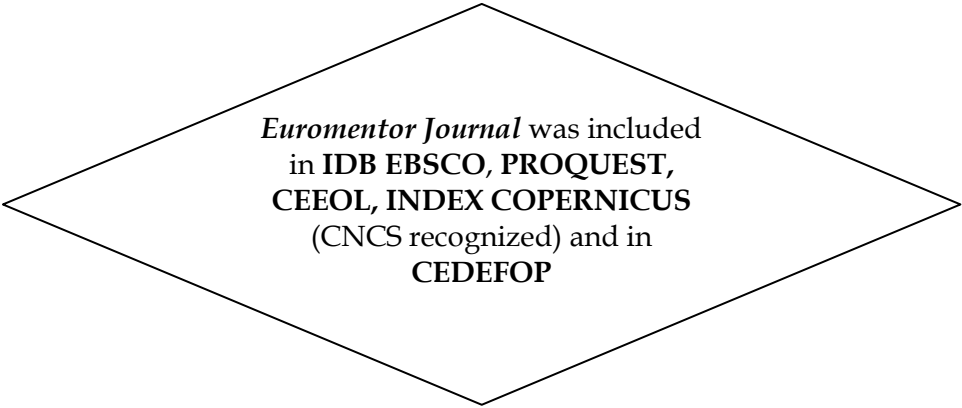


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CONSIDERATIONS ON CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION IN THE 21ST CENTURY

CONONA PETRESCU*

*"Education is considered the culture
of intelligence or of the spirit"*
B.F. Skinner

Abstract: *The educational phenomenon undergoes at all levels changes which are either natural, or caused, or directed, planned. Our study indicates some of the current education trends and guidelines, advocating for 'education for change' as a pivot of rethinking contemporary education. Firstly, we believe that school should be a central part of the change of mentalities. In this respect, the old type of learning based on learning retention can no longer be satisfactory, being replaced with innovative learning that is anticipatory, participatory and collaborative.*

Keywords: *education for change, "new educations", school, innovative learning, collaborative learning.*

The fact that education plays a decisive role in shaping and developing the human personality, in expressing an making full use of his creative potencies, is a truth that the world discovered many centuries ago. Of more recent origin seems to be the idea that education is a vital factor in the evolution and progress of the entire mankind, in ensuring, ultimately, the very future of the human species. When saying this, we take into account not only the dramatic realities the contemporary world is facing, but also, or especially, the fact that the solutions offered to solve these problems depend decisively on the scientific, cultural, political, socio-economic formation of those called to to collaborate. Or, to the extent to which our age really stands under the sign of democracy, each of us is called to contribute to the development and settlement, as fair as possible, of the pressing problems of our time.

Notable is the promotion of the "new educations" which represent the very answers of the educational and pedagogical systems to an emerging

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problem characterized by universality, globality, multidisciplinary and gravity.

Along with promoting the "new educations" (of which the most important seem to be: the education for participation and democracy; the education for understanding and peace, the education for change and development, the education for communication and media, etc.), the development of some key concepts such as "democratization of education", "lifelong learning" and, last but not least, "adult education" is defining for the modern pedagogy.

Education, far from being limited to a period of schooling, must span the entire existence, encompassing all fields of knowledge, being able to enrich through various means and favoring all the forms of personality development. The educational processes, in which children, youngsters and adults of all ages are engaged along their lives, no matter under what form, should be considered as a whole.

Placing any type of educational approach in temporality, therefore in historicity, requires the search action of finding out the trends manifested in this area of vital importance for the contemporary society. This is because the trends "bear suggestions, confirmations or replies". Depending on their strength and relevance, they may announce potential or favorable futures"¹.

Knowing these trends can be helpful for researchers and policy makers to better place their projects and methodologies, to avoid possible errors and head more safely towards a desirable future of the school.

There are three aspects that need to be deciphered as to the trends in education: the trends as such, their play and identifying the most powerful trends (which must be encouraged if they are in favour of the social progress or, on the contrary, stopped or minimized if they develop destructive, hindering or insignificant directions). On the other hand, one can identify obvious, clear trends, as well as "hidden", latent trends, the latter ones manifesting themselves at first feebly, weakly in areas where measurement is difficult, and then evolving, becoming important or strong in some cases.

There is, naturally, a play of trends at world level. Thus, for instance, the interest in foreign language learning, in the massive use of computers for computerized learning, could be considered as major trends of

¹ Văideanu G., *Education at the Turn of the Milleniums*, Political Publishing House, Bucharest, 1988, p.70.

contemporary education. It is widely recognized that learning a foreign language (or more!) is both a useful spiritual exercise and a means of openness toward other horizons, dialogue and communication between cultures and, last but not least, of social improvement (mitigation of conflicts, disorganization, etc.). Similarly, computer use in industry complies, taking into account the specifics of this field, convergently, with the same type of goals mentioned above.

The trends might also be grouped according to the education levels or areas: objectives, contents, methods. Thus, as far as the contents are concerned, the main directions could be: **both the contents of formal education and those of non-formal or informal education; both systematic contents such as plans, courses and textbooks and "hidden" or latent ones, stemming from the school institution atmosphere, the culture and style of the educator; both objectives and knowledge, as well as the ways of organizing learning, considering that they carry messages and are part of "the way" of building up a personality.**

Finally, the trends could be also grouped in relation to the ways of approaching the oral educational processes.

Three would be the major trends in this respect: (a) the systematic approach, (b) the curricular approach, (c) the modular approach.

(a) The systematic design of the educational processes produces positive effects such as: increases the coherence of educational activities; provides the variety and balance of the means and methods used; favors the articulation of different types of learning; leads to a rigorous evaluation, beneficial for everybody, of the processes performed in the context of a learning activity etc.

The systematic approach to education "allows highlighting the specific functions and structures of the organization / school institution. This approach considers education as a whole that is organized institutionally, practically at the level of the entire society"².

The system analysis (of the education system) highlights the following four types of schools: **school-institution**, whose end is socialization based on the internalization of social norms; **school - reproducing apparatus of social relations of power** that grants the whole power to the social system, legitimating the differences among the social classes and categories (Bourdieu, Passeronon); **multiple school**, open to varied experiences,

² Cristea S., Constantinescu S., *The Society of Education* Hard Iscom Publishing House, Pitești, 1988, p. 155.

depending to a greater extent on the activity of those involved in education (pupils, students); **school** - "education market" whose end is "socialization based on rule spacing" (designed entirely on the postulate of rationalization the individuals who choose according to interests and resources³—and which, as we can see, also promotes our current system).

These types / theories highlight the importance of social function engaged at the level of the education system for the social integration of the personality in various fields of activity. The methodological and practical opening (especially systematic method) due to the systems theory allows approaching school from the perspective of the organization theory and, respectively, defining school as an organization based on a set of educational resources (human, information, financial, material, energy resources etc.) engaged in achieving a common task oriented in terms of value to general ends (set on medium term and long term) attainable within specific hierarchical structures that determine the quality of the school curriculum (objectives / plan / program / methodology).

The structure of the education system also undergoes an evolution triggered by the reforms carried out in the latest decades around the world. Here appears the trend to articulate the three levels of schooling (primary - secondary -high) which is provided, on the one hand, by setting steps and / or school cycles, and, on the other hand, by opening the whole system, both vertically and horizontally toward lifelong education.

The reforms implemented during the past decades (especially after the events of 1968 in France) have attempted to settle the failures occurred in the context of "the global crisis of education" materialized, ultimately, in the contradiction between the supply and demand for training, between resources and results, reforms aimed especially at the basic structure of the system and at the level of compulsory education.

At present the structures of compulsory education undergo the reforming changes initiated in the 1960s-1970s in the following important ways: **redefining compulsory education; extending its duration to the age of 16-18 years; making more flexible the relations between levels and stages (schooling cycles); contents focus around a common core of general education** designed in most countries in the terms of an identical basic program; **validation of compulsory education** through graduation certificate obtained through examinations or through the results of the ongoing evaluation process.

³ Ibidem, p. 156.

Higher education / secondary education, usually organized as compulsory further education, valorizes the trend of "extending a common core" whose diversity through areas will be carried out later during studies"⁴.

Its objective is to provide a continuous basic training and to diversify the learning opportunities according to the variety of requirements and aspirations, ensuring at the same time the effective equality of different types of education, training and students' mobility.

Higher education, oriented toward balanced general education aimed not only at cognitive objectives, but also at the affective and moral development trends, undertakes new trends such as: **the social openness required to prepare graduates in an increasing number of professions; restructuring the contents based on the fact that in a dynamic society specific skills quickly become obsolete; professionalization through research meant to strengthen the university's ability to produce the basic knowledge required for training the specialists; supporting the partnership between universities and public authorities**, especially for large projects; **promoting a philosophy of education** that allows the assertion of a curriculum design capable of solving the conflict between general and specialized training, not so much by providing wide knowledge from various disciplines, but by adopting, in the different fields of activity, a new learning style focused on the assimilation of some intellectual mechanisms and academic values.

The education systems from Central and Eastern Europe have been striving, after the 1990s, to meet these challenges in the context of some educational policies aimed at changing the relationship between the state and universities, following, on the one hand, the old system (centralization, lack of politicized autonomy, ideologization, uniformization etc.) and, on the other hand, achieving at macro-social scale some pedagogical objectives. This level shows the following trends: **expanding the network of higher education institutions** through the establishment of new institutions; **restructuring of higher education in three stages**: short-term education (2-3 years); long-term education (4-6 years); postgraduate education (Master's Degree, doctorate); **diversity of higher education institutions** (state, private, professional, military, etc.) and of their organizational forms (day, part-time, distance); **changing the relationships between the educational institutions and the government**

⁴ Ibidem, p. 161.

in the following ways: partial decentralization of the management system, increased institutional autonomy, the establishment of national academic bodies intermediary between institutions and government, etc.)

(b) The curricular approach to education promotes a new concept about the selection and organization of the contents, design and organization of learning: if so far the focus was on the learning contents (the "what"), currently, the focus is on the aim and learning outcomes. The great advantage of the new approach is that the "curriculum development methodology requires the teacher to select, use and articulate all the components and stages of teaching activity according to the objectives, avoiding isolation or overrating a component (method, method - tool) to the detriment of the others"⁵.

The curriculum reform, launched in the 1977-1978 aims, essentially, to radically change the outlook on the role of school: "School was, basically, the scene of a teaching-learning process, in other words, of assimilating knowledge. It needs become increasingly the institution which provides a total development of the personality. The new programs will focus on individual learning and on the development of the originality of thinking, learning will focus on the fundamental concepts."

Illustrative for this new way of understanding the mission of school is the program of measures adopted in 1976 by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture of Japan, in which, priority is not given to the targets for increasing the share of science and technology, but to those aimed at "stimulating the students' ability to think independently and make appropriate decisions; a calmer and more pleasant school life; stimulating the students' love for nature and people, developing sociability; cultivating the love for family, birthplace along with the openness toward the modern world."

The curricular design promoted within the modern didactics focuses on the objectives of the instructive and educational activity, prioritarily aiming at the "optimization of the relationships of pedagogical correspondence between the components (objectives - contents-methodology - evaluation), between the actions of teaching - learning - assessment subordinated to the " finalities engaged at the system and process level. Curriculum design development requires a pedagogical approach oriented toward three types of decisions (Seguin, 1991):

I. Macro-structural decisions of philosophical and political origin

⁵ Văideniu George, cited works, p.79.

which involve setting both the educational system development and the pedagogical resources (human, information ones, etc.) necessary for the educational system as a whole;

II. Macrostructural decisions of pedagogical origin, dependent on (I) which imply, in their turn, three elements: establishing the criteria for developing the curricula, establishing the training profiling - development of the student's / learner's personality on various stages of their formation, establishing the methods for total and partial evaluation of their level of instruction;

III. Macro-structural decision also involve: setting the specific objectives for disciplines or modules, setting the educational resources necessary for achieving the specific objectives, setting the methods for the partial evaluation of pupils / students.

The curricular design does not exclude but, on the contrary, supports the three ways of conceiving the correlation teachers - pupils / students at the three levels: the frontal one, in groups, individually, but it should focus more on the individual level. Under the current conditions, the individual education "evolves from the extreme solution, incapable socially ("every teacher works with a pupil at his/her own pace") to the methods of curricular inspiration integrated into different teaching strategies organized frontally or in group: individual worksheets for homework individual homework, learning tasks (games, work or creation) practiced in class and in school or out of school."

c) The philosophical basis of the modular structure of education is holism (from holus = entire, whole) that is "the attempt to conceive a fully integrated unit of information whose elements lose their sequential features."

The modular structure enables the inclusion of the special knowledge into logical assemblies that exceed quantitatively and qualitatively the characteristics of the curricular divisions. The pupils / students are offered chains or modular suite according to the instructive and educational objectives or in accordance with their interests and skills. The modules can be different in terms of difficulty, level and pace of work. The pupil / student chooses or is assigned to follow one (or several) modules with the support of the teacher, evaluating the results afterwards. In case of failure, it is recommended to complete an inferior or a complementary module.

Modular learning cannot be fully extended. As a rule, the basic disciplines are taught from mono-disciplinary perspectives. The modular sizing of the contents "is performed for a group of disciplines (it does not

mean that the modules overlap classic educational subjects, but represents new syntheses, new epistemic perspectives, integrated knowledge sets, etc.) pursuing differentiations even in the professional orientation of the students".

Education for change

From the presentation made in the first part of this study we can be infer that the educational phenomenon is subject, at all levels (conceptual, content, ways of approach, structural-systemic, methodological level, etc.), to changes which are either "natural", caused, directed, or planned.

The second part of the study is devoted to education for change.

In a world like ours, subject to constant changes, faster or slower, more abrupt or more discrete ones, to stagnate, to delay or even to oppose the advancement represent damaging or even dangerous behaviors for the contemporary man in general, for the member of the society in particular. Stagnation means condemnation to poverty (material and spiritual), to misery (material and moral), to death, ultimately.

In the field we envisage, education for change "should be the pivot around which the change of education should be accomplished". Therefore, the school must be a central place for change, for changing mentalities in the first place - at least as important (but also very difficult to solve) as the change and the economic reconstruction of democratic institutions.

Currently, the Central and Eastern Europe countries are facing (some have even embarked on this road and go faster than others) changes that are foreseen to be profound, complete and radical. They want to recover the delay of nearly half a century which separates them from Western Europe. These societies go the other way round, from totalitarian systems to democratic societies and no one - neither scientists, nor politicians, nor economists - "seem to know the best way, but it is clear that whatever path we may choose, this must go through mentalities change (our note), that is through the school changing". The signal for passing to the design of education for a change was given in 1926 by W.H. Kilpatrick, but his voice was not heard until later, after the Second World War and especially during the past 15-20 years. Gaston Berger is the one who raised (after 1950) the problem of education for a changing world, being on a more optimistic position, promoting the thesis that the future can be foreseen in its large lines of evolution and, therefore, it is necessary to act in the direction of developing an education system designed from the perspective of this future.

The young generation should not be educated only to be able adapt to novelty, but also to be able to contribute to the building of the future. "The specific of our world is that it changes faster and faster and that it makes us face some original situations, unforeseen and even unforeseeable" - G.Berger wrote.⁶ That is why, the priority task in shaping the human being should not be instruction, but especially education, namely an education providing the educator with a behaviour open to change and attitudes that should help him make use of the innovative behavioral techniques.

The new educations, having arisen from real needs - education for change, ecological education, modern home economics education, etc. are nothing else but attempts "to prepare the individual and the communities to resolve the complex issues that humanity as a whole must cope with".

Life, modern human experience shows that learning for retention, the simple reproduction of past values, traditions, all these are not enough to "equip" the man of the future society. The old type of learning, based on learning retention cannot meet today's needs, when changes are so rapid and complex that they cause real "shocks" to the contemporary man.

Therefore, the necessity for another type of education arises and that is one "which could bring along change, reunion, restructuring and reformulation of problems - which we will call innovative learning."

This innovative learning, as an essential element of education for change, is nothing but "a necessary means to prepare both individuals and societies to act focused in new situations, especially in situations that have been and continue to be created by mankind itself". In contrast to the traditional learning, the new learning is anticipative, that is in compliance with a vision in which the future must not only be expected or encountered, but also designed and built according to a set of desirable objectives in order to avoid undesirable effects. This type of learning is also characterized by the participatory dimension, thus arising two types of solidarity essential to the survival of the human species: in time (by anticipation).

There are three main areas that need to be activated in the education for change:

- a) noticing and meeting changes;
- b) their evaluation;
- c) the design of the change and the intervention (control of changes),

⁶ Berger, G., *The Modern Man and His Education*, Pedagogical and Didactic Publishing House, Bucharest, 1973

all three envisaging the shaping of the human being so that he can cope with the changes he undergoes in his environment.

What is particularly interesting is the aspect. (c). It is not enough for today's man to notice, to meet and assess the changes that occur in one area or another of society. As a subject of history, of participant in the social processes (and not a spectator!), he should design the changes himself, to intervene in their flow in order to trigger desirable effects, to limit or avoid the undesirable ones. Therefore, he must be educated in the spirit of alternative solutions, in the view of possible future scenarios. The intervention for change also involves, to a certain extent, planning the change (limited and precise objectives, goals and realistic deadlines).

As far as the means of education for change are regarded, these are the stimulation of anticipative imagination, of the possibilities of choice and initiative, of responsibility, by making use of all the resources and processes that create "images of the future", "alternative scenarios", "possible worlds models", "problems with multiple solutions," etc.

In front of such a desirable human behavior, the contemporary education must give an appropriate, adequate answer. It should give up the curriculum on disciplines and start focusing on complex problems, to become an inter- and trans-disciplinary education system. It needs to start adopting, among other things, a strategy that should allow the gradual introduction of new educations within its "classic" structure. The various challenges of the contemporary world have been met by specific educations. The theoretical advances achieved are important but the new contents are still slow in entering into the school framework (still) structured according to the disciplines, under the form of curricula plans. The processes are unequal (or absent) when it comes to introducing the curricular and modular approaches. The demographic, nutritional and, to some extent the ecological education, made their way easier.

A notable weight in developing these new educations stems from the fact that there are difficulties as to the training of educators (teachers) capable of teaching in a modular manner or according to inter- or transdisciplinary contents groups.

In almost all European countries there is a growing gap between the education that people require in a complex world and the one they receive. And this is of utmost importance in economic and social terms, as there is a waste of human resources.

Even in the 21st century, Europe, consisting of independent member states, faces promoting the knowledge and skills of its citizens and the

national education systems that produce them to such an extent that they create the necessary synergies without eliminating the national competence on educational policy.

This is also the reason why the EU Commission requires imperatively, in the next period, the policy makers and school people to rethink school education.

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DEVELOPING FOREIGN STUDENTS' ORAL COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE IN ROMANIAN LANGUAGE

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Abstract: *"The political and economic context of our country, by the adhesion to the European Union has opened the gates of education to internationalization. The Romanian higher education is continuously adapting to the European politics and procedures, among which the ones concerning mobility. The study mobility at all the academic levels – bachelor, master, doctoral is encouraged.*

The academic exchange is bidirectional; the Romanian universities are also hosts to foreign students who choose to attend study programmes both in Romanian and other languages.

This article presents the contexts of teaching Romanian to foreigners, at university level and it concentrates on the teaching methodology underlying the development of oral communication competence in an intercultural context".

Keywords: *oral communication, methodology, Romanian language, intercultural.*

Academic internationalisation in Romania

The Romanian higher education has earned considerable reputation at national and international levels, by the joint efforts of both the management and the teaching staff to ensure a quality-based academic milieu, to provide study programmes in accordance with the European study offers and to establish partnerships with various higher education institutions and companies based in other countries.

Adapting the learning content to the society's demands represents a constant teaching objective of the academic milieu, which leads to increasing the quality of teaching and learning. Encouraging exchanges

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both at student and teacher level contributes to the visibility, at global level, of the Romanian higher education institutions.

In Romanian, the foreign students who study in our universities fall into different categories: mobility through Erasmus – Life Long learning programmes, cooperation agreements for study programmes, short training sessions in foreign languages or in Romanian.

From the ethnic origin standpoint, the international students who choose to study in Romania are the following:

- Romanian ethnic foreign students (from the Moldavian Republic, Serbia, Ukraine, Albania and Diaspora), who receive an Education Order issued by the Ministry of Education, Research, Youth and Sport;
- E.U. third-country nationals, who have a letter of acceptance issued by The Ministry of Education (generally, they pay for their studies in foreign currency or they do not, if they have a scholarship);
- E.U. nationals who are educated under the same conditions as the Romanian citizens

In the Romanian universities, international students may be educated in foreign languages or in the Romanian language, under the same conditions as the national students. The prerequisite for the last category is to make evidence of a linguistic competency certificate issued by one of the institutions authorised by the Ministry of Education, Research, Youth and Sport as a result of one-year- training with the same institution (Order no. 4061/2011¹).

The National Statistics Institute shows that the number of foreign students in Romania has increased, and this is, to our view, mainly due to the adhesion to the European Union. For some of them, starting or continuing education in Romania represents a launch pad to have access to the Western-European job market, while for others, it is a way to obtain relevant certification, valued positively in the country of origin. Another category of students, after graduation, choose to settle in our country alone or, most often, alongside with their families, relatives or co-national friends and establish business locally or work in our labour market.

It is recommended that the educational exchange and the gained intercultural experience should offer the students the possibility to

¹ Order no. 4061/2011 of 15/04/2011 published in The Official Gazette, Part I no. 309 of 05/05/2011

immerse themselves in the target society and culture, to the extent to which this experience also supports their linguistic acquisition.

The Development of Effective Oral Communication Competence

The communicative approach to teaching foreign languages aims at developing effective communication skills. This involves adapting linguistic forms to communication contexts (interlocutor's state, age, social status, the physical place of the communication, etc.) and to the communication intention (language functions: to make requests, to invite, to ask for permission etc.).

The place of culture within the communicative approach is a privileged one, since this method also focuses on non-verbal communication in everyday life. Teacher's role has acquired new meanings such as: a model, a facilitator, an organiser of the teaching activities, an adviser, an analyst of students' needs and interests, a partner of communication etc. Within this approach the students are invited to interact in different formulae: in pairs, small/medium groups etc. Cognitive psychology is appreciated where the student has an active role in his/her own learning process.

The main objective of teaching and learning oral communication competence in a foreign language is to achieve fluency, but, most importantly, to produce effective and socially/culturally adequate communication. If an individual acquires linguistic knowledge in a foreign language and can speak that language this does not automatically mean he/she can communicate effectively with a foreign interlocutor. The message content might not be adequate to the context, or it might contain blunders which could have a negative impact on the communication which takes place in an intercultural setting.

Thus, when we analyse our students' learning needs, with a view to establish the syllabus we must take into account the culture of origin, the most frequent personal and professional contexts which the student will encounter, the degree of awareness of his/her own communication behaviour, based on his/her cultural framework and the degree of openness and tolerance of ambiguous/new/unknown/strange situations etc.

Following this analysis, we may design, along with the students, the course content. Involving the students in selecting the most relevant topics, linguistic elements or language functions to be taught can be

translated by a way to motivate the students and to make them assume responsibility in the teaching and learning process.

Effective oral communication skills, as an outcome of teaching intercultural learning of Romanian as a foreign language may be developed, for example, by using the following methods and activities:

- methods based on exploring reality indirectly, e.g. by simulations and role plays
- methods of oral communication such as debates, conversations
- methods which immerse the students in the real world (the ethnographic method)
- guided visits, etc

Simulations and role plays aim at indirectly immersing the students in the target culture or professional/personal situations, which can anticipate a possible future such context and which, by preparing the students linguistically and from the adequate behaviour point of view, contributes to decentring the learner from his/her own biases. In real life, the inadequate reactions may lead to conflict and communication dead end. The simulations and role plays may address topics such as: at the airport, at the doctor, at the postal office, in an interview, discussing with authorities, in a meeting, professional negotiation etc.

Oral communication methods, such as debates and conversations are based on a visual/audio input (a written/oral text, a picture, a film, a song etc). Once the input has been launched, the students are invited to use the language functions, for instance the ability to express opinions, to build for/against arguments, to politely interrupt the interlocutor, to ask for details, and so on. As teachers, we should always underline that the language functions should be expressed in an adequate register.

The ethnographic method, used in teaching foreign languages and borrowed from cultural anthropology, is a collecting data method. Hence, the student becomes a researcher or a participant observer involved one hundred per cent in his/her own research. He/she is made responsible for and motivated to find answers to his/her own questions. The students are encouraged to go into the society, to conduct interviews and to talk to the native people about the relevant topic. Once the data have been collected, they may move a step forward and write down their reports and projects, which, may, afterwards, be presented to the class. The method is complex and requires effective preparation and monitoring on part of the teacher but, also, time to do the research and present the findings, on part the

students. The ethnographic method, which positions the foreign student in the new cultural context, supports him/her to develop critical thinking skills, the analytical mind, awareness of his/her own reactions, behaviour and emotions, as well as awareness of the interlocutor's cultural framework.

Cultural guided visits are based on a lesson scenario, thus they are integral part of the course topic (for example, the topic "at the airport" may be followed up by a visit to an airport, which facilitates learning the linguistic elements adequate in the given context, or the topic related to "accommodation/inhabiting" may be accompanied by a visit to an ethnographic museum, which presents the history of the Romanian traditional houses). This represents an input for further teaching activities: an oral presentation, a role play, a brainstorming session etc.

Approaching teaching Romanian for foreigners should not be different from teaching any other modern language such as German, English, French etc. In comparison with the beginnings of teaching this subject matter, when the student books contained a large amount of grammar explanations, and, mostly, grammar drills and repetitive models, the recent period, most of the books available in book shops or in scientific centres have approached teaching Romanian as a foreign language from a communicative and cultural perspective, which adds value to the aforementioned domain.

Further directions in teaching Romanian as a foreign language

Learning a foreign language does not mean only focusing on an academic subject matter. This becomes a resource, a means of acquiring effective communication skills. Effectively conveying messages is always dependent on context and, as culture is part of the context, communication is rarely devoid of cultural elements. Therefore, it is important that students should become aware of both their own and others' cultural patterns; unless this happens, the messages in a foreign language will be interpreted in a limited manner, in accordance with one's own cultural framework, and this may lead to biased and erroneous interpretations and ineffective communication.

Nowadays, the society requires a set of skills, which the student is taught during the studies. Starting with the idea that the faculty prepares students for a future profession, nowadays the academic curriculum from many countries includes both teaching foreign languages and intercultural skills. In America, Australia or Canada there is a constant focus on

supporting their international students, since these countries have a rich multicultural demographic and academic experience. The European Union has emerged as a conglomeration of nation states and has quickly become the stage of co-habitation of more cultural identities. By the Council of Europe and the European Commission's policies and action regarding the promotion of plurilingualism and multiculturalism, various guidelines are created as concerns a European attitude, which promotes the intercultural social dialogue and the celebration of cultural diversity. The intercultural approach to teaching foreign languages concentrates on developing communicative competence in multicultural settings, and should be the focus in a methodology of teaching Romanian for foreigners.

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LEXICAL PRODUCTIVITY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE A THEORETICAL APPROACH

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Abstract: *The morphological productivity represents a central theme in the study of words' formation. After a brief passage through the various definitions and theories given by top leading linguists, which can pave the way towards achieving the proposed research, as being an enough sinuous path, - I would say.*

This theme, after being overshadowed a long period of time, drew, nowadays, many authors' attention, having a fruitful result, taking into account the apparition of major research studies on this topic: Baayen (1992, 1994, 2003), Bauer (2001, 2005), Plag (1999, 2003, 2006), Stekauer (1998, 2001, 2005), Schultink (1992), etc.

*A major contribution to the theory of word formation and an undeniable influence on this subject had Hans Marchand, proponent of "Tübingen Schule"¹, who was heavily influenced by the American structuralism. His work *The Categories and Types of Present-Day English Word-Formation* from 1960, is considered a guide mark in the field of the derivational morphology.*

Keywords: *productivity, lexical creativity, morphology, affixation, lexical innovation.*

*"Productivity is one of the central
mysteries of derivational morphology"
Mark Aronoff*

We can distinguish at least seven definitions of productivity in the specific literature, these definitions are conditioned by: the frequency of the produced word, the number of the available databases, the proportion of the words used in reality, in comparison with the number of words potentially created as a result of a particular process, the possibility of

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¹ The Catholic School from the German town Tübingen.

new words' formation, the probability of new words' formation and the number of new words which appear in a given period of time.

Taking into account the different points of view, we could say that the two terms, *creativity* and *productivity* can be considered as hyponyms of the word *innovation*. Productivity is a morphological process governed by rules, while creativity is not subject to this government.

If we read the specific literature concerning the English language, with the problems of the vocabulary's enrichment, we find that the linguistic phenomenon - which represents, under various manifestations, the language's and speakers' ability and opportunity to create a new word, has this interesting name : productivity.

Productivity in English, with a wide range of different words which explains, enhances or varies the expression of the same meaning: *innovation, change, modification, transformation, translation of meaning, new combinations, enrichment and degradation of meaning, semantic mutations, semantic evolutions, dynamics of the meaning, etc..*

It is needless the opening of the dictionary in order to find that "*productivity*" and "*creativity*" are synonymous, since they are similarly defined. But let's see which these definitions are, as they were given by top leading linguists, definitions which reflect different opinions, but which are based on the same concept, that one of language's creation :

- "Productivity is defined as the possibility of creating new words based on existing words or word-forming elements"².

- "the statistical readiness with which an element enters into new combinations"³,

- "The Possibility for language users to coin, unintentionally, a number of formations that is, in principle, enumerably infinite." (Schultink 1961)⁴;

- "Speakers' ability to create infinitely Many new combinations out of the finite linguistic they have resources at their disposal"⁵.

John Lyons - a British linguist - states that "all living languages (...) are, by their nature sustainable and sufficient communication systems, carrying into practice the various and multiple social needs belonging to the communities which use them. As these needs change, languages will

² Ingo Plag, *Word-Formation in English*

³ D. L. Bolinger *On Defining the Morpheme*. Word, 1948, p.18.

⁴ Henk Schultink, *Produktiviteit als morfologisch fenomeen* in *Forum der Letteren*, 1961, p. 110

⁵ Robins, R. H., *A Short History of Linguistics*, 1967, p.192.

tend to evolve in order to get through the new conditions. If it needs new terms, they will be placed in vocabulary, by means of borrowing them from other languages, either by creating them from the existing items into the vocabulary through the internal means of language”⁶.

I think that is very important and Eugene Coşeriu's theory perceives the language as **energeia**, concept introduced by Aristotle, quoted by Humboldt. For Humboldt, “**energeia**” means creative activity and Coşeriu proposed the language to be perceived as a creative activity in all its forms⁷.

Concerning **the creativity**, Eugen Coşeriu perceives a difference between Humboldt and Chomsky, namely, the sense of creativity in Humboldt differs from that of Chomsky. “The Humboldt's is not producing sentences through language, but about the language's production itself.”⁸

Known for his “Theory of Generative Grammar” and for his contributions to theoretical linguistics, Chomsky is the one who has revolutionized the entire modern linguistics' system through his famous generative models. He is one who has made a clear distinction between linguistics' competence and linguistics' performance.

“Chomsky was and remains concerned about the way in which, in any language, speakers may find infinite uses of scarce resources”⁹.

Humboldt, Chomsky's precursor, used the concepts of “*energeia*” and “*internal form*”, in analogy with the “*creativity*” and “*the deep structure*” which we can find to Chomsky, too.

Starting from “*energeia*”, Humboldt put **creativity** under the light of new rules and not under the light of déjà used existing rules.

Returning to Coşeriu, we can say that even no linguistics can not produce an unlimited number of facts of language, starting from a system of rules, but this production may cause and create new production rules. The language is not an inert product, but it is something to become. There is not a tool, but “*energeia*”, a creative activity.¹⁰

⁶ Lyons 1995: 57

⁷ Coşeriu, Eugen – *Sprache. Strukturen und Funktionen XII. Aufsätze zur allgemeinen und romanischen Sprachwissenschaft. Structures and functions. XII. Essays on general linguistics and roman linguistic*, Second Edition, Gunter Narr Publishing House, Tübingen, 1971, p.112

⁸ Coşeriu, Eugen, p.135.

⁹ Robins, R. H., *op.cit.*, p.311.

¹⁰ Coşeriu, Eugen, *Linguistic competence: Principles of speaking theory*, Franke Publishing House, Tübingen, 1988, p.11.

We meet, to Theodor Hristea almost the same definition given by Plag: "Considering that word formation is a section of lexicology (in the broadest sense), we claim that it leads to the creation of new lexical units that already exist in a given language"¹¹.

"In the Romanian linguistics, the word formation is one of the most important chapters of a language, because it may be seen there the mechanism of lexical creation itself or how a language works in order to create, for itself, new items which are endowed with new meanings."¹²

So, we feel the need to clarify, in some extension the difference between creativity and productivity, a fine difference which may be discerned by taking into account, over time, the views of linguists.

We could start with the question: is it necessary to make a distinction between "productivity" and "creativity" in the morphology's field and in what way? If productivity is not a function of repetition, frequency or semantic coherence, then which kind of factors influence it?

Bauer concludes that there is not, yet, a clear method, an unambiguous one in order to determine the productivity of a morphological process.

He also gives the following definition for productivity: "Productivity of a morphological process is its potential for repetitive non-creative morphological coining".

The subtlety of this definition is suggested by the fact that productivity is seen as an ambiguous phenomenon that is placed between availability and profitability.

This important distinction is taken from Corbin, who made a limitation of processes between "available" (reserved/disponible, in French) and "profitable" (advantageous/rentable in French)¹³.

A process is available, available in a given area, if the grammar allows the formation of new words through that process, in the synchronic plan.

It is a property is "all-or-nothing". For example, a verb ended in *-ise* may be nominated by the suffix *-ation*, but not with the suffix *-ment*, so it is allowed V-ise suffixation +*-ation*, and not +*-ment*. We may find that a process is profitable when it allows the formation of new words, training which can be affected by linguistic and extra-linguistic constraints.

¹¹ Hristea, Theodor, *Romanian Language Syntheses*, Didactic and Pedagogic Publishing House, Bucharest, 1981

¹² Rosetti, Al., ILR 2, p.237.

¹³ Corbin, D., *Morphologie derivationale et structuration du lexique*, Max Niemeyer Verlag, Tübingen, 1987.

CONCLUSION

1. The disponibility is the potential of a morphological process to create new words, repeatedly, under certain rules;

2. Profitability reflects the extent to which the availability of a morphological process is exploited in the use of the language.

An interesting and objective aspect, underlined by Bauer, is the role of using corpus as very valuable tool in the study of productivity in the current language. Corpus gives us a realistic picture of the language, as shown by way of speaking and writing. But an analyzed corpus has the same inherent weakness: it can not cover everything that happens and is new in the use of language, in speech, even in a selected field. We have just samples, but not catalogues or complex dictionaries in order to enumerate everything that happens in a language. There are still more explicit dictionaries, for example Oxford English Dictionary which contains information on when a particular shape began to be productive.

The structure of the individual language can also play a role in what counts as natural for that language. In the case of English derivation, we can see that classchanging morphology is overwhelmingly suffixal.

The infinite number of possible formations is determined by the fact that the class of bases is in principle open, and so cannot be pre-determined; in practice the number of possible formations may be relatively constrained and the number of actual formations very small (consider, for example, derivatives with the prefix *step-* such as *step-mother*, *step-son*, *steprelationship*).

What perhaps stands out most clearly in all of this is the way in which morphological productivity is being taken more seriously as a part of linguistic theorizing than it used to be. Productivity may be an epiphenomenon of something more basic, it may be two separate phenomena, availability and profitability, it may be a matter of grammar or it may not, but it is no longer being ignored.

Lexical word-formation processes do not appear to be as 'regular' (a term we need to take care in interpreting) as, say, syntactic processes are. Thus lack of productivity in morphology is equated to lexical word-formation, productivity to inflectional morphology.

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TECHNIQUES DIDACTIQUES MODERNES DANS L'ENSEIGNEMENT DU FRANÇAIS LANGUE ÉTRANGÈRE

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Abstract: *Our paper proposes to highlight the important idea that the aim in the teaching of foreign languages is the communication in French. From this point of view, the integration of the pragmatic dimension of language teaching is very important to teach a foreign language. Techniques for simulation exercises will be essential to the teaching of French as a foreign language as well as all progress will be linked to linguistic teacher education.*

Keywords: *communication, simulation, foreign languages, dialogue.*

Les linguistes nous rappellent, en effet, que la fonction du langage est de permettre aux individus d'une société, de communiquer entre eux, c'est-à-dire de se parler. L'acte de communication linguistique suppose au moins deux interlocuteurs, c'est-à-dire le dialogue¹, or les techniques de mise en situation ont pour point de départ toujours le dialogue.

«Le langage qui n'est pas un acte de communication relève de la névrose ou du délire et l'on sait que l'échec de la communication, l'incommunicabilité, c'est en fait, l'échec du langage»². C'est pourquoi nous sommes tentés de rappeler les expériences concernant la dérision et la crise du langage chez les personnages d'Ionesco et de Beckett.

Ces considérations ont amené une véritable révolution dans l'enseignement des langues vivantes. Il n'y a pas très longtemps que tout le monde croyait fermement en l'efficacité absolue des exercices structuraux. On estimait alors que par cette pratique des exercices strictement contrôlés on pourrait former chez les élèves la compétence de parler couramment une langue étrangère. Mais, on a constaté assez vite que les élèves formés à l'aide des exercices structuraux n'étaient pas en état de s'exprimer librement dans une conversation en dehors des exercices préparés en classe. Alors T. Cristea avait raison d'affirmer que

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¹ A. Ubersfeld, *Lire le théâtre*, Éditions sociales, Paris, 1977, p. 328.

² T., Cristea, *Linguistique et techniques d'enseignement*, Université de Bucuresti, Faculté de Langues Etrangères, 1984 – 318 p..

«L'étude de la langue orale qui était auparavant sacrifiée à celle de l'écrit, a été revalorisée»³.

Aujourd'hui, le problème de la communication orale se trouve au centre de toutes les préoccupations des enseignants, surtout de ceux qui enseignent une langue étrangère. On insiste de plus en plus sur la nécessité de passer de la pratique des « modèles » des exercices contrôlés, à l'exécution des exercices plus complexes qui donnent aux apprenants la compétence de communiquer.

A ce point de vue, Teodora Cristea soulignait dans son livre *Linguistique et technique d'enseignement*, l'importance de la dimension pragmatique dans la didactique des langues : « L'intérêt suscité par l'intégration de la dimension pragmatique à la sphère de la linguistique a eu des conséquences importantes pour la didactique des langues étrangères. L'une des conséquences a été que la manipulation des structures n'est que l'une des phases de l'enseignement n'est pas nécessairement la première. Les exercices portant sur des fragments isolés doivent être intégrés très vite à des techniques plus complexes et plus dynamiques⁴.

Il s'agit plus exactement des techniques de mise en situation auxquelles on pourrait trouver beaucoup de ressemblances avec l'articulation des signes à l'intérieur de l'ensemble texte – représentation qui caractérise le discours théâtral semblable au discours didactique.

Plusieurs points de vue nous semblent utiles:

a) l'étude de la langue orale qui était auparavant sacrifiée à celle de l'écrit, a été remise en question. Cela a entraîné la mise au point d'une pédagogie spécifique de l'oral, notamment en ce qui concerne la phonétique et les structures propres à la langue parlée. Les besoins des professeurs de français langue étrangère ont suscité beaucoup de recherches linguistiques et pédagogiques du français oral.

b) par conséquent, l'approche d'une langue étrangère doit être faite à partir de l'oral. On s'est aperçu en effet que l'apprentissage du français oral était souvent compromis si l'apprenant commençait par la langue écrite ou même s'il abordait simultanément l'étude des deux codes l'oral et l'écrit.

³ T. Cristea, *Linguistique et techniques d'enseignement*, Ed. Universităţii Bucureşti, 1979, p. 108

⁴ T. Cristea, *ibidem*, p. 109

L'enseignement classique qui mettait l'accent sur l'écrit, sur la traduction, quoique doué de bonnes intentions, a perdu du terrain en faveur d'un enseignement plus proche de la réalité des langues vivantes. Beaucoup d'années on a eu la tendance d'oublier la personnalité de l'apprenant, ses possibilités intellectuelles, sa créativité, ses expériences de la vie quotidienne et on l'a considéré malheureusement un récepteur privé de toute capacité de compréhension. Ce renversement de la démarche traditionnelle a, par la suite, posé d'autres problèmes, surtout des difficultés concernant le passage à l'écrit pour l'étudiant qui a commencé l'étude du français langue étrangère par l'oral. Certes, «à un certain niveau d'études l'écrit reprend ses droits et il ne saurait être question de passer d'un excès à l'autre, à savoir de sacrifier l'écrit à l'oral comme on a sacrifié l'oral à l'écrit pendant de si nombreuses années».⁵ Ces prises de position ont été déterminées par les théories linguistiques modernes qui ont influencé la didactique. Centrées sur les rapports que la linguistique entretient avec la didactique, les dernières recherches ont comme présupposé fondamental l'idée que la fonction linguistique est une composante essentielle de l'activité du professeur de langues étrangères.

Par conséquent, quelle que soit la méthode choisie et la manière dont le professeur ait assimilé les tendances fondamentales dans l'enseignement du français langue étrangère et dans la linguistique appliquée, il est évident que le progrès sera lié à la formation linguistique de l'enseignant. A mesure que le professeur est ouvert vers d'autres recherches, il sera un homme cultivé en état d'appliquer n'importe quelle méthode nouvelle, à ses besoins, à l'objectif actuel d'ordre pratique de l'enseignement des langues étrangères: la communication.

C'est l'une des raisons pour laquelle on a constaté qu'il n'était plus permis de négliger le sens et de pratiquer uniquement des exercices mécaniques d'apprentissage des modèles.

Dans l'enseignement des langues étrangères, notamment du français, on pourrait mettre en évidence deux tendances essentielles:

a) un certain éloignement par rapport aux aspects des méthodes orales les plus rigides;

b) l'emploi des techniques qui supposent un entraînement des facultés intellectuelles plus grand, en insistant sur la capacité créatrice des apprenants dans tout le procès de l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère.

^{5 5} T. Cristea, *ibidem*, Chap.II, p. 108.

Selon N. Chomsky «l'apprentissage n'est plus un problème d'habitude et de conditionnement ni une simple réponse aux stimuli extérieurs, mais un procès créatif qui suppose une activité cognitive consciente de l'élève»⁶

Tout cela explique la raison pour laquelle on parle de plus en plus de la nécessité d'établir une liaison entre le contenu des exercices et les intérêts des apprenants. Par rapport aux exercices de répétition automatique de combinaison des éléments de langue en classe, nous devons offrir à nos étudiants la possibilité de choisir les éléments qui pourront mieux exprimer leurs opinions, leurs idées. Le professeur devra habituer ses étudiants débutants à ce genre d'exercices, dès les premières leçons, tenant compte que le désir de communiquer dans une langue étrangère constitue le plus souvent le point de départ le plus décisif dans l'apprentissage et l'emploi spontané d'une langue étrangère.

Dans notre analyse de quelques techniques de mise en situation en classe de français langue étrangère, sans avoir la prétention de l'exhaustivité, nous proposons quelques types d'exercices pour développer la créativité dans l'activité de communication orale et écrite. Le professeur de français langue étrangère pourra utiliser plusieurs types d'exercices à partir des plus traditionnels jusqu'aux plus modernes, ayant tous le même but, l'acquisition de la compétence de communication.

Les techniques de mise en situation apparaissent aussi dans des exercices plus traditionnels tels que: le dialogue dirigé, la micro-conversation, les exercices par groupe de deux, le réemploi libre. Le recours au dialogue, acte de communication linguistique par excellence est essentiel aussi bien dans les techniques de mise en situation plus traditionnelles du type : dialogue enseignant- apprenant et dialogue entre les étudiants que dans des expériences plus modernes. Il faut reconnaître que dans la quasi- totalité des manuels récents, le point de départ de la leçon est un dialogue en situation, un document authentique avec des extraits de la vie quotidienne.

Par rapport aux méthodes plus ou moins traditionnelles les techniques de simulation présentent une modification essentielle qui implique à la fois une conception différente de l'apprentissage et une démarche inverse à celle qui est généralement adoptée.

Si dans les méthodes classiques on partait de la contrainte linguistique à partir des structures ou fragments de grammaire enseignés vers une

⁶ N. Chomsky, *Le langage et la pensée*, Editions Payot, Paris, 1970

situation de communication, dans un enseignement fondé sur la simulation la démarche est inverse.

Une remarque s'impose: il ne faut pas confondre la simulation à des exercices de répétitions qu'on appelle aussi «des gammes» par certains linguistes tels que F. Debyser dont nous citons ses affirmations que: « dans une certaine acception didactique, les gammes doivent nécessairement précéder les exercices de simulation».⁷

Alors, à juste titre, nous pourrions nous demander: comment peut-on concilier la nécessité de fournir aux enseignés les éléments indispensables à la construction des messages (fragments isolés de grammaire, inventaire lexical de base) et la nécessité de leur faire acquérir le plus vite possible la compétence de communication?

«La meilleure solution, répond T. Cristea, serait de diminuer le rôle qui revient aux manipulations de structures au profit des gammes introduites par des pratiques de simulation»⁸.

Parmi les différents types de simulations on pourrait mentionner: les exercices de simulation à partir d'une micro-conversation; les jeux linguistiques; les dramatisations; les activités ludiques, l'échange d'informations par questions; la reconstitution de texte, etc.

«On entend par simulation, la production simulée, fictive et jouée d'échanges interpersonnels organisés autour d'une situation problème: cas à étudier, problème à résoudre, décision à prendre, projet à discuter, conflit à arbitrer un litige, dispute, débat, situation de conseil»⁹

La méthodologie des langues vivantes a introduit parfois sans le savoir la simulation à trois étapes de son évolution:

1) avec l'introduction de la méthode directe (aujourd'hui remise en question)

2) avec la méthode fondée sur l'exploitation d'un dialogue en situation

3) à certains moments de la classe, notamment celui du réemploi et dans certains exercices allant vers l'expression libre.

La simulation est un élément essentiel dans la préparation des futurs spécialistes. Quand ils seront impliqués dans des situations de

⁷ F. Debyser, «Simulation et réalité dans l'enseignement des langues vivantes», *Le Français dans le monde*, nr 104, 1974, p.6

⁸ T. Cristea, *Linguistique et techniques d'enseignement*, Bucuresti, 1979, p. 109

⁹ F. Debyser, «Dramatisation, simulation et jeux de rôles», *Le Français dans le monde*, nr 123, p.24

communication réelles, ils devront s'adapter et savoir utiliser les compétences acquises, être à la pointe de l'actualité.

La méthodologie des langues vivantes emploie la simulation dans l'enseignement en tant que moyen de mettre les apprenants en situations pareilles à celles où ils se trouveraient dans la vie quand ils devront employer les connaissances acquises pendant les classes de français langue étrangère.

On sait par exemple que la plupart des manuels modernes contiennent des textes qui sont le plus souvent par un dialogue présenté par une situation que l'étudiant comprend globalement aidé par les moyens audio- visuels. Par des exercices de répétitions les apprenants sont amenés à mémoriser le dialogue et même à le mimer. Ces techniques sont employées surtout pour les débutants mais ce n'est pas exactement la simulation. Ainsi une demande d'informations à un guichet implique des formules impératives de politesse, des précisions temporelles quantitatives, proches de la vie quotidienne, etc.

Une remarque s'impose: dans ces exercices, le rôle essentiel revient au professeur qui est l'animateur de la conversation et qui intervient dans des moments clés, essentiels pour la continuation de l'exercice. On pourrait aussi donner d'autres exemples pour introduire des exercices de simulation: une situation où l'on peut donner des conseils, des ordres ou des modes d'emploi ayant des chances d'imposer l'impératif ou les complétives introduites par *falloir* ou *devoir*; une situation où l'on est amené à exprimer des sentiments favorisant l'apparition de diverses complétives, ainsi que le subjonctif. Enfin, une situation où l'on est amené à raconter un événement auquel on a assisté et qui va introduire l'emploi du passé composé et de l'impératif à partir de la question: qu'est-ce que tu as pris au petit déjeuner?

Dans le procès de l'enseignement du français langue étrangère il est nécessaire de tenir compte aussi des éléments paralinguistiques (gestes, mimiques, attitudes) qui nous rappellent les signes du discours dramatiques. N'importe quel enseignant qui a une bonne formation linguistique et pédagogique et qui connaît bien la psychologie des apprenants, saura exploiter les codes différents, les gestes, la mimique, tous ces éléments qui peuvent être différents d'une communauté à l'autre, d'une culture à l'autre.

Les recherches tentées par les linguistes importants (L. Bloomfield¹⁰, E. Sapir¹¹, Edw. I. Hall¹² et J. Kristeva¹³ nous paraissent très intéressantes dans l'analyse de la kinésique et de la proxémique.

Pour conclure, nous soulignons qu'à l'époque actuelle l'enseignement des langues vivantes est constamment stimulé par de nouvelles notions et par des recherches toujours plus poussées en linguistique générale et linguistique appliquée en sociolinguistique ou en psycholinguistique, en didactique du français langue étrangère. Devant ce foisonnement d'idées, de théories, d'expériences qui se remettent en question le plus souvent, un professeur de langues étrangères pourrait, d'une part, s'enfoncer dans la routine, ne rien chercher, et d'autre part, avoir une attitude plus favorable au progrès, être un homme informé, à la pointe de l'actualité. Il pourra choisir parmi tant d'idées nouvelles celles qui lui paraissent vraiment utiles et mieux correspondre à ses propres besoins.

Voilà donc une raison pour laquelle, il est de plus en plus nécessaire que le professeur soit capable de préparer lui-même un matériel pédagogique adapté à ses étudiants et aux moyens techniques dont il dispose.

¹⁰ Leonard Bloomfield (1^{er} avril 1887 - 18 avril 1949) est un linguiste américain qui a mené ses recherches à un grand développement de la linguistique structurale aux États-Unis dans le courant des années 1930 et 1940. Il est considéré comme le père fondateur du *distributionalisme*. En 1914, Leonard Bloomfield écrit *An Introduction to the Study of Language* qui sera titré *Language* à partir de son édition de 1933, destinée à un large public, dans laquelle il présente une description exhaustive de la linguistique structurale américaine. Leonard Bloomfield a également apporté d'importantes contributions à l'étude historique des langues indo-européennes.

¹¹ Edward Sapir (26 janvier 1884 - 4 février 1939) est un linguiste et anthropologue américain d'origine lituanienne. Son travail porte essentiellement sur le langage en tant que fait culturel à part entière. Il est notamment connu pour la fameuse hypothèse Sapir-Whorf. Il est l'initiateur du concept de *dérive linguistique* (ou *dérive des langues*). Selon lui, le langage se déplace selon un courant (*drift*) propre, malgré l'ensemble aléatoire des créations individuelles: l'évolution des langues est orientée et les changements l'entraînent dans une direction définie. (*Language*, New York, Harcourt, 1921).

¹² E. T. Hall, *Le Langage silencieux*, Seuil, 1971 ((en) *The Silent Language*, 1959). Le concept le plus connu de Edward T. Hall est la proxémie (distance physique qui s'établit entre des personnes prises dans une interaction). Dans son livre *La Dimension cachée*, il décrit la dimension subjective qui entoure quelqu'un et la distance physique à laquelle les individus se tiennent les uns des autres selon des règles culturelles subtiles.

¹³ J. Kristeva, *Recherches pour une sémanalyse*, Editions du Seuil, Paris, 1969.

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COMPETENCY PROFILE FOR TEACHERS - BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN IDEAL AND REALITY

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Abstract: *When analyzing the competency profile of a teacher, we usually refer to a professional standard or framework of competencies that represent the ideal profile of the person whose job is to train students. The professional skills and their level of development determine the extent to which the teacher can assume various professional roles. More often than not we notice in the Romanian educational system a major gap between the professional teaching standards and the reality we find in school.*

In this paper, we intend to present an analysis of the teacher competencies from two perspectives: that of the existing competencies standards and profiles, and the one that stems from the perceptions of pupils.

Keywords: *teacher, teaching competencies, competency profile.*

1. GENERAL AND SPECIFIC OCCUPATIONAL SKILLS FOR TEACHING PROFESSION

Professor Dan Potolea (2001)¹ defines the standard as "a statement indicating demanding criterion or norm against which one can appreciate the quality of a program, process, product or performance; a standard expresses expected values, alleged qualities, and mandatory professional practice"

The author identifies four levels of analysis of a standard: 1. institutional standards (institutional structures, human and material resources, managerial system); 2. curricular standards (standards for objectives, content standards, time standards); 3. instructional standards (methods, strategies, organizational forms of training); 4. assessment and

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¹ Potolea, D., *Standards for teacher training: a reference framework and some issues*. The seminar: "Initial and continuous teacher training", organized by „Educatia 2000+”, Sinaia, 2001.

certification standards (criteria, methods, evaluation forms all of the above essential to: the selection of candidates, the assessment of the training process, certification of studies).

In the same paper are proposed sources and criteria for establishing standards for teacher training: (1) axiological political and philosophical sources / factors; (2) professional roles of teachers (professional roles - the very source of derivation of standard pedagogical skills; new professional roles and the need to review and redefine professional roles); (3) University courses particularities and nature of courses / subjects of education (4) stages of professional development; career development; (5) paradigm / explanatory models of efficiency and effectiveness of teachers; (6) developments in educational science; development of specialized research (Dan Potolea, 2001)².

In standards' development, an important element is the professional competence that can be understood as "the process of selection, combination and appropriate use, as an integrated and dynamic unit, of knowledge and skills (eg cognitive, relational, ethical skills), in order to solve successfully a certain type of situations - in terms of efficiency and effectiveness." (Dan Potolea et alli., 2006)³. The same concept is defined by Professor Ioan Jinga (2001)⁴ as "one's ability to properly solve a problem, to make appropriate decisions, to perform a task or to practice a profession in good condition and with good results". In relation to the teaching profession, Jinga defines competence as "that set of cognitive, affective, motivational and managerial skills, which interacts with the teacher's personality traits, giving him the necessary qualities to ensure the achievement of his objectives". The concept of "pedagogical competence" tends to be used with the meaning of a minimum professional standard, often specified by law, to which should raise a person that is fulfilling a teaching profession, so that society can be protected from the risk that this job is performed by poorly trained people (Diaconu M. et alli., 2004)⁵.

² Idem 2.

³ Potolea, D., Toma S., Zaharia S., Mironov C., Borzea E., *Conceptual basis for the development of a National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education*. București, Paideia Publishing House, 2006.

⁴ Jinga, I., Istrate, E., *Pedagogy*, București, ALL Publishing House, 2001.

⁵ Diaconu, M., Jinga, I. Ciobanu, O., Pescaru, A., Păduraru, M., *Pedagogy*, București, ASE Publishing House, 2004.

The dimensions of teachers' professional competence arise from the roles that they fulfill (Jinga, 2001)⁶: information provider, designer of learning situations and teaching-learning strategies, evaluator, organizer and coordinator of teaching activities, counselor. The author identifies three dimensions of teaching competence, each of those materialized through a number of capacities: (1) professional competence; (2) pedagogical competence; (3) psychosocial and managerial competence.

To understand the concept of competence and the ways by which it can be formed, it is necessary to highlight some issues arising from research made by specialists in educational sciences:

- Competence is highlighted in a real professional context;
- Competence evolves gradually is situated into a continuum that goes from simple to complex;
- Competence is based on a set of skills and attitudes;

Among the general professional skills for the teaching profession we can identify the following:

- capacity to design, implement and asses the educational process in secondary education;
- capacity to structure the content of teaching;
- knowledge, skills and attitudes required for students' counseling;
- ability to investigate and solve specific problems of school and education.

In 2004, the Ministry of Education from Romania approved the standard for the teaching profession, specifying six general categories of skills: 1. Methodological skills; 2. Communication and networking skills; 3. Student's assessment skills; 4. Psychosocial skills; 5. Technological and technical skills; 6. Career Management Skills. For each competence are derived multiple specific skills, for the latter being offered examples of categories of activities that can help achieve desired skills.

Another theoretical approach is found by analyzing the core competencies of the teaching profession, developed by the National Centre for Teachers, Training (CNFP), in 2007, in this case being mentioned five basic skills: 1. Facilitating innovative learning processes and student-centered teaching; 2. Evaluation and monitoring the results of teaching and learning; 3. Designing and implementation of curriculum,

⁶ Idem 5

schedules, training materials and teaching methods; 4. Building partnerships within and outside the school community; 5. Pursuit for the professional and personal development. Each competence has three levels of complexity.

2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Apart from standards and theoretical models from the in the research literature, we are interested in students' perception regarding the "competent teacher" In this respect we posed the question *how much of what is presented in pedagogical literature, and professional standards are found in everyday student teacher relationship in the classroom? What it means for a student to be competent teacher?* Based on these questions, in March 2014, we conducted a survey based on a questionnaire applied to a number of 100 high school students who are studying in selected high school from Bucharest, were the economics students are attending the pedagogical training program offered by the Teacher Training Department from the Bucharest University of Economic Studies.

2.1. Research Objectives

The first objective of this study aims to identify the skills that students believe that a "good" teacher should have, while the second objective implies highlighting the personality traits of a "good" teacher from the students' perspective.

2.2. Method

The method used was questionnaire based survey. For this purpose was developed a questionnaire whose questions were grouped into three categories: questions that were focused on the skills of a "good" teacher; questions about personality traits that should characterize a "good" teacher; questions regarding respondents' identification data.

2.3. Data analysis and interpretation

By gender, majority of respondents are women (65 girls and 35 boys).

Asked to express their opinion about the need for teachers' continuous training, 97% of respondents felt that this is necessary for a good teacher. Regarding the importance given by students to certain categories of competence, we recorded the following answers: communication in mother tongue (78% consider it very important, 16%

important, 4% less important and 2% not at all important); communication in foreign languages (32% - very important, 61% - important, 7% - less important); digital skills (28% - very important, 64% - important 8% - less important); organizational skills for classroom (77% - very important, 11% - important 12% - less important); entrepreneurial spirit (19% - very important, 52% - important 13% - less important, 16% - not important); interpersonal, social and civic skills (63% - very important, 24% - important 13% - less important); openness towards other cultures (29% - very important, 41% - important 20% - less important, 10% - not important); assessment skills (72% - very important, 20% - important 8% - less important); research skills (66% - very important, 24% - important, 7% - less important, 3% - not important).

Analyzing the answers, we have found that, in the students' opinion, the most important skills that should characterize a good teacher are: communication in mother tongue, organizational skills for classroom, assessment skills, research skills, interpersonal, social and civic skills.

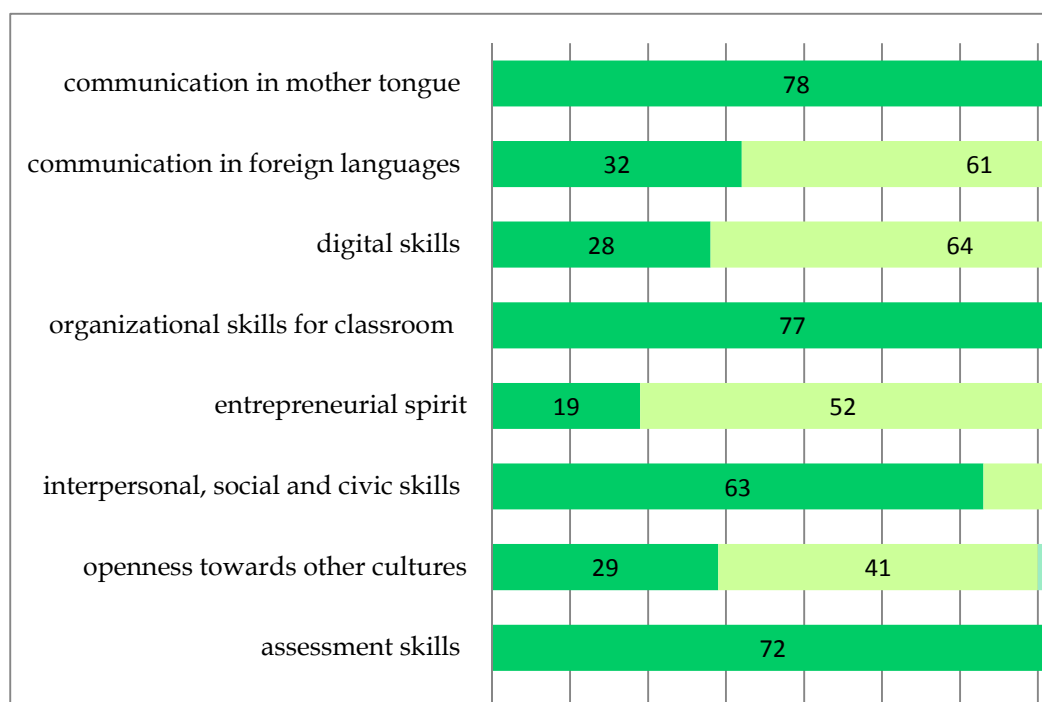


Figure 1: Assessment of teaching skills - students' perspective
Source: Data obtained from the questionnaire

Asked whether the personality traits of a teacher influences his teaching, 87 respondents chose the alternative *yes*, eight chose the alternative *no* and five chose the alternative *I don't know*.

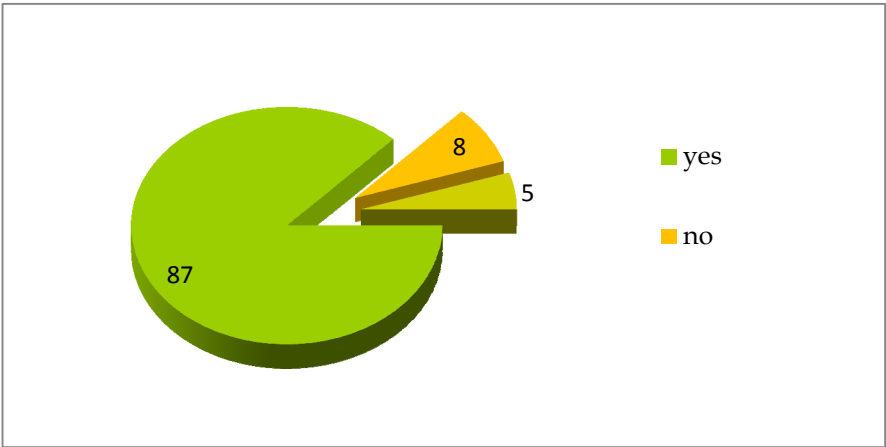


Figure 2: Does the personality traits influence the teching style? - students’ perspective

Source: Data obtained from the questionnaire

The next question aimed to identify the degree of importance that students assign to various personality traits that should characterize a competent teacher. The answers given by students were:

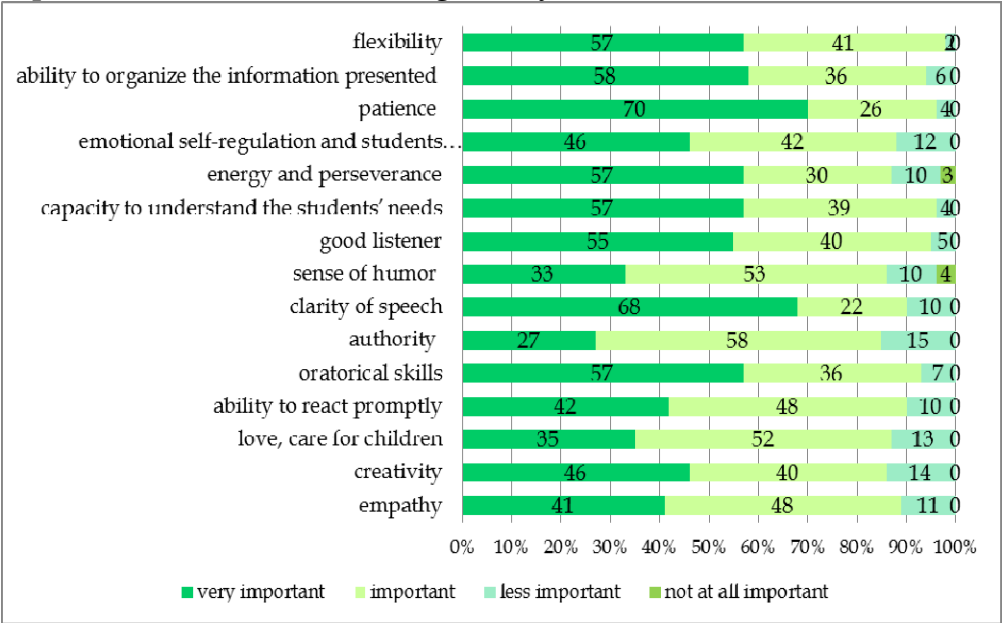


Figure 3: Assessment of teachers’ personality traits - students’ perspective

Source: Data obtained from the questionnaire

Among the most appreciated characteristics of a teacher we find patience, oratorical skills, flexibility, energy and perseverance, the ability to be a good listener, ability to organize the information presented and the capacity to understand the students' needs.

3. A PORTRAIT OF A COMPETENT TEACHER - STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVE

Based on the responses obtained from the questionnaire, we can try to sketch a portrait of a competent teacher. Thus, from students' perspective, the most important competence is *communication in mother tongue*, which implies proper use of grammatical terms and the language level of difficulty. It is important that teacher use age-appropriate language to his students' level of knowledge. *Organizational skills for classroom* are another competence that students consider that is essential for a good teacher. A good teacher teaches his students to work together, but also to compete without raising feelings of envy. Classroom training is meant to prepare students for social integration, for learning to work as a team and individually, for accepting situations where someone loses and someone wins, for establishing common values. We can say that a real teacher should be both an organizer of the time and the group he is taking care for. He is able to form effective working teams, to assign tasks matching students' skills, to stimulate, motivate and create the necessary conditions to achieve the objectives. A competent teacher should show have *research skills*, this competence being highlighted by keeping up to date with the information in his field of study, but also related fields. *Evaluation skills* are considered important too, correlated with *empathy* and the *capacity to understand the students' needs*. Last but not least, a competent teacher should be *able to adapt to changes*. Since we live in an age where everything is constantly changing, the competencies of a teacher are not enough unless they are constantly updated. *The defining personality features of a competent teacher should be*: patience, oratorical skills, flexibility, energy and perseverance, the ability to be a good listener, ability to organize the information presented and the capacity to understand the students' needs.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The best indicator of a teacher efficiency and competence is the performances of its students. Based on William Arthur Ward's statement, according to which "The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher

explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires.” we can say that a competent teacher should focus on students’ need for knowledge. He should put first development of students’ personality, by cultivating their skills and self-confidence and by focusing their attention on learning through personal discovery. A competent teacher should try to harmoniously combine individual work with team work; he should be an organizer of learning conditions, mentor and facilitator, a role model for his students.

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IMPORTANCE OF MENTORING IN TEACHER TRAINING

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Abstract: *Success involves learning and cultivating relationships, building the capacity of teachers, figuring out better pathways to success, and providing the support teachers need to come together as communities of practice. Enhancing a teacher's professional identity is a potential solution to the drift and disconnection experienced by many teachers during their career. Mid-career teacher leadership involvement in a multi-experienced professional cohort presenting and attending together at a conference is one way to increase their professional identity. The potential of an enhanced sense of professional identity through self-awareness of their mastery experiences, collaborative skills and teacher leadership is that it may impact a mid-career teacher's connection to the profession, resulting in a renewal of commitment to teaching. Revolution, not reform, is needed to re-discover the power of teaching. Almost all teachers have tremendous power which can be released, given the proper exposure. This cannot be accomplished by tinkering with a broken system. Intellectual structures, definitions and assumptions should be changed, and then teacher power can be released.*

Keywords: *mentor, mentoring, teacher leadership, early-career teachers, co-teaching.*

MENTORING

Mentor (noun): lifelong learner, supporter, friend, guide, listener, and role model

Mentor (verb): to observe, listen, analyse, discuss, guide, support

Mentoring is the process of serving as a mentor, someone who facilitates and assists another's development. The process includes modelling because the mentor must be able to model the messages and suggestions being taught to the beginner teacher¹ Mentors facilitate

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¹ G. Gay, „Modelling and Mentoring in Urban Education. Education and Urban Society”, Volume 28, NO. 1, 1995, pp.103-118.

learning, model and demonstrate lesson lessons, co-plan, co-teach, and provide feedback, while building and maintaining a trusting relationship. When tied together with instructional coaching, mentors can help new and early-career teachers see their teaching world through a different lens.

High-quality mentoring partnerships provide the new and early-career teacher with an opportunity to work closely with and learn from an experienced teacher. The partnership is fostered by structured collegial exchanges, such as peer observations, face to face conversations outside of school hours, and effective communication via e-mail or telephone, in which the new and early-career teacher and mentor participate together. Structured time is set aside as a necessary part of the collaborative collegial exchange, as it enables collaborating activities such as co-planning, co-teaching, modelling, and reflecting to take place.

When mentors deal with new and early-career teachers who are different in the sense of ethnicity, culture, linguistics, or age, some considerations need to be taken to avoid making judgements. As a result of these expectations, the functions of mentors can be mentioned as follows:

- *Mentors are advisors*, people with career experience willing to share their knowledge.

- *Mentors are supporters*, people who give emotional and moral encouragement.

- *Mentors are tutors*, people who give specific feedback on one's performance.

- *Mentors are masters*, in the sense of employers to whom one is apprenticed.

- *Mentors are sponsors*, sources of information and aids in obtaining opportunities.

Mentors are models, of identity; of the kind of person one should be, to be an academic.

IMPORTANCE OF MENTORING

One of the main problems of the education system in most countries is that teachers have lost their leadership function in the schools. Moreover, it is a very big issue for the beginning teachers. Teacher training through mentoring activities are now considered as an effective professional development methods for new teachers. In fact, authorities think that these training activities can be helpful in educational system for new

teachers as well as experienced teachers². Teacher mentoring encourages teachers to remain in the profession, improves their instruction, and enables them to become members of a learning community. Local school systems were given greater responsibility for developing and implementing teacher mentor programs within their systems. When administrators, mentor teachers, and other stakeholders support novice teachers through their critical first years of teaching, all children are being taught by highly qualified teachers who are committed to their students and their schools. More than this, authorities believe that mentoring training is needed activity than classroom teaching, and that even veteran teachers cannot always objectively measure the effectiveness of teaching process of new teachers³.

TEACHERS MAKING A DIFFERENCE

As I already mentioned above, one of the main goals of mentoring is to keep the new teachers in the profession. Better support structures must be devised to induct new teachers and retain them in the teaching ranks⁴. Moreover, although teaching process involves intensive interaction with the students during the day, the task of teachers is generally done in isolation from colleagues. This can be especially difficult for new teachers who are often left on their own to succeed or fail within the confines of their own classrooms – an experienced likened to being “lost at sea”⁵. Teachers can make a difference in each other’s lives. Experienced teachers who act as mentors are known to be influential in the retention of new teachers. The teacher’s role is absolutely and without a doubt one of the most important roles in the school life. Think of all the people in all different walks of life, people of diverse cultural backgrounds, people of varied intelligence and experience, short ones, tall ones, young ones, older ones – each and every individual has been influenced by a teacher.

² T. Ganser, „Preparing Mentors of Beginning Teachers: An Overview for Staff Developers”, *Journal of Staff Development*, Volume 17, 1996, No.4, pp.8-11.

³ T.M. Bey And C.T. Holmes, *Mentoring: Contemporary Principles and Issues*, Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators, 1992.

⁴ L.A. Huling-Austin, *A Synthesis of Research on Teacher Induction Programs and Practices*, Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA, 1989.

⁵ T. Sizer, *Horace’s Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1992.

Mentoring programmes are critical for success of new teachers, and a focused programme dealing with specific issues such as special education can be beneficial.

We must be equipped with skills of quality teaching, a positive attitude, a love of learning more about ourselves and others, and the ability to reach a diverse group teachers and students where there are sometimes more cultures represented in one school than we ever thought possible, at times when we are asked to deal with intercultural issues that we may not even be aware of.

MENTORING ACTIVITIES

There is no fixed way of establishing a mentoring activities and program. One researcher recommends that after goals are set, it becomes timely to establish the mentoring program so that it will support the mentor-protégé pairs “throughout the development of their relationship.” An initial step is to build a support structure that includes the making of physical arrangements and the handling of logistics. Another step is to create mechanisms for monitoring and communicating to ensure continual assessment of the relationship. A third step is to evaluate the staff developer’s skills and abilities, and the mentoring program⁶.

Like the induction processes common to other occupations, there are number of different, and sometimes conflicting, purposes behind the teacher mentoring activities. Among them are support, socialization, adjustment, development and assessment. Moreover, mentoring can refer can refer to a variety of different types of activities – classes, workshops, orientations, seminars. These programs have become the dominant form of teacher induction in the last decades⁷.

The enhancement to the professional identity of a teacher placed in a leadership role is accomplished through both formal and informal activities. Through these experiences teachers recognize that they are members of an active community of evaluative dialogue where ideas, methods and experiences are shared, and in so doing that they have special expertise in the profession and are able to share that knowledge.

⁶ M., Janas, Mentoring the Mentor: A Challenge for Staff Development. Journal of Staff Development, Vol.17, No.4, 1996, pp.2-5.

⁷ E. Fideler and D. Haselkorn, *Learning the Ropes: Urban Teacher Induction Programs and Practices in the United States*. Belmont, MA: Recruiting New Teachers, 1999.

This interaction creates a process through which an active participant constructs personal knowledge, skill, and values directly from an experience within the environment. Self-realization occurs when carefully chosen experiences are supported by self and group reflection, critical analysis, and synthesis. Experiences are structured to require the learner to take initiative, make decisions, and be accountable for the results. The outcome is personal and self constructed, preparing for and leading to future experiences and personal recognitions. Relationships are developed and nurtured. Experiences may result in success, failure, adventure, risk-taking and uncertainty, since the outcome cannot be totally predictable. Everyone involved has their own perspective on a situation and event and these perspectives influence understanding and action. Individuals learn as they participate by interacting with the community, its history, assumptions and cultural values, rules, and patterns of relationship; the tools at hand, including objects, technology, language and images; the moment's activity, its purposes, norms, the practical challenges. Shared knowledge emerges from the interaction of these elements.

In mentoring activities, normally, there is a pair of novice teacher and more experienced teacher. This veteran teacher explains school policies, regulations and procedures; share methods, materials and other resources; help solve problems in teaching and learning; provide personal and professional support; and guide the growth of the novice teacher through reflection, collaboration, and shared inquiry⁸.

Activities that involve professionals in open and dynamic discussion, mutual problem solving and/or collaborative learning draw the participants into a community of learners (or what we refer to as a professional cohort) and contribute to an understanding of both theirs and the group's capabilities. Thus it is suggested that teachers who participate together in meaningful and purposeful ways are more likely to remain in the profession because they feel valued and supported in their work. A variety of studies have also found clear evidence of the positive effect of professional experiences on teachers' self-efficacy and level of morale. These developed and then self-recognized qualities and behaviours are what define teacher leaders.

⁸ S. Feiman-Nemser, And M.B. Parker, *Mentoring in Context: A Comparison of Two U.S. Programs for Beginning Teachers*, NCRTL Special Report. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning, Michigan State University, ED 346 091, 1992.

Mentoring of young teachers provides an opportunity to develop and model teacher leadership concepts. The more experienced teachers serve as a role model, encouraging, counselling, and befriending less experienced teachers for the purpose of promoting both groups professional and personal development.

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ELEMENTS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION MANAGEMENT

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Abstract: *School can be defined as an organization due to: its organizational structure, its organizational control, its organizational behavior, and organizational change.*

The role of the educational manager is to limit the bureaucratic perspective and the perspective of a "peopleless organization" and to develop the school organizationally, from the latter's systemic perspective. The changes generated by the social, political, economic, and cultural modifications of the last twenty years in our country are to be found both at the level of the educational system and, in particular, at the level of the educational process. Thus, given the dynamics and especially the effects of the educational reforms implemented over the last twenty years, one cannot fail to approach the school organization from the perspective of the management of change.

Keywords: *school organization, educational management, educational system and process, quality in education.*

From the perspective of educational and professional training, "the knowledge society" is mainly characterized by the increase of the degree of socialization and professionalization, by a coherent training and development system and, last, but not least, by the individual's active participation in his/her own training, by means of permanent education. In this context, *school* can be considered the foundation of this type of society, and at the same time, it represents both a prerequisite for success and a result.

Due to its primordial purpose, school is an organization which produces learning, but also an organization which keeps learning continuously. Peter M. Senge, who coined and defined this concept (*learning organization*), believes that the members of such an organization acquire new skills and new frames of thinking, have common aspirations

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and continuously learn to work together. *The learning organization* has a flexible structure which favors learning and whose main principle is that any experience represents an opportunity to learn. The main elements of this type of organization are:

- systemic thinking;
- personal style;
- mental models;
- the existence of a common vision;
- learning in teams.

This type of organization entails a management that empowers people, since delegation of decisions and efficient team work increase performance. Thus, the organization members are more motivated and they are eager to learn continuously.

The main mechanisms of the organization which stimulate learning are norms and processes meant to encourage its members to learn from everything they do, to capitalize on and to multiply every experience. One can identify three main dimensions where action is taken in such an organization:

- a structural dimension, given by the total of the relationships existing at the level of specific processes and activities;
- a functional dimension, given by the distribution and the integration of roles at the level of the organization;
- an operational dimension, given by the adaptation of the roles to the expectations, the needs, the characteristics, and the objectives of the organization;

As for school, one has to take into account another important aspect: the fact that the school is an organization with two main, distinct activities, governed by "two different logics"¹: the managerial-administrative activity and the pedagogical activity. Thus, the school is an organization in which formal, institutional regulations and norms specific to didactic, pedagogic communication and relationships coexist; both types of norms and activities are strongly related; the adequate application of institutional regulations is the prerequisite of carrying out the specific educational activities efficiently.

¹ Păun E., *Școala – abordare sociopedagogică*, Iași, Ed. Polirom, 1999, p. 75.

R.B.Iucu² puts forth a typology of the teacher's managerial roles according to the activities the latter carries in the class: planning, organizing, communicating, leading, coordinating, motivating, guiding, counseling, controlling, assessing, and monitoring.

- planning the educative and didactic activities;
- organizing the activities of the class;
- communicating the scientific information/passing on the didactic content;
- leading the activities carried out in the classroom;
- coordinating the educative activities in the classroom;
- motivating the pupils' activities;
- guiding the pupils' on "the path of knowledge"
- counseling pupils with regard to curricular and extra-curricular activities;
- controlling pupils to the purpose of finding out the level of academic achievement;
- assessing;
- monitoring;

In her approach of the teaching-educative process as a managerial process, Elena Joița³ synthesizes all these roles and highlights the following managerial activities of the teacher:

- decision making;
- forecasting; forecasting-devising-scheduling;
- organization
- leading, coordination;
- evaluation and managerial adjustment.

The comparison of the two categories of managerial activities carried out by the teacher in the teaching-educative process shows that most categories overlap, except for *decision making*.

Although it is unanimously recognized and accepted as a vital function of the management at the level of the educational process and system, the latter is mistakenly attributed only to the factors which are

² Iucu R.B., *Managementul clasei de elevi*, București, Ed. Fundației "Dimitrie Bolintineanu", 1999, p.10-12.

³ Joița E., *Management educational. Profesorul – manager: roluri și metodologie*, Iași, Ed. Polirom, 2000, p.53.

officially invested with decisional attributes. That is why there is still a perception according to which, at the school and the educational system level, management is strictly reduced to the administrative activity, and those who can be considered “managers” are exclusively the school directors and (sometimes) the school inspectors. This is a false perception, given the diversity of roles attributed to the teacher by the contemporary society; the most relevant of all is the role of the pupils’ manager. Most of the times, the “managerial decision” is mistaken for “giving orders and directives”, and the fact that decision making means solving a problematic situation is not taken into account. In this respect, D.P. Ausubel⁴ considers that “it is appropriate to consider that the teacher is a decision factor that could better the school practice, with the view of getting its products closer to the aims one has in mind.”

Many times, it is precisely the fact that the teacher has to make daily decisions about the didactic activity (related to devising the curriculum, the selection of contents and of the appropriate strategies for passing on the latter and the assessment of results, related to the adaptation and the application of the decisions made by the superiors etc.) that can cause confusion and ambiguity; because these decisional situations are so frequent that they became something usual, common – a fundamental component of the teacher’s professional behavior. But these situations have existed long before school management and the analysis of the teachers’ roles/activities as a class manager were implemented; the difference between the modern approach, from a managerial perspective and the classical one, of leading the pupils’ class, consists in becoming aware of the decisional process as an opportunity to optimize the quality of education.

In the educational practice, the roles prescribed and taken on (by means of the job description and the status of the didactic staff) show to the teachers their tasks, their jobs to do in order to achieve the objectives related to the pupils’ training/development, but these roles entail the complex implication of the teacher’s personality, the latter’s continuous interdisciplinary training, awareness of roles, including the decisional ones, openness towards criticism and suggestions, ameliorative research skills etc.

⁴ Ausubel, D.P., Robinson, F.G., *Learning in School*. Bucharest, Didactic and Pedagogical Publishing House, 1981, p.42.

The profile of the teacher's skills in general benefits from numerous approaches in specialized literature, but one cannot sketch a model portrait, a pattern to be used for its evaluation and analysis. In addition, at an institutional level, there are sets of skills and standards specific to teacher training and even the description of the professional qualifications in the domain.

E. Joița⁵ proposes some basic principles in the construction of the theoretical model of the manager-teacher and she details a multidimensional profile, taking into account:

- the cognitive-axiological dimension (fundamental biophysical capacities and cognitive-intellectual capacities);
- the motivational-attitudinal dimension (specific to regulating capacities);
- the actional-strategic dimension (of the skills)

R.B. Iucu⁶ approaches personality in a Kardiner-like manner (Kardiner A., 1939), highlighting "*the basic personality*" as a complex, integrative structure with two important dimensions: the real personality and the psycho-pedagogical aptitude.

Another approach in the national specialized literature is "the theory of the double professionalization" (A. Tabachiu and I. Moraru and I. Țoca. Thus, A. Tabachiu and I. Moraru see the notion of manager as a well-defined social and juridical status "which entails a series of rights and obligations that make managers differ from all the other categories of professionals"⁷. I. Țoca⁸ defines the manager as "a person who, due to the tasks, skills and responsibilities characteristic to the occupied function, exerts the attributes of management". I. Țoca completes this definition by listing the fundamental characteristics of the educational manager:

- double professionalization (of specialist and of leader);
- creative and intuitive character;
- physical and psychical endurance;

⁵ Joița E., *Educational Management teacher – manager: roles and methodologies*, Iași, Polirom Publishing House, 2000, p.183-197.

⁶ Iucu R.B., *Classroom Management*, Bucharest, "Dimitrie Bolintineanu" Foundation Publishing House, 1999, p.39.

⁷ Tabachiu, A., Moraru, I., *Treaty of Managerial Psychology*, Bucharest, Didactic and Pedagogical Publishing House, R.A., 1997, p.124.

⁸ Țoca, I., *Educational Management*, Bucharest, Didactic and Pedagogical Publishing House, R.A., 2002, p.81.

- personal, moral, and professional example;
- prestige, authority, and responsibility.

Besides all these roles and skills specific to the teacher as a manager of the pupils' class, as well as a professional in the domain, it is obvious that contemporary society requires the capacity to adapt oneself to change. Only by making proof of such a capacity can the school as an organization maintain its functionality in optimal conditions of efficiency and effectiveness. Thus, a new domain emerges – *school development*. This new domain deals with subjects related to the changes in education over the last period, changes which one can sense at a global level, at the level of various educational systems, in societies over the whole world. The impact that social changes have on the school needs to be differentiated from the impact on a different type of organization, because the changes in education don't have immediate consequences, as their effects can be quantified rather late at the level of the educational systems and, especially, as feedback for society. Furthermore, one must not overlook the fact that the influence which social changes have on schools is not a simplistic process, of a cause-effect type, because there are disruptive factors which can distort the impact, sometimes, even within the school/the educational system. That is why we must accept the theory (M. Fullan) according to which *there is no single version of what change should be*. Change must be perceived as a personal experience, but its resonance must be felt at the level of the entire organization.

E. Păun⁹ adapts the theory of open systems to the specificity of school organization and underlines the fact that the change of systems is a three-stage process and it entails the presence of entropy as an important factor:

- the stage of “thawing” – when entropic elements are introduced in the system;
- the change as such;
- the stage of “refreezing” – when the system is made stable again at a superior level.

For optimal results it is important to involve/consult those who are directly affected by change; thus, it is important to motivate and render teachers interested in order to make a change in the school organization.

⁹ Păun E., *School – a socio-pedagogical approach*, Iași, Polirom Publishing House, 1999, p. 30.

However, when it comes to pupils, as an active part of this organization, both specialized literature and practice offer us few examples/contexts regarding the latter's implication in decision making. The same is valid for parents; in general, the relationship the school has with other people from outside the system, with the civil society, is rather discontinuous and punctual, without long-lasting partnerships. The reality of the recent years in the Romanian educational system highlights the fact that moments of crisis, change-generating situations-problems are necessary. Most of the time, the situations which bring the greatest changes at the level of the educational system are fueled by the doubts regarding the impact that the old educational practices have on the new generations. Thus, the changes at the level of the curriculum, of the assessment and of the teachers' training happened. However, an objective analysis demonstrates that not all the changes brought about the last two decades can be considered finalized, because either the behavioral and attitudinal structure of those involved did not fully integrate the new requirements, or the results do not meet the projected expectations, therefore other interventions, other changes are needed. After 1989, education was and remained a domain prone to change, due to the fact that not only geographical borders have opened, but also the borders which entail mentality and educational culture; however, one cannot state that we are running out of alternatives and solutions. Thus, one can sense the necessity of a pragmatic vision, a new hierarchisation of school values and a common ground for decision-making factors, researchers and practitioners, for a change as a progress factor, not as a purpose per se.

In order to do this, an efficient management must be doubled by a culture of the organizational leadership, including at the level of school, as it is obvious that the new type of educational management imposed by the current changes in society cannot ignore the theories and the practices of the leadership in education. While management is associated with the notion of efficiency, planning, bureaucracy, procedures, regulations, control, and consistency, leadership is often associated with taking risks, with dynamism, creativity, change, and vision. In addition, leadership completes people-oriented behaviors with the satisfaction of the organization members, with loyalty and trust. Furthermore, efficient leadership pays much attention to relationships in order to guide and to motivate the organization members better. At the same time, the approach according to which leadership is superior to management is wrong; so is the approach according to which management and leadership are

complementary, and, at the same time, vital for the success of an organization. Successful leaders and managers are those who focus their attention and efforts on three great responsibilities: carrying out tasks, developing the team, and developing individuals. These are strongly interconnected; it is essential to carry out tasks successfully in order to ensure a close-knit and motivated team (the organization members) that should make the maximum effort in the work place.

Elements of School Management in Pre-school and Primary Education

Although at the present moment, *school* is approached organizationally and the educational process is analyzed managerially, by means of specialized literature and specialized trainings, teachers are still reluctant to apply management practice in the teaching-training activity. The activity of the teaching staff is still in the range of specialized culture, psycho-socio-pedagogy and methodology, and only sporadically is it completed by managerial culture. Thus, it is necessary that teachers be encouraged to prove concretely that they are good managers, to approach the teaching-training process from a managerial point of view and to observe the principles imposed by educational management.

Starting from the educational ideal of Romanian school, as stated in the Law of National Education ("free, integral and harmonious development of human individuality, in the formation of an autonomous personality and in the adoption of a value system which are necessary for personal accomplishment and development, for the citizen's active participation in the society, for social inclusion and for employment on the labor market" – Art. 1-(3)), it is made clear that the school's mission is to reach this ideal in conditions of maximum efficiency and efficacy, both for the present and especially for the future. From this perspective, as manager of the pupils' class, the school master can draw up a managerial plan at the level of the group/class, in the medium or long term (a school year or the entire pre-school/primary school cycle), focusing on the following reference domain: curricular development, human resources, development of materials and equipment, development of institutional and communitarian relationships.

- **Curricular development** entails knowing the curricula well, for each year of study, so that the latter's application should aim at an efficient study program, to the advantage of pre-schoolers and schoolers. Based on them, the schoolmaster can elaborate a school offer that should take into account didactic objectives (curricular objectives, specific and

reference objectives) as well as the specificity of the school organization, local traditions, possibilities and support resources. Its basis will be the curriculum, but, besides planning the curricular and extracurricular activities and identifying the adequate contents (both according to the textbook – in the case of primary education, and according to didactic auxiliaries) it is necessary that the schoolmaster elaborate a time frame from the very beginning of the school year, but also hold a number of classes in reserve in order to cope with unforeseen aspects/activities.

• **Human resources** entail both the teacher and the group of pre-schoolers/schoolers, and all the other persons who are directly involved in the teaching-training activity (the other teachers, the parents etc). As regards the management of human resources from the perspective of school management, an important aspect is the teacher's professional training and development, with a focus on the latter's professional and transversal competencies. Thus, according to RNCIS (The National Record of Higher Education Qualifications), the teacher who works in pre-school and primary education must make proof of the following competencies:

A. Professional Competencies:

- C1. Design teaching or educational curricula adapted to various levels of age and knowledge and various target groups;
- C2. Carry out the activities specific to the teaching-training process in pre-school and primary education;
- C3. Evaluate the pre-schoolers' and young schoolers' learning processes, results and progress;
- C4. Managerial approach of the group of pre-schoolers/young schoolers, of the educational process and of the activities of learning/social integration specific to the age of the target group;
- C5. Counseling, guidance and psycho-pedagogical assistance of various categories of persons/educational groups (pre-schoolers/young schoolers, pupils, families, teachers, employees etc.);
- C6. Continuous self- assessment and amelioration of professional practices and of career advancement.

B. Transversal Competences:

- CT1. Application of principles and norms of professional deontology, based on explicit value options, specific to the specialist in educational sciences;

– CT2. The efficient cooperation in professional, interdisciplinary work teams, specific to the projects and curricula in the domain of educational sciences;

– CT3. Usage of efficient methods and techniques of life-long learning, in view of continuous professional training and development.

- **The development of material support** is based on both financial resources established by the budget of the educational institution and extra-budgetary resources (donations and sponsorship from economic agents, the parents' committee etc.) Teachers will have in mind *the ergonomic dimension* of class management¹⁰ and will create a functional environment, adapted to the needs of pre-schoolers/ schoolers and to the latter's age particularities. Besides the aspects related to the furniture, teachers must also focus on modernizing the entire material support: auxiliary didactic textbooks and materials, drawing boards, audio-video equipment etc.

Having in mind an interactive training, the teaching activity will be supported by the various possibilities of arranging the furniture in the classroom. In comparison with the latter's traditional arrangement, the possibility of arranging it easily in circles, semi-circles or in small groups favours and fosters permanent interaction and pre-schoolers/schoolers activism. In addition, one can highlight organizational culture at a small scale (group, class), the fact of belonging to a group with common values, by means of the association with one's own visibility element (a mascot, a slogan, an anthem etc.). A symbol of the group/class facilitates the integration of personal values in the organization culture and it ensures a better adaptation of one's own needs and interests to those of the group; it also raises awareness of the feeling of belonging to an organizational culture; all these create the basis for a future optimal social integration.

- **Development of institutional and communitarian relationships** is firstly related to the relational climate at the level of the educational institution in which teachers carry out their activity, as well as to the relationship with other similar educational institutions. The teaching staff's activity (schoolmasters) is part of an institutional managerial plan, which entails a permanent exchange of information, specific materials and documents, and observance of the principles of managerial

¹⁰ Iucu R.B., *Classroom Management*, Bucharest, "Dimitrie Bolintineanu" Foundation Publishing House, 1999, p.13.

communication. Besides the relationship of an institutional type, the teacher must also aim at creating good relationships at the level of the community, by attracting in a socio-educational partnership the decision-making factors in a community (the parents' committee, the local council, the economic agents, NGOs etc.), in view of improving the quality of the managerial activity at the level of the group/class.

Conclusions

In the current context of a society which is based on knowledge and, at the same time, in a continuous change, but also taking into account managerial principles in approaching school as an organization, successful leaders and managers must get involved competently in the change, fulfilling a series of roles that should ensure the success of the school organization in the process of organizational change. Thus, the latter must be themselves *researchers*, interested in creating and selecting the opportunities for change, so as to make the organization remain viable and able to cope with the competition. In addition, the latter must undertake the role of *initiator* and *advocate of change*, as practice shows the fact that most of the changes happen from the top to the bottom and, last, but not least, they must be providers of resources for change, both as regards infrastructure investments and the investments in the training of the human resources necessary for the organization.

Organizational change is a complex process which entails thoroughly analyzing and identifying situations, problems and causes, with a view to choosing the optimal strategy for change.

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A SOCIO-CULTURAL APPROACH OF ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract: *This paper starts from the observation that there is a fundamental classification of sociological organizations is that between formal and informal organizations. Regarding formal organizations, we choose to present one of the most convincing analyzes of the organizational system structures operates by Amitai Etzioni. On the other hand, the informal interactions between employees may cause a number of psychological or social rewards. These interactions can determine people to develop their own system of norms and values, and a certain type of behavior, all of which being the consequence of the expectations that people invest in each other.*

Keywords: *Formal and informal organizations, utilitarian, normative and coercive organizations, human relations model, complex organizations.*

A fundamental classification of sociological organizations is that between formal and informal organizations. Schools, universities, hospitals, companies, political parties, etc. are formal organizations, which have in common that their specific activities are rigorously regulated, aimed at achieving clearly stated objectives. In their case, the emphasis is on rules, principles, etc. explicitly formulated their infringement being followed by some sort of sanctions, among which is included the possibility of exclusion from the organization. In contrast, informal organizations are based on relationships established between employees or groups within the formal organization. These relations are based on informal norms / rules, ways of communicating, specific behaviors, feelings, emotions and so on, which are not part of a formal organization. In addition, they do not necessarily comply with the formal character hierarchies. Whereas in formal organizations, it is always dominant the general interest, in the informal organization, each person may pursue its own interests.

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Regarding formal organizations, we choose to present one of the most convincing analyzes of the organizational system structures and of the different types of organizations operates by the American sociologist, born in Germany in 1929, Amitai Etzioni. He argued that there are three fundamental types of formal organizations, namely: utilitarian, normative and coercive¹. The criterion which underlying that classification is the one of the reasons why people participates in the activities of the organization. In fact, the study of the American sociologist starts from the observation that organizations and their specific of being irrevocably influence the both public and private life of contemporary man. Sphere of influence of organizations therefore refers to the whole of social life, it have become part of our life, are intimately linked to the way we organized our lives and a society without organizations not only is it impossible to set up, but do not even can be conceived.

First, utilitarian organizations are those in which the emphasis is on the remuneration that an employee receives for the work that has performed it. The activity of such an organization is structured having two main objectives: to obtain profits for shareholders and income for employees. To be part of such an organization, it is sufficiently to learn some skills/competencies/knowledge and the willingness to undertake a specific activity within it; should be added that the most common reason for being part of such organizations is to provide daily living. Utilitarian organizations have a relatively rigorous control over the employees. A member of an utilitarian organization have to acquire the policies promoted by it, but also to harmonize his own objectives with those of the organization; otherwise, he will be forced to leave it, being quit. This is not the only way to leave the utilitarian organization; every employee has at any time the possibility/freedom to be no more active in the organization. In this case, however, all the benefits arising from the status of employee/member of the organization disappear.

Normative organizations, on the other hand, do not have the fundamental feature to obtain profit and incomes by employees, but those individuals who adhere to such organizations intended to pursue objectives with pronounced moral character. The common name of such organizations is that of associations/volunteering organizations, their specific being that their activities are not paid. Persons who are members

¹ Etzioni, A., *A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organization: On Power, Involvement, and Their Correlates*. Free Press, New York, 1975.

of these associations devote part of their time and skills/knowledge/talent in order to help achieve the civic, environmental, religious, etc. goals, considered to be of utmost importance. This category includes organizations like the International Red Cross, various student associations/organizations, but also those with political character clustered around some political parties, as well as religious associations/organizations. Voluntary organizations cannot exercise control of a formal nature over their members; they can leave the organization anytime they want, without incurring any kind of sanction. The fact that a significant part of the population, especially young people, are involved in voluntary associations/organizations is a feature of the states of which the standard for living is very high, economic welfare being doubled by the existence and functioning of a democratic regime; the surveys accomplished among American students in their first year of study shows a high degree of participation in voluntary activities. Thus, in 1990-2000, the number of male students who were involved as volunteers in the first year of student increased from 62% to 76%, while the degree of participation of female students increased in a higher extent, from 69% in 1990 to 85% in 2000. And the trend is growing. The explanation that some researchers gives to this impulse to participate in the activities under voluntary associations refers to that the many of participants say that they felt happy at that time devoted to volunteering, they have gained respect for themselves, a degree of satisfaction which no longer feel never before, and a sense of being part of a community in which you live. It should also be noted that a large part of the states which are not a democracy not allow to bring into existence and the development of voluntary organizations precisely because of the inability to exercise an authentic control over and within them, as well as the absence of a rigid hierarchical structure, of pyramidal type.

Finally, coercive organizations are not based on the person's free choice to participate in their specific activities, but on the contrary people become their members either by coercion, in the form of sanctions/punishments – as in the case of inmates being in a prison – either in the form of medical treatment – a psychiatric hospital patients. Coercive organizations have explicit constraining character, manifested in the form of bars on the windows, doors fitted with sophisticated locks, fences that are designed to isolate as well as possible the institution from the outside world and so on, plus a very strict and permanent surveillance of the guards or medical staff. A person cannot leave such an institution

by free will, but it needs formal acceptance of an authority. The purpose of these organizations is changing attitudes and behaviors of the people, whether they are inmates or patients.

However, the three types of organizations analyzed by Etzioni does not exhaust the organizational specific reference field; there are other types of organizational structures outside its. The basic features of different types of organizations have been summarized in the table below (adapted from Sullivan²):

The Type of Organization	Organization Members	Benefits	Examples
Utilitarian	People are not forced by anyone to work in such an organization, but they however feel obliged to work within them.	Members of this type of organization join because otherwise it would be difficult or even impossible to achieve their own goals.	Organizations that provide of their employees a certain standard of living and a professional status.
Voluntary	Any person may become a member by simple will, his work being not paid in any kind.	Members get some personal satisfaction, either on the hobby type activities, either by achieving specific goals.	International Red Cross, various associations for the protection of children, elderly, animals, etc.
Coercive	People are forced to join either for personal benefit or for the benefit of society.	Society as a whole or certain groups benefit from the fact that some people become members of these organizations.	Schools, prisons, military service.

² Sullivan, T. J. (2004), *Sociology: Concepts and applications in a diverse world* (6th ed.). Pearson Education, Inc., Boston.

Mutual benefit	You can become a member of the organization either voluntarily or by coercion.	Members of the organization are the main beneficiaries.	Schools, churches, trade unions.
Services	You can become a member of the organization either voluntarily or by coercion.	Clients of the organization are the main beneficiaries.	The stores, centers dedicated to medical services, auto repair shops.
Common good	You can become a member of the organization either voluntarily or by coercion.	The organization provides a service designed to the general public rather than to specific customers.	Environmental Protection Agency, centers that help people suffering from cancer.

Informal organizations can be seen as a response to the increasing trend of formal organizations to become more and more impersonal; they are so designed to satisfy the specific human needs, that the formal organization is incapable to satisfy: trust, support, protection, etc.

The existence of informal organizations was revealed for the first time during a survey conducted during 1924-1933 at Western Electric factory, located near Chicago. The research was coordinated by a team from Harvard University, which was finally led by psychologist and sociologist Elton Mayo. The Hawthorne effect refers to the fact that individuals can change their behavior in a positive manner, due to the fact that they know they are subjects of an experiment, that are observed by an outsider. The experiment involved changing lighting conditions of work spaces with the aim to see if there are differences in the productivity of workers. But regardless, if lighting intensity decrease to a very low rate, with more than 50% of the initial value, the result was always an increase in productivity. Subsequently were modified work breaks, and the results were identical: an increase in productivity is register. Productivity increases thus closely connected with attention directed to the workers, which means that they change their own behavior according to whether or not they are observed

that the interest of researchers is focused on them³. From here it results also something else: work productivity can be influenced not only by increasing wages, by also by increasing the self-esteem of workers, due to the fact that they are aware if the manager's attention is directed to them. The informal structure of organizations is equally brought to light in situations involving worker's spirit. The informal interactions between employees may cause a number of psychological or social rewards. These interactions can determine people to develop their own system of norms and values, and a certain type of behavior, all of which being the consequence of the expectations that people invest in each other.

Roethlisberger and Dickinson, the founders of the human relations school and model, have started from the premise that social organization cannot be reduced to the formal side, specific bureaucratic organizations. The characteristics of the relationship between the human individual and the organization, from the perspective human relations model, are⁴:

(1) The existence of a climate of harmony and cooperation between management and subordinates. The relationship between employer and employees should not be regarded as being one of radical opposition, as in Marx's vision of patron-worker relations, and that because they have common goals. The prosperity of a company not only reflects the increase in value of its shares and higher dividends for shareholders, but it also involves an increase in benefits for employees. And to be able to obtain that prosperity in the absence of which we can not talk about benefits for any one of the two parties, it is necessary for organizations to undertake certain types of activities as well as employees to work together to achieve common goals.

(2) The predominance of a humanistic conception of the worker. According to this perspective, an employee of an organization is not viewed as a mere wheel from a huge mechanism, being deeply depersonalized, but as a integral human being, made up of a series of needs and aspirations. And human needs and aspirations can not be reduced to the material size, to benefits and incentives such as revenue growth, although this should never be fully ignored. In addition to the economic and biological needs, people have psychological, emotional

³ Johnson, A. G., *Blackwell Dictionary of Sociology*. Humanitas Publishing House, Bucharest, 2007.

⁴ DiRenzo, G.J., *Human social behavior: Concepts and principles of sociology*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., U.S.A., 1990.

needs and of socialization. Hence they should be treated with respect by their superiors; the notion of manager involves in this case not only the ability to lead, but the manner of relating to others. In this sense, the perception of the theorists over what constitutes an authentic manager is in constant change, what is similar to a paradigm change regarding the profile and skills required of a good manager in the future.

Table 2. Managers now and in the future. Comparative analysis

	MANAGERS NOW	MANAGERS IN THE FUTURE
1	All-knowing	Leader as learner
2	Domestic vision	Global vision
3	Predict future from past	Intuit the future
4	Care for individuals	Care for institutions and individuals
5	Own the vision	Facilitate the vision of others
6	Use power	Use power and facilitation
7	Dictate goals and methods	Specify processes
8	Alone at the top	Part of an executive team
9	Value order	Accept paradox of order amid chaos
10	Monolingual	Multicultural
11	Inspire the trust of boards and shareholders	Inspire the trust of owners, customers, and employees

Source: adapted from Gibson et. al.⁵

Despite the increased level of optimism that this analysis shows, in which is relatively easy to infer that some of the coordinates of managers in the future it will probably never be achieved, it is however important to understand that the essential changes through which the organizations pass, due mainly to transition from local to global, train with it the necessity of fundamental changes at the level of perception of managerial function.

(3) Work conditions influence the development of social interactions. Inside of the organization must also build a work environment that stimulates social interactions. Which means that it is not opportune under

⁵ Gibson, J.L., & Ivancevich, J. M., & Donnelly, Jr., J.H., *Organizations: behavior, structure, processes* (9th ed.). Boston, Irwin/McGraw-Hill, 1997.

any form the blockages or fractures of communication between management and subordinates; on the contrary, the manager must be aware that people are essentially social beings; therefore they have profound needs to communicate and interact with others.

Life in the modern society has a profound organizational nature. The central moments of each person's life are related not only to the private, individual dimension, but are closely related with the organizational level of society. Birth, school education, career, marriage, and even death are deeply institutionalizes events. It can be said that, in a sense, individual life overlap a new form of existence, namely organizational. The analysis of organizations led to the notice that formal organizations manifest a more pronounced tendency to become complex organizations, defined as a social system characterized by the existence of specific objectives, policies, norms and values etc. governing the proper behavior of those who are part of specific organization⁶. These organizations achieve large proportions, making impossible the emergence of informal relations between all members of the organization. With regards to the objectives which it propose to achieve such an organization, it can be very different, namely: obtaining a higher profit, acquiring increased power and influence, protecting the interests of employers, shareholders, management, and so on, assimilation of a set of values and norms, of a specific culture, acquisition of knowledge or skills, etc.

Sociological analyzes shows that the structural elements of complex organizations in their capacity as social systems are the following:

- The existence of specific goals. These are always the most important aspects of formal organizations, all other features, such as norms, values, procedures, communication network, etc. are nothing but means necessary to achieve these goals. In the case of economic organizations, for example, the objective is always to make profit; for the religious, the objective is to maintain and increase the number of faithful and those who practice religious rituals. In most cases, the goals of these organizations are measurable.

- The division of labor is another key feature of complex organizations. Every employee performs some specialized work, and he is paid as a result of this activity. The division of labor is primarily intended

⁶ DiRenzo, G.J., *Human social behavior: Concepts and principles of sociology*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., U.S.A., 1990.

to increase efficiency and work productivity. And that is because to an individual is infinitely easier to accomplish a type of activity that involves a limited numbers of abilities and where can become an expert rather than an activity which requires a huge number of abilities and he will not achieve only at low parameters.

- Formal communication and hierarchical structures. The relations between members of the organizations have a profound formal character, for those shall be required to adopt a certain type of behavior specifically to an organizational environment. The status of each employee is strictly specified in the organization; there is a hierarchical pyramid structure both in terms of relationships of superiors with subordinates, as well as the communication between them. Modality of interaction is closely related to their position within the organization.

- Members of the organization are not given once for all – as in the family – but may change. Organization's existence is not depended on the existence of a certain member, even if he is that person who founded the organization. The activity of an organization is not disturbed in any kind if an employee leaves the organization for whatever reason (resignation, retirement, death, etc.), and his duties are taken over by another employee. Under this aspect, it reveals to us a new essential difference of complex organization in relation to family or other primary groups: for the latter, the loss of a member is a major event and even if this does not automatically mean the disappearance of the family or the group concerned, it can leave major marks, decisive influence their subsequent evolution. In the case of organization, especially of the complex organization, most often the loss/disappearance of a member passes almost unnoticed.

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SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN THE EUROPEAN UNION AND IN ROMANIA

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Abstract: *Sustainable development is a goal towards a better, healthier, and more evolved world. People have understood that the exploitation of resources without reason can only lead to destruction of both the humans and the planet with all its forms of life. Romania also understood the need to align itself with the evolved states that put people's well-being and health above the temporary material benefits.*

Keywords: *Sustainable Development, Romania, UN, Brundtland Report, EU.*

Short history

The concept of sustainable development is evolving for over three decades. In 1972 the United Nations held at Stockholm, Sweden, the Conference on the Human Environment. This conference contributed to the evolution of the concept mentioned above, demonstrating that the human environment is a crucial element in the development agenda.¹

Following this conference was established the Secretariat of the United Nations Environment Programme with the aim to promote international cooperation in the environmental field. On the national level, countries around the world have begun to establish or improve their environmental institutions.²

The 1987 World Commission on Environment and Development, chaired by the Prime Minister of Norway, Gro Harlem Brundtland, issued a report entitled *Our Common Future*. This document, which is also known as the Brundtland Report, suggests that the establishment of environmental institutions that exist separately is not enough, because environmental issues are an integral part of all development policies. They

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¹ Peter P. Rogers, Kazi F. Jalal, John A. Boyd, *An Introduction to Sustainable Development*, Routledge 2008, p. 9.

² Idem.

are crucial for economic and sectoral policies and should be integrated as part of the decision on energy, social issues and other aspects of development policies.³

The Brundtland Report defined sustainable development as development that „meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.”⁴

The next important stage in the evolution of the concept of sustainable development takes place in 1992 at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro, known as the Earth Summit. Its major contribution was to give equal importance to environment and development. It supported Agenda 21, which was both a place for thought and an action program that governed human activities which had an impact on the environment. Earth Summit also endorsed the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development and the Statement of Forest Principles.⁵

A very important thing is that the Earth Summit helped finalize the UN Convention on Climate Change and the Convention on Biological Diversity, both signed by a large number of heads of state. The UN Convention on Climate Change and the Kyoto Protocol, which was ratified more recent, had a significant contribution in the evolution of sustainable development. Article 4 of the UN Convention on Climate Change states that „the Parties (to that Convention) have the right to, and should, promote development.” The Clean Development Mechanism from the Kyoto Protocol was designed in part to help the developing countries that are participating „in achieving sustainable development.”⁶

At the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development, which took place in South Africa in Johannesburg, heads of state and world leaders have pledged to implement Agenda 21. They also decided to sign a multitude of partnerships to promote sustainable development. The efforts that were made in supporting this common cause made the sustainable development to be a part of everyone's vocabulary and agenda. What was once only the concern of environmental specialists, sustainable development has become a concept that concerns everyone.⁷

The general objectives of Agenda 21 aimed to meet the challenges of

³. Idem.

⁴ Ibidem., p. 22.

⁵ Ibidem., p. 9.

⁶ Idem.

⁷ Idem.

global warming, pollution, biodiversity and related social problems such as poverty, health and population through environmental restoration, conservation and social development.⁸

Another approach to sustainable development that will not necessarily change the existing thesis, but rather more detail the problem can be formulated as follows: we as the current generation have some obligations towards the future, but we must ask ourselves what they are and if current behavior will allow us to fulfill these obligations. Therefore, we must seek to understand what are the means available to society to generate welfare in the future or opportunities, namely its resources or resource base. This resource base consists of a lot of stocks of wealth, which includes produced capital and human resources, natural resources (such as energy, land and biological resources) and environmental resources (such as clean air and water). These latter resources can be perceived as assets, from an economic perspective, they are a part of the natural wealth or natural capital.⁹

Sustainable development has become a political objective of the European Union since 1997, through its inclusion in the Maastricht Treaty. The 2001 Gothenburg European Council adopted the Sustainable Development Strategy of the European Union, to which has been added an external dimension in Barcelona in 2002.¹⁰

The European Commission launched in 2005 a Strategy revision process by publishing a critical assessment of the progress achieved since 2001, mentioning a number of courses of action to follow in the future. It highlighted unsustainable trends, with adverse environmental effects that could affect the future development of the European Union, namely climate change, threats to public health, poverty and social exclusion, depletion of natural resources and biodiversity erosion. Having identified these problems, in June 2005, the heads of state and government of the member countries of the European Union adopted a Declaration on sustainable development guidelines incorporating the Lisbon Agenda,

⁸ Megan Landon, *Environment, Health and Sustainable Development*, McGraw-Hill International 2006, p. 20.

⁹ Giles Atkinson, Simon Dietz, Eric Neumayer, *Handbook of Sustainable Development*, Edward Elgar Publishing 2007, p. 2.

¹⁰ *National Sustainable Development Strategy of Romania 2013-2020-2030*, joint project of the Romanian Government, through the Ministry of Environment and Sustainable Development and the United Nations Development Program, National Center for Sustainable Development, Bucharest 2008, p. 11.

revised, for economic growth and the creation of new jobs as an essential component of the objective of sustainable development. After extensive consultation, the European Commission presented on 13 December 2005 a proposal to revise the 2001 Strategy.¹¹

Following this proposal, the EU Council adopted on June 9, 2006 the renewed Sustainable Development Strategy for an enlarged Europe. The document has an unified and coherent strategic vision, with the main goal to continuously improve the quality of life of present and future generations through the creation of sustainable communities able to manage and use resources efficiently and to capitalize the ecological and social innovation potential of the economy to ensure prosperity, environmental protection and social cohesion.¹²

The documents mentioned above, developed by the United Nations and the European Union, provide a legal framework to guide the countries government activity throughout the world in a direction beneficial to the human health and the environment.

Each country must adopt and assimilate these principles, it is imperative that they are transposed into national law, but it is not enough for some states to take measures consistent with sustainable development, while others will focus only on economic development at all costs. We are all connected to each other, and the actions of some states do not only affect them, but affect all countries from the region and others who may be located thousands of miles away.

Next we present some theorists that have extensively discussed the issue of sustainable development and the importance it has in the present and future of mankind and our planet.

Sustainable development seen by theorists

Throughout history humans have interacted with the environment and natural resources were used freely. But only now we begin to understand that this is no longer possible and that there are long-term consequences arising from the unrestricted use and abuse of the environment. The principles of sustainable development are trying to address to this type of imbalance.¹³

Sustainable development seeks to instill fairness in the current

¹¹. Idem.

¹². Ibidem., pp. 11-12.

¹³. Megan Landon, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

generation. Often the poorest groups in society are the most exposed to natural disasters, hazardous working conditions and restricted access to adequate and safe food and water. In addition, low-quality households are often located in the most polluted areas, such as contaminated land, near highways and industrial plants.¹⁴

Today we recognize that human actions have affected the ecosystems of our planet seriously and negatively. The debates on climate change focuses more on mitigation and adaptation to it than demonstrating the existence and the causes of its occurrence. The answer to this last question is very simple and is accepted by all. Human actions are the predominant cause of the massive and rapid acceleration of greenhouse gas emissions, global warming and climate turmoil. Our ways of doing business, of producing goods and services, have used the Earth's resources as if they were inexhaustible. The Earth has been treated simultaneously as a factory, amusement park, garbage dump, larder, market-place and war zone. It is obvious that we, as a species, cannot continue as before.¹⁵

Extreme poverty and fabulous wealth live side by side, and the natural world, for many, cannot be accessed at all. Things are not as they were before, although poverty, inequality, injustice, environmental degradation and war are not phenomena that were born in the modern era. But now we can no longer continue in the same way without threatening to put the future at risk or maybe even not have a future at all. Hence the urgent need to implement policies that respect the principles of sustainable development, this is the only way we can evolve as a species.¹⁶

This initiative of adopting measures in accordance with the objectives of sustainable development has encountered much resistance and refusals. For example, it was known for many years about climate change taking place, but world leaders refused to recognize the responsibility we have in the development and evolution of this phenomenon. But thankfully, a change began to take place in attitude and policy, slow, perhaps too slow, but it happens. Sustainable development supports the idea that the future should be a better and healthier place than the present.¹⁷

Sustainable development is a process that requires us to see our lives as part of a larger entity. It demands a holistic way of seeing the world

¹⁴. Ibidem., pp. 7-8.

¹⁵. John Blewitt, *Understanding Sustainable Development*, Routledge 2008, p. 9.

¹⁶. Idem.

¹⁷. Idem.

and life. It needs us to recognize that other people may not see things the same way we do, they may have different perceptions, values, philosophies, goals and ambitions. It requires us to understand that the world is multifaceted, fragmented and complete.¹⁸

There were and there are many different beliefs when talking about sustainable development. The main supporters of sustainable development and growth rates were divided into two groups following the discussions on this topic. A group supports the continuation of economic growth, but with increased sensitivity to environmental issues, its aim is raising global living standards and achieving a balance between poverty reduction and environmental conservation. However, there are other groups that promote radical changes in economic organization which produce much lower growth rates or even zero or negative growth. Others believe that the increased industrial growth is directly responsible for the current global environmental crisis. It is argued that this sustained growth has generated significant amounts of environmental stress, resulting in pollution and environmental degradation, thus threatening the sustainability of the environment and its ability to meet in an adequate and sufficient way the needs of future generations.¹⁹

Desmond McNeill believes that sustainable development has at least one crucial feature. He claims that at the base of this concept is conflict, precisely because of this sustainable development has a contested status. Sustainable development can manifest as a conflict between the interests of the present and the interests of future generations, a conflict between human well-being and the protection of nature, a conflict between poor and rich, a conflict between a local and a global focus.²⁰

Gerald G. Marten believes that sustainable development does not mean sustaining economic growth. Economic development is impossible to sustain if it depends upon increasing quantities of resources from ecosystems with limited capacities to provide these resources. Also, sustainable development is not a luxury that can be pursued after having achieved economic development and other priorities, such as social justice. Damaged ecosystems that lose their capacity to meet the basic human needs are blocking the opportunities for economic development

¹⁸ Idem.

¹⁹ Rajendra Ramlogan, *Sustainable Development: Towards a Judicial Interpretation*, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers 2011, p. 11.

²⁰ Keekok Lee, Desmond McNeill, Alan Holland, *Global Sustainable Development in the Twenty-first Century*, Edinburgh University Press 2000, p. 9.

and social justice. A healthy society gives equal attention to environmental sustainability, economic development and social justice because they are all mutually reinforcing.²¹

One thing we find particularly worrying is that some powerful countries that have extremely well-developed economies refuse to recognize the existence of phenomena such as global warming or to sign certain international documents based on the principles of sustainable development because they don't want to take responsibility and to take measures to limit pollution and the damage they leave behind.

Below we present the situation of some of the EU sustainable development indicators. The tables will show both overall statistics on different time intervals and in detail in each Member State.

Sustainable development in the European Union

Eurostat has published a paper entitled Sustainable Development in the European Union - 2013 Monitoring Report of the EU Sustainable Development Strategy. In this work are presented some relevant statistical data in terms of sustainable development.

Another work from which we take the statistical data for our analysis is Energy, transport and environment indicators, the 2013 edition, also published by Eurostat.

All statistics used in this paper for analysis, arranged in tables, come from Eurostat - Statistical Office of the European Union.

Urban population exposure to air pollution by particulate matter - Micrograms per cubic metre

The indicator shows the concentration of PM10 to which the urban population is potentially exposed.

Fine particulates (PM10), particulate matter whose diameter is less than 10 micrometres, can be carried deep into the lungs where they can cause inflammation and a worsening of the condition of people with heart and lung diseases. According to the recommendations of the World Health Organisation the annual mean concentration is the best indicator for PM-related health effects.²²

In 1996, the Environment Council adopted Framework Directive

²¹. Gerald G. Marten, *Human Ecology: Basic Concepts for Sustainable Development*, Earthscan 2001, p. 9.

²². Eurostat.

96/62/EC on ambient air quality assessment and management. The first Directive (1999/30/EC) relating to limit values for PM10 and other pollutants in ambient air fixed an annual limit value of 40 micrograms of PM10 per cubic meter.²³

time / geo	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
EU (28 countries)	33	28	29	28	26	27	30	27	28	30	28	26	26	26	27
EU (27 countries)	33	28	29	28	26	27	30	27	28	30	28	26	26	26	27
Belgium	40	35	34	33	34	33	36	32	30	31	26	26	29	27	27
Bulgaria	:	:	:	20	29	:	59	52	50	53	54	60	54	48	58
Czech	37	27	26	30	33	39	42	34	35	36	28	26	27	30	29
Denmark	:	:	:	:	:	24	25	19	24	27	23	21	17	12	:
Germany	24	21	27	27	25	27	29	24	24	26	22	21	22	23	23
Estonia	:	:	:	:	18	21	19	18	21	23	19	11	13	14	13
Ireland	:	:	:	:	23	19	23	16	16	17	16	15	14	18	18
Greece	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Spain	33	47	39	39	32	32	34	33	34	34	31	27	26	24	23
France	:	:	:	:	21	21	24	21	20	21	27	24	26	25	25
Croatia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	:	:	:	47	31	31	34	36	39	40	36	34	32	29	32
Cyprus	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	48	36
Latvia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	24	20	24	23
Lithuania	:	:	29	:	:	:	:	23	23	20	21	19	23	27	23
Luxembourg	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	21	17	14	14	17	18
Hungary	:	:	:	:	:	:	34	24	39	37	32	29	30	31	33
Malta	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Netherlands	37	37	36	31	30	32	34	30	30	32	31	27	25	25	25
Austria	:	:	:	26	33	26	31	25	29	30	23	22	24	27	27
Poland	47	53	36	37	36	40	41	32	35	42	32	31	35	39	39
Portugal	:	:	40	31	34	31	31	34	32	31	31	26	27	26	27
Romania	:	:	:	:	:	:	49	54	49	53	46	40	30	35	39
Slovenia	:	:	:	:	:	31	44	41	37	33	32	29	28	28	31
Slovakia	:	:	36	29	27	29	30	31	34	31	29	27	25	29	34

23. Idem.

Finland	:	:	16	15	15	15	15	13	15	15	15	13	13	13	12
Sweden	:	14	14	17	18	20	20	18	19	20	17	18	15	14	17
United	30	26	25	24	24	24	26	23	23	25	24	20	19	18	21
Iceland	:	:	:	:	:	:	21	30	20	20	12	:	9	11	9
Norway	:	:	:	:	:	:	20	17	22	22	20	19	19	21	20
Switzerland	30	25	24	24	23	25	28	23	24	26	22	21	21	21	23
Serbia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	53	44	45	45	43	40	23	53
Turkey	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	68	61	61	58
Bosnia and Herzegovin	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	61	48	:

Source of Data: European Environment Agency (EEA)

„:“ = not available

This table shows that in 2011 in the European Union the amount of particulate matter from the air in urban areas is 27 micrograms per cubic meter. The trend is generally downward from the previous years, but it increased by a percentage to the value from 2008, 2009 and 2010 when it was stabilized at 26. In 2011 the lowest value was reached by Iceland which achieved 9 micrograms per cubic meter, and the highest 58 was recorded in Bulgaria and Turkey.

Romania has had upward and downward slopes. In 2004 our country recorded a maximum value of 54 micrograms per cubic meter, while the lowest was reached in 2009 - 30 micrograms, however in recent years there has been an increasing trend in 2010 - 35 and in 2011 - 39 micrograms.

Greenhouse gas emissions and agreed reduction targets (Kyoto base year emissions: Index = 100)

Under the Kyoto Protocol, industrialised countries aim to achieve an overall reduction of greenhouse gas emissions of at least 5 % from the 1990 levels by the period 2008-12. The EU agreed to an 8 % reduction in its greenhouse gas emissions by 2008-12 compared to Kyoto base year and redistributed this target among its then 15 Member States under the burden sharing agreement (Council Decision 2002/358/EC). Under the agreement, four countries (Ireland, Spain, Greece and Portugal) may increase their emission levels.²⁴

²⁴. Eurostat Pocketbooks, *Energy, transport and environment indicators*, the 2013 edition, Eurostat European Commission, p. 145.

	1990	1995	2000	2008	2009	2010	2011	Target 2008- 12
EU-28 (1)	100.0	93.1	90.8	88.9	82.5	84.4	81.7	:
EU-15	99.7	97.2	97.0	93.5	87.0	88.9	85.1	92.0
Belgium	98.2	103.2	100.2	93.8	85.4	90.4	82.5	92.5
Bulgaria	82.6	57.2	44.9	50.5	43.6	45.5	49.9	92.0
Czech Republic	100.9	77.6	75.1	73.2	68.7	70.7	68.7	92.0
Denmark	99.1	109.8	98.4	92.0	87.8	88.3	81.1	79.0
Germany	101.4	90.7	84.4	79.1	73.9	76.6	74.4	79.0
Estonia	95.1	47.0	40.2	46.0	38.2	46.9	49.2	92.0
Ireland	99.4	106.1	122.7	121.6	111.2	110.6	103.4	113.0
Greece	97.8	102.2	118.0	121.8	115.6	109.6	107.5	125.0
Spain	97.6	107.9	130.7	137.7	125.2	120.3	121.0	115.0
France	98.7	97.8	99.1	94.2	90.1	91.2	86.1	100.0
Croatia	101.0	73.6	83.9	99.5	93.1	91.4	90.2	95.0
Italy	100.4	102.6	106.7	104.7	95.0	96.8	94.6	93.5
Cyprus (1)	100.0	122.6	140.8	165.3	161.0	155.0	150.3	:
Latvia	101.6	48.5	38.8	44.6	42.0	46.4	44.4	92.0
Lithuania	98.7	44.6	39.8	50.4	41.3	42.7	43.7	92.0
Luxembourg	98.0	77.3	74.1	92.6	88.8	93.0	91.9	72.0
Hungary	85.8	69.6	68.0	63.8	58.4	58.9	57.3	94.0
Malta (1)	100.0	118.5	126.6	152.5	148.5	149.4	150.6	:
Netherlands	99.4	104.8	100.0	95.4	92.9	98.2	91.2	94.0
Austria	98.9	100.9	101.5	110.0	101.1	107.5	104.8	87.0
Poland	81.1	76.8	68.4	71.0	67.5	71.3	70.9	94.0
Portugal	101.3	119.0	140.2	130.5	125.1	118.7	116.4	127.0
Romania	87.8	62.1	48.0	50.5	43.2	41.9	44.3	92.0
Slovenia	90.6	91.0	93.0	105.2	95.4	95.7	95.9	92.0
Slovakia	99.6	73.9	68.4	68.2	61.0	63.7	62.9	92.0
Finland	99.2	99.8	97.6	98.9	93.0	105.0	94.4	100.0
Sweden	100.8	103.1	95.5	87.9	82.2	90.8	85.2	104.0
United Kingdom	98.8	91.3	86.8	81.2	74.3	76.5	71.2	87.5
Iceland	104.2	97.6	115.1	148.3	141.1	137.1	131.0	110.0
Liechtenstein	101.5	101.2	108.9	109.5	104.3	109.5	107.5	101.0
Switzerland	100.3	97.5	98.0	101.7	99.2	102.5	94.7	92.0

(1) There is no legal EU target, artificial base year 1990.

Source of Data: European Environment Agency (EEA).

As shown above in the European Union is recorded a decrease in emissions of greenhouse gases as follows: in the EU of 15 countries between 1990 and 2011 is a decrease of 15%, while in the EU - 28 the decrease is 19%.

On a national level, in 2011, the largest decreases in emissions of greenhouse gases have been registered in Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Estonia and Bulgaria. And the biggest increases have been recorded in Spain, Portugal and Greece.

Romania had a general downward trend in the emissions of these gases with negative effects, but there were sometimes increases from year to year, for then to occur again a decrease.

The percentages registered by our country are below the target of 92.0 set by the EU, the values are as follows: in 1990 - 87.8, in 1995 - 62.1, in 2000 - 48.0, in 2008 - 50.5, in 2009 - 43.2, in 2010 - 41.9 and in 2011 - 44.3.

Share of renewable energy in gross final energy consumption (%)

This indicator can be considered as an estimate of the relevant indicator described in Directive 2009/28/EC on the promotion of the use of energy from renewable sources.²⁵

The Directive set individual targets for all Member States with a view to reaching an overall EU target of a 20% share of total energy consumption from renewables by 2020. The targets take into account the different starting points of the Member States, the renewable energy potential and economic performance.²⁶

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2020 Target
EU - 28	9.2	9.6	10.6	12.1	13.0	20.0
Belgium (1)	2.6	3.0	3.6	4.0	4.1	13.0
Bulgaria	9.0	9.5	11.7	13.4	13.8	16.0
Czech Republic	7.3	7.2	7.8	8.4	9.4	13.0
Denmark	17.8	18.6	20.0	22.0	23.1	30.0

²⁵. Ibidem., p. 75.

²⁶. Idem.

Germany	7.1	7.3	8.0	10.7	12.3	18.0
Estonia	17.1	18.9	23.0	24.6	25.9	25.0
Ireland	3.4	3.6	4.5	5.6	6.7	16.0
Greece	8.0	8.0	8.1	9.2	11.6	18.0
Spain	9.3	10.1	11.8	13.8	15.1	20.0
France	9.3	9.9	10.8	11.4	11.5	23.0
Croatia	12.4	12.2	13.2	14.6	15.7	20.0
Italy	5.4	6.3	7.6	9.8	11.5	17.0
Cyprus	3.4	3.7	4.2	4.6	5.4	13.0
Latvia	29.6	29.8	34.2	32.5	33.1	40.0
Lithuania	15.7	16.9	19.0	19.8	20.3	23.0
Luxembourg	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.9	2.9	11.0
Hungary (1)	5.7	5.6	7.0	7.6	8.1	13.0
Malta	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.4	10.0
Netherlands	2.4	2.7	3.3	3.3	4.3	14.0
Austria	26.1	26.9	28.4	30.4	30.9	34.0
Poland	6.8	7.2	7.8	9.3	10.4	15.0
Portugal	21.3	22.3	23.4	22.7	24.9	31.0
Romania	18.2	20.1	22.2	22.9	21.4	24.0
Slovenia	15.4	14.6	18.4	19.6	18.8	25.0
Slovakia	7.6	7.5	8.9	8.5	9.7	14.0
Finland	29.4	30.5	29.9	31.0	31.8	38.0
Sweden	43.0	43.9	46.5	47.9	46.8	49.0
United Kingdom	1.6	1.9	2.3	3.3	3.8	15.0
Norway	60.4	61.7	64.7	61.4	64.7	67.5

(1) Data are preliminary; Eurostat's estimates.

Source of Data: Eurostat (Europe 2020 indicators).

The countries that have the lowest share of renewable energy in total energy consumption are Malta with 0.4, Luxembourg with 2.9 and the United Kingdom with 3.8. The best in this chapter is Norway with 64.7 and from the European Union member states Sweden has 46.8, Latvia - 33.1 Finland - 31.8 and Austria - 30.9. In recent years, renewable energy is on an upward trend with the possibility of reaching the target set for 2020.

Romania had a percentage of renewable energy growing from 18.2 in 2007, 20.1 in 2008, 22.2 in 2009, 22.9 in 2010, and in 2011 it reached 21.4 decreasing slightly. The target for 2020 for Romania is 24.0 and it is likely to be achieved if this upward trend continues.

In the last part of this paper we present the situation of sustainable development in Romania, which is the strategy by which we make decisions at the political level and the latest measures taken by the government and the local authorities in this field.

Romania and sustainable development

After 1989 there was a first stage of partial incorporation of the sustainable development principles in Romanian public policy, this was done on the spur of the debates in the UN and its specialized agencies by assuming specific obligations under declarations and conventions to which Romania became part (being the first European country to ratify the Kyoto Protocol to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change).²⁷

In 1997-1999 was elaborated for the first time, with the assistance of United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), a National Strategy for Sustainable Development, which was completed after a large number of contributions assembled in a broad participatory framework and adopted as an official document of the Romanian Government. Although the impact of this document on national public policy was relatively small, it has provided the conceptual framework and methodology for consulting stakeholders for the successful implementation of Local Agenda 21 in a number of about 40 municipalities and counties. After joining the EU, the 1999 Strategy formed the subject of an interim report to the European Commission on the implementation of sustainable development objectives, in July 2007.²⁸

In the absence of an updated sustainable development strategy according to the directives of the European Union, the programmatic documents and sectoral strategies developed in Romania in the pre- and post-accession period contain relevant provisions and precise target goals which constituted, in the utmost, the reference basis for drafting the present draft of the National Sustainable Development Strategy of Romania 2013-2020-2030.²⁹

Other documents which contain principles of sustainable development are the Treaty of Accession of Romania to the European Union, the National Development Plan 2007-2013, the National Strategic

²⁷. *National Sustainable Development Strategy of Romania 2013-2020-2030*, p. 16.

²⁸. *Idem.*

²⁹. *Idem.*

Reference Framework 2007-2013, the National Reform Programme, the Convergence Programme and the Post-accession Strategy of Romania from 2007.

The measures taken by Romania to achieve the 8 goals agreed in the UN on the global issue of sustainable development are presented in the second Report on the Millennium Development Goals, adopted by the Romanian Government in September 2007.³⁰

The content of these documents and the measures taken for their implementation in the first year after EU accession has a substantial degree of relevance for the effort to tackle key challenges and to achieve the objectives of the EU Strategy for Sustainable Development renewed on 9 June 2006. It is ascertained the existence of overlaps or gaps in terms of interdepartmental coordination, the fact that the strategies and programs cover different time horizons and are not subsumed to an integrating vision, as it is the one provided by the concept of sustainable development.³¹

In the chapter regarding sustainable development our country has evolved over the years with small steps but determined. It is true that we still have many problems, but the changing in direction is felt through the public policies that give greater importance to the principles of sustainable development.

Romania has inherited many problems among which is the tailings pond from the copper mine Rosia Poieni, the sterile lake that needs urgently ecologization, but for this are needed a lot of money, money that does not exist.

Another example of extreme pollution is the one from Moldova Noua, where every time the wind blows harder clouds of dust rise from the tailings ponds Tausani and Bosneac from the former copper mine. This dust contains fine particles of sand and ore tailings that are very harmful to human health, especially for the people living in Moldova Noua or in the vicinity.

The residents of the town Resita have also suffered because of the tons of dust and toxic gas released in the air by the steel mill, despite the fact that massive investments were made in modern installations against pollution. In the neighborhood closest to the steel mill the white ash covers like a blanket the vegetation, the houses, the cars and everything in its path.

³⁰. Ibidem., p. 18.

³¹. Idem.

A measure which complies with the principles of sustainable development is the one adopted by the ordinance under which state aid is given through green certificates for renewable energy production. Thus the investor managed to recover his investment because he obtained money from the sale of both energy and green certificates that were traded on the market, as electricity suppliers were forced to buy them in annual quota. Unfortunately, the government decided to reduce this aid scheme for the producers of renewable energy.

Of particular importance is the draft of the government decision on declaring the natural area Lake Vacaresti a Natural Park and the creation of the protected area. This project is now in public debate, but when it will be adopted Lake Vacaresti will become the first urban natural park of Romania. The small delta where tens of species of birds, mammals, fishes, reptiles, amphibians and insects live will be converted into a protected reserve, this is imperative because of the danger in which these creatures are living, especially because among them are species that are kept secret lest poachers will come and catch them. In addition to the varied fauna here are found many species of plants and flowers. Recently the Vacaresti Natural Park Observatory was opened on the 17th floor of a tower block nearby, from where people can admire the „Bucharest Delta”. According to a development project for the visitors might be built crossing bridges and elevated observation points (towers) to watch wildlife without disturbing it. The main beneficiaries of this natural park, which will be accomplished using European funds, will be the children.

Another project through which is aimed the increasing of the number of green spaces in Bucharest is the one for the landscaping of the river banks of Dambovită for a length of 10 km. This sector is converted into a promenade and recreation area by arranging the green space with grass, trees and shrubs, the fence was replaced and benches, planters and trash cans were installed. On the bridges and walkways were mounted pots with plants. This project in which was involved the former Romanian canoeist Ivan Patzaichin was conducted by Apa Nova in collaboration with the Municipality of Bucharest.

The government has initiated a program aimed to eradicate drastically the illegal logging of the forests, it consists in the implementation of a software that allows real-time tracking of every shipment of timber from the forest until is exported or it becomes a finished product. The software was purchased in 2008, but until now was not functional.

Another very important project in terms of biodiversity is initiated by the Village Hall of Armenis in collaboration with Rewilding Europe and WWF Romania. Through this approach is attempted the restocking of the area with bison, 17 broods were released in a specially designated wilderness area and will undergo a period of acclimatization. Bringing the bison is not the only objective of the project, this area will be promoted by the two NGOs involved as a tourist attraction. In the village of Armenis it was opened a visitor center to bison, with informative materials about the animals and nature, but also with various programs which involve the community and the tourists in activities of environmental protection. The bison paddock is far from the community, the nearest settlement is 12 kilometers away, but it is desired that the villagers would start arranging their homes to receive tourists, there is a high agritourism potential.

Apa Nova Bucharest repopulated the Danube for the third time with 1.000 sturgeon. The action „The Sturgeon Baptism” which aimed to release in the Danube 1.000 stor sturgeon seedlings was initiated by Apa Nova Bucharest in partnership with the Municipality of Tulcea and the Danube Delta Biosphere Reserve under the patronage of the Romanian National Commission for UNESCO.

Conclusions

The leaders of the international organizations were the first to realize that if we want to develop in a healthy way and to evolve as a species we need an unpolluted environment. For this to be achieved we must make a change in how we think and how we act. We need to acknowledge our mistakes and not repeat them, ignoring them will not make them disappear, on the contrary the situation will worsen because no one will know that they exist and that their devastating effects must be countered with mitigation measures. It is imperative that people realize that we are all connected to each other and what we do in Europe or America affects even a small island in the Pacific Ocean.

Economic development is a goal that all countries must have and should act in order to achieve it, but achieving this purpose should not be done at any price, much less by environmental destruction. Health is the most valuable asset humans have and its destruction cannot be compensated with money. The heads of state and government must realize that national or economic interests aren't more important than the individual interests of the citizens who have the right to health. The policy makers need to understand that money cannot replace the air, water or

food, and not always they can buy you your health.

The European Union distinguishes itself through the measures taken to achieve sustainable development policies. These measures gave results, that were reflected in the statistics performed at European level, statistics which clearly show that there is a downward trend in pollution.

In recent years the political leaders in Romania understood the extraordinary importance of sustainable development in the long-term positive evolution of a state. They began to take political decisions taking into account the impact a law or other administrative action can have on the environment.

In the capital measures were taken to increase the green areas through the redevelopment of existing sites and by protecting an area whose importance has been recently discovered. Green spaces reduce urban pollution and help to maintain the health of the people living in the city.

At national level measures are taken for combating the theft of wood from forests. Also, in protected areas are introduced extinct species in an attempt to maintain biodiversity. An important step is the encouragement of renewable energy producers, knowing the fact that much of the damage to this planet comes from the exploitation and use of fossil fuels.

This change in the mentality of politicians was produced and due to the pressure of the NGOs and civil society, which supported through programs and actions the adoption of a legislation consistent with sustainable development.

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ORDERING THE MEASURE OF PREVENTIVE ARREST WITHIN ECHR REQUIREMENTS

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Abstract: *It should be stressed that the practice of the Strasbourg court ordered the Romanian judicial system to evolve, and to consider the preventive arrest from another perspective, the most noticeable change being that, unlike in the past, the percentage of cases in which the preventive arrest measure is ordered is much smaller, the downward trend being clearly marked by the moment when the ordering of measure passed from prosecutor to judge. It is enough to remember that in the 90s in most of the cases in which an indictment was drawn the defendants were prosecuted in a state of preventive arrest, and it usually last until the case became final. Currently, only in exceptional situations the preventive arrest is ordered for crimes against property when the defendant is a primary offender (and here we refer to robbery crimes) and there are many cases where such preventive measure is not taken in cases of offences of murder or attempted murder.*

Keywords: *Preventive arrest, ECHR case law, defendant, preventive measures, criminal trial.*

1. Introductory notions

The regulation of arrest in Romanian legislation is a liberal concept, a measure of exception which can be made only in the cases and under the procedure provided by law. Contemporary legal thinking admits the objective need for prevention measures in the criminal procedure regulation for protecting the general interests of the community. Consequently, it is recognized that the limitations to individual freedom are strictly determined by law, are provisional and exceptional, being established under the general interest that they serve, without having an abandonment of individual freedom. People who participate in criminal procedure must show loyalty throughout the trial, namely to refrain from

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fraudulent actions which may impede the truth and the fair settlement of the criminal case¹. Prevalence of crime in modern society and the need to take effective measures to ensure the safety of citizens and community necessarily involves a balance between the possibilities of reaction of the society against crime and the protection of individual rights. Otherwise, the law no longer represents the means of protection to those who observe it, but mainly of those who do not respect it.

In this respect, it is mentioned²: *"to deprive someone of their liberty only on suspicion, so before the trial, before they are found guilty and sentenced, is contrary to the constitutional principle on individual freedom. And yet justice cannot stand with arms crossed in front of the contempt that the defendant throws at it through his attempts to compromise the truth or of the hazard posed by the accused person, therefore justice must take prompt and vigorous measures for the prevention or elimination of these shortcomings. Or, for that justice to fulfil its role, it might not be another choice than resorting to the radical measures of preventive arrest"*.

On a more intransigent position stood another famous author³ who claimed, among other things, *"... we agree with everyone that criminals should be treated humanely, but we cannot admit that humanity can go so far as to leave among honest citizens, sprinkled everywhere, tens and hundreds of criminals always ready to commit new wrongdoing. What good does it bring all the freedoms of citizens if in their name the honest citizen can have no safety, being left side by side with all the criminals?"*

2. ECHR exigencies on preventive arrest

The arrest is a measure which affects individual freedom severely, having major consequences, sometimes unexpected on the reputation of an individual, his private and family life, his happiness⁴. The arrested person is under suspicion of guilt, and the measure can produce irreparable effects. Therefore, the arrest is subject to clear and firm constitutional rules, the ordering of this action being the responsibility of

¹ William Brînză, *Academic Course of Criminal Law-General Part*, Lumina Lex Publishing House, Bucharest 2003, p. 73;

² T. Pop, *Criminal Procedure*, 'Universul juridic' Publishing House, Bucharest, 2013, p. 253;

³ V. Dongoroz, *Theoretical Explanations of the Romanian Criminal Code 2nd edition*. Volume II, Bucharest, 2012, p. 40;

⁴ William Brînză, *Theoretical and Practical Analysis of the Crime of Breach of Judgments*, Noel Computers Publishing House, Ploiesti, 2008, p. 123;

authorities which act only by order of law, independently and impartially, namely through the judges.

Two important constitutional rules are expressly set out in art. 23:

- a) preventive arrest is ordered only during trial;
- b) the ordering of the measure is solely the responsibility of the judge.

The detention or arrest of a person shall be permitted only in the cases and under the procedure prescribed by law, according to art.23 paragraph (2) of the Constitution⁵. The measure raises complex legal, psychological and social issues, and can generate in terms of the individual a real presumption of guilt that is not always reconciled with the fundamental principle of the presumption of innocence, but mostly it can induce the judge to give a sentence at least equal to the duration of preventive detention. Judicial cooperation in criminal matters within the European Union currently runs under Community instruments adopted under Title VI of the EU Treaty, which are increasingly more based on the principle of mutual recognition of judicial decisions.

The European arrest warrant is the first concrete step in implementing the principle of mutual recognition of criminal decisions, which the European Council in Tampere decided to turn into the cornerstone of judicial cooperation between the Member States of the European Union. EAW should not be mistaken for the preventive arrest warrant of intern law, since, on the one hand, the European arrest warrant is a judicial decision which is always based on a preventive arrest warrant or the warrant of execution of sentence issued under domestic law and, on the other hand, the European arrest warrant is issued only when a preventive arrest warrant or a warrant of execution of sentence cannot be executed in the country as the person concerned evades, being on the territory of another Member State of the European Union. In every action it takes to enforce the law, the European Union must consider the observance of human rights. Although initially, the European Union has been described as an economic community, now it is considered – considers itself - one of the promoters of human rights in the European area.

Although in the past it has declined jurisdiction in this area, today, along with the adoption of the Lisbon Treaty, it has not only met the conditions required to adhere to the European Convention on Human Rights, but it has established its own Charter of fundamental rights in

⁵ Constitution of Romania, 2003;

order to provide effective protection rights. After the entry into force of the Framework decision, following a program of harmonization of law systems, although the Commission stated the equal protection of human rights, according to the reports of the commissioners of the Council of Europe empowered to monitor these rights in member countries, there were major deficiencies in the area of protection.

They also noted procedural differences⁶. Thus, while in some countries the right to a lawyer is guaranteed even after the arrest, in other Member States, the lawyer is not entitled to be present at the interrogation of the defendant. It is believed that⁷ police integrity is a sufficient guarantee. Most of the discrepancies can be observed in procedural criminal law. Without harmonization of penal systems, it is impossible to develop mutual trust. Without the trust the procedure of acknowledgment of judicial decisions is compromised. Without the acknowledgment of judicial acts, criminal cooperation is impossible and the efficiency of the EAW is compromised.

In the catalogue of constitutional rights and freedoms, the right to liberty as a fundamental right of the citizen, appears as a complex of rights and freedoms acknowledged and secured in art.23, 25-28 of the Constitution of Romania, the physical freedom or the freedom of movement of people (art. 23), the freedom of movement within the country and allowing exit and return to the country (art. 25), the right to protection of private and family life (Article . 26), inviolability of the home (Article 27), inviolability of legal means of communication (art. 28), inviolability of legal means of communication (art. 28). Since these rights and freedoms protect the individual and its private life from any interference, in constitutional doctrine they were known as "inviolabilities". Protection of fundamental rights and freedoms implies the concrete obligation of the authorities to ensure their implementation⁸. Law enforcement bodies are obliged not only to investigate crimes, but also to do everything possible to ensure the protection of rights and legitimate interests, the honour and dignity of citizens, especially in the present-day conditions, when the focus should be the citizen themselves – their rights and freedoms, their fairness, honesty and dignity.

⁶ Oana Măriuca Petrescu, *Procedural Law of the European Union*, CH. Beck Publishing House, Bucharest, 2013, p. 284;

⁷ Oana Măriuca Petrescu, *op.cit.*, p. 156;

⁸ Norel Neagu, *ECJ Jurisprudence and its Influence on National Criminal Law*, CH. BeckPublishing House, Bucharest, 2013, p. 98;

Thus, among the constitutional guarantees for ensuring the protection of above mentioned values we can also include the provisions related to the application by the courts of the defendant's preventive arrest, based on legal, reasoned and justified decisions.

Freedom to move and to manifest according to their will grants to people the right to dispose of their movements, their acts and their time according to their intentions, and thus determines the effective exercise of almost all other individual freedoms⁹.

Preventive arrest, although it resembles a constraint achieved by executing imprisonment, is a measure that can be ordered only by procedural reasons, during the procedure of legal accountability of a person suspected of committing a crime.

Preventive arrest is an exceptional measure, consisting of the deprivation of liberty of a person before the involvement of a judgment of conviction, due to reasons related to the normal course of criminal proceedings, being classified in the research literature as the most serious procedural measure.

Given these objective realities, the constitutional revision of 2003 brought some clarification on this matter, expressly distinguishing between the two stages of criminal proceedings, the prosecution and the trial. The differences relate only to matters of detail (the duration of arrest and the rhythmicity of the verification of the arrest measure legality), and not to the competent authority that should issue the warrant or to the fundamental legal rules for issuing it. The most profound transformation of criminal procedural rules occurred under the influence of European procedural law, after 1990, in the field of preventive measures and, in particular of preventive arrest, being very similar to the regulations from democratic countries.

Article 9 of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, adopted in 1789, identifies, states that "every person should be considered innocent until proven guilty, if that person must be arrested any severity that would violate his/her personality must be rigorously repressed by law", this is the first legal definition of the presumption of innocence.

Article 23 of the Constitution establishes two fundamental rules of great tradition in the legal systems of undeniable actuality, namely the

⁹ William Brînză, *The new penal code, European union requirment or necessity for Romania*, în AGORA Journal International Journal of Juridical Sciences (AGORA IJJS), no. 3 of 2013, p. 76;

presumption of innocence and the legality of the sentence. To this, the constitutional revision added another rule which became in time a tradition in many developed countries, that of the impossibility to provide by law or apply custodial sanctions in areas other than the criminal one.

The Constitutional Court of Romania decided that the arrest does not affect, in any way, the presumption of innocence and that the attire of the arrested must avoid any confusion with the convict (prisoner), otherwise the presumption of innocence is affected by the image created by specific clothing of the condemned.

In order to take the measure of preventive arrest, two conditions are necessary for taking the measure of preventive arrest in ECHR jurisprudence: the existence of a criminal trial and the existence of probable cause by means of which to believe that the person to be deprived of freedom committed an offence"

To order the preventive arrest, the national legislation establishes in art.143 Code of Criminal Procedure the requirement of the existence of solid evidence or clues regarding the commission of an offence under criminal law. This condition is fully in line with art. 5 paragraph 1 letter c of the European Convention, having essentially the same meaning. The Romanian legislator has chosen to expressly define the concepts of "evidence" and "clues" in the wording of the regulations contained, unlike the notion enshrined in the European text the definition of which was the subject of ECHR jurisprudence.

Unlike the probable clues which are simple assumptions or suspicions that allow the formulation of inferences on aspects for solving the case, evidence can only be obtained by means of evidence and only subject to the procedure prescribed by law, as showed by art.64 paragraph (2) Code of Criminal Procedure according to which, the means of evidence obtained illegally cannot be used in criminal proceedings¹⁰. The essential difference between "evidence" and "strong clues" is the source of proceedings so that the circumstances or facts that constitute strong clues come to the attention of the judicial bodies in any other way outside the means of evidence¹¹. Deprivation of liberty of a person within criminal proceedings just because it is suspected of having committed an offense under the criminal

¹⁰ M. Udrioiu, *European Convention on Human Rights and the Romanian Criminal Procedure*, CH. Beck Publishing House, Bucharest, 2007, p. 51;

¹¹ William Brînză, Mihai Adrian Hotca, Vasile Dobrinioiu, *Legal Issues of Criminal Jurisprudence*, Wolters Kluwer Publishing House, Bucharest, 2008, p. 88;

law, and not a crime, is inconsistent with the arrest necessity requirement in relation to the purpose pursued at the time when it was ordered. Therefore, the solution to be followed by the judicial bodies when applying the provisions of art.143 is that of taking into account the provisions of art.5 of the Convention¹².

If the arrest is conditioned by the commission of a "crime", the guilt, as an essential feature of the offence, is not satisfied in any case, because the presumption of innocence operates until the judgment of conviction remains final and judicial bodies are required to refrain from any reference to reflect in any way a prejudice on the guilt of the accused¹³.

According to the Court, house arrest is a measure with a sufficient degree of coercion for it to be considered a "deprivation of liberty" within the meaning of art.5 of the Convention, which cannot be equated with the preventive measures restricting rights.

House arrest is the subject of the provisions of art.218-222 of the new Code of Criminal Procedure, the contents of which expressly states "*A defendant in custody at home is considered as being in preventive arrest.*"

Accordingly, based on the diverging practice of Romanian courts, this change could be a solution to the problem of misinterpretation of the way in which the duration of arrest executed abroad shall be deducted from the sentence imposed.

Conclusions

We hope that, once in force, the new Criminal and Criminal procedure codes, the Romanian magistrates, both the prosecutors and judges, will observe the requirements of the ECHR in relation to the recommendations made when ordering the measure of preventive arrest and will consider everything more seriously before taking this measures, regarded as an extreme one. It should be emphasized that, in recent years, part of the judiciary apparatus unduly exaggerated, being in favor of the preventive measures and not infrequently, the Romanian state had to bear the costs of the ECHR loss of certain trials in which the maintenance or extension of the measure of preventive arrest in an excessive and sometimes abusive manner was observed.

¹² Corneliu Bârsan, *European Convention on Human Rights. Comment on articles* 2nd edition, Ed. CH. Beck Publishing House, Bucharest, p. 340;

¹³ Ovidiu Predescu, Mihail Udroi, *ECHR and Romanian Criminal Procedure*, CH. Beck Publishing House, Bucharest, 2007, p. 80.

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SAFETY AND HEALTH AT EDUCATION INSTITUTION LEVEL IN ROMANIA

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Abstract: *Mainstreaming occupational safety and health (OSH) in education is, at European level, an essential component for the development of risk prevention culture. This enables everyone, teachers and children alike, to learn how to live and work in a safe and healthy environment. The educational staff must be acquainted with the national regulations on safety and health at work, and must be aware of the risk factors in the working environment in order to prevent risks at workplaces.*

An educational institution must be a safe and healthy working environment both for the staff whose entire activity takes place in schools and for the students and others who enter the organization, so as to be a safe and healthy place, suitable for education.

Keywords: *security, health, work, prevention, risk, safety, regulations, workplace*

Introduction

Mainstreaming occupational safety and health (OSH) in education is, at European level, an essential component for the development of risk

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prevention culture. This enables everyone, teachers and children alike, to learn how to live and work in a safe and healthy environment.

The educational staff must be acquainted with the national regulations on safety and health at work, and must be aware of the risk factors in the working environment in order to prevent risks at workplaces.

An educational institution must be a safe and healthy working environment both for the staff whose entire activity takes place in schools and for the students and others who enter the organization, so as to be a safe and healthy place, suitable for education.

European Strategy on Health and Safety at Work (OHS)

The European OSH strategy consists in a global approach to the wellbeing at workplace, consolidating a culture of risk prevention, the existence of appropriate social policies are a factor in the competitiveness equation knowing that "non-policy" entails risks.

Complementary objectives in the field of OSH strategy(2,4,6)		
a) a global approach to wellbeing at the workplace: - continuous reduction of occupational accidents and diseases; - prevention of social risks; - considering the demographic changes as to the risk of accidents and occupational diseases; - considering the changes in the types of employment and contractual forms, work organization and working time; - considering the size of the enterprise; - analysis of new risks;	b) consolidating a culture of risk prevention: - education, awareness, anticipation: improving risk awareness; - more effective enforcement of existing legislation;	c) existence of adequate social policies: - adapting the legal and institutional framework; - encouraging innovative approaches; - promoting the integration of OSH into other community policies; - preparing for enlargement: technical assistance programs, exchange agreements, strengthening the social dialogue at all levels, promoting statistical analysis on accidents at work and occupational diseases;- - development of international cooperation.

EU Strategy on health and safety at work nominated preventive education and culture as a key factors for maintaining and improving work quality.

In most of EU countries, safety and health (OSH) is an integral part of the curriculum, being treated at all levels of education and in different disciplines.

Strategy at national level

European Strategy OSH says:

a) a global approach to wellbeing at work by taking into account the changes in the world of work and the emergence of new risks and emergent

b) consolidating a culture of risk prevention by combining a variety of political tools -legislation, social dialogue, action and best practices, social responsibility and economic incentives - based on building partnerships among stakeholders in OSH activities;

c) existence of appropriate social policies which a factor in the competitiveness equation knowing that "non-policy" entails risks.

1. Principles

From the analysis of the main current legal rules by which the legal institution of safety and health in Romania operates, a number of principles, which shows the importance attached to employment protection legislation in the labor law:

a) Safety and health at work - a fundamental right of all participants in the working process

b) The indissoluble link between labor rights and social protection

c) Integration of safety and health at work in the working process

d) The preventive nature of safety and health at work

e) Addressing the prevention of occupational accidents and occupational diseases as a single issue.

2. Structure

The components of the legal system of safety and health in Romania:

A) Acts that legislates strictly only activities directly related to occupational safety measures, forming a so-called "**basic legislation**", containing:

- Safety and Health at Work Law 319/2006;

- Government Decisions transposing the EU directives;
- Rules for the application of Safety and Health at Work Law.

B) Documents also containing, but only in subsidiary, the legal requirements for safety and health at work (the Constitution of Romania, the Labor Code - chapters on labor protection and social security, as well as women and youngsters' work) or rules of law which, despite having mainly a different focus and being specific to other activities, contribute, by their application, to protect the lives and health of employed persons.

3. Safety and Health at Work Law

The enactment, under which the entire activity of health and safety at work in Romania is carried out, is the Safety and Health at work Law.(1)

In other words, it acts as **the fundamental law for the implementation of safety and health at work**, being from this point of view the generating element for all the legislative provisions governing health and safety at work, no matter if they are to be found in basic or related legislative acts (except for the provisions of the Constitution and the Labor Code).

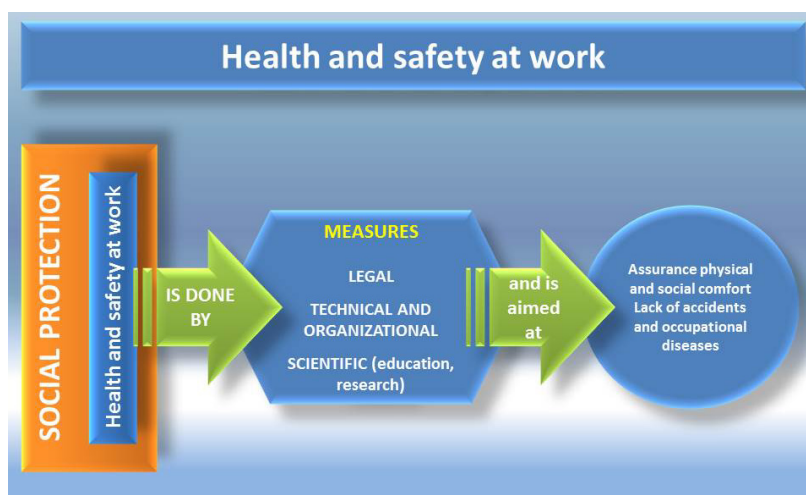


Fig.1. Insurance of safety and health at workplaces

4. Facing new and constantly increasing risks at school unit level

The risk factors present in the working environment within the school units are:

- physical risk factors (microclimate at the workplaces, lighting, the electromagnetic field, namely non-ionizing radiation);
- chemical risk factors (dust, chemical pollutants);
- mechanical risk factors;
- psycho-social ones.

The teaching staff must be aware of the existence of the risk factors in the working environment. Equally, the members of the staff must be acquainted with the national regulations on safety and health at work in order to prevent the risks at the workplaces.(9,11,12)

The educational units must benefit from a safe and healthy working environment, suitable for education. At the same time, we must take into account especially the presence of vulnerable groups (eg very young students) as well as the specific needs of disabled persons.(9,10)

5. Facing new and constantly increasing risks at national level

A) Identification of new risks

Research, both basic and applied, is essential to improve knowledge about health and safety at work, to describe situations of exposure, to identify causes and effects and to design preventive solutions and innovative technologies. Scientific research provides arguments and evidence upon which policy decisions should be based. Research priorities should include especially psycho-social issues, musculoskeletal disorders, dangerous substances, understanding the risks of reproduction, managing health and safety risks for several combined factors (eg work organization and workplace design, ergonomics, combined exposure to physical and chemical agents) and potential risks associated with nanotechnologies.

B) Promoting mental health in the workplace

At present, the problems associated with poor mental health represent the fourth leading cause of work disability. WHO estimates that by 2020 depression will be the leading cause of disability. The workplace can be an appropriate place to prevent psychological problems and promote better mental health.(5,10,11)

6. Hazards at work

In accordance with Law no. 319/2006 and respectively the Government Decision no 1425/2006, employers in construction sector are required to investigate the work hazards that occurred in their units.

Communication, investigation and recording of work hazards are based on the methodology established in the Implementing Methodological Rules of the Law no.319/2006 (from GD no.1425/2006 with the amendments established by GD no. 955/2010).

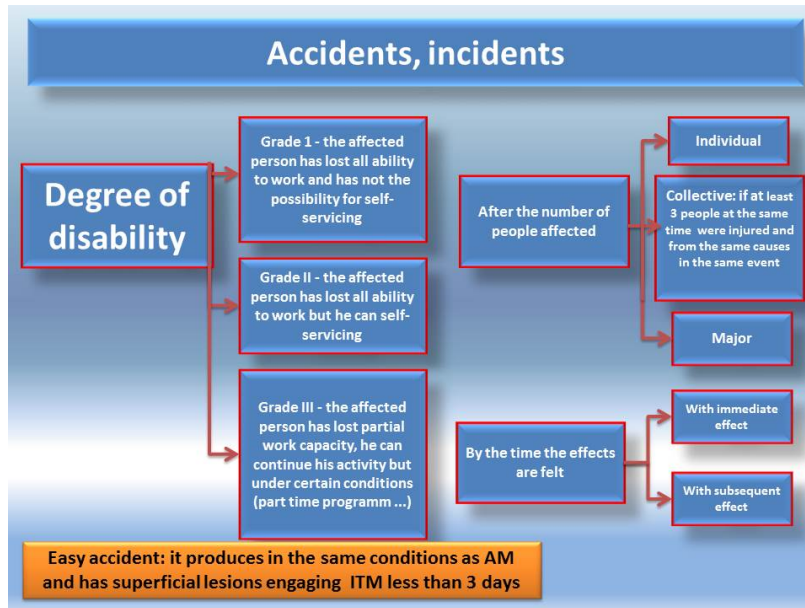


Fig 2. Classification of accidents at workplaces

Communication of work hazards

A work hazard must be communicated immediately to the employer by the workplace supervisor or another person. Further on, the employer must notify the hazard to the Territorial Labour Inspectorate to which the enterprise/unit belongs, to the insurer and to the prosecution bodies, as appropriate.

Investigation of work hazards

Work hazard investigation is based on the methodology established in implementing methodological rules of the Law no. 319/2006 and aims to establish: causes, circumstances, legally violated regulations, responsibilities, measures required to be taken for preventing similar hazards.

Hazard investigation is performed by a commission appointed by:

- employer, for injuries resulting in temporary incapacity for work;

- territorial Labor Inspectorate for hazards resulting in disability, death or casualties;
- labor Inspection for collective deaths, damage, explosions.

Settlement of accident investigation must be made within 5 days for injuries resulting in temporary disability and in 10 days for hazards which lead to death, disability or casualties.

The results of the hazard investigation are recorded in the **Investigation File** that includes all the aspects related to the hazard and will be filled in according to art. 122 of the GD no. 1425/2006.

The hazard investigation ends with an **Investigation Protocol**, which contains significant data relating to the Commission Investigation, the time and place where the investigation was conducted, the object of the investigation, data on the employer, the employee, the responsible persons, the proposed sanctions etc. The investigation protocol shall contain the particulars contained in Art. 128 of the GD no. 1425/2006(3).

The Labor Inspector will send, within 3 days from the date of signing the investigation protocol, one copy of the hazard investigation file to the Labor Inspection, to the police authority, to the territorial labor inspectorate, to the respective unit, and, as appropriate, to the representatives of the bodies and institutions that participated in the investigation.

The original file of hazard investigation is send to the unit and, where appropriate, to the local public authority that records and keeps track of hazards from employers - individuals. If the Labor Inspection finds out that during the hazard investigation some errors were made or new circumstances of the hazard emerged, the State General Inspector of Labor is entitled to order a new or additional investigation of the hazard in question.

Hazard recording and tracking

Based on the Investigation Protocol, the employer where the hazard occurred must fill in the **Registration Form for Occupational Hazards (FIAM)** and highlight the hazard in the **Single Register for Recording Occupational Hazards** (Annex no. 15 of Government Decision no. 1425/2006).

Hazard recording and tracking

Based on the Investigation Protocol, the employer where the hazard occurred must fill in the **Registration Form for Occupational Hazards (FIAM)** and highlight the hazard in the **Single Register for Recording Occupational Hazards** (Annex no. 15 of Government Decision no. 1425/2006).

Hazards are recorded and kept track of by the units whose employees are or have been injured, and those occurred at the workplaces where the employer is an individual are recorded and kept track of by the local public authority (municipality) on whose territory the individual employment contract is registered.

Work hazards are recorded and kept track of separate from hazard occurred outside the workplaces.

The hazard investigation files are kept track of in the unit for 50 years, and at the bodies concerned – as long as it is necessary.

In case of liquidation of the unit or failure to ensure the integrity of the documents, the hazard investigation files will be sent to the state archive storage.

The units will report annually to the statistical offices, as required, the statistics situation of hazards recorded in the reference period.

At the request of the injured or the person representing the interests of his family and stakeholders, the employer or Work Inspectorate will send, within 3 days from the date of appeal, the certified copy of the hazard investigation protocol or the copy of the hazard investigation protocol occurred outside the workplace.

The manager of the unit is responsible for communicating, investigating, reporting, accurate and appropriate tracking of work hazards in order to draw up the protocols and carry out the measures to eliminate the causes of the work hazards.

Conclusions

The educational staff must be acquainted with the national regulations on safety and health at work, and must be aware of the risk factors in the working environment in order to prevent risks at workplaces. An educational institution must be a safe and healthy working environment both for the staff whose entire activity takes place in schools and for the students and others who enter the organization, so as to be a safe and healthy place, suitable for education.

Well-being in the workplace is an important objective and by observing the safety and health at work this can be achieved.

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RISKS FACTORS IN THE ROMANIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM. BEST PRACTICES

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Abstract: *A strategy to promote a culture of prevention and protection must address to all parts of society, widening its scope and beyond the workplace and the workforce. It should help to create a general culture that values health and risks prevention.*

The obtained national experience must be valued, hence the importance of developing a culture of risk prevention in the training programs at all levels of educational cycles in all areas, including vocational training and university education. An important role has the primary education, given that basic preventive reflexes are acquired in childhood.

The article discusses the best practices that should be applied in order to eliminate or decrease risk factors. Monitoring the microclimate parameters in two laboratories located in the basement of two different educational institutions have highlighted the fact that, the temperatures are below current standards and recommended literature. After performing these measurements have been taken to measures to improve the microclimate conditions by installing additional heat sources.

Keywords: *management, best practices, risk factors security, health, labor.*

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Introduction

Law no. 319/2006 on Safety and Health at Work acts as fundamental law in this area and has a high level of application covering all sectors public and private; it applies to employers, workers and workers' representatives.

The stated purpose of the Law. 319/2006 is the introduction of measures to encourage improvements in the safety and health of workers at work. It establishes the general principles concerning the prevention of occupational risks, the protection of workers' safety and health, the training of workers and their representatives, as well as the general directions for the implementation of these principles. (1,2,3): workers, the elimination of risk and hazard factors, the information, consultation, balanced participation.

1. The principles underlying the legal system of occupational safety and health (OSH) in Romania are:

1.1. OSH is a fundamental right of all participants to the work process;

Occupational Health and Safety Act no. 319 of 2006 establishes the general principles relating to the prevention of occupational hazards, health and safety of workers, the elimination of risk factors for injury, informing, consultation, balanced participation, training of workers and their representatives, and the general direction for implementing these principles.

For this right, the law - framework imposes obligations on employers and their employees and establish specialized bodies of state administration to monitor how that applies to units and employees comply and respect with safety and health rules at work.

So, safety and health at work is not left solely to the discretion of operators, but, being implemented in all areas of social-economic life, states ensures and control its fulfillment.

1.2. Indissoluble link between the right to work and OSH

Romania is a state of law, democratic and social (art. 1 paragraph. 3 of the Constitution), the right to work is not only enshrined as a basic right of citizens, but it is in close correlation with the right to social protection of employees, which includes safety and health and it is guaranteed.

In this sense, the state administration bodies designated by law are required to organize, coordinate and control the activity in the domain.

To ensure full labor rights it is necessary to ensure such conditions during the conduct of the work that the life, health and bodily integrity of those who exercise this fundamental right must be defended. Otherwise, the right to work itself might not fully realize, it would be formal.

2. OSH integration in the workplace;

It is a clear principle expressed in Law no. 319/2006 of the OSH, which provides both to the employer and workers obligations to achieve a safe and healthy work environment.

A strategy to promote a culture of prevention and protection, must address to all components of the society. It should help to create a general culture that values the importance of disease and risks prevention. (4, 6, 7)

Developing a culture of risk prevention in the training programs at all levels of education and in all areas, including training and higher education has an important role in the knowledge and the awareness of the concept of safety and health at work. An important role has the primary education, given that basic preventive reflexes are acquired in childhood.

In the existing educational staff need to be aware of risk factors in the work environment. Also, legislative regulations must be known concerning health and safety in the workplace in order to prevent risks at workplaces.

Measuring and monitoring performance should take into account:

- monitoring the extent to which OSH objectives are met by the organization; - monitoring the effectiveness of control measures, both in terms of health and safety

Monitoring the risk factors

Occupational exposures are related to the presence of physical, chemical, physico-chemical, biological, psychosocial, ergonomic in the work environment. When these occupational exposures have adverse effect on the workability and health personnel, these factors become professional contaminants (synonym: professional contaminants factors).

3. Good practices

In this sense, in the laboratories of physics, chemistry and biology will take the following security measures:

-Before the starting of experiences: experiences that use electricity, at voltages which can be dangerous will be carried out only by knowledgeable personnel of the recommendations of safety and health at workplaces: specialty teacher and tester. (5.8)

-During development of the experiences, those who will carry the experiences will have appropriate protective equipment;

-In the laboratory works where chemicals are used, the laboratory works are performed observing the work procedures, instructions for use of these substances, under the supervision of the laboratory personnel.

-When handling chemicals: experiences that produce gaseous substances or vapors, that carry alkali fragmentation, the Calcutta soda, iodine, chromic acid salts, as well as other toxic substances which give a powder, to be made in niche (7.10)

-When handling containers with concentrated acids or ammonia: it will be used the niche and will follow the recommendations of the technical safety data sheets (9.10)

-In the laboratory must be kept, conspicuously, first-aid means. In this respect, it is absolutely necessary the compliance to the technical safety data sheets (5, 6, 7)

Best practices to enable us to protect from the action of the electric current

From surveys conducted by the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC), results that no accident occurred caused by the passing of an electric current through the human body, at lower voltages or equal to 50 V, in alternating current (effective value) and 120 V continuous current.

All electrical installations throughout the entire school territory located in dangerous workplaces, where students and school staff may come into contact with them, will be equipped with insulation and regulating shields and warning signals in accordance with the legal provisions.

The rooms and the school premises where there is electrical installations, generators, transformers, batteries, etc. shall be provided with means of signaling, suggestive posters, posters and instructions on electrosecurity. (11,12,13)

Exploitation, maintenance intervention, inspection, repair of electrical equipment and electrical installations should be done by qualified personnel, authorized and trained to work with such equipment,

according to art. 13 of the Occupational Health and Safety Act 319 of 2006 and Government Decision nr.1146/2006 provisions concerning the minimum safety and health requirements for the use of work equipment by workers at work.

Best practices on monitoring risk factors in the work environment

Risk factors present in the working environment of educational institutions are: physical risk factors, chemical risk factors, mechanical risk factors, psychosocial.

In the two universities were monitored microclimate parameters from two laboratories located in the basement.

Measurement procedure:	For: - dry-air temperature (0C), wet air temperature (0C), mean radiant temperature (0C), WBGT (wet and globe-thermometer temperature) measurement with digital camera " MICROTHERM Heat Stress WBGT - CASELLA " -the fan air speed (m / s) :digital camera with sensor hand "TESTO 435" according to standard ISO 7730 - to assess lighting conditions "Device TESTO 545"
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Energetic metabolism, M Class of metabolism: Activity with small physical effort (low metabolism) 1W = 0.86 Kcal / h according to EN 27243 100W/m ²		Value				WBGT Index *			
						Ambience is sensitive homogeneous WBGT index value at the the abdomen level, according to EN 27243			
Ratio per unit cutaneous surface (W/m ²)	For an average of 1.8 cutaneous surface m ² (W)	Operating temperature in the winter period (0C)		The average speed of air currents (m / s)		Person acclimated to heat *)		Non acclimated person to heat *)	
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Limit recommended by SR EN 27243	Recommended limit of SR EN 27243	Limit recommended by ISO 7730	Calculated	Recommen- ded limit of SR ISO 7730	Measured	Limit recommen- ded by SR EN 27243	Measured	Limit recommended by SR EN 27243	Calculated
65<M≤130	117<M≤234	22,0±1,0		≤0,3		30		29	-
1. Workplace : School no. 1 - semi-basement laboratory [v (m / s) MC1, WBGT (°C) MC2] Developed activity: teaching course Measurement conditions: windows and doors closed Date of measurement: 08/02/2014									
65<M≤130	117<M≤234	22,0±1,0	19,45	≤0,3	0,12	30	22,1	29	-
2. Workplace: School no. 2 - semi-basement laboratory [v (m/s) MC3, WBGT (°C) MC4] Developed activity: teaching course Measurement conditions: windows and doors closed Date of measurement: 08/02/2014									
65<M≤130	117<M≤234	22,0±1,0	20,25	≤0,3	0,11	30	23,4	29	-

*WBGT index (English abbreviation "Wet Bulb Globe Temperature") - wet and globe-thermometer temperature, according to SR EN 27243. Recommended values for WBGT index were established by respecting the recommendations of SR EN 27243/1996 for the reference temperature and considered standard working clothes (permeable to air, water vapor and thermal insulation value corresponding season)

<i>Dry temperature (°C)</i>	<i>Wet temperature (°C)</i>	<i>Average radiant temperature(°C)</i>	<i>Relative air humidity **) (%)</i>
0	1	2	3
1. Workplace: School no. 1 - semi-basement laboratory [v (m/s) MC1, WBGT (°C) MC2] Developed activity: teaching course Measurement conditions: windows and doors closed Date of measurement: 08/02/2014			
19,3	18,9	19,6	66,4
2. Workplace: School no. 2 - semi-basement laboratory [v (m/s) MC3, WBGT (°C) MC4] Developed activity: teaching course Date of measurement: 08/02/2014			
20,1	19,9	20,4	62,9

***)The specialty literature recommends values of relative humidity between (30-70)%, values above 70% and below 30% are considered to be outside the zone of thermal comfort for most occupants of premises.*

The microclimate measurements were performed in the work area of the two educational units, the final values represent the average of these measurements, to characterize the thermal environment of work.

The results were interpreted in accordance with the recommended values of reference standards and specialty literature.

So, for the operative temperature, is recorded parameter values measured / calculated limit values recommended by the reference standard SR EN ISO 7730/2006 in the work areas where the measurements were performed.

4. Conclusion

Labor protection in education units aims to provide the best working conditions, prevention of accidents and professional diseases among students, teachers and non-teaching staff as well as and keeping up with progress in science and technology.

Monitoring the microclimate parameters in two laboratories located in the basement of two different educational institutions have highlighted the fact that the temperatures are below the current standards in law and recommended literature. After performing these measurements have been taken measures to improve the microclimate by installing additional heat sources.

In accordance with these regulations in force, the obligation to ensure safety and health under all the aspects concerning labour, is incurred by the unit manager.

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LEADER LEARNING GROUP

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Abstract: *The leader must motivate the group to learn and for this he needs to get to know each individual in the group with the hyperlink, the personal characteristics of learning, motivation for learning and its aspirations towards which.*

Keywords: *leader, group, hyperlink, motivation, aspiration.*

The leader and the Group

Leadership is a component of change, an ability that forms by the interaction with people, education and, especially through practice.

The leader is, firstly, the one who ensures the vision, the integrity, the responsibility, the reliability, empathy and enthusiasm of the group that he leads, promoting new action methods in order to raise the inter and intrapersonal communication level.

A specificity of this leader is to reach some intermediary and perspective scopes¹, according to the needs of the group at a certain moment. These scopes can be divided in intermediary steps, and the leader has to determine the group to focus its effort over the immediate scope - the first step -, following that this one will sequentially achieve the scopes proposed at the end of the previous step. By this method he

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¹ Maximilian Boroș, *The level of school aspirations*, Gutinu Publishing House, Baia Mare, 1998, p.17.

manages to involve and to engage the group members in learning tasks in a profound manner, being confronted with many possible achievement levels for a learning task².

The psycho-pedagogical approach of the aspiration for learning of a group supposes, on one hand, in the conditions of regular learning, the research of this one in the context of the school class and in a close relations with teachers' requirements and expectations and on the other hand, of social factors (represented by colleagues, parents, etc.) that influence - more or less - the level, the intensity or the achievement of this one. This one has to lead to a well established methodology, by the giving clear assignments, followed by an objective assessment, methodology by which will be concretized in a high level learning.

We have to also take into account the influence of the coordinator teacher of the learning group. So, a favorable approval determines the group to research and to create new levels of learning, creating a positive influence over this one, while a disapproval will exercise an ambiguous, unrealistic influence over the group³.

So, if the group reaches the teacher's expectations which are in conformity with the desires of the members and in conformity with the real capacities of these ones, a positive, encouraging influence will be exercised against the group, and this one will be stimulated to achieve the objectives⁴.

The relation between aspirations, expectation and achievement

The level of aspiration, characterized initially as being the *totality of expectations, scopes and claims*, concretized in the preparation of the scope within a given task⁵, has created many confusions and substitutions in researches regarding the group.

So, the level of aspirations has been frequently confused and substitute with the one of expectation or trust, as it has been named by K. Lewin⁶.

² Zander A., Rosenfeld H., *The influence of teacher on aspiration*, Educ. Psychol, 52, 1961, p. 1-11.

³ *Idem*, p. 13.

⁴ Morrison A., Moln Iyrem D., *Teachers and teaching*, Penguin Books, 1969, p. 27-30.

⁵ F. Hoppe, *Erfolg und Misserfolg*. Untersuchung zur Handlungs- und Affectpsychologie, Psychologie, Forsch., 1931, 14, p. 1-62.

⁶ W.I. Irwin, G.M. Mintzer, *Effect of differences in instructional motivation upon measures of the level of aspiration*, American Journal of Psychology, 1942, 55, p. 400-406

Many authors ⁷ have tried certain conceptual delimitings⁸. So one has admitted that *the level of aspiration is expressed by performance (indicated by the school grade) that the members of the group would want to obtain in the given test. Regarding this one, the level of expectation is given by performance, indicated in these terms, that the members of the group expect in a real manner to obtain in that test, while the level of expectation - used here as a reference system is the effective result, respectively the grade given at the respective test.*

It is true that according to carried out studies ⁹, the level of aspiration and expectation slightly differs under the report of their height, the first one being designed at the highest limit of possibilities and achievement availabilities of group members, while the second one is, comparatively, designed a little bit closer to actual possibilities.

In other terms, the aspiration of the group members is directed to a scope that will less probably be achieved in the present, while the expectations of these ones are centered on a scope that is possible to be achieved at an intermediary date.

The influence of success or failure over the level of aspiration

In the previous section one has acknowledged the effects of success and unsuccess that have been reported to what the group has intended to achieve taking into consideration the fact that achievements have reached or have over passed the initially expected grade when appreciated as success, and for the ones that have been situated under what the members have aspired to, as a failure¹⁰.

It has been observed with the occasion of carried out studies, that a number approximately equal of members with the group raise and, respectively maintain themselves, within the same aspiration level of success while a very small number have a decreased level of aspiration. If it is determined by success in an equal measure, the raise and maintenance of the initial level of aspiration and, in a small measure, the decreasing of

⁷ A. Marcovici, *The report between aspiration and expectation, resembling and differences*, Magazine of Psychology, T.21. No. 1, Bucharest p.21-54.

⁸ W.J. Gardner, *The use of the term „level of aspiration”*, Psychologie Revue, 1940, 47, p. 59-68.

⁹ M. Boroş, *Will and aspiration in Students*, Scientific Bulletin, Series A, vol. III, 1971 3 years pedagogical institute, Baia Mare.

¹⁰ F.Hoppe, *op.cit.*, p. 63.

this one, this being the result of the degree of satisfaction perceived by each group member¹¹.

A similar analyses of students who have registered failures does not lead to the acknowledgment that, in order, the averages hold by the percentage of members that maintain their level of aspiration and, in the end, the percentage of the of the ones that raise their level of aspiration. In this situation, the reactions against failure are influenced by the evaluation system that determines a disappointment within the group¹².

One has to keep in mind, compulsorily, that information constitutes a powerful determinant at the level of aspirations, when the possibility of revision is the continuous readaptation ¹³ of the own reference level¹⁴.

Group Leader

The group leader is perfectly capable to determine the increase of the number of successes within the group members, following them individually and eventually offering them some specific methods for learning.

Some researchers consider that leaders have a series of techniques and methods through which they manage to assimilate, in a short period of time, many information, that they then reproduce according the needs, in front of teachers, in writing exams, in the communication of the group members or during some free debates.

The respective knowledge helps not only for a moment, but as well as for the future, the choice of a profession, art, hobby or sport; has initially been considered as being just a talent in the definition of the respective result, and the researchers consider that leaders, in a native matter, use correctly learning techniques, adapted in time.

Ricki Linksman¹⁵ considers that between the brain and the perception of information forms a super connection, a personal method to overtake

¹¹ Pennington A., Shifts in inspiration level after success and failure in the College classroom, *The Journal of General Psychologie*, 1940, 23, page. 305-313.

¹² Ibidem.

¹³ At a psychological level, these revisions and readaptations are very complex, taking into consideration the duration and external and internal factors which belong to each group.

¹⁴ Of course, here we discuss about the proper preparation system of each member in the group, established as to continue or cut the learning activity.

¹⁵ Rick Linksman, *Rapid learning*, Teora Publishing House, Bucharest, 1999, p. 9-10.

the information from the world in order to understand, remember and retain in order to create a super fast connection between them.

He considers that the cerebral hemisphere - the place where the processing and storage of information takes place - completely agrees with the manner of perception of these ones: visual, auditive, tactile and kinesthetic¹⁶. By the combination of the two modes, one can obtain eight super connections, determining thus the optimal combination between the preference of a certain learning style and the cerebral hemispheric preference. Following some questionnaires, one can find out if the super connection used by a leader, is what impulses him in the retaining of information, having in mind a certain relation between the brain and learning style which is predominant.

So one observes eight possible combinations:

Left visual hemisphere	Right visual hemisphere
Left auditive hemisphere	Right auditive hemisphere
Left tactile hemisphere	Right tactile hemisphere
Left kinesthetic hemisphere	Right kinesthetic hemisphere

Sometimes, the leader can use one or a combination of super connections in relation with internal and external factors¹⁷.

Learning style

The for styles - visual, auditive, tactile and kinesthetic - are commune to the majority of persons, by some of them can be used in rare cases, just like taste and touch, with an excellent learning based on these two senses.

Learning styles are an optimal combination between natural habitudes (genetically inherited, just like the kinesthetic ones that are oriented to movement - preponderantly granted to men or the tactile one - oriented towards emotional - specific to women) As long as some learning templates become more and more rapid and more and more automatic, one will develop a better learning style.

¹⁶ Visual: information are received with the eyes (by sight);
Auditive: information are received with the ears (by hearing);
Tactile: information are received by the touch of objects, sensorial perception of matter (by tactile sense);
Kinaesthetic: information are perceived by movement (by the actuation of muscular mass)

¹⁷ See Supra 1. Group leader, p.1.

Learning plan

In order to increase the number of successes, the group leader has to conceive a plan regarding learning and this means¹⁸:

- Scheduling

This step has to answer to some questions regarding the subject of learning: *What is the scope? What do I know about the subject? What do I have to know about the subject? What learning means are there? How can I optimize learning? Who can I visualize success?*

Step by step, answering to these questions, one will draft a plan for learning.

Regarding the first question we have to make the remark that the key-element for the preparation of the mind for learning is motivation, which is thus prepared to be attentive and interested. Taking into account the already existing knowledge about the subject, one has to have in mind the coverage of certain techniques and certain competences of a nature to reach the desired scope¹⁹.

The leader has to increase trust within the group. Through a positive thinking, he has to lead its colleagues in such a manner as that all of them believe in success, determining them to work full of trust²⁰.

The leader from any field, be it a sportsman, an academic, medic or another, has to perform in such a manner so that every member can visualize success. The lived moment has to be the most alive possible, with the use of all senses, with the consideration that he already took place following some active actions, perseverant and sustained by learning.

¹⁸ For more details see Rick Linksman, *op.cit.*, p.74 and following.

¹⁹ The use of a certain method together with materials can be a key factor for the determination of success and subject's learning speed.

²⁰ A study carried out by a group of researchers from Harvard lead by Robert Rosenthal – previously known under the name of *Pygmalion in class* – had as subjects a group formed of 90 students of average capacities. They have been divided in classes of 30 and each class was given in the care of a teacher who was told that he had to deal with over capable youngsters. Believing this thing, teachers taught as they really were *super capable* and they expected exceptional performances from their part.

At the end of the study one has determined the progress of each group. It has been acknowledged that students that have risen to the height of expectations had unexpectedly good results, and their general performances increased. See the study carried out in **Canter Lee, Marlene Canter**, *The High Performing Teacher: Avoiding Burnout and Increasing Your Motivation*, A Publication of Lee Canter and Associates, Santa Monica, CA, 1994, p. 25-26.

- Introduced data

For the transformation of information necessary for learning, one has to have in mind the type of approached instruction, the used materials and the learning environment.

The instruction type is corroborated with the personal characteristics of each person²¹. It will be achieved by the means of a guide, by the means of a manual or of a recommended bibliography.

The materials that are used can be of any nature: written (manual, guides, brochures, bulletins, encyclopedia, etc.) graphic (photos, illustrations, maps, drawings, graphics, etc.), audio-visual (audio/video cassettes, CD/DVDs, disks, diapositives, teleconferences, etc.), manual activities (writing, typing, drawing, sculpture, carpentry, video productions, treaties and music and others), direct experiences (professional training, research, visits to public and private cultural institutions, farms, etc.), personal instructors (teachers, guides, mentors, trainers, etc.). The environment in which one will learn will increase or will inhibit the learning capacity. By the creation of stimuli, the human organisms will receive at maximum the desired information, will analyze it with a maximum of rapidity, will store it in the long length memory and will be used at the opportune moment.

1. Comprehension

Comprehension is considered as being a capacity that is being learnt, that is acquired through exercise²².

This comprehension is made with the help of personal characteristics, as we mentioned above, and each established connection leads to the association of new knowledge with the ones that are already known, thus becoming familiar.

When we learn something new we wish to find a modality by which to connect known information, and the new information are gathered with the old ones, in such a manner as to increase the quantity of knowledge referring to a certain subject.

Comprehension can be made by reading, listening, by the means of physical activity or by association with an action that corresponds to the meaning²³.

²¹ See the eight super connections, supra 2, Group Leader, p.4

²² Joseph K. Hastenstab, *Key of Motivation*, Nevada City, California, Performance Learning Systems, 1990, p. 23.

Memory improvement

A good memory is not something from birth, but it can be developed, and the specific preparation is the only modality by which persons with a good memory are differentiated by the ones with a weak memory.

Our minds contain an impressing number of data that we can use according to needs. We have to types of memory: short term memory and long term memory. Short term memory temporary keeps information and they will be stored in long term memory, or they will be abandoned.

Long term memory permanently keeps information these ones being used when it is necessary. Some of them are used automatically, so that we have to make an effort in this sense: walking, riding the bike, speaking.

The basis of a good memory are simple and can be taught by the members of the group in just a few steps:

STAGE 1: existence of a scope for which you could remember what is being taught

STAGE 2: conscient decision to pass the learned elements in the long term memory;

STAGE 3: the use of super connection in order to store with maximum of capacity of the learned things in long term memory;

STAGE 4: active maintenance of memory by its appealing and use²⁴.

A very important task for memory is memorization, which involves the remembering of a list containing facts and data. They have to be associated to the personal characteristics of each group member, using some specific techniques: memorization by the creation of a story²⁵, mnemotechnics²⁶ etc.

Note-taking, study and examinations

Note-taking is a way to register everything that we learn to shorten our review time for new materials, and the procedure offers a study guide in such a manner that we do not have to reread the entire volume of

²³ Robert Sylvester, *A Celebration of Neurons: An Educator's Guide to the Human Brain*, Alexandria, VA, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1995, p. 34-63.

²⁴ Thomas Armstrong, *Seven Kinds of Smart: Identifying and developing Your Many Intelligences*, New York, Plume, 1993.

²⁵ Connection of all words and achievement of an unitary story, in which the person has an active role.

²⁶ Technique by which, using the first letter of a word to compose a new word or to form a sentence from words that start with the same letter as the words from the list.

material or listen to a certain lecture. Note-taking start the remembering of data and allow us to maintain the learnt elements fresh in mind and represent the writing of words and key phrases meant to previously start memories. Note-taking is closely related to perceptual comprehension and memorization techniques; it does not have to replace these ones. The study is necessary and compulsory so that we can understand and remember the material learnt in the moment when we need it. It is necessary for the assessment of some parties of materials regarding what he knows and the ones that do not know and have to be relearned or clarified. Learning has to be continuously developed, following the below mentioned stages²⁷:

1. Review of notes;
2. Separation of those portions of notes that are known with the forgotten ones or uncertain ones; Retaking of unsure portions that have been forgotten or unsure;
3. Verification of understanding of terminology; In the case of practical activities, they have to be carried out and ulteriorly compared with the results according to proposed scopes.

The support techniques for examinations are strategies that prepare ourselves for tests. They involve two stages:

STAGE 1: preparation for the examination

STAGE 2: the examination in itself

Preparation involves the already presented techniques: comprehension, memorization, note-taking and study techniques. Together with these ones, we can find out what does the exam contain, to organize our study materials, respectively to create an administration table for time.

As a plus, we can load a simulated examination, testing thus the manner in which we can find out the strategies for the types of questions from the examination²⁸.

The caring out of the exam ²⁹ will be easier if the steps enumerated up to now will be put into practice. The mind contains everything that you

²⁷ Howard Gardner, *The Unschooled Mind: How Children Think and How School Should Teach*, New York, Basic Book, Harper Collins, 1991

²⁸ David Lazear, *Seven Ways of Teaching: The Artistry of Teaching with Multiple Intelligences*, Palatine, Ill., IRI/Skylight Publications, 1991.

²⁹ Howard Gardner, *op.cit.*

have to know in order to succeed, offering all the information necessary for the achievement of the maximum score.

Application

Many persons consider that learning can be a road that ends in a dump. They learn something and that's it: knowledge are no longer necessary due to the fact that they are a part of every day life. Too few person really use what they have learnt.

The true nature of the learning process is the transformation of the individual in a superior one, more complete, more developed, more complex. He becomes an instrument by which we can gain objectives or dreams.

This final stage is represented by the application of the information cumulated in time and their application in every day life. It starts during the first day of life and it continues all life.

Conclusions

The leader of the learning group has to take into account every individual in part and to ensure for this one the possibility to learn according to its own rhythm, according to his personal and psycho-individual characteristics and to cultivate the inner motivation for learning and continuous self-developing and professional preparation.

He has to have the capacity to decode any individual in such a manner as this one will accelerate the learning process with the help of presented techniques and learning methods, to maintain this level and even more, if it is possible, to lead to the maximum performance.

The leader has to know that any individual has a perception of learning that is different from his, and that with the help of learning, it can raise the level of knowledge during a relatively short time, grounding himself of the personal characteristics of this one and offering him the material learnt in the form that this one will instinctively memorize.

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