acculturation orientations immigrants can adopt, one of the five acculturation orientations depending on their desire to maintain their heritage culture and their wish to adopt the culture of the host society. The second element of the model consists of the acculturation orientations preferred by members of the host society. As in the case for immigrant acculturation orientations, two dimensions can be used to situate the acculturation orientation of host community members. These two dimensions are: (1) *Do you find it acceptable that immigrants maintain their cultural heritage?* (2) *Do you accept that immigrants adopt the culture of your host community?*

If positive responses are obtained for both dimensions, the *integration* orientation is preferred. Host community members accept and value the maintenance of the heritage culture of immigrants and also accept that immigrants adopt important features of the majority host culture. This orientation implies that host community members value a stable biculturalism amongst immigrant groups that may, in the long term, contribute to cultural pluralism as an enduring feature of the host society. The *assimilation* orientations correspond to the traditional concepts of absorption, whereby host community members expect immigrants to relinquish their cultural identity for the sake of adopting the culture of the majority host society. Members of the host community who prefer a *segregation* orientation distance themselves

from immigrants by not wishing them to adopt or transform the host culture, though they accept that immigrants maintain their heritage culture. Host community members who adopt this segregation orientation do not favour cross-cultural contacts with immigrants, prefer them to remain together in separate community enclaves, and are ambivalent regarding the status of immigrants as rightful members of the host society.

Negative responses obtained on both dimensions reveal two basic acculturation orientations vis-à-vis immigrant. The first corresponds to the *exclusion* orientation, in which members of the host community are not only intolerant of the maintenance of the immigrant culture but also refuse to allow immigrants to adopt features of the host culture. *Individualism* is an orientation in which host community members define themselves and others as individuals rather than as members of group categories such as immigrants or host community members. For individualists it is the personal characteristics of individuals that count most rather than belonging to one group or another.

Retro-Acculturation

The term Retro-Acculturation is the process whereby individuals, after going through acculturation, revert to their original culture. Retro-Acculturators (REACTs) describe those who are part of a mainstream population but seek to retain differentiating aspects of cultural history, background and experiences [15]. In these individuals, predisposed cultural practices surface, either consciously or sub-consciously, and alter their interaction with the world around them. This may be triggered by key life stage changes, such as having children, and ultimately leads to the active pursuit of lost or abandoned features of that person's heritage.

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DEGREES OF RESILIENCE AGAINST TERRORISM OF ROMANIAN YOUNG POPULATION

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Abstract

The continuing increase of interest in understanding and preventing terrorism following the aftermath of 9/11 has taken into account many dimensions of the phenomenon of terrorism with a special focus on its effect on population. As it is evident in many terrorist actions, one of the dominant characteristic of the terrorist strategy is to influence and transform innocent people in potential targets of their attacks. Researchers in this field concentrate on effective strategies to protect the population and thus resilience against terrorism has become an important issue for scientific debates on the subject.

To make a contribution to this ongoing debate, we conducted a research which aimed to identify some dimensions of resilience in Romania and also the level of young people's resilience against potential attacks of terrorists. We applied a questionnaire and we obtained insights into their level of knowledge of the terrorism phenomenon, their perceptions of its severity and the strategies they would adopt in the event of a terrorist attack. The responses also enabled us to identify some lacking pieces of knowledge in this field in order to set up a useful strategy to behave in shock situations.

Keywords: ***terrorism, resilience, mental distance, knowledge, attitude.***

1. Introduction

Because of the many events that happened in the last years, the configuration of the world priorities has changed in a considerable manner. Aftermath the 9/11 events in United States of America, the attention of the world political powers have focused upon the global

menace represented by terrorism and terrorists. Although terrorists conduct their actions in the name of nationalist, social or economic ideologies, they rarely choose their targets among those responsible for their losses and frustrations. In the present configuration of powers, terrorists consider that they can achieve their objectives only if deliberately destroying symbolic places (as New York Twin Towers) or attacking ‘sensitive’ categories of population (as innocent children in Beslan).

2. Need for resilience

Our approach stemmed from the certitude that people need a high resilience to face a terrorist attack. Resilience can be regarded as the capacity to recover or spring back, but there are considerable variations in the way in which resilience is defined in the literature [1]. In spite of the lack of consistency regarding its definition, conceptual framework and methodological approaches [2], there are some rough attempts to summarize the dimensions of this concept but they are endeavoured by the difficulty derived from their endless variety, but we adopted the opinions of Verleye, Maeseele, Stevens & Speckhard in 2008 [3].

Specialists agree that resilience is worked up by a complex of variables as the characteristics of individual (like attachment style or the cognitive, behavioural and emotional capacities of involved persons), but also of his social network [2].

To comprise the first type of characteristics the concept of ‘ego-resiliency’ [4] was constructed. It describes a general capacity of individuals to adapt adequately to external and internal stressors, being considered as ‘the process of or opportunity for successful adaptation despite difficult or threatening circumstances’ [5].

In the first instance, every person personal characteristics are very important for the amplitude of resilience. Optimism, curiosity, locus of control, religiosity, seeing change as a challenge, self-efficacy, high self esteem, auto control, tolerance to others feelings, sense of humour, coping strategies, civic behaviour, good cognitive and communication skills, talents or accomplishments that one values oneself or which are appreciated by others, a sense of purpose, adaptations of ways of coping that suit the situation and the person,

active problem-solving skills, flexibility, acceptance of negative feelings, growth through negative experiences are some of the important variables that are considered to hold some protective powers within the individual and in the same time to be predictors of resilience [6], [7] [2] [8]. But, regarding the world individual live within there are of peculiar importance factors as the actual and perceived social network, social support, a sense of connectedness [9] and life events, as a history of, or ongoing depression or traumatic stress [10].

While many features of this model are difficult to be corrected through the interventions of authorities, there are some other personal characteristics that could be modelled by proper antiterrorist strategies having population as a target, as the knowledge regarding the terrorist phenomenon, the mental distance to terrorism or how the population perceive the risk associated with terrorism, the personal preoccupation for looking for information on the phenomenon, the attitude towards authorities in case of an terrorist attack or the availability to help the authorities.

3. Research design

In order to evaluate scientifically people's resilience it is important to identify what do they know about terrorism. Our premise is that an efficient management of terrorism is impossible in the absence of a realistic feed back concerning the social representations of population about terrorism.

Therefore, in order to identify these social representations, we applied a self-administered questionnaire during the period October 2006 - January 2007 on a sample from the population that we consider relevant for the theme of our study: educated people, students or graduates in different fields. The questionnaire sample comprised 332 subjects distributed as follows: 184 women and 147 men, 28 from rural areas, with ages ranging from 18 to 35 years (although most of them, 140, were aged between 21 and 30 years old). As a rule, their occupational, residency and gender characteristics followed those generic, specific to Romanian young people.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. The knowledge regarding the terrorist phenomenon

Contrary to our expectations, young people in Romania have well-defined opinions about terrorism. From the given answers, the profile of a psychologically normal individual and, more than it, an individual integrated to the society is outlined. The terrorists are appraised as being generally young people, intelligent, well trained, have pursued university studies (the characteristic ‘uneducated’ is also available, yet as related to fanaticism), incisive, strongly motivated for the actions they get involved in. 52.7% of the respondents consider that terrorists have a good education, 60.2 % believe that they are mostly young people, and 41.6 % of the respondents understand the fact that the communities to which they belong do not reject terrorists. Their answers are consistent with those of the researches which show that terrorists have, in general, more than average education and that only a very few of them are uneducated or illiterate [11], [12]. Having into account that the more information people have the more efficient they behave in a terrorist crises situation, we can conclude that such knowledge is a good premise for a good resilience against terrorism for the Romanian young population.

3.1. Personal preoccupation to gain information about terrorism

People can try various channels looking for information about terrorism but most of them are circumscribed to mass media. Being questioned regarding their sources of information concerning terrorism, our subjects preferences are as follows: television (91,8%), Internet (62,7%), papers (75,9%), school (62,3%), radio (51,5%) and scientific works (51,5%). But we may be wrong if we consider these figures as they are. Because they represent some percents of the information people receive or look for, but the amount of such information could be more or less impressive.

People also consider they do not find relevant information in their peer groups (14,7%) and family (11,1%), which is an indicator of the low level of knowledge - or of the lack of interest - about the terrorist phenomenon throughout the general population.

From their answers it results that terrorism is not an issue in the people daily conversational agenda. They do not have discussions on this theme when meeting with friends and it is not a topic for talks with the family members. Unfortunately, a low personal preoccupation is also a reason for poorer knowledge on the phenomenon and for high mental distance to terrorism. They both are the indicators of a low resilience level.

3.2. The mental distance to terrorism

Usually people with higher levels of knowledge have lower mental distances and perceive a lower probability of attacks. The good thing is that these people also seem to rate the risk lower and they have a substantial level of ego-resiliency.

A high mental distance to terrorism of Romanian young population is mirrored in many answers of our subjects. They consider that Romania is not exposed to a high terrorist risk (which is also reflected in the terrorist risk evaluation of authorities), but they also identify some reasons that could increase such a danger as the help for American troops, the lack of antiterrorist resources, Romanian strategic position and its membership in the EU and NATO. Still, most of the investigated subjects (62%) do not consider the transformation of Romania in a target of a terrorist attack as probable, thus showing a high mental distance to terrorism. In the same time, a large percentage of the persons included in this study consider that Romania's present alliance system raises the risk of a terrorist attack in our country. In our opinion these contradictory findings do not indicate a lower mental distance to terrorism because they can be explained by invoking the social psychological 'optimistic bias of individuals' [13]. According to this, people tend to present an unrealistic optimism about their future life events, considering that negative events are meant for other people, not for themselves, while happy events will probably happen to them - not to others.

3.4. The attitude towards the responsible authorities

Our premise was that a positive attitude towards the governmental initiatives enhances resilience regarding the terrorist threats. Regarding the possibility to counteract a terrorist threat people believe

that the responsibility do not belong to themselves. Such a belief represents a hidden trust in responsible authorities. Within our country they identified as in charge with antiterrorist measures authorities: the secret services, the Police, the Army, the Ambulance Service, the Fire Team, The Commandment for Emergency Situations, the negotiators, the Presidency as institutions.

Still their answers revealed a lack of trust in the internal authorities in the favor of the international ones. Also in spite of the scientific conclusions, most of the respondents consider that a very efficient method to combat terrorism is the military intervention.

4. The perceived capacity of civil population to prevent terrorism

The answers given to this question mirror the subjects pro-active behaviours. They want to assume a role in anticipating the terrorist attacks: informing the institutions with prerogatives in preventing and combating terrorism and collaborating with the latter ones in case of an attack. Although 66.5% of the subjects agree with this idea and answered positively to the question ‘Do you agree to having some of your civil rights constrained in order to prevent terrorism?’, they are still reluctant to accept all the implications – whatever this could be, such as private communications surveillance, information supplying about suspects (including from their families or acquaintances), house searching, suspects arresting, mass media censorship, corporal examination as a precondition of access to public institutions, public places photo-video surveillance, certain organisations banning or - on the positive side - involving in civil volunteers’ teams or other actions organised by law enforcement institutions to combat terrorism.

The subjects’ anxiety due to a potential terrorist attack and their need to feel safe are reflected in some interesting correlations between answers such as those to questions regarding bomb attacks in public places and those regarding the acceptance of corporal examination before being allowed access to public institutions ($R_p=0.239$, $p\leq 0.001$) and photo-video surveillance in public places ($R_p=0.218$, $p\leq 0.001$). People tend to be consistent with their own answers: those who agree with private communications interceptions feel the same regarding house searching ($R_p=0.456$, $p\leq 0.001$), suspects arresting

($R_p=0.442$, $p\leq 0.001$) and about media censorship ($R_p=0.171$, $p\leq 0.009$).

We can say that the individuals' perception on their own efficiency in combating terrorism may be labelled through the psychosociology concept of 'illusion of control' (the tendency to consider that we may intercede in certain uncontrollable events) [14].

5. Conclusions

In this paper we discussed some of the young Romanian people resilience dimensions such as: the knowledge, the personal interest in finding out information about terrorism, the mental distance to terrorism, the attitude towards responsible authorities or the civil society capacity to prevent terrorism in order to estimate their level and to found further educational models for preventing and facing terrorism. As a conclusion, except for a general good knowledge about terrorism, all the other dimensions indicate a low resilience level.

Because the main objectives of terrorists are to trigger the mechanisms of fear, panic and terror within the population and because all these are preponderantly psychological, the first concern of the authorities should be improving the citizens' psychological capability to face terrorism. In this context resilience is an important landmark of the population psychological capacity to prevent and fight against terrorism. Along with many other democracies, Romania will continue to have as a priority goal strengthening the psychological resilience of people in order to reduce the negative effects derived from terrorism.

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THE ROLE OF ADMINISTERING AMINO ACIDS UNDER EFFORT

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Abstract

The present paper is based on the requisite that the administering of amino acids to students participating in the National Contest of Chemistry leads to increased attention before important competitions as such. The paper briefly presents the role of attention and memory in obtaining good results in competitions as a consequence of administering effort sustaining substances.

Keywords: amino acids, students, focused attention, Chemistry contest

1. Introduction

The act of attention consists of emphasizing, both in perception and thinking, certain objects, being accompanied by concurrent distractions from the others. From a physiological point of view, this unity is based upon certain localization in the central nervous system of the excitement and inhibition processes. Nowadays, it is considered that the physiological basis of the attention acts is represented by the existence of a centre of optimal excitability between certain points of the cortex and the decrease of excitability of the other points.

This takes place by virtue of the law of negative induction according to which the excitability of certain zones in the cortex leads to the inhibition of other zones. F.C. Bakker, M.S. Boschker, T. Chung, 1996, studied the effects of the retroactive interferences of the action speed, mentally imagined. Understanding and self-awareness, as psychical processes have as a starting point the self image. This

image is composed of all past experiences, from one's birth or the starting point of educational process to the present moment. F.C. Baker's study, 1996, had as main purpose to discover the speed effects of an imaginary activity upon the studying pace. The phenomenon known as the "assimilation tendency" represents an answer to the studies that had been conducted until that moment with regard to the issue of imaginative action. Annett, 1995 and A. Paivio, 1991, demonstrated that no additive effect of verbal identification upon the supposed action speed was found. Extrapolating the conclusions of J.J. Janssen' and A.A. Sheikh's study, 1994, we could conclude that any student facing a very important competition has to be very careful about what he thinks of, because inappropriate images related to a certain aim could diminish the expected performance. R. A. Schmidt, 1991, asserted that if an automatism regarding the data processing is reached, a lot of actions can take place not only very quickly, but also at the same time with other activities, even without destroying the performance.

It is known that the brain needs to be administered glucose daily in order to maintain the optimal excitability level required to take over and process the received data. It is also acknowledged that a small portion of the glucose is turned into amino acids through the process of transamination and the pyruvic acid is turned into alanine. At its turn, the alanine is turned into serine and serine into glycocoll. The acetyl radicals resulted from the glucose degradation enter the Kreebs cycle, resulting into getoglutaric acids which, through amination turn into glutamic and oxalacetic acid. Thus, the acetyl radical contributes to the biosynthesis of the carbonic skeleton contained in many non essential amino acids.

Moreover, the glucose transformed in compounds of muco polysaccharide enters the structure of the conjunctive tissue of the: cellular membrane, the cartilages and the ligaments. The energy from the carbonic chain which is released during their metabolism is stored in the ATP macroergic phosphates. In the case of the oxidation of glucose from the Kreebs cycle, approximately 65% from the potential chemical energy contained in the molecule of these substances is stored in the macroergic phosphate chains of the ATP while the rest of 35% is turned into heat which is lost, in our case,

through the effort of such (extrapolated from J. H., Wilmore, D. L., Costill, 1994, M. L.. Malina, C. Bouchard, 1991).

A. Zani and B. Rosi, 1991, think that the proper method to research the mental processes during the physical effort and consequently during the speed efforts is the cognitive psychophysiology through which the mental processes must not be studied separated from the brain in the case in which two types of potentials appear.

Thus, the representation of stimuli in the central nervous system is due to the above mentioned potentials (PE). The correlated potentials with the events (PCE) are the ones which are in correlation with the success of certain cognitive events such as: the focusing of attention, the data processing, the rearranging of short-term memory based on the results of processing, the decision for a possible execution of a movement action or the preparation of the movement.

The PCE method was used by the above mentioned authors in order to study the cognitive and focusing processes in the case of children and teenagers aged 10, 13 and 18. In order to study the interaction of the growing up process of the brain in the case of the development of attention, the brain potentials have been deducted from the partial, central and frontal zones.

The above mentioned authors have reached the following conclusions:

1* the frontal zones, which participate more in the attention processes, reach maturity only at the age of 12-13;

2* children of 10 have proved to be less efficient at the level of attention focusing, which in fact means turning of the provisions of attention towards the present data, independent of its relevance regarding that action;

3* all 10-year old children, when discussing their ability to distinguish between the relevant and irrelevant data for a certain problem, are as capable as grown-ups. This fact has been acknowledged in the case of reaction, at 10-year old children who were able to provide very quick motor answers to relevant problems.

This conclusion confirms the hypothesis according to which a weaker performance in the case of children's attention is caused by the inhibition of the motor reaction.

Ambition and motivation are indispensable in the life of a sprinter, as long as they are in accordance with the other essential factors, which, D. Swartz, 1980 consider to be:

- the adequate physical condition;
- the appropriate technique;
- way of life (sleeping hours, food, etc).

If these factors are considered, the mental barriers which limit the physical performances can be overtaken. The same author considers that success in a competition is due to self consciousness, through one's self-image as a winner.

These physical capacities can be emphasized through attention visualization-concentration on a future event which resides in the one's subconscious.

Although science has proved that the subconscious do not differentiate between real and imaginary events, visualization has to be done at the first person and during the competition day: "I know, I can, I can be the first," etc.

Starting from these premises, in our research, we want to identify the role of amino acids during the pre-event phase of children participating in the Chemistry contest. The 6 (six) participating children in the Chemistry contest at the county level were daily (the day of the contest was also included) administered 6 (six) pills of *Amino2000* during the whole experiment (30 days before the county contest) in comparison with a sample of children who were not administered any pills. It is worth mentioning that the parents and children accepted the experiment unanimously.

Amino 2000 is a quality product which regenerates the body tissues, provides the body with energy and regulates several important metabolic processes in the human body. The product contains among others the amino acid called tyrosine whose role is emphasized in the specialized literature, as well as cystein protein. (Topală C., Baciu I., Paraschivescu C., Drăghici C., 2002; Gabrus I.R., 2005).

2. The research hypothesis

We consider that administering 6 pills of amino acids (*Amino 2000*) contributes to the increase of children's efficiency in important competitions. The program should be designed according to the

following scheme (if they are administered amino acids): 30 days before the competition 2 pills three times a day: at 8 a.m. in the morning before the classes start, before lunch at noon and at 5 p.m. before the specific training program whether in the Excellency Center/Chemistry Center or during the individual training program.

3. Material and Method

The present paper is an experiment of a transversal type with regard to the role of amino acids in maintaining the attention focused during the educational effort in the case of students participating in the Chemistry contest. The experiment lasted between the 15th of January and 15th of February 2005. Table number 1 contains the results obtained by the two samples at the county contest.

Table 1. The average mark at the county contest

<i>Group</i>	<i>Average</i>
Experimental sample	9,2 ±0,2
Control sample	8,5±0,7

Similar studies about the role of amino acids during physical training have been conducted but there are not any clear direct references to the influence of amino acids upon the students' intellectual performances. There is a study published in Journal Sports Med. Feb.19 (2):82-6 whose authors advocate the supposition according to which the administering of 1-1,8 g protein/kg is recommended for a person during the training program (Van Hall, G, Saris, WH, Wagenmakers, A. J., 1998).

Another article published in *Dynamic Chiropractic* February 11, 1994, Volume 12, Issue 04, by G. Douglas Andersen, states that administering amino acids is beneficial only after injuries, weight loss, strength loss, etc. Another statement of the above mentioned study underlines the idea that amino acids do not influence the performance if they are administered for a week or less than that, although the producers of such ergogenic substances contradict this idea.

4. Conclusions

The research hypothesis has been confirmed. The analysis of the registered parameters reveals the progress of the experimental sample which is 0.7% (9.2) higher than the control sample (8.5). The final conclusion of the research conducted during the four weeks of training is that the role of amino acids is relevant in obtaining educational performances.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES OF SMART MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

Smart management insists that the organization produce its “own culture”, which could increasingly become the essential objective of the management of human resources. From this perspective, we propose a new “cultural revolution” in organizations, where the role of manager of the human resources department is amplified: he no longer takes care only of the problems directly involving the personnel, but he also takes care of what people think and feel. The manager of human resources now has the role of “producer of organizational culture” (ethical audit, discourse on the humanist values, loyalty, cooperation) without “competing” with the general manager of the organization, who is also a culture generator. On the other hand, each member of an organization is, at the same time, participant and producer of culture. He can even be part of the staff that produces values and norms of the organization, he can have the central place of cultural condensation.

Keywords: organization, management, culture, job criteria, clone

Society appeals to the “stars of the 21st century” – the organizations – which are more and more interested in objectives that surpass “the strictly economic goals” – channeling their energies toward consensus, synergy, values. The organizational interpretation, through *smart management*, confers these institutions the value and the status of “solution arenas”, a legitimate place for debating the future of society in order to find mutually advantageous solutions regarding the relation with the organizations and the individuals that make them.

The creation of the consensus of interests begins from the initial adding up of the informational, emotional, and cultural resources. The

next stage is the change of vision within a system which “*is tempted to try a power equalization*”. The ethical leader, who conceptualizes and takes decisions, assumes the responsibility of the system and does not analyze the man as such, but his representations (Foucault, 2000). This fact requires a special condition of the leader, still “condemned” to evolve in a space where at least two vectors intercross, most often in a reserved manner – i.e. the rapport existing between power and culture, both generating ideologies ... mutually advantageous.

The social discipline and the collective norms are fundamental vectors by means of which social unity is ensured. In order to create collective norms there exist forms of social intervention through the creation of collective, professional groups, which have an integrative role, and corporate organizations. When there exist slightly anomic aspects, disputes, conflicts, a generic interest, the identification of a common denominator, which unifies the particular interests in a mutually advantageous approach, is looked for.

A fundamental criterion of achieving the collective norms is represented by the civilization of values and rituals. Rituals have led to the unification of the behaviors of all those “devoted” to organizational activity. This thing has been taken up by the modern organizations, which develop ritualized organizational behavior. The organizational behavior increasingly involves the conscious emotional obedience, the agreement with the organization, with its interests and objectives. Thus, the emotional adherence of the individuals to the message of the organization is achieved. This “*organizational pedagogy*” is part of a modern leadership concept– *smart management* – which launches the desideratum of the involvement of the organization in the stimulation of initiative, of the individual discourse, “cleared” of group interests, creator not only of organizational rituals, but also of departmental, group or individual ones.

Initially, the organizations had as their main managerial objective of human resources the identification of those individuals who comply, though abilities and professional preparation with certain standard criteria of the job. The selection matrix was centered on “*job criteria*”. Despite the appearance of equal opportunities, this practice can disadvantage the people with “*backgrounds*” and perspectives. Essentially, the selection was a “*process of identifying the clones*” and “*standardizing the human*

resources." Apparently, the organization obtained unity, it acquired the configuration of a "monolith", which evidently reduced the opportunities for creation, change, alternation.

In order to set the human factor (smart management) on the first place, the organizations will have to consider work as a variable that is continuously changing. The organization assumes the developing and training programs and supports the creative people, with a much higher potential than that of a team of "*clones*" (Price, 2001). With this purpose in view, the organization selects those persons who posses diverse qualities and who have affinities with the organization.

The compatibility between "*man and organization*" prevails over that between "*man and job*." The great organizations have already "exposed" publicly a "*web application*" by means of which they express their organizational culture. The attitude that predominates in the Japanese economic environment is that of encouraging compatibility, the communication between individuals and organizations. Recruiting is based on identifying the most adaptable young people, those who have a more extended socializing potential in the organization.

"*Smart psychology*", as an essential dimension of the "21st century management", has flexibility in view, flexibilities which can furnish competitive advantages for the organization. The employees are recruited for their appetite for change, for their capacity to foresee the future; they are capable of contributing to changes rather than conform.

Smart management starts from the premise that the two entities – the individual and the organization – will permanently find themselves both in a direct commitment to each other and in a role-play, situated, sometimes, at the limit of ethical interpretations: the organization proposes a contract the individual accepts for a certain "price". There exists the danger that the organization should practice an impression management (Zlate, 2004, pp. 533-534). The building of relations based on contractual bases should be a priority and should ensure direct engagement and the honesty of offers.

Smart management regards the psychological availability of the individual and the structural-functional ones of the organization as a "*semiotics*" the leader/manager must know. That is why the reasonable management of the working efforts, the "*planning*" of the perspective, of the efficiency, legitimized by a form of authority, which confers

coherence to the collective action, are part of the process of organizational and social adaptation and evolution through common goals, consensus, cooperation, realities that impose a new management in organizations – smart management – in which the practices are underlined by the results of the organizational research.

The development of the organizational behavior field of study is due to the increase of expectations regarding the solving of efficient functioning of organizations, of their members and, implicitly, of their leaders. The pressures concerning the development and consolidation of this subject are connected, on the one hand, to the integration of the rational markets into the global ones and, on the other hand, to an increased preoccupation for learning, creativity, change, durable development. All these represent a search for excellence, with the purpose of generating an increased efficiency of the organizational performance.

Three interest areas can be evidenced from the perspective of organizational behavior:

- the people – as individual personalities; their actions and interactions (types of predictable, irrational or logical behaviors);
- the organizations – as structures integrating the interactions into actions, in order to ensure some specific purposes;
- smart management – as complete processuality – is organizer and leader (through decisions, resolutions, orders and instructions, rules, norms, etc.) of the physical, human and technical resources, of the evolution of the development of the organizations.

The interdisciplinary character of the management of organizational behavior justifies a multi-level analysis:

- psychological approach – the intraindividual level of analysis (personality, perceptions, attitudes – involved psychic processes), which emphasizes the role of motivation, of subjectivity and of emotion in case of performance or error, failure;
- approach at an organizational level – focused on the analysis and interpretation of the structures, processes, strategies, thorough and correct assessment in development, at an interorganizational level and the ecologic one;
- psycho-sociological approach – the interindividual level of analysis (norms, values, roles, rules, communication processes, decision making) emphasizes the relationship and the importance the context has.

Smart management tackles the organizational behavior as an emergent entity (configured in a multicluster manner), as a complex vector whose essence can be revealed through the objective study of the structural context in which the organizations develop, as well as through the analysis of the situations and of the roles it will evolve in: individual, group, organization, team, department, leader, manager, beneficiary, client, entrepreneur, producer, clerk, undertaker, specialist, etc. Each entity mentioned above is dominated by its own interest, by development ideals, has a specific psycho-sociological profile and represents a complex psycho-emotional complex in itself. The knowledge of specifications (essential attributes, roles, dimensions, activities, statuses, particularities, etc.) expresses the necessity of constructing a logical, unitary model of approaching this psycho-sociological reality (smart management) responsible for the construction, the development of contemporary organizations.

In the smart management paradigm, the organizational behavior is perceived as an emergent dimension, with a processual character and with the status of effect of the way of value structuring. In the evaluation of human behavior, in the context of a work incident, smart management incriminates the individual less for the problems that appear within the organization. The socio-technical aspect is the most important thing. The work problems (psychological, socio-economic, political) are thought to be a consequence of the structure, of the objective concrete way of organization and less of the subjective way of action, of the individual's irrationality (Friedberg, 1997). The stress is laid on the way work is organized, on structure and not on the "conflictive subjectivity". The imperfect, faulty management is analized, evaluated and programs of objective improvement of the efficiency of the organization, of the working place, a famous fact in the Japanese organizational culture "Gemba Kaissen" are searched for (Masaaki, 2004).

There are also theories that show that the individual develops all his conduct starting from "his motivational balance": as a consequence, it will have a predictable (manageable) behavior orientated by "an instinct" of maximizing the profit. On the other hand, research, underlied psychosociologically, has demonstrated that in some situations, the secondary motivation – moral – is definitory (the humanist approaches). The emphasis is moved toward the ethical and affective dimension of the

organizational behavior, toward the fidelity to the organizations (Hoffman, 2004).

Approached from a strictly determinist way, the motivational theory ascribes to the individual a series of psychological necessities that he tries to satisfy in the organization. The insufficient coordination between the needs of the self and the opportunities offered by organization can induce significant states of demotivation regarding work. In this context, the force of coercion exercised by the organization is cultivated with more subtlety and elaboration, with the intention to legitimize the model of organizational behavior, “the Pro behavior”.

The organization (no matter how liberal its managing style is) will always impose certain rules of behavior, attitudes, protocol rules, the urge to loyalty, obedience to the individual. However, the individual perceives these as pressure. Smart management locates “the premises of the conflict”, at the intersection between organization, which imposes a ritual (of power), sometimes hard to endure, and human nature, which regulates in front of these internal tensions. The individual takes decisions and chooses a certain freedom, offered by another “emotional community”, maybe less Weberian. The individual, no matter his culture, education, mentality, always takes decisions that are present both in the consensual adaptations, as well as in the direct, hidden or transparent “homeostasis needs”.

Smart management proposes the thorough and qualified approach of the human nature, of the way the individual, finding himself in a specific situation takes intelligent or rational (limited) decisions, driven both by the organizational objectives, as well as by his own motivation. It is a distinct moment, which shows the fact that the power (in its archetypal forms – decision, action, preference) belongs to everybody, in different degrees, determined by the nature of our inter-relationships, by the status and the role we play, either all our lives, or temporarily (Foucault, 2000). The implication is clear; the autonomy of the employees becomes an essential component of smart management, the man can decide according to the flux of actions and motives (which he manages) when the best time is and what the best way to carry out a mission given by the organization is.

Can “*the limited rationality*” of the decision represent an organizational reality or not? Simon H. (1976, 1982) launched the concept of “limited rationality” and brought arguments to support this

phenomenon. Later on, many other analyses showed that there exist decision makers with a limited rationality and others with a less limited one (Zlate, 2007, p. 274).

The decision is not always the result of a reflection, which leads to a legitimate, justified cognitive product. The actions of some administrations and governments, which construct their “rationality” on such “decisions”, explain sometimes the crises in history. There exists an irrationality of some decisions which are made with certain “justifications”. The most unfortunate criterion is that of the majority, which, even though it can not be contested at a specific moment, it can be contested posthumously, only by history.

The smart management of decision elaboration underlines the “natural” way (the most subtle psychologies) by means of which consensus is reached. Thus, even in the case when the psychological, emotional pressure of the moment does not have the legitimacy of a rational option, the “decision” is endorsed by some totally “different ways of thinking”.

Smart management guides the management, the leaders, the executive managers toward analyzing the rationality of the decision. Do the managers take “rational” decisions or do they base their decisions on “preferences”? The concept of “preference” can not explain the organizational decisions of the management sufficiently. The concept of preference tries to debunk the idea of the fully cognitive rational act, as far as men’s decisions are concerned, but they also have a major limit. The preferences are characterized by ambivalence between the rational act and the subjective emotional one. That is why they are not precise, coherent and univocal, on the contrary, they are often vague, ambiguous and contradictory, they can be subjected to voluntary and involuntary manipulations (Frieberg, 1997, p. 405).

Smart management proposes such analyses and interpretations in all the areas and spaces that involve decision, debate, negotiation, organizational development. There results that there are no linear, tight connections between behavior and its purposes. The two sides do not always have a univocal, predictive, anticipative causality. Behavior is not always the direct expression of a decision, that is why a more nuanced interpretation of the notion of “decision”, which does not have a fully

consolidated connotation of “rationality of the human behavior”, is compelling.

Smart management suggests that the taking of decisions be based on the analysis of models, decisional matrices that underline the way decisions can be made.

When solving problems it is essential, on the one hand, to correctly define them and, according to this, on the other hand, to identify the methods and instruments of analysis (Hoffman, 2004). The conflictive nature of the action and of the purposes shows that there are at least four situations that define a formula of taking decisions. The rational model of the decision represents, in this paradigm, $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total area of human decision and is defined by the correct understanding of the problem, as well as by the adequate choice of the methods. The proportion of the complete rationality, only 0,25% present in the assembly of our actions, is a serious reason to analyze the management of decisions. Against this background, smart management requires a special attention given to the way of taking decisions by organizations. The psychology, situation and contingency, as well as the preference vectors impose their role in the “decisional mixture”, with major implications and consequences which the leaders, managers and organizations should assume knowingly (the *smart management* training).

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THE FUTURE ORGANIZATION BETWEEN BUREAUCRACY, TECHNOCRACY AND ADHOCRACY

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Abstract

Functionality and efficiency always represented the fundamental objectives of the organizational systems, regardless of their nature. The achievement of this challenge, over time, marked several stages: bureaucracy, technocracy and adhocracy. The beginnings and the revolution in the society leadership announced by bureaucracy and technocracy will be finalized by the adhocracy, which will form a new organizational man: with individual initiative and free expression, competent, inclined towards creativity, adaptable to new situations, dedicated to labour and not to the organization. Not incidentally, Brzezinski anticipated: the information society will be a technocratic society.

Keywords: *bureaucracy, technocracy, adhocracy, bureaucratic power, Parkinson's Law*

1. The Cult of Bureaucracy

The theory of public administration, concerned with the decision improvement and the relationship optimization between politics and administrative among politicians and experts, daily leaders of the public power, formulated in time different decision-making patterns: a) *iron triangle pattern* (decision adopted by the triangle: political leaders – high rank officials -pressure groups); b) *the influence network pattern* (the decision of a network focused on solving problems), c) *Peters' pattern* (formal-legal, communitarian, communitarian-functional; administrative state: focused on the role of

bureaucracy, public administration "ensures the continuity of government"). [1]

Regarded as a realization of the modern world, the concept of bureaucracy has been given different meanings, from the pejorative to the scientific one: "power exercised within offices", "group of persons specifically organized to serve the state", "technique of an efficient organization", "system of legal-rational authority", "typical form of organization, characteristic to the advanced state and to the human civilization", "human group that is to serve the interests of dominant groups", "form of organization characteristic to modern society, defined by rationality and legal authority", "a type of formal organization which manages people, which rationally and efficiently solves the administrative problems from various areas", "a structural organizational form in which there are (...) rules and a set of procedures." [2]

Although we find relevant assessments in the nineteenth century, in the works of the Marxist classics, dimmed by some politicized excesses, however, just at the beginning of XXth century, M. Weber (in "Economy and Society") establishes the concept, considering the bureaucratic organization as an ideal for organization and efficiency. Bureaucracy, through the immediate performances and the future promises, is compared by the author to a real revolution, materialized in the passage of human form the manual production to the automatic one. "Accuracy, speed, clarity, knowledge of records, continuity, freedom of choice, unity, strict subordination, reducing dispute, costs of materials and personnel (...) are highlighted within a strictly bureaucratic administration." [3] W. Bennis considers it as a "monumental" discovery which connected "the muscular strength to the industrial revolution."

The Marxists, and Weber, as well, had as starting point the state bureaucracy. While Marxism analysed bureaucracy in terms of power, identifying it with the "group of persons that is to serve the upper classes", defender and manager of their interests and interface of the relationship between power and society, Weber made the difference between power and the class of the dominant system, seeing bureaucracy as a system of political control, a form of organization

characteristic to the developed states, where power was based on the three resources: charisma, tradition and legal-rational authority. [4]

Bureaucracy is based on certain principles: a) *the principle of the legal-rational authority* (activity governed by law and regulations); b) *the principle of permanence* (the permanence of the connection of members with the organization); c) *the principle of strict professionalism and specialization* (division of labour, a standardization of roles, status, competences, rights, duties of the members of the organization; the clerk is specialized according to the division of labour, to the delimitation of the guidance competences and control, "he knows what he can do, but he does not have to power to make decisions" - R. Aron; the bureaucracy system is formed of a professionalised body, disciplined and faithful to the manager; the vacancies are filled by appointment or contest); d) *the principle of functional hierarchy* (the control of the lower positions by the upper ones), e) *the principle of neutrality* (the objectivity excludes the partisan or personal spirit); f) *the principle of formalism and time serving* (the actions take place according to a set of rules and regulations specific to each hierachic position); g) *the principle of promoting* (according to seniority and competence); h) *the principle of efficiency*; i) *the principle of predictability*. [5]

The pattern has proved its value over time. Beyond their outspoken double attitude, the democratic or totalitarian systems have created the proper space for its affirmation. Communism, argued R. Aron, claimed its originality by using a mix between bureaucracy and the party's revolutionary spirit, as a modality to accelerate the development of means of production. The pluralistic regimes required bureaucracy three qualities: efficiency, neutrality and representation. [6]

This fact has given it supporters and critics as well. Its limits have been noticed by experts in organizational psychology, sociology and management: strict specialization, strong centralization and dependence of the formal authority, strict rules; the conflict between the administrative personnel and professionals (G. Moldoveanu); unjustified increase of employed staff (Parkinson's Law) it generates professional incapacity and inability of adaptation (Veblen); it develops special preferences, dislikes, discriminatory attitudes and

unnatural behaviour (Dewey); it causes a waste of resources, low efficiency, auto repressive and oppressive climate, to be noticed "the irrational reason of bureaucracy" (B. Kliksberg), "the dominance of the amateurs, the lack of valuable specialists, the lack of talent and of managerial counsels ... the lack of staff with management training" (Fulton); the dissolution of responsibility, the concentration of authority, the formalism and ritualism, the bureaucratic sabotage (Sava, Sima) [7], "The bureaucratic mechanisms are ... rigid and inertial, having a slow capacity of change and adaptation ... a social instrument in the service of repression" (Bennis) [8]; in the bureaucratic organizations, the achieved marginal cost exceeds "the marginal value of the sponsor" (Nickonen). [9]

Bureaucracy is ambivalent and beneficial, as well, (revolutionary through functional mechanisms) and also autocratic (it confers unlimited powers to any government or leader that serves). At the administrative level, remarked G. Le Bon, the bureaucrats tend to "become true leaders of a country. Their power is so much higher as, in the continuing change of government, it is the only one that remains irresponsible, deprived of individuality and perennial." [10] All-embracing and evil, bureaucracy dominates all the members of the organization, including its leaders. The leader depends on it and not the other way around, because its power lies not in a person but in the system; when it is strong, bureaucracy is revolutionary, regardless of who plays the lead role, he must use the existing mechanisms without which they cannot govern. Thus, the leader who shows "hostile reforming tendencies should be afraid of bureaucracy as of the most ruthless and revolutionary enemy." [11] It develops, argued L. Acton, within any type of political regime and form of government, including the democratic organizations. The society's evolution offers surprising conclusions: in an election campaign, regardless of the number or colour of the competitors, warned A. Toffler, the only winner will inevitably be "a party bureaucracy (the invisible party of bureaucracy)".

2. Technocracy as a Maximization of Bureaucracy

Although bureaucracy and technocracy have common aspects - rationality, efficiency and specialized competence - they also differ.

Technocracy values the principle of neutrality, strongly denying the presence and role of politicians and parties in the society's management. This idea was later reiterated by some sociologists or political leaders. G. Washington, N. Ionescu, G.A. Nasser, J.P. Narayan, S. Huntington etc. expressed their option even for a "democracy without parties."

According to the theorists H. Smith, J. Burnham, J. Monett, JK Galbraith, Z. Brzezinski, J. Elull etc., technocracy signifies a "government in its technical ... form", a system of society management exercised by technicians (specialists in organization, management and control in each area), which implies that "democratic incompetence should make use the technocratic competence." [12] This practice aims *a leadership of maximum efficiency*. This ideal does not relieve it from the inherent limits of industrialism: a) it balances the technocratic leadership against the political leadership and contests the role of parties and of the traditional bourgeois institutions in the society's leadership; b) it claims the usefulness of the social revolution; c) it exaggerates the importance of the RST implications in the social and political system, the scientific government being a "species of the type once Plato proposed" [13]; d) it postulates that incompatibility between democracy and efficient use of science and technique in the process of the social leadership; it skips the democratic control, it promotes the so-called *professional democracy*, in which the technical intellectuals claim their role in promoting the interests of each sector; the state becomes an "mechanism based on programs rather than consensus." [14]; e) it establishes the emergence of a new social category – the technical intellectuals (production managers, engineers, managers, supervisors, chief commissioners) - able to provide the scientific leadership of the society; f) the economic fixation; g) lack of perspective; h) the respect of the hierarchy (the virus of elitism). [15]

The myth of the rescuers technocrats shattered before it was imposed. The idea that "future politicians will be recruited from among experts and scientists" is seen by G. Sartori as "a risky prediction ... a government of scientists would not have too many common elements with a scientific government ... the scientific politic will use its technical knowledge as a very efficient

instrumentum regni, as a domination instrument well perfected ... the today technocrats could conceive of a rational society whose aim is to achieve scientifically guaranteed goals, realised by scientific method." The generalization of rationalism will not make of society a better one. "A society in which Reason decides everything for everybody – in this meaning of life and its values – does not deserve our interest." [16]

This fact does not invalidate the role of managers who must advise the policy makers. The switching to the information society, based on the technological civilization, knowledge and rationality, will make unnecessary the presence of political personality. This will be replaced by a new type of personality – the expert. The latter one does not guarantee the achievement of the ideal society, but enables one with fewer problems. Not incidentally, Brzezinski anticipated: the future will b a technocratic society.

3. From Technocracy to Adhocracy

H. Minzberg (in "Inside Our Strange World of Organizations") claimed that adhocracy, specific to the information society, remains a species of the bureaucratic society.

The rhythm of today changes has exceeded Weber's expectations, "and not even bureaucracy can keep pace." If Weber foreboded the bureaucracy triumph, Bennis predicted its end "primary structures of authority, with power concentrated in the hands of a small number of people ... a social system suitable for the performance of routine tasks." Beyond the obvious limitations, bureaucracy does not disappear, it will find specific ways of adapting to a changing society, and the bureaucratic vertical will be replaced by other types of functional organization, flexible according to the needs of the future.

The "adhocracies" (Bennis, Mintzberg, Toffler), "the concerted groups" (L. Wunderman), and the "network organizations" (T. Judge) differ from the bureaucratic ones. They are "dual organizations" or "multiple organizations." The adhocracies, the ad hoc organizations, are the result of accelerating change, "the organizational geography of the over industrialised society will become more kinetic, more shifting and fluctuating ... we make head in what concerns the administrative structures, from permanence to transition ... form bureaucracy to ad-

hocracy." [17] The slow bureaucratic organizations "are replaced by units of work, temporary or adhocratic teams, alliances and business consortia more and more complex. Hierarchy is flatten or eliminated in order to expedite the decision making. The bureaucratic organization of knowledge is replaced by the free flow of information." [18] The future organization involves creativity, boldness and professionalism. In Toffler's view, adhocracy - in all its forms of manifestation - is characterized by mobility and the emergence of the associative individual, with initiative and free expression, flexible, adaptable to new situations, dedicated to labour and not to the organization, neutral towards any organization, concern only in the issue, his own career and achievement.

The two human types characteristic to bureaucracy (the organizational man) and adhocracy (the associated man), concluded Toffler (in "Future Shock") are opposed: a) the organizational man is subordinated to the organization, the association man is detached from it; b) organizational man is interested in its economic security, not associated man is not concerned with it; c) organizational man is afraid of risks, associated man goes to meet them; d) the first one respects the hierarchy, looking to earn prestige within the organization, the other tries to obtain them outside the organization; e) the organizational man has a fixed position in space, the associated man is mobile, according to his interests; f) the organizational man solve routine problems, the associative man faces new problem, innovates; g) the organizational man always subordinates his personality to the team, the associative man only episodically.

The enthusiasm did not prevent him to notice the paradox adhocracy, which "increases the adaptability degree of organizations, but it weakens the people adaptability." The transience of organizational relationships induces, in Bennis' opinion, "social and psychological tensions", causing great adapting difficulties to the individuals bred and educated for a life with a slower pace. [19] In conclusion, the future organizational type will require an inspired combination between "bureaucratic rationality, flexibility and adaptability of organization formulas such as adhocracy." [20]

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GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS ON THE DEMANDING CONDITIONS SPECIFIC TO THE MILITARY ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

Today, more than ever in developed societies, the human being is subject to numerous and various demands. But, the most frequently and intensely “assaulted” area is that of the psychological. And if in peacetime complex issues of knowledge, understanding, valorization, adjustment, instruction and preventionism emerge, in order to keep the psychological system functional in its integrity, all these issues grow and become more intense in crisis situations. Within armed conflicts (crisis situations), no matter the extent, the role that equipment has, the fighter is always the strong point, as well as the weak one, that victory and failure depend on. It becomes evermore obvious that there is no invincible fighter, that once a line is crossed, any combatant can cave in.

Keywords: valorization, adjustment, instruction, psychological system

We sometimes say that humans control nature; we think of ourselves as capable of special accomplishments, of outstanding physical or intellectual performances, we thrive to surpass ourselves, to escape, by setting ourselves free from the invisible straps of biological, psychological and social determinations that fence in our long-dreamed freedom. Many times, though, life brings us back to reality, reminds us of our limitations – be they inborn or acquired – and of the fact that we cannot accomplish more than we are skilled to.

1. Demanding Conditions – Conceptual Clarifications

Any physical activity is more or less demanding for the human body as a whole or subsystems. In the military, the demands are special, sometimes pushing the human physical and psychological limits. In battles, especially, the normal daily activities cycle for which the human being is biologically programmed and socially accustomed as a mature person, is disturbed.

The human being acts and reacts efficiently, his/her performance being influenced by his/her environment as a bio-psycho-social being.

Stress and overstress the human body has to deal with result in a great energy consumption both physical and psychological, energy-loss that will lead to fatigue, sometimes exhaustion, a decrease in performance and behavioral bewilderment, and, in extreme cases, to the endangerment of the human being's integrity and life. [1]

The human being is in permanent relation with his/her environment, materialized into action or reaction. He/she only reacts, most of the times, to events/happenings.

They can be interpreted in three ways, as follows:

- favorable or nice;
- neutral or unimportant;
- annoying or dangerous.

This assessment is performed according to individual criteria and principles. Even if some of the events in a person's life have no physical effects, one should consider the fact that they could have psychological effects. Beginning with 1975, when Canon's research was made, it has become obvious that fear, pain, fury, are accompanied by numerous functional changes in the case of different organs. The human being evaluates a given circumstance and prepares his/her body for an action. For instance, if a situation is not interesting for an individual, he/she stays put in order to observe its evolution or to get involved in more interesting activities. If the situation seems dangerous, he/she will do everything in his/her power to avoid it, to stay as far away as possible from it. If the danger cannot be avoided or prevented, the individual will commit to fighting against it.

As long as the individual has the ability to react to given situations, it's safe to say that he/she can adjust his/her subjective state (for instance reduction of the intensity of fear, amplifying the state of

comfort and safety by means of avoiding the situation) and everyone has the freedom to look for solutions to keep safe. The question is whether every person has the motion possibility or uses all the circumstances in hand. The answer is an easy one: by means of the limits set by customs, habits, dispositions, from within work groups, the freedom to look for and apply solutions becomes inoperable.

The way of life is not always able to adjust and control behavior, the way of seeing things, the ability to ensure a state of safety. One of the possibilities in hand is to force the change of the given situation. If there is a possibility to overcome obstacles, the individual will reinstate his/her movement space. But many times he/she has to give up, because he/she realizes that there is no chance of changing anything or that the current relations are stronger than his availability. Talking about movement status, it can be stated that he/she is passive. Probably, in the beginning, the thoughts are on resolution possibilities, but then, he/she resigns and indulges him/herself in the given situation.

In 1931, researcher Dumbo analyzed human behavior in the situation of unsolved tasks. Subjects were supposed to throw circles at a given distance onto sticks or flower stems. The experiment was repeated and it lasted for a couple of hours.

The conclusions included each subject's reactions, the intensity of subjects' focus on solving the given task. Attention was also paid to the different avoidance possibilities that lead to complementary and unreal solutions, or even exit from the experiment's field.

An important group is that who acts subjectively, under the impulse of an emotional state, against external and internal barriers, a group that imposed itself. Subjects violate given indications or convenience and try to achieve the proposed goal. This group's action is a short one and solving the task is of no importance. All subjects want is to surpass that barrier and right after completion of the respective actions they become aware.

The effects are different for people in critical or stressing situations. The stress could be psychological and the critical situation, a material one. Because of the fact that the human being possesses psychosomatic reaction structures, the danger perceived is transformed into fear for his/her life, and this leads to changes in the

functioning of vital organs. The human being perceives a constant threat of his/her corporal integrity that cannot be avoided. The stress is more of psychophysical nature, because the individual feels a constant need to fight the environment's adverse relations. It is, in fact, the wish and constant fight for life, for on-going comfort. It is not a return to the state of tranquility and expectation.

A distinction should be made between *chronic situations* or those which evolve and *acute situations* or those which appear unexpectedly. The human reaction to these situations is individually directed. In the case of acute situations, most of the people react in the same ways. Different behavior can be explained by means of different perception on the situation. The surprising emergence of a situation makes it almost impossible to take some countermeasures.

In the case of chronic situations, life experience and character have a lot to say. The individual in question has the time to make an overview of his/her entire life, to look for protective strategies and put them into practice.

2. The Phases of Chronic Psychological Stress

First, the subject has several means to avoid or counter measures and consequently, the situation is not concerning. He/she is convinced that help will come and the situation will be solved. With this feeling, the subject waits quietly, with no anxiety whatsoever. He/she can identify danger, but also the fact that it is temporary and that is normal in day to day life.

The inability to help oneself

After a while, the individual realizes that he/she is alone, that other people cannot help him/her. He/she has to help him/herself with the means available. If he/she has already tried these means and results fail to appear, he/she enters the first phase of helplessness. The subject understands that there is nothing to do by him/herself but can still hope for some external help and salvation. All these possibilities cannot be predicted or sure, but the trust that help will come keeps him/her up and going. He/she may even rely on unreal representations or the intervention of supernatural forces. This very trust provides the individual with a certain degree of safety and comfort in this phase.

Lack of Perspective in Solving the Situation (Hopelessness)

The second phase appears when trust and hope no longer have value, when all is lost. The individual has the feeling that no one and nothing can help. He/she understands that life will go on like that for an unlimited amount of time, with no rescue perspective. Any intention to change is useless and all the ways toward the future are closed.

In this phase of lack of perspective motivation disappears and apathy appears. Specialty literature mentions notions like hopelessness, despair. Hope is a human feeling that relegates to the future. The most adequate notion to be used is lack of perspective in solving the situation, because this is more stringent instead of how the individual will live in a month or in a year time.

Individual decision

Although sometimes there is no reason for turmoil and stress, the individual perceives danger differently, and feels like fate struck. As a consequence, the state of resignation, passivity and inactivity appears.

After a bigger amount of time, when the individual no longer can or wants to put up with the situation, he/she decides to make a decision in order to solve the situation. This decision can consist of suicide, or giving up all efforts to protect and lead life under the difficult circumstances (psychogenic death as a result of psychological causes).

The results include loss of feelings, like happiness to be alive, the ability to survive a.s.o. the individual no longer sees a way out, and hence, any future-related subject has no value.

3. Acute Forms of Psychological Stress

In the case of acute forms of psychological stress, psychological disorder occurs and the psychological functions no longer connect properly. The individual loses perspective on life possibilities. Various psychological functions are isolated and no longer supportive for one other. The dimension of the human being's action space reduces, but anyway it cannot be used properly.

The acute state leads to psychological stress.

Specialists in Psychology highlight the fact that psychological stress appears under two types of circumstances, as follows:

- there is too much information for the psychic to process;
- the subject is threatened by a danger and he/she has to deal with or avoid. Once the causes that led to psychological stress disappear, everything goes back to normal and psychological resources are regenerated. The individual leads a similar life, no matter the changes occurred, but it all ends when death intervenes. This is determining evidence that the phenomenon in hand is a psychosomatic physiological one. If, afterwards, psychopathological symptoms appear, most of the times the cause is latent disorders.

These phenomena are presented below.

Dismay (consternation)

This is a strong, violent emotion caused by something dangerous and unpredictable.

As a consequence of sense excitation, often caused by unexpected noises, the human being is in a position to experience horror. These states can also appear as a result of changing situations (for instance a sudden door opening and the unexpected appearance of a person). The minute the individual realizes there is no danger, he/she quiets down.

Nervous breakdown

This is a specific form of acute psychological functions' disequilibrium, caused by a strong emotion. A general, sudden, violent disequilibrium of body functions appears, provoked by various external causes and that manifests itself in a physical and psychological disequilibrium.

Researcher Bappert stated in 1980 that every person, as a result of intense psychological stress, is inclined to present malfunctions that can be defined by the notion of nervous breakdown. These states appear especially when physical weakness states are long prepared by tiredness, undernourishment, and illnesses.

These states often appear because of unwanted or unpleasant situations that always lead to severe psychological stress. The individuals are often in a state of exhaustion.

Nervous breakdown occurs as consequence of acute psychological and intellectual stress.

Both fear and nervous breakdown can be considered to be states of normal behavior. No abnormal phenomena appear and they are not connected to dangers that could affect the individual's life.

Dangerous Situations

It is an entirely different situation when an individual feels threatened and fear appears. The threat determines the subject to leave the respective area quickly in order to protect his/her physical integrity and life.

The dangers could affect the physical integrity and the fear for one's corporal integrity appears (such as fear for illnesses, wounds, mutilation a.s.o.), but there are some other dangers threatening the psychosocial status of the individual and that results in social fear (fear of breaking up, authority, guilt, a.s.o.)

In analyzing fears one should consider the objectivity of danger or the subjective evaluation of the given situation. Another thing to consider is the difference between having or not a solution of solving the situation, of handling danger.

Panic

This is a violent state of dismay that a person or collectivity experiences.

The subject is in danger and has one solution, that of solving the situation, of finding a way out of it. The motion action consists of leaving the respective place. Any delay would increase the effects. That same reaction can be observed in the case of psychosocial dangers. If, under the impulse of the moment, the individual makes a bad choice, it could happen that by leaving the situation the effects be grater than the ones inferred by the danger itself.

Psychogenic Weakness

The subject is in a dangerous situation that puts him/her under psychological stress. But, as a consequence of the fact that, sometimes, there is no real danger, he/she stays put until overwhelmed with tizzy, then entering a phase of fear and lack of self-help.

Lack of Emotions

The extreme form of danger is reflected in the fear of death (during earthquakes, accidents, chronic diseases a.s.o.). The subject can hear and see what is happening to him/her, but is helpless. He/she does not experience fear or pain.

In a lifetime, the human being is confronted with a lot of obstacles. He/she is often able to overcome them and solve limit situations. There are, however, situations and dangers that stress him/her to such extent both physically and psychologically that he/she does not have the ability to overcome them. [2]

4. Factors that influence the military psychic

Concerned with performance in human action, optimum behavior under normal circumstances and especially under risk and stress situations, specialists have tried to answer questions like: what determines the adjustments to environmental changes; what's the relationship between psychophysical resistance and human behavior and what exactly depends on them? The attempts to answer these questions have resulted in the factors that determine a decrease in psychophysical resistance and stress induction; classifications were made and corresponding synthesis.

General classification of factors. Apprising the direct connection of the three elements in discussion - psychophysical resistance, adequate behavior, determining/agitating factors – a first classification can be made, according to the *factors' nature*.

a) **Physical Factors.** This category includes: environment (temperature, light, sounds); atmosphere, life and working conditions (shelter, clothing, food, tools); the individual's physical development level (force, height, agility, coordination of motion).

b) **Psychosocial Factors.** This category includes activity motivation, group and individual relationships, management style a.s.o.

Another way of classification could treat factors as internal; those directly linked to the individuals, and external, independent of the individual's will and power to intervene.

In the military, a specific classification was adopted concerning factors and elements that determine a certain level of psychophysical resistance and stability. Elements belonging to the same factor can, under certain circumstances, transformed into causes that determine the reduction of psychophysical resistance and induction of stress.

c) **The Human Factor** highlights the elements that directly influence psychophysical resistance:

- physical elements: fitness and degree of physical maturity;
- biological elements related to sex, race or other anatomic-physiological specific features;
- psychological elements: the quality of psychological processes and products; psychological maturity level; the need, tendencies, motivations, interests, ideals systems; the quality of emotions a.s.o.;
- cultural elements regarding the level of general and specialty knowledge as well as the level of training;
- aptitude-attitude related elements that involve : habit quality and diversity; the degree of motivation, interest in performing a certain type of activity. For the military field perceiving, accepting and exerting consciously and deliberately the role of soldier-citizen is of outmost importance together with the ability to take risks and accept the sacrifices of military action.

Normal intellectual development, having basis knowledge, as well as the necessary habits and abilities to correctly evaluate tasks, the degree of danger that war missions bear and the rapid determination of the minimum level of energy necessary at a given moment.

An interesting approach to the elements that have to do with the individual, consists of *the factors that favor stress aggression* (heredity, insomnia, bad diet, smoking, unsatisfying work, family instability), on the one side, and on the other, the factors that favor *stress resistance increase* (good heredity, sense of humor, good diet, alternative stress, tangible goals, good sleep, satisfying work, family harmony).

d) **The Equipment Factor** is analyzed in accordance to the requirements and principles of ergonomics because the development and the increase in equipment costs have taken to the foreground the problem of adjusting equipment to the human limited capacities. Consequently, the following elements impose a constant increase of psychophysical resistance:

- the construction, functioning and use characteristics of modern fighting equipment, impose special effort of the military especially from the psychological, intellectual and rapid assimilation points of view;

- the technical solution of equipment orders (form, amplitude, action resistance) require a higher or lower energy consumption, which leads to tiredness, sooner or later;
- the functional status of fighting equipment (viability, attrition degree, spare part existence) determines a certain degree of trust in the respective equipment;
- the level of pollution produced by the equipment (physical, chemical, sound pollution).

f) ***The Environmental Factor*** highlights the composing elements of action ambiance, as follows:

- physical and psychological characteristics if the military action's environment (light, temperature, humidity, altitude, noise, vibrations a.s.o.). these elements become very important for the psychophysical resistance when lines are crossed and stress appears, placing existence at risk;
- the military specifics, group-relations quality and cohesion;
- the satisfaction of material and cultural needs, especially those of relaxation. The last needs further details.

Just as a person cannot keep on doing the same activity, a combatant cannot be kept in continuous fighting missions. The combatant needs rest and nourishment in order to have the ability to fight; but another need is that of relaxation after maximum effort. This is why prolonged stress takes the mind off fighting actions to the loved ones – wife, children, and parents.

Various and numerous studies have proved that *food privation* has the following limits: one can live without food for 20-30 days, 6 months with half of the food necessary. Hunger appears soon after food privation but it disappears after 72 hours, being replaced by general weakness, dizziness, apathy a.s.o. Psychophysical resistance is maintained at an acceptable level and negative psychological phenomena are not irreversible if the individual has some spiritual activity during the period of undernourishment (like discussions, information exchange).

Research on the effects of sleep privation on psychological and physical capacities have resulted in the following conclusions: total sleep privation has negative effects in the psychological resistance (after 72 hours of wake hallucinations appear, the combatant is no

longer fit for mission completion, partial sleep privation leads to behavior disturbances and performance decrease); the level of psychophysical resistance under prolonged activity circumstances, with partial sleep privation, is influenced by the character and complexity of military actions; the predominantly mental activities are strongly influenced by sleep privation, as compared to physical ones; young people deal better with sleep privation situations than the elderly.

a) ***The Task Factor*** influences psychophysical resistance:

- the work regime has an important impact on psychophysical resistance: the work intensity and speed and the work principles and norms based on which the activity is conducted.

The work regime can favor great performance with minimum energy consumption or, on the contrary, unproductive and stressful because of the management methods or interpersonal relationships, in opposition with norms which would result in futile energy consumption.

- the action's temporal dimension is in interaction with its intensity or speed. When the two elements reach extreme values, overstress appears and the life of the individual is in danger.

The temporal dimension of activities is related to the amount of work that needs to be performed in a given period of time. In headquarters' activity, for instance, many times decisions have to be made quickly and the amount of information that needs to be processed in order to make that decision is huge. Under the pressure of battle the energy consumption level is very high, the quality and stability of psychological processes being put to test, as well as the self-control capacity and negative psychological phenomena prevention, variables that test commandants' requisite qualities.

The task factor influences differently psychophysical resistance in relation with the individual's responsibility within action. For the military field the difference between the degrees of responsibility at various hierarchical level is obvious. Conducting and completing a task brings about evaluation and self-evaluation of effort and results. Work rewarding is stimulating for further effort and under appreciation results in lack of subordinates' enthusiasm and an

intensification of effects regarding the decrease in psychophysical resistance.

b) Factors that deal with enemy potential or real presence and action. Any psychological analysis in this area should consider the qualitative and quantitative enemy value; equipment quality and quantity; psychological actions conducted; aggressor's behavior towards the civilian population in occupied territories; treatment of prisoners and renegades.

c) Battle-field related factors: precarious life conditions, mass illnesses potential; long periods of expectancy and sudden change of situations; lack or flow of information; the quality of management and its impact on interpersonal relationships.

The presence of the presented factors within the action dynamic variably, results in normal behavior. When these factors surpass certain limits and their influence is exacerbating, the military's activity is directly affected, psychological stability is deranged and the effort capacity decreases.

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MILITARY MODELS OF APPROACHING PROFESSIONAL STRESS

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Abstract

The military profession infers a high degree of specialization, as it is involved in the management of violence. The military have special social responsibilities, as the military profession is state monopolized (the society has a general, continuous and direct interest in the essential qualification of military personnel).

Stress is a key concept in military psychology and from the way this phenomenon is conceived within military activities a series of practical activities related to psychology application derive: selection of personnel, armed combat training process approach, forces' management in time of peace and at war a.s.o. a special focus was on the military personnel with complex positions or specialties, with a high degree of pressure on specific abilities and aptitudes.

Keywords: military profession, stress, peace, war, pressure

Stress is a key concept in military psychology and from the way this phenomenon is conceived within military activities, a series of practical activities related to psychology application derive: selection of personnel, armed combat training process approach, forces' management in time of peace and at war a.s.o. a special focus was on the military personnel with complex positions or specialties, with a high degree of pressure on specific abilities and aptitudes.

1. Military profession specifics

The military profession infers a high degree of specialization, as it is involved in the management of violence. The military have

special social responsibilities, as the military profession is state monopolized (the society has a general, continuous and direct interest in the essential qualification of military personnel).

The military personnel are not motivated by economic reasons, because this profession is not one of the best paid ones. The motivations for choosing this profession are, first of all, pulsion-type (a lot of the military chose this job at 14; every military bears in mind peacetime situations, but most of all war situations – the more similar to real conditions instruction is, the more passionate they are because they feel accomplished as persons). The intuitive fact that they will be able to make decisions under uncertain circumstances generates a feeling of accomplishment, of exercising their special and specific abilities.

Holland states that vocational choice constitutes an expression of one's personality in the sense that: vocational stereotypes have psychological implications and sociological meanings; the members of a field of activity share common personalities, as well as similar personality development histories; the members of a vocational group, will react many times similarly, leaving a mark on the work environment. Professional satisfaction, stability and professional accomplishment depend on the congruency between their own personalities and working environment. Vasilescu [1], starting from the hypothesis of the "*safety achieved by means of risk paradox*" and one of Szczesz-Friedmann's research papers, states that "... *the persons who orient themselves towards dangerous activities have certain specific psychological structures, certain «personality accents»*" (according to Karl Leonhard).

Status and social role, especially professional one, ensures a type of mask [2]. If well assimilated, this can provide personal identity with strength, form and style. The profession well acquired and practiced leaves a mark on the subject's way of being, by enforcing character particularities and sometimes enforcing them. Professional status ensures not only a "*form*", but also a system of relations and a support for various choices in life. The experience acquired, positive results, the possibility for affirmation, social relations and group solidarity, the respect of the community towards the respective

professional status, define the individual and support the determination of his/her real identity.

All these aspects plead for approaching the military personality system as something different instead of special, starting from the institution specificity, its system of selection, training and survival of the fittest, the environment, the way of conducting activities as planning and fighting.

2. Military Stress Models

Military researchers analyzed stress from the perspective of five models:

1. Individual characteristics-based model;
2. Family-based model;
3. Calamity-induced stress model;
4. Miller model;
5. Stress' multivariables model.

2.1 Individual Characteristics-Based Military Stress Model

Research on the cognitive resistance process was performed at the Swedish Research Institute of National Defense. Researchers correlated Israeli results to Swedish “*in order to understand the sequential process of perception that a person uses in order to obtain a full evaluation of the situation, with the purpose of adjusting to stress*” (Snow, 1984). Two specific models were developed based on a stress-combat conception. The first model, called “*The Evaluation Integration Model*”, includes four stages: orientation, comparison, confrontation and evaluation. The variables specific to these stages are identified by means of a nine-cycle model, called the “*Sequential Adjustment Model*” (S.A.M.).

2.2. Family-Based Military Stress Model

Also called the family crisis model A.B.C.X. (Fill, 1949), it includes the following variables:

- A- intra-family stress;
- B- family members' response availability;
- C- stress factors' evaluation;
- X- crisis or change demand.

The A. B. C. X. double model (McCubbin and Patterson, 1983) includes three supplementary components of after-crisis stress:

- aA- family stress affluence;
- bB- family adjustment resources;
- cC- family definition and importance;
- xX- family adjustment.

Based on the theoretical model A.B.C.X. and A.B.C.X. double model, scales for family investigations were established. Family, event and life changes inventory (F.I.L.E.); family resource management inventory (F.I.R.M.); family crisis oriented on personal scales (F.-COPES). Family adjustment processes are dynamically analyzed in successive phases: family alignment and adjustive response (F.A.A.R.) that consist of the family adjustment and family accommodation phases.

2.3. *Calamity-Induced Stress Model*

A series of studies focused on calamity-induced stress were performed, differentiating “*normative stress factors*” and “*calamity-induced stress factors*”. A multidimensional approach of war trauma was developed. R. Williams and B. Smith, in the paper “American Soldier”[3] enumerated the characteristics of the stress-generating fight (apud Ghe. Arădăvoaice, Psychological Stress in Combat, A.I.S.M. Publish. House, Buc. 1993): life, body parts or health danger, fever, food, water or shoe scarcity; long-term work, insufficient sleep; lack of sexual relations; lack of trust and good-will; loss of comrades and watching people get wounded or killed, limited motion possibilities; incapacity or limitation of orientation possibilities; interior conflicts between duty and self-preservation instincts; acceptance of common living conditions and the imperatives of combat; the feeling that the human being has no significance (he/she is a mere tool); lack of private life and permanent constraint to leave in groups.

2.4. *The Miller Model*

The Miller Model (apud Turcu, 1995, p. 16-17) is to be placed in the context of stress’s physiological theory. This model takes as stress factor the conflict between the tendency of almost reaching a goal and

avoiding it because achieving it a risk must be undertaken. The conflict arises between mutual antagonistic elements.

The Miller Model implies some assertions, as follows:

- there is a rapprochement gradient, the tendency to approach growing as the goal is closer;
- there is an avoidance gradient that increases with rapprochement of the goal;
- the avoidance gradient is higher than the rapprochement one. The avoidance tendency increases faster than the rapprochement one, as the goal distance decreases;
- the rapprochement or remoteness tendency varies according to the force of the outset, its increase augmenting gradients;
- if there is a conflict in choosing between two mutually incompatible answers, the stronger answer will be chosen.

This model is important to military psychology because based on rapprochement and avoidance tendencies, their intensity and distance from the intersection point in relation with the finish, it permits the elaboration of a technology of forming fighters for special missions. This type of technologies would focus on the capacity to control affectivity based on psychological tactics, such as lowering the avoidance gradient, achieving the right degree of motivation.

2.5. Multivariable stress model

The relevant variable, applicable for all stress theories has been included by Mac Donough in his work "*The Stress Multivariable Model*". They have been grouped on six levels, as follows: 1) environmental stress; 2) psychological defense factors; 3) personality variable; 4) moral present mood; 5) adaptation results; 6) symptomatic effects of the stress adaptation.

In Mac Donough's opinion, Stress factors are environmental stress (whom the person generally answers as male or female), working place stress (by assuming the soldier role), family stress as husband and wife or as parent, community stress (as citizen) and self stress.

The psychological support is a cohesion variable (vertical and horizontal) materialized in social informal support (team work, family,

relatives, neighbors and friends) and formal support (social protection agencies and working place chief).

In stress study, the most relevant stress variables are grouped in personal evaluations and stress factor reactions. The model that is under discussion appeals to personality qualities and flaws, self-defense mechanisms, types of evaluations, capabilities to face stress, stress reduction methods, interpersonal abilities and self control mechanisms.

The way that all these personal relatively stable resources are used, depends on personal mood. The mental evaluation is based on the following five components: cognitive (optimist - pessimist), emotional (happy - unhappy), behavior (adaptive – non-adaptive), physical (healthy - sick) and spiritual (mature - immature).

As long as stress situations are dealt with in the right manner there will be no symptomatic effects. On the other hand if the struggle is inadequate, the person will develop psychosomatic symptoms. The result of total disorganization when facing stress factors is psychiatric symptom.

Due to the interpretation possibilities offered, the multivariable stress model constitutes the framework of most military psychologists' involved in stress study research.

3. Adapting the Multivariable Stress Model

Based on existing concepts in Romanian military psychology and by enframing Mac Donough's model within the larger interactions psychopathology model drafted by A. J. Marsella we suggest a military stress model that could be used in the research of the Romanian military. This model has as main characteristic recursively, in the sense that what can be interpreted as consequence, could turn into evaluation and coping antecedent. This does not mean, however, that any effect will necessarily turn into cause, which generates other effects; so it is not circular.

The proposed model includes basis components: the environmental, person, interactive and stress response components.

3.1. The Environmental Component

This component is represented by stress factors. According to Marsella, three dimensions of the stress agents can be explored: category, content and descriptive.

a) *Category* refers to the specific field where the stress factor comes from. When defining the human as a bio-socio-psychological being, we come across three types of pressures: physical environment pressures (responded to as male or female, generally speaking), self stress (aware person) and the demand of groups or of the society as a whole.

b) *Content*, refers to the specific type of stress factor that intervenes starting from one of the aforementioned categories. The content can, therefore, be considered to have a connection with certain response patterns.

c) *Descriptives* are different measurable parameters of stress factors. Among them, the most important are: frequency, duration, form or configuration (sporadic, continuous, ascending, descending, linear or curvilinear a.s.o.), complexity (additive, multiplicative), the fact of being discriminating or identifiable, the possibility to be controlled (by means of personal or social responses), familiarity, predictability, the conflict that the fact that the stress factor can have positive or negative implications can generate.

3.2. The “Person” Component

Represented by the “handling things”, this component includes all aspects (biological, psychological and sociological) of human functioning that can be stress factors mediators. Inter-individual differences on this dimension can explain the very diverse consequences of the same stress factor.

3.3. Adjustment, Coping Component

According to transactional theory, adjustment or coping is defined as a „cognitive and behavioral effort to reduce, master or tolerate all internal and external demands that surpass personal resources” [4].

The quoted definition highlights essential characteristics of coping: A). the role of action and cognitive processes; b) coping is

always a transaction process between the environment and the person (it implies qualitative and quantitative changes of this relation); c) it makes a distinction between adjusting mechanisms and inborn adaptation mechanisms and d). it underlines the existence of more or less efficient forms of coping.

Coping has three stages: anticipation, confrontation and post-confrontation. Anticipation or warning is the stage where the situation can still be postponed or prevented. In this stage the person can get ready for confrontation and can also evaluate its “costs”. The confrontation stage comprises the response, a redifinement of the situation and a new assessment. Finally, the post-confrontation stage deals with analyzing the personal significance of what happened.

In specialty literature there are arguments for a different approach of stress management mechanisms, as process as well as feature, being considered to be part of the personality.

Stress adjustment means can be grouped into three main categories: behavioral, cognitive and biochemical.

The finality of these diverse mechanisms is the same: stress reduction by means of apparent behavior, cognitive mediation or biochemical alteration.

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BIOLOGICAL INVOLUTION AND SELF-ESTEEM AT FEMALE ADULTS

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Abstract

The purpose of the present investigation was to carry out a comparative study between the level of self-esteem of female adults belonging to an organization and the level of self-esteem of female adults that don't belong to an organization, according to the specific biological involution of adults between 45 and 55 years old.

Keywords: *organization, female adults, biological involution, self-esteem*

1. Introduction

Despite the controversies about age stages between different authors in developmental psychology, we consider in this article the 45 - 55 age interval as being part of adult life. Often characterized by professional and socio-cultural identities, this stage is marked by biological involution, tensioned events, depression, and changes in the usual life rhythm. "Middle age crisis" is used by researchers to describe the moment in which middle age women realize the changes produced in their lives, such as getting old, occupational changes, children departure.

Personal successes or failures and others' interiorized opinions influence self – image. As an adult, a person rechanges his/her self-image according to the way in which he/her perceives the corporal self and her achievement. Women without a professional activity or those obsessed with the idea of getting old are more vulnerable in

developing depression or negative self – esteem. Can we talk about differences regarding self - esteem between adult women who belong to an organization and those who don't, while both categories have professional success?

2. Research Methodology

Purpose of the research: to conduct a comparative study on self – image in female adults who belong to an organization and self – image in female adults who don't belong to an organization, according to specific biological involution of the 45 -55 age stage.

Research objectives: to stress biological involution influence on female adults' self – esteem; to identify the biological factors that influence adult women's self – esteem; to point out the necessity of maintaining women's health through their involvement in family and society; to identify the professional factors that influence adult women's self – esteem.

General hypothesis: under the impact of biological involution, women's self – esteem records negative changes, especially in persons who don't belong to an organization.

Specific hypotheses:

1. There is a significant correlation between the degree of biological involution and self – esteem level in adult women (of 45 – 55 years old).
2. There is a relation of interdependence between corporal self perception and social self – esteem in adult women (of 45 – 55 years old).
3. There is a correlation between professional dissatisfaction level and self – esteem level in adult women (of 45 - 55 years old).
4. There is a correlation between health problems associated with the age and self – esteem level in adult women (of 45 – 55 years old).

The investigated sample: all the participants (80 persons) were adult women, with ages between 45 and 55. 41 persons were working in different organization, while 39 women were free-lancers.

Instruments used: biological involution questionnaire; self – esteem questionnaire; social self – esteem inventory; corporal self perception questionnaire; observation guide.

3. Results

Hypothesis 1: The correlated variables in hypothesis 1 are biological involution level and self – esteem level. Bravais – Pearson correlation coefficient was used in order to determine the relation between the two variables. We obtained: $r = -0.406$, $N = 80$, $p < 0.001$. The statistically significant negative correlation allows us to affirm that the hypothesis is confirmed: while biological involution accentuates, self – esteem level decreases.

Hypothesis 2: The correlated variables are corporal self perception and social self – esteem level. The result of the correlation was statistically significant: $r = 0.289$, $N = 80$, $p < 0.001$. Hypothesis was confirmed: as adult women are more satisfied with their physical appearance, the level of social self – esteem increases.

It was also noticed that participants' occupation influences their perception of physical appearance, and social self – esteem. The result of the correlation (Bravais – Pearson correlation coefficient) between participants' occupation and the way in which they perceive their physical appearance was: $r = .265$, $N= 80$, $p<0.005$. The coefficient is statistically significant which means that corporal self perception improves as participants' occupation is higher.

Regarding the relation between participants' current occupation and their social self – esteem, the result of the correlation was: $r = .238$, $N= 80$, $p < 0.005$. The correlation is statistically significant: as participants' current occupation is higher, their social self – esteem is higher.

Hypothesis 3: The correlated variables are the level of professional dissatisfaction and self – esteem level. The result of the correlation (Bravais – Pearson correlation coefficient) was: $r = -.263$, $N = 80$, $p < 0.005$. The statistically significant negative correlation confirms the hypothesis. As participants' professional dissatisfaction increases, self – esteem decreases.

Hypothesis 4: The correlated variables are health problems associated with the age and self – esteem level. The result of the

correlation (Bravais – Pearson correlation coefficient) was: $r = -.245$, $N = 80$, $p < 0.005$. The statistically significant negative correlation confirms the hypothesis. As health problems associated with the age accentuate, self – esteem level decreases.

4. Conclusions

Most of the women (78% from the investigated sample) build their self – image during adolescence. The fundament of self – image construction was corporal self, psychological and social selves playing a secondary part. Therefore, biological involution in adult life determined negative changes in self – image, because the changes associated with the process of getting old are evident and irreversible (on a scale from 1 – unnoticed to 20 – extremely evident, the mean for the degree of getting old is 16, which means a high level of biological involution at the participants in the research).

For testing the main hypothesis, we used independent sample t test for difference of means between the self – image of adult women belonging to an organization and the self – image of adult women who don't belong to an organization. The difference is statistically significant ($t = 4,12$, higher than the 3,62 value corresponding to $p < 0,001$), confirming therefore the fact that the self – esteem suffer, under the impact of biological involution, negative changes in persons who don't belong to an organization. A possible explanation is that the persons involved in an organization perceive their corporal self in a more positive manner (the comparison with others is at a low level as a consequence of standard conduct or uniforms – on a scale from 1 to 5, the mean is 1.7; for persons who don't belong to an organization, the mean is 4.1, the comparison being at a much higher level). Women involved in an organization receive, also, much more compliments and encouragements when compared with free-lancers. This helps them to accept more easily the process of getting old.

The objectives of the research were partially achieved, the necessity of maintaining women health through involvement in family and society and identification of specific differences in the perception of corporal, psychological, social selves of female adults regardless of their social status, their culture or nationality remaining as points of interest for future researches.

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STUDENTS' COUNSELING FOR THE FIRST YEAR ON THE JOB: FROM CAREER PLANNING TO CAREER MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

Once the students graduate, they are facing with a new reality, a different work environment with fundamental differences between university and economic realities of contemporary work life. The adjustment to the professional work life becomes crucial in the transitions to professional employment. The beginning of a new professional position and setting goals for the first year on the job could represent the most important steps in professional development. In the context of lifelong learning society, despite the general competences and professional expertise, building a career implies on-going training and commitment. This paper builds upon those issues concerning the strategies of students' counseling for the first year on the job, thoughts about quitting or staying at the first job, the emotions and feelings normally accompanying the process of professional employment in the first year after graduation.

Keywords: *career counseling, career planning, career management, first job, career strategy*

1. Issues about career planning in the first year of professional employment

What kind of work do I want to perform for the rest of my life? Where are my current work experiences taking me? Are there any paths to the ideal career? Do I have a plan or a strategy for attaining my career's goals? Unfortunately, many graduates and adults with work experience don't have appropriate answers to these questions. Career planning or counseling, specifically in Romania, has no a longer tradition and many began careers with only vague ideas about

their goals and how they could achieve them. Just having the necessary personality, values, interests, and skills and attitudes will not ensure someone an opportunity to perform in his/her preferred career. Some career opportunities do happen by chance, but an informed person needs to learn about potential jobs which may use his/her talents and how to communicate potential skills, abilities and talents in order to be hired. The answer is *career planning*. Anyone who wants a successful career at some point needs to have a career plan.

Career planning can benefit individuals entering a career immediately after graduation and this is the situation we are going to focus on in this paper presentation. Major benefits of career planning are [4]: (i) improved self-awareness and self-understanding; (ii) knowledge of various career fields; (iii) effective decision making skills; (iv) information pointing towards the location of available careers , and (v) skills for marketing yourself. From this perspective, an effective career planning involves assessing personal skills and values; planning; stating career goals, and commitment regarding those goals personally assumed; applying steps to achieve the goals, and evaluating the results. But, in order to become successful, a career planning needs to be a lifelong process!

Many experts in education, generally speaking, and in career planning, specifically, believe that university graduates are not helped appropriately to prepare for the adult life changes, to realize that transition can be difficult, things can feel very unsettled, and feelings can change quickly. Briefly, no one teaches a graduate how to move from the world of the university to the world of employment! There are other many questions without any answer at the time of graduation: how to approach a job offer? What are the goals for the first year of the professional employment? What kind of specific information is needed to help a graduate to solve career problems and make career decisions at this point of his/her career?

There are no doubts: the transition from university to a full-time job is difficult! According to the many views of employers in different domains of activities, the university graduates are poorly prepared for the new and changing workplace. In general, the problems do not reside in the content or academic areas. The problems new graduates

struggle with are more likely to be relational and personal competencies, which are skills not directly taught in the classroom. Consequently, experts in career guidance and counseling field try to analyze the school and social reality and answer to these particular questions in order to understand how to cope with the differences between the university and work environments: how will the student lifestyle change as a new hire? What kind of new relationships can expect? What particular areas might be most troublesome in the context of changes in lifestyle and routine? What kinds of things can a university student do for completing his/her degree in order to help him/her prepare for the first day on the job?

All these issues are associated with the reality of the new job. In one of his books, Professor Daniel Feldman (1987) [1] pointed out his observation about the “entry shock” of university students into new jobs. Trying to help graduates to familiarize easily with this new reality, professor Feldman has underlined some points of comparison between (i) the university and job cultures; (ii) the attitudes and behavior of professor and boss, and (iii) the nature of the learning process at the university and on the job. Reviewing and thinking about these differences might help university graduates in the first year on the job to develop metacognitions that will be more useful in the employment setting.

According to Feldman, the university culture means: flexible time schedule; skipping class sometimes; feedback more regular and specific; long vacations; correct answers to problems; clear assignments; individual competition for grades; rewards based on objective criteria and merit.

Comparing to those issues, a job culture pay attention to different rules and procedure, like: more rigid time schedule; impossibility of skipping work; irregular and infrequent feedback; no summer vacations and few holiday breaks; very few right answers to problems; vague and unclear assignments; evaluation based on team performance; rewards based more on subjective criteria and personal judgments.

As far as the learning process is concerned, university environment values abstract and theoretical principles; formal, individualized, and symbolic learning, comparing to working

environment where learning process is more focused on concrete problem solving and decision making; real life; socialized, shared learning.

The differences are obvious!

2. Counseling approach in developing strategies for adjusting to the first job

In order to minimize the negative consequences of this “*entry shock*” described above and based on the Feldman’s observations, the experts in this field advise university graduates to pay attention to ten possible areas of adjustment which require the development of new metacognitions. In moving from the culture of the university campus to the culture of full-time employment, these new ways of thinking about graduate as a new hire enable him/her to more effectively solve related problems and make appropriate decisions. Those ten possible areas of adjustments refer to [4]: theory to practice; work routine; organizational structure; unrealistic expectations; cooperative attitude; accepting responsibility; management philosophy; recognizing inadequacies; adjusting to new locations; communication.

In this context, the adjustment to the professional work life becomes crucial in the transitions to professional employment. Other authors consider the areas of adjustment divided into three parts, as follows: (i) the job culture; (ii) personal life after graduation, and (iii) first-year financial management [2]. Each area deserves a special attention and is particularly important in setting-up a more effectively thinking way about solutions to problems associated with starting a new job. Some of Greenberg’s suggestions for adjusting to the culture of the work organizations include skills in managing the clock, the boss, and coworkers, as well as skills in handling supervisor feedback in a positive way!

At his turn, Matthew Hennecke [3] suggested that there are three basic kinds of culture in an organization:

- **market**, where the culture emphasizes monetary rewards in order to attract and keep their employees, and is not likely to emphasize prestige, personal development or other values to motivate people.

- **bureaucratic**, where the culture emphasizes *how far* and *how fast* a person can advance within the organization. To attract and develop their employees, this culture focuses on employee's influence and power, status, rapid advancement and increased management responsibilities.
- **professional**, where the culture is focused on the value of the work an employee does, offering the opportunities to engage in meaningful and challenging work, rewarding independence and autonomy, creativity and exploration of the new ideas.

Knowing this information and having a better understanding about these three basic kinds of organizational culture, a university graduate should be able to develop an appropriate strategy for adjusting to the first job and planning the first year of professional employment.

In line with these strategies for adjusting to the first job, Bradley Richardson and Bruce Tulgan (1997) [5] provided ten suggestions for making a successful adjustment from university into the first professional position. They advise the university graduates to take into consideration the following:

- *Learn the business and understand the culture (before you try to change it!).* Learn about the new work organization by reading its history, learning how the different departments interact, talking with workers in many different areas, studying about organizational behavior etc.
- *Learn to work solo.* The new technologies – web, e-mail, fax, cell phone – have changed definitively the boundaries of the office. Nowadays, all of us need to develop skills to work in nontraditional ways and to be self-motivated and self-directed in work.
- *Be your own PR machine.* Doing good work is essential, but is not enough! If this work is not noticed, it will not be probably rewarded. Keeping others informed about your work, the progress of different projects, sharing interesting articles and ideas with the colleagues, keeping your resume and your personal web page updated are only few things

someone can do in order to increase his/her chances to be noticed and get better opportunities for a good job.

- *Network.* It would be a good idea to join professional associations or trade groups in order to keep abreast of changes in the field, maintain contacts, and receive job offers.
- *Get beyond networking.* This refers to investing in long-term relationships with individuals who are creating values in an organization, and could include a mentoring relationship.
- *Reinvent your role.* A new employee, after learning about culture organization and its history, trying to contribute value to the organization, might begin to develop proposal for changing his/her role, for creating a new job description that encompasses what he/she thinks is needed in the organization.
- *Don't complain about grunt work.* It is important not complain about these errands, but use them as an opportunity to learn about the organization and the other people who work there.
- *Doing what you like to do is important.* If the first job doesn't really make the person happy, he/she probably won't do very well, and the results will show it. This is why developing a better understanding of personal skills, interests, and values a graduate could increase his/her chances to get a better job, more suitable with the personality profile and structure.
- *Project management.* Taking control of your own schedule on the job is one of the most important dimensions relating to this issue (who's responsible, for what task, what is the deadline, keep people informed and get feedback etc.). One study found out that 35% of management graduates reported planning and executing a project as one of their first assignments in a new job, without benefit of written instructions, sample or mentoring.
- *Multitasking.* A new job requires a person able to focus on more than one task at a time. For those of us who like to concentrate on just one thing, this can be really challenging. Balancing multiple responsibilities and opportunities requires some new metacognitions involving self and time.

There are certainly no real “secrets” being revealed in these ten items listed above, but they do serve to specify metacognitions that might be useful in approaching a new work situation, especially when we are talking about the first professional employment.

3. From career planning to career management

In line with all above, one of the paper issues is also to underline the several key-ideas related to the way of moving slightly from career planning to career management.

The career planning has not ended at the time when a person starts a new job. Professor Feldman [1] suggested that effective career management ultimately depends on *excellence in job performance*. There is no substitute for outstanding work, there are no shortcuts, and ethical behavior produces always long-term benefits. One of the most important issues is to think that career growth is “not a matter of luck”, or “just knowing the right person and being in the right place at the right time”. However, one can increase the possibilities of luck by working hard, being active in professional and community groups, networking etc. In this sense, luck can be managed and controlled for one’s personal career gain.

In other words, career development is a partnership, a system of relationships between yourself and other important people in your life. A successful career is closely related defined. Success means being good all the time, achieving excellence at all points of the job, even when is not convenient and easy. Moreover, career success depends on how you think about it!

6. Summary

In order to sum up all these ideas mentioned above, related to planning career in the first year of professional employment as a new university graduate, approaching appropriately the first job in life, adjustment to the new reality facing with, there are some critical starting questions which need an immediate answer:

- How does this job match your most important interests, values, skills, and related personal characteristics?
- Are your personality, values, and ways of behaving a good fit for the culture of this organization?

Answering to these questions an university graduate shows self-knowledge and knowledge of options, which are particularly important in exploring occupational and educational alternatives, and it also has a role to play in helping the person to start in his/her first professional position.

In this position, sometimes, he/she might feel alone, lost, uncertain, or overwhelmed. Some of the difficulties might stem from the differences between the culture in university and the workplace. These kinds of feelings during the first year in the new job may signal that a career problem exists or that decisions need to be made. On the other hand, it may be difficult to make commitments given all the opportunities for growth and learning that are presenting themselves in a very short time. This is why a crucial point in the feelings about the new job is represented by communication issues. The quality of the relationship with the new boss, and/or the coworkers becomes very important and determinant for the new career which is about to start.

As we already mentioned, the ability to think strategically and effectively is a critical aspect of the process of adjusting to a new job and moving ahead during the first year of professional development. Adjusting to the new job means taking responsibilities, not being a passive observer in this process, but taking action to create situations and environments that will foster the career development.

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THE IMPLICATION OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AS SUPPORT OF CAREER COUNSELING, IN THE CONTEXT OF INTEGRATION IN COMMUNITY OF PRISONERS

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Abstract

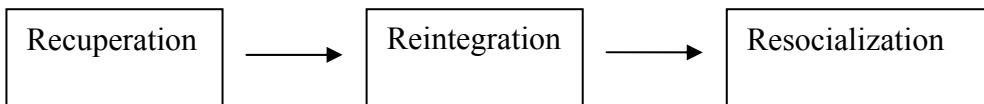
From a pragmatic point of view, the existence of a relationship in the context of implementation of psycho-social strategies that respond to a certain command makes the implication of interpersonal communication in the career counseling concerning the people in prisons, to determine new possibilities of reintegration in community.

Thus the three R (Recuperation – Reintegration – Re-socialization) come together and help these persons find a place in community, acquiring a new identity by finding a role and a social position.

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In this context an important role is given to the persons who, for a limited period of time are in prisons (prisoners), because as we showed above they must identify themselves with the three R



Prisoners, from the perspective of career counseling and interpersonal communication, have a particular position from the following points of view:

- they are adolescent who graduated a school without working or have a certain professional qualification;
- they are young people with a certain professional degree in certain fields;
- they are adults who worked, qualified people who temporarily interrupted their work;

and they all ask for the implication of the above mentioned because the imprisonment brings both structural and attitudinal and behavioral modifications which can and have repercussions in time. It is important to mention that in such situations we must begin from:

- knowing = to know who we are and what hidden possibilities lie inside us;
- wanting = not only to know but also to concentrate our will for their study and development and in the end to use their unlimited possibilities;
- daring = to have the courage not only to rediscover ourselves but also to dare to discover another human being stronger, more intelligent, healthier, more useful to our family and to the world we live in

All these are enumerated in the context in which the prisoner needs help, and from the point of view of the social rehabilitation, prisons in collaboration with AJOFM (district agency for recruitment and employment) has qualification programs and viable and specific offers of jobs in view of social reintegration of prisoners.

Generally, these qualification courses organized in prisons both for women and men are in certain fields such as:

- tailor, shoemaker, hairdresser, watchmaker
- cook, waiter
- constructor, builder,
- computer programmer, computer operator.

Together with specialized services of AJOFM there are different organizations, foundations and association which develop different programs and have an important role to psychological and social preparation of the prisoners, future beneficiaries of a job, interested and willing to regain his identity in community.

That is why we have to make this people conscious of the fact that everything depends on them, that they need will, patience, understanding, interior force and mobilization of interior resources, acceptance regarding their hard but temporary situation and that they need the power and desire to overcome all the obstacles that can appear to a certain moment.

These obstacles can directly refer to the prisoners, such as:

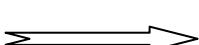
- interests that violate other persons freedom or rights;
- weak will;
- inconsequence;
- confusion concerning the future;
- not knowing his own interests;
- low motivation to overcome an obstacle;

Also they can refer to situational factors such as:

- unemployment;
- low wages;
- ex-convict mark;
- other persons;
- getting used with being a prisoner

All these above together may determine the beginning of deficient sequences to the level of personality development of a prisoner.

The unwanted reverse of our entire work of career counseling and interpersonal communication may be interpreted by the appearance of sequences of:

- inadaptability
- marginalization  relapse
- isolation

more specific, the appearance of the risk of relapse, by doing another crime, as a result of social uprooting of the ex-convict.

This work is not at all easy, on the contrary, it supposes a lot of responsibility, the relation between the transmitter (E) and receiver (R), being very special, that is motivated from all points of view.

In prisons, these services of offering education under all aspects including the social ones, resume in the following phrase: "Finding a job it is a relative issue. If it is an easy or a hard way, it depends on each of them. The one who really wants to work, to enhance his own abilities, to build a future, to realize projects and fulfill dreams, can, sometimes, after long and hard efforts, achieve something on a professional level. The one who starts with hesitations, and gives up at the first obstacle, who wants to obtain a lot without doing anything, will not succeed; he will remain a burden for himself, his family and society".

In such circumstances, it is important that the positive example of success to constitute in a basic element of work motivation, so that an ex-convict or a convict to be motivated to have a career. These is the situation where the personal contract appear as a form of identity of the subject through which he appreciate his knowledge, his image, his self esteem, developing a positive appreciation of himself with psychological and social connotations.

Using this method of capitalization and psychological and social evaluation as the final of some therapeutic programs, the presentation has some attitudinal connotations such as (Pasca M. D. – 2005)

- I want to change and I am glad that I have someone to help me. I will listen to my future colleagues of work. I will be polite. I want to learn everything they will teach me. I know I can be good and that I can work. Please trust me and take care of me so that I will not despair. (S.E - 16).
- I will not go back to my gang. I know I can earn my living by work. I have to work if I need money. I am already better. I can't wait to meet my colleagues of work. (AMD- 16)
- I try and I think I will succeed if I want to. I want to be good where I will go. I like cars. I will start to change. I hope I will not fail again. (BM – 16).

All these personal contracts show, through special ways of approach of the minor prisoner, that he needs to change, that if he has a chance he can, he wants, he will try to find support in people around him, but especially that his new social role ensures his stability, security, trust, responsibility being the first step towards his true social integration in community. He is not allowed to miss the chance he had

been given in the difficult times of his existence and during his personality construction. The results will be seen in time.

In the same context of professional integration and of the methods of implication of interpersonal communication and career counseling, therapeutic story has a special place, teaching him to be a survivor (Pasca M. D. – 2008): “what matters the most is your opinion about yourself. You must find, in life, a role that fits you and then you give up acting: your profession is “to be”, Quentin Crisps reminds us in his play *“The Naked Civil Servant”*.

Under such structural connotations blend the elements of counseling and communication with prisoners. The anticipated result is a self rethinking under several aspects, including the social role that he will assume in time.

Giving him our trust, but also making him responsible, we will make the relation CI ↔ CC function based on the fact that the three R, mentioned in the beginning, will structure new personality profiles that will belong to community, being in the castle not outside.

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RESILIENCE – CONCEPTUAL APPROACHES

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Abstract

Resilience is an often heard word these days, in vary situations, but not many people knows the exact meaning of it, wondering what actually it defines. There are many definitions of the resilience and because of this, became relevant the works of the field researchers which tried to snapshot the true essence of the phenomena. The resilience means the human ability to face, to resist, to endure the environment preserving the good health, to grow stronger and finally to evolve as the result of the confrontation of life adversities no matter harder or easier.

Keywords: resilience, definitions

How do people manage the difficult events they are confronted with? Most of the people react in these circumstances with a wave of strong feelings and with incertitude. Today, people adjust more easily to life changes and to the situations that have as a consequence a higher level of stress. What makes them capable of doing that? The answer is *resilience*, a process that takes time, effort and the successful passing through different stages. It means “the big comeback” from difficult experiences. Developing resilience is a personal journey. People do not react in the same way to traumatic events and to stress. A strategy for building resilience that works for a person, community or a country’s population could not be efficient for another.

The concept of resilience has an important impact on the interests of experts, science people, analysts and other responsible in the domains of health and security of population because it appears in a time of rapid transformation of the society (in the last 100 years there were more changes taking place than in the last 3000 years); in a time of incertitude and disquietudes regarding the capacity of facing them, of a negativist attitude regarding everything that happens today, attitude which determines a state of fear that is transmitted to children and to young people [1] and last but not least, in a time of a poor social-economical situation of the majority of the planet's population a time when the brutal threats addressed to the individual and to the collectivity have increased its number, threats among which we signal the terrorist attacks, more active at the beginning of this century and millennium.

The concept was introduced for the first time in 1969 by the psychologist and psychanalyst Fritz Redl. In the years 1980's many studies dedicated to resilience appeared, followed by other studies made in the USA at the end of the last century, under the influence of Emmy Werner [2] and John Bowlby [3].

Today there are several resilience institutes in Netherlands, Resilience Universities in USA and Germany and even a doctoral school at University of South Dakota. In Quebec, the most well-known analyst in the field is the pedo-psychiatrist Michael Lemay, and in France, Boris Cyrulnik [4], disciple of John Bowlby, specialist in this field renowned for his researches on human and animal behaviours.

The term of resilience enjoys current use in today's world and is applied to various fields. We speak of moral resilience, physical resilience, social resilience, communitarian resilience, cultural resilience, ecological resilience, etc. The word resilience comes from the latin word *rescindere*, which means to annulate or to resiliate a convention, an act. This notion is presented in the angle-saxon dictionaries as the moral resort, the quality of someone who does not let himself be turned from his way [5].

At its origins, in *metallurgy*, resilience designates the quality of materials, connected with elasticity and fragility which manifests itself

by the capacity of coming back to the former state after a shock or a constant pressure.

For an *informatician* resilience is about that quality of a system that enables its correct functioning despite of the defects of one or more constitutive elements. The English language uses the term “system resiliency” to explain, function of context, by tolerance to breaking and tolerance to anomalies (hidden vices), the insensibility that is associated with the weakening of the resilience.

For the *ecologists*, the resilience expresses, on one hand, the capacity of recovery or regeneration which characterizes a living organism or of the population, and on the other hand the aptitude of an ecosystem of recovering after different perturbations (variations of temperature, fires, disasters). For example the water willow has resilience because of the flexibility that characterizes it, this tree being most of the times the only tree that is not destroyed by strong wind blasts.

In *socio-economy* there have been recently introduced the expressions: “resilient business” and “resilient community”, that appear in the American and Canadian publications when they are confronted with the problem of evidenciation of the intrinsic capacities of the enterprises, organizations or communications of finding their former balance, or a new balance that can assure their functioning after disaster or in conditions of continuous threat.

In the same context we can speak about nationalities or faiths that benefitiate of cultural resilience. Many cultures and peoples have appeared and disappeared, some of them have survived; the cultures that have succeeded to survive can be considered resilient. The *cultural resilience* refers to the capacity of a culture to keep and develop its cultural identity and its tradition. Despite the difficulties and provocations they can confront with, a resilient culture has the capacity to survive and develop. A resilient culture can succeed in the fight with the natural disasters or with other cultures and continues to exist and develop. For example, the Jewish people has proved to be resilient at the provocations of the Second World War and the people and the culture of Palestinians have proved to be resilient to changes that have taken place in Israel.

If in *medical science* and *criminology* the problem of resilience is connected with physical resistance as phenomena of spontaneous healing or sudden recovery, in psycho pedagogy it represents the individual's and system's aptitude of facing risk situations, of not manifesting psychological dysfunctions and of re-establishing an emotional balance by a better understanding of the psychological resort.

Next I will present a few clarifying aspects on the content of resilience, especially of population resilience to risk situations associated to *terrorism* and *crime*.

In the work of the ethnologist Boris Cyrulnik, "A wonderful misfortune", edited in year 1999, we find the concept of resilience and its content: "We always wondered about those children that have overcome immense challenge and build a normal life despite all difficulty. The misfortune is not always pure, just like happiness. There is one word that helps us organize our way of understanding the misery of those who have succeeded to survive an unfortunate event. It is the word *resilience*, which designates the capacity to succeed, to survive and to develop despite adversity. Understanding this we will modify our perception on misfortune and, despite sufferance we will search for the wonder, the miracle". [6]

Under the coordination of Boris Cyrulnik, the French researchers have elaborated studies not only for analyzing the sources of resilience but also for learning about the concrete measures that can be adopted in the field of preventive actions: we have in mind here names as Jacques Leconte, Stephen Vanistendael, Michel Manciaus [7]. This can explain why some people have the ability to succeed to recover quicklier than others after a trauma, knowing that there are many situations when certain people are affected and carry the negative psychical effects for a certain period of time or even for a lifetime. Resilience becomes the key element of a good mental state.

We are asking ourselves why some veterans that have fought in different wars are marked for life while others succeed in their career, becoming well-known personalities of political, economical and cultural life or in other domains. The resilience is what characterizes the people that overcome successfully the difficult challenges of life, without remaining affected.

In 1984, Garmezy, Masten and Tellegen have operationalized the concept of resilience during one of the first projects that referred to “the manifestation of abilities at children despite the exposure to stressing events” [8]. Later, Sir Michael Rutter defined resilience as “a modality of manifestation of a person in stress conditions that facilitates the development of self esteem and social abilities of a person, that enables him to raise at the level required for accomplishing the responsibilities”. [9]

In 1994, Masten defined resilience as “an individual way of successful adaptation in a situation, despite risks and adversities”. The author remarks next: “resilience refers at a primary model of action characterized by good adaptation at situations, despite of the risks, of the acute risk factors or of chronical adversity.” In 1995, Gordon defined the resilience in the following terms: “the ability of a person to form and develop his competencies when confronted with an unfavourable situation. These circumstances can include biological abnormalities or obstacles imposed by their life medium. These difficult circumstances can become chronical and consistent or severe and sporadic. For developing these competences a person must bring forth all his resources of internal, biological and psychological resources and also external resources, offered by the surrounding medium”. [10]

In an international project of studying resilience developed in the years 1993-1994 that enjoyed the participation of 30 states, this concept was defined as “the universal capacity that enables a person, a group or a community to prevent, to minimize or overcome the destructive effects of adversities”[11]. The problem of resilience was comprised in the theme of the reunion that took place between 17-18 march 2007 and was organized in collaboration by the Birzei University and the Institute of International Studies Ibrahim Abu Lughod with two Palestinian nongovernmental organizations (Palestinian Counseling Centre and les Enfants du Rue et de L’education).

Resilience represents the human capacity of confronting with the adversities of the medium, resisting and overcoming them in health conditions, the consequence being the transformation into a stronger, better person. These approaches represent only a few of the contents

of the definitions of resilience created by renowned researches in the field. These definitions describe practical situations, which mean for practitioners that some people that are exposed to severe or chronically adversity will succeed to become more competent. In time, these people will succeed to adapt successfully and will need extraordinary resources of biological, psychological and external resources if they want to succeed in doing so. But these people will not be able to face this by themselves; instead, they need support, care and help, not only from their families but also from their community.

Resilience, as a possibility of being competent despite the exposure to severe or chronic adversity, seems simple in the beginning, but is proved not so due to the fact that the competences suffer changes in time. The definition is not simple because the resilience is a contextual phenomenon. The individual characteristics and the medium factors connected with resilience in a certain context can be separated from it in another context. For example, the academic resilience can be connected with a certain set of individual characteristics and with the medium, while emotional resilience will have nothing to do with these factors. Different types of resilience are sustained by different types of factors.

The definition is not simple because of the fact that resilience is a complex. For the apparition of the phenomenon of resilience, several personal characteristics are required, like the social abilities and some medium factors like a proper mentorship. Resilience does not simply appear at a person; instead it is obtained by the combination of the biological characteristics (temperament) and psychological characteristics (internal localization of control) of the person. The role of the surrounding medium can't be ignored, the external factors being very important. The people around, the opportunities, the life conditions, all these factors bring their influence in the equation of resilience. A resilient personality is not sufficient, but the resilience refers to the person and to the medium.

The definition is not simple for other reasons as well. For showing resilience, a person makes great sacrifices and endures pain, confronts stress and terrible adversity. The resilience is followed by emotional difficulties or stress connected with the health problems

specific to each age. Resilience has a cost, represented by emotional and health problems, problems that we cannot ignore.

The enquiries about who are the resilient people and how do they behave are complicated matters. There is no profile of a resilient personality or of a resilient personality, but there are a few characteristics common to all resilient people. These characteristics appear in childhood and continue to manifest until adulthood. It is possible that a person proves resilience in a certain stage of development and later to lose them. Some of the characteristics like the sociability can manifest itself permanently during all the stages of development of the personality, while others, like the ability to control the alimentary behaviour are more specific to some of the stages than to the others.

All the resilient people have in common the fact that they have overcome the acute and chronological stress or adversity situations. We can observe some of these characteristics as manifested at other people, still, if they did not successfully pass through adversity situations they cannot be considered resilient.

The people that overcome intense or chronological stress or adversity situations have certain characteristics that manifest themselves beginning from childhood and continuing at maturity. Starting from childhood, the resilient people are active, full of energy and easy to include in activities. These children usually enjoy a positive attitude from the adults, one of the reasons being the fact that their temper is easy to manage, they respond to stimulus from the social medium and obtain from the adults the required attention. No doubt they manifest themselves as active and determined people with great tolerance to frustration to control their impulses and are able to postpone the fulfilment of their own will in situations that demand abstention. "They have apparently developed a genetical and neurochemical structure made to help them." [12]

The most important process in consolidation of resilience is represented by the development of certain adapting abilities. The resilience appears as the capacity of an individual to overcome difficulties despite, or maybe because of the factors of risk and stress. The resilient people and the communities have the tendency to see the problematic situations as opportunities for development. In other

words the resilience, seen as a psychological concept, implies not only individual but also collective factors.

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- [3] Bowlby John - psiholog și psihanalist englez care a demonstrat că procesul de atașare sufletească a unui copil de figura maternă este un aspect esențial al străfundurilor ființei umane. Dacă acest atașament reușește să se realizeze, respectiv dacă răspunsul anturajului la toate semnalele copilului este adecvat atunci se construiește sentimentul de încredere în sine și de securitate a copilului care va reuși să înfrunte cu atât mai ușor încercările și separările la care va fi supus ulterior.
- [4] Boris Cyrulnik este unul dintre pionerii etiologiei franceze. Neuropsihiatru, psihanalist, psiholog, autor a numeroase lucrări, fost antrenor de înot și jucător de rugby, călător neobosit și poet, acesta a avut o copilărie instabilă și fără familie. Această situație nu l-a învins, din contră, l-a făcut să devină curios față de universul viu. Studiază biologia afectului, forța limbajului, semnele corpului, aplică la om metode de studiu care erau rezervate numai mediului animal, vizitează lumea și creează un grup de cercetare transdisciplinară în domeniul etiologiei clinice la spitalul din Toulon-La-Seyne, cu care dezvoltă un program de cercetare foarte vast, care cuprinde: dezvoltarea umană, complexitatea sistemelor naționale, influența verbalului, a subconștientului și a semnelor de comunicare non-verbale asupra biologiei și a construcției psihologice a individului.
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THE IMPACT OF NEW MEDIA ON SOCIETY

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Keywords: blogs, video games, mobile devices, web-sites

New media is an umbrella-term which includes different technologies. In the opinion of some specialists are considered as new media¹ both blogs, podcast, video games, virtual worlds, Wiki encyclopaedia, and other mobile devices, interactive televisions, and even the web-sites and e-mail.

Others² consider that blogs and virtual worlds must be included in the category of social media because they are encouraging appearance of virtual communities and social networks.

In spite of the differences, some research workers³ identified two common characteristics for majority of definitions. These are:

- spreading the information to a number of receivers which is theoretical infinite, in customized ways, depending on specification for endorsed categories;
- tenure of un equal control about information both of transmitters and receivers.

Other definitions are even more vaguely, considering that new media are represented by all the texts, sounds, images and graphic forms transformed by the computer⁴.

¹ <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/high/technology/6653119.stm>

² <http://whatsnewmedia.org/2007/01/15/looking-back-looking-ahead/>

³ http://rebuildingmedia.corante.com/archives/2006/04/27/what_is_new_media.php

⁴ Guțu Dorina, *New Media*, Ed. Tritonic, București, 2007, pag. 16

THE CONCEPT OF MULTIMEDIA

The new media technology has generated massive social changes in the behaviour and lifestyle patterns of the consumers. New media have shaped modern culture, by affecting the way people behave, communicate, learn and conceive of themselves and their world.

Giovani Sartori announced in the paper „Homo videns, Imbecility through television and Post-Thinking” that we entered in a multimedia period⁵. The concept of multimedia is explained by Sartori through the union in a single media of the written and spoken word, of the sound and the image.

In this multimedia period, that Sartori described, are living together several media, and the television is not anymore the queen of them for some time now. The new sovereign is from now on the computer.

The personal-computer is not only unifying the word, the sound, the image, characteristic specific of television, but introduces now the visible simulated realities, virtual realities. Television is making us see images of real things, she is the “photo” and “cinema”⁶ of the real things. In exchange for the computer makes us see imaginary images.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NEW MEDIA AND MASS MEDIA

One of my objectives is to identify the characteristics of new media and contrast them with the electronic mass media. Given that the medium is the message, I began my analysis by identifying the characteristics or messages of new media that are different from mass media that Marshall McLuhan identified such as the light bulb, telegraph, telephone, radio, phonograph, camera and television.

Studying the specialized bibliography, I identified the following five messages of the Internet:

- 1 two-way communication;
- 2 easiness of access to and dissemination of information;
- 3 continuous learning;
- 4 alignment and integration;
- 5 community

⁵ Giovani Sartori – “*Homo videns. Imbecilizarea prin televiziune și post gândirea*”, Ed. Humanitas, București, 2005, pag 35

⁶ Ibidem

Although one or two of these characteristics apply to traditional mass media, what is unique about the Internet is that all five of these characteristics apply and help define the impact of this medium. As it turns out all of these characteristics also apply to the general class of new media. But these five messages are not complete, and the specialists⁷ revealed that there are also nine other additional properties or messages that characterizes most new media. They are:

- 1 portability and time flexibility (time-shifting), which provide users with freedom over space and time;
- 2 convergence of many different media so that they can carry out more than one function at a time and combine -- as is the case with the cameraphone;
- 3 interoperability without which convergence would not be possible;
- 4 aggregation of content, which is facilitated by digitization and convergence;
- 5 variety and choice to a much greater extent than the mass media that preceded them;
- 6 the closing of the gap between (or the convergence of) producers and consumers of media;
 - social collectivity and cooperation;
 - remix culture which digitization facilitates;
 - the transition from products to services.

Although some of the electronic media McLuhan studied had one or two of these 14 characteristics, by and large these properties apply primarily to new media. The telephone permitted two-way communication but it was a stand-alone non-portable technology until the emergence of the cell phone. The very first form of the cell phone embraced two-way communication and portability but did not incorporate the other 12 messages of new media. The smartphone today, because of interoperability and convergence with other media like the digital camera and the Internet, now aggregates content, provides variety and choice and promotes social collectivity.

New media today seem to have 14 distinct messages that intertwine and support each other. Digitization makes interoperability,

⁷ www.mediashift.com, Robert K. Logan - *The 14 Messages of New Media*

two-way communication, ease of access to information, continuous learning, convergence, aggregation of content, remix culture and the transition from products to services possible. Aggregation of content

leads to variety and choice, community, social collectivity and cooperation. Remix and digitization helps close the gap between user and producer, which in turn builds community, variety and choice. Ease of access and dissemination of information leads to continuous learning; social collectivity and cooperation; remix culture; and the closing of the gap between user and producer.

NEW MEDIA CULTURE

Nowadays, the TV viewers can attend the favorite TV transmissions on the screen of the computer. The PC is exceeding by far the native function and now it plays the role of television and multimedia center. It is used in the same time for downloading the TV transmissions from the Internet and to program the digital registration of high definitions and also to see the programs.

In a converged media world, consumers use Apple iPods to make their own music playlists. Personal video recorders allow them to customize television schedules. These consumers⁸ pull stock-market updates, text messages, wallpaper, ring-tones, and short-form video into their mobile phones. They come together in online communities, generate their own content, mix it, and share it on a growing number of social networks.

In this new-media culture, people no longer passively consume media (and thus advertising, its main revenue source) but actively participate in them, which usually means creating content, in whatever form and on whatever scale.

THE BEST PLAYERS OF NEW MEDIA

Today's media revolution, like others before it, is announcing itself with a new and strange vocabulary: Blog, Podcast, Wikis, Wikipedia and Vlogs.

A blog, is a type of website where entries are made (such as in a journal or diary), displayed in a reverse chronological order. Blogs often provide commentary or news on a particular subject, such as food, politics, or local news; some function as more personal online

⁸ www.asiamedia.com, Serajul I. Bhuiyan, *Impact of new media technology on society*

diaries⁹. A typical blog combines text, images, and links to other blogs, web pages, and other media related to its topic.

Podcasting is the method of distributing multimedia files, such as audio programs or music videos, over the Internet using either the RSS or Atom syndication formats, for playback on mobile devices and personal computers. The term podcast, like radio, can mean both the content and the method of delivery. A podcast however is distinguished by its ability to be downloaded automatically using software capable of reading RSS or Atom feeds.

Wiki is a piece of server software that allows users to freely create and edit Web page content using any Web browser. Wiki supports hyperlinks and has a simple text syntax for creating new pages and crosslinks between internal pages on the fly. Wiki is unusual among group communication mechanisms in that it allows the organization of contributions to be edited in addition to the content itself.

Wikipedia is an international Web-based free-content encyclopedia project. It exists as a wiki, a website that allows visitors to edit its content. The word Wikipedia itself is a portmanteau of the words wiki and encyclopedia. Wikipedia is written collaboratively by volunteers, allowing most articles to be changed by anyone with access to the website.

A vlog or videoblog is a blog which uses video as the primary content. A typical vlog entry combines an embedded video or video link with supporting text, images, and metadata.

THE EFFECTS OF NEW MEDIA ON SOCIETY

The impact of this new media on society is varied in both positive and negative outlooks.

Internet makes everyone a publisher and everyone a librarian, in that anyone can both produce and retrieve an unprecedented amount of information. The gate-keeping and agenda-setting functions of the traditional media establishments are bypassed in favor of search engines and directories. Ideally, this means that any person with Internet access (still a fairly small number, confined primarily to the developed world) can gain information about any issue, event, or

⁹ Ibidem

place, without the restrictions of time, expense, geography, and politics that used to limit such information gathering.

By chatting with strangers in chat rooms and reading internationals newspapers online, we believe that we are learning about foreign cultures and perspectives directly from the sources.

What is new in this type of communication is that young people today, and not only they, are happy to decide for themselves what is credible or worthwhile and what is not. The old media model was: there is one source of truth. The new media model is: there are multiple sources of truth, and we will sort it out. The mass media audience is no longer a captive, today's media consumer is unique, demanding, and engaged.

This has profound implications for traditional business models in the media industry, which are based on aggregating large passive audiences and holding them captive during advertising interruptions. In the new-media era, audiences will occasionally be large, but often small, and usually tiny.

In fact, the Internet does provide ample opportunity to gain knowledge about far away places, and offers a means of interacting across geographical expanses. In this sense, it is an ideal medium for establishing the sort of "cyber-peace" that is so earnestly desired. By personalizing news portals, web search guides, etc., the user is able to completely isolate himself or herself from issues that require knowledge and experience outside his or her own.

There is a loss of personal one-on-one interaction with real-time voice calls being replaced by multimedia messages. However real-time video calls are empowering people to not only talk to each other while on the move, but also see what each other means through their facial expressions and mannerisms¹⁰. Camera phones and recorders permit users to abuse the technology by taking away privacy rights, however they also allow the opportunity for the moral user to capture special moments.

Furthering this, mobile phone convergence enables greater freedom for the user as they can access their emails and videoconference without being chained to the office, however it

¹⁰ <http://m/cyclopediaofnewmedia.com>, *Mobile phones - convergence - social impact*

makes them answerable to the workplace as they can always be reached through any communication.

INFLUENCES OF NEW MEDIA ON TELEVISION

Statistics shows that traditional television is the media that lose more supporters than any other media in favor of the Internet as the broadband connections to the Internet are spreading. In the same time, the Internet opens new possibilities for the evolution of classical television. So that, a few years ago, after the resounding success of Youtube, (famous for his huge collection of video clips that are seen by millions of visitors everyday), there came out the first television which are broadcast only on the Internet.

Today, the scenery of the TV audience is changing in the whole world and began to look like a desert¹¹ are telling the specialists of the industry. And the first guilty in this case seems to be the Internet which has created so many parallel channels.

Media experts also recognize that there is a revolution in media industry everywhere in the world brought by new media technology or convergent media that changes the way of communication in society.

In the last three years, in the Romanian media landscape there came out some televisions which are broadcast only on the Internet. Some of them have personal contents, others are collecting videos from varied sources, and organize them for the Internet viewers.

ONLINE TELEVISION IN ROMANIA

I will review the most important online televisions from Romania. Until now there have come off Evo TV, Liber TV, Brain TV, HappyFish, Shock TV, Metalhead TV, Arena TV and Tv Copii. The first three of them are the most visited and important online televisions in Romania, consequently the presentation below will refer to those three televisions.

Evo TV was launched a year ago, in April 2007. The site has interesting columns such as: News4Aliens, Exclusiv Evo, Ro.Mania, Entertain Tv, Beauty Tv, Inside Evo Tv, Green Tv, No limits Tv, Girls Tv, Good music, Training Tv, Business Tv, Imobiliar, Sănătate Tv, Show Tv, Reality Tv, Monden Tv. The videos are EvoTV creation,

¹¹ www.zf.ro, Mihai Musatoiu -Telespectatorii schimbă canalul: de la televizor, la Internet din 8 Feb 2005, aşa cum a fost recepționat la 14 Mar 2008

their topic vary from high society to music, cinema and entertainment, whole of them having the young public as target.

LiberTV has an impressive collection of movies, transmissions, documentaries and podcasters some of them realized by Romanian people. The novelty in this case is the possibility of downloading the videos, but the visitors must install Liber TV Player to reproduce them afterwards. For the moment, all the videos are free for downloading but in the future, the manager of Liber TV is planning to add some sections accessible only for a rate.

BrainTV is the youngest of the three, she started on June 2007. The target is made of intelligent people who are avoiding the soap operas and the “ultramegasensational”. For the moment the videos are reduced to interview on different themes: Internet, Business, Advertising and Showbiz. The comments which are accompanying each video are clear so that the choice is very simple.

The online televisions in Romania are still developing. Under the circumstances is a matter-of-course to ask us if online television can replace traditional television. For the future, precisely in the next two-three years, the chances for the online television to replace of the traditional one are minim.

The online televisions must still fight to form their own public and to equalize at least in diversity the classical tv channel. For all that, online televisions are an alternative which will gain ground thanks the public who is targeted and the new media latest trend.

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CULTURAL CONSUMPTION PROPOSED TO CHILDREN FROM FAMILIES IN RURAL AREAS

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Abstract

The study conducted on a sample of 120 families in the rural county of Arad has as main objective to highlight the characteristics of cultural consumption proposed by the parents of children of primary school age. Matters pursued are as follow: the degree to which the family members are dealing with the leisure time of children, suggested activities for children, the type of books and TV shows proposed to children, the degree of satisfaction of parents on the activities chosen by children. Analysis and interpretation of the data showed among other things that most parents exercise control over cultural consumption proposing the reading of books dedicated to children, trying to choose TV shows.

Keywords: cultural consumption, family, children, commitment, education

1. Introduction

Family is the first social group offered as framework for social becoming of child, namely the internalization of social norms, the socialization, a process closely related to educational activities carried out in the family. Pavel Muresan defined socialization as: "the process of integration and adaptation of a person in society by appropriating the cultural products of the society, the ways of thinking, occupation, rules and moral values, legal, scientific, political and social roles within the family, schools, institutions, organizations, and profession."^[1]

Parents are the first to get in contact with the elements of culture characteristic for the community they are part of to which the child is

to be integrated to. BEAUVOIS [2] emphasizes that the culture means all the influences that are opposed to the customary nature, communication and speech, beliefs, representation. Specific to a particular culture are cultural practices that are practical, they can be observed and compared. They are part of the concept of culture along with social customs, habits, shared set of behaviors and transmitted by members of a community. From this cultural perspective consumption involves a series of actions that individuals do to access products of culture in order to achieve satisfaction and recognition. Reported to this consumption, in our study we try to find which are the actions that parents do in order to ensure the access of children to certain cultural products, designed to contribute in some ways the child's education.

2. Objectives and hypotheses

The main assumption I started with in the realization of this study is that parents in rural areas offer to children activities that can be comprised mainly in the school and the household area. A second hypothesis that we want to verify in this study is that watching TV programs and using computer have a large share in the activities proposed by parents to children. The objectives of the study were: to find the degree to which the family members are dealing with the leisure time of children, identify the type of activities proposed and to highlight the degree of satisfaction on the consumption culture of children.

3. Sample

The universe of people who refer consists of families who have children aged between 7 and 11 years. The sample, consisting of 120 families was obtained by sampling the layers, including families from the villages and municipalities in the county of Arad in all their size and distance from the city of Arad. In each locality were 6 families chosen at random, on the condition that there is at least one child aged between 7 and 11 years in the family.

The structure of the sample by age shows as follow: 11% of parents are included in the age 20 -29 years, 60% between 30 and 39 years, 25% between 40 and 49 years and 4% peste50 years.

Depending on the level of education of parents, the sample composition is as follows:

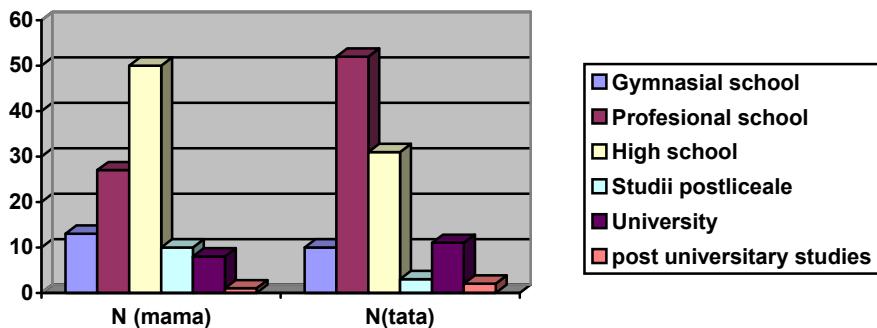


Figure 1: Comparative histogram for the parents' educational level

As regards the occupation of parents, they vary from employer, doctor, and teacher to the farmer, worker or student in isolated cases or unemployed. The vast majority of mothers are employed as workers (26%) or households (17%), and in terms of fathers they are engaged in the percentage of 54% as workers, distribution of other parties ranging from employer, officer, farmer (8 people) to the military, unemployed (one person).

4. Analysis and interpretation of data

To collect the data necessary for attaining the objectives of the study was used as a tool of research a questionnaire. Dependent variables were: the involvement of certain persons in the organization of leisure and cultural consumption of the child, the type of activities proposed to the child, satisfaction of the parents on the cultural consumption of children and the priority aspect offered to children by their parents. Independent variables concerned: age, education level and occupation of parents, and the level of family income. Cultural consumption as a whole and the concrete actions taken by the child requires the mandatory involvement of an adult for organizing these activities. Given that at that age parents are the people most present in the child's life it was important to see to what extent they engage themselves in the leisure time of the child and they establish cultural offers for it. In this regard, the data reveal that the mother is the one who spends more time with the child: 77% of mothers are dealing with the child in very large measure, 20% - in large measure,

only 1.5% stating that deals only in small measure. The percentages show everything else when it comes to the father's care activities, education or leisure with children. In this case, increases the percentage of those dealing in small measure (18%), here are also occurring cases in which fathers are dealing with children in very small extent - 8%, only 10% of fathers involved in such activities in very large extent. Remarkable is that grandparents are asked to organize activities for children in very small extent or some extent in more than 50% of cases, not at all present in 10% of families. Only in more than 20% are families where grandparents are involved in very large measure or largely in activities with children. A lower percentage and is recorded in the case involving older brothers in the education of the smaller one, if only 15% of the families that there are usually more likely to have older brothers being responsible for spending time with the child to a large extent. However it remain high percentage of families in which siblings or more people from outside the family are not at all involved in organizing activities of the child (44% higher for brothers, 64% for paid person). Comparative analysis depending on the level of education of mother and father for the involvement of different people in the organization of children have shown that in general, regardless of these variables, the mother is the one that is involved at the greatest extent in these activities. Thus both in terms of educational level and the occupation of both parents, in what concerns the involvement of the mother, the mean is over 4.5 on a scale from 1 to 5, the mean involvement of father is around 3 - 3.2, and that of grandparents ranges from 2 to 2.3. The results of the significance test Kruskal-Wallis show that there are no statistical differences regarding the involvement of parents of children in activities related to the occupation and level of education of mother and father, the mother has remained the one that deals with most tasks in organizing children's activities. We can nevertheless identify a tendency toward statistical difference (with a $p < .10$) in the case of fathers who have graduated high school: this average is 2.8. It is possible that in this case, fathers are busy with activities for income becoming, a willingness to take less time to deal with children.

Cultural consumption supposes also the actual activities that are proposed by the parents of children. In this respect, cultural activities

proposed by parents frequently are religious activities (with an average of 4.14 where 1 means nothing, 2- extremely rarely, 3 - rarely, 4 – often and the 5 - very often), reading books – the mean being 4.10, followed by learning a foreign language - 3.92. With a frequency high enough there are proposed activities like playing outdoors, sports, household activities, additional learning activities (average values varies between 3.11 and 3.32). Kids are proposed to a lesser extent the activities involving using computer (3.02) and the watching TV programs (2.53). Among the programs that children are encouraged to access the majority are cartoons, entertainment shows for children, movies for children, but in some cases it is encouraged to watching documentary shows (Discovery Channel, Animal Planet), and as books there are recommended books with stories, school books and books with religious content. Comparative analysis of the variables has highlighted the fact that there are significant differences for activities involving learning more practical skills training and playing in the park or on the street depending on the mother's occupation and for watching TV programs on the basis of the father's occupation. The test of significance has highlighted significant statistical differences for the proposal to meet with friends depending on the level of education of the mother and a proposal to meet with friends depending on the educational level of the father.

Compared with these activities proposed to children, we have considered important to identify the level of satisfaction of parents on cultural activities chosen by children. Parental responses indicate a medium to high degree of satisfaction on these activities; it results an average of 3.72 - with a minimum of 2 and a maximum of 5. There is no statistically significant difference in terms of the degree of satisfaction according to the independent variables. Any complaints may come either from lack of time allocated to the activities of the child or of limited access to some resources and cultural products.

A final point is the one that investigates the importance that parents give to the aspects of their relationship with children and their chores as parents. They were required to prioritize these issues from 1 to 8 where 1 is the most important and 8 less important. The results are averages shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Table including the media on the conditions offered to children

	Material comfort	Condition for learning	Playgroup	Satisfying the wishes	Time spent together	Understanding and acceptance	Affection	Rules of good behavior
N	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120
Media	4,68	3,52	6,17	5,90	3,84	3,70	2,87	5,22
Median	5,00	3,00	7,00	7,00	3,50	3,00	2,00	5,00
Standard deviation	2,21	1,91	1,78	2,09	1,87	1,95	2,20	2,03

5. Conclusions

Following analysis of data can be found that our main hypothesis is confirmed, the activities proposed by the parents of rural children are generally grouped around the school and the tasks of the household. Another category of activity that has the largest share is that of religious activities; as a natural consequence of the weight the religion has in the life of people from rural areas. Watching TV broadcasts are still a small share, but the use of computers already started to become a more present to the parents as variant for the child to spend time.

Another important aspect is that priority as a condition of the insured child development and education is considered affection that parents should give to children, followed by the conditions for learning. This reality is supplemented by that referring to great and mainly involvement of the mother in the educational activities of the child.

The importance of these issues is driven from their contribution to the possible intervention of agents in family education to encourage and guide the parents in the structuring of a harmonious and beneficial cultural consumption for children.

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THE FORMS OF RESILIENCE AND THEIR ROLE IN PEOPLE'S RESPONSE TO RISK SITUATIONS ASSOCIATED TO TERRORISM

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Abstract

Considering resilience the process of successful adaptation to hardships and the challenge of difficult life situations , the present paper presents its forms: individual, social, political, focusing especially on the individual psychological resilience with its five levels: maintaining emotional, health and well-being state, concentration on the inner world : abilities of solving the problems; concentration on the outer world: a strong self; well-developed resilience abilities; talent of transforming bad fortune into good luck.

Keywords: resilience, resilient personality, trauma, recovery

Starting from the necessity of putting together all of the aspects specific to resilience, by considering the modality in which the individual perceptions work in the case of a terrorist attack, Joseph Henrotin [1] considers that the forms of resilience are:

- individual, understood as the human capacity of overcoming the psychological trauma produced by an attack or another traumatic event, with its derived forms (the affections of posttraumatic stress - Post Traumatic Stress Disorder-PTSD)
- social, representing the capacity of a society in its ensemble, to surpass the consequences of an attack and to accomplish the conservation of culture without producing a state of negative psychosis that would cause the taste and the satisfaction of victory at the enemy
- political, that shows the capacity of a society of not representing its sufferance on political ground and of not taking part in a crisis of legitimacy sustained by an antipolitical feeling. In Romania we

can estimate that a terrorist attack in the socio-political context of today's world could generate a visible development of the right extreme or of other antiromanian groups, with most negative effects that are beyond our imagination.

Resilience, looked at through such perspective, surpasses in many ways the human capacity of individually absorbing the trauma caused by a terrorist event, and focuses on its understanding as a central point of a strategy that has as a finality the articulation of all state activity connected with the internal and external security.

We can appreciate that resilience is the starting point but also the final point of the individual and collective reaction at the action of the factors with negative influence over the people. In figure no. 1, resilience appears as an answer to the aggressivity of external threats; its capacity and level of function are given by a previous preparation and a period of recovery.

The diversity of risks and threats pointing at the quality of resilience can bring diversified answers that extend on a large scale; this determining new and important transformation in what the future of the system is concerned, changes regarding its forming, growth, and consolidation.

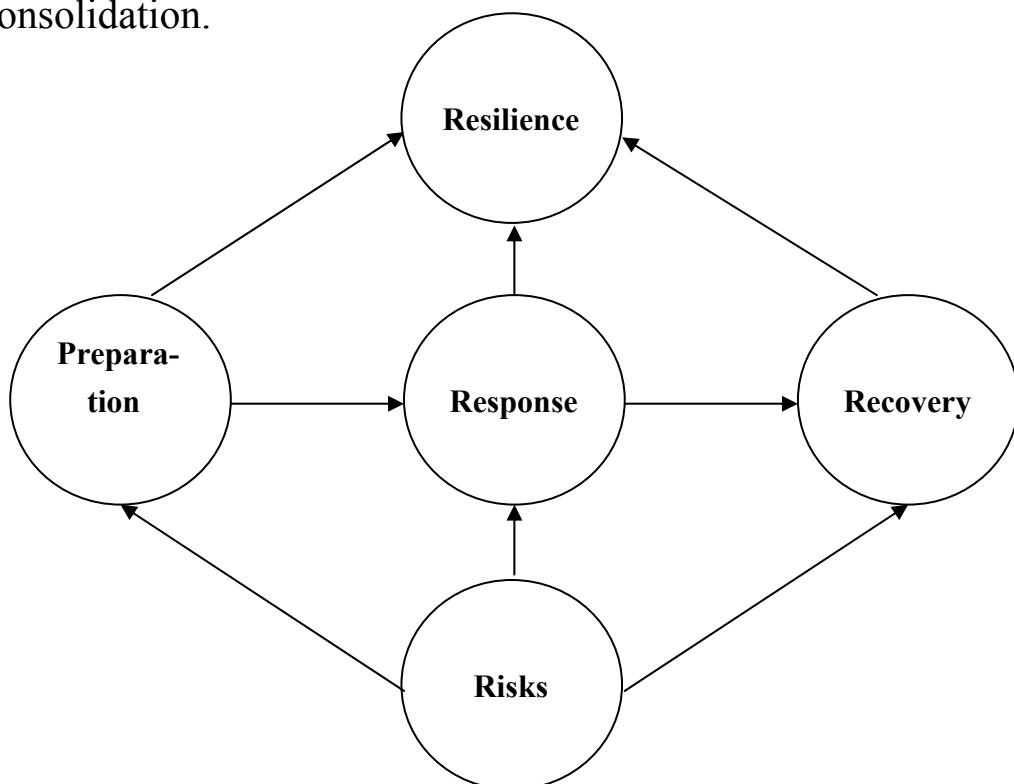


Fig.no.1. The Corelation between the quality of resilience and the action of the agresion factors

When you are confronted with an adversity or your life is destroyed, how would you adjust to it? Some people feel victimized and blame the others for what is happening to them. Some stop, resign, feel hopeless and helpless. Others are angry, loose their control and tend to hurt the close ones.

The few ones left, still, try by their own means to find a way to adjust face to adversity, and sometimes they succeed to make things go well. These are the best survivors, people endowed with an extraordinary capacity to overcome the crisis and the extreme situations. These are the resilient personalities, stable in stress situations. They quickly restore their emotional balance, adapt and overcome successfully the stressing situations which make them stronger and even succeed to transform the bad fortune into good luck.

Resilience, at the level of the structures of the health systems has a specific content, an approach based on concepts as risk, vulnerability and resilience, which implies the exploitation of the studies on population groups and on issues as physical health and mental health.

Enjoying a special attention in the health field, the psychology of development is the one in charge with the handling of this concept, by implying the official and unofficial services of violence prevention.

According to Eurensaft and Tousignant the concept of resilience represents a change of paradigm: we give up notions as risk, vulnerability and psychopathology for concentrating our attention on individual's capacities and on the connections between him and his group [2].

People overcome successfully the dramatic, traumatic, risky situations of life with the condition to have a series of demands assured: care and help from the others, positive thinking and success expectancy, the opportunity of taking active part in activities, positive relations with the people around, clear and consequent rules of behavior, abilities to handle different life situations, strong will and motivation for not giving up when faced to dangerous obstacles and to demonstrate they have the strength to overcome.

Resilience is essential in today's world. At the work place, each person feels the pressure of the necessity of working more at a higher qualitative level, with a smaller budget. In personal life the things change so fast that each one has to learn to face the changes, to handle unexpected situations and to overcome the adversities.

According to the American Association of Psychology, resilience is “the process of adapting to adversity, trauma, tragedy or when faced to significant sources of stress”[3]. Another definition refers to “the quality which determines a system to come back to the initial form or to the initial position after a mechanical intervention or, the recovery from depression, disease, etc” [4].

The wheel of resilience made by N Henderson, fig.2, presents in a specific order the important moments of the forming and consolidation of the specific behavior of a resilient person.

If the first step is that of positive expectancies, the last step shows the attitudinal side concretized by the opportunity of the resilient person of taking active part in any situation, even a risk one.

The resilience is the process of successful adaptation to the difficulties or provocations of life situations. The resilient people overcome successfully the difficulties or the provocations of life's challenges. The resilient people overcome adversities reject the pressures without registering dysfunction or inappropriate behaviors. Most of the resilient people become stronger, more confident, wiser and more adaptable as a result of coming through dramatic situations. The answers differ from one person to the other, and, also when they come from the same person in different situations. There is the possibility to form and consolidate resilience knowing that we are all born with a potential of developing these abilities.

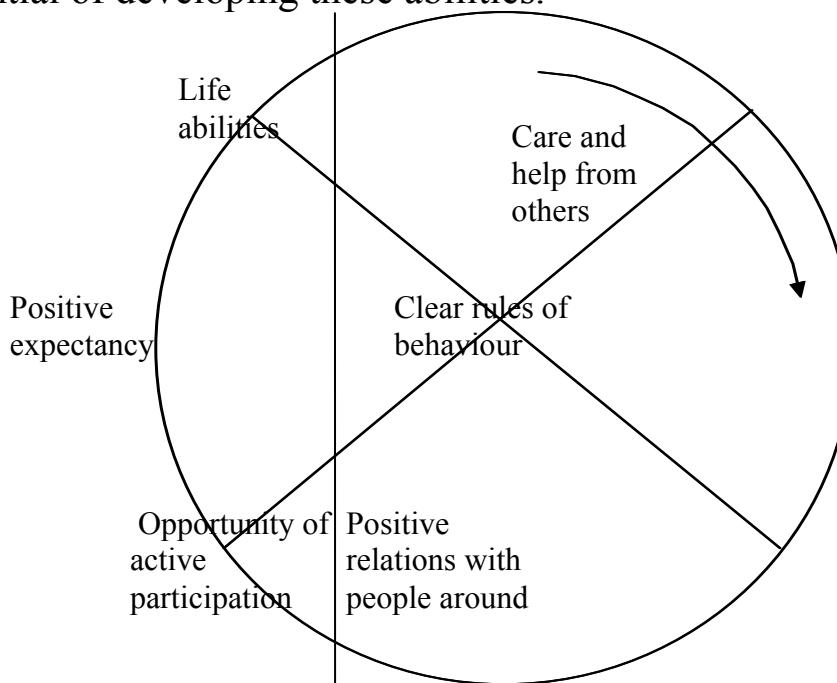


Fig no. 2 The Resilience Wheel (After N. Henderson)

We can analyze the phenomenon of psychological resilience on different levels, that target on the intensity and width of reality perception to which we can response adequately.

The five levels of resilience are:

1. Maintaining emotional stability, of good health and of the well-being state

2. Concentrating on the outer world; a strong sense of self

3. Concentrating on the inner world, a strong sense of self

4. Well developed resilience abilities

5. Talent of transforming bad fortune into good-luck

The first level is essential for maintaining our good health and our energy level.

The second level refers to our concentration on the elements of the outer world, on the provocations that we have to face, the behavior of the people being based on the research and identification of the problematic aspects of the given situations more than on solving the emotional problems.

The third level supposes concentrating on the inner world for increasing our self-esteem and for developing a positive conception on ourselves.

The fourth level covers the characteristics and the abilities that we find at people with superior degrees of resilience.

The fifth level describes what happens if we reach high degrees of resilience, respectively if the person has the ability of transforming bad luck into good luck, which means valorizing the good parts of a situation with apparently no way out.

While some people prove to be more resilient than the others we can observe that resilience is a dynamic capacity that does not always appear. In other words, individual resilience demonstrates a permanent mobility, having in view the fact that less resilient people have moments when they feel down and can't adjust to challenging life situations.

A few examples of resilient people are the following:

- Helen Keller (deaf and blind from birth, has demonstrated a remarkable resilience and has learned to communicate and live with passion);

- Nelson Mandela (after living in prison for more than 10 years he became the president of his country)
- Aung San Suu Kyi (advocate of democracy in Myanmar whose father has lived all his life under threat and in arrest for many years)
- Anne Frank (a young Jew, who became famous for a personal journal in which she has noted the events from the time she was hiding away from the Jews. After that she was arrested and died in a concentration camp.)

Many of the people with high resilience did not become famous.

Their lives were more or less characterized by actions, events, and experiences that do not normally happen in a community.

Very important remains in this respect the action developed during childhood, this becoming essential for achieving the psychological support of resilience on the life long term of everyone's existence.

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THE CITIZEN'S COMPETENCE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS IN THE MODEL OF MILITARY GRADUATE STUDENT DRAWING UP

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Abstract

In order to reply to a social order, the Romanian armed forces adapted a model of graduate student, based on five competences: leader, fighter, military specialist, educator, and citizen. The term "citizen" was defined in two contexts: of laws and of identity, but using it in larger reference area, like the European community or the whole world, implies an evaporation of the concept. The term "citizen" could be used only to define the primordial structure of community, named koinonía, and also to train the military personnel, as developing this competence requires limiting the reference area to the national borders.

Keywords: citizen's competence, model of graduate student, normative context, context of identity

1. Introduction

Due to the society's requirements, the Romanian armed forces built on the educational model a more rigid structure named *model of military graduate student*. It implies a normative context in the spirit of the military educational reform. In 1995, the teleological coordinates were defined by *The Supreme Council of National Defense Decision no. 42*, that issued: "*The educational process provides with training and / or developing of professionalized military personnel basis competences, as follows:*

- *fighter;*
- *military specialist;*
- *educator;*

- *citizen;*
- *military structures and organizations leader.” [1].*

To define the citizen's competence, a rigorous determination of the term's denotation is not necessary, but an integration into the present day issues and an establishment of the terms limits in our contemporary fluid society.

2. The conceptual fluctuations of “citizen” idea. The normative context of definition

Regarding citizen competence, the most important aspect refers to the determination of the terminological limits and of the present-day context of this determination. Chronologically, the first meaning of the term appoints the inhabitant of the city that has rights and obligations derived from this status, and the second refers to the person that belongs to a state, also implying rights and duties resulting from this condition. Gradually, the reference area of the term was changed; nowadays, we are accustomed to use expressions like “e-citizen”, “European citizen”, and “global citizen”. In spite of the specific difference that distorted up to the limit of elasticity, these expressions invoked an “associate status” in the context of widening the virtual or transnational domain of certain applicability of the norms that defy national sovereignty and borders.

Practically, the “citizen” idea comes from Ancient Greece, from where it “has gone” towards present, enriched in reference area, but got poor in semantic content, through the agency of Rome, of the Enlightenment, and of the French Revolution. Therefore, beginning with Old Greece, we have data relating the idea and the praxis of citizenship within state-cities (*polis*). The models of relations and the idea of model citizen were born as a result of real relationship between the individual and the community. The social activity of the individuals determined Aristotle to define man as “*zoon politikon*”, which means social being. In relationship with the *polis*, the individual benefited of his freedom guarantee, his security assurance, or a certain degree of welfare, but he was also obliged to defend it in the frequent conflicts between the state-cities. Afterwards, Rome took over the idea of customary determination of the relations between the individual and the community, leading it till the written norms and the

extension of the number of privileges, to whom it was added the suffrage and the eligibility.

The “citizen” idea implies the relationship with the provenience or adoption group, no matter of its size. But the social relations aiming at mutual benefits have a different consistence in the small groups comparing with the groups extended to the planetary scale, that are impossible to control from the spreading area perspective. The semantic difference, that actually limits a city citizen from a global citizen in our contemporary world, has been built on the displacement of social relation meaning regarding the status, the obligations, and the rights from the relationship between individual towards the relationship between individuals and abstract entities: state, over national organization, the entire mankind.

Being given this evolution term of the term and the forced widening of its semantic reference area, one must study the context of extinction, doubled by poor getting conceptually. The contemporary society is characterized by disappearance of the private space, by proximity alienation, and, especially, by exterior invasion into a virtual interiority. It's about mediation by multiple networks (television, internet, mobile telephony), invasion of a symbolic space of the subject. Jean Baudrillard named it “*the ambient's satelliting*”, Alain Touraine entered his name in post-social, Alain Renault entered his name in “*the individual's era*”. Indifferently of the terms in which the contemporary age is named: post-social, “*ère de l'individu*”, or “*jemenfoutiste*” period, the relationship between the individual and the community is changing in a dramatic manner, comparatively to what the relationship citizen-*polis* represented in Ancient Greece. In the context of de- and re-spacing the world, of its re-cartography, the issue of post-modern politics still remains suspended: it consists in imprinting the idea that in the plan of imagination everything is possible because nothing matters [1]. The suspension of the politics is just the effect of the subjectivity's and individuality's multiple faces that stand for the firm connections with the social.

What to the concept of citizen can relate in individualism's era when the organic community (Gemeinschaft) is replaced by the contractual society (Gesellschaft), respectively by becoming obsolete the objective and hierarchized visions about law and politics [2]? How

to relate the individual to the citizen concept while the legislator instance authorization issue is frequently raised? In what habitat, real or virtual, can the individual find the “citizen” reference area in the contemporary mixture of arguments (logoi) and places (topoi)? These are just a little part of matter that derives from the conceptual getting poor of the analyzed term. And the citizen / citizenship issue becomes as sharp as the term refers to the defining intention of a forming competence.

3. Towards an identity's context of definition

The citizen-community relations imply the level of responsibilities of the involved parts. Not only the normative context is implied in this relationship definition, but the context of identity too. Actually, what from the idea of over-national citizen was born? It was born from the transfer of national competences towards over/national institutions. But transferring the competences doesn't mean transferring the identity.

When, in the relations with the state the citizen is not reporting appealing “*the intimate connection*”, the membership feeling, and the nationalism, there is happening a de-polarization. Actually, “(*... every time when an over-structure (the nation, the empire, or something else) is unweaving, we inevitably return to the primordial structure named koinonia by the Greeks, and there appears the necessity of finding a Gemeinschaft, a link that must be “sensed” and that – how I also said – connects and engages us.*)” [2]. That happens because at the normative level we can contact only the society (*Gesellschaft*), and at the level of identity we relate to the community (*Gemeinschaft*). In the case of this kind of unweaving anomalies appear by introducing the third term in the equation. As a result of this superposition of normative relations state-citizen over the identity's relations citizen - ethncical community of membership a new kind of relation appears between the state and the ethnicity which often leads to an identity crisis.

On the one hand, the individual tries to keep the distance from the abstract society and on the other hand, to relate to the world community implies *an evaporation of the community concept* [3]. We can use, in the happiest case, the cosmopolite term from the 18th

century, *Weltbürgertum*, for appointing the world citizenship. But we still remain in a utopian game. The trajectory from the individual identity (required by the society alienated by the hyper reality) to the *Weltbürgertum* identity (required by the global society) is marked by numerous intermediary identities. “*Between the individual identity of each human being and the anthropological identity of species there is an infinite number of relative and active identities. One of these is the ethnical identity and – by its political, social and cultural reconstruction in the horizon of modernity – the national identity.*” [4].

Nowadays, the state (the nation-state, in the case of Romania) confronts with the issue of traversing the post-social period, as a result of the ideological void, namely with a removal of the accent from the national identity to the individual one. The transfer happens slowly, at the level of each individual that confronts with the plurality from proximity and with the hyper reality of the habitat. But the real aim of this removal is to commute / switch suddenly, from the individual to the regional (frequently transnational) identity or from the individual to organizational (preferably transnational) identity.

The removal of the weight center in a false direction is similar to the American policy “*affirmative action*” that points to rebuilding the differences’ blindness for promoting, finally, “*the undifferentiated citizen*”. If normatively the transnational constraint is a factual reality, at the level of identity the “citizen” concept is evaporating.

The national characteristic and affiliation to *koinonia* issues can be discussed at two perceptive levels: regarding the eternal Romania and the present Romania, according to Constantin Noica’s terms. However a single perspective can offer the real answer, because the national – cultural identity ratio implies congruency, but not the national – political identity.

4. The undifferentiated citizen’s competence

Where are we situating actually? In the proximity of getting poor the citizen concept, from the nomological perspective, by establishing relations with over-national entities (aiming economical, political or military purposes) or in the proximity of enriching the term, by restricting the representational area, at the national identity’s borders?

It is impossible to remove in the community's awareness the accent from the historical and cultural identity of a certain nation to the normative structure of an over-national context. It is so much impossible to still remain connected to a cultural context and to go for an ideological system of over-national norms, by defending in a more extended area a set of values that doesn't result from the requirements of relationship with national culture in the name of some conventions. Practically, there are using some poor concepts like "European citizen" or "citizen of the planet", but it cannot operate with terms like "democrat citizen" (defender of the democracy) or "NATO citizen".

The Romanian Army confronts with issues originated in the classical logics of the integration / difference or in the ratio universal / specific. At the same time it requires the extension of the NATO's normative background and the citizen's competence training for the military personnel. According to the Romanian Constitution, the term "citizen" is integrated in the limits of norms and identity of the state, that is "*national, sovereign and independent, unitary and indivisible*" (the 1st article), that means "*the common homeland of all its citizens, without any exception of race, nationality, ethnic origin, language, religion, sex, opinion, political affiliation, wealth or social origin*" (the 1st article) and that it is based on the unity of the its people and on "*the solidarity of its citizens*" (the 4th article) [5]. "*The citizens benefit by the rights and liberties established by the Constitution and by the other laws and have the obligations stipulated of these.*" (the 15th article) [6]. That is to say that the citizen is the person who benefits by the totality of rights and guarantees offered by the Constitution. In this case, the normative context of NATO, EU, or UN cannot be imposed as references area of term "citizen". Also, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is not implicitly compulsory – there are states that invoke it in their own constitutions, and states that don't do it. That implies the issue of individual contract, not the imposed normative context. The extern normative language becomes just a tool in conventional context, exceeding the national borders. The defender of these norms is not a national hero, but an employer in a contractual mediated by the state relation with a over-national entity, with the purpose of personal material or symbolic benefits.

If the term "citizen" means exactly what the Constitution appoints, then the concept like: "European citizen", "NATO citizen" or "UN citizen" must be defined. And that is because there conflicts often appear between the over-national organizations that give name to these suppositional semantic areas. It must be established when and how one must act standing for "European citizen", "NATO citizen", or "UN citizen". The only solution is a temporary one that is taken at a political level, not at the relationship individual – community, that defines the citizenship. It is impossible, in this case, to extend the reference area of the term "citizen". The constraint leads to the semantic transfer towards what the French Revolution expressed before as "the subject", *in statu subiectionis*, as object and not as subject of power [7].

Another confusion relating to the training of citizen's competence for the military personnel requires the incapability of making the difference between the human rights and the citizen's rights. If the first set is universal and it comes from the natural right, the second one refers to the relationship with the group of membership. The dilemma is so great that there are some cases when to defend the human rights the citizen's rights are not respected. A "humanitarian" intervention (*horribile dictu!*) with a military structure where some citizens' rights are suppressed or restricted cannot take place to defend the human rights. Therefore, the only way is to train the citizen's competence in the meaning of contractual relationship (in *Gesellschaft*, the contractual society) with a certain over-national structure. But training this competence for the military personnel can harm the manner in which the enclosure of citizen's fundamental rights and liberties in the military are viewed.

5. Conclusions

A military that act "compelled" for defending the free world cannot invoke the capacity as "citizen of the free world". This is one of the paradoxes that didn't matter in training the citizen's competence, but in "the settlement" of this formative dimension. In spite of the efforts to accept the opposite cases and to choose the dynamic logics of contradiction, it is impossible to find congruencies between the political game and the idea of developing the citizen's

competence in an imposed normative context. A singular possibility of solving the dilemma still remains: training the citizen's competence and encouraging the contractual relations (at the level of each individual) with the over-national organization. That happens because the obligations of the military trained in the spirit of these competences: leader, specialist, fighter, educator, and citizen cannot enter the political game of different political personalities and contexts. The military trained as citizen defends the national interests, of an eternal Romania, not of a present Romania, in Noica's terms.

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EVALUATION-RELATED VIOLENCE IN SCHOOL: IDEAS FOR A CHANGE

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Abstract

Human violence is without a doubt one of the most recurrent themes of today's society. One of the many forms in which violence can display itself is the school-violence phenomenon. Mass-media now keeps a close eye on the subject, making a solid contribution to the mass-awareness concerning the aggressive and sometimes violent aspect of pupil-teacher interaction. Thus, society has become more sensitive to what we call school-violence and its' causes, and finds itself obligated to admit that school is not an isolated entity, just another brick-walled institution, surrounded by a protective shield that keeps the external turmoil from getting in, and the internal problems from getting out. Today's understanding of school and society submits to an interactive, co-dependence-based perspective, where the conflicts and difficulties influence both parties and therefore are for both parties to solve, together.

The present paper highlights some of the aspects of school-violence, with direct reference to evaluation-related violence. It also focuses on sketching a training program designed to reduce school-violence mainly by generating an overall reflection on the process of evaluation, seen from an educational perspective, the aspects that it implies and how can those generate violence. The first step to change is becoming aware when something is going wrong, and that making it better is in our direct reach.

Keywords: school violence, evaluation, training

1. Introduction

The starting point for the research is the Grant project “Evaluation and micro-violence in the school environment. Relations, prevention and intervention- EMMS”, contract number 4GR/20.05.2007, theme 16/934, from which a part of the data base was capitalized on.

The Project’s general assumption was that pupils’ tendency to display aggressive behaviours towards each another depends on the school-organization’s climate and culture. A number of 196, 10th and 11th graded pupils, 57,14 % girls and 42,86% boys, from a Technological high-school and from Arts and Crafts School, both from Brasov, became participants in the research. In fact, the factors taken into consideration were organizational climate and culture, based on evaluation, on the particular sense regarding schools’ performance and conduct appraisal.

2. General context

After testing and questioning the pupils on matters concerning their general intelligence (Bonnardel53- test that measures the dynamic features of intelligence), their degree of aggression towards teachers, on one hand, and towards colleagues, on the other (Questionnaire for measuring the evaluation-based school climate) [2], and after finding out their teachers’ evaluative style (Questionnaire for identifying the evaluative style) [1], the results showed that pupils from Arts and Crafts School prefer an evaluation style focused on the person that is being evaluated, whereas pupils from technological high school prefer a more norm-centred, task-oriented evaluation. The degree of aggression is higher for Arts and Crafts pupils than for Tech-specialized pupils, if preferences regarding evaluation style are not met. Also, it seems that the IQ of the pupils can indeed influence the school climate, culture and the teachers’ evaluation style: an increased IQ associates with a norm-centred evaluation preference, and with a low degree of aggressive tendencies. Also, bad reviews and grades from teachers can lead to violent reactions and aggressive conducts from students, especially if the evaluating process is person-centred, thus more subjective and potentially offensive. Furthermore, the violent and somewhat unexpected reaction of an affronted pupil generates an aggressive

reaction from the teacher, and for both of them aversion and even fear when it comes to evaluation. That is how a necessary and otherwise normal act of feed-back rises a wall between teachers and students, leading to the rapid and regrettably permanent degradation of their relationship.

Our hypothesis for this paper is that school violence and aggression favoured by evaluation can be diminished only by the synergic effort of the human resource involved. Things can be changed, starting with the manner in which teachers understand the didactic process, in general, and the evaluative act, in particular. It is a matter of tact and smooth know-how. If the teacher's angle of looking at his responsibility concerning school violence is not balanced, a change has to be and can be done.

We proposed a three-step changing program, a training strategy involving teachers from the same schools studied in the Grant project mentioned earlier.

3. Training program

3.1. The beneficiary of the training program

High-school teachers from both technological profile and Arts and Crafts School.

3.2. Training needs

3.2.1. Identifying adequate techniques in evaluating pupils' performance.

3.2.2. Identifying and analyzing different evaluation styles.

3.2.3. Highlighting the cause and effect relation present in the evaluation process.

3.2.4. Getting accustomed with the advantages and disadvantages of adopting a normative evaluation style.

3.3. General objectives of the training process

3.3.1. Generate reflection upon the opportunity of one's own specific evaluating style and methods.

3.3.2. Enhance teachers' abilities regarding communication and evaluation in the classroom.

3.3.3. Elaborate an optimum evaluation strategy, adequate to the pupils' needs and possibilities.

3.4. Main themes

- 3.4.1. The school organization's principal values*
- 3.4.2. Communication in human relations*
- 3.4.3. Evaluation - an integrated part of the didactic process*
- 3.4.4. Classic and alternative methods in the evaluation process*
- 3.4.5. Evaluation styles: advantages and downsides*
- 3.4.6. Means of reducing evaluation related violence in schools*

3.5. Training forms

- 3.5.1. Seminar*
- 3.5.2. Workshop*

3.6. Methods used in the training

Training games: Labels, Roll-play, Faces, Post-it, Clap your hands [3].

Pedagogical methods: lecture, heuristic conversation, solving specific problematic situation, exercise, brainstorming, roll-playing.

3.7. Modes of organizing the training activities

- 3.7.1. All together*
- 3.7.2. Team work*

3.8. Materials used in the training activities

- 3.8.1. Post-it-s*
- 3.8.2. Crayons and paper*
- 3.8.3. Scissors*

3.9. Modes of evaluating the training activities and the participants

- 3.9.1. Initial evaluation*
- 3.9.2. Continual evaluation*
- 3.9.3. Final evaluation*

4. Final remarks

When dealing with organizational change and especially when the particular change involves the human resource, the risk of reluctance and change-resistance is high. That is why, a training program can be efficient only if it is accepted and if targets small aspects of a bigger picture. Attitudes or customs, habits or complex behaviours can't be changed in 3 sessions of training, maybe not even in 30. That is why, in order to think and aim big, we have to be prepared to act patiently small. Also, if the trainer does not cover the real training needs of the clients, the whole training process is useless. Specialized trainers, with very good communication abilities and a very smart interaction and self-presentation management skills, can achieve

major changes in behaviours and attitudes, most of the time with an important impact at a larger scale.

Day 1

Objectives

- Identifying the values of school organization and the best ways of promoting them.
- Thoroughly analyzing the concept of *communication* and its aspects and implications in the classroom.
- Analyzing the concept of *evaluation*.
- Highlighting the changes and modern perspectives in evaluation.

SESSION 1

- ✓ **Introducing the trainers**
- ✓ **Introducing the main objectives of the training program**

Training games

FACES

SESSION 2

- ✓ **The values of school organization**
 - ✓ Defining the *value* concept
 - ✓ Types of values
 - ✓ How can we promote values?
 - ✓ Values and false values (or non-values) in school
- ✓ **Communication in human interaction**
 - ✓ What does *communicating* mean?
 - ✓ Efficient communication (*roll play*)
 - ✓ The role of communication in the evaluation process

Form of training: seminar, workshop

Pedagogical methods used: lecture, exercise, conversation

Mode of organizing the training activity: all together, team work

SESSION 3

- ✓ **Evaluation – integrated part of the didactic process**
 - ✓ **The concept of evaluation**
 - ✓ **Changes and modern perspectives in evaluating pupils/students**
- ✓ **Classic evaluation methods: advantages and disadvantages**
- ✓ **Alternative evaluation methods : advantages and downsides**

Training games: FACES,LABELS, POST-IT

Form of training: seminar, workshop

Pedagogical methods used: lecture, exercise, conversation

Mode of organizing the training activity: all together, team work

Evaluation: „ This I already knew, This I've learnt, This I would like to learn about! ”

Day 2 Objectives

- Identifying and analyzing based on selected criteria different evaluation methods
- Thoroughly analyzing each evaluation style, highlighting their advantages and limits
- SWOT analyses based on the 4, most known, evaluation styles

SESSION 1

- ✓ Effects and aspects of classic and alternative evaluation- the complementary or antagonistic perspective of the relation

Training games: BRAINSTORMING, ROLL PLAY, POST-IT

SESSION 2

- ✓ Evaluative styles: upsides and downsides
 - ✓ Regarding the degree of exigency-objectivity: indulgence or intransigence
 - ✓ Regarding the direction of evaluation: focused on the norm and focused on the person
 - ✓ SWOT analyses

Form of training: seminar, workshop

Pedagogical methods used: lecture, exercise, conversation, brainstorming, roll-playing

Mode of organizing the training activity: all together, team work

Training games: CLAP YOUR HANDS

Evaluation: „ This I already knew, This I've learnt, This I would like to learn about! ”

Day 3

Objectives

- Becoming aware of the fact that are evaluation related situations that can lead to violent reactions or behavior of the pupils
- Identifying the most effective ways to diminish the evaluation-related violence phenomenon that teachers can adopt in the classroom

SESSION

- ✓ The evaluation-related violence phenomenon
 - ✓ Possible situations of manifestation
 - ✓ Generating factors
 - ✓ Strategy to diminish the evaluation-related violence phenomenon

Form of training: seminar, workshop

Pedagogical methods used: lecture, exercise, heuristic conversation, solving specific problematic situation

Mode of organizing the training activity: all together, team work

Training games: FACES, ROLL PLAY

Evaluation: “What is the change in me? What can be the change in others?”

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IDENTIFYING REPRESENTATIVE VARIABLES FOR EVALUATING HUMAN RESOURCES IN THE CONTEXT OF OPTIMIZING THE CAPABILITIES OF INTEGRATED SYSTEMS IN COMPLEX APPLICATIONS

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Abstract

The paper offers scientific knowledge of the human resources capabilities, for mathematical simulation of the organization in military communications domain. The analysis proposed is oriented on identification of initial conditions. Regarding the human resource, personnel selection is very important, followed by the achievement and maintaining competences of the agents through instruction. The purpose is harmonization of generalization and specialization capacities, for an optimal utilization of the resources, using relevant information and competent human resources.

Keywords: *human resource, organization, capabilities, evaluation, optimization*

1. Introduction

Organizational behavior becomes an area enjoying more and more popularity as persons with different training and different cultural background need to work together in an efficient manner. Applying the systems theory in the field of organizational psychology is based on obtaining negative entropy through openness and feedback. A systemic vision on organizations has to be trans-disciplinary and integrative. This means surpassing the individual

character of the different disciplines and applying a common “code”, in order to integrate them by means and techniques which are specific to the theory of systems. Reductive methods are often replaced by holistic visions in studying the systems. According to recent organizational studies, the systems theory is perceived as a humanistic extension of natural sciences [5]. This article contains an analysis on certain psychological phenomena situated at the crossroad of human resources, environment and technology and offers a scientific basis for studying the capabilities of human resources so as to permit the mathematical modeling of organizations employed in the field of military communications.

2. Theoretic substantiation

2.1 Human resources in the vision of occupational and organizational psychology

Integrating the individual in a technical or man-machine system is not a random process. From a psychological point of view, at the basement of this integration lies a long instructional process of training and developing individual potentialities. The man-machine and man-technology compatibility discussions occurred in this context. Man, machine and work environment form a unitary and integrated system, the MAN-MACHINE-ENVIRONMENT system. The Hawthorne experiment demonstrated the importance of the employees' behavior and attitudes as compared to their capacities, habits and dispositions. Personality is a theoretical concept, not an empirical object, and the way we try to measure it is determined by the way we define it. The perspective from which we approach personality is crucial. There is not a single correct theory and, in order to understand the concept of personality better, all approaches should be taken into consideration.

2.2 Theoretical approaches of personality. Evaluation instruments. Applications in special domains.

According to the most important representatives of the cognitive movement, the study of personality is the study of the manner by which people become what they are. The study of personality can not be separated from the procedures and the methods used by general

experimental psychology. The cognitive movement detached itself from the experimental movement; its representatives reduce the study of personality to analyzing the ways information is treated, interpreted and used. The cognitive personality models occupy a central position in the experimental movement, too. During the '80, Robert McCrae and Paul Costa performed researches which led to the identification of five fundamental factors of personality: neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness (thoroughness). This model constituted the baseline for conceiving some personality tests, which approach the aspect of trait as being responsible for shaping a personality structure. The cognitive movement's contribution to the personality theory consists in explaining some mental processes and operations: information perception, data storage at the mental level, problem solving in the process of decision making, mental representation models and the involvement of emotions in the cognition process. The cognition process by which people perceive and decide is situated in the center of the human dimension of the military intervention. Our ability to understand this process can have a twofold effect: shortening of military interventions by persuading the opponent to give up and finding solutions to create effects without military interventions [14].

2.3 Knowledge-based organizations

Promoting information technology, Holsapple and Whinston (1987) define the knowledge-based organization as "a collectivity of laborers performing conception work, interconnected by a computerized infrastructure"; the authors consider that the existence of such an organization, endowed with local workstations, support centers, communication channels and distributed collections of knowledge, implies an explicit demarche of designing and implementing, performed by means of advanced IT and with artificial intelligence applications.

The process of decision making reflects partly the individual condition of the person and partly factors as emotions, physiology (especially fatigue) and personal beliefs. Another more profound aspect reflects the fundamental question about how people perceive and understand a given situation. As a general rule, people approach

problems from a personal perspective, derived from accumulated knowledge, education and training, all in a particular cultural context. The deciders are tempted, as most people, to rationalize by analogy. Both, mental models and prioritized knowledge, influenced by the national and decisional culture, have a significant impact upon the cognitive process due to two aspects: the sensors (or sources) involved in data gathering and information processing and the way the resulting information is handled and translated in the given situation.

3. Models of instruments used for evaluating the performance and efficiency of human resources

Essens proposes CTEM (Command Team Effectiveness Model) for identifying the main factors influencing the performance and efficiency of command teams [4]. The report issued by RTO (Research and Technology Organization)/NATO in 2005 – *Military Command Team Effectiveness: Model and Instrument for Assessment and Improvement* – is based on the assumption that team efficiency is influenced by the conditions in which the team operates, the composition of the team, task- and team-focused processes, the way the team monitors its progress toward accomplishing its (intermediate) objectives and adapts or improves its composition as a consequence of the monitoring process. The testing battery Psychological Evaluation Platform – Cognition Assessment System (CAS) is the most complex psychological evaluation system existent in Romania; it is useful for individual psychological evaluation and personnel evaluation and selection. The final report comprises: individual psychological evaluation report, candidate profile, person-post matching report and a report indicating the candidate-post matching hierarchy.

4. Adaptive organizational models for communications systems with complex applications

Adapting to the evolution of the military communications environment doesn't envisage only technical aspects; implementing new, information age specific concepts is first of all a *human and organizational behavior* problem by adopting a new model of thinking on the importance and the way information is used in military operations. From the perspective of establishing and maximizing the

processing cycle inside the network (observation – decision – action), the role of human resources becomes significant and may adopt different forms of manifestation, from planning the system configurations and designating a certain person as a decider or system administrator to data gathering, primary data processing, establishing (command and execution) information flows and manning the positions of observer, operator and executant. The analysis proposed is oriented toward establishing the initial conditions from which, from a human resources perspective, selection can take place, followed by acquiring and maintaining certain competences of the agents (by training) in order to harmonize the generalization capacities and the specialization capacities inside a certain network so as to create the premises of optimal employing of the human resources, using relevant information and competent of human resources.

5. Representative Variables for Evaluating Human Resources in the Context of Integrated Systems

After analyzing the information indicated so far, we identified a series of variables which are relevant for team members involved in complex interventions: perception, memory, attention, verbal abilities, general learning abilities, problem solving, decisional capabilities, organizing capabilities, technical abilities, tactical abilities, stress vulnerability, interests, attitudes and convictions, personality, physical abilities.

Applying these variables to the team model previously mentioned (comprising 5 agents), a graphical measuring scale was drawn, where the level of competence of each variable/indicator was evaluated from a minimum necessary level (•) to the maximum competence level required (••••). Using this instrument in the selection process of the intervention team members and in evaluating already constituted teams could optimize the efficiency and the performance of the team. At the same time, this instrument offers data to which there can be attributed weights according the nature of the intervention, which can be used in mathematically modeling specific organizations or intervention scenarios.

Table 1 Evaluation indicators for the five categories of agents and the required competence level

VARIABLE	Observer	Operator	Network administrator	Decider	Executant
Perception	•••••	••••	•••••	•••	•••••
Memory	••••	••	•••••	•••••	•••
Attention	•••••	•••	•••••	•••	•••••
Verbal abilities	•••	•••	•••••	•••••	••
General learning abilities	•••	••••	••••••	•••••	•••
Problem solving	••	•••	•••••	•••••	••
Decision capability	•	•	•••••	•••••	••
Organizing capability	•••	•••	••••••	•••••	•••
Technical abilities	•••	•••••	••••••	•••	•••
Tactical abilities	•	•	•••	•••••	•••
Stress vulnerability	••	••	••••••	•••••	•••
Interests	•••	•	•••	•••••	•••
Attitudes and convictions	•••	•	•••	•••••	•••••
Personality	•••	•••	••••••	•••••	•••••
Physical abilities	••••	••	•••	••	•••••

6. Conclusions

More and more sophisticated man-machine-environment interactions impose an interdisciplinary character of the studies performed and generate new problems due to the dynamic nature and the self-configuring capability of modern networks. The new operating environment claims certain technical capabilities and human

abilities and competences which can not be provided by nowadays organizations, especially those characterized by a high level of formality. Offering instruments developed in the area of interference of the informational, technical, mathematical, sociologic and psychological domains for simplifying human mental operations and for rendering the actions of organizations involved in complex operations more efficient represents a fundamental perspective of systemic thinking of the organization regarding its technical and human resources.

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INFORMATION SHARING DURING GROUP DISCUSSIONS IN A HIDDEN PROFILE TASK

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Abstract

Hidden profiles are specific group decision-making tasks in which the access to information is unequal between group members. Choosing the superior decisional alternative depends on the measure in which the information held individually is shared during the group discussions. Continuing an anterior study, that focused on the relation between the individual's decisional rationality and the quality of group decision in a hidden profile task, in three different experimental conditions, the present paper reveals a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the information discussed in the hidden profile task. We focus on the number, type and valence of the information shared by the members of the 21 decision-making groups in order to establish a pattern of group discussions that leads to making the right decision. The relation between the number of shared information during group discussion and the perceived difficulty of making the decision is also discussed. Implications of the results and limits of the study are presented in the final part of the paper.

Keywords: ***hidden profiles, information sharing, group discussions, group decision-making***

1. Introduction

Group decision assumes that the members equally participate in choosing the best alternative. The problem is equally known and understood by all the members who are actively involved in group discussions, sustaining their opinions and supporting the groupactivity. In real life decisional situations, this model seems like an ideal one. Active and equal participation of group members in

making the decision is rarely met, and even if appears, will not guarantee the group performance [3].

Information sampling model elaborated by Stasser and Titus tries to explain unequal group members' involvement in making the decision through unequal distribution of information [1]. The model lies on the assumptions that in a decision-making group members have unequal access to information and that the shared information plays a much more important part in making the decision than unshared information do [6]. In order to prove their assumption, Stasser and Titus used a specific task in which every member of the group had unique but complementary information [4]. This task is called hidden profile task and describes decisional situations in which information is asymmetrical distributed so that shared information supports an alternative and unshared information favors another alternative. Usually, the superior alternative is supported by unique information. Pooling unshared information leads the group to the best decisional alternative [5].

Group members discuss more shared information than unshared information. Because everybody holds these pieces of information, the members tend to assume that common information is more important [8]. Therefore, shared information biases group discussions [2], unshared information being less taken into consideration. Individuals' tendency to maintain initial preferred alternative despite new information revealed during group discussion is another bias in group decision-making [7]. Groups must diminish shared information and initial preference biases in order to make the right decision.

2. Objectives and methodology of the research

The main objective of the present study is to identify the manner in which information are shared during group discussion in a hidden profile task. The quantitative and qualitative analysis of information discussed might help us in our attempt to establish a group discussion pattern that will lead to making the right decision.

The main hypothesis of our investigation assumes that there are significant differences between groups making the right decision and groups making the wrong decision regarding the information discussed during group meetings. These differences refer to the

number, type (shared information vs. unshared information) and valence (positive, negative, and neutral) of the informational items discussed. We presume that groups will discuss more shared than unshared information, regardless the decision they make. Another hypothesis of our study refers to the relation between the number of informational items discussed in group and the perceived difficulty of the hidden profile task.

Twenty-one decisional groups, of three members each, performed a decisional task that assumed choosing from two different alternatives a candidate for a job. One alternative (Candidate A) was evaluated by job selection experts as being superior to the other one. The experimental task had two phases. First, participants made an individual decision based on informational profiles about each candidate they received; then members discussed the information in groups and made a group decision. Informational profiles were elaborated so that every member received a number of unique informational items and a number of common informational items. The entire group had 30 informational items on both alternatives, positive, negative and neutral items being distributed between the three members of each group. The group discussion were recorded with a questionnaire each member filled post-discussions. The perceived difficulty of the task was measure with a 5 steps scale.

3. Results

From the 21 groups, 13 groups (61,9%) made the correct decision, and 8 groups the wrong one. Only 44,4% of the participants chose the superior alternative when making the individual decision. After group discussions 36,1% of the participants changed their initial decision as new information was revealed to them.

More shared information was discussed during group discussions ($m = 12.47$) than unshared information ($m = 8.9$). The difference of means is statistically significant ($t = 3.96$, $p < .01$). The obtained results are similar with those presented in anterior papers [5]: in hidden profile tasks, groups discuss more shared information than unique information.

Regarding the differences between the groups that made the right decision and groups that didn't make it, we obtained significant

differences at variable “unshared information” ($t = 2.36$, $p < .05$). Groups that chose the superior alternative discussed more unshared information than groups that made the wrong decision, even though in both groups, the number of unshared items discussed was significant lower than the number of shared items discussed. Discussing unshared information helps the group in taking the right decision; still, the members of the groups tend to give more importance to common information.

The differences between the two groups remain when analyzing the information discussed on each alternative. As anticipated, each group discussed more information about the preferred alternative than about the rejected one, but significant differences appear in the valence of the items discussed. The informational items evaluated by the participants as being taken into consideration during group discussions, in descending order of means, are presented in Table 1:

Table 1 Informational items most and least discussed in groups making the right decision

Position	Item	Type	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.	A1	Shared positive information	2.2308	1.0127
2.	A7	Shared positive information	1.9231	1.1152
3.	A11	Shared negative information	1.6154	1.2609
4.	B13	Unshared negative information	1.3077	1.1094
5.	A4	Shared positive information	1.2308	1.2352
6. ...25.				
26.	A12	Unshared positive information	.2308	.5991
27.	B10	Unshared positive information	.2308	.5991
28.	A13	Unshared positive information	.1538	.3755
29.	B14	Unshared neutral information	.0769	.2774
30.	B9	Unshared negative information	.0000	.0000

The groups making the right decision discussed statistically significant more positive items about the superior alternative ($t = 3.32$, $p < .01$) and less positive information about the inferior alternative ($t = 2.74$, $p < .05$). The groups do not differ significant in the number of negative or neutral information discussed.

Therefore, positive information about the preferred alternative plays a much more important part in making a group decision than negative information about the rejected alternative plays.

Participants who made the right individual decision shared during group discussion unique information about both alternatives, while subjects who made the wrong individual decision shared with others information only about the chosen alternative.

Regarding the relation between the number of shared informational items to the group and the perceived difficulty of the task, no significant correlations were found. Participants don't perceive the task as being more difficult as the number of items discussed increases. Overall, they appreciated the task as being of average difficulty ($m = 2.61$).

4. Conclusions

The present study tried to make a profound analysis of group discussions in decisional situations involving a hidden profile task. The obtained results allow us to conclude that in a decisional situation with asymmetrical distribution of information:

- the members of the group tend to focus their discussions more on the common than on the unshared information;
- the probability of discovering the hidden profile of the alternatives increases when individual information is shared to the group;
- the group tend to consider as being of different importance the information about decisional alternatives, taking more into consideration the information about the alternative members prefer individually prior to group discussion, and often ignoring information on the other alternatives;
- if the decisional situation is not perceived as being risky or very difficult, the group will tend to discuss more positive information than negative or neutral pieces of information.

Practical implications of the obtained results are to be found in organizations, in the special attention we must give to the distribution of information between group members and to finding methods of diminishing individuals' tendency to rely more on the shared information. The relative small number of participants, the specificity of the experimental task used and the method of recording group discussions are the reasons for which we can not extend the results on large populations.

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THE METHOD PROBLEM IN RESEARCHING THE HUMAN BEING

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Abstract

The starting point in research and the objective of the understanding the moral being as a moral subject is, under a methodological aspect, the identification from the content view point of the research domain and the criteria that justify the decision and the selection of the categorial modeling methods. But such determinations remain insufficient and non-convincing in the categorical level, if we don't demonstrate the relevance of the object. What categorical relevance does the category of moral being as a moral subject contain in the categorical system of ethics?

These criteria of categorial relevance refer to the ethical principles, the moral categories, the moral values, according to which we judge the moral being.

Keywords: *categorical, ethical principles.*

In the moral research the method supposes first to operate after criteria of critical and practical thinking, which means that the individual value of the ethical thinking legally exercises upon any of the individual moral experience. Through the new definition of the concept of ethical thinking we want to re-install the traditional cognitive experiences in opposition with a false force of post-modern, selfish and narrowed judgment on a relativist base.

The possibility of getting farther from a categorical system of ethics presupposes first of all the reflection and critical inclusion of the domain under study in the already studied ethical categories.

We can consider the premises of the new categories as legitimate for any conceptability pf categorical nature. The characterization of the new ethical category, among which the category of the moral being as a moral subject, gains our attention. It must be constructive and significant both on the level of *content selection* and that of the categorical determination *selection of methods*. The virtues of the methods must facilitate the examination of the moral subject on an ethical categorical level.

The study of the moral subject is integrated in the categorical dimensions of the subjective moral beings but presupposes the moral subject references to the normative categories of the moral duty, the moral good, the moral subjective responsibility. *The categorial anchoring of the moral being as a moral subject in the normative ethical categories* suggest that the method used for the moral subject conceptualization are not allowed to presuppose the autonomy of the individual being beyond the horizon of a significant inter-human life for the moral being.

The research that aims at ethical category of the moral being as a moral subject begins in the place and moment in which the human subject is on a specific position in the inter-human world, as the being broadens the perspective from the individual level in its inter-human significance.

The categorial models confirmed in the recognized ethical discourse represent the possible conditions whose analytical experiences to gather with the restrictive rigors of thematical and methodological nature. According to P.Balahur, a researcher from Iasi, the creative capacity of categorial modification in ethics benefits from the thematic pre-categorial surplus, virtually contained in the system of a ready known categories.

The categorial constitution of the new matter of the moral subject presupposes motivated decisions in a *consensus with the categorial normative system of ethics*; such decisions become convincing in the context of the moral practice and in the valid methodological schemes (for instance, in the context of the life and activity of the being). A new categorial concept must teach us the legal way of judging what tradition had already left for us, insufficiently conceptualized or

beyond the ethical categories. So we have in mind a review of the moral values in comparison with the moral being.

If surprisingly, the ethical doctrines are questioning this problem of studying the moral being as a moral subject considering normality as being evident and thus among the ethical categories we notice the content which belongs to the category of the moral being as a moral subject.

The legacy of an ethical categorial construction of the moral being as a moral subject can't be discovered and it's justified only in the sense of a categorial and methodological *totality of the generalizing ethical theory*. A category of the subjective individuality has pretensions of generability, which in ethics brings under discussion the limits of subjectivity concerning the setting out of moral categorial individuality.

The starting point in research and the objective of the understanding the moral being as a moral subject is, under a methodological aspect, the identification from the content view point of the research domain and the criteria that justify the decision and the selection of the categorial modeling methods. But such determinations remain insufficient and non-convincing in the categorical level, if we don't demonstrate *the relevance of the object*. What categorical relevance does the category of moral being as a moral subject contain in the categorical system of ethics?

As we don't have a certain methodology for the conceptualization of the moral being as a moral subject, we have to make *a selection with discovering components*, for the understanding and interpretation of the moral being, according to *the criterion of categorial relevance in the ethics system*. These criteria of categorial relevance refer to the ethical principles, the moral categories, the moral values, according to which we judge the moral being.

To research the category of the moral being according to a methodological thinking of ethical value includes also the inter-categorial institutions. The consciousness upon the intra-categorial contradictions justifies the critical examination and a kind of care in interpretation.

The appeal to *epistemological accuracy in the methodology of ethical research* causes barriers and limits for the moral knowledge

which could cause confusion but which are accepted by the hermeneutical components of science. Thus, we can say in a restrictive sense, the science of ethics excludes the hermeneutical components that bring in their interpretation are motivated themes if it focuses exclusively on a problematic tradition of conservative manner.

The methods of research of the moral being as a moral subject must take into consideration the position of the concept of a moral subject among the base concepts of ethics and which, in the sense of an ethical thinking, rebuilds the identity of the ethical theories. Thus, the ethics of the virtues, of the moral duty and of the moral responsibility, is based on *a vision upon the concept of the moral subject centered on a dominant ethical value*. In comparison with the aims of the moral being, the moral subject occupies a position of multigenerative centrality, as there is nothing in the moral nature to gain the values' meanings other than through creativity with a moral significance of the moral subject.

Indeed, on a moral experience level, the moral subject generates and experiences the moral values through pragmatic agreements and judgments with an ethical value in the system of some general-accepted criteria. The problems and the dilemmas of the practical moral life gain solutions through a responsible engagement of the subject that consents and implies itself in the life circumstances context. In the series of life circumstances, the continuity of the moral subject assures an integrationist system with a moral significance in which the subject is found through identification of the type: "my duties", "my ideals", "my guilt and regrets".

The moral categories are found on the position of the moral subject inside the moral being, with an active generative status after the moral criteria.

In the interaction between the subject and the life circumstances there appear a question connected with the subject orientation and engagement: "what do I have to do?" question that was brought by Imm. Kant to an ethical categorial level.

The answer and the moral responsibility always belong to the moral subject that makes decisions and if the subject makes a certain mistake, the first instance of the moral guilt is judged in the "court" of the self moral thinking. A referential principle in searching the

research methods of the moral subject offers us “the postulate of the practical thinking” in Imm. Kant’s theory, as an *objective principle of the moral thinking with universal validity*. Thus, the moral thinking of the moral subject has a universal validity that places the moral being among the ethical categories designed under the moral truth principle.

Regarding the problem of the moral being as a moral subject we escape – according to Kant theory – the empire of subjectivity, as the subjective principle of individual becomes the *moral law majesty* that acts by means of the individual subject.

The moral being has its *existence in the world* that establishes its roots as a subject that fights for a moral desirable order.

That is why the categorical research of the moral being must consider as necessary the human being thinking in connection with *what the being must become* under a moral aspect, *a worthy creative being of the moral significance*. By creating moral meanings, the deeds of the moral being are registered within the being of the moral value. The moral being creates and brings distinct moral value as moral truth and moral kindness.

What do we research and what do we know when we propose to question the category of the moral being as a moral subject?

The ethics of being and the ethics of moral actions operates a subtle distinction between the life of the moral being, as a totality of life circumstance with valuable moral significance and the details of the particular deeds of the being, with moral characters. To which orientation in our research shall we give priority if it is possible for us to choose one of the private ways in the study of the moral being?

We can see the *moral being and the actions of the moral being in the texture of the same moral order*; we distinguish between the field of free forces of the moral subject in which the “I” is generating itself as the author of the moral deeds and the simple moral act as a working detail of the being. Both perspectives need a valuable significance that regards the *depths of the being that generates valuable meaning*. We have to decipher these depths of the being in connection with the distinction of the moral value.

The philosophy of the ethical values teaches us that the most profound constituent of the moral being is also the most active generator in the energetic magma of the being. The burning of the

valuable values of the moral being as a moral subject is different from the sight of a “black sun” that could generate in the obscurity of the irrational disorder. What brings under discussion the way of thinking of the moral being is different even when questioning the conscious moral being as a moral conscious subject.

The postulation of the moral subject way of thinking leads the questioning of the mortal being on the land of valuable consciousness with systematic moral significance, even if the human being acts in practice as virtually moral and acts accordingly “from time to time and from place to place”.

As a result, if the problem of the moral being was analyzed in non-categorial manners and it was categorically unquestioned indifferent ethical discourses, *the normal judgment of conceptualizing the ethical categories requests for the categorical treatment of the moral being as a moral subject*.

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WAYS OF ASSESSING THE HUMAN RESOURCE WORKING IN HIGHLY EXPOSED ENVIRONMENTS

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Abstract

*Devising a systemic approach implies involving the organization of human resources in close interdependence with other resources. Overusing human resources at the expense of others affect the balance of dynamic organization the operation and development of which is dependent on. Psychological evaluation in the military organization, just as the evaluation in all the other types of organizations, is not an end in itself; it focuses on two main objectives: facilitates the performance of individual and organizational performance and creates a climate favourable to it. Psychological tools that we propose to evaluate human resource operating in environments with high exposure will help us catch the **psychoaptitudinal** characteristics and develop valuable predictions on the behaviour in specific work situations.*

Keywords: *psychological assessment, professional evaluation, performance*

Work has at present a number of features that should be taken into account in assessing psychological personnel. It shows a high demand for creativity, initiative and collaboration, and multiple influences on the universe of work and training, there is a continuing need for flexibility in work, speed and diversity in learning. In the current individual progress is based on personal value and adherence to organizational culture and not on loyalty and length of service. These characteristics of the modern labour work generates specific requests [1]:

- rapid changes in socio-generating call for quick learning;
- developing new technologies continually asks capacity to assimilate information;
- influences the social and economic capacity calls for quick adapting;
- increasing the diversity of work and learning generates request flexibility on the part of individuals;
- encouraging personal career management calls personal investment and the assumption of risk.

Psychologist practitioner who works at the level of work and organizational psychology focuses its work on the psychological evaluation of two main parts: the selection of professional, so decision bordering on the job performance evaluation and training. Selection of training involves assessing candidates features and predictions on the development of subsequent behaviour as members of the organization. Psychological evaluation institutions that are endpoints [1]: 1) to facilitate individual and organizational performance, 2) creating a climate favourable to individual and organizational performance.

All procedures for psychological evaluation staff pursue these two interrelated goals. Psychological Assessment of staff is achieved: a) in cases of promotion or referral to specialized courses, b) to advise and guide for professional career development; c) the circumstances of marshalling for the restructuring; d) the training; e) to facilitate knowledge.

The military is much more organized here and psychological intervention showed some constancy. The measures taken have had some delay due to resistance to change specific soldiers. However, continuity has allowed achieving certain results, today there are systems of selection and training division achieved for all weapons. There are over 900 battery of tests used in classification for the various military weapons. Are also launched several research validation of strategies for selecting professional. Discussing the applications of psychological assessment in the army, Steege and Fritscher [7] shows that it can identify three major areas:

1. Management personnel and distribution to various military specialties;
2. Psycho-sociological evaluation;
3. Clinical evaluation.

In a highly specialized military, where risks are high, the allocation of soldiers is a big responsibility. One of the priority themes for research in the U.S. Army is finding effective means of ensuring the stability of a larger military personnel specialist. Techniques used in the selection of officers for the body to focus on the structuring of tests derived directly from work on the construction of simulated situations and personality tests. It seeks emotional stability, intelligence, motivation for action information, energy, and initiative. It uses interviews, observation, paper-pencil tests, tests situation, evaluating colleagues.

Staff selection involves more than knowing the psychological tests, is a design based on a research complex. Knowledge involved in designing the selection procedures were the following:

- undertaking a study analyzing the work (identifying the main components of a work);
- ownership arrangements for the election, operation and validation criteria for business efficiency;
- knowledge of the existing psychological tests and operation with them;
- knowing the information related to the construction of psychological tests related to a particular profession (analysis of items, advanced statistical methodologies of data collection and generation of test items, etc.).
- validation of leadership studies and familiarity with the set of distortions that may occur in the construction, validation, decision or interpretation of selection tests;
- knowing the theory and knowledge of the decision to carry out the calculations for efficiency psychological operations;
- turning in a strictly legal, compliance and ethical code of ethics.

Following the establishment of labour that will be analyzed, divided psychologist work in its main components. Analysis of detailed work will determine the tasks to be performed, working conditions (equipment a.s.o.) and the qualities of psychological, physical and physiological necessary to carry out the work. Modern militaries have conducted an analysis of each specialty items for military [7]. They are oriented issues such as identification tasks, the

importance of assessing tasks, behavioural analysis, the frequency of performance required, and the difficulty of learning task in question.

As a matter of collecting, storing and processing information, the emergence of science informatics has been a revolution in scientific and technical impact on all human activities. Development after 40 years took effect on sensitive applying psychological tests. Tests on the computer have the following characteristics: speed, objectivity, flexibility. A special place in the analysis of computerized psychological tests they have adaptive computerized tests. This system involves computer memory storage of a large number of items, data calibration system and treatment information in real time. Computer determines the order of appearance of a new item in the light of developments in the matter in the course of proof allowing an increase in precision measurement. Also, the tests can optimize adaptive psychological examination by the following [6]: presentation of the questionnaire and installation work; administration items (ordering), and selecting the rapid accumulation of data, calculating quotas (automatic conversion rates in gross standard rates); statistical processing, diagnosis and predictions, psychological report writing.

There are several types of tests adaptive computer makes possible the development of algorithms for a wide selection of items for complexity, from models developed recently in construction for the selection tests. This system of examination is characterized by precision and efficiency but involves very high costs and is used in more than just the major institutions. Romanian achievements in the field of computerized instruments of psychological investigation occurred later than in the U.S. and countries in Western Europe. Concerns theoretical and applied in the field of information and psychological evidence have Monica Albu and Horia Pitariu. The authors have applied and analyzed the results of the inventory Psychology California trial investigation of high complexity, for assessing the behavior of normal starting from interpersonal events and everyday social interactions, and whose adaptation to the specific socio-cultural Romanian was a great deal of hard work and long for the authors.

This complex personality test that I have mentioned, considers it particularly useful in assessing the human resource working in media

information with high levels of exposure. Also, in the assessment system may be used for the analysis of labour F-JAS (Fleishman - Job Analysis Survey), probably SWS (Survey of Work Styles) and the psychological STAXI-2 (State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory Edition II a). We will do a more detailed overview of these tools as we analyze the importance of performance evaluation and training.

Psychological tests therefore help to identify the level of development of professional skills, abilities and individual characteristics that can be used in the *prediction business performance*. The tests used by psychologists are very diverse, and techniques for obtaining data-predictor for performance are very numerous. The variety of measurement techniques is in turn dependent on the diversity of factors that can affect performance at work. Performance may be dependent on a number of cognitive or noncognitive skills (for example verbal fluency, coordination manual etc.), of the level of motivation, experience, and social skills.

Often it is considered that to measure cognitive skills, the best predictor are represented by paper-pencil tests, while the interview is a very good predictor of social skills assessment. For prediction performance in design work, prefer to use personality questionnaires, while for the execution to prefer the use of evidence practice. Evaluation of performance is needed from two main reasons:

1. It allows the person assessed to identify areas where deficiencies are to be remedied;
2. It assesses the contribution of an individual to establish a fair remuneration, either by promotion or by compensation.

Assessing performance in any organization aims motivating the creation of systems for assessing performance of employees, as a result, this activity should be as objective, based on criteria directly related to the post, and managers (commanders) should be careful not to violate the laws

Military psychological services not only reduce the assessments tests, the advantage is much broader: training, leadership, attitude and motivation, ergonomics, etc. A performance-oriented instrument was built by the Office of Strategic Services (OSS) of USA and the Special Operations Executive (SOE) in the UK. These initial efforts have led to the mere use globing psychometric screening to eliminate people

contraindicated for military service orientation to modern use of psychological tests to identify individuals who are able to master military skills or to perform tasks with a particular character. The issue of two types of assessments has recruited during training and periodic evaluation, generally used effective systems that allow assessment decision of personal best. These systems are differentiated on military specialties. Also, to conduct various military specialties is a problem that is now resolved through various schemes targeting professional (military) computer: U.S. Navy vocational information system (NVIS), U.S. Army education information system (AREIS), U.S. Army Officer career information and planning system (OCIPS) etc.

Summary of psychological evidence that can be used in the evaluation:

1. *California Psychological Inventory 260 (CPI - California Psychological Inventory)* assesses interpersonal style and orientation (dominance, capacity status, sociability, social presence, self-acceptance, independence, empathy), value orientation and normative (responsibility, socialization, self, good impression, community, feeling good, tolerance); intellectual and cognitive functioning (achievement by conformism, by making independence, intellectual efficiency); role and interpersonal style (psychological insight, flexibility, femininity / masculinity);

2. *Questionnaire analysis of the job (F-JAS)* is a system of analysis work that integrates several areas of human performance and provides a direct link between the specific tasks of a job of work and skills that are needed personnel for their achievement;

3. *Work Styles Questionnaire (SWS)*, detects the pattern of behaviour by American Cardiologist type A. M. Friedman and Rosenman RH, after the investigations have shown that there is a close connection between stress, the frequency of cardio-vascular disease and type of personality, identifying also the second major personality types A and B and an intermediate type, AB. People are stressed local type A personality, a structure characterized by anxiety, restlessness and a style of working against the clock'; focus to higher achievements, are very competitive, intolerant and even aggressive

when facing difficulties. However, in excess, type A shows high levels of stress, thus leading to health problems, and therefore to loss of interest in work and the inability to obtain satisfaction from work, the feelings of physical and emotional exhaustion, inability to face the responsibilities of the job of work;

4. ***STAXI-2 (State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory, 2nd Edition)*** is a good tool for assessing the psychometric anger that surprised states situations of anger, personality traits that predispose their growing anger and **externalization**; Living internal anger, expressing anger external; control anger.

Conclusions

Scientific studies in the field have shown that people who undertake the work with a high level of satisfaction achieved a professional performance than others with low job satisfaction, dissatisfaction is associated with low productivity, absenteeism, accidents and diseases professional. Also, individual performance and organizational causes of self-confidence and creates the preconditions for each new performance. We seem so important role of training and human interest that the show organizations to the potential of their training and professional experience. Selection by professional skills in this regard is an obligation for all professions that the specific activity, may endanger the physical and psychological integrity of people, whether in a personal insufficiently qualified or without skills, and moreover, if people are to carry out work in conditions of increased risk. Problem selection Professional is designed today to have a psychosocial nature, because the effectiveness of employment is conditional and human attitudes. There is, in this respect, well provided people, skills, whose yield can be low because of personal difficulties to integrate into the team and for that reason contraindicated for jobs in which, for the smooth conduct of business, team spirit necessary priority. The disparity between human skills and requirements of the profession and the station, due to errors or even nonexistent guidelines and professional selection, poor training and professional guidance lead to results in unequal employment opportunity complaints relating to recruitment, appraisal and promotion. Through psychological testing can therefore identify the

level of development of vocational skills, skills that can be used in the prediction business performance. Psychological tests are diverse, and techniques for obtaining data-predictor for performance are very numerous. The variety of measurement techniques is in turn dependent on the diversity of factors that can affect performance at work. Performance may be dependent on a number of cognitive or noncognitive skills, the motivation, experience, to social skills.

Therefore, research on which we can use instruments:

- Assessment of normal personality;
- Identifying the knowledge, skills and abilities necessary for the performance of the duties of employment human resource working in environments with high levels of exposure;
- The measure of type A behaviour;
- Measuring the way in which it is felt, expressed and controlled rage.

These tools will help us in surprise in May psychoaptitudinal accuracy of the characteristics of human resource that is to organize, and serve to maintain the resources of the JTRS and the development of valuable predictions on the behaviour in specific work situations.

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MARITAL, SINGLEHOOD AND COHABITATION STATUS

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Abstract

Lifestyles that were considered “substitute” in the past are becoming less unusual and increasingly normative. Many people, for instance, experience cohabitation, divorce, and remarriage. Other lifestyles, such as singlehood, gay and lesbian relationships, or remaining childfree may not be rising drastically in frequency, but they are less stigmatized and more visible than they were in recent decades.

Keywords: mateless, cohabitation, marriage

Lifestyles that were considered “substitute” in the past are becoming less unusual and increasingly normative. Many people, for instance, experience cohabitation, divorce, and remarriage. Other lifestyles, such as singlehood, gay and lesbian relationships, or remaining childfree may not be rising drastically in frequency, but they are less stigmatized and more visible than they were in recent decades.

In the last years, the utility and the coordinate of many social institutions were seriously questioned. This included the institution of the family. The given cultural milieu of the period, such as resurgence of the women’s movement, concerns about human rights more generally, and improvements in our reproductive and contraceptive technology, exacerbated these questions. In increasing numbers individuals began to experiment with new and substitute ways in which to develop meaningful relationships, often outside the confines

of marriage. Literature soon abounded among both the academic community and the popular press describing and deliberating on these new lifestyles. Despite the increased visibility and tolerance for a variety of lifestyles during the last years, concern is voiced from some people over the “demise” of the family. The high divorce rate, increased rates of premarital sexuality, cohabitation, and extramarital sex are pointed to as both the culprits and the consequences of the deterioration of family values. In last past years, the monolithic model excludes the majority of the population; indeed, a growing number of persons do not desire such a model even if it were attainable. It is based on the false notion of a mateless and uniform intimate experience that many argue has racist, sexist, and classist connotations.

This distress about the demise of the family is not particularly new. For at least a century European observers and social critics have warned against the negative consequences of changes in the family. The family has indeed changed, but the vast majority of the population, both then and now, still prefers to marry, have children, and live in a committed, monogamous relationship. The most profound changes to date have not occurred in alternatives to marriage but rather in alternatives prior to marriage, and alternative ways in structuring marriage itself, while keeping the basic institution and its purposes intact. For example, nonmarital sex, delayed marriage and childbearing, and cohabitation are practiced with increasing frequency and are tolerated by a larger percentage of the population than ever before. And within marriage itself, new behaviors and ideologies are becoming increasingly popular, such as greater equality between men and women (although gender equality is more an ideal than a reality in most marriages).

Never married mateless

A small but growing percentage of adult men and women remain mateless throughout their lives. These individuals experience life without the support and obligations of a spouse and usually children. Mateless cannot be easily categorized and do not constitute a mateless social type. Some have chosen singlehood as a preferred option, perhaps due to career decisions, sexual preference, or other family

responsibilities. Others have lived in locations in which demographic imbalances have affected the pool of eligibles for mate selection. And others have been lifelong isolates, have poor social skills, or have significant health impairments that have limited social contacts.

Attitudes toward singlehood have been quite negative historically although change has been noted. During the time, singlehood was not only tolerated but also viewed by many as an avenue for enhancing one's happiness. Mateless males are viewed more favourable than are mateless females. Males are stereotyped as carefree "bachelors," while mateless women may still be characterized as unattractive and unfortunate "spinsters." Speaking about ambivalents, these are those who may not at this point be seeking mates but who are open to the idea of marriage at some time in the future. They may be deferring marriage for reasons related to schooling or career, or they may simply enjoy experimenting with a variety of relationships. Wishfuls are actively seeking a mate but have been unsuccessful in finding one. They are, generally, dissatisfied with their mateless state and would prefer to be married. The resolved consciously prefer singlehood. They are committed to this lifestyle for a variety of reasons; career, sexual orientation, or other personal considerations. They have made a conscious decision to forgo marriage for the sake of a mateless lifestyle. Small but important components of this group are priests; nuns; and others who, for religious reasons, choose not to marry. Finally, regretfuls are those who would rather marry but who have given up their search for a mate and are resigned to singlehood. They are involuntarily stable mateless. While the diversity and heterogeneity among the never-married population is becoming increasingly apparent, one variable is suspected to be of extreme importance in explaining at least some variation: gender. The emerging profiles of male and female mateless are in contrast. The never-married men represent the "bottom of the barrel," while the nevermarried women are the "cream of the crop." Mateless women are generally thought to be more intelligent, are better educated, and are more successful in their occupations than are mateless men. Additionally, research finds that mateless women report to be happier, less lonely, and have a greater sense of psychological well-being than do their mateless male counterparts. One reason why mateless women

are more likely to be the “cream of the crop” as compared to men is that many well-educated and successful women have difficulty finding suitable mates who are their peers, and therefore have remained unmarried. Successful women have fewer available possible partners, because their male counterparts may be choosing from a pool of women with less education and income. A second reason for the gender difference is that some highly educated and successful women do not want what they interpret as the “burdens” of a husband and children. Career-oriented women are not rewarded, as are career-oriented men, for having a family. Someone who is described as a “family man” is thought to be a stable and reliable employee; there is no semantic equivalent for women. Thus, well-educated, career-oriented women may see singlehood as an avenue for their success, whereas well-educated, career-oriented men may see marriage as providing greater benefits than singlehood. Demographers predict that the proportion of mateless in our population is likely to increase slightly in the future. As singlehood continues to become a viable and respectable alternative to marriage, more adults may choose to remain mateless throughout their lives. Others may remain mateless not out of choice but due to demographic and social trends. More people are postponing marriage, and it is likely that some of these will find themselves never marrying. The increasing educational level and occupational aspirations of women, coupled with our continued norms of marital homogamy, help to ensure that the number of never-married mateless persons—women in particular—is likely to increase somewhat into the twenty-first century.

Cohabitation

Cohabitation, or the sharing of a household by unmarried intimate partners, is quickly becoming commonplace in the European Union. Some people suggest that it is now a normative extension of dating. Approximately one-half of unmarried women between the ages of twenty-five and thirtynine have lived with a partner or are currently doing so, and over half of all first marriages are now preceded by cohabitation. Cohabitation is now seen as an institutionalized component to the larger progression involving dating, courtship, engagement, and marriage. Given the attitudes of even younger

persons, are expected trends in cohabitation to continue to increase in the worlds.

Cohabitation is not a recent phenomenon, nor one unique. In the protestant countries from Europe, from the North, is a normal way of being. People, from these countries, who cohabit have the same rights and obligations as do married couples with respect to taxation, inheritance, childcare, and social welfare benefits. Many of these unions have children born within them, and there is little stigma attached to being born “out of wedlock.” In contrast, cohabitation is relatively rare in more traditional (Orthodox) and Roman Catholic nations such as Italy, Romania. Cohabitors tend to differ from noncohabiters in a variety of sociodemographic characteristics. For example, cohabiters tend to see themselves as being more androgynous and more politically liberal, are less apt to be religious, are more experienced sexually, and are younger than married persons. Although cohabiters may argue that living together prior to marriage will enhance the latter relationship by increasing their knowledge of their compatibility with day-to-day living prior to legalizing the union, such optimism is generally not supported. While some studies indicate no differences in the quality of marriages among those who first cohabited and those that did not, others find that those people who cohabit have higher rates of divorce. This may, however, have nothing to do with cohabitation per se but rather may be due to other differences in the personalities and expectations of marriage between the two groups. A wide variety of personal relationships exist among cohabiting couples. Several typologies have been created to try to capture the diversity found within these relationships. We can discuss about four types of cohabiting relationships. These include:

- (1) temporary or casual relationships, in which the couple cohabits for convenience or for pragmatic reasons;
- (2) going together, in which the couple is affectionately involved but has no plans for marriage in the future;
- (3) transitional, which serves as a preparation for marriage;
- (4) alternative to marriage, wherein the couple opposes marriage on ideological or other grounds.

Attitudes toward cohabitation have become increasingly positive, especially among younger persons. In the '70 years, cohabitation was

illegal in some countries and illegal in a number of states based on a legal code outlawing crimes against chastity. These laws, however, are rarely if ever enforced. In the Netherlands, or in other countries where cohabitation is institutionalized, the majority of the population sees few distinctions between cohabitation and marriage. Both are viewed as appropriate avenues for intimacy, and the two lifestyles resemble one another much more. Cohabitation should imply in the future commitment and stability. The future of cohabitation, and the subsequent changes in the attitudes toward it, is of considerable interest to sociologists. Many predict that cohabitation will become institutionalized in the world to a greater degree in the near future, shifting from a pattern of courtship to an alternative to marriage. Whether it will ever achieve the status found in other countries remains to be seen.

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ROMANIANS AND THE EUROPEAN UNION: ACCULTURATIVE STRATEGIES

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Abstract

Romania's integration in the European Union led to different attitudes at all levels of discourse: authorities, mass media, and ordinary people. This article aims to present a short analysis of the acculturative strategies of the Romanians – living in Romania or abroad – with regard to the new status, that of European citizens. This review of social attitude strategies is necessary for a better understanding of the role and status of our country in a bigger European community and of the attitudes towards a double cultural identity.

Keywords: acculturation, migration, European Union

The phenomenon of acculturation is defined as the exchange of cultural features that come into continuous firsthand contact [1]. The issue at stake in this issue is that it is not only “savages” and minorities who get into cultural contact, but any group of individuals having different cultures and edging other groups, and we include here all European nationalities living in a rich, but sensitive cultural context. In Europe [2], “by the late 1980s, there appeared to be a much higher degree of social acceptance of intra-European migrants, which contrasted with strongly exclusionary attitudes towards immigrants from the south and minorities who were phenotypically different.” Thus, immigrants from Muslim countries, for instance, who make up the largest non-European communities in the most affluent Western states, have become targets for overt manifestations of racism, due to

cultural difference and economic concerns, despite the rhetoric of multiculturalism now at work in democratic countries.¹

Recent research has taken into account how ethno cultural groups relate to each other and how they manage to find a middle way when coping in culturally plural societies [3]. What we intend to analyze more closely is the situation of Romanians living – or as some scholars suggest [4] – commuting to Italy² and what their adaptation techniques were, keeping in mind the recent development. We refer here to the enlargement towards east of the European Union, which decided to include the still “backward but civilizable” post-communist countries, and at the same time to the closure of Western states towards emigrants from poor, undeveloped countries. Romanians are included in the significant wave of migrants from Eastern Europe, many of whom low-skilled workers, have generated fear and insecurity in the West [5], thus supporting the “mental map” created through media, prejudices and stereotypes [6].

Firstly, we considered opportune to mention some of the main concepts and theories of acculturation of the recent years. Individuals have different cultural patterns and living in a multicultural environment and in permanent interaction leads to changes in these original patterns of a group or of several groups. From this perspective, acculturation has a different value than the cultural change, but this latter concept is strongly related to multiculturalism. According to Berry [7], it is necessary for both communities – the host and the emigrant – to be ready for change:

¹ The author puts forward the idea of „Europe but at the same time not Europe”, referring to Eastern Europe as perceived by the West. This space is a mixture of the „civilized” West and the „backward” Other – the Orient, which led to a mental wall between the two Europes, nurtured also by the former opposition of political regimes (democracy and communism).

² Specialists consider the phenomenon of Romanians migrating to Italy as „short term migration”, or rather „commuting”. This second term is attributed the attribute „international”, and it is insisted on the fact that: „If in our modern society migration is seen as a form of geographic mobility, aimed at (re)inclusion in the functional sub-systems of economy, politics, health or education, commuting, on the contrary, does not lead to inclusion and integration in different environments of the host society”. (Florentina Constantin, *Migrating or Commuting? The Case of Romanian Workers in Italy: Niches for Labour Commuting to the EU*; available at <http://www.eumap.org/journal/features/2004/migration/pt1/commuting>)

A mutual accommodation is required for integration to be attained, involving the acceptance by both groups of the right to live as culturally different peoples within the civic framework of the larger society. This strategy requires nondominant groups to adopt the basic values of the larger society, and at the same time the dominant group must be prepared to adapt its national institutions to better meet the needs of all groups now living together in the plural society. [...] The integration strategy can be pursued only in societies that are explicitly multicultural. Both groups in contact would become acculturated.

In the case of ethnical change there are two distinct approaches: acculturation – learning the cultural features of the host society and ethnical identification – keeping their own original ethnical identity. Ethnic identification can thus be seen as a force that pushes the individual to his own roots, while acculturation gives him new roots [8]. Still it has been shown that the adaptation process does not really implies losing the original ethnical identity [9].

Acculturation, as a sub-process of ethical change, is seen as a multidimensional concept, suggesting that the changes in the cultural life come in different degrees [10]. For instance, we need to make a distinction between acculturation at the level of the group and that at the level of the individual, i.e. psychological. When we speak of groups, of population, changes imply social structure, economy, politics, while when the individual is at the core of the issue, transformations affect identity, values and attitudes [11].

Another aspect that highlights the importance of such a topic is that global change – with all its aspects: advances in transportation and communication technologies, fluctuating demography, environment modifications, human rights, security disparities – causes or, in other cases, is caused by the phenomenon of immigration. Migration is a highly interactive social process. Raising the question whether people really want to move their place of residence permanently or temporarily, we also have to bear in mind the actual decision concerning the destination and the route to take, as well as the opportunities to become integrated in all sorts of areas in the country of destination. Other people's knowledge and their willingness to offer possibilities for making contacts always play a large part in the acculturation process. Would-be migrants try to use their existing or newly-formed contacts with other people who have

knowledge relevant to migration to further their own plans for migration. Altogether, all of a migrant's social connections with migration-relevant knowledge are then called the migrant's social network or migrant network [12]. This does not only include friends and family members, but also acquaintances, persons in organizations or strangers who might prove useful. Helping people to migrate has given rise to a complete "migration industry" [13]. Leaving the individual aspect aside, we can speak of migrant networks [14]:

Migration networks of particular groups build on the reciprocal cohesion of the group members who are then able to utilise the social capital accumulated within the network. Social capital is the available material and non-material resources of the network members to which other members have access through their connections in the network. Access becomes possible via various mechanisms: there may be altruistic values prevailing in the group that morally oblige each group member to provide the other members with resources; there may be group-bounded solidarity in operation that demands that each help the other; reciprocity considerations, or in other words, the exchange of resources in expectation of a service in return, may exist within the group; or there may even be sanction mechanisms in groups that punish the withholding of resources.

The more contacts a person can incorporate in their network and the more resources such contacts have, the stronger the person's network becomes. This also applies in exactly the same way to the migration network as a whole. The longer it exists, in other words the longer the relevant group's experience of migration, the stronger a migration network will be. Thus, for example, the inhabitants of a village in which there is a high degree of solidarity can obtain information from members of their community who have already migrated abroad about which places in the destination country have a particularly large number of jobs available.

Romania's efforts to join European institutions have had a important impact on migration trends and regimes. With the country's joining the European Union and NATO, the conditions under which Romanian citizens can travel abroad have significantly improved in certain respects. Moreover, various forms of temporary labor recruitment or exchange training programs have increased within the

framework of European integration projects. As a result, the growing number of opportunities on the one hand, and the sharp contrast between more or less affluent Western societies and the still meager living conditions in Romania on the other hand, have led to sustained out-migration in recent years [15].

The migrating phenomenon, with all its practices, takes place in a transnational social arena, which is defined as a series of networks of intercommunicating social relations by means of which ideas, practices and resources can be exchanged, organised and transformed in unequal ways across national borders [16]. Taking as example the Romanian community in Italy we may notice that Romanian migration patterns have several characteristics that render them particular geo-political interest (geographical proximity, ease of mobility due to less border control and the fall of travel prices) and cultural interest (linguistic similarities, shared cultural traditions and a constant presence of many Italians in Romania).

One of the most important features of Romanian patterns of acculturation is related to the circulatory nature of these migratory flows and the peculiarity of this mobility compared to more classic forms of migration, where settling in the host country was seen as the alternative to returning to the country of origin. After more than a decade of work in Italy, the number of people who return to their homeland to stay is increasing [17]. This category has only start to increase, but it is still a minority, though the perspective of an improved social and economic situation in the country of origin stabilizes helps to its growth in time.

Some sociologists consider that the increased mobility of Romanian flow is caused by the status of the immigrant in the destination country, which led him to the idea that migrants who are unqualified or illegal workers are more vulnerable to economic changes and more willing to modify their own mobility plans [18]. In such cases it is considered that individuals deliberately give up their custom behavior and replace it with a different one that would allow him a better fit with the society of settlement [19]. Other scholars highlight the fact that the dividing lines between different forms of mobility are very blurred and that, more often than not, unexpected external factors lead people to modify their original plans. For more

recent migrants, circularity and „the installation in mobility” have to represent daily organizational strategies [20]. There is a number of Romanians with a permanent job at home who increase their income by working in Italy for the summer holiday. This is rather typical of younger generations, whereas for more mature migrants, as representatives of a family unit, there is a need for safer plans. For them, regular return trips to Romania made it possible to combine working abroad with family responsibilities, together with holding permanent contact with the social groups in the host country and maintaining a good image at home – as successful and responsible people.³

Another interesting element is the relation set between strategy and type of mobility. While at the beginnings the majority consisted of married man, who represented the „exploration group” [21], later on the number of women increased, due to an increase in the demand for home assistance. This increase in mobility has also brought about a modification of the profile of those leaving. At the same time, part of the mass media in Romania tends to stigmatize this temporary nature of departure, mainly due to the negative impact of the negative aspects of Romanian emigration highly hyped in the local and international mass media.⁴ Despite this reaction, language is precisely the most important asset for Romanian migrants in the peninsula, the most valuable identity marker that paradoxically helps them mingle with natives in the easiest possible way. 94% of Romanians think of themselves as speaking well and fairly well the language [22], an

³ A further distinction should be made: regular and irregular immigrants. An interesting aspect in this respect is the relations that form within the group of Romanian immigrants, between regular immigrants, present in Italy for longer time, and irregular immigrants. The former are a key factor in mediating with Italian society and in minimising the risks in store for the new comers.

⁴ The public opinion has also found expressions to better describe specific anthropological groups: „bongiornisti” (young lower class who emigrate to make a fortune and come back as poor as before but acting as if they were successful) or „allore” (returned people who pretend to have forgotten how to properly speak the native language and always mixing Italian words in Romanian). There is also the other side of the story: among part of the immigrants who have spent a considerable time abroad, there is this self-representational rhetoric that makes them take distance from their fellow back home, because the latter still think like a hundred years ago. These images are an example of what Buckowsky calls „a new form of orientalism”. (Buchowsky, M., 2006, *The Specter of Orientalism in Europe: from Exotic to Stigmatized Brother*. *Anthropological Quarterly*, vol.79, n.3, p.463)

attitude that favours them in the acculturation process and saves a proper self-immage in the new society.⁵

One of the acculturation techniques typical of Romanians is the family group, which represents the key unit for cultural production and reproduction, the locus where people try to bridge the gaps that migration creates. The family remains the primary unit around which plans for migration develop, and within which bonds form, and transnational practices arise.⁶ There is a list of daily ‘micropractices’ linking Romania and Italy, from assistance to younger family members, to financial cooperation.

From the acculturation point of view, Romanian migrants are involved in social relations on various levels, from the family sphere to that of the more extended community: these relations may be structured in different ways, from relations of reciprocal assistance on an informal level, to involvement in the work of formally established associations [23]. Experience in commuting, together with almost non-existence of language barriers and relaxed legislation policy might encourage the phenomenon of “long time commuting”, though the main practice is still focused on the short-term commuting.

⁵ With respect to the the self-image and the image outside, we have to mention here the frequent confusions between Roma and Romanians. This has deeply upset the Romanian ruling elite who called for a dramatic sharpening of the boundaries between the Roma and the majority population in order to reaffirm the country’s national self-esteem. To give one example, in 2000, Minister for Foreign Affairs Petre Roman did not hesitate to claim that the government had an obligation to “protect 23 million Romanians against the few thousand Gypsies who are damaging the country’s image abroad and hampering the country’s efforts to get off the EU’s visa blacklist.”⁷⁸ This attitude is clearly shared by the majority of the population, whose still strong prejudices against the Roma easily lead to scapegoating tendencies (“Anti-Romani Hate Speech in Romania,” European Roma Rights Center, available at <http://www.errc.org/>). Blaming the Roma for the negative image of the country abroad has become common practice in both public discourse and daily conversation. However, this should not be viewed as an isolated case, but within the general label of “backwardness” unfortunately attached to Romania.

⁶ There is another aspect that is relevant for the acculturation process in the case of Romanians. People’s involvement in the life of their respective religious communities (be they Orthodox or Protestant, as is the case) represents a fundamental identity marker, a factor of recognition, as if the religious factor is the only one that could bring them back to being “Romanian”, while in their daily working lives there was a tendency for dispersion and blending into local society. The church is a point of reference for Romanian immigrants in Italy, as it represented the only part of the city with an ethnic connotation. At church people can meet compatriots, exchange information and find work.

These transnational practices linked to the social area have significant consequences in Romania, since it is the construction of a transnational social capital based on norms of reciprocity, solidarity and trust that condition the status of the migrant and their potential for socio-economic reintegration into the community of origin [24]. Migrants have started to be considered as „transnational” agents linking two or more societies, affiliations, identities, also being influenced by – and influencing in their turn – both spaces to which they simultaneously belong. Thus, they are more likely to develop hybrid identities with the freedom of global movement and communication, and at the same time a sense of Europeaness, that would help them to develop a strategy of integration in the host society.

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E-LEARNING A NEW METHOD OF ENVIRONMENTS OF 21ST CENTURY

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Abstract

The article presents some aspects about the new e-Learning method for study. Education and researches in different domains using modern technologies for learning within computer aided instruction in knowledge based society.

We can consider that e-Learning represents an opportunity for those who want to be continually trained.

Keywords: e-Learning, knowledge, organization, computer

1. Introduction

The evolution of technology, information, the development of the communication system induces new approaches and new learning techniques. The technologies of information and communication (TIC) constitute not only a media device but also a path to all the resources of the world.

TICs contain three technologies: informatics, telecommunication and audio-visual materialized in the computer connected to the Internet. This new communication method, through its quantity and quality of available information, influences the educational activity.

E-learning is different from other methods of training. There are particularities, advantages and limits of this training method. Terms of distance training, on-line training, e-learning, tele-education have an apparently similar significance and represent specific aspects of the new educational technology.

The term of e-learning represents the interaction between the educational process and the Information Communications Technology.

E-learning can be defined as a learning process based on multimedia resources and which allows one or more persons to get training starting from its own computer. The multimedia support system can combine a text, a plane or spatial graphic, a sound an image, animation and even video resources.

These support systems revolutionize the pedagogical approach and the methods through the educational product.

2. Advantages and disadvantages of distance learning

Training is “open” to any person, regardless of age, training, socio-professional category, etc.

The access to information and its manipulation is performed without any restrictions imposed by the distance.

It favors the creativity and the discovery of new interpretations, nuances and entities.

It allows the access to new competences required by modern life. Anyone can get familiar to the new technologies: computer, multimedia systems, Internet.

It facilitates the local training, without departures; thus the person applying for this kind of education gains time, financial economy and optimal training conditions (for example at home). This represents great advantages for handicapped persons.

A trainer can address to a large number of students, ensuring an individualized relation with each of them.

It allows a sensitive reduction of costs compared to training that requires the presence of the student.

- transport and accommodation expenses are suppressed
- the individual learning time is reduced by directing the study towards the aspects which must be explored
- the trainer has now the role of guidance, of giving assistance at the learning programme.

The persons implied in the study benefit of the knowledge and the experience of the internationally recognised trainers, whom they cannot meet directly.

It ensures the anatomy of training: the trainee chooses the conditions of time and space.

It allows the choice of subjects, the planning of courses in concordance with the actual training level, ensuring a better assimilation of knowledge and a proper evolution of the student's capacity.

It is based on interactive multimedia solutions that require the student's attention; it stimulates his capacity of understanding and interpreting. The simulations, the self-evaluating tests (soft products associated to the knowledge display), the exchange of messages place the person in the center of his training, and they constantly keep him active. The efficiency of training depends on his will to assimilate.

It supports the feeling of freedom and self trust, through the lack of intimidation and embarrassment condition towards the colleagues and the teacher.

The interesting information from the Internet can represent news in the field and can be accessed everywhere in the world.

However, this does not constitute a miraculous solution. It can be used on short term even if the solution is pedagogically qualitative.

Disadvantages:

1. It prevents/restraints the student's socialising, its integration in a group, its adaptation to real life, the creation of inter-human, affective relations.

2. The technical problems afferent to the functioning of the training systems (perturbation of the communication network, the breakdown of the computing equipments, soft piracy or document viruses)

Particularities of E-learning

E-learning contains different development modalities and technologies (correspondence/publishing, audio, video, computer) of training, which supposes the physical distance of the educational actors (teacher-student) who feel this distance and try to replace it through different strategies of encouraging the interaction between teacher-student, student, student, student-study content, and which leads to a much more personalised relation than in the traditional

education (face to face), through the exchange of study messages and documents or answers to the required tasks.

The defining elements of e-learning could be:

- The separation between the trainer and the trainee during most of the training period
- The use of mass-media (for educational purposes) in order to relate the student with the teacher and as support to transmit the course content.
- The insurance of communication between the teacher/tutor or the education agent and the ones who learns.

3. Factors implied in the distance training

a) Human resources:

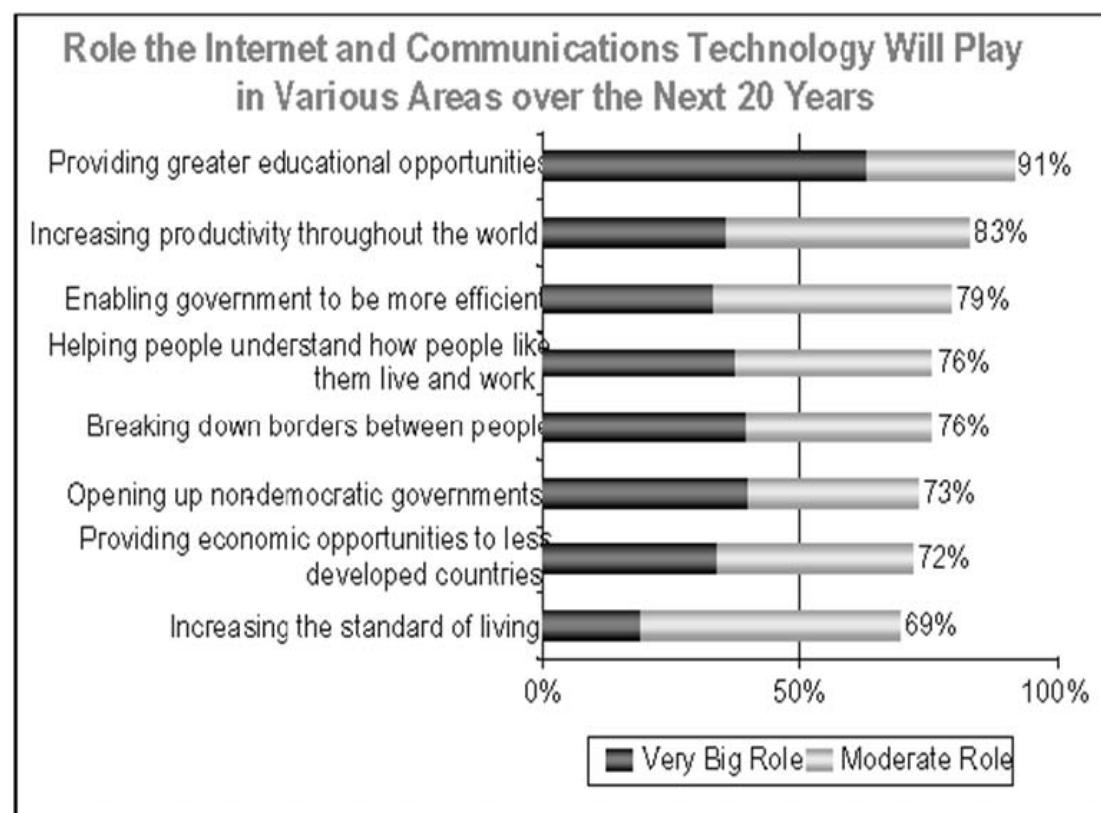
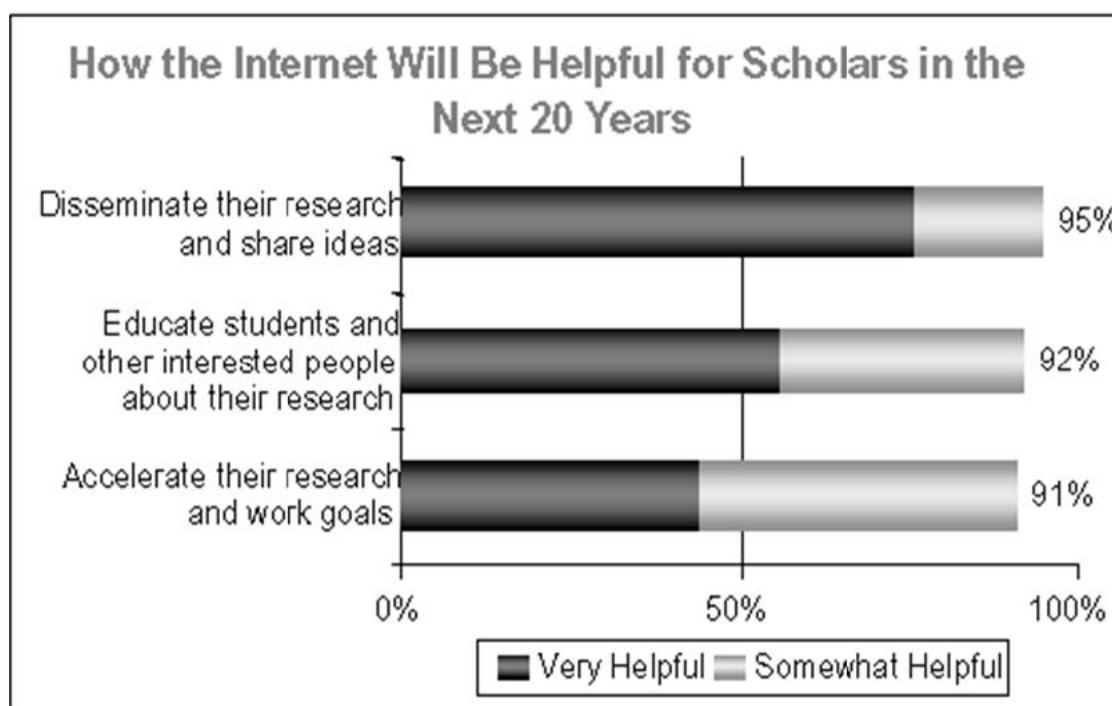
- the students (with their motivation, skills and competences);
- the faculty (the trainer who must develop an understanding of the students' characteristics and needs, must adapt his teaching method, must be aware of technology, must facilitate learning and also be an information provider);
- the technical personnel acting like a bridge between the teacher and the student, understanding each category, installing programmes, collecting evaluations, tests ;
- the auxiliary personnel registering the students, multiplying and distributing the material, ordering the manuals, making level-development reports, organising technical resources, ;
- administrators

b) Technological support: the technologies selected according to a convenient balance between needs and costs

c) The Programme management answering to the needs of the students and ensuring the necessary resources, the adequate equipment and the assistance services for the students

d) Managerial services dealing with the integration of distance education in the curriculum (analytical programmes), the faculty development, ensuring the conditions for solving the tasks given by the trainer, the creation of new facilities and the improvement of the quality of the educational act.

4. Studies and Results



Thus Computer Base Learning appears in America in the years 1970-1980 and uses the educational software memorised on CD or hard-disk.

The Web Based Learning means training through web courses. The soft is dedicated to training on a web address. In this context there are electronic manuals, links towards other educational resources.

Web Based Teaching represents teaching on the Internet and is constituted from a list of emails and discussion forums.

5. Conclusions

E-learning, founded as a consequence of the development of information and communication technology, is another opportunity offered to those who want to be trained.

It does not exclude the classic education, where real objects are used as a source of information, but attaches virtual resources (documents in electronic format on the internet and other information supports used on the PC).

In this stage, using the TICs, the teacher is not the most important piece of knowledge; information can be found on the internet as well, independent from the teacher, thus he becomes the third actor in the learning process (actors: teachers, students/students/, knowledge/science). At the moment, the contribution of the teacher is strictly methodological, he must guide, and he must know how to ask the designer of the educational soft to adapt to new.

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INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL AND EDUCATION IN THE CONTEXT OF THE NEW ECONOMY AND OF THE KNOWLEDGE-BASED SOCIETY

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Abstract

The central idea around which this essay is built is that knowledge, as an appreciating asset, intellectual capital and investment in education are becoming dominant realities in the new economics and knowledge-based society.

The first chapter underlines the importance of knowledge and intellectual capital as the main driven forces in the new millennium.

The nation's output depends not only on the number of hours people work, but also on how productive those hours are. One of the important determinants of workers' productivity is education. Both private and public returns to education are highlighted in the third chapter.

The implications of globalization on the business world are of such nature that it is necessary for us to redefine the economic concepts and models, aspect which I've tried to focus on in the fourth chapter.

In the fifth chapter the attention is headed towards the new economies, which in the global civilization are based on innovations and furthermore on technological development which leads towards a high level of competitiveness and human development.

More and more countries are interested in becoming knowledge-based societies, thus being more prepared to face the challenges of the new millennium.

Keywords: intellectual capital, education, globalization

1. The knowledge-based society and the appearance of the intellectual capital

1.1. Knowledge – the main propelling force in the new millennium

The last decades have seen an expansion of the concept of “new economy” as a new type of approach concerning the economic science. A part of the economists think the modern economies are *dynamic adapting systems* rather than *closed equilibrium systems*, as it was thought for a long time. Some of these are *Kenneth Arrow*, winner of the Nobel Prize and one of the first promoters of the neo-classic modern model, and *Brian Arthur* of the Santa Fe Institute. Sometimes the *new economy* is known also as the *economic school from Santa Fe* because many of the economists preoccupied with complexity are affiliated to the center of interdisciplinary research in this institute. The complexity specific to the modern economy’s environment determined some authors to plead for a new approach of the basic economy to a new dynamic adapting system. That’s why sometimes the economists studying the new economy are also called complexity economists. These economists argue that economies are like the human biological systems, following the same fundamental laws. These laws will manifest differently in economy and in biology, but if we can improve the level of understanding them, we will gain from the possibility of getting closer, to a greater extent, to the functioning mechanism of markets and firms. The difference between approaching the equilibrium in the classic economy and in the new economy is presented in a suggestive way by **Ilya Prigogine**: “*The classic economy puts accent on stability and equilibrium. Today we notice the existence of instabilities, fluctuations and evolutionist tendencies that manifest themselves practically at all levels. We are in front of a universe much more complex and more structured than we could ever imagine. The end of this century is associated with the birth of a new vision on nature and science which brings the human being a little closer to nature, a science that makes from human intelligence and creativity an expression of a fundamental tendency in the universe. Thus new perspectives open up for the interdisciplinary research.*”

In the new economy and in the society of knowing the intangible goods such as knowledge and the management of information and

knowledge become the new nucleus of competences. In professor Quash's opinion, from the London School of Economics, we are in a world that puts accent on the economic value of the intangible goods. We are dealing with "cognitive domains" where ideas are worth billions, while the products cost less and less. In Peter Drucker's opinion, in the future there will be other success factors: "the traditional production factors – the land, the labour and the capital – haven't disappeared. But they became secondary. Knowledge becomes the only resource truly relevant today." The new economy requires a rethinking of the production factors' theory. Knowledge becomes the essential component of the contemporary social and economic development system. The spreading of innovations and convergence of the top technologies will play a key part in accelerating the importance of knowledge in the context of the process of globalisation".

The modern concepts of "e-economics" and electronic trade demand the appealing to a nucleus of competences where knowledge will be the main propelling force. The new economy means showing a greater interest to the so-called knowledge society, to the employee who has knowledge, to the intellectual capital, as well as to the organisations that learn.

Knowledge has always been extremely important, we aren't homo sapiens for nothing. Throughout history, victory has been to in the hands of those who used knowledge, being aware of its matchless potential: among these winners are the primitive warriors who learned to build iron weapons, the businessmen from the United States who, for a hundred years, are the beneficiaries of the best public schools system in the world, with an extremely well educated work force and, of course, the list can continue. But knowledge is much more important than before, because we are at the center of an economic revolution that gives birth to the Era of Information.

Knowledge, unlike labour, land and capital is an asset which gains value while used. The more used, the more effective and efficient the knowledge becomes. In Karl Erck Sveiby's opinion, in the new economy, knowledge has four characteristics: it is tacit/implicit; it is action-oriented; it is based on rules; it modifies constantly.

An organisation based on knowledge can give a new entrepreneurial vibe in an organisation and can motivate the top managers to be preoccupied with transforming the organisation so that it becomes capable of capturing, applying and developing value as a consequence of implementing some performing technologies. Knowledge and advanced technologies can transform in a significant way a nation's economy.

Knowledge and information are the thermonuclear, competitive weapons of nowadays. Knowledge is more powerful and more valuable than natural resources and big factories. Let's take for example Microsoft and Toyota which didn't become what they are today because they were wealthier than IBM and General Motors. On the contrary. But they had a much more precious thing than physical and financial assets, they had intellectual capital.

1.2 The appearance of the intellectual capital

The society of the third millennium disposes of employees who are valuable because of their knowledge. In many of these companies, value isn't found in the tangible assets, but in those intangible. The intellectual capital is the term attributed to the combined intangible assets that allow the company to work efficiently. The intellectual capital is the practice and the intuition of a team of chemists who discover a new drug worth millions of dollars, is the ability of workers to innovate in thousands of horse-power to improve the efficiency of a factory. It is the electronic network that transports information at the speed of light through a company, so that the answer is faster and prompter than that of the rivals. It is the collaboration between a company and its clients, the strong bond between them which brings back the client again and again. It is the power of the collective mind. It is very difficult to identify and even more difficult to use efficiently. But once we find and exploit it, we will surely win.

The components of the intellectual capital are:

- **The market assets** – are those deriving from a good relationship of the organisation with the market and the clients. The market assets reflect the potential of an organisation due to some intangible assets concerning the market. Examples can include: the

clients and their degree of loyalty, the distribution channels, different contracts and agreements etc.

- **The assets based on intellectual property** – include the know-how, the commercial secrets, the copyright, the patents, or other rights. The intellectual property represents the legal protection mechanism of several assets of the organisations.

- **The assets based on human resources** – refer to the ability and creativity shown in solving problems, as well as to the leader, entrepreneur and manager qualities of the employees of an organisation. The individual is not abilitated to carry on a certain activity, on the contrary he has to prove he is a dynamic person, who can carry on a variety of activities in time. As they become more competitive in the activity carried on, people learn more and more and become more valuable.

- **The assets specific to infrastructure** – have in view those technologies, methods and processes allowing an organisation to work efficiently on long term. The examples include: the organisation's culture, the methods of management, the financial structure, the data bases and the information about the market or about the clients, the communication systems like the e-mail and the modern teleconference systems.

A hundred years ago labour was relatively cheap. In the third millennium labour stops being cheap. The assets based on human resource with which an organisation has to operate will be rare and expensive. The amplifying of the importance of the intellectual capital reflects the increase of the dependancy of some organisations on the intangible assets. Every day new types of companies appear that have intangible assets. Their products are intangible and can be electronically distributed in the "virtual market space" via internet.

The organisation intensive from a point of view of media means and of knowledge, whose products are digital, are the organisations of the third millennium. The world has changed again and new means of monitoring and managing these organisations that reflect these changes must be found. The people of the third millennium rely more and more on knowledge. They want to understand the organisation's objectives and to know their role in the organisation.

In the third millenium the organisation from Romania must place the accent on encouraging the personnel's involvement by showing consideration to the contribution of an individual inside an organisation. There are several ways to try to increase the potential and the obvious value of the people in an organisation. The modern forms of investing in education are especially recommended: training, professionalised and specialised qualifications, activities about knowledge as well as forming some components concerning the carrying on of some activities. As the labour force becomes more and more global", the valuable employers and employees invest in themselves more and more. This can contribute to the protection and the increase of the components' nucleus. The so-called analysts of knowledge are more and more requested to work with the individuals of an organisation to identify the key assets for knowledge. To permit the increase in the people's power it is necessary to measure the assets based on the human resource. Knowledge is power and profit.

Each country, company and individual depend more and more on knowledge: patents, abilities, technologies, information on clients. Even Pope John Paul the 2nd acknowledged the increasing importance of knowledge in the "Centessimus Annus", by writing: "if some time ago the decisive production factor was the land, and later the capital, nowadays the decisive factor is the human being himself, the human being and his knowledge."

The spreading of the intellectual capital can be reached in the third millenium if innovation and creativity are ubiquitous in an organisation. The feeling of succes is expressed and the need of a permanent mutation and change is felt.

The true "heroes" of an organisation are those excelling and thus helping his organisation to be a winner in competition and to develop in the long run. This means also the creation of a culture of the organisation which promotes and supports the innovation process. There is a direct relationship between the extent to which an organisation proves to be innovating and its ability to expand its intellectual capital. The extent to which a company is innovating is also a measure of its surviving force.

2. Knowledge and Innovation – the Road to Competitity

Starting with 1998, OECD (the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) and the World Bank cooperated in their activities to create economies based on knowledge, and were helped in their efforts by countries going through transition also.

In Carl Dahlman's opinion, manager of the Programme "Knowledge for Development inside the Institute of the World Bank": "To benefit from the knowledge revolution, concrete strategies that can satisfy the four pillars of the knowledge economy are necessary:

- an institutional and economic background that promotes the efficient use of knowledge;
- an educated population endowed to create and use knowledge;
- a dynamic information infrastructure;
- an efficient innovating system inside the companies and the research centers that can satisfy the new needs of the population."

3. The Investment in Education

3.1 The private benefits of the investment in education

The employees don't lose their value. Their value for the organisation, when they are understood and appreciated, is incomparable." David Decenzo

Managers all around the world make decisions on investing the capital. They weigh things carefully before making a decision and analyse every alternative and opportunity to acquire assets. Let's take for example the buying of a car. They think which one is best and which one would bring the most benefits. In the end, they will invest tens or maybe hundreds of thousand of dollars for that car.

For the managers to appreciate the employees at their just value, it is necessary for these to have a proper education. A person's level of education affects the level of his earnings, as there is a direct proportionality relationship between them. The more profound the studies of a person, the better this person is prepared to absorb the new information and to familiarise with the new technologies, thus their earnings are considerably greater.

The education a person receives has strong implications on his work place. In his book “Studies on the Human Capital”, Jacob Mincer specifies:”the educated employees have at least two advantages in comparison with the less educated, among which are: bigger wages and a bigger stability at his work place.”

Another aspect worth mentionning and closely related to education is represented by the quality of our lives. The persons with a higher level of education tend to have a better health than those with lower level of education, the former making an investment in themselves, which they protect by taking preventive measures.

3.2 The public benefits of the investment in education

Economists have been interested in the economic growth the moment Adam Smith elaborated his study on the nations’ riches.

The education’s contribution to the economic growth is done through two mechanisms. The first and the most known is the creation of new knowledge, also known as the “Schumpeteriana growth”. The much more educated persons will later become scientists and investors working to contribute to the growth of the human intelligence stock by developping new processes and technologies. So we arrive at the second mechanism through which education affects the economic growth by transmitting knowledge and information. The schools ensure the level of education necessary to understand the new information, and at this chapter Romania is among the first countries, in my opinion. The rising of the educational level facilitated greatly the process of inovation, that took place in the computers’ industry, for example if there hadn’t been for the schools to teach the pupils and the students how to use these new applications, the innovation’s effect would have been much diminished.

Education transforms people, they become better citizens, better mothers, fathers and children. In his study “Capitalism and Freedom”, written in 1962, the winner of the Nobel Prize Milton Friedman describes some of the effects associated with education: “ a stable democratic society can’t exist without a minimal degree of studying and knowledge by its citizens and without the acceptance of a common set of values. Education can contribute to both.”

4. The Knowledge Economy and the Competitive Advantage

The implications of globalisation on the business world demand a redefining of the concepts and of the economic models.

Today the accent is placed on flexible, agile enough organisations that need specialists who work together in teams. Such teams are suggestively called multi-functional teams. We thus move from the world of narrow specialisations towards the world of teams and especially the world of inter-functional teams underlining not only the product's quality, but also that of those making decisions in the business world. The inter and multi-functional teams consist of members having different qualifications and competences. And this fact is full of meanings in the new economy and in the knowledge society. Here is a new provocation Romania has to accept, a condition it must satisfy in its process of transition towards a knowledge society. The work teams also require other organising structures than the pyramidal structures specific to the traditional organisation based on hierarchies and the division of labour. A horizontal structure facilitates the labour organisation around production processes which unify the clients' needs and not around the functions and duties that need to be fulfilled. Career directions favour those who can practice several professions and who show real qualities for working in a group and for continuous improvement. The remodeling and the reconfiguration of the new business world has a considerable impact on some of the key economic concepts and models, which implies:

- introducing multi and inter-functional teams;
- adopting horizontal structures and removing hierarchies;
- re-engineering processes.

The accent was moved from organising labour as a traditional production factor based on the division of labour, towards organising people in teams and towards identifying and developing the career and competences management. Experience proved that dynamic performing teams can be more efficient in an environment dominated by change than the big organisations individually or the singular persons.

The new economy must take into consideration such an approach and incorporate these new concepts into the economic sciences discipline. Many of the performing modern organisations transform

and are no longer interested exclusively in maximising profits, but they look to maintain themselves in the business area, in competition with other performing organisations. Some organisations transformed and eliminated the formal structures, especially the pyramidal structures. The personnel of such organisations is no longer interested in having a job that formally takes place at the same office; such persons simultaneously attend to several work places; the accent is no longer placed on the traditional specifications of a certain duty in a work place or on a rigid programme, strictly respecting certain hours.

The competitive organisations think individuals become much more interested in the activities that challenge them to manifest their creativity and inventiveness, bringing them satisfaction; such individuals show less interest in a certain formal socio-professional statute or in detaining certain titles with social resonance.

The economic and technological convergence generated by globalisation changes and will continue to change the manner in which wealth is created both at a national level and at a transnational level. To facilitate the effective spreading of knowledge and innovation, an important information-based structure is developing more and more. Amplifying the convergence will have a significant impact on the economic bases of all countries implicated in or affected by the process of globalisation. Globalisation considerably modifies the manner in which business is conducted and accelerates the spreading of the “know-how” and of the innovation.

From this point of view organisations must become more and more competitive. This makes it necessary to reformulate the principle of the comparative advantage by appealing to a concept much more suggestive in the context of the new economy and of the knowledge society, that of the competitive advantage.

The main factors allowing Romania to become innovating have in view:

- **Consistent investments** as size order in education in general and in the superior level education in particular;
- **A quality technological and information-related basis;**
- **High levels of Government spendings on research and development;**

- Efficient laws to protect the intellectual property to sustain the research-development activity.

5. The Knowledge Economy, the Technological Process and the Human Development

In the global civilisation, the new economies based on innovations have as a main component the technological development which leads to a high level of competitiveness and to human development. The technological progress is essential for the human progress. The digital, genetic, molecular innovations open up new perspectives and “break the frontiers” related to the way people can use technologies to extend their knowledge, by stimulating growth and development. The new technologies spread both between different countries, and inside them. The technological innovations affect the human development. The human development and the technological progress are supporting, intensifying and propelling one another:

- The technological innovations can improve the human potential and abilities;
- The technological innovations are a means of ensuring the human development;
- The human development is an important means of sustaining the technological development.

The analysis of the Human Development Index in the countries in transition offers new results. So, even if it is placed last, compared to the value of the human development index among the seven countries in transition grouped as states with a medium value of the HDI, Romania recorded during 1990 and 1998 the lowest negative value in the modification of the human development index.

In Gerardo Berthrin's opinion, author of the **National Human Development Report, Romania 2000**, "... the synergy and the articulation of these three dimensions will ensure favourable premises so that the Government's actions lead to Romania's acceptance as a EU member and to the ensurance of a human development on the long term."

The analysis of the tendencies recorded in the evolution of the human development index in Romania during 1995 and 1999 proves

that there are some evolution tendencies of the three components of the HDI in less synchronized directions:

- The medium life expectancy at birth reduced starting with 1995 up to 1997, then it began to grow reaching a 69,7 years level in 1999.
- The last five analysed years the level of liquidation of illiteracy among adults remained relatively constant, registering a slight growth after 1998 up to 97,2%;
- On the whole, the situation of the development index on the educational system in Romania improved.

The knowledge society, in general and the knowledge economy in particular lead, according to some authors, even to the modification of rules specific to the traditional economic development: "...Societies or regions can evolve from economies with a strong agrarian character towards knowledge economies without necessarily going through an industrialisation phase."

A society based on cultural diversity has to invest strongly in education, in health protection and in other programmes with social character. The key-principle that has to reign in modern societies over the investment policies, public or private should be that of allowing and favouring a special investment in the human and social capital. This principle can be applied and linked to the systems that ensure prosperity and life quality as well as to other aspects of the social-economic development. The traditionally understood prosperity, based on the transferable payment system, on bureaucratic services and on the so-called social engineering, must give way to the new approach about the active prosperity, the continuous education and the development of systems which ensure life quality by appealing to a set of priority investment programmes, like those concerning the investment in education.

Education and implicitly the investment in education must become key components for the ensurance of an authentic human development on the long term.

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CHOOSING THE SPECIALTIES OF ECONOMIC UNIVERSITY STUDIES

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Abstract

The reform of the Romanian high education system is still in development. One of the main goals of this reform is to prepare a rapid and facile integration of the graduates in the labor market. This purpose could imply a radical redesigning of curricula. Moreover, the necessity to increase the efficiency could make some universities to change substantially the studies programs that achieve to attract only few students. This paper explores the circumstances of choosing the specialties of university studies by the students in the first year from economics faculties. For this purpose we use an own investigation among 129 students. We approach the relevant factors that influence their options: the perceived utility for the available jobs the future graduates, the compatibility with the exigencies of the education process, the field of university studies accreditation by the Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education and the parents' influence.

***Keywords: Occupational Choice, Economic University Studies,
Labor Market***

1. Introduction

In the last decades, on the Romanian Labor Market the economical university studies became much appreciated. As a result, the universities raised their offers of studies programs in the economic field. In the Romanian high education system, the rules are quite strict for the study fields of bachelor degree, allowing instead flexibility for the master degree. The Bologna Process attenuated the differences

between the fields of university studies by reducing the years of study for the bachelor degree [1]. Recently, in some universities, the students are assigned to these fields not in the moment of admission at faculties but after a year of study. It was presumed that in this way, the students could choose their future fields of studies with enough knowledge.

Some studies revealed the aspects taken into consideration in the choice of the specialties of studies: wages, jobs' stability etc. [2]. Students could be considered as buyers of higher education. Their decisions depend on the expectations about the net benefits, especially the increase of wages, brought by the higher education [3]. However, the rationality of this kind of choice could be linked with the insufficiency of the accurate information about the universities and about the labor market [4]. It was revealed that the choices of studies specialties have some particularities for the former socialist countries, where the labor markets are still volatile [5].

In this paper we analyze the choice of the fields of economical university studies approaching the situation from the Faculty of Economic Sciences in the State University "Dunarea de Jos" Galati. This faculty organized studies for bachelor degree in eight fields: Finance and Banking (FB), Accounting (AC), Trade, Tourism and Services (TTS), International Business (IB), Management (MN), Marketing (MK), Economics of Informatics (EI) and Economics of Agriculture (EA). The students admitted last year have to be assigned, according to their options and their results in the first year, to the specialties of university studies. In this analysis we use an own investigation among these students in order to find out the circumstances of their choice.

In the last years, University "Dunarea de Jos" Galati faced significant financial difficulties. Among the solutions mentioned by university top management to solve this problem it was the redesigning or even the elimination of the studies programs that didn't attract much students. The results of our investigation could help the appreciation of the fields of university studies attractiveness.

2. Data Collection

The data we used for this paper was provided by an investigation we realized in the period February – April 2008 on a sample of 129 students from the first year of study in the Faculty of Economic Sciences – University “Dunarea de Jos” Galati. There were not included in the sample students from the Distance Education (DE), which were already assigned to the fields of university studies. Also the students from the Republic of Moldova were not included because their choices are done in special circumstances. The sample represents almost a quarter of the all students from the first year of study of the faculty so the result of our investigation could be considered significant.

Our research developed in different phases. Initially, we practiced group interviews when the students were invited to explain the circumstances they chose the university studies specialty (a group consisted in between 8 and 15 students). Then, under the protection of anonymity, the students answered at questions concerning the concrete aspects of the option for the economic university studies. Later, some of the students gave supplementary explanations for the answers they wrote in the questionnaires. In the investigation we tried to maintain an atmosphere that helps students' lack of inhibition and sincerity.

3. Relevant Factors for the Choice of University Specialty

In the group interviews the students were invited to indicate the most important factors that could influence their choice regarding the field of university studies. Three important factors may be stressed out: -The perceived utility by the future graduates for the available jobs; -The compatibility with the exigencies of the education process; -The field of university studies accreditation by the Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ARACIS) (table 1).

Table 1 – The importance of the factors influencing the specialty choice

<i>Factor Degree of importance</i>	<i>UJ</i>	<i>CK</i>	<i>AC</i>
Very big	59	32	102
Big	37	51	16
Medium	25	33	11
Little	7	11	-
Very little	1	2	-
Total	129	129	129

More than three quarters of the investigated students consider that jobs utility for the future graduates will have a big or very big importance in the specialty choice. Eight students associated a little or very little importance to the future jobs facilitated by the field of university studies. Some of them explained that for many employers this aspect is not very important. More than 64 percent from the students we interviewed regarded the compatibility with the exigencies of the education process as a factor with big or very big importance in choosing the field of university studies. Many of them confessed they worry that they don't graduate if they were assigned to certain fields such as accounting or informatics. Almost 80 percent of the investigated students associated a very big importance to the field of university studies accreditation by the Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education. However, it was proved that many of them misunderstood the implications of that aspect.

In order to compare the significant factors for the choice, we transposed the degrees of importance on a rating scale from 1 to 5 (1 for "very little importance" and 5 for "very big importance"). The descriptive statistics based on this quantification indicate the accreditation (AC) as the most important factor, followed by the utility of the future job (UJ) and the compatibility of the knowledge (CK). For all factors resulted values of standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis that are significant (see table. 2).

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics of the factors influencing the specialty choice

Factor Indicator	UJ	CK	AC
Mean	4.13	3.58	4.69
Standard Deviation	0.96	1.03	0.65
Kurtosis	-0.07	-0.11	2.07
Skewness	-0.85	-0.49	-1.88

4. Evaluation of the Specialties from the Economic University Studies

In our investigation we asked the students to evaluate the specialties from the economical university studies among they have to choose. As criteria of evaluation they used the three relevant factors.

4.1. Evaluation by the perceived utility for the available jobs

Table 3 The students' perceived utility for the available jobs offered by the specialties of economical university studies

<i>Spec Level</i>	<i>Very Good</i>	<i>Good</i>	<i>Mod.</i>	<i>Bad</i>	<i>Very Bad</i>
FB	79	44	6	-	-
AC	42	53	28	4	2
TTS	68	37	19	5	-
IB	32	49	33	8	7
MN	12	44	51	19	3
MK	21	38	67	3	-
EI	14	29	53	21	12
EA	-	-	4	61	64

More than 60 percent from the investigated students appreciated as very good the utility of jobs provided by FB (see table 3). Many of them are influenced by the recent development of banking sector that offered well-motivated jobs. The utility of the jobs available for the graduates of TTS is considered very well by more than 52 percent of the questioned students. They are attracted especially by the jobs from tourism. In general, students dislike the jobs provided by EA because they associate them with the villages. Quite surprisingly, the jobs available for the graduates of EI are not very well regarded, many students believing the competition in this segment of labor market is very high.

In order to establish a hierarchy of the specialties from the economical university studies depending on the perceived utility for the available jobs, the students' answers were transposed in a rating scale from 1 to 5 (1 for very bad and 5 for very good). The descriptive statistics resulted indicated the biggest utility was assigned to FB while the smallest was assigned to EA.

Table 4 Descriptive Statistics of the students' perceived utility for the available jobs offered by the specialties

<i>Spec Ind.</i>	<i>FB</i>	<i>AC</i>	<i>TTS</i>	<i>IB</i>	<i>MN</i>	<i>MK</i>	<i>EI</i>	<i>EA</i>
Mean	4.57	4.00	4.30	3.71	3.33	3.60	3.09	1.53
Std. Dev.	0.58	0.90	0.86	1.08	0.92	0.79	1.09	0.56
Kurt.	-0.02	0.60	0.06	0.21	-0.22	-0.70	-0.40	-0.86
Skew.	-0.98	-0.78	-1.00	-0.75	-0.17	0.56	-0.11	0.40

The values of standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis for all fields are significant (see Table 4).

4.2. Evaluation by the compatibility with the exigencies of the education process

Many students confessed they evaluated the exigency of the education process rather by teachers from the fields of university studies than by the syllabus.

Table 5 Students perceptions about the compatibility with the exigencies of the education process from the specialties of the university studies

<i>Spec Level</i>	<i>Very Good</i>	<i>Good</i>	<i>Mod.</i>	<i>Bad</i>	<i>Very Bad</i>
FB	32	93	4	-	-
AC	25	29	31	28	16
TTS	62	51	16	-	-
IB	29	37	44	11	8
MN	5	23	48	34	19
MK	11	24	44	38	12
EI	3	19	37	42	28
EA	19	62	32	12	4

In order to compare the students' perception about the compatibility with the exigencies of the education process from the specialties of university studies, the answers were transposed in the rating scale.

Table 6 Descriptive Statistics of the compatibility with the exigencies of the education process in a field

<i>Spec Ind.</i>	<i>FB</i>	<i>AC</i>	<i>TTS</i>	<i>IB</i>	<i>MN</i>	<i>MK</i>	<i>EI</i>	<i>EA</i>
Mean	4.22	3.15	4.36	3.53	2.70	2.88	2.43	3.62
Std. Dev.	0.48	1.31	0.69	1.12	1.05	1.09	1.06	0.95
Kurt.	0.08	-1.10	-0.75	-0.31	-0.56	-0.56	-0.68	0.36
Skew.	0.51	-0.08	-0.61	-0.44	0.06	0.21	0.30	-0.71

From the descriptive statistics it resulted that biggest average score was for TTS, followed by FB while the lowest average score was for EI. For all the specialties we obtained significant values of standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis (see Table 6).

4.3. Evaluation by the accreditation perspective

From the eight specialties of university studies organized by of the Faculty of Economic Sciences, three (AC, TTR and EA) are not accredited yet by ARACIS. For many investigated students this situation lead to the rejection of some specialties as AC and TTR that otherwise they considered as very attractive. Some students want to choose fields that are not accredited. They hope these fields will obtain the accreditation until they will graduate.

5. Students' Options

In our investigation we asked the students about their first options for the fields of university studies. It resulted that more than a half of them wished to be assigned to FB (see Table 7). This field is accredited and the students have good perceptions about the jobs provided and the compatibility with the exigencies of the education process.

Table 7 Students' first options for the specialties of university studies

<i>Spec</i>	<i>FB</i>	<i>AC</i>	<i>TTS</i>	<i>IB</i>	<i>MN</i>	<i>MK</i>	<i>EI</i>	<i>EA</i>	<i>Total</i>
Nr of stud	66	6	11	24	7	10	5	-	129

The second place came to IB that is also an accredited specialty and it received good appreciation about the jobs provided and the exigencies of the education process. Although TTR is not yet accredited, students preferred it to other fields especially because of the attractive jobs provided. No student wants to be assigned to EA because it is not accredited and because the poor utility for the available jobs. Some students declared that, if they were assigned to some unwanted fields (such as EA or EI) they would transfer to other universities.

6. Conclusions

In this paper we approached the choice of the specialties from the economical university studies. For this purpose we used an investigation among students from the first year of study in the Faculty of Economics – University “Dunarea de Jos” Galati. We found out that their choice would be influenced by three relevant factors: the perceived utility for the available jobs the future graduates, the compatibility with the exigencies of the education process and the field of university studies accreditation by the Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education.

The interviewed students were asked to evaluate, based on these aspects, the eight specialties from the economical university studies. It resulted that the field of Finance and Banking received the most favorable appreciations. Not surprisingly, this field will be the first option for more than a half of students.

From the perspective of financial difficulties that University “Dunarea de Jos” Galati has to face, this investigation could offer some clues for eventual decisions designated to increase the efficiency. These decisions could take the form of restructuring some fields unwanted by the students in the present.

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GENRE ANALYSIS AND DISCOURSE STRUCTURE

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Abstract

Genre analysis is directly relevant to the classroom and illuminates a neglected area in the teaching methods and materials. It emphasizes the crucial importance of rhetorical text structure and it influences how writing is taught by providing models of different communicative activities.

This paper briefly outlines the significance of genre analysis and suggests some ways in which the approach can be used to help teachers intervene more effectively in classroom writing. It also argues that it is an essential aspect of the teacher's role to help students acquire an understanding of the formal structures.

Keywords: genre analysis, discourse structure, writing skills, text processing, schemata

Discourse structure and text processing

Research in cognitive psychology in recent years has emphasized the importance of organized background knowledge in text processing. The focus has been on how knowledge of the world is ordered and used in comprehending text. In this respect, many studies have stressed the importance of pre-established categories of knowledge called *schemata* (e.g. Beaugrande and Dressler).

Effective understanding is seen as being dependent on the reader's ability to relate the structure of a text to a familiar conventional pattern. Moreover, these formal schemata are culturally specific, and without the appropriate model a reader's understanding and recall of a text are seriously impaired. In other words, those who

do not share the schemata, such as many second-language speakers, are at a considerable linguistic disadvantage.

As competent readers we therefore rely on implicit ability to recognize the distinctive ways in which texts are organized. But this aspect of linguistic knowledge is not only central to comprehensive strategies, but it is also vital to the production of communicatively appropriate texts. To write in a particular genre, whether a formal report or a historical romance, the author must be aware of the formal patterns that shape a text. Teachers therefore need to familiarise students with the schemata associated with the particular genres they will require.

What is genre analysis

Genre analysis is the study of how language is used within a particular context. Genres differ in that each has a different goal and they are structured differently to achieve those goals. The idea that there are different varieties of writing is obviously not new, and teachers have always distinguished between narratives, expositions, reports, compositions, and so on, when setting written work. What is new, however, is that the *organizational stages* of these varieties can be individually characterized. A genre has a particular schematic structure: a distinctive beginning, middle, and end. It is this which constitutes the genre of a text.

By analysing how writers conventionally sequence material to achieve particular purposes, we can begin to describe characteristic schematic types and show how they are realized linguistically. This information can be used by teachers to provide models to develop students' writing skills. Teachers are therefore becoming increasingly interested in the genre-based approach because an understanding of the patterns that underpin effective communication can be used to inform materials production and teaching.

The claim for genre analysis is therefore that it can both reveal communicative processes and serve a pedagogical purpose.

Some sample genres

While it is impossible to discuss the actual *process* of genre identification and analysis in such a short paper, it may be useful to summarise some results by presenting examples. An assortment of

different genres have been described and used to teach writing skills. Some Australian writers have studied text produced by primary-school children to reveal both the structure and cohesive features of narratives, expositions, and reports. *Narratives*, for example, perform the goal of entertaining through the following structure:

Example 1: Simple Narrative Genre

Orientation: introduction of characters and establishing of setting

Complication: introduction of problem, leading to crisis

Resolution: conclusion to the problem – good or bad

This structure can be identified most clearly in fairy tales.

Reports draw on an information base to describe the way things are with respect to a particular topic. Given this different purpose, children's reports have a distinctive structure.

Example 2: Simple Report Genre

General Classification: introduction and evaluation of topic

Description (can be repeated indefinitely): presentation of distinguishing characteristics of topic

These examples demonstrate the considerable differences between texts in terms of the overall structure employed to perform different functions. Beyond this simple model of description, genre theory depends on a careful linguistic analysis of the textual features of a large range of equivalent texts to substantiate the proposed stages and show how they are linguistically accomplished. In this way, for example, the systematic differences in structure between history and geography texts have been made to help secondary school students develop the particular discourse skills of these subjects.

The genre approach has been most successfully employed in the field of Academic English, where a variety of genres such as research articles, abstracts, grant proposals, conference presentations, and reprint requests have been examined.

The work of Swales in particular has been extremely influential in demonstrating that academic texts are based on a series of

conventionally structural stages. Much of his attention has focused on introductions to scientific *research articles* (Swales).

Swales points out that this structure performs the main objectives of research article introductions by establishing the importance of both the research field and the actual research and showing how the research will contribute to this field. Swales also offers the following analysis of *Requests for Reprints* of articles, an important genre in the world of scientific communication.

Example 3: Genre of Reprint Requests

1. Opening salutation
2. Request statement
3. Expression of thanks
4. Closing salutation

Despite the fact that L2 students are often disadvantaged by the cultural inaccessibility of the genres they are asked to produce, there are currently few genre descriptions useful to the EFL teacher.

Genre analysis and teaching writing skills

Most of the genre descriptions sketched above have been used to help students consciously structure their texts and develop effective control over different writing tasks. Genre analysis can provide the vocabulary and concepts to explicitly teach the text structures the teachers would like their students to produce. It places language at the centre of writing development by allowing shared understanding and explicit guidance.

A genre-based approach does not suffocate innovation and personal expression, but it can provide a methodological environment that develops writing skills and encourages creativity. It can provide opportunities for students to reflect on and discuss how language works in a given context and how it can most effectively be employed to meet particular goals.

Intervening in the classroom

Intervention by the teacher in the process of writing can be a highly productive exercise. There are a number of key ways in which a teacher, armed with the structural insights of a genre description, can

use an explicit knowledge of texts to provide guidance and constructive input.

1. *Modelling.* With explicit knowledge of the schema characteristics, good examples of the genre can be selected from a variety of sources as models. Initially, the genre might be modeled implicitly by reading and focusing on the cultural context of a text and drawing attention to its purpose. In later lessons, particular stages or moves can be identified explicitly and presented with exercises to illustrate how ideas and meanings are typically conveyed. An explicit approach clearly provides opportunities for group discussion and analysis of both categorized and labeled examples to make students aware of the functions that different stages contribute to a text.

2. *Guided Practice.* Examining models is very useful in clarifying structure, but it is obviously necessary for students to create their own work to express personal meaning and to develop ideas. An explicit structure provides a framework for guided practice in the genre. This allows students to concentrate on particular stages in order to polish strategies for organizing information and evaluating results. This can involve the joint composition of the genre under consideration, with the teacher guiding writing by questions and comments that highlight the particular purpose of each section. Control over structure means that the complexity of how functions are expressed can be increased gradually, and the problem of students taking refuge in familiar first-language structures can be recognized and eliminated.

3. *Composition.* As an alternative to controlling structure, restrictions can be placed on content to promote student progress towards expression within a larger discourse. Relieved of complete responsibility for developing content, students can concentrate on acquiring the distinctive conventions of the particular genre under study. This means that students are not working on a single aspect in isolation but are developing an awareness of interrelationships within a text.

4. *Constructive Assessment.* Genre descriptions provide the objective criteria needed for precise and constructive evaluation. Positive feedback and informed discussion at each stage of the essay become possible as more information is available on the features of different genres. So, rather than simply encouraging students or

redlining errors, strategies for improvement can be suggested based on explicit understandings of text requirements.

5. *Collaboration.* It should be clear that using a genre-based approach promotes a more collaborative emphasis in writing development. Having more information about text organization mean students can both consult the teacher and work together to jointly construct the genre under focus. On one hand, the teacher is able to provide more assistance and input than before on the nature of the genre at each stage of the composition and revision. On the other hand, explicit understandings of genre requirements make group sessions more productive as planning and drafting become cooperative activities.

Genre-based approaches are new, and the most effective techniques for exploiting genre models at different ability levels are still unknown. However, while the methodology may be unclear, the value of explicit text knowledge to an effective writing programme is not.

Conclusion

The genre-based approach is more than a current catch phase. It offers some productive insights that will profoundly affect the way we teach writing in the future. The approach challenges current practices which focus exclusively on the process of writing and deny the value of teaching explicit knowledge of language. Genre theory stresses that this knowledge is a crucial aspect of effective communication. It seeks to establish that it is the context-determined structure of a piece of writing *in combination with* its propositional content that gives the text its meaning.

But while there is little doubt of the value of this approach, we have to ensure that students will not regard typical realizations as fixed form-function relationships. The genre-based teaching programme must not be too prescriptive or writers may simply apply fixed formulae to their work, framing what they have to say in unimaginative and overused ways. A genre approach offers students essential information on language in use, not a means of packing ideas.

Genres are culturally formulated activities and represent how language is used to achieve particular goals in our society. It reminds us that effective communication is as much a matter of organization as content and this should be reflected in teaching methods. Revealing the structures of different texts to students can free us from the “hidden curriculum” and provide ways of helping our students to gain proficiency in making meanings effective.

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PARADIGMS REGARDING THE PROFESSIONAL ROLES OF THE TEACHER

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Abstract

The theoretical principles that coordinate the educational policy, which are at the basis of the specialized standards and legislation, influence concretely the activity of each teacher, facilitating it or making it more difficult. Some authors believe that teachers develop, in time, a “paradigmatic survival instinct”, which is ingrained in the institutional structure of the university where they studied. This paper presents some of the paradigms that underlie the professional roles of the teachers: technician, reflexive practitioner, owner of a fundamental knowledge, utilized according to personal principles, agent of social change, actor and transformer of the curricular content.

Keywords: *teacher, professional roles*

From the perspective of his roles, the teacher can be interpreted as having more functions and adopting, according to each of them, a set of specific behaviors. According to some authors, the main teaching roles are: source of information, model of behavior, creator of learning situations, consultant, assessor, therapist, organizer and leader [1].

The same author believes that in order to fulfill these roles and responsibilities, the educator must posses a series of innate qualities: the desire for perfection, devotion to people, especially children, the ability and the tendency to understand the child, pedagogical enthusiasm, high morality, imaginative and integrative intelligence, as well as a series of acquired qualities: broad general knowledge, pedagogical training and style.

The roles of the modern educator were analyzed and presented schematically by Andre de Peretti (1996) as follows [2]:

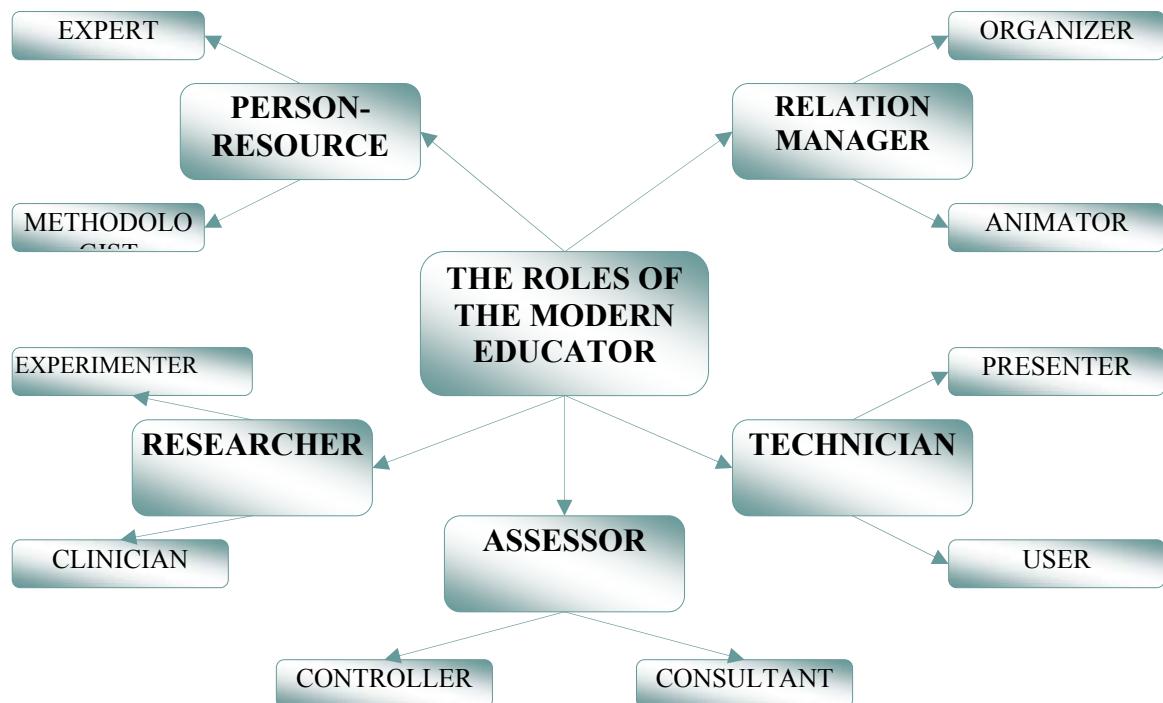


Figure 1: The roles of the modern educator (according to Andre de Peretti, 1996)

A bird's eye view of the different paradigms from the psycho-pedagogical literature regarding the activity of the teachers is a way to clarify the role the teachers have for the education of the young people, their social image and what expectations the others have from them. Studying these paradigms, as theoretical constructions of a social nature, which guide the activity of teachers, has a major importance from two points of view. On the one hand, the formation of the future educators must be harmonized with the general principles that govern the teaching activity, having in mind the fact that the students that study to become educators will have a sound theoretical preparation, which sometimes can be materialized in concrete educational decisions and actions, within their future professional activity. On the other hand, as social actors, the future educators must be aware of the professional attitude they will adopt regarding the paradigms that are presented in the specialized literature, and, at the same time, they will become aware of the professional consequences

of the respective choice: the teaching life and activity, the personal development, the continuous professional training, the promoted discourses, the achieved scientific research, the elaborated official documents, etc.

Some teachers do not understand the importance of these paradigmatic options, considering that these belong to the elements of educational policy, having an influence only at the high level of decisional factors in the education system, which have no connection with their daily teaching activity. In reality, the theoretical principles that coordinate the educational policy, which are at the basis of the specialized standards and legislation, influence concretely the activity of each teacher, facilitating it or making it more difficult. Some authors believe that teachers develop, in time, a “paradigmatic survival instinct” [3], which is ingrained in the institutional structure of the university where they studied and which is manifested through the explicit, justified support of certain theoretical principles regarding the carrying out of the learning-teaching activities, as well as through the fierce rejection of others.

Next, we will present some of the paradigms that underlie the professional roles of the teachers:

a) *The teacher as technician*

This paradigm seems to suggest the fact that in the educational practice there exist a finite number of situations which can appear and which can be solved by means of certain predetermined educational strategies, for the application of which the future teacher must be trained and prepared. This category of requirements that a teacher must fulfill can be covered only by the means of vast scientific knowledge from as many domains as possible, both from the field of natural sciences, of arts, of economic activity, and in the field of psychology, sociology and the education sciences.

Starting from this paradigm, all the European educational legislation had been conceived for decades, in the 20th century, so as to reflect *the technical rationality*, the activity of the teachers and that of the students being appreciated according to their concrete observable and measurable results. The traditional abilities, the vast knowledge and the teachers' experience were no longer deemed trustworthy, because these can not ensure an efficient instructional

process and a high quality final product, the way the “client”, i.e. the throwaway society, requires.

Thus, technicist paradigm reduces the attributes of humanness, which is evidenced by the manner the purposes of education are formulated, at different levels of generality, by the manner in which the essential competences required to be formed while in school are outlined, by the indicators of performance of the system of educational management, by the manner of recruiting and keeping the teachers working within their profession and within the education system. One must take into account the fact that educators can not always give up “the art of teaching”, the improvisations and the intuition, despite the fact that the education system and the educational policy channel the activity of the teacher toward technical aspects, toward the application of some efficient procedures and strategies.

b) *The teacher as reflexive practitioner*

This paradigm has its origin in John Dewey's theory. He considered that the professional educator can play an active role in the curricular development and in the reforming of the system of education if he is open minded and critically reflects on his own educational work. All the teachers, experienced or beginners, have the chance to learn from their own actions, and this learning is more efficient when their pedagogical actions are first thought over, mentally anticipated, and during these actions or when they are over they are analyzed through critical reflections. The term of “reflexive practitioner” was introduced by Donald Schon in 1983 in the book entitled “The Reflective Practitioner”, where it was used with reference to the process through which an educator analyzes his own teaching methods and strategies, in order to identify them and perfect those that had a significant positive impact on the students.

Some authors [4] consider that the professional activity of the teachers incorporates both elements of applied pedagogical science, as well as rigors of the scientific research, but the latter act more as constraints and can not come to life in the absence of free personalized creative practice in class, through which the theory is applied. The principles of reflexive teaching enable the professional formation and evolution of the teachers, on condition that the pedagogical aptitude of

the educators is present and their motivation for personal and professional development is strong and the period destined to the preparation of practical activities, for the class, is sufficient.

c) *The teacher as owner of a fundamental knowledge, utilized according to personal principles*

Any field of knowledge has its own dynamics, evolves permanently, sometimes in a rhythm that is hard to keep pace with, even if we refer to the teachers who teach a certain school subject. Thus, we can notice the high degree of relativity of a teacher's university preparation, as far as the content of the subject that he will teach afterwards is concerned. The permanent update of the knowledge, its completion by using various sources, the selection and the processing of the contents according to their impact on the personalities of the learners are undoubtedly necessary and are made possible by means of the experience acquired in class.

According to the paradigm under discussion, the professional formation of the future teachers takes place mostly through social and cultural interaction, so that their personal and professional values and attitudes can develop and transform, according to the experiences they live. The vast theoretical knowledge of a student teacher appears during the pedagogical practice, in a disorganized way, without coherence and sometimes useless for the reaching of the proposed educational purposes, due to the lack of connections with the concrete educational situations. In contrast, the theoretical knowledge of the experienced teachers is more systematic, better organized and adapted to the specific of the class they work with, due to their repeated application to practical situations. Thus, the individuality and creativity of the teachers are laid an emphasis on. These are characteristics which multiply their professional competences.

“The psycho-pedagogical and specialized knowledge, received by the students teachers during their initial formation become gradually differentiated, both in comparison with the original form it was received in and in comparison with that of other persons. The modifications occur every time when there is an interaction with the class that is taught” [5]. One can notice the tendency of the majority of teachers to modify part of the content of the lessons to be taught according to the level of knowledge of the students, their degree of

involvement in activity, and their interests. These transformations are sometimes achieved at the expense of the content proposed initially. Teachers must take unexpected decisions during the teaching activity, at a certain moment becoming aware of the difference between the pedagogical theory and the class practice.

d) The teacher as agent of social change

Probably, the most significant paradigm referring to the teaching profession is the one that grants the educator a major role in the structuring of the social and political conditions which influence the teaching-learning process.

The social requirements that delineate the educational ideal legitimize the production, the reproduction, the distribution and the modification of the resources allocated for education. Teachers must consciously follow the transmission of knowledge and the formation of socially desirable abilities both by means of the general and specialized curriculum and by means of the hidden curriculum. No matter what his personal opinion is, the teacher must answer the social command and the directions given by the finalities pursued by the educational institution where he works.

The formation of the teacher as agent of the social change implies his being aware of the significance of his activity beyond the space of the classroom and that of the school, in a larger special and temporal context. The way in which the teachers assume their obligations that carry a social significance can be a sign of their professional maturity and, at the same time, an element of stability in a dynamic reality.

e) The teacher as actor

According to this paradigm, the teacher-actor can approach various ways of professional expression, opposing categorically an external programming or control. The role of the teacher is always different, in a continuous change, so is his relation with the class. Considering the educational activity from the perspective of the artistic, theatrical act, with all the cultural meanings that are usually ascribed to a role on stage, the discourse of the teacher and his didactic act acquire both affective as well as symbolic significance, being situated somewhere among narration, plot, irony, tension, simulation. As a theatrical representation, the didactic act becomes a

socio-cultural construction, a reality that lasts only for a well established period of time.

Analyzing the didactic profession from an artistic point of view, it is important not to focus only on the external aspects, represented by gestures, mimicry, the tone of voice, the technical repertoire of the actor-teacher, but to be receptive to the whole “metaphor of the show” [6]. The actor as such is only one of the elements of the artistic context, the same way the teacher is only one of the elements of the school context, the one who offers diverse opportunities and challenges for the other participants, i.e. pupils and students. This choice of the role of the students is made according to the way in which the elements of the professional standards are positioned in the set of didactic behaviors of the teacher, according to the extent to which these are crystallized, established and appear repeatedly in the way the teacher performs on stage.

f) The teacher as transformer of the curricular content

This paradigm lays the emphasis on the contents of the educational process and on the role of the teacher to transform these contents into subjects that the pupils/students can understand and learn. One can notice the fact that specialized literature makes many references to the abilities necessary to an efficient teacher in order to organize and lead the class, but we find fewer references to the abilities of the teacher to organize his ideas during teaching. The activity of the teacher can be regarded as an opportunity to transform knowledge, the manifestation of abilities or the choice of attitudes and values into actions and pedagogical deeds, which are deliberate and conscious. The educational intervention takes place by means of discussion, problem solving, image presentations, practical actions or other modalities of conveying ideas, so that the unknown can become known and understood, making the manifestation of judgment and responsibility possible by making certain personal choices.

In order to plan and carry out didactic activities, the teacher simultaneously needs theoretical knowledge and practical experience. In other words, the teacher must know what to teach, how to teach and how to react in front of those whom he teaches. Through the combination of the knowledge from the domain the teacher teaches and the knowledge from the domain of psycho-pedagogy there results

the teacher's understanding of the way certain content elements can be organized, presented and adapted so as to match the interests and the abilities of the students. This is considered to be the key of the formation of the teachers, the ability to combine the specialized knowledge with the psycho-pedagogical one, respectively, making the accessibilization and the pedagogical processing of the curricular content possible.

In conclusion, the aforementioned paradigms clearly differentiate the roles of the teacher and the ways of conceiving the act of teaching, but we notice an idea that appears constantly. Within each paradigm, *the act of reflection* done by the teacher has different purposes and that is why it receives different positions in the hierarchy of expectations related to the activity of the teacher. It would be easier to achieve the formation of the future teachers from a narrow perspective, centered exclusively on the teaching techniques, without connecting them to the social context, to the basic knowledge of the teacher, to his personal opinions about the content, with its significance and with the manner of teaching. The teacher who owns didactic techniques can fail in interpreting the educational nuances of the context and thus, he can not approach it in an adequate way. We can affirm that this form of reflection is essentially non-reflective. Taking larger perspectives into consideration, the sensitizing of the future teachers regarding the diversity of the situations and implicitly of the decisions that will have to be taken increase the chances of carrying our educative, conscious and adequate interventions.

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SCHOOL ORGANIZATION'S CULTURE AS A MANAGERIAL TOOL

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Abstract

Organizational culture is the workplace environment formulated from the interaction of the employees in the workplace, practically it is the personality of the organization. The concept of culture is particularly important when attempting to manage organization-wide change. Productive cultural change will occur if leaders correctly analyze the organization's existing culture, and evaluate it against the cultural attributes needed to achieve strategic objectives. Consequently, leaders must first possess a clear understanding of the strategic objectives for their organization and identify the actions needed to reach those objectives. Nevertheless, organizational culture may become an important tool for the managers in running an organization and leading to its success.

Keywords: *organizational culture, management, strategic objectives*

1. General Presentation of the Concept

Organizational culture is a concept in the field of *Organizational studies* and *management* which describes the *attitudes*, experiences, beliefs and *values* of an *organization*. It has been defined as "the specific collection of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organization and that control the way they interact with each other and with *stakeholders* outside the organization."^[1] This definition continues to explain organizational values as "beliefs and ideas about what kinds of goals members of an organization should pursue and ideas about the appropriate kinds or standards of behavior organizational members should use to achieve these goals.

Organizational culture is the workplace environment formulated from the interaction of the employees in the workplace. Organizational culture is defined by all of the life experiences, strengths, weaknesses, education, upbringing, and so forth of the employees. While executive leaders play a large role in defining organizational culture by their actions and leadership, all employees contribute to the organizational culture. Basically, organizational culture is the personality of the organization. Culture is comprised of the assumptions, values, norms and tangible signs (artifacts) of organization members and their behaviors. Members of an organization soon come to sense the particular culture of an organization. Culture is one of those terms that's difficult to express distinctly, but everyone knows it when they sense it. For example, the culture of a large, for-profit corporation is quite different than that of a hospital which is quite different than that of a university. You can tell the culture of an organization by looking at the arrangement of furniture, what they brag about, what members wear, etc. - similar to what you can use to get a feeling about someone's personality.

It also can be looked at as a system. Inputs include feedback from, e.g., society, professions, laws, stories, heroes, values on competition or service, etc. The process is based on our assumptions, values and norms, e.g., our values on money, time, facilities, space and people. Outputs or effects of our culture are, e.g., organizational behaviors, technologies, strategies, image, products, services, appearance, etc. The concept of culture is particularly important when attempting to manage organization-wide change. Practitioners are coming to realize that, despite the best-laid plans, organizational change must include not only changing structures and processes, but also changing the corporate culture as well. There's been a great deal of literature generated over the past decade about the concept of organizational culture - particularly in regard to learning how to change organizational culture. Organizational change efforts are rumored to fail the vast majority of the time. Usually, this failure is credited to lack of understanding about the strong role of culture and the role it plays in organizations. That's one of the reasons that many strategic planners now place as much emphasis on identifying strategic values as they do mission and vision. Strong culture is said to exist where

staff respond to stimulus because of their alignment to organizational values. Where culture is strong, people do things because they believe it is the right thing to do, there is a risk of another phenomenon, "Groupthink". It was described by Irving L. Janis and defined as "...a quick and easy way to refer to a mode of thinking that people engage when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when members' strivings for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternatives of action." This is a state where people, even if they have different ideas, do not challenge organizational thinking, and therefore there is a reduced capacity for innovative thoughts. This could occur, for example, where there is heavy reliance on a central charismatic figure in the organization, or where there is an evangelical belief in the organization's values, or also in groups where a friendly climate is at the base of their identity (avoidance of conflict). In fact, group think is very common, it happens all the time, in almost every group. Members that are defiant are often turned down or seen as a negative influence by the rest of the group, because they bring conflict. Innovative organizations need individuals who are prepared to challenge the status quo or fight against bureaucracy, and also need procedures to implement new ideas effectively.

Organizational culture grows over time. People are comfortable with the current organizational culture. For people to consider culture change, usually a significant event must occur. An event that rocks their world such as flirting with bankruptcy, a significant loss of sales and customers, or losing a million dollars, might get people's attention. When people in an organization realize and recognize that their current organizational culture needs to transform to support the organization's success and progress, change can occur. But change is not pretty and change is not easy.

2. Steps in Organizational Culture Change

There are three major steps involved in changing an organization's culture.

- Before an organization can change its culture, it must first understand the current culture, or the way things are now.
- Once you understand your current organizational culture, your organization must then and decide what the

organizational culture should look like to support success. What vision does the organization have for its future and how must the culture change to support the accomplishment of that vision?

- Finally, the individuals in the organization must decide to change their behavior to create the desired organizational culture. This is the hardest step in culture change.

The organization must plan where it wants to go before trying to make any changes in the organizational culture. With a clear picture of where the organization is currently, the organization can plan where it wants to be next. Mission, vision, and values: to provide a framework for the assessment and evaluation of the current organizational culture, your organization needs to develop a picture of its desired future. What does the organization want to create for the future? *Mission, vision, and values* should be examined for both the strategic and the value based components of the organization. Your management team needs to answer questions such as:

- What are the five most important values you would like to see represented in your organizational culture?
- Are these values compatible with your current organizational culture? Do they exist now? If not, why not? If they are so important, why are you not attaining these values?

In the past 25 years, the concept of organizational culture has gained wide acceptance as a way to understand human systems. From an "open-systems" perspective, each aspect of organizational culture can be seen as an important environmental condition affecting the system and its subsystems. This way of looking at organizations borrows heavily from anthropology and sociology and uses many of the same terms to define the building blocks of culture. The culture of a group can now be defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. In other words, as groups evolve over time, they face two basic challenges: integrating individuals into an effective whole, and adapting effectively to the external environment in order to survive. As groups find solutions to these problems over time, they engage in a kind of collective learning that creates the set of shared assumptions and beliefs we call "culture." Gareth Morgan

describes culture as "an active living phenomenon through which people jointly create and recreate the worlds in which they live." Elements of organizational culture may include:

- stated and unstated values
- implicit expectations for member behaviour
- customs and rituals
- stories and myths about the history of the group
- shop talk – typical language used in and about the group
- climate – the feelings evoked by the way members interact with each other, with outsiders and with the environment, including the physical space they occupy
- metaphors and symbols – may be unconscious but can be found embodied in other cultural elements.

Organization members interpret the behavior and language of others through their own cultural biases. Each member's (or subsystem's) set of beliefs, values, and assumptions becomes their unquestioned "reality"; they then perceive behavior inconsistent with their own biases as irrational, or even malevolent. The organizational culture model suggests reinterpreting such conflict as a product of different sets of experiences. Instead of looking at conflict as "right" versus "wrong," this approach suggests that subsystems examine the assumptions underlying their behavior, honor the experiences and learning that led to those assumptions, and then investigate whether those assumptions still work well in the present.: "What impact am I having on the social construction of reality in my organization?" "What can I do to have a different and more positive impact?" Because culture is so deeply rooted in an organization's history and collective experience, working to change it requires a major investment of time and resources. Help from a change agent outside the system is often advisable. Without such help, it is difficult for insiders to view their "reality" as something they've constructed, and to see meaning in things they normally take for granted. Productive cultural change will occur if leaders correctly analyze the organization's existing culture, and evaluate it against the cultural attributes needed to achieve strategic objectives. Consequently, leaders must first possess a clear understanding of the strategic objectives for their organization and identify the actions needed to

reach those objectives. These two tasks by themselves are difficult, particularly for the federal agencies that are experiencing volatile rates of change and reorientation. Nevertheless, without these specifications, any cultural transformation is a blind exercise.

3. Particularities of School Culture

As all the specialists in educational sciences agree, there are some particular features of the school culture, resulting from a philosophy of working with pupils. This is a humanist perception upon life that generates certain principles for the pedagogical activity structure.

According to these principles, school culture has gradually assimilated ideas, opinions, feelings, behaviour regarding the basic characteristics of human being, as an educable perfectable one. Starting from this point, there is a great variety of ways in order to better understand educational field that may lead to different behaviour expressions at the school member community level. For example, there are situations in which teachers have different opinions on their role as educators, communication with students, the conflict between generations, the comfort given by their status or their experience in teaching.

According to E. Paun [2], school culture is so diverse because teachers bring with them in the class all the experiences as parents even if it is limited by pedagogical culture.

Another specific aspect of the school culture is represented by the values school promotes and relies on, for example: searching for the truth, showing respect to yourself and to the others, building trustful relationships, developing creativity and initiative, motivating individuals for an honest competition.

From an organizational analysis perspective, the school culture is targeting the efficiency of the educational process and directing a development school culture based on continuous training. For example, it aims at reaching the educational goals, objectives and priorities, turning to the „client” in the teacher-student relationship, promoting cooperation between the school members, initiating a real competition between all the pedagogical actors, developing new modern management tools within the organization and stimulating

cooperation between all the educational partners (local authorities, community representatives etc.).

Nevertheless these mentioned values are positive examples which may lead to the development of all organizational components if deeply rooted. It is obvious the fact that negative values may appear within the organization that can't create instability if there is a balance between the two types.

There are different ways of creating, sustaining and imposing such values within the school organization, such as: customs, rituals, stories, legends or myths. Being aware of the great importance of the culture informal aspect, the manager must be the one who initiates all these activities in order to increase the cohesion of the group. There can be activities regarding school performance (good results at different contests), celebrating teachers, community joint-actions, national holidays etc.

The organizations in which people have been working many years together and they know each other for a long time may develop a history of the group which is well known by the old members and transmitted to the new ones in order to continue a culture tradition.

As far as norms are concerned, as the most visible expression of the school culture, they result from the basic school values, not always showing directly. School norms refer to real organizational elements in order to regulate the internal activity of the school. According to E. Paun, there are two types of school norms: institutional and negotiable. It is the main role of the manager to find their balance so that teacher can't feel the pressure of the great number of school tasks and also become aware of the importance of the specific legislation. The negotiable norms are unofficial, internal representing official rules adjusted to particular school conditions.

Variety is another important feature of the school culture, resulted from many different categories of school staff: teachers, managerial staff, auxiliary and administrative staff, pupils and parents. The number of the school organization members is very big and they are so different by age, training, expectations, feelings, values etc. so that a very diverse school climate and culture makes it possible. The ones who bring the greatest contribution to the development and change of the school culture are the pupils who maintain a permanent

information exchange between family and school, community and educational field.

Present research studies in pedagogical field highlight the need of changing, re-building school culture as an imperative for the organization development. The organizational culture is responsible for the whole institution progress or failure, in case it is not proper for the organization pattern. We may state that it is not the great number of personnel in a school who determines the efficiency and quality of the educational process, but school culture elements, such as: group relationships, organizational climate or an adequate teaching environment, the quality of the teaching staff, managerial style. We may also emphasize that the progress of an organization depends mainly on the manager's ability to project the development of the organization in the future, to set up a strategy in order to achieve school objectives, to constantly enrich the school culture as a support of innovation.

This approach makes us reflect on the importance of the school culture as a managerial tool, very useful for a headteacher who is willing to develop his organization, to value the school staff, to promote an open school environment, to offer alternative ways of solving problems, to motivate individuals and place them in right positions in order to get help in leading the school.

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OPINIONS OF STUDENTS ON THE ORGANIZATION AND CONDUCT OF TEACHING PRACTICE

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Abstract

This article is based on a qualitative research on teaching practice of students from the Department for Teachers Training, University "Aurel Vlaicu" of Arad. The research method used is focus group because the main purpose of the focus group is to capture the attitudes, emotions, beliefs, experiences and reactions of participants impossible to capture with other methods such as observation, individual interview or questionnaire. Focus group method has been used with the objective of capturing the perception of students on the teaching profession; identifying their opinions on the organization and the ongoing of teaching practice and issues regarding the design, organization, conduct and evaluation of teaching practice. The instrument used was a semistructured interview guide with 10 open questions.

Keywords: qualitative research, teaching practice, focus group

1. Introduction

At present, preparation for a teaching career in secondary education in Romania is provided by specialized structures within universities, with the precise tasks of initial and continuous training of teachers (Departments for Teachers Training - DPPD). Initial training activities undertaken by the Department for Teachers Training are based on the *Order of the Minister of Education and Research on the program of studies in order to obtain the certificate of graduation Department for Teachers Training, no. 4316 / 03.06.2008*.

Thus, for employment in secondary education a certificate of graduation in Department for Teachers Training is required for the

program of study, as follows: level I - first, during the course of university studies, with accumulation of 30 credits and obtain a certificate upon graduation (which provides certification for teaching profession and the right to exercise this profession at the pre-university compulsory education). Additional psycho-pedagogical preparation, (or level II - in-depth), with accumulation of 30 credits and provide a certificate of graduation, which assimilates and replaces the graduation certificate, grants university graduates the right to hold teaching positions in secondary education, school and university. Practicing at this level of education is also conditional upon the completion of a master degree in the field of license.

Teaching practice included in the curricula of the DPPD as mandatory, and being allotted a total of 78 hours for level I (3 hours / week x 14 weeks - for I teaching practice, and 3 hours / week x 12 weeks - for pedagogical practice II) and 42 hours for level II (3 hours / week x 14 weeks) for both levels of credits granted in the number 5.

2. Experimental Part

Focus group method has been used with the purpose of learning the facts regarding the perception of students who have done work on pedagogical practice in teaching profession, and issues regarding the design, organization, conduct and evaluation of teaching practice. Focus-group is considered a way of collecting oral information by pre-formulated questions sequence, addressed to several people who interact, with the aim of finding out what people think and how they feel about a particular topic (Gibbs, 1997).

The focus-group theme: teaching practice activities.

The working instrument: focus-group interview guide.

The purpose of focus-group:

- Highlighting perceptions of students on teaching profession;
- Identifying students' opinions and feelings toward the organization and conduct of the practice teaching.

Focus group' variant: one class project. Students who participated in focus-group have made teaching practice I and II in the academic year 2007-2008. Four activities were held, and the distribution of students can be viewed as follows:

- Theology-Romanian specialization, the fourth year of study - 12 students:
- a specialization in Journalism, the fourth year of study - 10 students
- a specialization of Public Administration, the third year of study - 11 students
- a specialization in Orthodox Theology Didactics, the third year of study - 12 students

3. Results and Discussion

Analyzing the responses of students interviewed can break some directions on their perception of the teaching profession and the activities of teaching practice carried out.

Thus, in the opinion of students, the benefits of teaching profession can be divided into two categories. The first category reflects the correct perception and understanding of the purpose and mission of teaching profession, recorded responses stressing as the first advantage the opportunity to work in a pleasant environment with young people of various ages, a stimulating and energizing environment. Working with young people, students, is regarded as the teacher's "every day a lesson of life" and a permanent process of "rejuvenation". Also, the teaching profession is considered to be a noble profession, which enjoys more or less the recognition and respect of society. It is a "clean" profession, which is based on continuous learning, self-learning and intellectual effort, however, leading to the joys and professional rewards.

A second category of responses confirms that perception of the teaching profession is distorted and even dangerous. This category include answers regarding the advantages of this profession as following: the working program is just not very loaded, which gives you the opportunity to practice other professions, in parallel with the teaching; the student's holidays are perceived to overlap perfectly with the educator's holidays, which is also considered an advantage: it is a safe job, once one entered the system "everything works by itself without too much effort."

In the vision of students, the characteristics of an effective teacher can be summarized as follows: a good specialty training, a good

psycho-pedagogical and methodical training; love for children, communicative, open to new; calm, patient, dedicated professionally, creative; dynamic, close to pupils, objective; a model for students and colleagues, a good organizer, and so on. From the analysis of these responses, the awareness of the importance of both specialized and psycho-pedagogical training is observed. Also, the teacher effectiveness depends on the presence / absence of teaching ability with all the elements involved in this. We believe that students' responses cover in mostly the major components of educational ability, as they appear in literature.

Regarding the expectations taken from the work of teaching practice, the responses of participants in focus-group revolve around the following directions:

1. application of theoretical knowledge in practical work, being mentioned aspects of the organization, design, support and evaluation of a teaching approach, as well as issues related to the psycho-pedagogical knowledge of students and identifies strategies for communication and collaboration with them.
2. learning by observation, here referring to the work of the teaching practice' mentor and practice of observation, with emphasis on revealing different styles of teaching, and different ways for approaching the students.
3. personal development, stressing the predominant issues relating to the mastery of emotions, overcoming diffidence and winning confidence in themselves, aspects of the ability to attract the attention of students and to interact effectively with them.

As regarding teaching methods used by students in the work of teaching within the teaching practice, also answers can be systematized into 3 categories relating to:

- applying only the traditional methods of teaching-learning (e.g. lecture, conversation, explanation), with the motivation that are most effective in teaching-learning process, giving the best results, and students understanding and retaining much better content taught. Another motivation for the exclusive choice of traditional methods concerns the easiness for these methods to be applied, compared with interactive methods that

require more time and more learning material, another organization of the area of ergonomic class space, etc. Unfortunately, there were students who said they choose these methods, because they saw the work of mentor in class demonstration;

- combining traditional methods with those of stimulating learning through cooperation and interactions; in this category we mention methods, procedures and teaching techniques such as: didactic game, brainstorming, the cube method, the 5-minute essay, problematization, reading explanatory, demo with substitute, I know / I want to learn / I learned, the role-play, the cadrans method, debate, the snowball, competition, etc.
- unfortunately, in the third category are the answers of students who do not know the term "teaching methodology", in their responses identifying actually the components of the process of education, teaching, learning assessment.

The difficulties faced by students in the work of practice teaching falls in all three phases of teaching approach: preparation, implementation, evaluation. Thus:

- at the preparation stage, the difficulties relate to: operationalization of the objectives of the lesson, choosing teaching strategy related to the objectives and content of the lesson, manufacturing of teaching means necessary, insufficient information and explanations from the teaching practice' mentor, difficulties in the preparation of work sheets, not knowing the actual level of the class in which the teaching will take place, etc.
- in the phase of effective teaching, the difficulties are more numerous and meet each stage of the lesson. Thus it can be said: the impossibility of winning the respect of students and to attract attention from the first moments of the teaching work; difficulties in the formulation of clear questions to receive the answer desired; difficulties in the formulation of helpful questions, difficulties in adapting language to be accessible to students, unable to rise the level of attention of

students during the lesson, to organize them and to work within groups; clumsiness in carrying out the scheme to the board and using various teachers means, forgetting taking certain moments of the lesson (usually consolidation, fixing knowledge missing), not finishing in the range of 50 minutes time, gaps in specialized knowledge.

- in the assessment phase, we can talk about: difficulties in formulating oral questions and various items composing different stages of written evaluation; difficulties to master the class and face students negotiations, difficulties of being, as far as possible, objective in assessment, etc.

All these difficulties are recognized and are listed in the question asking for inventory aspects of the psycho-pedagogical and specialty preparation in need of improvement. Participants in focus-group stressed that they need more in-depth knowledge and specialized psycho-pedagogical knowledge and methodics, with emphasis on design, accessibility and adaptation of the language to the particularities of the students, more efficient use of time, methods and techniques the activation of students, and the possibility of domination of emotions, winning confidence in his own person, a much more relaxed and confident attitude, developing the ability to adapt to new unexpected situations.

As a result of all these considerations several proposals for improving the organization and conduct of teaching practice were listed. Thus, the students interviewed wanted "more hours of teaching practice, both observation and effective teaching", suggesting the first practice even start with teaching observation in the first year of the following courses of education. Another suggestion given by participants in focus group was to organize the teaching practice so as to give the opportunity to teach the same lesson (subject, content) in several classes parallel, just to be able to know better the students, and to observe their behavior.

4. Conclusion

The purpose of teaching practice is to introduce practicing students in the atmosphere of pre-university education through familiarizing with school programs, school discipline and order, and

the organization and functioning of a school unit. Also, students are put into practicing before the actual situation when they have confronted the theoretical aspects of education, psychology, sociology and methodology specialist with the actual classroom and school. These situations are carried through effective participation in educational activities that are conducted throughout the duration of teaching practice.

It may be noted that as a conclusion of this study, on the one hand that students have a correct perception of the purpose and mission of teaching profession, and on the other hand that they are aware of the importance of a good specialized knowledge and psycho-pedagogical knowledge, and the existence of teachers capability.

We can talk about an interesting result regarding the choice for methods of teaching used by students in the teaching practice. It was noted that they use both traditional methods of teaching and learning and traditional methods combined with cooperative learning and interactive learning, depending on the skills needed to be trained and the students peculiarities, an encouraging result from the perspective of evolution of the reforming process for the teaching activity in general.

Also, naturally, were highlighted difficulties and obstacles encountered in the teaching practice, but this is not necessarily a negative aspect, for the mere fact that the identification and development of these permanent "shortcomings", is the first step in overcoming them with success.

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PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT. EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

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Abstract

Our definition for personal development is: a person's tendency to improve oneself and to function at a maximum level of performance. No matter the field of study or domain of work, the personal development is an important condition for successful achievements. Universities, as complex and essential knowledge based organizations, have as a constant goal the supply of professional information and skills. By gaining pertinent competences, students acquire personal development or, at least, one dimension of it. The paper analyzes the determining role of the personal development in the actual society, starting with students as future active agents. We present the meanings of personal development, its educational implications and also possible strategies that academics can use in order to support youngsters for achieving it.

Keywords: students, self-knowing, active learning, change, personal development

1. Introduction

With all the emphasis on change dynamics corporations and the need to transform corporate culture for global competitiveness, there is a growing appreciation of the importance of leadership at all levels in the corporate structure. Therefore, interest turns to personal development and transformative learning. There is an awareness that the education received in schools of business, engineering, and other analytically turned and highly systematized disciplines may not produce people who have the kinds of behaviors and understanding necessary for leadership today.

2. Meanings of personal development

Happiness, self-development, well-being, life satisfaction, subjective well-being, psychological well-being or personal growth – these are only few meanings of personal development. In general, well-being represents a complex construct concerning the experience and optimal functioning. Recent researches about well-being derived from two perspectives: hedonist approach (which focuses on happiness and defines the state of well-being in terms of gaining pleasure and avoiding pain) and eudaimonic approach (centered on sense and self-realization, defining well-being in terms of the degree at which a person is fully functioning, see Ryan & Deci, 2001, 141). Personal growth, next to the state of well-being, equals personal development. We understand by personal development the tendency of human beings to perfection and to function at a maximum level of performance. It's about actualizing human potentials, of full-filing the authentic nature.

Personal development (also known as self-development or personal growth) comprises the development of the self. When someone is referring to personal development then he/she is meaning a full and total transformation from deep within and not just a temporary personality change for a specific occasion or context.

There are certain areas of life which can be considered in personal development, such as: contributing with something original to the society and to the world and to your community, constant mental knowledge and learning, work (input to career and job), accomplishing financial matters, emotional and spiritual self help, physical health, fun and adventure, intimate relationship, home (family and relatives), social circle (friends and clubs) and the list can go on.

Self-actualization (a term originated by Kurt Goldstein) is the instinctual need of humans to make the most of their unique abilities and to strive to be the best they can be. Maslow described it as follows: "Self Actualization is the intrinsic growth of what is already in the organism, or more accurately, of what the organism is" (Psychological Review, 1943). Maslow writes the following of self-actualizing people:

- They embrace the facts and realities of the world (including themselves) rather than denying or avoiding them.
- They are spontaneous in their ideas and actions.
- They are creative.
- They are interested in solving problems; this often includes the problems of others. Solving these problems is often a key focus in their lives.
- They feel a closeness to other people, and generally appreciate life.
- They have a system of morality that is fully internalized and independent of external authority.
- They judge others without prejudice, in a way that can be termed objective.

Developmental psychology is the scientific study of progressive psychological changes that occur in human beings as they age. Originally concerned with infants and children, and later other periods of great change such as adolescence and aging, it now encompasses the entire life span. This field examines change across a broad range of topics including motor skills and other psycho-physiological processes, problem solving abilities, conceptual understanding, acquisition of language, moral understanding, and identity formation.

Developmental psychologists investigate key questions, such as whether children are qualitatively different from adults or simply lack the experience that adults draw upon. Other issues that they deal with is the question of whether development occurs through the gradual accumulation of knowledge or through shifts from one stage of thinking to another; or if children are born with innate knowledge or figure things out through experience; and whether development driven by the social context or by something inside each child.

Developmental psychology informs several applied fields, including: educational psychology, child psychopathology and developmental forensics. Developmental psychology complements several other basic research fields in psychology including social psychology, cognitive psychology, and comparative psychology.

Human enhancement describes any attempt (whether temporary or permanent) to overcome the current limitations of human cognitive and physical abilities, whether through natural or artificial means.

The Human Potential Movement came out of the social and intellectual milieu of the 1960s and was formed to promote the cultivation of extraordinary potential believed to be largely untapped in most people. The movement is premised on the belief that through the development of human potential, humans can experience an exceptional quality of life filled with happiness, creativity, and fulfillment. A corollary belief is often that those who begin to unleash this potential will find their actions within society to be directed towards helping others release their potential. The belief is that the net effect of individuals cultivating their potential will bring about positive social change at large.

Positive psychology is the scientific study of human happiness. The history of psychology as a science shows that the field has been primarily dedicated to addressing mental illness rather than mental wellness. Its research programs and application models have dealt mainly with how people are wrong rather than how they are right. The need to correct this bias was anticipated in psychological writings as early as those of the American psychologist and philosopher William James. In his 1902 book, *The Varieties of Religious Experience*, James argues that happiness is a chief concern of human life and those who pursue it should be regarded as "healthy-minded." Several humanistic psychologists, such as Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers, and Erich Fromm, developed successful theories and practices that involved human happiness despite there being a lack of solid empirical evidence behind their work. However, it is the pioneering research of Martin Seligman, Ed Diener, Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, Christopher Peterson and many others that promise to put the study of human happiness onto a firm scientific foundation and add some positivity to the predominantly negative discipline of psychology.

3. University's needs

In every field and at any age there is a need for continuing personal development and training. Professional skills are not grafted onto people with the intention that they will endure a lifetime, they

fade after a few years and need reviving. The society needs capable graduates to work in an international environment. They need to speak fluently one or two foreign languages and to show interest in developing cultural relationships with other countries.

Today we should focus on higher education, proposing fundamental changes to adapt universities to a new purpose in a changed society. Retention of students represents an important issue for Romanian higher education. This is therefore an issue of increasing concern to higher education institutions and the focus for much research and development activity. Institutions as universities should change to accommodate diverse student needs. On a practical level, students are not longer studying full-time: many youngsters are employed whilst studying and many have families already. Thus, universities need to change the way they are managing the undergraduate experience to enable students to remain connected to their lives outside the university. There is an evident need for a fundamental adaptation of higher education to a new function and purpose in a changed society. Students are confronting with difficulties such as: wrong choice of faculty, financial problems, pressures of studying / academic work, family issues, health problems, demands of different courses, lack of support or understanding and so on. Students or academic staff have different needs from others, since they are part of a knowledge based organization. As individuals, most academic staff put enormous effort and energy into trying to support students.

Universities, as complex and essential knowledge based organizations, have as a constant goal the supply of professional information and skills. By gaining pertinent competences, students acquire personal development or, at least, one dimension of it.

4. Student's perception of personal development

Very recently I interviewed a number of students from the first year of study (freshers) about the meanings they give to the concept of personal development. Here are the most common meanings: initiation of the personality, progress, achieving your goals, continuous learning, gaining information in as many fields as possible, personal evolution, professional ascension, achieving the highest point

within the intellectual domain. As for specific measures needed for becoming personal developed, students identified: being motivated and involved in what you are doing, being prepared for what you are doing, being capable of anticipation. As domain of importance to freshers, they placed the professional development on the first level, then the familial one and the relational (social) on the last place. It is absolutely normal for young students to consider profession as the most important goal at this moment of their life. After all, this is one reason for being students – to learn and gain useful information and abilities in order to perform in their fields of interest.

5. Educational implications of students' development

A student development model is delineated whose essential components include student goal setting in collaboration with institutional professionals, assessment of position relative to goals, use of change strategies (instruction, consultation) to bring about development toward goals, and evaluation to determine the extent to which goals are met and whether new goals are necessary. A taxonomy of behaviors of the well-developed student is outlined, based on three categories of student development needs: the development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, of self-determination, and of the ability to control one's environment. Implementation of student development education requires review and possible revision of course objectives, program objectives, and professional objectives, as well as competency development of professionals.

I consider absolutely necessary the academic stuff to serve as providers for personal development of students and not to focus mainly on providing theoretical information. Assistants or professors need to develop their potential as well, so including a personal development course for them might represent a starting point.

6. Possible strategies of personal development for students

During courses and mostly during seminars, the academics may use different techniques such as personal assessments, behavioral change/modification, emotional intelligence topics (self-awareness, self management, self motivation, social awareness, social management, social motivation as well as emotional mastery of:

addiction and recovery, grieving, loss, fear, anger, guilt, resentment, frustration, anxiety, depression, happiness, joy love, kindness, forgiveness, self-acceptance, confidence, escaping the pit of despair), a collection of personal growth topics (such as: time management, goal setting, productivity, motivation, self-discipline, organizing, problem-solving, decision-making, intelligence, communication and presentation, efficiency and effectiveness), personal power topics (such as: hidden potential, energy, confidence, passion, balance, concentration, focus, fun, peace, removing limiting beliefs and thinking, self-discipline), eliminating self-defeating patterns, cognitive dimensions, mental obstacles/opportunities, understand thinking process, concentration, balance between emotion and cognitive dimensions, psychological state/mindset/believes, self regulation, self-discipline, self doubt, behavioral change/modification, self-belief, confidence, habits, personal change/transition, meaning, satisfaction, balance, inner peace, reflect on oneself, or even different physical aspects as endurance, flexibility, strength, physical skills, sports, health habits, healing, health issues, diet, exercise, sleep, fitness and the list is longer than this. Certainly, not all these topics can be suitable for any field, but I am positive about including few of them during courses or seminars.

As a feedback, students may be required to write a one-page life essay, which can be based on a “learning journal” throughout this personal development course.

7. Conclusions and future directions

The kind of development should be challenging for the learners, students or academics. They should say in the end: “I am forever changed!”. Learners should feel refreshed and with a sense of greater life focus and with real interest in fulfilling their personal potential.

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LEARNING BETWEEN PARTICIPATION AT COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE AND EXPANSION OF ACTIVITY SYSTEMS IN INITIAL PROFESSIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

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Abstract

This paper presents a comparative analysis of two theories of learning recently developed – Lave and Wenger's theory of learning as legitimate peripheral participation to the life and activities of a community of practice (published in 1991) and Engeström's conceptualization of learning as systemic expansion (a theory published in 2001) – building on the foundations of an observed, documented and analysed institutional program for initial teacher education set up in Romania. The pedagogical implications of the two epistemic stances are analysed using the interpretative apparatus of the cultural historical activity theory. This is a presentation of relevant research results obtained in a CNCSIS – PNII – TD research grant, project code 151. The research project financed through the CNCSIS – PNII -TD grants is entitled “Peer learning strategies in pre-service teacher education” and covers a period of 15 months (October 2007 – December 2008)

Keywords: practice, community, expansion, leaning, activity

1. Introduction

Maintaining a highly qualitative educational status in organizing programs aiming at introducing and preparing learners for various routes of professional activity requires a careful consideration on university's part of its role(s), resources and understanding(s) regarding the activity of learning. In this paper the focus is on research

results and analytical stances circumscribed to the field of teacher education programs, taking as a departing point the case of a particular institutional pre-service teacher education program organized in a North-Eastern Romanian university. The reader, however, is invited to reflect on possible correspondences with other professional routes set up through Romanian university programs (such as the ones dedicated to preparing military, engineering or medical staff, for example). The institutional program I have studied made the object of a case study documented and structured with ethnographic means and of a quasi-experimental approach to the testing of research hypothesis stating significant positive effects on conceptions of learning and teaching generated by peer learning strategies being used during the seminar activities related to the contents of the Pedagogy I disciplinary contents in the national curriculum for initial teacher education's Module I [1]. The resulted case made afterwards the object of a comparative analysis with another case study developed in an English university conducting a program for pre-service teacher education. In this paper, however, the focus is on interpreting selected results of the analysis of the Romanian case, using a theoretical framework generated by Lave and Wenger's theory of learning as legitimate peripheral participation to communities of practice [2] and Engeström's [3] theory of learning as systemic expansion.

Lave and Wenger considered the apprenticeship -as learning relating to the work activity-approach to learning and proposed the concept of *peripheral legitimate participation*, naming 'far more than just a processes of learning on the part of newcomers. It is a reciprocal relation between persons and practice' [4]. The two researchers argue that in the master-apprentice relationship 'the issue of conferring legitimacy is more important than the issue of providing teaching' [4]; in organizing opportunities to learn, it is not the master-apprentice relationship where the apprentice finds most resources for learning, but in the relationships with other apprentices and even with other masters. The learning often occurs in spaces of "benign community neglect", where the circulation of information between peers (apprentices) and near-pears (old-timers) [...] is very effective, which suggests that peers 'engaging in practice, rather than being its object, may well be a condition for the effectiveness of learning'[4].

Participation in the activity means 'absorbing and being absorbed by the culture of practice' [4]. Engaged in the activity, apprentices make their own the culture of practice.

Engeström [3], on the other hand, proposes the concept of systemic expansion to define learning. In developing his theory Engeström starts from understanding learning as an activity system within which the actions of the participant subjects (agents) on the activity object (also called *the problem space*) are ever mediated by the use of the tools (cultural artefacts, collective in nature through their continuous development throughout the system's history) available in the system and constantly informed and conditioned by the system's rules and existent division of labour announcing the close interdependence of the system with the community within which it exists. This way of conceptualizing the learning activity is typical to the cultural-historical activity theory, to which Engeström [3] attributes a developmental process distributed over three generations of research: that of Vygotsky's ideas of mediated action, that of Leont'ev's ideas of a collective nature in all learning activity systems and the third -that of Engeström's ideas of learning as an activity for which the unit of analysis needs to be expanded to at least two systems of collective activity, culturally mediated, orientated towards an object and seen in an ever interaction to one another. In Engeström's view, the activity systems are a locus of multiple discourses (of traditions, stances, interests, knowledge and expertise incorporated in the available artefacts, etc), have specific histories and are perceived as transformative entities for which *contradictions* are the main source for change. The systemic expansion is understood as reconceptualization of the object of activity so that it thus open a horizon of actions significantly larger than the one previously accessible to the system's functionality [3]. Learning as expansion requires the system's double movement: one in a *vertical plane* of every day concepts growing into scientific ones and scientific concepts growing in every day understandings, and another in an *horizontal plane* of exploring the new meanings (tools) in a variety of practical contexts, thus forcing the semantic and experiential enrichment of the learning process through its exposure to diverse forms of contradictions emerging in various spaces of action.

Attempting to understand and explain the features of the learning activities as developed in the pre-service teacher education program I have documented and analysed in Romania, I've departed from framing learning as a process of legitimate peripheral participation to a community of practice [2] and then extended the scope of my interpretative repertoire to the third generation of cultural historical activity theory where I've located useful theoretical tools applicable to the particularities of an activity context where I expected learning to be a function of *horizontalization* and *expansiveness* [3].

Learning -defined as a change in state, which alters how we act on the world and in turn change it by our actions [5] needs to be understood, approached and assessed in teacher education settings as more than learning how to become a member of a community; interest in how we might transform our worlds through our increasingly informed actions on them [5] is crucial. Simply regarding learning as elicited by allowing someone access to a community of practice may not take us further than accepting that naïve conceptions (of knowledge and practice) may as well coexist with the ones prevailed by the community affording the access; focus needs to be shifted (as Edwards argues) from how the system enables its participants to what happens with the participants themselves, how and what is it that they learn. The metaphor of learning by participating reveals, thus, a new meaning: it is not simply about fixing our analytic lenses on the structuring environment and how it produces or allows certain ways of participating and the construction of particular identities [6], as it is about how do individual learners come to shape their actions and tools in the world and change it by their very participation in it. Strictly structured through centralized governmental legislative measures [7], the Romanian program for pre-service teacher education I have studied fails to show any consideration to any of these ideas.

Hardly spaces of undisturbed co-existence for all discursive instances' conceptions of teaching, the teacher education programs need to acknowledge and validate the importance of each and propose resourceful approaches to learning for student teachers. In my study of the Romanian institutional program of pre-service teacher education, however, I have scarcely found any spaces of exploration (policy-or institutional practice-wise) of the relationship between different

conceptions of teaching and learning emerging in the formative space of teacher education. My argument is that analysing the processes of learning in spaces where multiple conceptions of teaching are voiced is absolutely necessary for understanding the way student teachers' conceptions and approaches to teaching shift from naïve to 'scientifically accurate' [8] ones, and even more how these shifts in their knowledge come to shape the very 'world' (the learning settings) they act in.

Moreover, simply placing student-teachers in schools may as well not emerge in genuine professional development. Even in cases where the formative processes are highly collaborative and have a less hierarchical structure as in the Romanian case (where an emphasis on teacher-centred actions and curriculum delivery policy can be diagnosed as representative for the taught curriculum in the pre-service teacher education program studied), studies show that while some beginning teachers receive high quality support and guidance, others in the same school may not receive good professional support or may even be simply neglected [9]. Also, despite governmental *reformist* efforts everywhere in Europe ending up in competence and standard based national curricula for teacher education programs, it is possible for beginning teachers to be judged satisfactory against [*professional standards*] and to become qualified teachers without the highest level of understanding of teaching' [10]. Edwards argues that simply meeting these criteria does not ensure that the beginning teacher will have the capacity to become a professional decision-maker, able to respond in a measured way to pupils as learners [11] and to 'work with others to expand the object that one is working on and trying to transform by recognizing and accessing the resources that others bring to bear as they interpret and respond to the object' [5]. Under the burden of curriculum delivery and the urge of meeting the teacher education standards, many beginning teachers end up in apprenticeship schemes requiring nothing more than for them to become skilful imitators of their mentors teaching approach. Delivering other teachers' lesson plans [12] or simply of products that are not of the teacher's own making [13] leads to an erosion of professional autonomy and lack of responsibility [14].

The place where the process starts and the 'position' occupied by

the learner at the end of his/her training within a specific community of practice gain new understandings because working at the boundaries (peripherally) -in terms of learner's power and knowledge of accepted responses, rules and practices -means also an increase in the chance that, while learning, the learner will constantly challenge those boundaries through increasingly informed uses of the system's tools. In this sense, allowing work at the boundaries may also mean setting the grounds for expansive learning – a process that becomes consequential for both learner and community of practice.

As learning becomes a process of expansion for both learner and system of activity, a new understanding of the novice participant to the community needs to be developed: the learner becomes a *near-peer* to all those significant others (those with whom he/she engages with in the processes of learning). The issues of power and status inform the actions of participants. However, in the process of learning that exposes the boundaries to challenge and crossing, the horizontal dimension of learning takes over the hierarchical organization of power structures and statuses. These two gain new meanings and become objects of expansion with every attempt of engaging with the learning activity in which the main focus is not simply the learner's professional identity, as it is *the learner in the context* (which makes both learner and context objects of change).

Gaining a sense of near-peerness helps learners escape the representation of empty bowls where more experienced others need to pour knowledge, practice and expertise to fill in a mythical construe of professionalism. Actively engaged in his/her own processes of identity expansion and progressively engaged with the tools and problems of the community, the learner reciprocates the *pouring*, a process that links otherwise separate bowls into what may be a network of communicating vessels for which (just as in Plato's metaphor of friendship) the action of pouring (or crossing of boundaries) is ever filling all interconnected vessels

In a world driven by 'flexible transformation [...] of people, practices, markets and institutions' [15], simple and singular disciplinary expertise, transmission of knowledge and provision of culture seem to fail the promised educative responsiveness. Interdisciplinary views and approaches to learning, along with

creating spaces of practice where student-teachers have the opportunity to develop their ability to 'align one's professional practice to that of others' [5], to 'leverage knowledge in other people and in various tools and technologies [...] and to position within a network that connects [participants] in rich ways to other people and other tools and technologies' [15] need to become the prerequisites of teacher education programmes. *Collaboration* and *participation* become key principles for shaping teachers professional actions.

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EDUCATION INDICATORS FOR PRIVATE LIFE IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL NATIONAL CURRICULA – OBSERVATIONAL RESEARCH

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Abstract

The purpose of this observational research is to identify, on the basis of the content analysis, the frequency of the specific categories and themes for the education in private life, at the level of the three categories of indicators: the shaping of representations, the shaping of attitudes and the shaping of behavior. The curriculum documents that have been subjected to a content analysis are the national curricula of all the curriculum areas for the primary school level. The results of the final analysis offer a general representation of the way in which the objectives and the contents regarding education in the private life are proposed in the Romanian pre-university educational system. This paper presents the findings of a research done with the approval of CNCSIS – PNII - TD 2007.

Keywords: private life, national curricula, curriculum areas, class, primary school

1. Studies regarding the way of realising the education for the private life

There are two complex studies within the Romanian pedagogical literature regarding the way of realising education for private life: “The formation of pupils for a private life from the privacy perspective” [1] and “Aspects regarding the education for a private life” [2].

On the basis of the results offered by the two studies, I have elaborated a new method of investigating private life. The objectives of the present research paper are as follows:

- The reconstruction of the indicators, of the thematic categories and of the specific themes for private life (*fundamental research*, based on the interview);
- Establishing a way of respecting private life in the school's internal rules from the Romanian pre-university educational system and in the Ethics Codes of the Romanian pre-university educational system (*observational research*, with the help of the content analysis);
- Identifying the frequency of appearance of the specific themes of private life in the schools curricula and in the alternative textbooks from the Romanian pre-university educational system (*observational research*, with the help of content analysis);
- Registering the level of openness towards the component elements and the dimensions of private life within the students and educators from the pre-university educational system (*observational research*, through questionnaires);
- Making and integrating strategies of realising the education for a private life (practical research, based on a psycho-pedagogical experiment of a formative type).

The main categories of indicators of the education for a private life have been obtained through interviews. The obtained results have indicated three main categories of indicators [3]:

- *Formulation of representations* on private life, as means of knowing the main component elements of it;
- *Formulation of positive attitudes* towards private life, as means of adequate reference to its component elements;
- *Formulation of behaviors* for a private life, as means of developping abilities of protection of the component elements and of asserting an own behavior in relation to friends, family, society.

For these three categories of indicators there have been established the concepts and the significant conceptual sub-categories

by reference to the approaches that substantiate private life. These concepts are becoming the component elements of private life: *the Private Self, the private space – time background, the primary groups*. The private self is operational according to the internal organisation and to the component elements of the concept of Self [4]: *The Material Self* (somatic and possessive), *The Personal Self* (the image and identity of the Self), *The Adaptive Self* (the values and the activities of the Self). The private space – time background integrates the two dimensions, which assure the personal protection and the establishing of the borders between personal and private: *private space* and *private time* [5]. The primary group is characterized by direct relations (face-to-face) and relatively stable ones, which are long and full of affection [6]. In the category of primary groups there are: family, groups of friends from school or from the work place.

At the level of each category of indicators there is a series of specific themes. These are in operation and have been structured by reference to more dimensions: *objective, biological, psycho-social, esthetic, religious, historical, cultural – political, technological, economical, juridical*. The formulation of the specific themes on the basis of these dimensions offers a concrete and clear representation of private life.

2. The observational research design at the school curricula from the primary level

2.1. The objective and the hypothesis investigation

2.1.1. The objective of the investigation

The objective of the present study consists in the analysis of the school curricula for grades I - IV, under the component elements aspect of private life, suggested by the educational objectives and the contents in which these are realized.

2.1.2. The investigation hypothesis

General hypothesis

The objectives and the contents included in the school curricula from grades I-IV reflect, in a different manner, the component elements of private life at the level of the three types of indicators of private life.

Specific hypothesis 1: The objectives and the contents included in the school curricula for the primary school reflect, in a different manner, the component elements of private life, at the level of the three types of indicators of private life and in relation with the syllabus.

Specific hypothesis 2: The objectives and the contents included in the school curricula for the primary school reflect, in a different manner, the component elements of private life, at the level of the three types of indicators of private life, according to the school year.

2.2. Methodology

2.2.1. The promptness of the concepts

In the content analysis of school curricula for the curricular area Man and Society at the I-IV class level, three types of categories were followed, respectively: 1. Formation of representations for private life; 2. Formation of positive attitudes for private life; 3. Formation of appropriate behaviors for private life. These three categories correspond to those three big categories of educational objectives: cognitive, affective and psycho-behavior.

2.2.2. Method

In order to identify the component elements of private life in school curricula, **the content analysis** was used for distinguishing the themes and the specific categories which correspond to each indicator.

2.2.3. The variables

The dependent variable is represented by the categories of indicators structured on those two levels, while *the independent variables* are: curriculum areas and school years.

2.3. The presenting and interpretation of results

This study presents the results of the comparative analysis of school curriculum for grades I-IV [7, 8, 9, 10], at the level of the three categories of indicators: 1. Formation of representations for private life; 2. Formation of positive attitudes for private life; 3. Formation of appropriate behaviors for private life.

General hypothesis is confirmed, because the objectives and content included in the school curricula for the primary level reflect different aspects regarding private life, at the level of the three main

categories of indicators. The analysis of the frequency of the themes shows the following hierarchy: "Formation of representations for private life" (89), "Formation of appropriate behaviors for private life" (59) and "Formation of positive attitudes for private life" (15).

Specific hypothesis 1 is confirmed, because the objectives and content included in the school curricula for the primary level reflect different aspects regarding private life, at the level of the three main categories of indicators, according to the syllabus (Table 1).

- For the "Formation of representations" category, the school curricula for grades I-IV contain themes that allow approaches to private life predominantly in the "Language and communication" curriculum area (52), comparing to other curriculum areas: Counseling and orientation (19), Man and Society (12), Math and Sciences (3), Technologies (3);
- For the "Formation of attitudes" category, the school curricula for grades I-IV contain themes that allow approaches to private life predominantly in the "Sports" curriculum area (7), comparing to other curriculum areas: Man and Society (3), Counseling and orientation (2), Technologies (2), Math and Sciences (1);
- As for the category "Formation of appropriate behaviors", the school curricula for grades I-IV contain themes that allow approaches to private life predominantly in the "Language and communication" curriculum area (26), comparing to other curriculum areas: Technologies (10), Sports (9), Counseling and orientation (6), Man and Society (6), Arts (2);

Table 1 The frequency of the appearances of specifications differentiated on curriculum areas

Indicators	LC	MS	OS	A	EFS	T	CO	Total
Representations	52	3	12	0	0	3	19	
Attitudes	0	1	3	0	7	2	2	15
Behaviors	26	0	6	2	9	10	6	59

Specific hypothesis 2 is partially confirmed, because the objectives and content included in the school curricula for the primary

level reflect aspects regarding private life only at the level of some categories of indicators, according to the school year (Table 2).

- For the "Formation of representations" category, the school curricula for grades I-IV contain themes that allow approaches to private life predominantly in the 4th grade (42) and the 3rd (31), compared with the other grades (1st grade – 11, 2nd grade - 5);
- For the "Formation of attitudes" category the school curricula for grades I-IV contain themes that allow approaches to private life in a balanced manner: in the 4th grade there are 5 elements, the 3rd grade has 4 elements, 1st and 2nd grade have 3 elements each;
- As for the "Formation of appropriate behaviors", the school curricula for grades I-IV contain themes that allow approaches to private life in a balanced manner: the 3rd grade has 17 elements, 2nd and 3rd grade have 15 elements and 1st grade 12 elements.

Table 2 The frequency of the appearances of specifications differentiated on school years

Indicators	I Grade	II Grade	III Grade	IV Grade	Total
Representations	11	5	31	42	89
Attitudes	3	3	4	5	15
Behaviors	12	15	17	15	59

Conclusions

After analysing the statistical data regarding the frequency of the specific themes for private life, the following **general conclusion** are resulted from within the school curricula for the primary school level: the accent is placed on transmitting information, the formation of behaviors and less on the formation of positive attitudes towards private life.

There are also a series of **specific conclusions** to be drawn up regarding the way in which the school curricula for the primary school level integrate themes that allow approaches of private life in a predominant manner, at the curriculum areas level and at **the school year** level, such as:

- at the “Language and communication” curriculum area, for the ”Formation of representations” and for the ”Formation of behaviors” categories and At the “Sports” curriculum area, for the ”Formation of positive attitudes”;
- for the 3rd and 4th grade, for the ”Formation of representations” category.

Both the general results and the specific ones indicate significant differences between school curricula for the primary school level regarding the manner of representation for the three categories of indicators and the component elements of private life.

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INITIAL TRAINING – TRAINING. DICHOTOMY OR COMPLEMENTARY?

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Abstract

The continuous training needs to be thought in the broader context of education, and the changes in society. The future social system requires in a greater measure that the initial training meets the labor market, consequently, initial and continuing training must be appropriate to these requirements.

We can not speak separately about initial training and continuing training, so they are not in a relationship of dichotomy but in a relationship of complementarity. Until now we have seen that no matter which is the form of the continuous training, the basis should exist from the initial training. Any reconstruction starts from one of the initial levels of development, so that we can talk again about the relationship of complementarity between the initial and continuous training, because the first is the starting point for any kind of transformation, it is located in a relationship of subordination to the continuous training.

Keywords: training, dichotomy, complementary

The word "training" may have more accepted meanings. One would accept that between the word "training" and the word "education" there is a relationship of synonymy. In modern pedagogy the term "training" is used as a substitute for the concept of education, but in two different ways: either in terms of education as a process, or in the meaning of the result of education. Another sense of the word would be that it is regarded as a feature of the entire educational process, namely the contribution to the personality of children in order to prepare them for life (that is to be training). The term "training" can

be used in the restricted sense, which is with the meaning: to prepare the young generation for the future of their profession and continue throughout their preparation for life. The training has two directions: the initial and continuing training. From this point of view we can ask an important question regarding the two possible finishes: What kind of relationship exists between the two endings - of dichotomy or complementary? To find the answer to this question we should first see what do initial and continuous training represent?

The initial training is the theoretical training and the preparation that takes place during the pre-university studies and / or university. Initial training is just the first step of preparing children to become adults, it is extended by the continuous training. Initial training is the education of the school that must be combined harmoniously with the formal non-formal and the informal education. In formal education, hetero-education is dominant (the educational process carried out under the teacher's guidance and it is in opposition to self-education) and the gradually aims to the development of self-education. Initial training is the fundamental education that a man gets, it is the training at the basic level, which can serve as support for a more intensive learning. Initial training includes small childhood education and primary education of children, teenagers and fights illiteracy in adults and their acquisition of general knowledge and skills necessary for the entire life.

Modern society, due to the exponential growth in the number of information and the quality of the initial and continuous training, starts with the initial training and continues with the continuous training which aims to continue and enhance skills necessary for the renewal of a lifetime. Initial training offers the foundations for a culture of general education, which can deepen through further training.

Hetero-education is dominant in the non-formal education, but major role goes to self –education and informal education, which plays an important role in the self-education, bringing the influences of informal in the development process. Education is the initial influence on personality, with influences coming through formal, informal or non-formal education, aiming at training on a basic level.

Traditional society, in particular traditional education focuses on the initial training especially on the quantity, the knowledge, the accumulation of information, not to have an application in practice.

Training is done through formal structures with the dominant culture of professional structures through which non-formal education joins the mechanisms of self-education and education is filtered through the informal mechanisms of self-education. The continuous education, organized by institutions specially created for training, and other institutions authorized by the Ministry of Education for this purpose are called "training providers".

In the modern society, continuous training is pushed in front due to the process of accelerated change, demographic explosion, unprecedented evolution of science and technology, emergence of new information, increasing leisure time, multiplying the professions.

Training is a must that "springs from the social dynamic of a society. Its forms are wearing multiple nuances of the system of education in the educational system, from country to country.

We can broadly outline some details of the continuous training: improvement of existing training, retraining, rebuilding a professional paths in a totally different area of specialization than the original (re-training), recovery of the trajectory or professional school, continuing education on demand.

Improvement of the existing training has an important role in bringing up to date the fund of knowledge, skills, ability, in order to increase the efficiency of response to the tasks that are registered through professional rapid qualitative changes: a teacher who has finished College Institute is improved through a specialized course on the same branch with which he was initially trained (the "Academica" courses). A variant of it may be "retraining", understood in terms of making their initial training to serve for another area of activity, a complementary one, with the necessary and functional adjustments involved, according to the real demands of the labor market: a teacher, due to limitations of his activity becomes a baby-sitter.

Reconstruction of a professional paths in a totally different area of specialization than the original (re-training) starts from the initial training, such as a an adult who attended school with a theoretical profile and worked as a chemist is now attending the Faculty of

Letters and then works as a translator. Recovering the trajectory in school or at a professional age which exceeds the normal initial training is done by completing basic training, it is determined by leaving school or a vocational training initially unsatisfactory, by objective or subjective reasons, adults giving themselves a chance to recover what they have not made "timely": an adult who has completed compulsory education in the theoretical branch and worked as a laborer has decided to recover and professional trajectory through which attending courses to become fitter. Continuous education on request is made for satisfaction of curiosity, as a hobby, as a leisure time employment in areas of extreme diversity and without mandatory practice applicability: the art of photography courses, other art classes, Japanese language courses.

Continuous training, not depending on the way of its accomplishment, it involves learning, and learning involves transformation, reorganization, restructuring. What is sometimes difficult in the continuing reorganization of what has already been learned.

There have been made studies on the particularities of early school age, the period in which human personality was initially trained, considering that its shape can not suffer many changes afterwards. Due to the socio-economic dynamics of the last time we passed the "involvement of adults in training activities of their own personality, reforming or converting them to ease obtaining their income and to increase the quality of life. Integration of adults in various forms of training was made after a careful study of their motivation.

In the improvement activities are trained adults with intrinsic motivation, willing to increase their level of qualification of curiosity for knowledge.

Others do the same thing, but putting purpose in the area of competitiveness for obtaining and keeping a job, to increase wages. A third category attends stages of training without any internal motivation, but because they were recommended or required to do so.

Conversion is targeted by adults who want to enlarge their scope of what they learned through initial training or, more rarely, from curiosity to discover new areas of application.

Re-training appears in the case of those who attend an initial training with a special motivation, by chance or because it is required the company, and the adults want something or if those with a professional initial training that recorded prolonged failure in employability or integration in the profession.

The demand for continuous training is usually motivated internally or resulting from an interesting combination of internal and external motives, it aims mostly at the continuous preparation for career, to update knowledge and skills for improvement, for retraining and reintegration, especially if the individual was in a period of unemployment or in the case of a risk to lose his job. Training continues extend education depending on individual goals, but also on the demands of society, in order to cope with the new needs of the contemporary world.

The continuous training needs to be thought in the broader context of education, and it is ordered by the change in society. The future society requires in a greater measure initially training to meet the labor market, consequently, initial and continuing training must be appropriate to these requirements.

As we have seen so far, in the analysis of initial training and continuous training we can not speak separately of them, so they are not in a relationship of dichotomy but in a relationship of complementarity.

As a conclusion we can say that education should be organized around the 4 basic types of learning offered by Jacques Delors who names the pillars of knowledge: to learn to know, to learn to do, learn to live and learn to be. If I had to report the initial training to one of these pillars, I would choose the first pillar - to learn to do. In fact the initial training is the science of learning to know "the fundamental things that help the individual in the current integration in society, subject to a bombardment of changes. The other pillars can become points for the continuing support of adults, conducted in varying forms, so that the individual will learn "to do" things, to apply information and be competent in a field in another area near you , will learn to live in a society where everything moves fast and the individual you must "rotate" after the information and will learn to be what he wants and what society wants.

Until now we have seen that no matter what form takes the continuous training, it must be based on the initial training. Any reconstruction starts from one of the initial levels of development (or the secondary school level or even university level) so that we can talk again about the relationship of complementarity between the initial and continuous training, because the first is the starting point for any transformation, it is in a relationship of subordination to the continuous training.

TRAINING ADULTS IN THE THIRD MILLENNIUM - A NEW CHALLENGE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN ROMANIA

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Abstract

The status of education in contemporary society is quite discussed because there are several points of view from which it can be addressed. Education is an approach, a process, an action, a set of influences which forms and develops human personality. Starting from the premise that you cannot accumulate a fund of knowledge and / or capabilities for the entire life and that the school is not the only one who can meet the educational needs of the individual, education becomes a dimension of life, a partnership between the individual and society based on the principle of win-win. The educative action becomes a necessity of the individual throughout his life, fact that leads to considering adult education as a natural and imperative fact for the continuos improvement and development of individual in order to face a dynamic society in a permanent change.

Keywords: adult education, educational system, challenge

1. Introduction

The XXI Century is the century of transformation, change of speed, explosion of information, communication, but also of violence, stress, global pollution, congestion, and so on. Education in this society has become a necessity, a condition for the evolution itself of this society, to develop its multiple plans. Many teachers have characterized it as a "dimension of life", others have classified it as "the core of society", while for a significant part of the society,

education has become a value in itself "[1]. Globalization activities, unequal economic growth, job vacancies are determinants of an education carried out not only the "beginning" of life (initial training), but throughout it (continuous training). In this context, the concept of education has evolved in several directions, one of which is adult education. At the age of adulthood, education is not compulsory, at least in formal terms, and therefore adult education is a disciplinary matter less developed throughout the sciences which have as their object of study this phenomenon.

Although not a new concept in Romania, adult education has seen real progress in the period after 1989 when, under the influences of educational policies in other European countries, this branch of education has undergone a period of revival and development in line with the changes imposed by the transition to a democratic society. The stage after 1989 is characterized by an intensive effort to develop a legislative framework that is more comprehensive, a more systematic concern from the makers of educational policies, the allocation of funds increasingly numerous in this area, the emergence of institutions designed to carry out educational activities for adults and their monitoring and evaluation.

However, for 18 years, in Romania, education has undergone the continuous process of reform. Therefore, we can discuss the following hypothesis: in our country, adult training is a strong educational system and not only its, or a weakness? Can we speak about individual, economic and social benefits of this component of education?

2. Fields of action of adult learning and the factors that define them

The areas of action in adult education aim at four main directions: professional education of adults, education for democratic citizenship, basic adult education and leisure time education [2].

Professional training aims at adult vocational training, further training and preparing adults for an open attitude towards change and educating a growing confidence in change.

Citizenship Education aims to empower individuals to meet and at any time apply the principles and values of freedom, laws and citizens' rights.

Basic education of adults is aimed at the formation of key competences, including computer operating skills, technological culture, languages, social skills and management competencies.

Education for Leisure aims to offer opportunities for personal development, to creative use, to optimize the potential of individuals.

Training adults in Romania must take account of three very important factors: the impact of information society, the impact of scientific and technical knowledge and the impact of internationalization. In the context of these three major influences appear new conditions for employment such as flexibility, cooperation network, subcontracting, working as a team. New technologies have led to the decrease, and even the disappearance of some jobs that required routine or repetitive work; today skills for work of higher level, for initiative and the capacity to adapt are needed. In this context, the demands of the post-modern individual are in a continuous growth. Adult training is part of an educational system which educates the individual in the innovative spirit, which promotes the capacity of self-development, the adapting to a world that is rapidly changing. By achieving these objectives, the training provides individuals a more active participation in social and community life that comes through to meet the need to capitalize on the increasingly non-formal experiences and, especially, the adults' informal experiences. When the adult is in a system of continuous training, he possesses a professional, social, emotional experience, the experience of team work, a theoretical basis and even a practical one, which he can capitalize on this system.

3. Short analysis of the system of adult education in Romania

A strongpoint of continuous training is that adults have intrinsic motivation to learn. Many critics would say that in Romania, today, the adult's motivation is extrinsical solely determined by social and economical factors such as: unemployment, the diminishing importance of the economic branch of industry, low wages, lack of jobs and so on. Lack of jobs in some areas is partially offset by the

emergence of new ones in other areas. Changing the nature and content of work and professions, the internationalization of the labour market changes are designed to make the training of adults meet the economic needs of society. Romania is a developing, passing through a long and difficult transitional period. Romanian adult is aware of the increasing importance of continuing its preparation by updates, additions or specialization of theory, methods and practices to deal with socio-economic changes said.

Another strong point of training adults in Romania is the educational policy which comes to support the adult trying to cope with the rapid changes in society which lives in. The Romanian State was involved in shaping the elements of the education system, such as defining a legal framework to govern the organization, implementation and evaluation of the system, establishing certain occupational standards, quality assurance and monitoring, establish mechanisms for national accreditation of qualifications, promoting a policy of financing, facilitating access to education for all, concern for the introduction of transferable credits in the context of lifelong learning for adults, providing bilingual diploma supplements and so on. All these were and are possible due to the involvement of ministries such as Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity, Ministry of Education and Research, but also because the establishment and work of institutions such as the National Council for Adult Vocational Training (NATB), the National Council for Training and Continuing Education, the National Agency for Employment (NAE), providers of adult training, and so on. Romania's participation in programs of European cooperation in education will lead to the gradual harmonization of the educational system with European practices in the field.

Another advantage of adult training in Romania is to encourage partnership between these institutions, universities and non-governmental organizations and companies. In the private sector we notice that financial support is increasingly emphasized in this direction because the directors of these companies are aware of the advantages of these partnerships such as completing the theoretical knowledge through practical experience, knowledge of positive recovery in the labour collective, cooperation in experimental

development, systematization of information which must or must not be transmitted to future generations, development of entrepreneurial skills, increased productivity, efficiency, and so on. But these partnerships must mean much more in order to reach a relationship of complementarity between these institutions, with beneficial effects on adult, first, and the Romanian society, in this context, training adults becoming a strategic investor.

NGOs have resulted in various projects such as quality assurance in the training of adults in Romania (draft of the German Society for Technical Cooperation), strengthening organizational and management of the area Education Centres (Institute for Cooperation International Association of the German Adult Education), training of adults in the construction industry (Phare), Forum for discussions on the new legislative framework for continuous training of adults (organized in 2003 by the Foundation for Human Resources Romania).

Also, there are very important discussions on the training of trainers. Masters courses on the subject are organized by universities such as Transylvania University of Brasov, West University of Timisoara, and University "Alexandru Ioan Cuza University in Iasi. It focuses on the initial and continuous training of trainers for adults because the quality of preparation of teachers in this field should be a top. New discoveries of adult psychology are important in this context because they invalidate the old concepts under which the adult recorded a decline with increasing age. Trainers must take into account in their work that: adults have a certain attitude towards learning and education in general, attitude determined by systems of values which they have; adults are pragmatic people, having clear, well defined goals; adults use any background knowledge and their own life experiences; adults have a shaped and strengthened picture of themselves, defining themselves as autonomous individuals, independent and responsible.

Adult education market in Romania is determined by supply and demand, a big advantage being that there are several sources of funding for this area: government funds, local government budgets, programs and international partnerships, private economy, various bodies that have the status of sponsors. Adult education funding must

be addressed as an investment in human resources, there should be taken into account, on the one hand, the efficiency of resource used (financially) and, on the other hand, the quality created (the human resources). However, there is a profusion of legal acts and a lack of consistency between priorities identified in the documents of educational policy and funding.

Benefits for the post-modern individual, the educational policy, the institutional partnerships with non-governmental organizations, the funding sources, the projects implemented are just some of the strengths of the continuous training of adults in Romania. However, the system has some weaknesses. First, you can not speak of a clear and unified vision of permanent education in terms of the legislative framework and this is due to the lack of synchronization between the existing laws. Collaboration between ministries, between ministries and institutions such as NATB, NAE or between them and providers of training exist, but we still can not speak of a permanent synchronization of efforts. There should not be forgotten legislation changing the European Union. Romania, as EU Member State, is under strict monitoring and must cope with both internal change and those that have taken place internationally. There are several factors that tend to hinder the development of adult learning such as poverty, deterioration of social and natural environment, increasing illiteracy, low investment in education, and so on.

The rigidity of educational institutions to the current needs of adults still persists. Training providers, teachers, and trainers must take into account the age and individual particularities of adults, their motivations, their experience, but especially their concrete needs. Training the trainers should gain more and more in importance, matter absolutely necessary to succeed in training adults.

Another weakness is the mentality, the general attitude towards adult education. A fairly high percentage of adults believe that initial education is necessary and sufficient throughout life. Contemporary society, with all its changes and transformations contradicts this, forcing the adult to improve on the practices or on the contrary, to retrain in one totally and utterly new. Mentality, ignorance, the thought that the state is obliged to "support" everybody may change through education. The current educational system is one that

promotes education and training which lobbies for the continuous training of adults. But all these concepts should be promoted on national campaigns to highlight the benefits of this form of education. Linking the various institutions dealing with adult education and the media is a real opportunity to promote the benefits offered by training.

However, the reality is that a lack of prospects for socio-professional insertion, in terms of unclear economic development, it is a pretty obvious. Moreover, it has not yet been created a legislative framework incentive for further education. Thus, all existing sources of funding lack, often, individuals / adults are obliged to pay their own courses of training, creating the need of a system by which to ensure tax deduction or, why not create an " account for learning " [3].

4. Instead of conclusions

As follows from those presented above, adult training is a field that has both strengths (policy educational institutions, funding sources, partnerships with various organizations, the benefits for the individual and society) and weaknesses (legislative framework insufficiently well developed, insufficient knowledge of adult psychology, mentality, lack of prospects for socio-professional insertion). However, adults need training to take advantage of opportunities available (the EU partnerships with other countries, contact education - the media) to reduce the weaknesses and avoid threats that could make development.

Adults' training represents itself a strong point of the expanding system of education in Romanian, which should develop as a prerequisite for ensuring social and individual development and to meet the challenges of knowledge-based society.

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TOURISM AND EDUCATION

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Abstract

Tourism means not only a modality of physical and intellectual relaxation but it also has an educational role. Excursions offers students the opportunity to observe the objects and phenomenon in natural states, the art creations from the museums, the documents and objects concerning the historical past or the life and the work of the various personalities. The students and the teachers could use the information obtained into the classroom for different classes.

Key words: tourism, education, virtual trips

1. Introduction

Today, the word „tourism” has gained nowadays a new sense that concerns a great deal of situations, from the natural necessity of knowledge, to see, or to discover, till the physical or mental recover. Ion Popescu makes a distinction between terms that are sometimes used as synonyms: by *journey* we mean „a road made by someone to some far land”, the *trip* means „a walk or journey made, usually in a group, by foot or with a means of transportation, with an educational, recreational purpose, *hiking* is „a trip made on foot”, visit means going to exhibitions, museums, with an educational purpose. [3, p. 14]

There is also a possible distinction between recreational and educational trips. *Educational trips* are organized in nature or at cultural institutions or business to accomplish some educational objectives of some themes set in educational programs. All this gives the students the opportunity to observe objects and natural

phenomenal, the production process at work, the original works of art, moments related to the historical past, the life and activity of some personalities of science and culture both national and international. They have the role to stimulate the process of knowledge, to improve and to complete what the students have learnt during classes. *Recreational trips* are organized at the class or school level, having a voluntary participation, with the purpose of extending the level of knowledge, to familiarize the students with the natural beauties and also giving them the opportunity to rest and relax. An exceptional category is that of the family trips. This can follow the same objective as the ones with the educational or recreational purpose. If in the first two cases, the responsibility for achieving the objectives targeted is the responsibility of the teachers, in this last case, this becomes the responsibility of the parents. These types of trips usually have a recreational purpose. These are usually programmed in weekends or during holidays giving to the children the opportunity to relax, that means to let „the brain, and in general, the nervous system – very demanded by the intellectual endeavor during the week, the whole semester or the entire year-, to take a break, to accumulate new physical and psychic energies, that are necessary for a good yield of their daily activities. It is well known that intellectual tiredness pushed to the edge generates a weak yield or concerning aesthetics.” [3, p.21] In „active rest” the trips and hikes, that strengthens the body and relaxes the intellect, must occupy an important place.

In what concerns the family trips, their children mustn’t become a neglected presence. We must not forget that their will of knowledge is almost without limit. On these occasions, their questions are ceaseless, and can become annoying or they could put our knowledge to a great test. This requires „a great deal of patience from their side, attention to every question, a great care in how they formulate the answers and also sincerity. Every superficial, off-hand or ambiguous answer is dangerous, because it could break the trust of the child for their parents, or, worse, some wrong convictions could be raised, based on some wrong information.” [3, p. 18] The conversation with the children must concern the training, without constrains, and education through concrete facts.

2. Historic

In all ages people traveled having the purpose to inform, to instruct and to offer themselves some relaxing moments. In Latin it is the verb *peregriner*, which means „to travel around the world, to travel for study” the term has an equivalent in the expression „study voyage”, used frequently nowadays.

„The history of European tourism can perhaps be said to originate with the medieval pilgrimage. Although undertaken primarily for religious reasons, the pilgrims in the *Canterbury Tales* quite clearly saw the experience as a kind of holiday (the term itself being derived from the „holy day” and its associated leisure activities).” [5]

Francois Rabelais considers that, to know the life and human activity, the student must be taken to visit workshops and shops and to see the life of the farmers: „They went to see how was the iron modeled, how were the guns made, also they watched the grinders of precious stones, the adepts, the founders of money, the weavers of carpets, velvet, clothiers, clockmakers, cutters of mirrors, printers, organists, painters and other kind of workers. Attracting them with a glass of wine, they were amazed by the beautiful thing that they made and they wanted to know more about their crafts.” [4, p. 88]

Michel de Montaigne believed that the period of study should end with a journey of the scholar, lied by a teacher, so they could know the world, through a direct contact with the world.

Jan Amos Comenius considered that it was the students' duty to complete their study by voyages through different parts of Europe, from the point of view of John Locke; the child's training was finished with the study of a craft and a journey, which could help him to know the world and people better. Travels, in Locke's vision, were the final step in the shaping of the man, this having advantages like: the possibility of learning foreign languages, it developed wisdom and prudence and also permitted the observation of different people and customs.

Romantics, during the XVIII and XIX century, became passionate travelers – sometimes from simple curiosity or driven by the thirst of knowledge, at other times as an escape to nature, to „run” from society or to recover their piece of mind. Jean-Jacques Rousseau was a daring traveler and Goethe a real admirer of nature.

„During the 17th century, it became fashionable in England to undertake a Grand Tour. The sons of the nobility and gentry were sent upon an extended tour of Europe as an educational experience.” [5]

Vasile Alecsandri, Mihail Kogălniceanu, Alecu Russo, Nicolae Bălcescu and many other younger Romanians of 1848 generation traveled to study in foreign countries.

3. The role of tourism in education

School must capitalize the information achieved by students through other ways than educational, ensuring understanding, selection, and the process and integrate them in cognitive complex structures. Tourist activities, so pleasant to everyone, are full of educational valences. The target that is pursued through trips, journeys or hiking could be multiplied, like: rebounding, pleasure, training, and education, finding new places, etc.

The tourist activity of the students mustn't be just a reason for walking, or admiring nature, but a practice, attractive and entertaining method for learning about the natural beauties, of instruction and learning, of develop aptitudes and strengthen the health. On a trip some skills are developed as well as habits in observing natural phenomenon and the ones of social life. So, through intuition, knowledge endows a realistic character. „The content of the educational trips is much more flexible, vast and complex than lessons held in classes, and also much more attractive, students become fuller of energy, optimistic and enthusiastic about such activities.” [1, p. 120] This type of activity attracts students to the learning process. They accept willingly the rules, assuming their own responsibilities, students' self-discipline themselves. During trips students acquire some practical skills such as: field orientation, drafting sketches, drawings, handling machineries, write some stories, respect the rules of the group and develop a civically spirit.

Students could be grouped, each one having an explicit task: to extract information about personalities and events that took place in the settlements visited, searching the forms of relief seen on their way, taking pictures, collecting postcards, maps, tourist brochure of the places that they visited. The information gathered contributes to enriching the knowledge about history, geography, natural science,

Romanian language, music, art, religion, civic and development of investigation ability. The observation must be directed systematically, students being advised to write down what they consider relevant.

What do we visit on a trip that has an educational purpose? - museums, memorial houses, churches/monasteries, parks, zoo and botanical garden, historic monuments, nature monuments, castles, caves and so on. Depending on the available time and the target we must try to visit as many objectives as possible. We must take into account the following aspect: if the available time is limited, it is better to visit fewer objectives so that we can see every detail, rather than to go from one place to another, getting tired, and at the end of the trip to retain almost nothing.

The information gathered from the family or school trips will be used to advantage to all the disciplines that it applies. Then all the accomplished products will fit on the class portfolio. These portfolios could be realized at the end of every school trip, containing all the materials gathered/realized by students during the trip. Thematically portfolios could be realized, this kind of portfolios contains information gathered by students from trips held in different countries or to a certain kind of objectives (memorial houses, monasteries, natural monuments, castles and so one). Possibilities to travel are endless today. It is good to share something off from the experiences gathered by some of the students during their family trips to the country or abroad. This way, colleges can find out new information's through pictures, stories realized by the ones that have the opportunity to travel.

An indispensable stage is the one on which the trip is analyzed. At this stage all the information gathered during trips are processed. Also a debate with the students is held to draw conclusions, to establish the result of the observations or the experiments realized in nature. The achieved impressions from the trip could also take the form of literary/art creations made by students and this can be put in an exhibition.

4. On the wings of imagination Virtual tourism

Imaginary trips, „trips on fire screen”, how Ion Popescu says, they also constitutes an alternative to take into account. What does an

imaginary trip actually mean? Two variants must be taken into account: reading travel stories and watching TV shows or CD's, DVD's that present different parts of Earth.

No matter how much we travel „in this life”, we will never be able to see or know everything. Often, even the places that we have visited remain partially unknown. Reading travel stories completes and enhances the sites that we have admired for a moment.

Then when reassembled the scenes that are written in a travel story we try to see with „open eyes” charming sites or arid places and unreachable or to experience, for a couple of seconds, next to the citizens of some far lands, we became, actually, the companion of the writer and, at the same time, we self-instruct. It is said that from a travel story we learn more geography and history than from schoolbooks, we acquire knowledge from vast domains of art, and we do, secondarily, investigations in the biology, mineralogy, ecology, hydrology domain and so on, everything with no effort to memorize, without „swot”. It's, probably, the most delightful way to fill in our general knowledge and to reach far places, that are not accessible to everyone.

„Travel story is a good companion during our free, relaxing time, a modest and serious teacher, an easy way to escape from present. Participating with your mind to all the difficult tests that all the great explorers passed or imagining every landscape described in travel stories, we try a rare lust, complete our education, we shape our character. Let's accustom our children with such imaginary trips. Their use will be undeniable.” [3, p. 20-21]

Certainly, no travel story, no matter how well written, and no picture or movie, could replace reality, but they constitute an alternative that we could take into account when our possibilities to travel are limited.

5. Conclusions

An important role of trips in education and instruction of our children is, we believe, undeniably. That is why; you should travel as much as possible! Teachers are trying to capitalize to maximum the experiences that they had or the ones the students had during their trips/voyages.

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PSYCHOEDAGOGICAL COUNSELLING FOR THE FORMATION OF THE SELF-TEACHING COMPETENCE OF THE STUDENTS' (STCS). THEORETICAL GUIDELINES

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Abstract

Psychopedagogical counseling for the development of the students' self-teaching competence (SSC) aims at their ability for self-(diagnosis-projection-implementation-evaluation) of personalized self-teaching strategies (PSS).

By means of psychological and pedagogical methodology, the acquisition-practising-improvement of SSC associated competences/subcompetences are facilitated.

The student benefits from personalized support in self-knowledge, projection, implementation and evaluation of SSC.

What makes psychopedagogical counseling for the development of SSC be different from other types of psychopedagogical (general) counseling (of development, for efficient learning etc.) is the aim: essentially, the metacognitive structures of the student's personality are aimed at. Assistance/counseling, in this case, is orientated towards the development of transversal/generic competences meant for self-teaching (these are transferable beyond academical/advanced teaching but remain in the area of personal teaching).

Keywords: self-teaching competence of the students, university psychological counseling, independent academic learning (IAL), advanced self-directed teaching, self-management of the IAL

Within the area of the formation of the STCS – which is more and more expansive and diverse – some terminological/conceptual delimitations are necessary; as in the literature – given the assimilation

of the specific scientific research results – there are and are used collocations with similar semantic connotations, we must make some differences.

Among “*the self-teaching competence of the students*” (M. Dordea, 2004), “*the independent academic teaching*”, “*the advanced self/directed teaching*” (I.Al. Dumitru, 2008) and “*the self-management of independent academic teaching*” (I. Neacșu, 2006) there are essential differences.

Here is a brief dictionary:

- self-teaching competence of the students – the set of specific sub-competences that allow the design of their own teaching, the implementation and the self-assessment of the results;
- independent academic teaching – a kind of teaching used/needed in the academic areas semi-assisted/assisted by the facilitator;
- advanced self-directed teaching – a kind of teaching, with long-term effects following personal (personalized) projects; the activity is self-monitored and self-adjusted;
- the self-management of independent academic teaching refers to the planning and the organization of the intellectual work in a constant personal study pace, self-motivates/self-supported, sustained by the habit of the focused training of the personal psychological processes/activities/conditions.

In a basic comparison we can easily see that, from a structural functional point of view, the self-teaching competence of the students has a similar typology with the self-management of independent academic teaching; these are complex activities that involve very different personality abilities/sets of abilities. They allow the independent academic teaching and the advanced self-directed teaching. These are competences (as sets of acquisitions with cross operational value) that can be transferred beyond the academic area.

It is important to notice that they have significant effects at the level of academic teaching.

For the psycho-pedagogical counselor that assists the students (I.Al. Dumitru, 2008; M. Dordea, 2008), these differences are relevant. Generally, they are “client (student) oriented” and they aim

at their contextual needs. The long-term effect interventions (that fulfill the general needs) are not excluded (they are even desirable).

The psycho-pedagogical counseling for the formation – development of the self-teaching competence of the students is a complex activity, based on the partnership/collaboration counselor-student during the entire academic period.

Basically, following the STCS structure, the counseling act aims at a specific support for the structure/formation and the optimal development of the self-cognition, self-design/self-implementation of the personalized self-teaching strategy sub-competences and obviously, the self-assessment of the results. The main objective is the efficient support offered to the student in their personal effort to build this competence.

The counselor assists the student especially in the self-cognition process. The identification of their own psychological resources and (self)teaching abilities is the first step; the identification of the *personality resources* (temperament, character, creativity, teaching style, intelligent conducts, self-image and self-esteem); of the *cognitive-intellectual* ones (declarative, procedural knowledge; information acquisition, process – storing; cognitive and thinking strategies and schemes); of the ones *referring to attention and will* (focus on the task/matter; voluntary mobilization); of the *instrumental-behavioural* (aptitudes, abilities, skills, resolvent behaviours, conducts that are favourable to (self)teaching; motivation for teaching; emotional intelligence).

At least at this level, the personalized support, the help of a professional is essential for the student. The tendency/temptation to use “self-diagnose” instruments or, in the best case, semi-professional ones is very strong. This is why the formative, educational dimension, in this case, has a specific importance. The student will ask for the counselor’s help, gradually trying to become autonomous from the point of view of the diagnose of the personality structures involved in (self)teaching. It is enough to become aware of the value of the scientific instruments and to learn how much they can achieve on their own in this respect. The realistic and pertinent self-cognition is a quality that can be developed.

If the counselor works/is involved more up to this level, especially as a psychologist, from now on, at the next levels, they become more a pedagogue.

The identification of the external resources of the self-teaching (as a sub-competence of the STCS) is built first of all contextually.

The student receives a real support only in the specific self-teaching situations; they will gradually learn how to generalize, how to create operational “schemes” that can be transferred from one context to another; the successive, constant and different practice offers the possibility to structure the generalization-particularization dimension of the specific sub-competence. It is advisable for the student to be assisted, for example, in the “supported training” by the optimal identification of the self-teaching resources in a clearly determined area.

The achievement of their own self-teaching project (precise, well-oriented) is a self-managerial sub-competence. From this point of view the psycho-pedagogue counselor can only intervene discursively; they can assist to the self-structuring of the cognitive elements (of the subject/student) involved in the design. We refer to the formation-development (professionally assisted) of the abilities in order to design/develop an activity plan in an area. It is important for the counselor to create/offer the necessary conditions for a “cross competence” (general, transferable) and, from this point of view the “creative games” are a potential solution.

The implementation of the project (in any area or matter) is a predominantly “factual”/“actional” level. Only the meta-cognitive personal (self)assessment interventions are elements that the counselor and the student can “work” on. This sub-competence of the STCS is as important as the others; this is why the assistance is necessary – though it is “more general”, “more distant”. We support this idea taking into account the possibility that “crisis/standstill situations” could appear. The counselor cannot create solutions for the temporary/contextual failures of the activity of application of a project, but they can “supervise” the behavior of the student who goes through such a situation and they can help them overpass it.

The discussions regarding the way the project can be approached and the specific context it must be applied in, the discussions

regarding the behavioural variants, building desirable alternatives, procedural “reserves” or actional possibilities in the case of apparition of unpredicted/new elements, are always welcome.

At this level, the counselor’s contribution is essential for the formation of the student’s capacity to make/reconsider, assume decisions; the assistance in the formation-development-modification of the emotional conducts is also important (as, in many cases, the differences that appear in the perception of the project and its implementation – confronting the effective actional valences, lead to bottoming or unpredictable/undesired behavioural reactions). The “remedial” interventions are the most efficient in such cases.

The individual experiences of the student and of the counselor (as previous collaborations in this area) are important sources for “preventive discussions.” The specialists in this area claim that all these collaborative experiences build, in time, what is called “counseling for development” (A. Lieury, 2008) of the student; as, after all, they converge to the formation – development of maximization capacities of the personal availabilities for the optimal self-development and the self-achievement (I.Al. Dumitru, 2008; R. Nelson-Jones, 1998).

The self-assessment of the results is a permanently trained sub-competence within the self-teaching process. This is why its formation-training-monitoring is permanent. The student’s assistance within acquisition-practice-fixation-development of the set of specific abilities is implicit; the last is the assistance for the formation of a general (functional) meta-cognitive structure. The psychological and pedagogical interventions are inherent.

The most difficult but also the most spectacular element is the open declared (conscious) transfer, from the counselor to the student/client of the formative “instruments”. Because what is formative-external/external formation source must become formative-internal/internal formation source (self-formative).

The student’s interiorizing of the “procedural” elements, their conscious assimilation as own instruments for the self-formation represent the real success of counseling.

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THE ADULTS WITH NUMERICAL COMPUTING DIFFICULTIES AND THEIR EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

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Abstract

Regardless of status and social role, professional, social, cognitive and emotional experience, adults gloss over or hide learning disabilities because they have to defend a social image, shaped by a certain life experience and a qualitative level of performances. The fear of not being professionally accepted and the reticence towards certain problem situations may determine them to either ignore or refuse to accept the status of a person with disabilities. Within the research carried out on a sample of 128 adults with the ages between 28 and 47 years, the application subjects were selected out of the adults' everyday problems, with reference to the use of information technologies and algorithms that facilitate or generalize computing techniques, problem solving or problem generating techniques that are sometimes similar to analogous methods, with the purpose of facilitating learning, creating direct connections between educational theory and practice and shortening the time necessary for retention, increasing the adults' ability to transfer knowledge. The effects have been easily identifiable and have materialized in an augmentation of confidence level, a mitigation of the inferiority complex, the use of information technologies in order to solve work-related tasks, the acquisition of efficient computing algorithms. The perspectives at hand require that the actions taken to advance the corrective activities with adults be continued, that we carry out several personnel trainings and we create new software and devices.

Keywords: numerical computing difficulties, information technologies, algorithms that facilitate learning

Regardless of the social status and role, of the professional, social, cognitive and affective experience that the adult has, he hides from the „outside” world the learning disabilities, because he has to defend a social image shaped by a certain life experience ,a qualitative level of performances, that he doesn’t want it harmed; has also to face the fear of professional acceptance diminution , the reticence towards certain problematic situations, which makes him either to ignore or not to recognize his status of person with disabilities.

The adult with calculus disabilities, as the one of dislexo-disgrafie, does not recognize public his problem but he redeems it by using calculus devices, specialized programmes and mostly using the common calculator that is given to his disposal even by the simple mobile phone. The persons with calculus disabilities do heavily simple operations, even with number one, they reverse the numbers (instead of twenty one, they say twelve), they don’t make the difference between units, hundreds, thousands, only after a few examples, but then they forget it. But the majority have visual memory, good orientation skills, they remember the place of different things inside the house and realize if something is not on its place, which helps them in exercising the classes and orders.

The excessive theoretization is not useful to the adult. Being a constructive and active process, the adult learning finds always place in a certain multidimensional and systematic context.

The best resource in his education, is the experience of the one who learns, recognized as key element „alive student book” of the one that learns (Lindeman) a knowledge or sense construction.

The used approaches to puzzle out this problematic have demonstrated, that all professions use mathematics, which has different roles depending on the occupation, on the learners level, that the most consider as „unmathematicians”, the teaching process is still realised through traditional methods, it is used a „ false concrete”.

(Adda), it is underlined the teaching of algorythms and the used technology:

- *Is the one asked in the vocational education*
- *leads to redefining the contents and methods in the most part of the time in a negative way*
- *helps in understanding the concepts*

The best solutions found to ameliorate these problems has determined to build up a team of pedagogists, psychologists, mathematicians, psychopedagogists, specialists in discalculie, who to establish the methodologics alternatives which can realise this thing efficiently.

There have been established principles of mathematics instruction:

- ***the achievement of a propitious environment of learning***
- ***the new knowledge is obtained from pre-assets***
- ***turning to account the alternative strategies of solving the problems.***
- ***The comprise of opportunities:*** to ask questions, *to give an argument, to define the objectives, to monitor the self progress through:* assessment, mental mathematic and modern technology.

Along the line, there were taken into account Bishop (1988) the multicultural studies reffering to the components of mathematics in the daily activity and the additional mathematics activities such as **counting, measuring, locating, projecting, the game , the explanation** to the level of the fourth dimension (ability and understanding).

The teacher's tasks have consisted in determing real understanding of principles and developing the mathematics knowledge, to recognize the understanding errors , to value and to put to good use the previous knowledge, to use different teaching strategies. The achieved approaches passed from the investigation of alternatives for learning the basic adult Math, especially in the situation outside the school, to the inspiration of using learning and teaching alternative methods to be used beside the traditional teaching and outside the traditional teaching environment, (ex. at the posts, at homes, in the social life).

The remedial programmes have followed the formation of some competences, that allow the adult proficiencies, in order to permitt the adult with difficulties in learning, reading and understanding the numbers, the symbols, the description of some tasks using numbers, measures, certain methods and procedures etc., appealing both traditional methodology and the one based on the implication of

informational technologies, in order to increase the cognitive contact through the interaction with formulas, the presentation personalization to catch the attention, to reduce „Math anxiety” and to do Math more attractive. “Math learning could be fun?”

The use of elements and problems from the real contexts has induced the stupendous motivation, has invited to interact and cooperate, has maintained the specificity of the adult problems, whom has challenged to find new solutions in their solving.

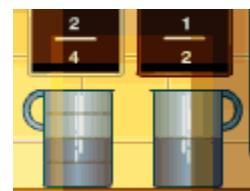
The explanation of the mathematics notions has been realised by the association of objects (numbers do not have any sense, they don't understand where two plus three is five, but if they think about a flower and count its petals, they surely realise they are totally five), writting on the coloured sheets of paper, the use of drawing and the graphics elements for the fractions operations, the use of educational soft and some electronics devices.

Here, there are some examples of exercises and problems:

Simplifying fractions

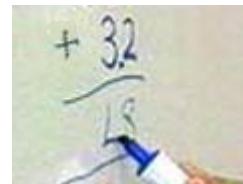
Cancelling down fractions and improper fractions

e.g. $\frac{6}{4} = 1 \frac{2}{4} = 1 \frac{1}{2}$



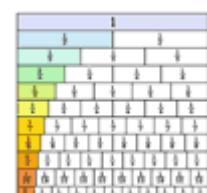
Compare and order fractions

e.g. $3/5 > 1/2$



Using decimals

Add, subtract, multiply, divide and round decimals e.g. $1.6 + 3.2 = 4.8$



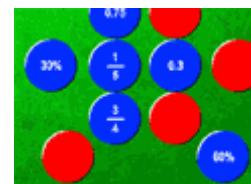
Introduction to %

e.g. Find 20% of £10



Comparing all three

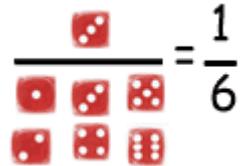
Compare fractions, decimals and percentages all together e.g. $\frac{1}{2} = 0.5 = 50\%$



Probability

Understand the probability scale and use fractions, decimals and percentages.

e.g. Chance of rolling a 3 = $\frac{1}{6}$



Generalising the results gradually leads to an understanding of the processes involved. Addition of whole numbers is relatively straightforward but a clear understanding of addition is necessary for fractions.

$$\begin{aligned} 3 + 5 &= 8 \\ \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} &\neq \frac{1}{8} \\ \frac{5}{15} + \frac{3}{15} &= \frac{3+5}{15} \\ &= \frac{8}{15} \end{aligned}$$

Powers of unknowns are distinct and cannot be combined by addition or subtraction. x cannot be added to x^2

$$\begin{aligned} 5x + 4x - 2x &= x(5 + 4 - 2) \\ &= 7x \\ 5x^2 + 4x - 2x^2 &= x(5x + 4 - 2x) \\ &= x[x(5 - 2) + 4] \\ &= x[3x + 4] \\ &= 3x^2 + 4x \end{aligned}$$

What is the area of each of these rectangles?

40cm x 30cm



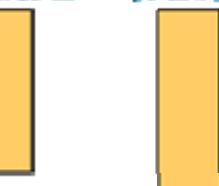
50cm x 60cm



20cm x 80cm



30cm x 90cm



_____ cm²

_____ cm²

_____ cm²

_____ cm²

Times tables

Practise your times tables. Try to learn the tricky ones that you may not know quickly. Concentrate on 6s, 7s, 8s and 9s

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30	33	36
4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48
5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60
6	12	18	24	30	36	42	48	54	60	66	72
7	14	21	28	35	42	49	56	63	70	77	84
8	16	24	32	40	48	56	64	72	80	88	96
9	18	27	36	45	54	63	72	81	90	99	108
10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120
11	22	33	44	55	66	77	88	99	110	121	132
12	24	36	48	60	72	84	96	108	120	132	144

Mental method

There are many ways to multiply numbers in your head, including:

Multiplying the tens then units

Multiplying the tens **and then units**

Rounding up one number to the nearest 10 and adjusting the answer

49×6 is the same as

49×6 is the same as

$40 \times 6 + 9 \times 6$ which
6 is

$50 \times 6 - 1 \times 6$ which is

$240 + 54$

$300 - 6$

which is 294

which is 294

Tip: Use the method you find easiest.

Grid method

For the **grid method**, break up the number into hundreds, tens and units. Multiply each separately and then add the answers together.

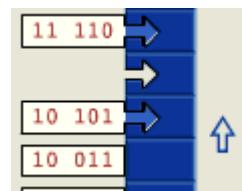
Take **258 x 6**

	200	50	8	
x 6	1200	300	48	$\Rightarrow 1200 + 300 + 48 = 1548$

Comparing numbers

Learn about place value and compare numbers

e.g. **11 110 > 10 101**



Times tables

Practise your **times tables** with the multiplication grid.

1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6
2	4	6	8	10	12
3	6	9	12	15	18
4	8	12	16	20	24

Ratio and proportion

Learn about ratio **and** proportion

e.g. **6:2** is the same as **3:1**



The effects have been easily noticed and they have materialized in increasing the level of trust in their own transfer abilities, composing the inferiority complex, using information technologies to solve the work duties, learning some efficient algorithms.

The prompt perspectives are imposing the sequel of these promotion activities with the adults, the attainment of some staff trainings, the achievement of new soft and devices.

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www.bbc.co.uk/skillswise

EDUCATION AS A PEDAGOGY OF ALTERITY

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Abstract

It is becoming more and more obvious that European education must transcend the millenary pedagogical practice of identity, begin one of alterity and thus eliminate what has always separated the EGO from the OTHER. Education as a pedagogy of alterity is now being achieved inside the European institutions, this leading to a new conquest which helps both surpass and complete the Greek Mediterranean model of culture. Education as pedagogy of alterity is the most modern democratic practice and it brings the creation of a new world within the realms of possibility.

Keywords: identity, alterity, democratic practice

Although it is said that alterity is a philosophical category established by Levinas, it is actually part of the Aristotelian class of categories that describe the *topos* of the human being. To keep in view the largest scope of the human being and the domain of logic, alterity should be approached, as dictated by the Aristotelian perspective, considering its relation with the ONE as well as with identity. There is a triumph of alterity over identity, and especially over the $A=A$ type of identity. Unlike this type of identity, the organic type of identity is not rendered void by alterity, but more likely asserted by the latter. It is a paradox that the body, the organisational structure of the human being, only lives in the measure of its self-destruction. It permanently has to transform into another so that it might be able to retain its sameness.

Alterity closes the chain of categories that describe the inorganic and it also makes the transition to the organic.

There is a “state of identity”, that is the act of remaining the same over change. Identity is born out of the combination between state and movement. Philosophy does not take an interest in *static identity*, that of the A=A type, but in *dynamic identity* which is real and in which change is possible. Through this possibility things emerge from the state of identity, this meaning that they are subjected to the permanent becoming, to alterity, to their transformation into something else than what they had not been at a certain point in the structure of reality. We shall not insist here on the cardinal importance attributed to the category of identity by the science of logic as this is one of the fundamental principles of reasoning (the principle of identity is constantly approached in divalent logic).

Europe has long been educated in the spirit of identity, which coincided with history applied logic, which leads to the formation and development of the European nations. Identity coincided in great measure with individualism, which took as reference points both national and individual egocentrism. Education as pedagogy of identity appears to have been the most thorough science of all because it has always been underpinned by the argument of logic as well as of the attributes given by historic reasoning. The elongated practice of the identity pursuit has finally produced European identity as it is perceived nowadays. Grief and utopia were required so that the real sense of the present view of history would be achieved. It was required to go beyond the understanding of the multiple identities, which “shall be a subject for research for still a long time to come” (1).

Alterity taken in all its aspects, from the meanings of the alterity of the human being and that of cultures to the individual dimensions, has the purpose of removing things from the isolation of oneness and of placing them in a world of communication. This represents, beyond the steps taken by history, an ethical matter of relations, a construction of the “ethical subject” and of an equivalent responsibility. Levinas tells us: “ In the general economy of Being and inner tensions, a preoccupation for another that amounts to sacrifice, to the very possibility of dying for that other; responsibility for another. A

different way of being! This breaking from indifference – be it dominated statistically- is the chance of One- for- Another, which is the ethical matter.”(2) In his works Levinas shows himself constantly preoccupied with the ethical dimensions of co- habitation, which represent the most appropriate meanings for a totality, that of humanity.

Preparing man for alterity is preparing him for community life in which the world is revealed within every man. This preparation has been carried out in two directions:

a. A preparation to greet the other, the stranger, and which develops the ability to care for another. Not grasping self-abandonment and communication leads to the historical conflict between the Ego and the OTHER and in this type of conflict the other’s presence is seen as a dangerous contamination of one’s ego, of a community’s being or of an individual human being. In what concerns one’s care for another, essential changes occur because self-care is accompanied by a care for another which leads to a different way of living marked by the transition from egoism to altruism.

b. A preparation to meet God and verify if “God created man in His own image”.

Both types of preparation are nothing more than a long exploration and war from which the Ego cannot always emerge victorious. Both types of preparation entail a coming forth beyond one’s self towards another one but in which the authenticity of one’s self is preserved, and not a separation from one’s self. The individual and their exteriority is a problem concerning the realm of existence and as a result an issue of fitting and integration into the world. Their exteriority becomes a witness-mirror in which the Ego asserts its most accurate and real traits. The hatching of the Ego into its exteriority is the human being’s experience in the world. Through the experience of exteriority the Ego develops new abilities without which it would not be able to ascertain an identity in the world. Among these new abilities there are the ability to communicate and the ability to give as a measure the other’s conscience, in the meaning Husserl gives this, as a method through which identity can be better expressed and understood. One cannot know what one is unless they experience the encounter and co-habitation with the other. If the latter stands for the

stranger, that is because the world in which we live remains unknown to us. Should this situation cause fear and rejection, or even worse, isolation and exaggerated means of protection of the Ego's identity?

At present, the fact that between the Ego and the World there is a relationship of closeness through which each of us attains a thorough knowledge of the world and the latter in its turn encloses us as individuals and determines us to accept and grasp the purpose of co-habitation. This relationship of closeness, of congeniality, is the most accurate illustration of education as a pedagogy of alterity which we receive inside the institutions, starting with that of our family. This relationship should not be regarded as one of subordination but rather in terms of understanding and reciprocity which develop in a way of reasoning. As a result, we should be able to understand reason's legitimacy in the sense given by the conflict between modernity and post modernity. The alterity that must be taken in by the Ego is, among other things, an educational act.

The legitimacy of rationality. Educationally speaking, post modernity surpasses in many aspects the pure pedagogical act because it gives rise to an intellectual debate upon the legitimacy of rationality. Educational relationships have been subjected to perplexity and disorientation as well as to the labour through which the informational, emotional and cultural connections have been put through, generally those between the valences of education and the beneficiary or the consumer of the educational act. Post modernistic education, although fanciful in its title, transforms both the object and the subject of education into cultural immigrants. As cultural immigrants, the individuals, who are involved in the (still!) educational phenomenon, react in contradiction with the rigid indicators: names, idols, ideas. The post modernist conflicts of education round off the actual never-ended conflicts of modern education.

A legitimacy of rationality today represents the bringing into relief of an issue much debated upon which some consider to be useless while others see it as implicit. The greatest domain in which the issue of rationality has been largely tackled is philosophy; philosophers came with the most daring speculations and the most radical negations. The evolution of the philosophical thinking of the

XXth century makes a spectacular display of dynamism which might disconcert one because the most pronounced manifestation of negation is put on the account of rationality, which is actually the fundamental trait of the human being. Were rationality not to be a defining feature of the human being, then what exactly would be the essence of man? The fervent response to European rationalism might have been produced by the latter's exaggerations through the mystification of reality. Nietzsche's period in European philosophy is highly relevant because it was from that time onwards that the issue of rationality has been meditated upon and regarded in a different manner.

"The dissension of philosophers" became a genuine problem only in the 20th century, because the struggle for the unity of thought emphasised how fragile this unity is. Unity and diversity are paradoxical aspects of the same problem. An essential question that can be formulated is the following: ***what makes the thought a rational enterprise?*** Such a question is, in fact, a paraphrase of the question: ***what makes science a rational enterprise?*** [4].

The legitimacy of rationality represents a series of arguments in favour of it, and its meanings come from the moment when the rationale, as dominant, is interrogated even under the conditions of its own existence. In the educative act, the legitimacy of rationality seems to be more obvious than anywhere else, with the condition that the process of education represents an essential element in the general system of society. The relations between society and education no longer need demonstration, because society, whichever that may be, produces that type of education which is convenient. A rational educative system is a system that acts by the natural laws of energetic growth and diminution [5], and the more rational the society, the more efficient the practical education, as part of it.

The post-modern conflicts of education. The concepts of "modern" and "post-modern" had suffered an extensive theoretical debate [6], which does not mean that the concepts were completely lightened, and that today we might know where the real limit is between the realities that these two concepts are describing. The various works dedicated to modernity and post-modernity deal either with the global phenomenon of those reminded earlier, either with essential aspects like economy, history, sciences, art, culture,

education, etc. Within a more complex plan, as in the framework of philosophy, it is accepted that the definitive outline between modernity and post-modernity is Friedrich Nietzsche's philosophy. He ends the modernity superposed to the late European romanticism and opens the post-modernity, what justifies the debates on the German philosopher's way of thinking, in the entire course of the 20th century. The education cannot avoid the essential changes that can be considered even changes of paradigm, produced in the period that we can catalogue, from a cultural point of view, as "post-modern", but these changes are not necessarily a discontinuance, but a continuation, a continuation in the ***difference*** that is created.

Although it is very difficult to make the distinction between modern education and post-modern education, since there are no definitive discontinuances between them, but rather a continuation, the post-modern conflicts of education have a particular specificity. These possible/real conflicts are:

1. ***The educative model becomes an irrelevant fiction.*** This is a conflict between P and E, as both become "cultural immigrants". The causes are determined by the complexity of informational sources, by the change of educative implication, by the change of meaning even of a culture that determines education.

2. ***The classical axiology is taken out from its origins.*** If modernity always had the ***Kalokagathia*** ideal on the horizon, the axiological function being at the maximum of its importance, post-modernity comes out with de-valuation. The modern system of values, a system idealized anyhow, it is invalidated as being unreal. But after any devaluation, we do know that a re-valuation takes place, and the contemporary society, either being an extension of the modern society, either being post-modern, has its values that are defended with specific instruments.

3. ***"The Lyotard Complex".*** The idea of modernity itself, says Lyotard [7], is correlated with the principle that we must finish with the tradition and live differently than in the conservatory societies. The same author says that the post-modern is part of the modern: "the post-modern would be what the im-presentable evokes in the presentation itself in the modern, which refuses the consolation of the good forms, the consensus of a taste that would allow the common re-

evaluation of the nostalgia of the impossible; which deals with new presentations, not to find pleasure in them, but to emphasise the fact that the im-presentable is there” [8]. For education, the im-presentable evoked by Lyotard can be translated in the change of device: the modern device, ***all equal***, becomes in the post-modernity, ***all equal, all different!*** At the level of equality, we can understand that the post-modern has its place already in the modern, but the post-modern has something in addition: ***the difference***. To apprehend and to accept the difference/differences between the I and the Others is to think of education as of a living speech, then as of a real dialog.

4. “**The Foucault Complex**”. An uncommon interest results for the problem of preoccupying for one’s self from the analysis of the French philosopher, concerning the subject of the theme. Education, in the philosophy of the subject plan, represents a necessity to take care of oneself in direct correlation with the necessity to take care of others. The preoccupation of oneself is not changing into solitude, but it’s traversed by the presence of the Other. Self preoccupation is not an “exigency of solitude”, but an authentic social practice, an intensifier of social relations; “the instruction is imposing as necessary on the error’s content, of deformities, of harmful habituations, of dependencies that have materialized beginning with the first childhood [...]. The practice of one’s self has the objective of liberating the self, making it coincide with a nature that never had the opportunity to manifest on the inside.” [10]. What we call “the Foucault Complex” can be understood as a post-deictic strengthening of education, since not the landmarks of a post-deictic development have the deepest relevance, but seeing what is left behind in order to be able to reformulate.

Education for alteration, understood within the virtues of an open-minded world, in which every single I is fulfilled if the I accepts to be measured in the Other, implies a function of the imaginary.

The function of the imaginary is here a function of watching over the thought not to fall in tautology, because, as Heidegger would say: “The dimension of error is on the measure of a thought’s dimension” [11].

It is necessary that the actual education becomes that of a new kind, liberated by the constraint of teaching and the tyranny of the

professorship [12]. Isn't this too, the desideratum of hermeneutics in which **the understanding** means more than **the explanation**? It can be also the desideratum of the actual education.

The **fields** and the **reflexes** are necessary in order to understand **the new**. The fields and the reflexes will give to the man its new dimension. But what are the fields in which the man is per-forming? If it were to reduce the **human field** to a **logical field** [13], it would not be sufficient to understand the imaginary dimension of the man. The **logical fields** are metamorphosing into **logical reflexes**, meaning into that type of confirmations that are insufficient to express "the memory of the future". We must ask ourselves **what is** and **what is not** the science of education, if that can assure the progress or must assume certain limits.

The contemporary education is based on four essential pillars, as Basarab Nicolescu [14] observed, listed in the *Delors Report*: 1. **to learn to know**; 2. **to learn to make**; 3. **to learn the rules of living together**; 4. **to learn to be**. The four elements could create the idea of a universal education in a world where the narcissistic model seems to have replaced the faustic model. Between the I and the Other an act of reflexivity takes place, bringing together **to educate**, **to be educated** and **to produce**.

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OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES FOR THE HIGHER EDUCATION ARENA IN THE WEB 2.0 ERA

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Abstract

Definitely, Web 2.0 technologies and services represent an important shift for the entire educational medium, with numerous opportunities and challenges for this area. Both teachers and university must changes their roles in order to fit more properly with this new tools and services available for all and more important, affordable and used especially by younger's, potentially students.

During this paper I'll try to present such aspects, which are the students, teachers and university new roles according with this massive opportunities and challenges for the higher education arena.

Keywords: *Web 2.0, higher education, students, teachers, universities.*

1. Introduction

One major task of higher education is to train students for the requirements of their future work by applying and adapting their knowledge to specific workplace-related requirements and settings. In the field of higher education, it has become an important goal to develop “digital literacy” and educate learners as competent users and participants in a knowledge-based society [1], but it can be assumed that there is a new generation of students, the “digital natives,” who are accustomed to digital and Internet technology [1].

[1] characterize next-generation students (called “n-gen,” for Net generation) as digitally literate, highly Internet savvy, connected via networked media, used to immediate responses, preferring

experiential learning, highly social, preferring to work in teams, craving interactivity in image-rich environments, and having a preference for structure rather than ambiguity.

After 2002, two new terms, closely related, “social software” and “Web 2.0”¹ entered the stage to refer to a new generation of Internet applications. One focus of this new generation is the collaboration of people in sharing information in new ways such as through social networking sites, wikis, communication tools, and folksonomies [1].

On the other hand, Web 2.0 is a read/write medium, characterized by user participation. This emphasis on user participation characterizes the definitions of Web 2.0 offered by most commentators and advocates as well. For example, [2] sees the development of Web 2.0 as a shift "from being a medium, in which information was transmitted and consumed, into being a platform, in which content was created, shared, remixed, repurposed, and passed along".

Through Web-based applications and services such as Web logs Wikis, Weblogs, podcasts and discussion forums anyone with a computer connected to the Internet can be part of the Web 2.0 experience. Thus, anyone (without having to know HTML programming codes) can create and upload print, audio, and video to the Internet.

While such technologies have all greatly contributed to the Web 2.0 phenomena, social networking sites such as MySpace.com, Facebook.com and Hi5 for our co-national students, have had a particularly strong influence in the lives of millions of students.

The higher education system should provide answers to this new generation of students who enter the system with different backgrounds and skills. They are highly influenced by social networking experiences and are able to create and publish on the Internet [1].

Educators and teachers therefore have to consider the implications of these developments for the future design of their courses and lectures.

¹ Based on the key principle of the architecture of participation, social software can be seen as part of Web 2.0.

2. Teachers in the Web 2.0 era = Teachers 2.0?

To connect with today's students, you must not only teach them, but encourage them to teach back. One of the most provocative and innovative challenges for educators is they must start teaching student HOW to teach themselves. In other words, we, as teachers must teach the students how to sift through the tons of information generated every minute around the world and harness that content to succeed in this digital (global) economy.

Technology is evolving and changing at an incredible rapid rate. The future is unpredictable and we have no concrete idea what the work environments will be like in 5 years, 10, 15..., and how to prepare our students for them. One thing is certain...digital technology, the internet and globalization have impacted the work and educational environments dramatically.

The educators must teach their students to adapt and literally teach themselves. Teach them to be problem solvers, innovators and creative entrepreneurs. We as educators must all be lifelong learners and not rely on archaic instructional models for learning and teaching. The internet has changed all the rules in every sphere of human interaction and educational systems.

Likewise, we as educators must be teaching our students how to make good decision about harnessing and using all the new communications tools at their disposal. We must break away from outdated educational systems and models and invent new ones that will help students function and excel in the future – a future that is already here.

According to [3], the responsibilities for all teachers in the Web 2.0 era must include:

Collaborate with team, department, and greater teaching community via both synchronous (essential question directed in-person discussion, Google Documents-style collaborative lesson planning, real-time chatting) and asynchronous methods (wikis, non-mass e-mails, Personal Learning Network reading and linking).

Maintain a reflective teaching blog, podcast, and/or wiki which are focused upon finding solutions for classroom problems, creating more student engagement or achievement as shown through authentic assessments and teacher anecdotal evidence rather than state-wide

assessments scores, or generating new ways to connect to students, teachers, or other members of the education community.

Read and interact with a Personal Learning Network made up of a few administratively selected educators and a vast majority of personally selected teachers, authors, and students who challenge you to become a better teacher.

Create your own professional development objectives for the year based upon your passions and your readership of your PLN. The majority of the professional development time throughout the year will be based upon your own objectives.

Create curriculum that can be shared, edited, and reproduced through creative commons licenses.

Use non-graded e-portfolios as the exclusive means of assessment and personal student reflection.

Web 2.0 is turning the internet into a giant global conversation. How do we use it to teach our students and prepare them for this unpredictable future that none of us in education truly has any idea of what will be like and what skills our students will need to compete and succeed.

Depend on the teacher's ability to create a flat classroom, one where students are engaged in the activity of learning, not simply an audience.

Other challenges for every Teacher 2.0 include: how to make the subject matter meaningful to the students, how to consider students at the centre of learning, how to determine students to get the control of their own learning, how to encourage the students to create and to contribute to the global body of information etc.

3. The student's roles and expectations in the Web 2.0 era

At the starting point, the learner needs to be provided with abstract knowledge to lay the theoretical foundations and to understand relevant signposts, road markings, and orientation points. The knowledge of the student is based on knowledge possessed by the teacher. Students have to learn what teachers ask them to learn but the teacher has the responsibility to make the knowledge transfer as easy as possible.

After that, the student actually applies the abstract knowledge and gathers his or her own experiences. This educational process lies on the learning process of the student. Teachers try to help the students overcome wrong assumptions and wrong learning attitudes, and assist in the reflection process of the subject domain.

At a superior level of education, teacher and learner work together to master problems which suppose problem generation and/or invention. Additionally, students should be enabled to invent new things, and produce or generate new knowledge.

The use of the Internet, especially through its social software and Web 2.0 technologies, gains importance because it can contribute to exceed the limits of classical teaching and learning processes.

More than that, the actual generation of students is different than others because they are growing up as a generation of producers. They are the YouTube/Messenger/Facebook (or Hi5 for the Romanian online space) generation.

Whether it is posting videos taken on cell phones to Youtube or photos taken on pocket-sized cameras to Facebook, Hi5 or Flickr, the new generation of students expects to be able to broadcast their messages.

Classical face-to-face learning is seen as rigid and synchronous, and it promotes one-way (teacher-to-student) communication. The new students aren't any more consumers of information or consumers of education. They expect to be able to create and to share digital content.

Beyond the obvious education in technology, using Web 2.0 technologies, the students also have a wonderful opportunity to practice communication skills. More than that, using collaborative tools and services, they must learn how to work with each other to solve problems; they must learn how to explain solutions to other students in an easy to understand way and how to calm panicked colleagues.

4. Higher education into Web 2.0 era

Web 2.0 could facilitate a change of paradigm in learning; from a top-down system focused in teachers and established knowledge to a

networked approach where teachers should change their roles to become coaches and facilitators of the learning process.

Learning by doing and applying methods for collaborative and active learning are essential approaches to attain this paradigm of learning and the related objectives, and the web 2.0 could be an instrumental and strategic tool in their development.

However, the eruption of the new internet in universities does not modify only learning models. Organizational models are also challenged causing some acute crisis in institutions. Web 2.0 has already entered the university walls in a bottom-up process.

Teachers, researchers and students, in most cases without any institutional stimulus, started some years ago to use social software tools. Some of these experiences are successful, but in few cases have allowed any scaling from the individual to the institutional level. Institutional, top-down, adaptations have been considerably slower or absent widening in many cases the “digital divide” between universities and some of their personnel and among teachers using or not web 2.0 in their work.

Universities show in some cases a culture of aversion to innovation and entrepreneurship. Bureaucracy, governance, procedures for decision-making and inertia in large institutions are in many cases the worst environment for inside innovation and entrepreneurship. However, the adoption of technology and working methods associated with web 2.0 requires a high dose of experimentation and creativity.

How do social writing platforms intersect with the world of higher education? They appear to be logically useful tools for a variety of campus needs, from student group learning to faculty department work to staff collaborations.

Pedagogically, one can imagine writing exercises based on these tools, building on the established body of collaborative composition practice. These services offer an alternative platform for peer editing, supporting the now-traditional elements of computer-mediated writing-asynchronous writing, groupwork for distributed members etc.

5. Final remarks

Despites all efforts to shift to the Higher Education 2.0, still there are so many things to take into consideration (especially for the Romanian institutions). In order to assure a satisfactory level of introduction Web 2.0 technologies in higher education, we must have the following issues:

Rigorous standards and preparation routes to the classroom. Today, despite many efforts at reform, teacher preparation is still inadequate for the realities of urban classrooms.

We need meaningful induction programs that will help new teachers learn the ropes and gradually take on more classroom responsibility as they improve their practice.

At the same time, we need to find ways to retain and use the abilities of experienced teachers so they can impart their wisdom to newer colleagues.

We need to create opportunities for teachers to work together to improve practice through imbedded professional development based on the specific needs of teachers and their students.

We need to revive university leadership teams, university site teaching and learning councils where teachers, along with administration and other educators, advise and or decide on resource deployment, professional development needs, staff hirings, university assignments and schedules, and the comprehensive education plan.

And finally, because money matters in transforming the system, we are willing to explore a professional differentiated compensation system, but it must presume a base salary that is competitive enough to attract and retain the best and the brightest to teaching, and to ensure that our experienced teachers stay here as a career.

As a final remark, I invite you to spend enough time to analyze carefully the following image, which might represent a possible transition from the classic education to education 2.0. Should we, as educators, try to assure and implement all of these for the students?

Figure 1: Comparison between classic education and education 2.0

School 1.0	School 2.0	School 1.0	School 2.0
Curriculum dictated by a syllabus.	Students decide and negotiate the learning area.	Examination result acts as an external motivation.	Students derive pleasure from making and learning new things.
Teachers are the keeper of the knowledge.	Teachers are the facilitator of the learning process.	Knowledge in textbook are "king" and cannot be challenged.	Knowledge is negotiated and learnt in a community of practice.
Information is limited from those in the textbook	Information are sourced from everywhere, including but not limited to online resources.	Learning effectiveness conducted by external "examination authority".	Learning effectiveness is reported as portfolio and demonstrations.
How effective is the learning is measured by standardised tests.	Effective learning is linked to satisfactory and joy of knowing new knowledge and mastering new skills.	Fixed time table. If a student missed a lesson, she will miss that forever.	Learning occurs all the time and contents are covered in repeating cycles.
Students sit in rows facing the teacher.	Students sit around tables facing each other.	Scholarship are based on past examination results.	Scholarship is based on the ability to learn in a group and contribution to the group.
Emphasis on individual learning.	Emphasis on collaborative and co-operative learning	Repetitive homework are assigned.	Projects are negotiated.
Students tightly controlled to do right time.	Students free to try new ideas and experiment.	Deadline of homework submission in short and frequent interval.	Continuous presentation of current state of project.
Examination result acts as an external motivation.	Students derive pleasure from making and learning new things.	Students are forced to learn without explaining why they should learn that material.	Students choose the subject they like based on career advice.

Source: <http://elearningrandomwalk.blogspot.com>

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ASPECTS OF THE CONSTRUCTIVE PARADIGM IN EDUCATION

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Abstract

The constructive paradigm in education, considered to be the most open minded to the spirit of the 21th century, became highly promoted at the level of postmodern didactics.

Taking into consideration this idea, we proposed ourselves to define more accurately some essential aspects of the constructivist paradigm, aspects which gain more and more people on their side among teachers.

Keywords: constructivist paradigm, teaching

The constructive paradigm of education, considered to be the most open minded to the spirit of the 21th century, became highly promoted at the level of postmodern didactics.

Taking into account the constructivist part of education we bring into discussion some essential aspects of the investigating directions illustrated by J. Piaget and L. Vîgotski.

The cognitive constructivism founded on Piaget's cognitive theory. Taking into account what this theory says, the pupil establishes his own knowledge appealing to his own experience, which offers him the opportunity to create mental diagrams which alter through assimilation and accommodation.

According to this cognitive constructivism, the reaching of knowledge is the result of the efforts made by the pupil in order to solve the tasks, learning is consequently an individual act. In this

context it is highly regarded the possibility to offer the pupils' a series of opportunities to get to know themselves through their own experience.

L.S.Vigotski, a representative of social constructivism, is the author of a cultural-historical theory of psychism, which sustains the idea according to which the human psychical activity is the result of inner social relations in the form these relations take place among the given culture.

An interpersonal process is made, in the way that each function of the child's mental development appears twice in his development, first as a collective and social activity and then as an individual activity, as an interior way of thinking. This process involves also a teacher.

The distinction made between the two moments in this process, determined Vigotski to make a difference between the actual developing level of the man and the potential level of developing. The space created between the two moments, actually represents the area of the proximal development, space in which actually the learning process takes place.

The role of the teacher according to Vigotski is that of determining the pupils to collaborate, of supporting and encouraging them in solving their problems and of implying them in group activities.

As Emil Păun also says, „learning is not only an individual act, but also a social one”, the classroom being the frame of social learning and „often considered a social sistem, a minatural society”.

According to the actual tendency in education, which stresses the formative part of knowledge and less the informative part, the pupil can no longer be considered a simple receptacle in which the information is introduced, but an active object of the educational action, which connects the new knowledge to the older one, filters it with the help of subjectivity and gives it his own interpretation.

The main idea of constructivism is that the human learning is built. In this way, the person who learns adds new knoledge to the one already existing. When the learning act takes place, the current knowledge taken from the new learning situation confronts with the already built model.

When this process takes place, the learning person takes part actively: applies the current understanding, identifies the important elements from the new learning experience, analyses the new information comparing it with his mental model and modifies his knowledge on the basis of the developed judgements.

The constructive paradigm aims at two directions:

- From the pupil's point of view, this model strengthens the active organisation of the new information inside the mind so that the learning gets the desired sense. When the new learning act takes place, the pupil will reformulate his already existing mental structures only if the new experience and the new given information can be attached to the already existing knowledge. The interferences, the elaborations and the relations between the old knowledge and the new ideas, must be treated in a personal way, so that the last one to become a useful part of the memory.
- From the teacher's point of view, his relation towards the pupil and towards the learning process is changed. Inside the traditional teaching system, named the objective model, the teaching act places the teacher in the middle. He is the so called reproducing teacher, who presents the information, which the pupil must remember.

The constructivist theory produces some changes at the level of the didactical act, at the level of logical existence and at the level of involving the teacher in the didactical activity.

Brooks, G.J. and Brooks, M.G. illustrate a comparative analysis of the role of the teacher at the level of the two models, the traditional or objective and the constructivist in the following way:

When speaking about the objective model, the teacher:

- is the only source that the pupil uses in the learning process;
- transmits the knowledge as a „type” and imposes a single way of acquiring this knowledge by the passive pupil;
- leads the lesson by asking his own established questions, we are speaking about the teacher who presents his own materials;
- limitates the time of thinking of his pupils;

- formulates closed questions and develops the world of a precise world of knowledge, that the pupil must know;
- sustains as prevalent the teacher-pupil talk;
- possesses and imposes absolute control of the classroom;
- uses dates and sources of information already worked out;
- separates the knowledge from the process of discovering;
- imposes the way of speaking of the pupils;

Inside the constructivist model, the teacher:

- represents only a source used by the pupil inside the learning process and not the only one;
- involves the pupils into experiences and challenges in order to assimilate the new information;
- allows the pupil's answers to lead the lesson;
- offers the pupils a time to think after formulating the question;
- encourages the interrogative intellect, by formulating open questions;
- encourages the discussions between pupils;
- accepts and encourages the autonomy and initiative of pupils, being opened to giving the control to the pupils;
- uses dates and elementary sources of information;
- doesn't separate the knowledge from the process of discovering;
- insists that the pupils have a clear way of talking;

Taking into consideration the constructive way of learning, the teacher guides himself when teaching to a class, after some rules which function as a principle. These type of rules were formulated by Yager, R. In 1991:

- to involve the pupil's interest on a subject which has its basis in a general concept;
- to formulate questions with an open character in order to identify former concepts of the pupil regarding the subject and the validity and complexity of them;
- to encourage group debates in order for the students to formulate their hypothesis and to imagine experiments which

can reconcile the existing mental model with the new information;

- to organize the class in such a way that the ideas resulted from the group debates to be discussed and shared;
- to encourage the pupils to suggest possible causes of a phenomena or to prevent its consequences;
- to identify the pupil's opinions about a subject before stating the scientifical ideas;
- to encourage debates between pupils regarding the themes brought into discussion;
- to offer the pupils enough time for reflexion and analysis, to respect and use the ideas of pupils;
- to encourage analysis and collection of proofs by the pupils in order to sustain, reformulate or deny an idea through the light of the new knowledge;
- to involve the pupils in searching new information which can be used in solving some precise problems from their world;
- to extend learning beyond the time given in the class.

The above mentioned aspects, sustained at the level of constructive paradigm, seem to gain more adherents at educational level.

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THE THEORY OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE- EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

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Abstract

The theory of the multiple intelligence formulated by Howard Gardner stirred up many psychologists and pedagogues. The teachers who are aware of this theory, can turn to good account the information they possess when teaching, while they introduce the teaching activity requested by the kind of intelligence and the way of learning that each pupil possesses. This aspect may turn into a condition of reaching success both for teachers and pupils but also into a challenge for the didactical activity.

Keywords: multiple intelligence, teaching

At the end of the 20th century, the American psychologist Howard Gardner introduced the concept of multiple intelligence by developing a theory which arouse interest among psychologists and pedagogues.

Founded on the results of his own research, but not only, H. Gardner concluded:

- intelligence has many ways and forms of acting, which can vary from a person to another as well as from a culture to another;

The main idea of Gardner's conception about intelligence is that there are various types of intelligence and each of it acts irrespective of the other one.

Taking into account this theory, H. Gardner illustrated the existence of seven types of intelligence. These types are:

a. The logical, mathematical intelligence(rational intelligence)

This type of intelligence is based on logic, is the intelligence of order, of logic and of the symbolical representation of universe. The pupils, who most possess this type of intelligence can solve very easily types of exercises that imply numbers, they possess the ability to order the reality by showing its characteristics in a logical way.

The knowledge, presented in a rational, logical, discursive way, are easily understood by the persons who possess this kind of intelligence. It is very important for these pupils, that the presentation of knowledge implies numbers, symbols, graphical representations and mathematical diagrams, tables etc. This way of teaching makes the understanding very easily and very profound.

b. The visual-spatial intelligence

This kind of intelligence consists in the ability of representing and manipulating the space through the mind. The pupils who possess this type of intelligence feel the need to see things, events or to represent them mentally in order to understand them better.

This type of intelligence is generally specific for painters, sculptors, artists, persons who most of the time use the right hemisphere of their brain.

In order for the pupils who have this type of intelligence to assimilate easily the knowledge, it is important for the learning material to be based on visual elements (drawings, graphics, maps, various models etc.)

c. The linguistic intelligence

This type of intelligence implies the ability of the pupil to communicate easily. This type of intelligence is obviously present among writers, public speakers, humorists etc. The persons who have a developed linguistic intelligence show a special phonetical, grammatical, syntactical and semantical availability. This availability contributes to building grammatical correct and adequate constructions. Some injuries of the Broca area from the left side of the brain, lead to some difficulties concerning the building of more complex sentences.

The pupils who possess this type of intelligence need to hear first the information or to state it in order to assimilate easily and properly

the information.

d. The kinestezic intelligence

It is the intelligence of movement and coordinating. This type of intelligence supports the adequate using of one's own body when making various gestures and movements. This involves the perception of oneself in a space, the using of your own body as an instrument for explaining and demonstrating something.

An obvious kinestezic intelligence is founded at ballet dancers and gymnasts etc.

The movements, the way of handling with objects, the way of using the hands and body are all actions which help the pupil, who possesses this type of intelligence to assimilate the information rapidly and efficiently.

e. The musical and rhythmical intelligence

This type of intelligence belongs to the ones who are capable of musical representations of sounds and rhythms.

Some areas which are situated on the right side of the brain, play an important role in perceiving and producing a melody or a rhythm.

The pupils who possess a more developed musical intelligence can learn more easily and efficiently if they transfer an information into verses or if they repeat some contents while listening to a music they love.

f. The intrapersonal intelligence

This type of intelligence emphasizes the ability of pupils to know themselves, the ability to explore introspectively and the ability of analysing their own emotions and feelings. The frontal lobes play an important part in manifesting this kind of intelligence and eventual harms at the level of these lobes may induce various states of mind as irritability, euphoria and indifference.

The pupils who possess this type of intelligence don't cause serious problems, they are more likely introverted, meditative. They are reflective, they prefer to think first and only afterwards to give an answer. Although their working time inside the activities is slow, these children are profound and thorough in the activities they develop.

g. The interpersonal intelligence

It is that kind of intelligence, which we can find among communicative and sociable persons, capable of establishing easily social contacts and always ready to help others. The frontal lobe plays an important part when manifesting this kind of intelligence. The pupils who have a well developed interpersonal intelligence, prefer to learn by communicating with the persons around them.

h. The naturalistic intelligence

The naturalistic intelligence throws a light upon the capacity of recognizing and distinguishing easily the various species of plants, purebreds and also the capacity of grouping various beings to a particular category.

The pupils who possess a well developed naturalistic intelligence, can learn easily botany and zoology, and they are interested in maintaining the ecological balance.

i. The existentialist intelligence

This type of intelligence is emphasized by the special capacity of human beings to ask themselves questions and to look after solutions regarding the human existence.

The pupils who possess a well developed existentialist intelligence, distinguish themselves through the capacity of systematical reflexion, through a superior understanding of reality. They are capable of writing essays with general explaining-interpreting valencies, of detecting only the essential, the general and the universal and of offering solutions to some major existential problems.

Following the types of intelligence illustrated by H. Gardner, but also their implications at the level of teaching, we can present some basal ideas which necessitate to be valued at the level of the didactical activity:

- the pupils have the possibility to learn more easily, rapidly and efficiently if, taking into account their cognitive-intellectual particularities, we organise the teaching process according to their dominant intelligence;
- the dominant intelligence determines the man's own way of thinking and learning;
- the development of the learning process in such a way that

both emispheres of the brain are stimulated, represents the way of valueing the whole intellectual and potential of man.

To know H. Gardner's theory is an opportunity for teachers to value the information they possess when teaching. They must teach taking into consideration the type of intelligence and the way of learning of each pupil. This thing is a condition on the way towards success not only for teachers, but also for pupils and a challenge for the didactical activity.

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POSSIBLE EDUCATIVE IMPLICATIONS OF STUDENTS' REPRESENTATIONS ABOUT TEACHERS

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Abstract

Because their functions, the representations about the teachers, play a fundamental role in the practice of the partnership between teacher and his students, the results of a concrete investigation made between the students relived the idea that the representations about the teachers are negatives. So, in this article we propose a possible counseling program for the improvement of teacher's image, hoping that will conduct to the optimization of relation between educational partners, but also we discuss some others educative implications.

Keywords: *representations about the teachers, educational partners*

Starting from the idea that teacher-student interaction, a positive relationship of the two, but also the teacher's efficiency, student success, depend on the reciprocal representations teacher - student, we appreciate that as a matter of knowledge (investigation) representations / students' images about teachers (the kind of investigation which gives us relevant information to know the real work of the teachers, to determine the relationships between teachers and students), may constitute an important aim around which to focus the efforts of the effective use of strategies and self-assessment/advice in the educative-instructive process. In close connection with the students' representations about teachers, we want to attract attention to

the role of the didactic activity of what we have called an **orientation towards feed-back of teachers** (*an ability quality of the teacher centered on promotion measurement valuable feedback came from his/her students, on educative-instructive activities carried on with them in order to self-adjust and optimize their management approach*), quality which must be automatically –we believe– through abilities examples of the teacher's personality. We present, still, only a few examples of simple instruments, but hopefully effective, which can be used periodically by the counseling teacher, but also by teachers themselves, as a genuine *barometer of interpersonal communication relationships teachers- students*, because in view of the Romanian education reform, changes in the school world depend on the students, especially when talking about their principal school partner, the teacher:

- *Grid/summary evaluation of the teacher* (through the point of view of students' representations about teachers, which may be investigated by the counseling teacher at school level/level, for example, to a number of dimensions, such as personal qualities, competence specialty, teaching abilities, assessing students, relationships with students, management abilities, etc., dimensions that can be described by keeping wording items of the students);

- *Questionnaires addressed to the students* (because the space communication does not allow us to present more such instruments, we will list only their main theme, each teacher can adapt and perform the issue through questions appropriate to his/her interest; because of possible fears /restraints from the students, we recommend, in particular, the use of open questions, as best suited to facilitate the opening of students to respond in case of such evaluation tools of the teacher and ensuring anonymity of responses), on topics such as: "Facts, options, consequences, solutions in the teacher X activity", "Values and attitudes needed by the teacher who wants to be effective / creative / etc.", "10 rules / recommendations for my teacher X", "The teacher X: describe, compare, analyze, argue", completion of incomplete sentences (for example: "*If I get more creativity and energy to the didactic activities of my X teacher, then I ...*" "*If I were my teacher X, then I would give more attention ...*" "*If I were to lists several positive aspects of my teacher X activity, they should be ...*"")

If he were to surprise me, my teacher X would behave ... ", etc.). "Stop! " (the list of actions that teachers would not have to make them more to increase the quality of their teaching act), etc.

- Other tools for measuring the feedback provided by students can be represented by: drawing, composition / essays on the theme "My pedagogue/my school teacher", "Favorite/ideal teacher", "Letter to my school teacher/my teacher X", "What I want from my teachers and why?", role play "Teacher for a day", using case studies and analysis by students of strategies that the teacher might use them in different educational crisis, keeping journals on a certain period of time in which students note their impressions in the confrontation in the classroom with some teachers and who can give useful information to the teacher about developments in the teacher's image among his students, especially when working for the first time with a particular class of students, current observations of the students, composition of photo albums that capture depiction of their relationship with teachers and discuss the meanings they have in the eyes of students, games-quizzes prepared by the students about their teachers and construction of advertising messages to the same teachers, which can be used within educational classes, the use of an appreciation scale for the hierarchy of certain activities common to teacher-students, depending on the interest among students, a note of applicability, etc.

Given the domain of activity in which we work, we present-further on- also a possible program of group counseling for students, but also for the students' parents in equal measure, which would constitute a material support that can assist school counselors in their activity of psycho-pedagogic assistance in school, in order of positive image/students'/parents' representations about teachers, where appropriate, in the hope that all these will be in favor of maximizing the relationship teacher - student – parents, not at all negligible today, in terms of an efficient management at the level of any school units.

COUNSELING PROGRAM CENTERED ON POSITIVE DIDACTIC STAFF IMAGE AMONG SCHOOL PARTNERS (STUDENTS, PARENTS)

PURPOSE: the support of educative partners of the didactic staff (students, students' parents, others educative partners) in positive representation / image that they have about the didactic staff;

LEGITIMACY: respond to the needs of constant optimization of relationship didactic staff-educative partners, to find the most appropriate reference to educative partners, constructive overcoming of certain difficulties/blockings in the interaction didactic staff-educative partners;

AIMED POPULATION: students, students' parents, others educative partners of the didactic staff;

FORM OF COUNSELING: group

OBJECTIVES:

- informing students / parents on the responsibilities, duties, competence of the didactic staff in the instructive-educative process, and the responsibility of students, students' parents regarding their children, for them to become autonomous beings, with a high level of self-respect;
- development of the students' abilities/students' parents to act properly in different crisis situations that occur in the interaction with the didactic staff;
- stimulate the interest of students/students' parents in identifying and appropriate value the didactic staff potential;

COUNSELING METHODS: debate/group discussions, case studies, role playing, brainstorming, exercise-game, working in groups, reading/text analysis, challenges, creative activities (development of mini-projects, posters, etc.);

MEANS/MATERIALS USED: audio and video, tapes on educative issues, questionnaires, psycho-tests, individual **sheets**, evaluation sheets, markers of different colors, large sheets of writing, brochures, photographs from the Educative Sociology domain, video-projector, PC;

SPACE: counseling office/classroom which can provide the possibility of furniture mobility;

PERIOD: 1 school year/10 sessions of group counseling (1 session/month);

FACTORS INVOLVED:

Teachers, class master teachers, police and church representatives from the local community, etc.;

CONTENT/TOPIC OF THE COUNSELING ACTIVITY:

,，“Schoolmaster profession vs. student/parent profession” (see roles/functions, competence of the didactic staff/the student/parents and their importance for the efficient instructive-educative process), ,“Relationship with the teacher-our business card” (see the characterization by the students/parents of the didactic staff and identifying cause relationships between the didactic staff behavior and those of the students/parents), ,“How tolerant are you regarding your teachers?” (see limits of tolerance in relation didactic staff-students-parents), ,“Crisis situations in the interaction teacher-students, teacher-parents. How do you overcome them?” (see action strategy), ,“Negotiation-the conflicts medicine teacher-students, teacher-parents” (see methods and techniques of resolving conflicts), ,“School vs. Family. Are they so different?” (see common parents/teachers/class master meeting), ,“Outside the family...” (see common parents/local community representatives meeting), ,“What we ask our teachers? What we ask our children? Stakes/expectations” (see the need for realistic expectations of the parents regarding their child or their teachers), ,“Learning from our students!” (see teachers-students direct confrontation) ,“10 rules (short guide) to become better teachers” (see the composition of students/parents of a behavior guide considered by them as being ideal/right in the teacher’s relationship with his/her students, due to their positive effects), ,“Self-Esteem-factor of a positive relationship with the others” (see the influence of self-esteem over the relationship between educative partners).

- All the issues tackled will have the starting point for the problematic situations of students, parents following the program.

MONITORIZING: evaluation sheets after each meeting, it will be watched the developments in conflict situations, optimize the real relationship in class teacher-students-parents, there will be individual discussions with each participant in the program, etc.

EVALUATION:

- *initial*: questionnaire applied to students and their parents, according to the results of which will negotiate with them thematic sessions of counseling;
- *final*: questionnaire applied to students/parents in order for them to appreciate the benefits/strengths/weaknesses of the program from each one perspective;
- questionnaire applied to teachers whose students/parents attended the program with the purpose of appreciating the change of their relationship and from the didactic staff perspective;
- the program will be considered successful, if they participate constantly to the counseling meetings all problematic parents enrolled and if the number of problematic students will decrease or their general situation will be visibly improved.

DISSEMINATION/CAPITALIZATION OF THE PROGRAM:

Taking into consideration that the counseled subjects must be given the free choice of this program, we will attempt the dissemination of the counseling program among parents, through: direct meetings with them (in meetings organized by each class), by dividing the flyers presenting the program, posters pasted to the school entrance, so as to attract parents who do not have a positive relationship with teachers, students with the most serious problems and form a group of up to 15-16 subjects.

As for the capitalization of the program, we thought would be nice as students/parents testimony after this program could be shared with other interested students/parents, by publishing them into a booklet (together with relevant pictures from the sessions), booklet that-we believe- will help to disseminate further on this program among the students/parents.

In conclusion, the importance and necessity of knowing the aspirations, needs, fears, hopes and potential conflicts and instances of resistance, the students' attitudes toward teachers (through instruments presented), are no longer needed to be underlined, however help us in shaping the images (students) about teachers, of the relationship that they have with students.

The ultimate purpose of this type of investigation: to meet the needs/demands of beneficiaries (in our case, the students) regarding the quality of education, continuous improvement of its quality.

COMPETENCE ASSESSMENT TOOL – A NEW PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

The research relies on the methodology of development of the national superior education qualification (a project of the national agency –ACPART). According to the EC, this activity has already reached the frontiers of knowledge. The presented approach is even more ambitious, as it anticipates some of the demands of the national qualification background for superior education (in progress). The originality of this paper resides in the fact that it is in search of an instrument of objective evaluation of qualified institutions. The elaboration of the National Register of the Superior Education Qualifications (CNCIS) requires a long-term effort, which is ACPART’s mission. What is required is a methodology of competences assessment at the end of each of the education stages: licence and master. This is the area where the assessment will reach a new level, by looking for an approach, which makes the difference between the classic evaluation, and the pragmatical evaluation of the employer, on the other. This change will draw the universities nearer to the employers, thus providing an answer for a strategic priority. This aspect is important on individual level, but also from the point of view of the organisations that are preparing or looking for specialists. The European opening of this instrument (specific www) will allow us to have a broader view on the competence on a European scale.

Keywords: qualification, competence, assessment

1. Introduction

Starting from the premise that continuous studying and formation has become a necessity in Europe, that the barriers among countries

not only prevent the access to educational and vocational formation, but also restrict the efficient use of knowledge and competences already possessed by individuals, the boards from the field of European educational policies asked for the elaboration and implementation of a European Qualifications Background [1], seen as some sort of meta-frame, the main goal of which is to consolidate the links between the staffs on a national and sectorial level, to facilitate and promote the transparency, the transfer and the acknowledgement of qualifications and competences on an European level. One of the directions of the European Commission's policies is the re-formation of superior education institutions, so that they become more flexible, more coherent and more open-minded to the needs of the society, and thus capable to answer to the challenge of globalisation and to the needs of formation and re-formation of the European workforce. The reforms on this level should prepare universities to assume their role in a Europe of knowledge and to bring a more firm contribution to the attaining of the goals established by the European Commission through the Lisbon Strategy.

2. The Role of Competence Assessment

By taking into account the peculiarities found on an European level, the Commission suggests that the following transformations would represent the way to the success [2]:

- the breaking of the geographical and intersectorial borders that separate the European universities;
- the guarantee of the real autonomy and responsibility of each university;
- the development of partnership among universities, the business community, financial and local communities spokesmen;
- the guarantee of the demanded competences on the work market;
- the reduction of financial deficits and the finding of a way to make more efficient the activities in the fields of education and research;
- the augmentation of the number of programs of inter-disciplinar and trans-disciplinar studies;

- the reward of the highest level of excellence;
- the increase of transparency and attractively of the European Superior Education field;

The development of the Frame for Qualification in the Field of Superior Education (CNCIS) provides answers for a European need of access and progress in a university career, but regarding also the mobility of students and graduates. At the same time, it expresses a new perspective, more concentrated on the students, in agreement with the present international context. As a conclusion, in order to become a reliable mechanism of internal and external regulation in the field of superior education, this complex system, the CNCIS, should be intelligible for all the interested groups. To the external arguments, stated on an European level, one can also add those which can be identified on a national level, like: the absence of a coherent structure of organising and classifying the qualifications, a system of university formation that is rather narrow-minded as reported to the financial and social environment, as well as a weak balance between the demand and offer of education and formation.

All the stated arguments show the necessity of developing of the CNCIS and of assuming of responsibilities by the institutions involved in making decisions in the field of Educational Policy, these institutions being directly interested by the principles and mechanisms of development and implementation of CNCIS, and also by the effects that the CNCIS generates on a national and European level. A common point of view on the initial approach and further development of the CNCIS is essential. One of the expected results of the process of realisation of the CNCIS is the use of qualifications, expressed in terms of results of studying. Two fundamental elements for the attaining of this objective are the active participation of all the relevant and interested categories, as well as their desire to take active part in the subsequent process of the curricular re-formation. The qualifications describtion is realised by the competences, because these are the main criteria for the employer. This is the perspective that assessment must be reconsidered.

3. The Main Actor: ACPART

As a national authority in the field, The National Agency for the Qualifications in the Field of Superior Education and Partnership with the Financial and Social Environment (ACPART) organises the frame of qualifications in partnership with the educational institutions and with the financial and social partners [3], by:

- the elaboration, implementation, updating and monitoring of the CNCIS, which will permit a broader acknowledgement of the results of the study, expressed in terms of knowledge, abilities and competences;
- the guarantee of the transparency of the CNCIS on a national and international level;

We can go even further, as we anticipate certain needs that will only arise after the creation of the National Board for Qualifications in the field of Superior Knowledge. This is the bench-mark that defines this exploratory research, the goal of which is to solve complex problems that can only be looked at from an inter-disciplinary point of view (the field of engineering and the educational sciences). The originality resides in the fact that we are in **search of an instrument of objective assessment**. This demand may seem rather far from realisation, mostly because the establishing of the National Register of Qualifications in the field of Superior Education requires a long-term and sustained effort. But the procedure of university qualification validation (ACPART, annex 5, sheet 7: The Qualification Referential) already mentions that, besides the qualification curriculum and the inter-disciplinary sheet, the methodology of evaluation of competences and knowledge are also imperative to be specified at the end of the studies.

4. The Competence Assessment

This is the area where we intend to revolutionize the assessment, by looking for an approach which makes the difference between the classic evaluation, influenced by all *the tolerated deviances* [4], on one hand, and the pragmatical assessment of the employer, on the other. This new vision, which comes in contradiction to the traditional view that “teachers know how to evaluate the best”, will draw the universities nearer to the business area and to the employers, a priority

that can be this way fulfilled. The regulation of such an evaluation instrument is extremely difficult to realise, mostly because of the negative reactions of both teachers and students. One of the assessment instruments of **applied units of competence** will allow a more thorough knowledge of the truth regarding the results of learning [5]. This aspect is important on an individual level (*How competent have I become?*), but also from the point of view of the organisations whom are either preparing, or looking for specialists. As for the European opening of this instrument, it will allow us to have a broader view on the competence phenomenon on a European scale. What can be more motivating for a graduate than to be able to compare him with specialists all over the world?

If the role of the traditional subjective evaluation decreases, man will become a competitor willing to self-surpass himself. This is how this paper intends to bring a qualitative chance, the student being thus able to place himself on a multi-annual, European even, scale of competences he has gained. This way, the educator's value will increase too, because he will be seen as the main generator of plusvalue for society. The traditional teacher-student relationship will become a real co-operation for every student to achieve competences in accord with his own professional development. As soon as the objective evaluation instrument will be regulated at a quota imposed by the employer, the relationship between the universities and the business climate will change considerably. The employers will give up the stereotypical phrase: "*Give me graduates so that I prepare them for the job I need*". The universities will be able to enter periodical evaluation mechanisms of continuous learning, being thus able to certificate the progresses of the individuals engaged in formal or informal learning processes.

The action plans that have as main goal the creation and application of such an evaluation instrument depart form the applied units of competence, on different types of jobs. A process of reformation of the curriculum can already be noticed nowadays. The goal of this research is to create for each applied unit of competence a set of procedures to test the attained level. Of course, this means a different assessment, more detailed, of the knowledge obtained so far [6]. What is more important is that this instrument needs time to

become credible, because it is necessary not only to create and validate the evaluation instrument (which will function on the basis of problems and situations simulation in a specific evaluation software), but also to organise a system of description of the competences not from the teachers' point of view, but from the point of view of the business specialists, who prove their competences on a daily basis. This is the most difficult approach, but at the same time it is the only one able to make this assessment instrument credible. By testing specialists already occupying different functions, the actual degree of the acquired competences will become clear.

5. The Evaluation of a Fuzzy Process

Both educators and students will be able to evaluate their performance in a detailed way and to give answers to questions like: "*Which is the degree of qualification of a specialist who wants to work in a certain field of activity, after graduating a university stage?*"

The research has a pioneer aspect, because we want to measure something fuzzy. Competence is something which belongs to the experienced specialists? No, it must be fixed this believes. Now, the professors but also the students will be able to measure the level of the competence after licence or master study, for a specific occupation and role.

The pioneer's work consists in the intervention in the purpose to improve the quality of the educational process in engineering. We have good information about different evaluation procedure at universities. We well know some procedures that impose a normal distribution (Gauss) for the results. But even there, the results are not good, because the financing system (based on number of students) impose the ignorance like a standard. It is sufficiently to be not the last, and the graduation is guaranteed. We have a superficial evaluation system, time consuming, and with no resolution at all.

In this point the proposed work will make the differences. The assessment will function based on PC network, and with a special software. Based on this laboratory, each student will solve specialised problems to reveal the level of the competence (not only knowledge!)

It is important to emphasise this: it is a difference to evaluate

knowledge and it is more difficult to describe and to evaluate competence!

After the hardware support, a huge database is necessary to be realised. This database will contain problems, learning objectives, algorithms and all that is necessary to generate in random way and off course with no human intervention, the specific tests.

6. The Methodology

The assessment has to provide firstly an obligatory answer: *What measure unit shall we use?* The elitist approach of teachers would be depressive for every student, because it reflects the educators' bent towards perfection. In employers' world, the perspective is different and more pragmatic. They need a sociological research about the specific competences required in engineering.

After the elaboration of specific methods of testing, evidently based on computer technique (simulation, modelling, problems analysis, evaluation tests etc.), will follow the interpretation of the results that will be correlated with the perception of the business environment towards the meanings of competences. The key element will be time, the surveillance of the graduates after their free evolution in the profession.

It is through repeated testing that statistical and personal evolution will be revealed. The efficiency of reduced preparation cycles will be revealed through demonstration, while the personal development of certain individuals will be demonstrated as a measure of the competences acquired throughout one's life.

7. Conclusion

The preparing of the National Registry of the Qualifications in Superior Education is thus in work, necessitating a concentrated and long-time effort. Or, in the frame of the validation procedures of one university qualification (ACPART, annexe 5), is signalling (index 7: Qualification referential), that beside to qualification curricula and disciplines slips, must be specified the assessment methods of the competences at the finalization of the studies. This foresight guarantees that some of principles discussed in this paper will be quickly implemented in many universities, as long as the proposed

instrument will be operational proved.

Some resistance to the change is possible. The depth which assesment takes gives the change. The final assessment, after one studies cycle, is changed from one simple ceremony without meaning (is not the place to demonstrate this affirmations, but the author assumes it) ***to a real measure process***. The measure means knowledge, and the knowledge is only the decrease of the incertitude degree. Unfortunately, the performances observed by educators are so weak in the last years, which the reaction of the educators may be one of to reject of this real evaluation necessity. But, in a perspective of five years, the things will change because the interaction of the educated – educator has the chance to orientate toward the formation of the real competences, and not autosuggested. In present, the education is reported to a relative level (which is in continuous decrease), when we propose a referential objective for what should mean the competence.

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THE QUALITATIVE EVOLUTION NECESSITY FOR THE CURRICULA PROJECTING WITHIN EDUCATION SYSTEM

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Abstract

The superior school system domain represents a complexe system by being an indisponable component to the functionement and developement of the contemporan society. The changement an the superiour school systems paradigma is the fundamental facture in the accomplishment of the specialised superiour school systems reform in the preparation of the student with a high proffesional competence, mobility, a selfinstruct and a continue selfperfectionise capacities, creator and generator of new material and spiritual values.

Keywords: curriculum paradigm changing, qualitative evolution

Modern orientations in the university education philosophy induces the university education to be reformed and also the curriculum to be defined as “the complex and progressive ensemble of rules for a pedagogic education or forming actions display, carried out at different levels of efficiency”[1].

For understanding the curriculum paradigm changing necessity in higher education, its beacons generated by the rapid changes in the Romanian society, especially in the European education after the Bologna process must be identified:

a) Qualitative changing in the society by focusing on knowledge and communication in all the aspects of social and private life.

b) Extensive use of new technologies of information and communication in all the aspects of social and private life.

- c) Reconsidering the education and training of the teaching stuff in the information society
- d) General conclusion of education information
- e) Information and communication technologies are implemented at the curriculum level, with both instruction and educational evaluation
- f) Reconsidering the specialized educational offer according to the market demand for a proper professional insertion.

The curricular concept traces a fundamental direction in the projection and development of education. It “brings down upon the structural relations that ensure the existence of education events” generally and of the didactic ones particularly . The etymology of the word (in Latin it means “little choice”) suggests the intensity of the meanings that after all concentrates the education/ scholar plan as integral and functional, concretely the education, syllabus, manual, methodic guides plan that leads to objectives fulfillment, respective to the human personality forming in generally and of the student particularly, according to the educational goals [2].

Traditionally, seen as pedagogy, the curriculum concept represents in a successive or simultaneous manner some school/university documents that plan the contents of the education/instruction, a social efficiency tool of education/instruction activity, an official learning program organized for the institution (school, university), compulsory for both “the subject” and “the object” of the education [3].

The modern significance of the curriculum concept, set in the XX-th century by John Dewey, vises not only the content of the education/instruction programs but also the learning experiences of students. Forming and perfection of teachers thus becomes determinative in the school/university curriculum that “represents the organized whole of the learning assimilated truth”.

The curriculum concept evolution in the XX-th century’s pedagogy shows the extension of “learning experiences” from the direct series ones, organized as school/university, to the indirect ones series, engaged by the expansion of the different ways of unofficial education that complete and perfect the human personality development-forming resources.

The basic principles of the curriculum, elaborated in the context of affirmation of “pedagogy trend formation through objectives” value as “comprehensive rules” applied in every educational project:

- a) The principle of selection and definition of education/teaching activity objectives
- b) The principle of selection and constitution of education / teaching experiences according to previously set objectives.
- c) The principle of organization of methodological education / teaching experiences for obtaining a maximum forming effect.
- d) The principle of results evaluation in reference to the aimed objectives for continuous education/teaching activity perfection [4].

On the cultural model of the information society can be detached four significant trends:

- a) the tendency of extending the concept of the curriculum "is extended from defining the objectives of education, including not only the content but also the methods and procedures for assessment and life experiences necessary for training and development of the student
- b) the tendency to concentrate the concept of curriculum to an overall content and learning situations after having an order of progression due to the educational objectives;
- c) the tendency of opening the concept of curriculum from a set of actions planned in an order determined (the definition of educational objectives, establishing content, methods and materials for teaching-learning-assessment) to developing the necessary dispositions for adequate training of teachers.
- d) the tendency to approach the management concept of curriculum aimed at the whole infrastructure, pedagogic interrelationships, situations committed to the education system through a global or specific project that enables predetermined goals achievement, different to the orientations and values of the social environment.

Curriculum design involves turning the following fundamental concepts of reference:

- a) the purpose of teaching, which define guidelines applicable to the level of education / training (pedagogical ideal, educational purposes) and level of education (general educational objectives / specific / concrete / operational);

b) the content of education, which represents all skills / strategies / knowledge / attitudes behavioral, established in accordance with the objectives of teaching at the curricula / school / university / textbooks / university (other materials for learning) - projects teaching / education;

c) the methodology of teaching, which is all strategies of teaching-learning-assessment of the content of training / education, that employ particular teaching objectives established at the system level;

d) evaluation of the process of education, which represents all the actions of measurement-assessing the results of teaching / education - under the pedagogical objectives - to set final decisions.

In the context of educational reform, major research themes can be targeted towards models that employ both pedagogical and social:

- Reconstruction (Rethinking) purpose of education;
- Reconstruction (Rethinking) education system;
- Reconstruction (Rethinking) curriculum.

Curriculum reconstruction is the most important theme in the context of any reform but is subject to the quality of conceptual models developed at the purpose and the educational system.

The new requirements developed at European level require changing the curriculum paradigm by shifting from the national curriculum to student-centered skills as a requirement of reform in higher education, identifying particulars function and content of the two types of curriculum. In summary they can be presented as follows:

National Curriculum	Curriculum centered on skills
<ul style="list-style-type: none">● cause separation of classical fields of knowledge and involves conceptual reorganization for the academic disciplines;● learning is concentrated on knowledge and applications to their typical situations;● terms of reference of this type of curriculum are: "to know, understand," run".	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● determine the capabilities of various types and degrees of complexity and creates particularly cognitive and social skills;● learning involves thinking and transfer knowledge to use in different situations;● invokes transdisciplinary organizing of the curriculum;● terms of reference of this type of curriculum are: "to think critically, to decide", "create" and resolve.

Curriculum centers on showing that "a competence of a certain complexity puts into operation more than one scheme of perception, thinking, evaluation and action. Such a curriculum design assumes compliance with some pedagogic axioms that interfere and relates all the time.

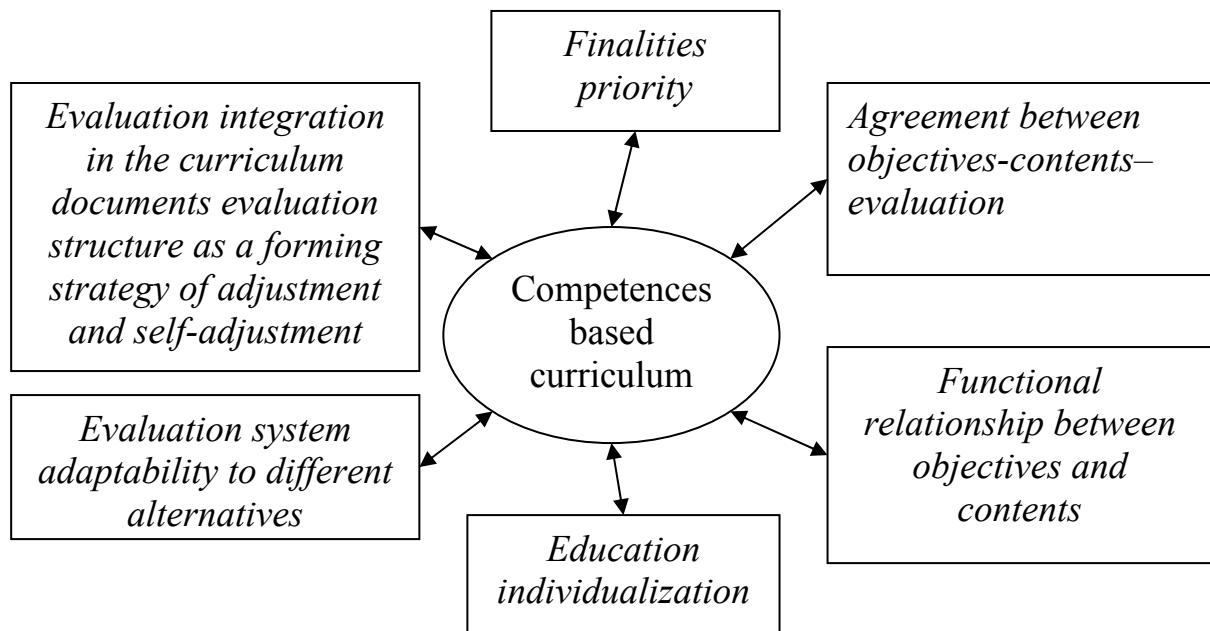


Figure 1: The relationship-centered curriculum skills - teaching axiom [5]

<p>Knowledge of general competencies and specific cognitive skills in higher education, at the three cycles, as promoted by the new national policy documents prepared by MECT, is a sine qua non for setting specific education. They may develop synthetic, as follows:</p> <p>General competencies</p>	<p>Specific cognitive competencies</p>
<p>License studies cycles</p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● collection, analysis and interpretation of data and information in terms of quantity and quality from various alternative sources, from the real professional context and from the available literature in the field; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● application of cognitive and professional concepts, theories, methods for fundamental investigation;

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● use of different ways of writing and oral communication, including a foreign language; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● capacities to synthesize and interpret a set of information, solving the basic problems and evaluate the possible conclusions;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● superior skills in using information technology and communication; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● independent analysis of complex issues and the ability to communicate the results of self evaluation;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● responsibility to develop a personal self perfection program; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● spirit of initiative in analyzing and solving specific problems.
Master studies cycle	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● application of creative techniques of research and solving problems; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● critical evaluation of the results of new research
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● preparation of studies and reports published or professional applicable professional; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● formulation of interpretative alternatives and relevance demonstration;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ability to lead working groups and to communicate in the context of increasingly diverse contexts; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● creative application of the research models;
PhD studies cycle	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● development of research techniques and their application in different and specific contexts; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● identifying new problems and addressing them through research;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● theoretical construction and professional implementation; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● creative and combined imagination;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● discursive constructions publications for academic-type prestige in the area and the type of common knowledge for communication to the public; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● critical and combination analysis.

Affirmation in the last decades of the curriculum concept, marks the institutionalization process of its specific functions that employ a full capitalization of teaching goals and objectives adopted at the level of political education, internal resources and external content and methodology of the training / education, existing at formal-informal-non formal level and formative assessment technologies of the results involved in the decision-making direction of self adjustment through continuous improvement of the once more projection actions and curricular development.

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PERMANENT EDUCATION IN THE KNOWLEDGE BASED ORGANIZATION

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Abstract

Permanent education is thought of as the driving force of modern educational systems. Permanent education tends to become a paradigm for contemporary education. It consists of a horizontal and vertical expansion of elements involved in the duration and the proliferation of learning situations.

Permanent education is an effective form of learning pragmatization, of its becoming more lifelike. It is a form of knowledge application, of the ability of taking decisions by oneself that has a great role in an individual adjustment to the ever changing social realities. It is of paramount importance for people to know to re-structure their knowledge, to give up some of it, to adapt to an ever demanding environment. Permanent education forms new behaviors such as the sense of responsibility, the respect for the other's identity, teamwork skills, and the auto-evaluation of one's own abilities.

Keywords: permanent education

Permanent education is a fundamental pedagogical concept that comprises all the elements, aspects or forms of the educational act that are accomplished during a person's life.

Permanent education appears both as a necessity of keeping up with the pace of social changes and as a way to accomplish and nurture one's personality. Permanent education becomes thus, 'a necessity for humans and a possibility for all the ages and for all one's life'.¹

¹ Salade D., *Education and personality*, 1995, pag. 143.

The concept of permanent education is not new; it has its roots since ancient times, starting with the greek and roman concepts and going on with the Arabs whose Coran mentions it as a religious duty.

The permanent education holds that each individual learns all of his or her life. 'Tuta vita schola est' (All life is a school), the great pedagogue, inventor of Didactics and of the learning system based on classes and lessons Jan Amos Comenius (1592-1670) used to say. Nevertheless, according to our research, permanent education emerges as one „of the 'paramount accomplishments of the last decennia".²

Continuous education objectives cannot be segregated from those of education in general, and from those of school education in mainly.

Continuous education is achieved in two directions:

1. temporal or vertical axis;
2. spatial or horizontal axis.

The temporal dimension of education refers to learning seen as a life-long process. The child starts learning ever since its birth, from his parents, grandparents from his environment. He then goes to kindergarten, to school. The young person may attend university; follow a master's degree and then the Ph.D or various specialty courses. The young individual, then the adult, gets in touch with cultural or scientific organizations, with the media so his professional, personal and social education is influenced by these elements other than school. But the influences on a person's life do not limit themselves only to what has been mentioned so far. The child, since an early age, then the young person, the adult, the aged person learns from nature, from the people he or she gets into contact with, even casually. He or she also learns spontaneously from neighbors, from his or her environment, from society. One may say that everyone learns from everyone, parents may learn from their children and the teachers from their students.

The spatial dimension of education means the extension of education in all the aspects of socio-human existence .this perspective has lead to the exclusion of the idea that the education is made only in school. The present social evolution has emphasized on the existence of other various sources of education, of an extra and non-school type,

² Păun E., *Permanent education, theoretical approach*, Pedagogy Magazine, n.3/1993.

shaping other two types of educational spaces -the non-formal education (made by various social institutions with educational relevance, like cultural or scientific organizations, the media, the companies etc)and the informal education (that covers the entire range of casual contacts, spontaneous and transitory influences that are made on the background of all kinds of social contacts , in which the individual is involved in various moments of his extra-institutional existence).

The permanent education appears thus as a complex phenomenon and it can be:³

- formal, nonformal and informal;
- made in school, outside school and post-school;
- institutionalized and uninstitutionalized;
- direct and indirect;
- explicit and implicit;
- positive and negative (by teaching what should not be followed);
- prophylactic and therapeutic (or projective and corrective).

The permanent education is seen as an organizing principle of modern educational systems. it tends to become a paradigm for the configuration of contemporary education, implying a vertical and horizontal development concerning the duration and the proliferation of learning situations (fig. 1).

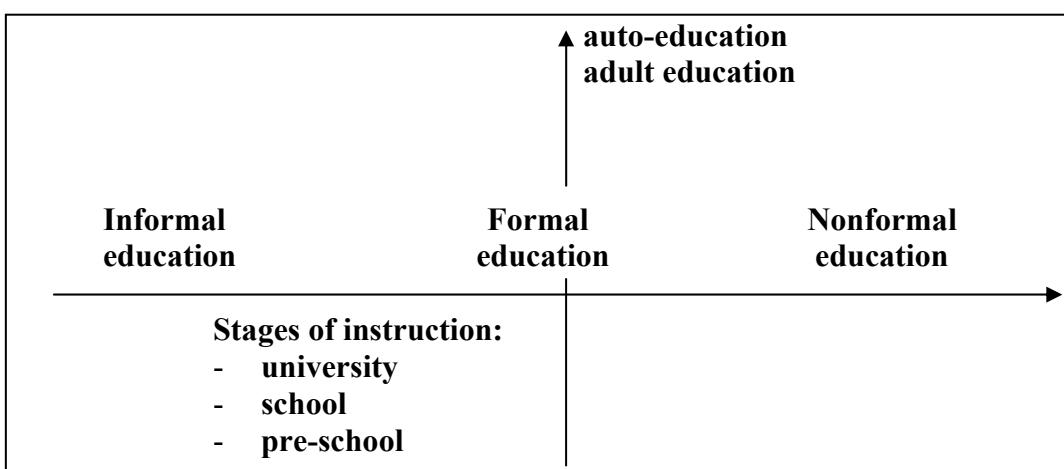


Figure 1: The paradigm of continuous education

³ Popescu T., *The permanence of permanent education*, Pedagogy Magazine n.3/1993.

The total of learning experiences offered by our society during a person's life consists of:

1. **Initial education** (basic, pre-school and primary school learning) includes the educational offer the majority of states grant for each individual without discrimination; it takes place before the adulthood.

2. **Adult education** consists of the totality of educational processes that compliment or replace the initial education. This extension of educational offer is driven by the necessity to compensate for an insufficient initial education, for improving one's knowledge or for the continuous professional training. Temporally, adult education consists of progressive professional training, recurrent education, compensatory or second chance education, alphabetization and leisure education.

3. **Diffuse learning** refers to the totality of social and cultural environments with imbedded educational purposes (such as communities, the media, the army, the church, the family life) with no specific educational programs.

The achievement of a permanent education means the passage from hetero-education (education through the others) to auto-education (education through one self).

The content of auto-education Publishing House triggers the relationship between formation/development and auto-formation/auto-development relationships that quantitatively mediated by permanent education.

Thus "to educate from the permanent education perspective means triggering an authentic auto-educational process".⁴

"Today ideas such as 'there is no education without auto-education' or that the education made through the others cannot be conceived anymore outside the one made through oneself, that the very purpose of education is preparing the human being for continuing one's education all life long, have started to be preached more and more".⁵

Auto-education grants the meeting of the main objective of the

⁴ Toma S., *Auto-education. Meaning and future*, 1983.

⁵ Barna A., *Auto- education in our hands*, 1989, p. 26.

pedagogical act of the modern and post modern education: “to make the subject matter of one’s own education out of the educational object, to make the self – educating person out of the person that receives education, to form the human being that educates him or herself”⁶.

In close connection with permanent education the adult pedagogy has emerged. The contemporary psychological research rejects the idea that adulthood would lead to the stagnation of the educational and learning abilities. On the contrary, the research proves that the emerging idea that ‘permanent education leads to permanent development up to old age’ is true. This proves that the paramount role in adult education is played by the learning abilities that have been previously developed, by the type and the motivation of learning, not by age as such. Only after 70-75 years does age become decisive. But here too, there are variations from one individual to the other.

The principle of permanent education inspires today the majority of educational reforms in the world. Nevertheless there is no global educational system that would be based solely on this perspective; there are only trials and experiments. Thus one might say that the theoretical frame exceeds the practical reality. The difficulties that emerge practical usage of the idea of permanent education come especially from the depth and radicalism of the transformations it involves. Permanent education is a real educational project, that has a prospective value and that involves a system of values. It is ultimately a societal project.

Permanent education is an effective form of learning pragmatization, of its becoming more lifelike. It is a form of knowledge application, of the ability of taking decisions by oneself that has a great role in an individual adjustment to the ever changing social realities. It is of paramount importance for people to know to re-structure their knowledge, to give up some of it, to adapt to an ever demanding environment. Permanent education forms new behaviors such as the sense of responsibility, the respect for the other’s identity, teamwork skills, and the auto-evaluation of one’s own abilities.

The foundation of permanent education is, still, laid in school

⁶ Faure E., *Learning to be*, 1974.

where the teachers have to get more and more involved into the activity of forming the young, helping them develop their critical thinking, encouraging them to put their ideas into practice, teaching them how to manage by themselves. The teachers need to lead the young towards new forms of knowledge starting from the ones that already exist, to help them approach the reality in a scientific manner looking for solutions, truths and issues together. Generally, the teachers themselves need to be aware of the students' need of permanent education and they also have to be prepared for it. They have to be a model of auto-education, becoming co-learners of the pupils they educate to whom they must reveal the love for learning, discovery and research.

All the elements of didactic processes need to be re-thought and put together so as to awaken the students' desire and availability for learning, to have them accept that they need to learn all their life. Thus, school education is only an initiation, a first time, a help for auto-help.

The effectiveness of permanent education is different from the one of school education as it relates the individual to the big humanistic values: spiritual nurturing, physical and moral health, peace, freedom, equity and democracy.

In research literature, the objectives of permanent education are divided into four groups:

1. *group I*: the acquisition of the basic social skills (reading, calculus, basic elements of health maintenance)

2. *group II*: the development of the ability to adjust to a society based on fundamental values such as : peace, democracy, liberty, happiness, humanism, solidarity and effectiveness

3. *group III*: the nurture of certain personality features that would grant a 'new quality of life' such as: psychical stability, emotional vigor, innate driving force, responsible option, social engagement, ability to self-improve and self-exceed, the acquisition and improvement of knowledge

4. *group IV*: instrumental objectives 'learning to learn' inter-learning, self-driven learning.

For our century, permanent learning has become a fundamental requirement of the society and it has been triggered by: the exponential

growth of information and its accelerated rhythm of depreciation, by the mobility of professions, by the amazing progress in science and technology, IT, by the dynamism of social and economic life, by the democratization of learning, by the ever raising level of aspiration towards culture and education and last but not least by the urge to use one's leisure time in the most pleasant way possible.

Learning to learn and wishing to improve continuously are requirements of permanent education, by which the contemporary people learn to be themselves, responsive to change, anticipative and adjustable.

The reform of the present system of learning in Romania will need to take into account the principles of permanent education that emphasize on the importance of open-mindedness, flexibility, adjustability and receptivity. Thus, the educational objectives will need to be re-thought, the content and the teaching-learning-evaluation methods will need to change according to these new perspectives. To do that, emphasis should be laid on interactive methods, on effective learning techniques, on integrated skills, on the increase of the learning effort of students and on the formation of self assessment skills, in order to prepare students for an ever changing world.

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THE ROLE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PROMOTING SECURITY CULTURE

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Motto
“Chance favours the prepared mind”
(Louis Pasteur)

Abstract

In Romania, prior to the terrorist attacks of September 11, security culture was rather a general and abstract concept. Or worse, it directly made one think of the bleak communist era. And except for the famous ‘Romanian Revolution’s terrorists’, civil violence and terrorism were for sure confined to other countries.

The world after the terrible events of September 11 has embroiled Romania in the international war against terror. We have had to review and reassess our attitude to security so that ‘security culture’ may represent one of the priorities on the national agenda. One learned lesson: these initiatives need prior research concerning the perception and the representation (threat, risk, human rights’ restraint, civil society role) as well as the psychological and emotional effects of counter terrorist strategies. To that effect, social sciences can contribute to assessing the level of risk we face and then identifying and implementing the appropriate strategies to mitigate that risk.

In this paper, we will tackle the Romanian initiatives mainly aimed at a ‘security culture’ that should neither be misinterpreted nor have negative consequences. The terms ‘security’, ‘culture’ and ‘security culture’ will be explained and discussed. Besides, we will outline the particular ways and levels that social sciences may contribute, all intended to propagate a security culture.

Keywords: culture, security, social sciences, terrorism

1. Introduction

For Romania, the moment marked by the collapse of the communist regime brought decisive changes, with long term implications in the social, political, economical and military plan. It brought opening, change of ideas and the natural integration in the international flow of information, services, capital and goods. The new status of EU member country is doubled up, on the one hand, by a series of opportunities, such as an intensification of the circulation of persons and goods, and on the other hand by a series of challenges: diversification of risks and, implicitly, the multiplication of the efforts of making frontiers secure. The support given through regional and international cooperation required, on behalf of Romania, adequate answers, in compliance with the international exigencies.

In the field of security measures, the efficiency of answers was indirectly dependent on an inertial representation, in which the ‘Security’²⁵ continued to exist (as a representation), overlapping with the democratic institutions formed after the communist regimes have collapsed. From the equation ‘secret police force’ versus ‘democracy’ it resulted the necessity of developing in Romania initiatives which should consolidate, through security education, a security culture.

2. Security Culture: Definition

Security culture has become a key point in many advanced democracy countries’ governmental programs. It has expanded as an international concept. Establishing a security culture means to change the current culture to a more security conscious one. This may involve steering the behaviour and attitudes of people towards security awareness. The principle that lies at the bedrock of security culture emphasizes that the indirect beneficiary of security is the citizen as part and representative of the civil society. Therefore, citizens should know and understand their fundamental rights and liberties and this should help consolidating pro-social behaviours, consistent with the democratic values. Most important it should assure such social actions

²⁵ “The Securitate” ([Romanian](#) for *Security*; official full name *Departamentul Securității Statului*, State Security Department), was the [secret police](#) force of [Communist Romania](#).

and behaviours in accordance with democracy and the democratic state principles.

Security culture has three major components. The first concerns the policy that the State wishes to put into practice, in particular given the national and international contexts. The second is the organisation concerned, particularly to apply the policy fixed by the State. The third component is the attitude adopted by various individuals at all levels to implement this policy within the structure in which it operates and to incorporate it into their work. Starting from these security culture dimensions, the present survey will refer to a third dimension, the individual involvement one. It is up to individuals at all levels to take the necessary elements on which to build a true security culture and make the most of them. Nevertheless, distinction must be made between the expected reaction of individuals working in security institutions and those who are not directly involved (we will refer to this latter). 'For safety culture, all individuals are requested mainly to demonstrate a prudent, questioning attitude and to seek to share information with others in an overriding concern for transparency and dialogue. Security culture requires individuals to show when needed a speedy reaction to confirmed or assumed threats and that they only communicate information to other authorised people' [1]. Our perspective stemmed from this premise: the citizen is at the same time a beneficiary (as we mentioned above) and a provider of state security. Security, defined as the integrity of the national territory and its institutions, cannot be imagined without the citizens' part.

Another concept connected to 'Security culture' is that of 'intelligence volunteers' [2]. In a democracy, Politi states, encouraging citizens to be cautious and to report suspicious behaviour can be a public good as long as the aim of such initiatives is protecting people and not political gains or social control.

3. Social Sciences and Security Culture

Practically, applying the concept of 'security culture' proves to be problematic. One first barrier to citizens' acting as 'intelligence volunteers' comes from the idea of delation (secret denunciation and spying). Because no matter the country, collaborating with state

authorities, moreover in the field of passing information, has always made one think of betraying. And this is not the only obstacle. Additional factors may result from the individual level of people's value systems. In other words, people frequently do not value and define 'national security' as it is generally understood by political leaders or intelligence specialists.

Social studies have already been successfully applied in this respect. For example, the research evidence from several psychological studies that tested the above hypothesis and concluded that the typical citizen does not assign a high priority to national security within his or her value hierarchy. The first step was Milton Rokeach's Rokeach Values Survey (RVS), a psychological instrument that measures the relative importance people assign to specific values [3]. Rokeach's early work using the RVS showed that Canadians, Americans and Australians tended to rank the value of national security very low [4]. This result is highly counterintuitive and it contradicts the common sense notion that people would value national security²⁶. It also contradicts Abraham Maslow's well-known theory of Hierarchy of Needs [5].

Subsequent and different studies obtained similar results. In 1991, the survey conducted by Stuart Surlin and Barry Berlin found that both the Canadians and the Americans placed national security on the 18th out of eighteen values on the RVS [6]. In 2001, the same findings on American and Japanese pilots [7], on Canadians [8] and contract employees at the National Aeronautics and Space Administration [9]. A more recent survey has offered some explanations in this concern as well. Jane Piirto's 2002 survey using RVS to examine the values of gifted adolescents before and after 9/11²⁷ showed that 'national security' is seen as something they had no power over. Although the ranking of national security was slightly higher after the 9/11, qualitative data before and after the terrorist attacks showed similar patterns in understanding national security: national security is out of their control, the security issues are not in their personal interest

²⁶ According to RVS, national security was defined as „protection from attack”.

²⁷ The survey was conducted in Ohio. It contains qualitative data which permit exploration of the subjects' reasons ranking national security so low.

(personally irrelevant), they are powerless when it comes to national security.

Besides the fact that they prove the relevance of social sciences (psychology and sociology) for security culture, the above quoted studies underlines that ‘national security’ lacks personal relevance. At the level of action and behaviour, this result indicates the citizens’ low capacity to take action as intelligence volunteers.

4. Romanian Studies

The project and the security culture initiatives that we have conducted in Romania started from the following assumption: there is a strong possibility that people who devalue national security will fail to take appropriate action when they have valuable information that could safeguard the nation's best interests. Inappropriate action also refers to actions needed in case of terrorist attacks.

The main idea that guided our project²⁸ was that national security is not an isolated entity, far away from the average citizen. The project aimed at elaborating and promoting scientific research instruments to study the way citizens face the implications of terrorism in our contemporary life. It also aimed at analyzing the efficiency of the antiterrorist strategies elaborated and implemented by the institutional actors (people’s protection versus respect for the human rights).

For this survey, the contribution of social sciences was proved on two different levels. Firstly, this survey approached terrorism (with its related themes as violence, the role of the media or the civil society share) as a subject that needs a scientific, sociological and psychological interpretation. It integrated notions such as ‘social representations’, ‘values’, ‘prosocial action’ and ‘resilience’.

Secondly, the project applied research methods on the terrorist phenomenon. The main benefit was that this way the survey covered

²⁸ The project, named Identification of young people's knowledge of the terrorist phenomenon. The elaboration and application of a counterterrorism education model lasted two years (2005-2007) in Bucharest and other three important university towns in Romania. The results are published in Chiru, I. and Barna, C. (ed.), (2008) ‘Counterterrorism and International Security’.

a deficiency as it intervened in a theoretical and almost insufficiently investigated Romanian field. In fact, after having consulted the existing specialized literature from Romania, one could see that the great majority of studies related to the terrorist phenomenon have a historical and descriptive character, without using specific techniques of scientific research, the real identification of the manner in which the activity of terrorist groups is perceived by the civil population and of the efficiency of the antiterrorist strategies. Concretely, we applied the following research methods:

- *the questionnaire*: in order identify the knowledge concerning the terrorist phenomenon (the threat - notions and concepts, the institutions that are empowered to fight against terrorism and the antiterrorist protection);
- *the focus-group*: in order to see how the questioned population relate themselves to terrorism and to identify the terrorism implications in contemporary social life;
- *the content analysis* and the *Q sort method*: in order to set out the indicators which designate a determining aspect of an antiterrorist strategy or of its impact upon the civil population (positive, negative and neutral);
- *the interview*: in order to identify the subjects' reactions to the published materials in an electronic magazine.

The data obtained using the questionnaire, corroborated with the answers obtained in the focus group indicate a good knowledge of the terrorist phenomenon in the social-political equation, at national and international level. Still, it is vitiated by some flaws such as the stereotype concerning the terrorists seen as 'the Muslim terrorist' or as 'the delinquent terrorist', false representations regarding the actions of the terrorist organisations as financing through legal commercial exchanges or incorrect representations concerning the initiatives of the institutions fighting terrorism (for example, the military campaigns launched against terrorist groups).

The research results and conclusions represented the reference points for developing an educational model in the antiterrorist protection field, a model adequate to the context and the particular experience of our country. Its main objective was to create solid

premises for the antiterrorist education and culture. Implementing such an educational model was necessary after the successive terrorist attacks in the last seven years, moreover as the attacks were launched indiscriminately, on a global scale. As a matter of fact, the most important argument which pleads for the necessity of an antiterrorist education derives from the defining feature of the terrorist phenomenon, namely the tendency of terrorist groups to select their victims in an absolutely random way (which makes it difficult, if not impossible, to forecast and counteract).

Conclusions

To the extend that security constitutes now an important item, it must itself be subject to the democratic norms of public visibility, open process of debate and contestation. In this respect, social sciences research can focus on deepening democracy to satisfy inclusion, safety and development. That is to say, as Mill [10] recognized, educational institutions are important sites where democracy and self-government are learned.

At a larger scale, psychological and sociological studies concerning people's representations on national security deserve the attention of professionals responsible for national security. These studies can contribute to analysing the underlying dynamics of value structures as they relate to national security. Further promotion of the security-culture concept will depend on a well recognized international framework accustomed to dealing with threats.

What these studies have already taught us is that the people's inactivity or counterproductive reactions may arise not from a reluctance to cooperate with state authorities or from an assessment of the risk involved in being an 'intelligence volunteer' but rather from individual structures that endanger indifference toward matters of national security.

Indeed, intelligence agencies exist so that private citizens of a nation be safe and could go about the daily life without being affected by threats to national security. Still, if people feel they are out of the national security problem, incapable of affecting it, then their capacity to take appropriate action is likely to be compromised.

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THE CULTURAL DETERMINISM AND THE PROFESSIONS DYNAMICS

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Motto: “*The configurations of the future socio-professional structures are not arbitrary; they contain a series of necessary parameters. Nevertheless, within the possible actionable space, our liberty is real and of major importance.*” (Oscar Hoffman)

Abstract:

Within our contemporary society, professional transformations confront the individual with sudden changes, both unforeseen and undesired. The professional mobility is no longer mainly individual, but it belongs to groups and it has become structural. Macro-society processes modify the professional structures, thus forcing individuals to adjust to changes that they cannot either control or predict. Accordingly, we witness significant mutations in the labor area now, as well as the end of an important era, the classical industrialism and the beginning of a new era, the post-industrial one, which is based on cognitive-information-technologies, bio-technologies etc. The information era leads to information-based professions, while the globalization phenomenon causes their world - wide recognition. The very process of a job formation activates socio – cultural modalities through which the society receives, values and enhances the human needs, which, afterwards, are transformed into socio – professional structures via the cultural mediation.

Key words: determinism, axiological tropism, postmodernism, professional changes.

1. The professions dynamics – the reflection of the value systems dynamics.

The double status of a human being, as a cultural entity and as a “*homo valens*”, reveals to us its axiological vocation.

The axio-tropism gains ground as the fundamental and permanent coordinate of the human existence. The socio-cultural space, as an axio-tropic space, represents the incubation environment of the human becoming. As permanent evaluators of their own deeds and of others’ deeds, people identify in this space an axis that becomes a fundamental reference point of the value consciousness, both individual and collective. In relation to this reference, they recognize and select the valuable from the non-valuable, while both of them make up the axiological register of every society.

The axio-tropic axis represents an indicator for the analysis and interpretation of the manner in which the societies produce and use values. Nevertheless, by delimitating the border between values and non-values, this axis indicates the minimum value stage to which individuals need to subscribe. Still, there have deviations from this axis and they will continue to appear so long as people do exist. The relation values - non-values defines a space for the manifestation of human liberty, whereas the dialogue between them constitutes the source of mobility for all societies.

As a bio-psycho-socio-cultural synthesis, the human being is directly influenced by the environment where he lives and develops. His humanization results from his exposure to culture and from socializing. In this context, an interdependence relationship between the individual axio-tropism and the societal axio-tropism appears, and it is the result of a continuous process of mutual accommodation of the axiological registers. The individual axio-tropism is defined under the pressure of the societal axio-tropism, while, at the same time, the individual has the liberty of selecting and combining different types of values, in his own manner.

Each type of society has developed and promoted an own value-scale, according to specific criteria (morality, efficiency, scientific etc.), and this scale is designed to ensure its stability and evolution. Yet, although dynamic, societies tend to multiply from a cultural and axiological perspective. General human values have been transmitted

from one generation to another. What has undergone radical transformations is the societies' contents and their achievement methods. The periodic re-design of the society's axio-tropic axis aims at a values hierarchy and a shift toward a more efficient axiological register that is able to keep up with the society's progress.

Modernity brings along the cultural revolution of the axio-tropic space. We witness a setting up of a new spirituality and profound mutations within the cultural structures (the emergence of mass culture). Three major features may characterize the modern spirit: innovation, individualism and scientific reasoning. The French sociologist Raymond Boudon has identified three factors in his studies on the society's modernity: mobility, differentiation, laicization. From the perspective of axiology, modernity and post-modernity have overturned the axiological space and they broadened the contents of the negative ethics. The destruction and annihilation of the stable axiological reference points has determined the Polish sociologist Zygmunt Banman to coin the phrase "liquid modernity". The appearance of the postmodern society makes the axio-tropic anomaly state more acute and radical. Michel Foucault uses the term "heterotopy" to characterize the coreless universe of postmodernism (the dissolution of the axio-tropic axis), the erosion of the universal axiological register, overwhelmed with contradictory instances and non-values.

If the anomaly state used to be severely rejected by religion, traditions etc. in the traditional societies, the modernism and postmodernism have released the excessive extension of the axiological register so far as the dangerous relativization of values. Overwhelmed by the non-values aggressiveness, the postmodern society needs to discover new methods of social control, through which to impose the right values. An avalanche of chaotic and meaningless changes characterizes the current social and cultural environment nowadays, and such changes cause true Brownian movements. The multitude of changes determines radical changes in the spiritual physiognomy of the era and a desperate search for a new identity.

2. The formation of socio-professional structures.

The formation process of a new profession activates a series of socio-cultural modalities by which the society receives, values and enhances the human needs, which, afterwards, are transformed into socio-professional structures via the cultural mediation. Therefore, the analysis and evaluation of professions and of the professional dynamics cannot be accomplished within the space of axiological neutrality. Like any other human activity, the profession implies its adherence to a scale of values, promoted by the society.

The professional structures result from a ‘rearrangement’ of social contexts (needs, resources, possibilities, requirements etc.) according to an axiological system. Even protests are determined by the socio-cultural. Their purpose targets the management of the social time available for satisfying human needs related to a socio-cultural model. This is only one of the professional structure’s functions, to which the labor division and human solidarity are added. Related to the individual, the profession is not only a source of income, social prestige or a modality of self-achievement or personal rendering. It also represents the relating to the others and the materialization of new models, concepts and lifestyles. As a result, through profession, both individual and group values are activated. The evolution of socio-professional structures is multi-leveled determined; there is an area of the actionable possible (of future possibilities), characterized by a series of external factors (with different degrees of necessity, of constraints). From the interior, the area is conditioned by the manner in which people evaluate and make use of the present conditions, identifying the access routes to these futures reflecting their ideals and resources.

M. Fishbein (1971) identifies three types of factor that influence the human behavior:

- a) the attitude of the actionable agent toward behavior;
- b) the normative beliefs;
- c) the motivation for obeying these norms.

In turn, the attitude is the result of the individual’s opinion regarding the nature of consequences of a behavior (what to expect) and the affective-axiological appreciation of them. The normative beliefs of an individual outcome from his personal axio-tropism: what

it is good to do and what he must do for his own social benefit. These types of variables act simultaneously, but not always convergent. They may have different weights, according to the individual and the situational context.

The individual takes into account both his own capacities and the situational parameters and evaluates the consequences of the performed behavior. These consequences do not include only his own benefits (direct consequences), but also the approval/disapproval of others, especially of significant people (indirect consequences). In this inner struggle the cognitive and affective variables, as well his personal value system intervene (beliefs). Thus, the importance of the relationship attitude-value reveals to us. In spite of the tendencies of minimizing the values role, values tend to be not merely simple probabilities of a behavior appearance, but also latent values, intimate and virtual, which cannot be ignored when describing and explaining the socio- humanity.

Petru Ilut highlights the force of the axiological structure when confronted with the situational context, a phenomenon that he names “axiological non-gender-tropism”. According to his theory, the values are intimately integrated into the personality constellation and they function as motivational vectors of high stake.

Within social communities there is a system of values and norms that “appears trans-subjective and precedes concrete individual actions. The internalization of essential data of this system via socializing explains the behavioral consensus existing in different socio-cultural protests and ensures the cultural reproduction”. (Petru Ilut, “Axiological Structures from the Psycho-Social Perspective”, EDP, Bucuresti, 1995, p. 61).

The manifestation of the ‘axiological non-gender-tropism’ is supported by such arguments:

1. The values and attitudes activated by certain situations are not only effects but also causes in relation to these situations;

2. The human being has the possibility of selecting the situations, fact leading to the avoidance of those situations that contradict his personal beliefs;

3. There are not just mere situations, but situations perceived and interpreted by each individual, according to his own value scale. Thus,

‘the social perception’ becomes “the first safety belt of stable personality structures” (Petru Ilut, “Axiological Structures from the Psycho-Social Perspective”, EDP, Bucuresti, 1995, p. 62).

By applying the axiological non-gender-tropism theory to the studied area, we can argue that, during the selection and the performing of a profession, both the requirements of the social context and the personal value system and beliefs need to be accomplished. The resistance of the axiological orientation facing entropic pressures of the context differs from individual to individual, and from group to group. The author observes the following tendency: in decisive life situations (such as the profession selection), the firmness of personal value-scale becomes even more evident.

Within our contemporary society, professional transformations confront the individual with sudden changes, both unforeseen and undesired. The professional mobility is no longer mainly individual, but it belongs to groups and it has become structural. Macro-society processes modify the professional structures, thus forcing individuals to adjust to changes that they cannot either control or predict.

“<Pathological systems> of cultural models imply the exacerbation of certain values to the detriment of others, a cultural equilibrium break, the omitting of definite requirements, and accordingly, the development of deficient practices” [3].

We witness significant mutations in the labor area now, as well as the end of an important era, the classical industrialism and the beginning of a new era, the post-industrial one, which is based on cognitive-information-technologies, bio-technologies etc. The information era leads to information-based professions, while the globalization phenomenon causes their world - wide recognition. For the twentieth century, The Technical-Scientific Revolution (TSR) represented a major macro-social factor in starting the transformations within the socio-professional structure. The technological, economic, scientific, moral, ecological values made their presence felt in the professions evolution. The dictatorship of the techno-science released crises and major lacks of balance in the relationships man-nature and man-man: “the technique is nothing but a means, neither good nor bad since everything depends on what the man is going to do with it, the

benefits he can get from it and the conditions under which he is going to apply it” [4].

The reified man, estranged from himself, seeks for his quest in a world dominated by material values. The predominant reactive behaviors of the pre-modernity become projective behaviors in the post-modernity. “The higher the individualism coefficient of perception is, the less structured and complex the stimuli are” [5].

The post-modern world is a de-structured environment, full of complexes and uncertain, reality that leads to the increase of the axiological steadfastness, so that “the future will define itself through knowledge, creation, and innovation; in other words, the future is archaic. This assumption implies the role of conscience in determining of the future. The archaic feature is given by the combination of systemic and creative, whereas the innovative and spiritual characteristic refers to the recognition of the role of material conditions of life, but of the conscience, at the same time” [6].

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BENCHMARK CONCEPTS IN CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY – “CULTURE” AND “CIVILIZATION”

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Abstract

When dealing with the evolution of mankind in the terms of cultural anthropology, certain clarifications regarding the meanings that must be ascribed to the concepts of “culture” and “civilization” become necessary. For a long time, specialists could not reach an agreement regarding the distinction that must be made and their sense varied from one country to another or even within a specific country.

For many authors “civilization” is nothing but an assembly of technical and practical knowledge and of means utilized in order to act on nature. On the other hand, “culture” represents the normative principles, the human values and ideals, in brief – the human spirit.

The present study tries to synthesize the meanings ascribed in time to the two terms in order to see if the overlappings or substitutions are correct and appropriate.

Key words: civilization, culture, mentalities, continuity, societies

1. Conceptual delimitations

In order to make an incursion in the evolution of humankind we must first clarify the meaning of the concept of *culture* and that of *civilization* – two terms considered synonymous for a while and that is why people very often mistake one for the other.

Fernand Braudel in the *Grammar of civilizations* (1994) tries to capture the defining meanings of the terms, appealing, in turn, to

knowledge from the fields of humanities like geography, sociology, economy, collective psychology, fields that are not similar at all.

The concept of “civilization” was later launched as a neologism, in France, in the 18th century, when a meaning and a reduced circulation were ascribed to it. Its formation comes from the words “civilized”, or “to civilize”, which had already been used in the 16th century. In 1732, “civilization” was still a term used in jurisprudence, which designated a legal act or a decision that confers a “civil” character to a penal trial. The modern meaning, that of passing to a civilized condition is marked in the work entitled *Traité de la population* (1756) by Mirabeau who will put into discussion the problem of the “resorts of civilization”, even of the luxury of a fake civilization.

Voltaire will actually conceive the notion in his work *Essai sur les moeurs et sur l'esprit des nations* (*Essay on the Manner and Spirit of Nations*) (1756). The new meaning ascribed to the word *civilization* is generally opposed to the meaning of “barbarism”. Thus, it is considered that there exist, on the one hand, civilized peoples, and, on the other hand, there are barbaric, primitive, savage peoples. The word appeared because it was needed and because until that time the words: *poli* (polite, civilized), *police* (person that has reached a certain degree of civilization), *civil* (person who observes the conveniences, the good manners in the social relationships), *civilisé* (civilized), which were used for somebody who showed good manners and ease when it came to behaving in society, did not have a concept – a word to encompass and represent them.

After the launching of the word in France, it rapidly tours Europe accompanied by the word *culture*. In 1772, it was already present in England, where it gained ground on the word *civility* (politeness). In Germany, *zivilisation* establishes itself without difficulty competing with the old word *Bildung* (culture).

It will rapidly be used in Italy too, the meaning of the term including *the beautiful* and the old word, already used by Dante, *civilita*. Imposing itself in the European Countries, the concept of civilization will be accompanied by the old word *culture*, so that, for a long time, one term will double the other. Yet, there appears the necessity to make a distinction.

Starting from 1819, the word “civilization” will be used in the plural, gaining a different new meaning: assembly of characteristics displayed by the collective life of a group or epoch. There will be used terms like: the civilization of 5th century Athens or the French civilization in the period of Louis XIV, a fact that will bring about a new significance – new ascribed meanings.

In the 20th century, the plural form will prevail most of the times, in the mentality of the modern man, being directly more accessible to personal human experiences. When using the plural, the idea of the existence of a civilization assimilated to the progress proper, idea reserved only to some privileged peoples, to some groups of people, or “elites” becomes indistinct. Yet, in the 20th century a real definition, of the best civilization based on valid criteria, has not been achieved, even if the *politics* seems to create confusion.

Raymond Aron considers that we are at a stage when we discover the relative truth of the concept of civilization, concept that must be abandoned. The stage of civilizations is over and humankind is on the verge of reaching a new stage, that of a civilization capable of extending itself on a large scale (the whole universe) for its benefit or for its doom. Any characteristic exported by the Western World (for example the industrial or the computerized – informatized civilization) is nothing but one of the transient traits of the Western Civilization, and adopting it does not implicitly mean adopting the whole assembly. There exists a past and a continuous history of the borrowings civilizations make from one another along millennia without losing their particularities or specific traits. However, we admit that it is not for the first time when all the others desire a decisive aspect of a civilization. For example, the “computerization”, which ensures the speed of communications and the rapid and efficient access to information, was considered a necessary borrowing, the same way the “industrialization” had been adopted previously. Today the proposition for globalization tries to unify all the tendencies, the models of the new advanced civilizations, like the Western or the American one, launching the idea of a collective civilization. We also notice an intention to standardize the usual technologies as well as the different styles of living, for a long time materialized in very different forms, specific to some closed, almost impenetrable, cultural enclaves.

Nevertheless, the process of unification is not over yet and we believe that, for a long time from now on, the concept of civilization will be used sometimes in the singular and other times in the plural.

2. Parameters of identifying a *civilization*

When we talk of civilizations, we talk about areas, land, relief, climate, vegetation, animal species, advantages given or acquired, and about everything that the man can obtain from them: agriculture, rearing animals, food, shelter, clothing, industry, communications, science and technology, etc. Braudel uses a metaphor by means of which he compares civilizations with “interminable theatre plays” for which the stage (the space) determines, in part, their deployment, explains their particularities; and the people, ephemeral human beings, come one after another, until the “stage” remains very similar with itself and, in time, recognizable.

The question that is asked is why only some people or some civilizations – cultures – were capable of great successes and others were not and why only on certain territories, and not on others, and this for a period of many generations. Arnold Toynbee affirms that the human success always needs a “challenge” *and* an answer; nature must represent for the man a difficulty that must be overcome, and if the man accepts the challenge, his intelligent answer creates the very bases of his civilization, even when the other cultures around, with their people, are a challenge of the man’s adaptation to these. Starting from the 20th century, the modern man accepts any temporary challenge, which he surpasses, according to some indisputable interests (gold, oil), but he has not been able, for a long time to establish a real civilization. At present, we only have some “continuities” that are in conflict with one another, fighting, in a subtle way, for the material resources and for the influence in certain parts of the globe. Thus, there exists provocation and response, but not necessarily civilization in the real positive sense of the term and this situation will last, most probably, until new solutions are found.

According to classic anthropologists, any civilization is dependent on a space, within relatively stable limits, has its own particular geography, which implies a series of possibilities and given constraints, quasi-permanent, which vary from one stage to another

depending on certain factors. The worlds today are very varied; they are dispersed on a mosaic surface and the maps indicate urbanized areas, some very advanced and modern, while others are modest, not developed yet. The economic maps present the talent and the productivity of the people in certain areas, the great cultures and occupations they depend on, everything according to the challenges of nature and the possible responses of the man.

The association of certain dominant cultural characteristics is found grouped on a cultural area, identified within an interior limited space in which there exist certain productive cultures, customs, beliefs, a technology as well as a particular art of the people. These areas established by anthropologists have become, in general, limited. They present common group features or those of a greater mass that differentiate them from those of other considerable masses. About the primitive cultures around the Pacific Ocean, Marcel Mauss affirms that they formed, despite the important differences and the immensity of the spaces that separated them, a unique and identical *cultural human assembly*. Geographers and historians, following in the footsteps of anthropologists, have also made reference to the “*cultural areas*” when they dealt with some evolved civilizations that proved harder to decipher. Spaces in which a series of individual lands could be articulated were designated. The possibility of decomposition is essential when we see that even the great civilizations themselves often become dissociated in restricted units.

What we call the “Western Civilization” also includes the American Civilization of the United States and that of the Latin America, and it also means, in particular, the western part of Europe and even that of Russia. Europe itself comprises a series of national civilizations like the Polish, the German, the Italian, the English, the French civilizations, etc, and which, in turn, are divided into smaller “civilizations” like: the Scottish, the Irish, the Catalan, the Sicilian, the Basque civilizations, etc. – brightly colored and relatively distinct divisions which present permanent constant features. The limitation by means of frontiers of the spaces durably occupied in time does not exclude their permeability so that the cultural assets travel a lot, they cross all frontiers or “dams” temporarily built. There has always existed an infusion of cultural assets from one area to another, an

export and import of appreciable values like: more advanced technologies, the discoveries that created new customs, skills like the one of processing steel or gun powder, a whole or fragmentary philosophical system, a cult, religion or art.

No matter how great the avidity of civilizations to borrow the assets of the “modern” life was, it has been proved that they are not ready to assimilate everything the way they would like. Some refuse the borrowings, manifesting resistance to those infusions that could threaten their nucleus of characteristic features, the deeply rooted traditions and customs they care about.

Lévi-Strauss (1978) identifies civilizations and societies that he differentiates into primitive and modern societies. Cultures have corresponding *societies*, which cause some minor disorder, called *entropy* by physicists, and which have the tendency to maintain their initial state indefinitely. This explains the fact that they appear as societies without history or without progress, while the societies corresponding to the modern civilizations use a difference of potential achieved by different forms of social hierarchy in order to function. Such societies create an inner social disequilibrium which they utilize to produce more order (we have societies based on mechanization) and, at the same time, more disorder, but a lot less entropy, even in the case of human relationships” (Lévi-Strauss, 1978, 312).

The *urbanism* is the first signal, which indicates the level of a civilization, and there exist various intermediary echelons from one category to another. At the level of culture, the town is barely sketched, but it proliferates in an impressive way at the level of civilizations. Paradoxically, we come across modern forms of urbanization, on continents like Africa or Asia, beside the group of traditional societies, of cultures engaged in the difficult process of forming civilizations. Within the inertial framework of closed countries, the towns, paying attention to the external influences, appear as islands of civilization, which prefigure the future society (civilization). Even the brightest civilizations or societies imply the existence, within their delimitation, of elementary cultures and societies. However, there exists a dynamic change and dialog between towns and villages, which is always important, thus, in any society, development does not spread equally in all the regions.

There are close connections between *civilization and society* but the two categories must not be used one instead of the other. There exist many differences. As far as *duration* is concerned, civilization implies larger chronological spaces than a given social reality and a civilization changes much slower than the societies that it produces or whose appearance it triggers.

Civilizations are *economies* because any society or civilization is in possession of and depends on economic, technological, scientific, biological and demographic data. The material conditions in which they are included, as well as the biological ones, influence the destiny of civilizations for ever. The health of the population, the demographic increase or decrease and the physical degradation are in direct relation with the economic, technical advance or decline, and they all influence the cultural and social structures. The broad sense of the term *political economy* means the study of all these major problems.

As far as civilization is regarded, *the Man* remains the most important tool and the only engine for progress that are available to man and society. He is the creator of the modern material civilization, the one who built it and that one that will develop it further in time. In general, the number of individuals is very important, because the demographic increase facilitated the progress of civilizations and it was a signal of this progress in the past. The overabundance and the prosperity of the people was beneficial at first and it led to a demographic increase. These reports became unbalanced when the demographic increase was faster than the economic one. This situation was often encountered in the history of certain societies. The situation remains the same today, in the great majority of the underdeveloped countries, because the result of this state of facts is: famine, the deterioration of the real income and of the possibilities of earning an existence, popular upraises, sinister and dictatorial epochs which represent a recoil in the level reached by civilization. Famine determines a more precarious health of the population, epidemics which incapacitate and kill many people who are able to work. At the same time, it determines tense conflictive relations between people and social categories – a justified damaging discontent and unhappiness.

The value of the man is increasing and the necessity to spare him the exhausting working effort has continuously led to a rapid technologization, which enabled the creation of machine-robots, computers to replace him. During the previous epochs the human society, although intelligent, could not use the exceptional "machines", which could not measure up to his intelligence. All the great and small empires were founded on the work of slaves, intentionally kept at a minimum existence and subcultural level, a legacy transmitted from one generation to another, hard to bear and hard to solve by the modern society. The existential framework of the modern man has transformed enormously, but there persist nuclei of realities and facts extant in the past of the civilizations that survived in the relations between people and structures. If we take China, for example, we see that it is an intelligent country in the field of technique; a lot of discoveries were adopted from there and they were valorized in the New World and Europe. When mentioning the fantastic demographic number it has reached, we understand how hard it is to keep a balance between the two dependent relationships: *demography* and *economy*.

Under the conditions of *exaggerated demographic increase*, the man values almost nothing, being compelled to accept almost any task in order to satisfy the needs of his existence, in an economy that is forced to ignore him. This economy, even scientifically advanced, will not cross the threshold of modern science, of a level of civilization exigency, implicitly. It will give up this privilege or honor for the benefit of another that does not present this problem – the exaggerated demographic increase.

The partner of a civilization is the Man – the concrete man – and in his culture a vital minimum must be reached that should help him feel free in the middle of the civilization or the society he has chosen – this can be the true level of uncontested recognition.

The creation of a quality and, at the same time, mass civilization remains a problem of the present as well as of the future, because, we admit, it is terribly expensive. Without a fair redistribution of the surplus to society and without the necessary free time given to people for their own formation and training, the plans become illusory.

A spreading of the culture at the large sociological scale of the world might bring in concordance the present societies or civilizations, but not all the individuals from the underprivileged social classes. There still exist inequalities between the ways of access to civilization, created by the economic life, between the different social classes and between the different countries in the world. There still exists a *third world*, an enormous mass of people for which the access to the vital minimum sources comes before the access to the civilization of their own country which, very often, remains unknown for the individual, and this is a situation that can last for a very long time.

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THE PARTIES' DESTINY IN THE SOCIETY OF KNOWLEDGE

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Abstract

The destiny of the party phenomenon has become a central issue of the contemporary political theory. Beyond the contradiction within the different points of view that either underlines the obsolete and unfortunate role of parties, or justifies the necessity of their presence in the organization of society, the entire issue revolves around one essential theme: the perspective of the party phenomenon in tomorrow's society, the information one.

Keywords: *political, parties, state, knowledge, informational society*

1. The Politic in the Society of Knowledge

The information society determines deep mutations in the fundamental content, structure, principles, functionality, role and objectives of the politic. Remarkably, the information society implies a new quality power: knowledge, "the most democratic source of power". The K factor (knowledge) represents the stake of the global fights for power. Its traditional resources – violence and wealth – are replaced by knowledge. What laid to rest the dispute between the two systems and super-powers – Russia and USA – "were not the army or economy, but the K factor – the new knowledge that the military and economic forces are so addicted to" [1], reality acknowledged by Gorbaciov as well, the former sovietic leader.

"The events oriented towards the future" and those which form the future could be the "salvation of the entire system of the political representation, which presently goes through a crisis". The temporal limitations of the political game, the participants' lack of perspective – parties, central and local parliaments, interest groups etc. – to the democratic decision, the lack of interest and the low preoccupation with the future manifested in the political dialogue held with the electors decrease the efficiency of the entire system of political representation. "Separated from the future, it (the elector) becomes a political eunuch. (...) Presently, argued Toffler, the unconscious adaptation does not correspond. (...) The human has to (...) consciously control the evolution, to command it and to shape the future in order to satisfy the human needs." [2]

The major non functionalities to which the beginning of the millennium society confronts with derives from a reality that cannot be eluded: our political institutions imitate the structures and the political technology characteristic to the Second Wave and reflect a worn out knowledge organization. The rapid flow of changes went beyond the decision capacity of the existent institutions, regardless the party ideologies and the leader. The civilization inadequacy regards multiple aspects: a) dimension; b) structure (the organizational system, the concept and the types of representation, the ways of governing, the decision taking); c) working speed. "The most important problem that we have to confront, argued A. Tofller, regards the senility of the most fundamental political and governmental institutions". [3]

Building the new civilization presumes the relinquishment of "representation concept", the value of the "majority principle", characteristic to the political theory of the Second Wave, and also presumes inventing new structures and political principles adequate to the chosen purpose: a) the postulation of the minority principle (the majority principle, which is a quantity instrument, is no longer adequate to the legitimacy and the political legitimacy; the minority society (professional, politic, ethnic, sexual, religious, regional) offers more negotiable points of view, it imposes the orientation towards the mediation of the minority interests within the inside of each country; the desertion of the classical system of parties which does not

correspond to the necessities of representation and their replacement with temporary, modular parties; b) adopting the principle of semi-direct democracy (the direct participation to debates appealing to modern ways of communication); c) the division of decision (by redistributing the local and central competences). [4]

2. The Party System between Decline and Survival

The system, the technology, the political theory and the means of governing "created for a particular civilization may not function properly as applied to the following civilization". Toffler thought that the current political system, designed by Jefferson and Paine, "must be completely transformed and another democratic system of government should be invented for the XXIth century." This shift is imperatively dictated by the necessity of synchronization of society with the tendencies of the historical progress.

Observing carefully the American political life, J. Naisbitt stated: "People manifest their mistrust in political parties, refusing to identify themselves with them (...) the political left and right are obsolete (...). The bipartite system disappeared because people abandoned it (...) and the name is all that is left out of the political parties, it is said there are 535 political parties", a number equal to its members. [5] Austin Ranney stated (in "The Political Parties: Reform and Decline") that the American political system became a "system without any parties". Blondel highlights a true, more or less reversible, crisis of the political parties.

The decline of the parties represents "a danger for the democratic system, a crisis of the representative democratic politics." [6] There are many causes for this phenomenon: a) the decrease of the party members in relation to the growth of the population. Lack of interest and political apathy is to be noticed, and the times of the mass parties are gone. Katz and Mair's statistics from 1992 underlines a general tendency of decrease with a slight improvement in Germany and Belgium. P Brechon mentions a survey realized in 1997 speaking about the citizens' from EU lack of trust in parties (appreciatively, 75 %, this mistrust reaching a percent of 85 % in Belgium, up to 60 % in Denmark and 50 % in Luxembourg and Holland), so that "three Europeans out of four express their disbelief as compared to 16 %

who express their trust", the parties are less appreciated than the administrative system (49 %), the national parliaments (48%), syndicates (48 %) and Charity associations (32 %). Moreover, some statistics published in December 2004, the political parties were declared the most corrupt institutions (4 on a scale from 1 to 5). This phenomenon is accentuated by other aspects: "the decrease of the number of militants and of people to endorse politics", the relative weakness of the partisan sympathy" and "the inappropriate image that the public opinion promoted for the politicians"; b) upgrading the political parties by working with specialists and consultants (the political consultancy led to voluntary work, political enthusiasm and revolutionary spirit, the party bureaucracy has been replaced and completed by teams of experts in the media management, publicity and the commercial exploitation of some communicational systems; the increase of the issue concerning the complexity of the political aspect and the necessity of the professional political approach); c) the increase of the cultural and civic political degree of the citizens' awareness makes the necessity of certain links between society and governing structures, useless; d) the modification in the practice of financing the parties (the mass parties, functioning on the basis of volunteer activity and auto financing became dependent on the public resources or sponsorships); e) the project concerning some party interests on short term (although they seem to have a definite target, the parties design their targets in strong connection with the diversity of the population, connecting the political identity to the population expectations and reality) [7]; f) the representative politics became more of a metaphor rather than a real resource of legitimating the action of the political man, because some political practice and the socio-cultural fragmentation determined the atomization of the public space (the socio-cultural fragmentation and the media culture allowed the opinion leaders and the symbolical webs - journalists, experts, social movements - to undertake the representational function more than the political parties and their leaders. Therefore, theoreticians like Touraine, Davis and Owen drew the conclusion that the political class is currently represented mostly by communicators rather than political representatives, and the journalists dispose of their own star system and they have a privileged status); g) the lack of direct connection

between the political activities and the interests of some socio-professional categories (the apparition of some political subcultures, the symbolical, informal legitimacy becomes more important than the elective legitimacy); h) the diversification of the memberships and of the daily lifestyles, for instance multiculturalism darkens representative politics; i) the social binder and the unity is more difficult to achieve; j) media, the political marketing and the new digital media fragmentize the electorate and generate isolation transforming the political participation into a solitary activity, and the groups are converted into virtual communities; k) the personalization of political actors (television has changes the traditional condition of the political man who cannot be legitimates through vote, program and political sobriety; we are talking about persons and not governing systems. Hart (in "Seducing America. How Television Charms the Modern Voter") proclaims the end of the American presidency, because television makes the political man reconsider the criteria consecrated by the political legitimacy [8]; l) the overtaking of some traditional functions that belong to the parties by other institutions and political procedures – the naming of the candidates for public functions, the funds for political campaigns, the raise of the parliament power, the mediation between the political society and the citizens; m) the development of the communication systems, the informational webs, the new communicational technology, the importance of the means of informing the masses; n) the shift from a representative democracy to a participative democracy has amplified the citizens' mistrust in the party politics; o) the parties' impossibility of promoting personalized politics in the context of the globalized economy (the parties are held responsible for the failure of the social politics); p) the parties are deprived of the practice and the culture of consensus (an efficient governing of a country is in relation with the negotiation of the divergent interests and it is not based on systematic opposition); r) the absence of the innovative spirit in the political practice and the lack of imagination of the political parties in finding solutions for the contemporary challenges; s) the lack of professionalism and pragmatism; the social inadequacy of the parties and the, more or less legal, usage of some important material resources; t) the apparition of

the anti-system parties; t) the disability to mobilize the masses by exploiting the militant force. [9]

Following a careful analysis of the American political phenomenon (characterized by the citizens' disbelief in the political parties and by an obvious asymmetry in the electoral option), J. Naibitt and P. Auburdene (in "Year 2000. Mega-tendencies") observed "the change from the party policy to the one based on the individual initiative", and professor Burdett Loomis, in the same way, said: "The new type of politician has transformed the Congress in an institution of encouragement of the initiative and personal activities on a large scale."

The future parties, argued the mentioned American sociologists, have to be small organizations, modular, and temporary and with local representation [10] and, in the hope of global and European integration, "the double legitimacy" is induced to the future politic parties. The political organizations based on "stratarchic" or "oligarchic" hierarchy (the elitist type) will be replaced to parties formed on egalitarian relations (the network type), where each individual is in the core of action and of the decisional process; also the willable political leader will be that who "facilitates" not the one who "decides or gives orders."

The problem of the future parties does not cancel the one regarding the future, the destiny of parties. The opinions are diverse and contradictory, optimistic and pessimistic in the same time. If for M. Duverger "a regime without parties" was regarded as a "conservatory regime", for S. Huntington "an antiparty regime is a reactionary regime." Plus, the state without parties is a "antiparty state."

The pessimistic conclusions are not unanimous spread by the contemporary ideologists. According to some, it is not a decline, but rather a "continuous transformation and adaptation of parties to the changes of society". Some - Peter Mair, Ignazi, Pizzorno, Castles, Pasquino, Kelsen etc. – formulate arguments regarding the life of party type organizations or give a different signification the indicators invoked by the pessimistic ideologists: a) the adjustment of the partisan life by the political powers, the implication of the state in the legitimacy of parties by partially assuring the necessary resources of

their activities (the financing the parliament parties according to the number of votes has to be based on a harsh control of the electoral expenses in the European countries; for example: France (1995), the amount used was of 660 million francs; the public financing represented 62 % of the RPR funds and 42 % of the PS funds; Romania, the 2004 campaign eased the budget of a few thousand billion lei; for a deputy or a senator mandate it was given 150 minimum salaries, according to "The Law of Financing the Political parties" – 2003); the possibility of the political powers to forbid the activity of non democratic parties or to favor the large parties to the detriment of the small ones (P. Mair) [11]; b) the creation of new parties, with more or less significant political roles (Forza Italia; The Innovator Party –USA; The Popular Action, The Democrat Force – Romania; the creation of the ideal type of party – the cartel-party, generated not by the interests of the civil society but by those of the state, a sort of a semi-public agent that explains the society the policies adopted by the state); c) the small number of party members must not be regarded as a crises but as an objective reorientation; d) the electoral oscillations of the vote have to be arrogated to the crisis phenomenon just in a small percentage, they are determined by the parties' incapacity to propose credible offers to the electors and by the changing expectances of the electors; e) the selection of the political and governmental staff (the parties own 75 % of the control on the political selection processes, the members of the Parliament and those who have ineligible public functions are still elected by the parties, even the so-called independent candidates cannot participate without political support); f) the creation of the political agenda (the parties have a decisive role in the creation of the series of public policies, they maintain the unity, coordinate the political staff, analyze the citizens' opinions and present them in a responsible manner, mediate, filter, elaborate and simplify the problems formulated by the citizens and ease the administrative work - Pizzorno); f) the long life of ideologies and of democracies; there is an interdependence between democracy, parties and ideologies. " (...) Ideologies do not die, they are transformed and expressed in a more or less absolute manner (...)" we are not to confound "the end of an ideology to the disappearance of all ideologies, and not that of an ideology in itself

and through itself" [12]; parties are absolutely necessary conditions of democracies, the older or newer democracies are party regimes (Kelsen). "Parties hold on no matter if they are part of the Govern, or in opposition. They guarantee many political changes within the systems where, after the end of the ideological confrontation, the negotiation of interests is possible" [13].

Concluding, even if the future of parties is not yet threatened, undoubtedly, the principles, the strategies, the ways of action, the parties' organizational behaviour must be adapted to the new social realities.

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FORMS OF ADVERTISING ARGUMENTATION

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Abstract

One considers that in the case of advertising argumentation, between the initial argumentation and its conclusion, there should generally appear “a basic textual sequence” (used in MarieJeanne Bonnet’s terminology, later adopted also by JeanMichel Adam and Marc Bonhomme); if one text segment emerges as an argument, this should be in favour of another segment which belongs to the same text. Our paper focuses on the idea that plenty of advertising texts restrict the argumentative approach to induction (if p, then q) and to a shortened syllogism (enthymeme), these being followed by a series of logic “violations”.

Keywords: *syllogism, praxeograms, hyponymy, hyperonymy, tautology*

1. Introduction

As JeanMichel Adam and Marc Bonhomme have observed, in many advertising text, the argumentative measure is reduced to induction (“If p, then q”) and to the shortened syllogism (enthymeme), to which a series “violations” of logics is added, in Vasile Sebastian Dâncu’s opinion.

Enthymeme

The questions from which the two Swiss authors start refers to the way in which the strict syllogism is created in advertising discourse, characterized – from their point of view by a “weak logic” or a “quasilogic” [1]. They reach the conclusion that, at the inferior level the advertising enthymeme apparently takes on the logic form of strict syllogism, but denaturants the strains of thought as in the example:

“I love my wife I like (A) Kronenbourg bier (B)” = major

“My wife (C) buys 6 Kronenbourg bottles” = minor

“It’s crazy, how much I love, (A) my wife (C)” = conclusion [2].

This commercial is constituted after the formal pattern of syllogistic reasoning (ternary structure, global progression by combining the terms), but the deductive rigour of the syllogism has to suffer, in AdamBonhomme, strong perturbations from at least two perspectives. First of all, the sense is made up of three particular cases, being articulated after an own conjuncture rule, which has at its base a gradual principle (“The more my wife buys Kronenbourg” = minor, “the more I love my wife” = conclusion). In the second place, the major raises several problems in the sense that it can be seen as a juxtaposition of two isotopes (sentimental and gastronomic) or can be considered (“I love my wife”). On the other hand, the fact that the deductive progression of the text is concluded with the same ending as the combination of term as in the beginning constitutes a deflection from the forming rules of the syllogism [3].

What created the combination between the sentimental izotopy and the gastronomic one is the polysemy of the French verb aimer (“to love”, and also “to like”), but from a logical point of view the logic of passing from the bier to the consolidation of conjugal love is not justified. JeanMichel Adam and Marc Bonhomme show that, in fact “this slogan presents a vague argumentation, characteristic to the enthymeme. This is mainly the contamination of the reduced food value with the force of the sentimental force that is associated to it. (...) At the conclusion level, conjugal love is in itself exhausted (“it’s crazy”) through its contribution to the pleasure of drinking Kronenbourg, the value of the product becomes, in this way more powerful than the sentimental value” [4].

At a superior level, the enthymeme contains one or two sentences of the syllogism, this situation being quite common in advertising texts. This happens for example in slogans such as:

“If the exigency requires the impeccable, the exigency requires Ariel” (shown on Antena 1, on 25 March 2006, 20.48), in which an inferential argumentative scheme can be identified, of the type: “If p, then q”, which alludes to the classical argumentative texts. The linear strain ARGUMENT → CONCLUSION cannot be accepted, unless

there is the explanation “THE IMPECABLE means Ariel”. The passing from the major premise “If the exigency requires the impeccable”, to the conclusion “The exigency requires Ariel” becomes possible due to the major unexpressed minor “BECAUSE the impeccable means Ariel”.

JeanMichel Adam and Marc Bonhomme try to find an explanation for the use of the enthymeme in the detriment of the syllogism, considering, first of all, that the enthymeme forces the potential interpreterconsumer to complete the ellipsis himself with the most important sentence, that is the one that, in the above mentioned example, constitutes the argument for selling Ariel detergent, as opposed to the other detergents; secondly, that completing the missing premise would be the same as making a assertion whose truth is truly unsure; and, thirdly, the implies a playful attitude at the receptor end, through which he is offered the pleasure to build the argument himself.

Often, the advertising enthymeme requires an interpretation considerable effort from the receptor, as is the case in the famous slogan quoted by the two Swiss linguists: “The woman is an island, / Fidji is her perfume”, in which it is highly unlikely, in the authors’ opinion, that the whole subjacent assertion can be made, if: the first sentence is to be interpreted metaphorically “The woman is an island”, should decode the homonymous game between the geographic name (“Fidji is an island”) and that of the brand (“Fidji is a perfume”) to reach the generic or particularized conclusion: “Fidji is the woman’s perfume, her perfume” [5]. The conclusion that can be drawn from this advertising slogan straightens Umberto Eco’s affirmation according to which “enthymeme fields are sometimes so complex, that it is surprising that the recipient would understand them each time” [6].

Referring to the metaphor the woman is an island, Fidji is her, François Brune finds the slogan to be a good one from a poetical point of view, with the mention that “Fidji is a product, not a paradise”. With the intention to prove that advertising “degrades” the poetic effect to the rhetoric effect, since behind any slogan, no matter how metaphoric, there is the invitation to buy, the will to reduce the imagination’s impetus to the act of buying”. In his vision François

Brune, “wanting to show that putting on Fidji perfume, the woman turns into a dream island means ruining everything: the analogy is not a proof, and the metaphor as such has not been created for utilitarian purposes. (...) Women can dream endlessly starting from the Fidji slogan, so that they may forget about buying the bottle of perfume: this is the fact that frighten the commercial creators, who fail in their purpose. The commercial effect and the poetic effect go in opposite directions” [7].

The observation that can be made is that commercial “poetry” fools the receptor by hiding the commercial reality of the project, and especially by doing away with any critical attitude, “putting the buying behaviours under the sign of the irrational” [8].

2. Argumentation by defyinglogics

The observation has been made, that a large part of the commercial messages defy the classical and natural logics. In natural logics, some principles of classical logics are less evident. For example, the nonconcordance according to which: “it is impossible for an object to have, and not to have a certain property at the same time and under the same rapport”, is often amended in the case of natural logics by analogisms such as: “in some aspects A, in some aspects nonA”, a fact which constitutes a somewhat possible justification for the commercial constructions that do not respect the principles and regulations of classical logics [9].

Blanche Grunig thinks that these argumentative constructions, considered by some illogical, are truly false nonlogic, as it can be observed in the slogan for the Canderel sugar: “This does not change anything, but (this) changes everything” [10].

The author shows that, by reading this slogan, we have the feeling that there is a contradiction between “This doesn’t change anything and this changes everything” but we can observe that the demonstrative this does not refer to the same thing, so the conditions of a contradiction do not apply. The quoted slogan is more a shorter form for: “Sugar surrogate Canderel does not change the taste of sugar, and this absence of change that affects everything is a true revolution” [11]. Is the first case this, makes reference to the object as such, object that would be expected to create a regrettable change, and

in the second situation, this reports the regrettable change, that, although expected, has not occurred. The creator of the slogan has surely counted on the fact that the commercial text will create a “logical shock” for the hearer, which will get his/her attention.

Vasile Sebastian Dâncu says, in this sense, that there are articulations of natural logics which allow certain contradictions, these phrases. Considered as language games, are very appreciated and their argumentation imply a high sensitive reception: “The illogic simulation is an extra codification, that the hearer notices and then feels privileged for having access to its key” [12].

Another possibility to simulate illogic, which generates “logical shocks”, is represented, according to Blance Grunig, by “hyponymy” and “hyperonymy”. Named by some scholars inclusion, hyponymy goes with incompatibility, both sense paradigms which constitute paradigmical interdependent sense relationships, that organize the vocabulary. Vasile Sebastian Dâncu prefers to use the term of “hyponymy” instead of inclusion in order to make a clear distinction between sense and reference between the “extension and intension of a term. If the extension is the unit class to which the term refers and the intention of a term is the number of attributes that characterize an entity, then between them, there is the following relationship: the larger the extension, the smaller the intension and the other way around (the term «tree» is hyperonym while the terms «fir trees» and «leaf trees» are hyponyms, therefore under ordinate)” [13].

By applying the hypo and hyperonymy relationships, one can obtain effects with interesting shocks, as it happens in the following commercial: “At the price of a perfume we offer you a CHANEL No 5”. This slogan uses the inclusion relationship, since it is understood that “CHANEL No 5 perfume is better than a perfume”; from a semantic point of view, there is no principle that is not respected, but the receptor is shocked by this apparent contradiction, being forced to go to a correct interpretation, which does not include contradictions: “CHANEL No 5 is a perfume, but not «any» perfume”.

A series of natural logics defiance, which appear in commercial construction, can be put under the sign of “playful”. In natural logics, there are certain general schemes named “praxeograms”, on which our conception about the world and social representations are modelled

and which refer to the succession of some everyday activities, the rapport between form and content, the connection between relationships, etc. The fundamental condition for keeping and operating these praxeograms is keeping their generalities, which is based on the fact that these norms appear and are transmitted socially, and can be based on social practice or just on ideological representations. These aspects, such as the sun going up in the morning, women's sensitivity, the round shape of the Earth and its spinning around its own axis, seem very evident as they belong to the scheme of our everyday knowledge. Most praxeograms have at their base the temporal succession, and the examples of them not being abided can be found in following commercial slogans:

- “Philips is already tomorrow”
- “Away at the front – THOMSON”
- “His fingerprint tomorrow – Toshiba”
- “A future in advance – FRANCETELECOM” [14].

Causal sequences represent another type of praxeograms which natural logics has accumulated in the search for the causes that explain the origin of all things. The next slogan proves this type of causal determination, the logical shock produced by it attracts the audience: “Drink OBERNAI and keep your wings (OBERNAI bier)” [15]. With this recommendation is not only a causal scheme defied, but the praxeogram according to which just birds have wings.

Blanche Grunig thinks that at the base of logical simulations, there can also lie theme rapports (“pertinence rapports”) – one of the most known procedure, which leads to contrast effects that are easily picked up in a commercial spot. For example, in a phrase there are some distances between the possible continuations in an utterance, some can be closer some further apart: “Because you don't like to be late WE have allowed ourselves to get in advance «Audi»” [16]. If we were to take into account just the beginning of this slogan, “Because you don't like to be late”, we would expect that what follows refer to the way in which the receptor could make up for this delay, instead, the initial thematic direction is changed by the creator of the message by the opposition youwe. There is a “thematic break” to which the receptor, surprised will try to remake the pertinent relationship, modified by the commercial text.

The argumentative message used mainly in commercial argumentation is “tautology” through which a thing is defined through itself: “Only Danone can make Danone products” [17]; “What’s yours is yours. CONNEX GO”. Tautology gives an impression of security, the promoted product is one that already has a style, a personality on the market and is best characterized by the new quality it offers. The use of tautology is present, François Brune, shows in the name of some products such as HOM (men underwear) or FEMME (perfume for women), that with the help of their sonority lead to the genetic being [18]. In fact, many commercial texts include apparent tautologies, as in the next slogan used by a Sunday paper: “It is the only one because it is unique”: the newspaper is the only one that appears on Sunday so from the quality point of view it is different from the others.

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SPACES OF THE ETERNAL REST AND OF STORAGE. THE COFFIN IN THE ROMANIAN VILLAGE

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Abstract

Death rituals vary across cultures and are often heavily influenced by religion. The faith in afterlife played an important role both in ancient religions (Ancient Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Thracian etc. religion) as well as in Abrahamic religions and Christianity. Analyzing the way in which the coffin is prepared for the funeral (seen as a space for a well deserved rest) as well as the grave goods (both pagan and Christian) chosen to be buried along with the corpse, the present paper tries to reveal the authentic Romanian vision of the hereafter.

Keywords: afterlife, eternal rest, repose, grave goods

Decoding both archeological and folkloric data, one can depict one ethnic group vision of death by analyzing their distinct modalities of treating the dead: leaving the body on the surface of the ground, eating the dead body by the other members of the group called funerary cannibalism [1], covering the body with twigs or a piece of cloth, hanging the body up high (sky burial or hanging coffins), cremation, burial at sea, the actual inhumation (interment) of the naked or covered body, digging and building a mortuary room or rooms underground, and finally, the burial in the coffin.

The coffin is not only a mere box, with the help of which the corpse is easily transported to the grave, but also a shelter in which the

deceased continues to exist. Thus, it contains two types of spaces: the space of the eternal rest and the space of storage.

After a life's time work, worries and hardships, the person is finally entitled to have some "peace". So, this alternative dwelling must provide everything needed to pass over and enjoy the realm of "eternal rest": pillow, sheets, blanket or a traditional colorful counterpane made from sheep wool (cerga). The experience of death is seen as a long journey, so the relatives of the deceased are providing the food and articles needed for this no return trip: ring shaped bread or knot-shaped bread, nuts, apples, a lump of salt, candle, flint steel, matches or even a lighter, a traditional bag for food (traista), money to spend and pay the duty, and the stuff to lean on. It is a custom to put in the coffin some objects that a person needs to clean up: a bar of soap, a comb, a mirror, a razor for shaving, a handkerchief, a towel etc.

In some regions of Romania there is a custom to deposit along with the deceased some particular articles, such as: glasses for the ones who couldn't see very well, whistle or flute for shepherds, dolls for the mothers with little children, crouch for the invalids, cigarettes and lighter for the smokers etc.

Another category of articles are the ones used to prove the deceased faith: the cross, the icon, the seal used to mark sacred alms pastries [2].

The objects that ensure a comforting rest, the pillow and the mattress, are usually made from the wooden chips („hășchiuțe”, „hoaspe de gelău”) resulted during the manufacturing the coffin. It is believed that it is a bad sign to leave anything behind from the wooden boards used for the coffin. At the same time, those wooden chips may be used once arrived to the other world to set up a fire.

A great Romanian folklorist, S. Fl. Marian has observed that in some ethnographical arias (Bukovina and Transylvania province), are used to stuff up the pillow and the mattress hay or straws covered with a brand new piece of home made cloth [3]. Another outstanding Romanian folklorist, Theodor T. Burada wrote about the Romanian custom to fill up the pillow (sometimes there were placed two pillows in the coffin) with fresh flowers if the person had died summer or

dried flowers, in wintertime. In Bessarabia the pillow was loaded with earth from the grave [4].

The pillow of the dead two fulfills functions: to provide better condition to sleep and to transfer some objects to the “other world”. In some regions, such as Moldavia and Muntenia (Wallachia) province, the bar of soap used in the ritual bath, the comb with which the deceased hair was trimmed up and the needle used to sew the deceased’s clothes are placed in or under the pillow. In that way, the dead will have in the “other world” soap to wash up, comb to trim its hair and needle to sew his or her clothes.

Besides these necessary objects, there are placed some apotropaic articles. In Banat province, for example, the coffin is smeared with a special kind of grease and on the bottom of the coffin is placed a strip of linden tree so that the dead to protect the dead from evil spirits [5].

The custom of bury objects along with the dead is very common on Romanian territory. The archeological researches showed that the Geto-Dacians practiced cremation (V B.C.-I A.C.) as well as inhumation (1000-500 B.C.). In the graves were discovered “bowls, mugs, jugs and a traditional dacian pot used for burn up spices”[6].

In the Romanian traditional village, along with the corpse in the coffin are placed, as we have observed, all sort of objects, believing that the death is a long trip and the deceased has to be provided with everything so that not to suffer from cold, heat, tiredness, hunger or thirst, and even to have a stick (which sometimes is embellished with a scarf) to protect themselves of dogs. A special position is occupied by the coin (ban, ort, creitar etc.). It is believed that the deceased has to give a payment in money imposed by custom, or by the ferryman who carried souls of the newly deceased across the river that divided the world of the living from the world of the dead. As in the Greek mythology, it was believed that those who could not pay the fee, or those whose bodies were left unburied, had to wander the shores for one hundred years. The coin (golden, silver or copper) payed for passage was sometimes placed on or in the mouth of a dead person or in a crack at the end of the stuff placed in the coffin (Apuseni Mountains). In Muntenia province (Prahova county), the coin was tied up to the little finger of the deceased [7].

Not only were the bodily needs seen to be fulfilled, but the ones concerning the soul as well. In Banat province (Caransebes county) it is a custom to put in the coffin dolls when a young mother dies. The number of dolls is equal with the number of the children left in the world of the living, “so that the mother’s longing for her kids to be, in a way, lessen”. If a baby dies, a little yellow wax jug with fresh mother milk is placed in the coffin and if the kid, at the time of his/her death stopped sucking, it is placed a pie, so that he/she may eat it in heaven (in Bukovina province) [8].

The image of the coffin is used in other ceremonies as well. A very interesting ritual is the one called by Petru Caraman “un-Carolling”. This dark facet of Carroll is performed when the ones who Carroll are not welcomed by the hosts or when they are not satisfied with the received gifts. It is a custom to curse the host like this: “When next New Year’s Eve comes/ May you be blessed with a popler coffin!” („La Anul Nou care vine,/ Să ai parte de-un sicriu de plop!”)[9].

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RITUALS SURROUNDING DEATH. THE SYMBOLISM OF THE ROMANIAN “DARK HOUSE”

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Abstract

From an anthropological linguistically point of view, dialect is a specific form of a language used by a speech community. The study of the symbolic linguistic representation in a regional language, as well as the ethnographic and magical “geography” provides a better understanding of an ethnic group’s mentality. If English natives, for example, refers to the reality of the “coffin” as a “pine box” or “pine drape”, thus sensing this ethnographic object as a container or a piece of clothing that covers up the dead, the Romanians connects the image of the “casket” with the cultural sign of the “house” (shelter, fir tree house, dark room, house without windows and doors etc.).

The present paper offers an ethnological approach to the ways in which the Romanians create and sense the space of the “eternal rest”. The coffin and the death itself are perceived as an alternative vicinity in which the deceased shifts and moves to.

Keywords: afterlife, coffin, pine box, fir-tree house, dark room

Starting from the idea that an ethnic group uses the language as a general means of spreading ideas, feelings and furthermore, the specific ways of representing a certain reality, the dialect is presenting itself as a compulsory and living document used in the adventure of discovery the “inner landscape” of a speech community. The study of the symbolic linguistic representation in a vernacular (regional) language, as well as its ethnographic and magical “geography” provides a better understanding of the autochthonous cultural type. For Romanians the most important moments in a lifetime (child birth,

marriage and death) are connected to the sign of the house. This relationship is felt not only to a magical-religious level (through pagan and Christian foundation rituals), but to an architectural level (the design of the unicellular house) as well as linguistically. The popular Romanian syntagmas that name the spaces of conception, physical and spiritual growth, union or bodily dissolution contain the word “house”. The uterus, for instance, is also called “house of stone” or “house of the water”, the cradle is seen as an alternative type of shelter which helps the human being to slide from the womb or “the house of the child” to the actual dwelling (built human habitat) [1], the church is called “the holly house”, “house of the God” or “house of the prayer”. The coffin, called “fir tree house, dark room, house without windows and doors”, is that particular space that registers the glide from the “white world”, the world of the living, into the “other realm”, of the dead. The specialists in ethnography have observed that the construction of the casket follows the same design of the unicellular house, “with four walls and a rectangular hip roof”[2].

This special value of dwelling is emphasized linguistically as well. Romanians refer to this closed receptacle for a corpse as “house of the dead”, “fir tree house” pointing out not only the quality of habitation of this particular space, but at the same time, the significance of foundation a new biological and spiritual cycle [3].

In Macedonia, when a young maiden dies, the mourn lament presents the coffin as a “dark room” (bleak room) without any doors or windows that has a cannibalistic function: a person is placed in this covered box and only bones are taken out [4]. The origin of this “flesh eating space” lies in the etymology of the word sarcophagus. The word comes from Latin and Greek, having been derived in Greek from sarx, “flesh”, and phagein, “to eat”. The Greek word sarkophagos meant “eating flesh”, and in the phrase lithos, “stone”. Sarkophagos denoted a limestone that was thought to decompose the flesh of corpses placed in it [5] and hence, this name was given “to a special marble found in Asia Minor, near the territory of ancient Troy, and used in caskets. It was believed to have the property of destroying the entire body, except for the teeth, within a few weeks” [6].

In Romanian traditional village, besides the widespread fir tree coffin with a rectangular hip roof (this roof is called the roof or the lid of the coffin), there is another unusual sort of casket: the coffin with windows and a door. Most of the ethnographers consider that the custom of cutting up windows in the casket began at a more recent date, but there are some who consider that these holes are the representations of the opening of the Dacian funeral urn.

S. Fl. Marian thinks that there is a close connection between the time when it has been forbidden to transport the dead to its grave in an opened casket and the time when the windows appeared. In Bukovina province, for example, is it thought that those two windows cut out next to the dead's head, are made so that he or she could breathe, see the people around the coffin that came to say goodbye and see him or her off to the grave (...), to hear the pieces of advice given before the burial (in Moldavia and Muntenia county), (...) to be able to see the heaven (in Fundu Moldovei county) [7] or to be able to cool ones heart and to be able to smell the thurification [8]. Other explanations for this custom are from pagan origins. If a dead body doesn't rot in its grave, it is believed that something evil has happened. The Romanian peasants think that the frog is able to induce this process of putrefaction by entering the coffin and pinching the nose of the corpse. In some regions, only one window is curved and it indicates the sex of the deceased: to the right of the coffin for women and to the left for men (in Neamt county) [9]. The presence of the door is attested mostly in Transylvania province, the coffin lacking the wooden board where the feet of the dead are, so that the deceased may "chill" [10].

Romulus Vulcănescu considers that the custom of curving the window in the coffin is a continuity element in the mythology of the death and finds its roots in the crack of the Dacian funerar urn. He analyses this particular window, and calls it "the window of the soul". In this way, the soul of the dead was free to get out and then to return to the urn as often as he or she wanted [11].

Once the construction of the coffin is done, the interior is to be taken care of. Romanians use a white cloth to upholster this shelter, in the same way they whiten the walls of the house for the living.

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DEVELOPING MATERIALS ON TRAFFICKING IN HUMAN BEINGS – AN APPROACH

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Abstract

This paper focuses on trafficking in women with particular attention to the current situation in the Balkans and deals with general aspects of the phenomenon, as well as on legal and sociological aspects of it, by offering a picture of the challenge of trafficking in women. Apart from the theoretical knowledge I acquired as part of my research work, I added my slice of contribution to a project related to this growing issue in the region of Balkans, more precisely in Bulgaria and my slice of contribution consisted in making up worksheets based on a, which was partially structured on miming, and partially on the statements of the police officers whose job was to prevent this type of criminality. The results of the project paved way to further practical activities and the worksheets were piloted in other countries belonging to Peacekeeping English Project.

Keywords: trafficking in women, practical activities, video cassette called Open Your Eyes

Trafficking in human beings has become a serious global concern. International criminal groups, whose activities often include other forms of illicit trade such as smuggling of drugs and arms, often control trafficking in persons as well. In addition to abusing human rights, and violating labor and migration laws, trafficking in persons is also a problem of national and international security.

Through the generous support of donor governments, IOM has established itself as an important agency in combating trafficking,

addressing first of all the most vulnerable groups of victims: women and children. There are currently over 70 IOM counter-trafficking projects, active or in development, targeting over 50 countries in Africa, Asia, Central, Eastern and Western Europe, and Latin America, as well as one global assistance project targeting all developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America.

The results of the project I was involved in paved way, as I mentioned previously, to further practical activities and I myself piloted the worksheets with my students at an early stage, by using before watching and while watching activities, as well as freeze frame.

Before watching activities led students into the video via discussion or prediction or by pre-teaching vocabulary essential to understanding the video.

While watching activities exploited the video through a clearly sequenced variety of activity types. Students were asked to watch the video twice.

On the first viewing students were given a global watching task that enabled them to focus on the video rather than on the worksheet.

On the second viewing students were given tasks that required them to watch for detail in order to deepen their understanding of the video.

If students had difficulties with any of these watching- for detail activities , I played that particular section again.

I used other video techniques at points I considered to be appropriate, such as:

Freeze frame

I paused video at a moment of my choice. I then asked my students to predict what happened next or checked their understanding by asking the students to summarise what they have seen.

The strategy of tackling trafficking in women is not easy matter and with this idea in my mind, starting from the premise that it is a challenge, I did my best in order to produce 10 worksheets and I tried to render a picture of trafficking in women by starting with a quiz on background information and ending with a feedback worksheet that best summarized my purposes and reasons for writing about this vulnerable groups of victims.

Today, in the beginning of the twenty-first century, trafficking in human beings is no longer a new issue, although a decade ago it emerged as a major problem all over the world presenting new challenges and demanding new approaches to tackle it. This form of organized criminality, in particular damaging to women trafficked for sexual exploitation, has received increasing attention of governments, societies and the international community in the past few years and it has as a major source the lack of work opportunities which hit more on women than on men in the transition to market economy and this aspect made room to the opportunity to make earnings in sex industry through prostituting either in the home country or abroad, sometimes helped by traffickers. Some begin sex work voluntarily, some are deceived by traffickers with false promises of other work and later forced to commercial sex.

Looking from the migration viewpoint, certain social and economic trends arguably contribute to the rise of irregular migration and trafficking. Globalizing competition presses down wage levels, and in certain service sectors low pay and growth of temporary work are claimed to make the domestic labor force increasingly reluctant to accept such work and rely on unemployment benefits instead. This situation creates demand for foreign labor. For citizens without work in developing or transit countries, possibility to earnings even in the low-pay sectors in the West is attractive and many of them follow the call of the markets either through legal or illegal migration channels.

As women tend to be over-represented in low-wage sectors where migration is increasingly needed, this is favoring the alleged feminization of migration. Clearly women are preferred in the sex sector, which in the last years has expanded in the Balkans.

The widely increased use of information technology in the sex sector, or sex and entertainment industry, has contributed to the general increase of services supplied by the sex sector. Expanding use of internet and the large number of new telephone operators have enlarged the marketing and visibility of sexual and erotic services.

After the dissolution of the Communist block in East Central Europe, the region became an area of emigration as a corridor for undocumented flows towards the Western Europe and elsewhere, through the territories of the present Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, Poland,

Hungary, the Balkans, and the countries of Southern Caucasus. Bulgaria is part of this corridor zone, it has been the exposed and used as a transit country for undocumented migration, being also to some extent a country of destination, with a large number of trafficked women. This trend is confirmed by the statistics.

After becoming transition economies, some states from Balkan countries, along with the regained independence, adopted firm orientation towards Euro-Atlantic democracies, including prospective accession to NATO and the European Union. In the course of EU accession preparations, in particular the transposition of the Union's *acquis communautaire* and creating administrative capacity needed for its implementation, the states have been successful in making the rule of law, democracy and market economy reality, thus making accession to the EU an issue of the foreseeable future. In the field of trafficking, the most important EU documents are the Joint Action from 1997, and the Proposal of the European Commission from December 2000 for a Council Framework Decision on combating trafficking in human beings, which was scheduled to enter into force in 2001. These documents outline numerous measures in combating trafficking in the EU member states providing a map to EU candidate countries in combating and preventing trafficking in women.

A common obstacle to creating new police forces or other similar law enforcement capacities in the region and other transition countries is often the lack of resources. Assistance from the international community, in particular the EU and its member states, is of vital importance in speeding up many needed reforms.

By focusing on trafficking in women for purposes of sexual exploitation, especially prostitution, this paper, together with the worksheets produced, highlight the gender-specific nature of many violations of human rights the trafficking victims are subjected to. Trafficking in women has fundamental connections to the feminization of poverty, the denial of equal rights and the lack of economic opportunities as well as women's deprivation of social power in many countries. In Europe, the profile of trafficking in women has changed considerably during the last decade. Despite the many prohibitions against trafficking, international networks that market women for prostitution continue to thrive. Their success can be

attributed to several factors, including the global economic trends, the declining socio-economic status of women, the enormous profit-oriented pimps, part of the large chain of organized crime as trafficking in general and trafficking in women in particular have become major activities for organized crime networks together with the drugs traffic and the illegal arms.

Typically the victims from Central and Eastern Europe countries tend to be poor women who, due to the economic gap between Western and Eastern Europe, are seeking to work in the West. As a result of their general vulnerability to exploitation by traffickers and their unequal "bargaining power" many of these women are deceived by traffickers and their intermediaries to think they will become e.g. models or dancers in the country of destination -others may know in advance they will be working in the sex industry but are deceived about the slavery like conditions of their subsequent work. In both cases the women incur debts to the traffickers and intermediaries, and are compelled to work them off. They are subjected to abuse and violence, deprived of their travel documents, often literally kept under lock and key and forced to engage in prostitution, pornography and other forms of sexual exploitation in often inhumane conditions. Typically the victims are in the country illegally or even if they have entered the country by legal means (e.g. on a tourist visa), their subsequent involvement in prostitution (be it voluntary or not) has made their situation illegal in the eyes of the law of the destination country. This irregular status makes seeking help from the authorities risky even if traffickers and club owners do not forcibly detain the victims. As a result they are isolated and become socially and culturally marginalized.

Lamentably, when the existing norms applicable to trafficking cases actually are enforced - which is rare enough - the most likely targets are the victims of trafficking, not their traffickers. For if the women do manage to escape or come in contact with the police e.g. as a result of a brothel raid, they are often arrested themselves as illegal immigrants, and simply detained and then expelled from the country. Deportation for its part exposes them to a great risk of re-trafficking unless considerable attention is given to the circumstances to which the victims are returned. Upon return to their home country the

victims are stigmatised by their experiences and easily threatened and further abused by trafficking networks. Even in cases where the victims of trafficking are not treated as offenders themselves as a rule their human rights are not sufficiently protected and they receive insufficient assistance in the country of destination.

In order to avoid misunderstandings, I mentioned right at the beginning of this paper that trafficking is by no means a new phenomenon; but today this complex and multi-faceted phenomenon has become a global multi-billion dollar trade making huge profits for the sex industry.

A partial explanation to why the trafficking trade continues to flourish despite increased awareness of the phenomenon in the past decades is because so far no unified action has been introduced among countries destination to take action on the issue through legislation, appropriate policies and international cooperation and because the seriousness of the issue is not always recognized in countries of origin and transit. In addition trafficking in women particularly for purposes of sexual exploitation (such as prostitution and pornography) brings up issues of public policy. Approaches to trafficking in women greatly draw from attitudes to prostitution in general, and these vary greatly from one country to another. Unsurprisingly both the current international and European measures against trafficking in women reflect this hotchpotch of responses.

At the starting point of my work, it seemed to me to be wise to define the term trafficking as the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or the use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception,

of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability, or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.

A more important distinction than the trafficking/trafficking for sexual exploitation is actually the distinction between smuggling in persons and trafficking (for sexual or other exploitation) that emerges

when a perspective based on human rights is adopted. Smuggling is a crime against state sovereignty; it has to do with facilitating illegal migration (persons are delivered to the country of destination, after which they are generally on their own). With trafficking (in women) the traffickers and their agents recruit and deliver the women to exploitative conditions where they lose control of their lives (through debt-bondage and extortion) and are forced to engage in prostitution, pornography and forced marriages. While trafficking obviously can be a form of irregular migration, this migration dimension of trafficking does not place it in the purview of smuggling; trafficking is a crime against the individual, and only secondarily a violation of state sovereignty. Trafficking for sexual exploitation is obviously connected with other forms of bonded labor (and both are, for that reason, called slavery or slavery-like practices).

Though trafficking and smuggling in persons should be conceptually kept apart, at the same time it is important to notice that trafficking raises similar migration questions as smuggling in persons with regard to the balance between border controls and freedom of movement and the influence of strict migration regimes such as the European Union (EU). The European Union aim is to create an area of free movement inside the Union while simultaneously allowing only limited access from non-EU nationals. The economic gap between EU member states and many of their non-EU neighbors creates migration pressures in sending countries and this increased willingness to migrate "in hope of a better life" contributes to trafficking by making women vulnerable to trafficking networks. And once inside the EU area, the free movement within the Union facilitates trafficking by removing obstacles such as border controls and visa requirements.

Altogether there were 10 worksheets produced under the pertinent supervision of Mrs. Esther Hay, the manageress of the English Peacekeeping Project with the British Council, Bucharest. I would selectively mention one of them (worksheet four) focused on vocabulary.

These experiences were very challenging in my personal professional development and the worksheets I produced, as a whole, are all facets of the same process, that is, the development of cohesive

and supportive activities, encouraging participation, setting shared goals and generally learning to work together in a positive way.

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THE SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH TO IDENTITY

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Abstract

The present paper makes a synthesis of the main sociological perspectives on the problem of identity: the theory of the structural symbolic interaction (the structural approach - Stryker and collaborators, the cognitive approach - Burke and collaborators), the cybernetic model inspired by Powers's conception, the affect control theory (Heise and collaborators). We discuss concepts such as: social structure, identity formation, social and role identity, multiple identity, prominent and salient identity, identity standard, the affect control."

Key words: sociological perspectives, identity, social role, multiple identity

The present vision of sociology on the problem of identity is tributary to W. James's conception, according to which we have a "self" for every position we hold in society. Starting from this idea, the sociologists consider that the self as a whole is made up of multiple parts, named identities, each of them corresponding to a position or role that the person has. Styker defines the identity as "an internalized positional indication". Thus, an identity is the self playing a certain social role, and the content of identity is given by the meanings the individual confers to the components of the role as a member of the group, as owner of the role or as person.

Burke (1980) shows that every identity has a counterpart. The interactions between people do not involve the whole person, but only those aspects of it called identities. When we assume an identity (for example the one of father) there exists an other person who assumes a complementary identity (that of son). We behave in accordance with

the assumed identity at a particular moment; moreover, we can easily operate with more identities simultaneously.

When we bring into discussion the social structure, the identity, as well as the role and the status that an individual receives or assumes, we see that it is relatively fixed, stable, socially prescribed. The individuals are actors that play a role, and the variations due to the individual differences that these confer to the role are insignificant; they can hold or abandon a social position, but it will remain and will always be held by one person or another.

The theory of identity is part of a structural-symbolic interaction perspective. Within the theory, there are two major orientations:

- Stryker and his collaborators lay the emphasis on the way in which the social structure influences the identity and the relations between identities (The structural approach)
- Burke and his collaborators mainly study the internal cognitive elements from the structure of the self that lead to the achievement of identity (The cognitive approach). A slightly different variant of this orientation can be found in the research of Heise, McKinnon and Smith-Lovin, who focus mostly on the culturally shared significance of identity and less on the individual, subcultural or group significance.

The structural symbolic interaction theory is based on a series of principles underlined by Stryker (apud Stets and Burke, 2005). The basic assumption is that the world we live in is a “classified” world, every class having a name. The significance of each name is given by the shared answers and the behavioral expectations generated by social interactions. Among these names there are symbols which designate positions in the social structure. When the individuals “name” one another and themselves, that is they mutually recognize their positions and consciously affirm their own position at a social level, they create expectations of others and of themselves. These expectations function as a guide for social behavior. They permanently restructure the content of social interactions, as well as the utilized categories, the names and the meanings. There results a process of negotiation of social significances, the negotiation being considered one of the main components of the theory of identity.

Starting from these, Stets and Burke (2000) define identity as the “categorization of the self as the performer of a role”. The consequence is “the incorporation of the meanings and of the expectations associated with the role and its achievement in the self”. The social actors recognize one another as holders of different positions or roles in society.

For Turner, assuming a role identity means the fusion between the role and the person. McCall and Simmons consider that the role identity refers to the character and to the role the individual attributes to himself as a result of holding a particular social position. The role identity has two dimensions: a conventional one, which is dependent on the social prescriptions and an idiosyncratic one, which is dependent on the interpretations each individual confers to the role. The two dimensions can be found in variable proportions in every possible identity of a person. Due to the fact that the self is made up of more role identities, these have the tendency to organize themselves in a hierarchical way, according to the competence criterion, following internal criteria, which, the authors affirm, belong to the ideal self of the person. The prominence of an identity depends on the degree of support the others provide for the respective identity, on the degree of commitment of the person to that identity, and on the internal and external rewards the person receives for assuming that identity.

McCall and Simmons lay the emphasis on importance of negotiation in the establishing of the identity, a phenomenon triggered by the differences existing between the significances and the expectations associated to a role by the individual and by the person who plays the complementary role. In interaction, every one comes with his own conceptions about himself and about the other, conceptions that must be adjusted and harmonized by means of coordination and compromise so that the interactions end well.

Just like the above mentioned authors, Stryker considers that the multiple role identities of a person organize themselves in a hierarchical way, but the principle of organization is based on the salience of an identity and not on its prominence. The prominent identity is the one the individual values more than the others, while the salient identity is the one that is activated more frequently in various situations. Even though the two concepts are strongly

connected, Stryker and Serpe consider that they must remain distinct, justifying this idea with the fact that, in many situations, the individual can be coerced to behave in ways that are not in accordance with what he values.

According to Stryker and Serpe, the salience of an identity is strongly influenced by the commitment of the individual to that identity. The commitment can be quantitative (the greater the number of persons we are tied to by the respective identity, the stronger the commitment) or qualitative (the strength of the commitment depends on the depth of the ties with the others, ties based on the respective identity). The stronger the commitment of a person to an identity, the greater his salience, and, as a consequence, his place in the hierarchy will be higher. A salient identity will manifest itself more frequently in the case of varied social situations.

The idea of the existence of multiple identities occupies a central place in the theory of identities. Thoits (apud Stets and Burke, 2005) shows that the healthier, from a mental point of view, a man is, the more identities he has. The opposite is also true: the healthier, from a mental point of view, a man is, the more capable and willing he is to assume more identities. However, the role identities like those of parent, husband/wife and employee are beneficial for the mental health of the one who owns them, as long as there are no chronic tensions at their level. The roles assumed voluntarily reduce the stress of the individual because they produce satisfaction and can be abandoned when they become difficult.

Burke and his collaborators focused especially on the internal dynamics of the formation of identity. The main ideas developed in their papers can be synthesized by the following (Stets and Burke, 2005):

- the identity and the behavior are connected by a common system of significances/meanings; thus, the identification of the meaning a role has for an individual has a predictive value for his behavior;
- the significance of a role identity is perceived and learned through the interaction with the others because they behave toward the individual as if he had an identity adequate to his

role behavior; thus, “the role identity acquires significance through the reaction of the others”¹;

- the differences of significances conferred to the role identity are attenuated through negotiation in the process of interaction;
- each role identity contains multiple sets of significances, both for a unique individual, as well as for different individuals; the multiple identities of an individual start to share common meanings as a response to the structural conditions in which they are put into practice;

The modern developments of this perspective start from a **cybernetic model** inspired by the conception of Powers. According to this model, the activation of an identity in a social situation triggers a feedback type of circuit (feedback loop). The circuit has four components:

- the standard (the meaning for oneself)
- the perceptual input from the relevant significances for the self in that particular situation (the way in which the individual sees himself is added to it)
- the process of comparing the perceptual input with the standard (the comparator)
- the output to the environment (significant behavior)

The system will modify the output toward the social context when trying to adjust the impact so that it matches the internal standard. In other words, the individual tries to change the external circumstances so that the significances attached to them should match the significances of the internal standards attached to the identity (self-verification). When these coincide or are very similar, the behaviors correspond to the meanings attached to the identities. If they do not overlap, the individual will try to modify the meanings attached to the situation by adopting some behaviors adequate for this purpose.

The significant behavioral outputs of an identity are the role behaviors. The individuals mutually validate these identities by accepting the role behaviors of the others. The self-verification is

¹ Stets, J.E., Burke, P.J. (2005) – *A Sociological Approach to Self and Identity*, in Handbook of Self and Identity, Guilford Press

possible when there exist cooperation and mutuality regarding validation. In most of the cases, negotiation is needed for the individuals to achieve self-verification. Burke and Stets show that the aspect of self-verification of the identitary processes plays an important role in the way the individual assumes commitments. The commitment makes the connection between behavior and identity stronger (high commitment) or lower (low commitment). An individual with a strong commitment to a certain identity will try to maintain a high congruence between the meanings of the “self in situation” (the perceptual input) and the meanings comprised in the identitary standard.

Freeze and Burke (apud. Stets and Burke, 2005) expand this cybernetic model in the direction of understanding the significances included in the identitary standard, which includes both symbols (shared meanings), as well as signs (stimuli). The signs “translate” the meanings through which the individuals relate directly with their environment. The “the objects”, which can be utilized in, transformed into and transferred to interaction situations are included. Thus, the idea of the control of resources appears (through the significance of the signs); consequently, the performing of a social role becomes a symbolic interaction and, at the same time, an interaction of the signs. The signs (resources) and the symbols included in a social situation are manipulated in such a way so that their significance can be harmonized with those contained by the role identity. The utilization of this model of identity has, as Burke affirms, a great predictive value as far as the distribution of resources and power within social interaction is concerned.

This cybernetic model of identity illustrates the role of the perceptual system of control as a self-regulation system. It bears similarities with the theory of Carver and Scheier regarding the self-regulated behavior, making thus the connection between the sociological vision of the self and the psychological theories regarding it. The two authors mentioned above approach the social behavior from the perspective of the attention processes. Their initial research was aimed at verifying Wicklund’s theory on self-awareness. Eventually, the two researchers came up with their own theory of self-regulation the main ideas of which are the following (Boncu, 1996):

- the individuals permanently relate their behaviors to the goals they establish; this relation provides a feeling of coherence and continuity of one's own being, based on the storage, by the memory, of the experience generated by the exertion of past behaviors;
- the individual experiences are kept in memory in a classified way, the classification criteria being the goals pursued by the individual;
- the information about past behaviors and their results is utilized as standard or comparator when one wants to establish or achieve a new goal; the utilization of the comparator results in the detection, reduction or annihilation of any difference between the standard value and the information from the environment, by means of a feedback mechanism;
- thus, there results a complex self-regulation mechanism, which makes the constancy of behavior possible and which is based on the conception about the self;
- the flexibility of the human behavior and the huge number of behavioral variations are justified by the authors by means of an idea of an action hierarchical organization, which involves a hierarchy of the control systems, extended on several levels, according to the de level of abstraction of the goals; in this hierarchy, the feedback makes the connection between different levels, and the superior level control systems become goals for those of inferior level;
- in this hierarchy of the control systems, the reference values (the standards) have different degrees of abstractization, starting from those that are at the basis of the hierarchy (concrete values like the muscle tension), to the intermediary ones (values with a higher degree of abstractization, like the physical activity through which the behavior is achieved) and to the superior, the abstract ones (described in terms of personality traits);
- the ideal selves are at the top of the hierarchy of the action control systems; this idea is the link between the theories of the self and those of the behavior. It enables an efficient

analysis of the human personality from the point of view of the goals that motivate and determine it to act.

Carver and Scheier advocate the point of view according to which “self-regulation” is more efficient when the individual has the attention focused on himself. In this situation, the tendency to make comparisons between the reference value and conduct is accentuated and the action will be optimally carried out”²

The affect control theory was developed by Heise and his collaborators. In the vision of these researchers, the identity also contains significances related to the self, but not in the sense of those identified by Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum: evaluation, potency and activity. These are fundamental feelings of a person fulfilling a certain social role – similar to Burke’s identitary standard. Every social situation has certain characteristics and “perceived significances concerning the self” (perceived self-meanings), which the authors call transients. If these do not match the fundamental feelings, the individual will try to restore the concordance between the two by means of corresponding actions.

In the theory of identity a special interest was shown for the role of emotion. The cybernetic model of identity postulates the fact that any discrepancy perceived by the comparator between the perceived significances of the self-in-situation and the significances contained in the standard of the identity generate negative emotional activation - depression, distress, fury, and hostility. The absence of such a discrepancy means the validation of the identity through self-verification, which results in an emotional activation felt as high self-respect and control/masterliness.

In the theory of identity, McCall and Simmons (apud Burke and Stets, 2005) show that the threats against a prominent identity – often caused by the lack of support from the others for the performing of a role – trigger a negative emotional response.

Styker (apud Stets and Burke, 2005) discusses the way in which emotions and identity relate to each other within a salience based hierarchy: the identities that arouse positive feelings are manifested

² Neculau, A. (coord.) (1996) – *Psihologie socială*, Editura Polirom, Iași

more often and thus they climb up the hierarchy, while the identities that arouse negative feelings are avoided and they climb down the hierarchy of identities. Moreover, those identities that are manifested in an inadequate way can not be supported by the other social actors, a fact that will also generate negative feelings, as well as the situation in which the role expectations are not fulfilled.

As far as the theory of the control of the affect is concerned, beside the negative feelings aroused by the discrepancies between the fundaments and the transients, he discusses the idea according to which the expression of emotion is an event that itself determines the movement of the transient toward fundamental feelings. Unlike the theory of identity, in this approach, a perceived discrepancy is thought to be able to generate positive emotions when the expectations attached to the identity are overcome.

Stets shows that in the theory of identity that the discrepancy as well as the frequent interruptions of the process of identity results in an intensification of the negative emotions. Nevertheless, in his research, he reaches the conclusion that the discrepancies do not always generate negative emotions. He shows that positive emotions appear, for example, in the situation when the individual is over-rewarded. The granting of an over-reward, more likely a punishment, determines the realigning of the standard in a positive direction to correspond to the new level. However, the reward must be appropriate as proportion or importance and, when this thing occurs, the consequences are the following: the self is hardened and the discrepancy between standard and perception (reward) is removed. If the reward is exaggerated, a negative emotion appears because the level difference between standard and perception can not be adjusted; therefore, the self-verification is not possible.

The researchers who work with the theory of identity agree on a central idea: when the self-verification is not possible, for various reasons, the emotional response can be intense. If the individual feels a negative emotion, he will try to get rid of it in two ways: he will either change the way of acting, or he will modify his way of thinking. Any of these modalities, Burke says, has as a result the acquisition of higher congruences of the self; these are two coping strategies: the former is a behavioral strategy, the latter, a cognitive one. In a

development of this idea, Ellestad and Stets (apud Stets and Burke, 2005) show that the high salience of an identity determines the person to apply coping behavioral strategies to reaffirm his role identity toward himself and toward others who are significant. The recent research done by Stets and Tsushima (apud Stets and Burke, 2005) confirms that the individuals tend to adopt cognitive coping strategies when there occur disturbances at the level of an identity based on the group, like the intimate ones (for example, the familial identity) and behavioral coping strategies when there occur disturbances at the level of identities based on the role, which are less intimate (like, for example, the identities based on occupation or profession).

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MIRCEA ELIADE – GROUP PHOTO WITH A GENTLEMAN

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Abstract

For those living today, the cultural battles of the between-war period have under no circumstance a strictly archeological interest. Many of the issues the young intellectuals from the 1930s-1940s confronted themselves with are also the controversies of the contemporary culture: the identity of a generation, the need for recognition, the revelation of an efficient cultural politics, the access to the world culture. This paper professes itself to act as a group photography. What it proposes itself is to colour the sepia picture in the same way are transformed the old films, but without thickening the hues or distorting the attitudes. The protagonists of this frame are the young people around Mircea Eliade. Obviously, the indiscreet gaze may catch other figures, which did not belong to the group, but that supplemented the frame. Therefore, our endeavour is focused on several aspects which we consider fundamental: the definition of the term generation within the background of the age evoked, the relations and tensions from within the group and its evolution, the types of discourse that legitimized the group, the contingency (often conflicting) from which they distanced themselves.

1. The history of a generation

The first time the term “generation” was used is to be found in an article signed by the young Eliade in “Cuvântul”, a highly significant article in terms of message, attitude; even through its title (*Noi și Nicolae Iorga*), the teenager had provoked a genuine personal war, from obvious unequal positions, with the Romanian historian, (who at that time had become in the Romanian environment not only an

absolute authority, but also a cultural one, a quasi-mythic personality). The strategy the young revolutionary had in mind aimed at a rebalancing of forces: Goliat had to be attacked by a small, but brave, brilliant, army. The intellectual fight triggered by Mircea Eliade makes us think at one of the first memories of the child, the invention of the invincible personal army, a memory the author himself evokes in *Memorii Memoirs*:

In that very morning I discovered that I can comfort myself, even take avenge. It happened as follows. I imagined that in a corn field outside Bucharest a group of Romanian soldiers had hidden themselves. At the beginning, they were unarmed or almost unarmed; they had a sole rifle, some side-arms, a gun. However, I quickly gave up to this fantasy and I got them armed to the teeth. Initially, there were only three, four soldiers and an officer. Soon I discovered that in the same corn-field others had hidden themselves. I started to bring them together, to organise them. I was lying on the bed, the eyes ajar, not knowing very well what was happening with me, asking myself where fthat secret, almost guilty happiness sprung from. I clang to my own fantasies, connected by an invisible yarn, as if I would wake up, called by my mother, I felt that the yarn broke and I would find myself in the everyday world, still profoundly affected by the memory of what I had seen in my imagination [...] Only when the two Romanian armies - the true and the secret one - met, the war would start under different conditions. . [5, 32-34]

Thus, we are either facing an symbolic automatic release for what will become the spectral potential of the future writer, or we witness the debut of a cultural personality, the same mechanism seems to motivate the reveries and the civic courage: the desire for power. Additional to the restless intellectual curiosity, the attraction exerted by everything that meant information, idea, all that bore an air of enigma, of a potential mystery, made up together with a great pride the personality core of Mircea Eliade . It is in the following way he depicts his feelings in “Gaudeamus”:

I got stirred not only by the things that were said against me, but especially by the ones that were not said. [...] I was thinking: Don' t the gentlemen want to know? Are they ignoring, stubbornly, my writing? The better. Soon they will have to know, because this is my

will! For me, the sentencing of the commandment: I want it! It is a quasi-magic ritual. They picked on it! So many years of tormented boyhood, so many experiences, so many ... reading hours! My will turned for me into a reality, which gathered on the shelves or in my drawers. [4, 222]

At the time he published the article *Noi și Nicolae Iorga*, the young man's visibility was rising: after he had published a great deal of scientific articles, closer to a more popular formula, he started to unravel his amazing erudition and had already attacked Nicolae Iorga's method of historical research and information, making room to strong reactions (for example, the withdrawal of an awards consisting in a few thousand lei he had obtained at Mircea Florian's seminar and as well as the nervousness of some newsagents who had prevented him up to that moment). He was his own spokesman and had already rippled some waves. Now he was speaking on behalf of a whole generation: "the first generation that eschewed Iorga's influence" and no longer hinted at the "myth of erudition" of the great scholar, but mainly, the fact that "an excellent historian ... compromised himself by entering the political arena".

The next step to consolidate the fame Eliade enjoyed among the young men of his age is represented by the series of articles published during 1927 in „Cuvântul”, articles which bore the generic title of *Itinerariu spiritual (Spiritual Itinerary)*, followed by the highly popular among the young students all over Romania and Europe, *Scrisori către un provincial (Letters to a provincial)*. The impact of these articles on the intellectuals who were studying was immense; in *Memorii (Memoirs)*, Eliade confesses that he received an impressive number of letters from the young people, all in an admiring tone, all bearing the desire to resemble him or to repeat his intellectual experiences. We can discover here a double-meaning phenomenon of identification : on one side, the author of the articles projects his own aspirations against the background of his generation and on the other side, the young people who were searching for a model attach it to Mircea Eliade.

One can say that Mircea Eliade is the architect of "generaționismului"/ generationism; his need for recognition of being assigned a particular symbolic capital was so great that the sole

quality/ status of a genius (described according to Romantic criteria as solitary, misunderstood, poor) was not enough.

If the status of an ideologist is shared with his mentor, Nae Ionescu, his strategic plans and actions are owed to the latter to a large extent. The traits through which the young journalist defines the profile of his generation can be systemized, following the references Eliade himself mentions in the contemporary press as well as later on, in his memoirs. Thus, “Life, as it hits us in a painful way and very early, brought us closer to the unknown realities of the others” stated Eliade in one of his articles from *Itinerariu spiritual*, (Spiritual Itinerary) [3, 29], with reference to his war experience under whose sign his childhood years were. “These war generation was meant, according to his ideologist, to reveal the salient values and to rebuild the Romanian spirituality. Moreover, most of the generations that mattered in the history of our culture (the forerunners of the moment mentioned here: those from 1848 or those belonging to Junimea) had a similar feeling of the new, of the setting of a foundation. It is barely when the young contemporaries of Eliade engaged in the Avant-garde movement, that we can actually speak of a negation sense, of demolition, opposed to the frequent previous constructive impulses. The novelty of this generation, at least at the declarative level, is the cult of “manliness”, motivated mainly by the early contact with the atrocities of the war. The cliché of “manliness” may sketch a route: it was taken by Eliade from one of the authors who decisively influenced his life vision (Giovanni Papini and his work *Maschilita*), and it gained the connotations of spiritual forces, of the courage to assume the intellectual status (as opposed to the old definitions of courage as physical braveness); he was then associated with a religious dimension: “We are revived through manliness as we come back to life through Christianity: through effective alteration of our life through sublimation, through transfiguration ” [3, p53], to which the nationalist dimension was added and from here, through a mutation of a semantic politics led the option for the Legion of Archangel Michael. What I find essential in this itinerary is that the entire generation mobilized its energies hoping to surpass the status of belonging to a provincial and mediocre culture, the mimetic spirit and

the genuine complexes that haunted as a catastrophe the Romanian culture.

The last two stages of the history of Mircea Eliade's generation are as passionate as ever, both through its spectacular content and through the conflicting relation that can be established between them. The same actors are cast in totally different roles. The collective character that was created here, surpassing the frames of the plain mental projection of the leader, made its debut on the cultural and political scene through the conferences of the Criterion group. What may actually amaze the researcher of that age is the absolute democratic nature, lacking in prejudices or taboos of the conference's thematic. In a genuine spirit of freedom, the young participants from Criterion spoke to the public about Hitler, Mussolini, India, Chaplin, Paul Valery, Gide, or about jazz. The members of the group either belonged to the Legion or were members of the Communist Party, nationalists and even Jews. Provided that we intend to find an idealized image of what it meant the between-war period, we may evoke the meetings from the Criterion having the same justification and nostalgia as when we evoke the flower battles from the Avenue. However, as happens any time we take as benchmark an idyllic situation, the cracks tend to threaten the unity of the building. In this case, we cannot ignore the violent reactions of the public divided between conflicting political sympathies. Mircea Eliade mentions in his *Memoirs* the way the representatives of the Iron Guards boycotted the procommunist speakers or those having a Jewish origin. It is highly emotional the moment when Mihail Sebastian ready to hold a conference about the cinematographic art of the great Charlie Chaplin, interrupts his discourse because of a commentary coming from the audience: "A Jewish man speaking about another one". It is the moment when Sebastian gets on his feet, tears up his papers and announces: "I intended to speak about a particular aspect of Charlot's art, but someone among yourself reminded me about Jews. And I will speak, as a Jew, about the Jew named Charlot" [5, 237]. We ask ourselves what might have happened that some people of such moral verticality, supportive of Castalia and decided to redirect the destiny of the Romanian culture, to give in to the ideological pressings, getting divided, hurting and humiliating or hunting each other. Thus,

we reach at the last part of the route I remembered, located at the opposite pole of the previous intellectual liberty: Mircea Eliade, like Emil Cioran or Constantin Noica become members of the legionary movement, Mihail Sebastian publishes numerous bereavement pages caused by the hostility of his great friends (Nae Ionescu and Mircea Eliade).

2. The generationist/ “générationist” discourse

I name “generationist”/ “générationist” a construct which I obtained through a synthesis of the speeches produced at that time: articles published de well-known representatives of the generation, essays, interventions of a political nature, but also replies of some novel characters (supporting my theory on the polyphonic character/dialogic of the literary text (Bahtin), paratopic space (Maingueneau), in which varied discourses are intersected either in a complementary or compositional manner.

The générationist discourse is a type of discourse meant to legitimate a group , a discourse through which the members of this generation tried to express their beliefs and gain credibility, it is also an identitarian kind of speech, that aimed at illustrating the group’s personality and discover what these young people considered to represent the deep, genuine identity of their nation. Equally, this can be thought as a constitutive discourse. The concept of “constitutive discourse” was introduced in linguistics in an article from 1995 by D. Maingueneau și F. Cossutta and was subsequently explained as follows:

The phrase “constitutive” discourse fundamentally refers to those types of discourses which present themselves as discourses of origin, being validated by a situation of enunciation which is self-authorizing. [...] The constitutive discourses determine what can be called as the archegonia of a collectivity [...] In their quality of speeches which give meaning to all collective acts, the constitutive discourses guarantee numerous types of speeches. [...] Through their use, the questions referring to charisma, incarnation, the delegation of the Absolute/ Supreme are clearly formulated [...] [7, pp.64-65].

The majority of the discursive types produced by Mircea Eliade’s generation are marked by this stern, foundational tone, tightly

connected to the great issues of human existence and identity and most of them aim to re-dimension their contemporaries' perspectives, to test their values. In addition to some preferred thematic discourses (erudition, askesis, manliness understood as a form of courage in assuming the intellectual experiences, mysticism) the generationist kind of discourse is particularized by a specific rhetoric. Emil Cioran, then a teenager, notices that Eliade's articles published in "Cuvântul" bear the peculiar quality of his writing, which could "transform any idea in something exciting, contagious, and surround it in an aura of hysteria [...], a positive hysteria, stimulating, healthy" [Cioran, 2003, p. 129]. The aspect that dumbfounded the young reader- which in fact determined a real cult of Eliade- was the pathos he revealed when expressing his ideas. As a reader at the Bucharest University, subsequently as a professor at the University of Chicago, Mircea Eliade gave the impression of a spontaneous and passionate speaker, led by an authentic restless state of mind, as if tormented by his ideas, incapable to master the verbal flux with the speed of articulation of the words. "The hysteria" Cioran mentions, is for him, obviously, interpreted as the key of a "tragic hysteria" that is embedded in Nietzsche's discourse and under his influence it is embedded in the expressionist and the so-called "trärist" literature. In fact, Nietzsche's rhetoric is echoed in Emil Cioran's essays and one can detect it also in the articles of the young Eliade which we recognize and we allow ourselves to be seduced by what in our turn characterizes us ...

The generationist discourse is particularized, according to the writer's personality. Eliade's formula presupposes prophetic phrases, paradoxes, a quasi-uncensored lyricism and habitual parades of his erudition. In Mihail Sebastian's case, the tone that makes it peculiar is the bitter humour that doubles the serious statements. Emil Cioran's is on the edge of the eschatological and on the brink of perpetual desperation. The statement referring to an "aura of hysteria" best suits to Cioran, as long as one removes the epithets applied to Eliade (such as positive, healthy).

The discursive exultation, irresistible and contagious for the entire generation stirred the greatest restraints from the critics, such as Camil Petrescu or Ţerban Cioculescu. The former considered that the Eliade's effort to define and impose its own generation through

frequent accusations of the “old generation”, in whose group was included also the novelist were merely empty words: “Why this hurry in characterizing a virtuality? The generation I speak about has produced nothing” (C. Petrescu, „Generația de azi” / “Today's Generation” in “Universul literar”, 17 June 1928) Camil Petrescu is not at least indulgent with the young man who fought to impose his “secret army”. Full of sarcasm, the novelist labels Eliade as a Balkanic Dalai-Lama or a fanatic and mystical phraseologist [idem, 8th July. 1928]. The last statement, which was the title of a pamphlet addressed to the young uncomfortable man, accurately and intuitively synthesizes two of the starker features of the generationist discourse.

Obviously, not all the young intellectual wrote in Eliade's exalted manner. The profile I try to create, double-faced irony should be added. The first one, an acid one, of a pamphleteering nature (mainly when it is directed towards the old generation-from which the members of the Criterion felt the need to distance themselves), an the second one, sooner playful, closer to parody (as in the two volumes published in 1934, the surprising „Nu!” by Eugen Ionescu, respectively „În genul tinerilor...” de Nicolae Steinhardt). What I strive to define in the present paper as generationis discourse had already been fully created since it was submitted to parody. This is one of the secrets of parody: you cannot apply the well-determined models and enjoys fame. Steinhardt's parodies, as an argument favoring the “air of generation”- tone, ideology, writing practices, easily-spotted stereotypes. The profile made by Antisthius includes various manners, kaleidoscopically juxtaposed, deconstructed to reveal its mechanisms. Eliade, Petru Comarnescu, Constantin Noica, Emil Cioran are only some of the personalities that are turned into characters that make up a comedy of literature the parody author staged. „În genul tinerilor...” represents one of the most vivacious and relevant characterization made about Mircea Eliade's generation. The work is at the same time, friendly exaggeration meant to consolidate the young men's position within the cultural fields and mockery in such way constructed as to temperate something of the potential self-admiration for those parodied - having thus a subversive effect. Intending to confront the original object and the caricatural product, to

observe the game and briefly isolate the discursive articulations, I selected some of the texts that bear Eliade and Antisthius' signatures:

a) *Amidst this total decomposing or total social swamp we live in -a sole cry deserves to be cried out: the joy, the praise, the prophetic hope. A single gesture deserves to be fulfilled : the gesture of creation, the gesture of life that knows to resume everything from the very beginning, the furious gesture of the mason that raises in a single day a foundation which the destiny of the night breaks it down. Amidst the contemporary hell, with its decomposed impressions, with its cadaver like phosphorescent lights, with its human dirt, with its ethic mess, with its spiritual ethos- a single force has to raise its arms: its manliness, the pride of suffering, the pride of misery and that of disillusioned hope. When everything around you it turns rotten, why should you be afraid? [...] it is true, we are stupid and unworthy, we are insignificant and sinful, incapable, scurvy, trifles, mediocre, whatever you want. Facing these truths, I wish a dozen of young men could shout: So what? [...] To shout daily, in front of every man, on any occasion: Well, so what ? Well, so what ? - M. Eliade, Invitație la bărbătie, [3, pp. 209-210]*

b) *Emil Gulian Sahib proclaims me absolute chief of the entire generation, its sole echo. I step - victoriously- ahead. All are fascinated. I watch them cruelly and neronically and they shiver, they bend as the shrubs at the blowing of the phaunic wind. [...] They rush, I become the centre of their focus, they think me ill, they ask me what is wrong with me. I say nothing for a long time and I observe them as they undergo moments of terror. Every gesture I make becomes microscopically examined. They wait. Finally, I recover myself, I go farther. They are relieved. What was that? I ask myself. I deny and answer: "Your ignorance does not surprise me. You are incapable to understand the cosmic emptiness of a humiliated man. Dived in electricity and scurvy, you forgot all about the divine of the biology and the rhythms of the polycentric illusion. Man lives substantially only in the dynamics of the biological, in the chaste immortality of being the ultimacy, far from the stupidity of reasoning. I invite you to the tragic clownery, where the theocratic paradox ..." Enough, they shout, this is too much, we cannot bear all out of a sudden . Enough, magister, says Boz Sahib, you are like an Asian lightening that has*

fallen amidst us, enough, can't you see. The sea's waves are growing, the women quiver, the fountains are shaking, dogs bark, do not overwhelm us from the very beginning. [...] Behold! The whole group exclaimed. He left as a man and returned as a god! [10, 60-61]

The prophetic nature of his speech, typical for Eliade is grotesquely replied: the same exclamations and rhetoric interrogations appear transformed in a narrative process that comically punctuates the cries for action directed towards his generation, in fact the need for admiration of the young intellectual. That defiant "So what?" through which Eliade invited the young Romanians to address to his co-nationals and fate altogether, concentrates an entire theory over the existence. The young people have to stop endlessly lamenting about their marginal conditions. The young people have to become the "new people" of their age. The enthusiasm of creation has to replace the shame of being Romanian, as well as the one of being modern. These statements bear within a persuasive force that is related to the imperative tone, the symmetry of syntax and the surprise produced by the snap, iterated questions ("So what?"); the rhythm enfilades, they are punctual and shocking attacks at the ossified mentalities. The tone is both snappy and stern, appropriate to a mobilizing act. The explosive language is charged fatically, emotionally and conatively.

All these features are redirected in a parodic line: the explosion alters into sibilance. The narrative rhythm, in concessive accents (as Eliade's habit along with other young people to turn metaphysics into journal) becomes dilated and de-tensed. The final air of the texts rarefies, transforming the tension of the message in a comic pantomime. The image of the hero is transformed from messianic to carnivalesque. In fact, in its essence, the parody is a carnival genre (Bakhtin). Any parodic speech becomes comic. Steinhardt uses the change of key, similar process to interpreting a musical part and modifies, implicitly, the semantics of the discourse. The diminishing, the relativity are actions meant to counterbalance the excessive gravity of some speeches that tested the profound crisis found in the mentality and the historic existence of the 1930s. Nowadays, we wish we had fought more of the intolerance of hooliganic acts, (anti-Semitic mainly); at that time, however, the balance of public taste seemed to opt for solemnity and prophecy. Based on these coordinates, a

particular dimension of the generationist discourse seems to emerge—the legionary discourse. The texts that illustrates the Nationalist-Christian doctrine are rather homogenous. There are differences and nuances between their authors, but one can speak of rhetoric and thematic invariants. To exemplify I have selected some fragments from the texts that bear a legionary perspective:

Death implies sacrifice. The dead founders, on whose corpses a country was founded, they represent the heroic dead people ... How beautiful this meaning of death as foundational act appears in the ballad The Arges Monastery! If you do not kill the dearest, best or precious thing, if the weak and not the heroes might die, if the sacrifice is not consumed, like the sacrifice of Manole's wife, in a silent, tragically tension, you will not build anything consistent. Let's learn to die! – Dan Botta [2, 23]

While other peoples live in this revolution in the name of class struggle and economic hegemony (communism) or that of the State (fascism) or race (Hitler's doctrine)- the Legionary movement was born under the sign of the Archangel Mikhail and will prevail through divine calling. Tat is why, all contemporary revolutions are political, the legionary revolution is spiritual and Christian – M. Eliade [6, 260]

The legionary loves death, since his blood will serve to put the foundation of the Legionary Romania— Corneliu Zelea Codreanu, [2, 209].

I selected only three samples of what could very well be called legionary discourse, signed by authors structurally different from the intellectual point of view, but also in terms of various destinies: Dan Botta was an acutely sensitive poet, who lived his fragile existence under the sign of tragedy, Corneliu Zelea Codreanu was the leader of the Romanian legionary movement, a highly exalted and severe spirit who believed in justified murder, consequently his assassination was quite predictable. As far as Mircea Eliade is concerned, he had the opportunity to become a great scholar and a famous writer, a truly Renaissance spirit in a relative modernity. Finally, owing to these contrasts, the stylistic unity of the above excerpts is ever more surprising. We could infer the fact that ideological indoctrination brings forth discursive equivalence.

Excessive rhetoric that exults messianic insights, the eschatological, tragicism, manliness and sacrifice necessary is well placed; what is missing to this type of discourse is its humour (in all its variants). Consequently, the relativism inherent to any ironic act is ignored and radicalism as well as ignorance are installed bringing thus forth to all its monstrous consequences. The great personalities of this generation (Mircea Eliade, Constantin Noica, Mircea Vulcănescu, Emil Cioran, and all Nae Ionescu's students) disfavour humour, considering it frivolous. Their mentality privileges concepts such as: mission,/ destiny, the sacred (in its associated forms: misticism, the search for symbolism hidden in the profane, the trust in epiphanies, the expectation for the arrival of a messianic personality), the sacrifice, the tragic. All construe existence and model their speech in contemporary terms that rally to hard paradigms of thought. To a certain extent the atypical, the marginals (if confronted with the already mentioned personalities) authors such as Eugen Ionescu, Mihail Sebastian, sau Nicolae Steinhardt their discourse, obviously, and their perspective on life, their soft values in the register of mockery and relativity. Not by chance, the last two are marginals also from the ethical perspective, and being Jewish was at that time one of the hardest tests. The discursive background against which the young generation evolved also included other types of discourses: liberal, communist, gandirist, modernist, avant-garde (I intentionally mixed the political and aesthetical categories, out of a personal belief in their overlap). Except that, intending to cut out from this discursive continuum what could be called generationist discourse, I took into consideration, that the nuances previously mentioned are not representative. It is true that at the conferences from The Criterion other personalities who had communist beliefs, but this can be considered exclusively accidental. The rule can be inferred from frequency and coverage as well as representativity. The overwhelming impact in the audience's conscience had personalities around Mircea Eliade, mostly all Nae Ionescu's apprentices.

Conclusions

Giovanni Papini described as follows the mentality of his own generation: *Each time when a new generation appears it seems that the symphony of the world has to be played in a new tempo. Dreams,*

hopes, combat plans, ecstasies in front of discoveries, assaults, defying, pride- and a newspaper. Any article has the thunder and the sound of a proclamation; any attack and polemic counterattack are written in the style of victorious speeches; each title is a programme; every critics is a conquest of Bastille; each book is a Bible; [...] For the 20 year old man any aged man is an enemy; any idea is suspect; any great man has to be sued ...It is the only great age when man has the potent vice to challenge everything [...] [9, 85-86]

Undoubtedly contaminated by novelty, by the paradigmatic route this illustrates Eliade programmed an experience significant for the Romanian culture. Architect of his generation, the future great scholar made sure that his contemporary Romania built the necessary myths of modernity.

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BILINGUALISM AND SOCIETY

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Abstract

Globalisation, increasing population movements and the spread of education lead to stronger and stronger contacts between cultures and individuals using different languages. Thus, a person may become bilingual; the term ‘bilingual’ describes a person with the possession of two languages which are in close contact; ‘bilingualism’ is the societal counterpart of the term referring to individuals. In bilingual/ multilingual settings, the linguistic behaviour of speakers varies according to certain factors – group membership, situation, and topic. Bilingual/multilingual communities observe certain sets of norms that define the linguistic behaviour of their members.

Keywords: bilingualism, language contact, community, speech.

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English explains the term “bilingual” as:

1. Written or spoken in two languages;
2. able to speak two languages equally well.

Le Petit Robert (dictionnaire de la langue française) explains the term “bilingue” as:

1. qui est en deux langues;
2. qui parle, possède parfaitement deux langues;
3. où l'on parle deux langues

The same dictionary explains the term “*bilinguisme*” as: “Qualité d'une personne, d'une région bilingue, situation d'un pays qui a deux langues officielles (e.g. *le bilinguisme canadien*). It also mentions the date when these words were first used: *bilingue* in 1618, and it came from the Latin *bilinguis*; the second word is much more recent – it

was first used in 1911. *Le Petit Robert* also explains that *bilingue* meant “liar”.

Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române defines the terms: “*bilingv*”:

1. care utilizează în mod curent și la fel de bine două limbi
2. scris în două limbi (din fr. *bilingue*) and the term “*bilingualism*” as: “fenomen de utilizare curentă de către aceeași persoană a două limbi diferite”.

From these brief explanations one can understand that the term ‘bilingual’ primarily describes a person with the possession of two languages; these languages are in close contact, and that there is one and the same person who uses the two languages; ‘bilingualism’ is the societal counterpart of the term referring to individuals. With globalisation and increasing population movements due to immigration and greater geographical and social mobility, and with the spread of education, contacts between cultures and individuals are constantly growing. Taking into account the fact that most reference books give a figure of around 6,000 languages spoken today in the world (and this is a conservative estimate, as many parts of the world have been insufficiently studied from a linguistic point of view), and that there are fewer than 200 countries, that is politico-geographic units – there are 192 members of the United Nations, while The United States’ State Department recognizes 194 independent countries – it can be expected that this trend will continue, probably to a greater extent, in the twenty-first century [1].

Speakers of different languages have many reasons to come into contact. There are external key factors contributing to language contact. Some of these are [2]:

- Politics – political or military acts (colonisation, annexation, resettlement or federation) can have immediate linguistic effects. In some cases people have to learn the language of a new environment (refugees), or, after an invasion, the indigenous population may have to learn the invader’s language in order to prosper. Colonisation is exemplified by the former British, French, Spanish, Portuguese, or Dutch colonies in Africa, Asia and South America, most of which achieved independence in the nineteenth century, but where the linguistic changes that took place during the colonisation period are

still felt. An example of annexation in the modern times can be found in the absorption of the Baltic republics – Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia, and of Moldavia into the Soviet Union after the Second World War. Today the Soviet Union does not exist anymore, these countries have become independent, but Russian is an important language for all the individuals living in these areas. Military conflicts may lead to resettlements, as seen in Central Africa and the former Yugoslavia; examples of federations where diverse ethnic groups or nationalities are united under the political control of one state include Switzerland, Belgium, or Cameroon.

- Natural disasters may occur, and cause major movements of population. New language-contact situations emerge, as people are resettled. Some of the Irish and Chinese resettlements in North America were the result of natural disasters.

- Religion or culture may be other reasons for which people may want to leave their country, or to go and live in a new one; in such cases, a new language may have to be learned. An example is the Russian population in Israel.

- Economy is a very important migration factor today. Very large numbers of people across the world have migrated to find work, or to improve their standard of living. This factor accounts for most of the linguistic diversity of the United States, and an increasing proportion of bilingualism in present-day Europe.

From a global societal perspective most of the world's speech communities use more than one language and are therefore bilingual or multilingual rather than homogeneous. Practically bilingualism is to be met in every country of the world, and about half the population of the world is bilingual [3].

In the analysis of bilingualism several aspects have to be taken into account: languages in contact in the language behaviour of the individual, then in interpersonal relations, and at the societal level, that is the role of language in intergroup relations. This implies an interdisciplinary approach: psychology, at the individual level, social psychology at the interpersonal level, and sociology at the intergroup level.

1 MULTILINGUAL SETTINGS

Role relations, relative status of speakers and languages, topic, or domain are parameters according to which linguistic behaviour varies. The same parameters are taken into account when languages are in contact. The bilingual's language behaviour varies according to whether s/he interacts with a monolingual or a bilingual interlocutor in a unilingual, bilingual or multilingual environment.

Multilingual environments differ from each other in many ways. We should rather deal with "within-groups" – or intragroups rather than with "between groups" – or intergroup multilingualism, that is with those multilingual settings in which a single population makes use of two (or more) separate codes for internal communicative purposes. General knowledge of mother tongue and of the other language may be ruled out as an operative variable since most individuals *could* communicate with each other quite easily in *either* of the available languages. However, habitual language choice is not a random matter of momentary inclination. "Proper" usage, or common usage, or both, dictate that only one of the theoretically co-available languages will be chosen by particular classes of interlocutors on particular occasions.

2. CONTROLLING FACTORS IN LANGUAGE CHOICE

One of the first controlling factors in language choice is *group membership*. This factor must be seen in an objective sense, that is in terms of physiological and sociological criteria such as age, sex, race, religion, etc., but mostly in the subjective socio-psychological sense of reference group membership. The existence of certain reference groups largely depends on location, setting or other environmental factors, rather than on group-consciousness or group experience as such.

Another regulating factor is *situation*¹. Ervin [4] observes that various situations may be restricted with respect to the participants who may be present, the physical setting, the topic and functions of discourse and the style employed. Each of these aspects of situation

¹ The term *situation* is used to characterize certain circumstances of communication at the time of communication.

may shed light on certain regularities in language choice on particular social occasions. According to Labov [5], situational styles are relevant for considerations of intimacy – distance, formality – informality, solidarity – non-solidarity, status equality – inequality, etc. Thus, certain styles within every language and, in multilingual settings, certain languages in contrast to others, are considered by particular interlocutors to be indicators of greater intimacy, informality, equality, etc. In many cases, bilinguals or multilinguals consider one of their languages more dialectal, more regional, more sub-standard, more vernacular-like than the other/s, but at the same time they more frequently associate one of their languages with informality, quality, solidarity than the other. As a result, one is more likely to be reserved for certain situations than the other [6]. We must say that neither reference group membership nor situational styles, alone or in pair, fully explains the variations that can be noted in habitual language choice in multilingual settings.

The fact that two individuals who obviously prefer to speak to each other in a certain given language switch to another language when discussing certain topics leads to the conclusion that *topic* is a regulator of language use in multilingual settings. The topical regulation of language choice shows that certain topics are somehow handled better in one language than in another in particular multilingual contexts. This situation may be brought about by several different but mutually reinforcing factors. Thus, some multilingual speakers may acquire the habit of speaking about a certain topic in a certain language partially because that is the language in which they were trained to deal with that topic, partially because they (and their interlocutors) may lack the specialised terms for a satisfying discussion on a given topic in a given language, partially because a certain language may lack as exact or as many terms for handling that given topic as those existing in the other/ one of the other language/s, and, finally, partially because it may be considered strange or even inappropriate to discuss a certain topic in a certain language [6]. This shows that certain socio-culturally recognised spheres of activity are, at least temporarily, under the influence of one language (and, therefore, possibly of one sub-population) rather than another.

3 LANGUAGE CHOICE

As shown, there are different situations in which bilinguals have the choice of language. When a bilingual person encounters a monolingual in a unilingual community speaking the first language of the bilingual, the latter will use the social and linguistic norms of the community. If the bilingual encounters another bilingual in the same languages in a similar setting, the two persons can follow the unilingual norms of either community, or they can create their own set of language norms, as the community defines only the monolingual behaviour norms of the first language [1].

On the other hand, in a multilingual community a set of norms exists that define bilingual behaviour. For a bilingual community to exist there must be at least two languages commonly used by some members of the community. Either the community is composed of two groups speaking two different languages as their mother tongue along with a small number of bilinguals speaking both languages, or a small number of both groups speaking a third common language, used as a lingua franca; in the case of an exogenous language, some members of the community speak a second language that has no or few native speakers in the community. Any of these languages may be the official language of the community.

Every bilingual community is situated between the two poles of a continuum, ranging from a set made up of two unilingual groups, each containing a small number of bilinguals, to a single group with a more or less large number of persons using a second language for specific purposes. At one pole most speakers in each group use only one language for all functions, whereas at the other pole a varying number of speakers use both languages, but for different purposes.

The following typical cases have been distinguished [1]:

1. Territorial bilingualism, in which each group finds itself mostly within its own politically defined territory, with the two (or more) languages having official status in their own territory. The official status of the other national language/ languages varies considerably from country to country. Examples of territorial bilingualism/ multilingualism can be found in Belgium, Switzerland, Spain, Canada, India; each of these countries applies the principle of territorial bilingualism in its own way.

2. Another case of bilingual communities can be found in multilingual countries of Africa and Asia where, beside the native languages of indigenous ethnic groups or nations, one or more languages of wider communication exist cutting across these groups and nations, native to none or few of them. This can be either a lingua franca (e.g. Swahili in Eastern and Central Africa, or Tok Pisin in Papua New Guinea), or a superposed language imposed by political decision which introduces an exogenous language, usually inherited from a colonial past and used only in certain official domains (e.g. French and English in several African countries).
3. A bilingual community can be described as diglossic, that is two languages are spoken by a variable section of the population, but they are used in a complementary way in the society, one language or variety having a higher status than the other and being reserved for certain functions and domains. Examples of diglossic bilingualism are the use of Spanish and Guarani in Paraguay, or of French and Creole in Haiti. In these cases both languages have a significant group of native speakers in the community.

It should be stressed that monolinguality is more commonly found in economically dominant groups, whereas the members of minority or subordinate groups tend to be bilingual or multilingual. Yet, minority does not necessarily imply numerical inferiority, but refers rather to a subordinate status in the community. However, a subordinate group can use its numerical superiority to impose its own language norms through language-planning legislation, which aims at ending the subordinate status of that group; in this case the formerly dominant group undergoes a minorisation process.

To the extent that the ethnolinguistic duality of a community is officially recognised, the community sets a number of institutions in order to manage the use of both languages. Inside these institutions members of the different language groups may use one language, which can be a language of the community, a lingua franca, or an exogenous language. Several languages from the community may be used to a varying extent, for example when two members of different language groups speak to each other in their respective languages; in

this case each understands but does not necessarily speak the other's language; if they do not understand each other's language they make use of an interpreter. This situation can be met in Romania, in law courts, in some regions where Hungarian-speaking persons represent the majority, yet they are a minority at the level of the country.

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MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE – IMPORTANT FACTOR IN FULFILLING THE NEEDS OF TRAINING HUMAN RESOURCES EMPLOYED IN THE FIELD OF ADOPTIONS

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Abstract

The Romanian adoption system is very dynamic. Human resources change from the point of view of the organization, fluctuation, preparation and training needs. The services necessary for a good functioning of the system were understood by the experts in the field and that's why there is a permanent search for an ideal solution that could answer properly these needs. There are still services that cannot be offered to experts in the system and the lack of human resources and their insufficient training are the most invoked reasons.

Keywords: adoption, training, change management, child protection, DGASPC

1. Introduction

In the aftermath of December 1989, the changes in the political, economic and, in particular, social life disconcerted the Romanian society, benumbed by the constraints that the communist dictatorial rule had imposed.

The changes were bewildering but, at the same time, offered great expectations of stability, prosperity and tolerance, which rendered necessary their pragmatic, organized and objective approach and entailed the assumption and development of the new concept of change management.

The economic, social and organizational development implies the devising, planning and implementation of several changes meant to support the efficient resource employment, i.e. a growth of effectiveness and efficiency both in the economy and at the society's level.

2. A field where change was necessary – the adoption

The obvious reality of the present time is given by the more and more profound, sometimes radical and accelerated, changes in the evolution of society. These changes have a considerable impact both on economic and social life. There is a kind of inertia or even immobility in the organization and management of some specific domains, which impede their rapid adjustment to the changes arisen and their effective answering the challenges posed by these changes.

In the field of child protection and especially in that of adoption, the change is determined by the need for a permanent amelioration and adaptation of the legislation to the European standards and for a continuous generation of new services that will meet the requirements of this legislation. One of the most difficult impediments that must be overcome in the transition from a system to another, which is the situation Romania is in today, is the difference between the existent (legislative, institutional, financial, and managerial) culture and education as inherited from the previous political and economic regime and the culture specific for the developed European states.

The subject I have been interested in, but that has not been sufficiently approached in Romania is the way in which change is influenced by the adjustment of the needs to train human resources that will work in the adoption services within the Departments for Social Protection and Child Protection in the country (DGASPC).

The concept of "management of change" is not, in principle, something totally new, but an innovative theoretisation form of change and includes all planned, organized and controlled changes in the field of strategy, production processes, structure and culture of any social and economic system, including the public and private legal companies and entities.

After Romania's integration in the European Union, the approach of the human resources topic in all fields of activity had to be revised

and adapted to the new requirements on the labour market. Besides the economic, industrial and commercial activities, a reconsideration of the activities in the social plan was also needed and a special attention was given to social protection and child protection. The very sensitive field of child protection was intensely monitored by the European Commission, the European Parliament in particular, taking account of the gloomy past inherited from the communist time and the devastating images of communist state crèches that impressed the entire world. The best solutions for the radical transformation of the child protection system and for the cessation of the child exodus by international adoption had to be found. A first step made towards the reorganization of the domain was the passing of a new legislation on child protection and adoption followed by the decentralization of the protection system and the restructuring at county level, closer to people and to the local culture.

From 1997, when the reform in the field of child's rights protection started and until January 1st 2005, the issue of adoption was included in the child protection system, the adoption being defined as a measure for the special protection of the child in difficulty.

The consequence of this situation was the insufficient attention given to adoption, a process that was inducing a radical change in the child's legal and family situation, the reform focusing mainly on the reorganization of the institutions for child protection and on the development of child assistance alternatives in the family environment. Thus, due to the public authorities' feeble administrative capacity, the process of children's adoption was, to a great extent, assumed by private entities (foundations, associations) that were insufficiently controlled and coordinated in their undertakings, which entailed the perpetration of abuses, the non-observance of procedures and the generation of corruption situations, all these being severe infringements of the rights of the children, meant to be beneficiaries of adoption procedures.

At the same time, the equation of adoption with a special protective measure brought about the non-existence of records, at national level, on all approved adoptions and post-adoption undertakings, which was contrary to the provisions of the UNO Convention on the child rights.

The lack of nationally centralized information on the adoption that was necessary to highlight the system's shortages and deficiencies led to the impossibility of promoting and developing coherent and viable policies directed at stimulating the national adoption, professionalizing and training the personnel implied in adoption, and supporting the child and the adopting family.

Along with the organization of departments of social protection and child protection within county councils, one of the targets of management was to employ specialized human resources in the specific departments. At national level, the departments of social protection and child protection are confronted with a shortage of qualified labour force generated by the population's migration, especially from the rural regions, due to people's low standard of life, insufficient motivation of employees, etc. The local administration has to provide secure and well-paid working conditions to the employees in order to attract them towards social protection. In this situation, the human resources management becomes very important because it allows for the settlement and generalization of a range of problems aimed at adapting the individual to the environment conditions. The better employment of the human resource is one of the factors with a major impact on the efficiency's growth and on the good functioning of the public administration.

In most of the cases, the human resources departments have a reduced organizational statute and leave much to be desired professionally. By virtue of this, they fail to fulfill several tasks that are directly connected to the human resources management.

3. Analysis of the need for training the human resources within the adoption services

The aim of this study is the analysis of the need for training the human resources of the adoption services functioning within DGASPC.

Based on the tasks provided by law 274/2004, the Romanian Office for Adoptions conducted a study on the activity and human resources within DGASPC at national level, which was initiated in 2005, when the Office was established.

To this end, during 2005-2008, several questionnaires were worked out and sent to be completed by the sample personnel working in the Adoption Services existent at national level in the 47 General Departments of Social Protection and Child Protection in the country, including the 6 districts in Bucharest.

The structure of these questionnaires was different each year, depending on the areas of interest for the Office, the programs initiated/implemented at that time and, especially, depending on the evolution of the adoption system in Romania. The differences noticed from one year to another, following the analysis of the results obtained, were evident, taking into consideration that this domain is ruled by a relatively new package of norms that came into force in January 1st, 2005.

For the purpose of this analysis it is important to consider the personnel fluctuations taking place within these adoption services. As shown in the attached chart, in 2006 as compared with the year before (2005), the number of persons working in the adoption services increased by 37.

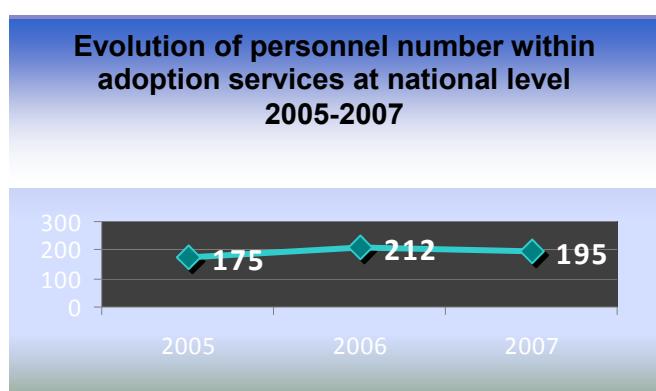


Figure 1. Evolution of personnel number within adoption services at national level 2005-2007

not increase or decrease dramatically as compared with the previous year (2006). This phenomenon does not highlight the personnel's steadiness; it rather can be explained by the fact that the number of people who left the adoption services is almost equal to the number of people who joined the adoption services.

The itemization on years of the number of experts as regards their training is as follows:

- in 2005, out of the total of 175 people employed in the adoption services, 34 were psychologists, 58 university graduated social assistants and 13 legal advisors. The rest of 70 people had another form of training such as sociologist, engineer,

economist, medical assistant or were high school/post-high-school graduates and carried out social protection tasks.

- by comparison, in 2007, out of the total of 195 persons engaged in the adoption services, 45 were psychologists, 64 university-graduated social assistants and 32 were legal advisors. The rest of 54 persons were high-school graduated social assistants or had a different education, but carried out social assistance tasks.

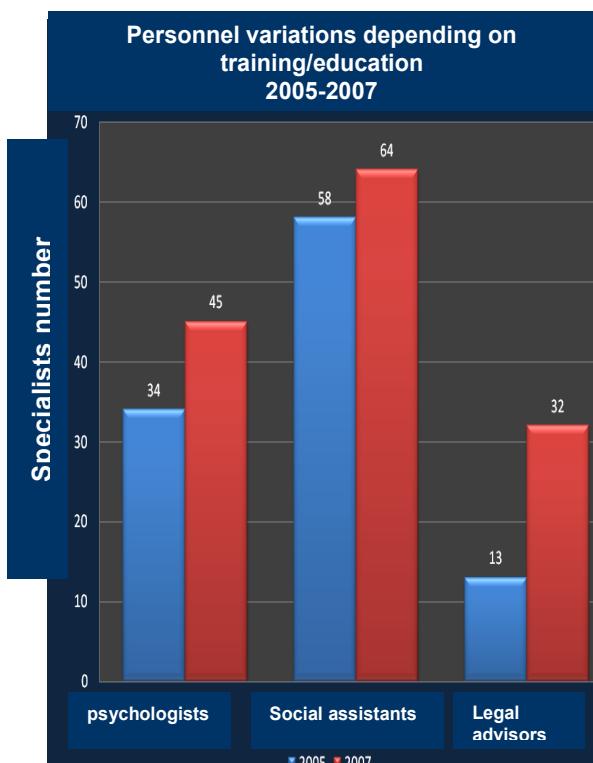


Figure 2 - Personnel variations depending on training/education 2005-2007

system starts from this cognitive basis which is much more appropriate now than in the previous years.

The services most often provided to the adopting families or to the potentially adopting families are information supplying and (legal or psychological) counseling. During the period taken into consideration for this analysis, most of the departments declared that they manage to provide these services. Things are not the same as regards the provision of programs for parental abilities development or for the establishment of support groups. This fact has been a problem ever

Consequently, the number of university graduated persons, qualified for the positions they are employed in, increased in 2007 as compared with 2005.

Starting from this much more adequate educational basis, a form of specialized training is now required to address the adoption field and to connect the grounds and the already accumulated experience with the more specific information related to different stages of adoption. Therefore, we consider of extreme importance that this stage of specialization of the human resources within the adoption

since 2005, when approximately 30 counties declared that they could not provide these services to the adopting families or to the potentially adopting families.

As a consequence of the various training activities organized in the field of adoption, most of them with the involvement of the Romanian Office for Adoptions as initiator, partner or organizing body, the state of things were as follows at the end of 2007:

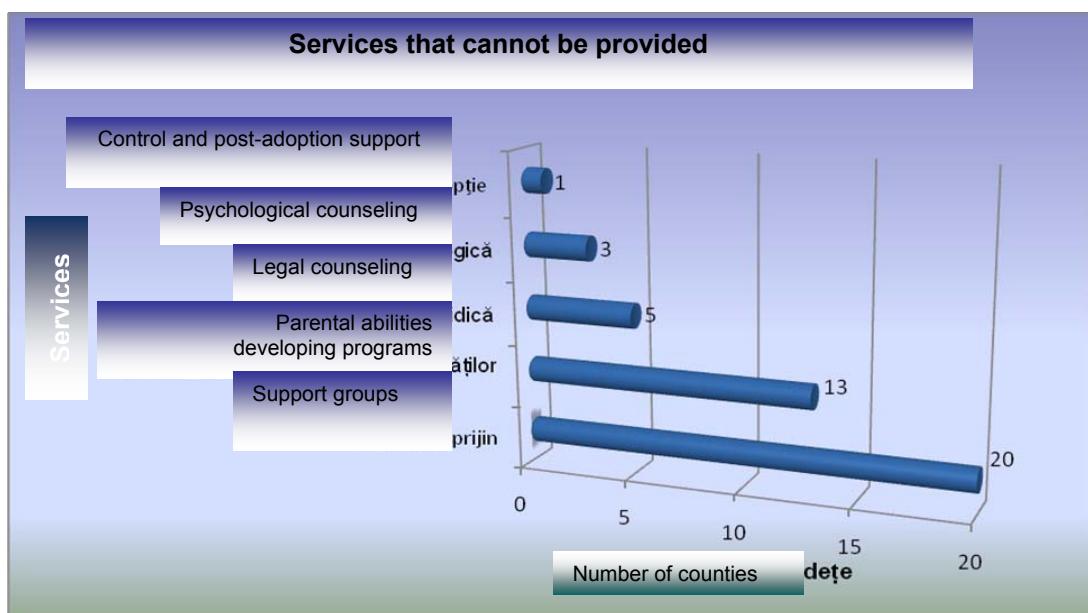


Figure 3. Services that cannot be provided

The most frequent reasons invoked by the department experts that these services cannot be provided or are provided occasionally are: lack of adequate space, of material resources, of human resources (especially legal advisors and psychologists), overworking of experts, and reticence of adopting families (in case of support groups), as well as lack of training and specialization courses.

In 2005, the training requirements identified by the persons working within adoption services envisaged especially the following domains/areas of interest: child and family counseling, legislation in the field, including the implementation of minimum mandatory standards, the setting up of programs for parental abilities development, establishment of support groups, child psychology.



Figure 4. Domains where specialists request supplementary training

In completion of this information, the statistics obtained following the use of the questionnaire on the variation of the number of training activities attended by experts is also very useful.

Thus, the number of training activities in the adoption field attended by a social assistant varies between 0 and 7; the number of training activities in the adoption field attended by a psychologist varies between 0 and 3; the number of training activities in the adoption field attended by a legal advisor varies between 0 and 3.



Figure 5. Variation of training number in the field of adoption per specialist

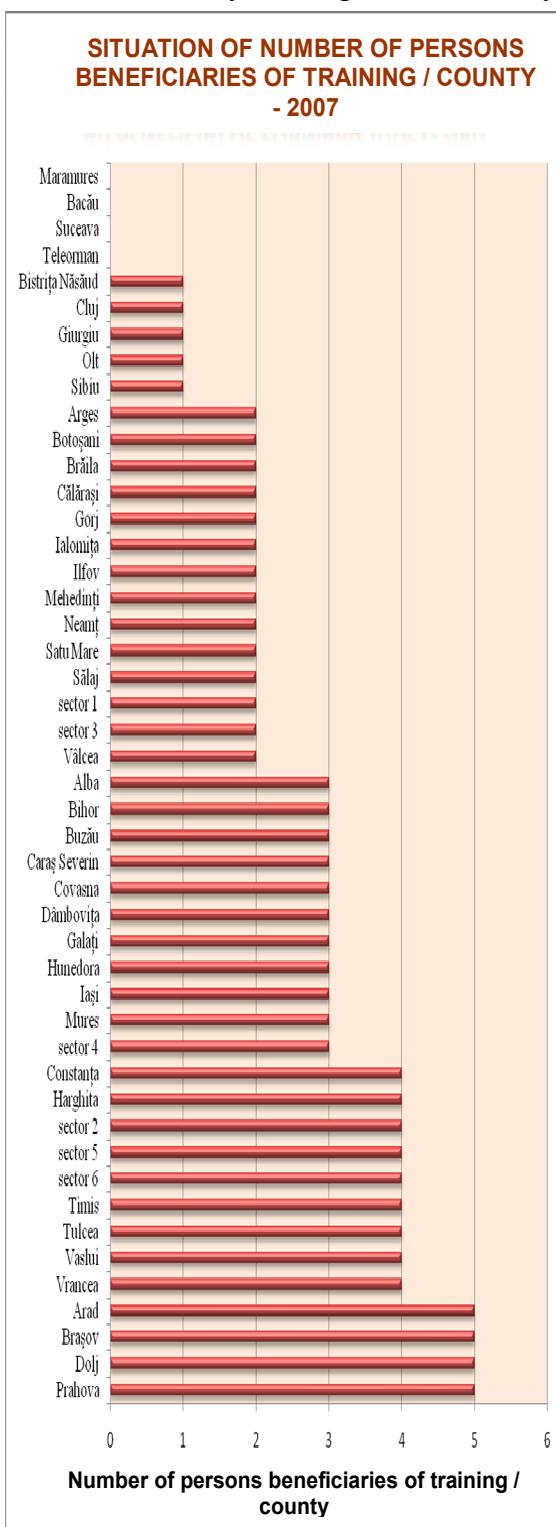


Figure 6. Situation of number of individuals, beneficiaries of training / county

the adoption field.

As it can be seen from the previous chart, the specialization / training differences among the experts are significant. There are counties where a legal advisor attended 7 training forms and counties where legal advisors did not attend any training in this field. In conformity with the questionnaire circulated in 2007, the individuals working in the adoption field in the counties Bacău, Maramureş, Suceava and Teleorman, regardless their profession (psychologists, social assistants and legal advisors) did not attend any kind of training in this field.

The counties Arad, Brașov, Prahova and Dolj range at the other end with 5 employees / service who attended training courses in the adoption field. The situation was almost similar in 2007 for the following counties / districts: Harghita, Vrancea, Timiș, Tulcea, Vaslui, District 2, District 5, District 6 and Constanța with 4 employees / service attending training courses in

Finally, it is worth mentioning that 26 out of 47 existing adoption services requested training forms/courses in the field of adoption when questioned on the modalities of involvement and support the Romanian Office for Adoptions can ensure in order to render more efficient the activity they develop.

The data presented above demonstrate the urgent need to organize new sessions of training to support adoption experts.

A further element, similarly important in supporting this perspective is given by the human diversity that the experts come into contact with and that calls for a permanent process of information updating and amassing.

There is a dangerous fluctuation of the experts who work in the field depending on their preparation and training and the material motivation. The fluctuation creates the danger that most of the trained experts leave the system for other jobs better paid and stimulated. This will create the need of new training for the civil servants who want to work in the field. Once trained, they will search for better places according to their specialization.

I think that the initial and continuous training is the fundamental condition for maintaining high standards of professionalism in the social field, in general, and in the adoption field, in particular.

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