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EDUCATION AND TEACHING ISSUE IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY

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In this document, the notion of „pupil focused learning” is defined. The reasons to change the teaching methodology in order to fulfil every pupil’s needs are also stated. It contains practical advices, very useful for teachers who want to practice „pupil focused learning”, so that they can assume the role of „learning catalytic agent”. This role will allow teacher to sustain and administer the learning process of each pupil and to maximize learning at individual level.

As far as in the antiquity, positions to take into evidence certain particular characteristics of the pupils existed, yet, only in the past century the concept of „pupil-centered” began to be prefigured, as opposed to the „focusing on teacher”.

Gibbs (1992) gives a useful definition of the pupil-centered learning. He states that the pupil-centered learning “gives the pupils a greater autonomy and an enhanced control with respect to the subjects of study, to the learning methods and the pace of study”. This perspective highlights the fundamental characteristics of the pupil-centered learning, promoting the idea that pupils should be given more control over learning through taking responsibility with respect to:

- what they learn;
- the way how they learn and why do they learn;
- the moment when they learn.

An important consequence of this definition is represented by the necessity that the pupils should assume a high degree of responsibility in the context of learning and to actively choose their goals, as well as to manage their learning. They can no longer rely on the fact that the teacher or the person who teaches in the classroom will tell them why, how, where and when to think. They are the ones who must begin to do so.

In the field specific literature, the following characteristic traits, which are general for pupil-centering, may be detached :

- the active participation of the pupils to building up their own knowledge;
- the pupils build their knowledge based on their previously acquired information and skills;
- the pupils understand the expectancies and are encouraged to use self-assessments of their own progress;
- the pupils work collaborating with each other;
- the pupils decide on the structure of the groups and of the way of working;
- the pupils monitor their own learning approach for understanding how knowledge is built up and for developing learning strategies;

- the pupils have an intrinsic motivation for achieving the goals they proposed themselves;
- the activity of the pupils represents an authentic learning;
- for the pupils, learning represents an active search of meaning;
- the teachers recognize the existence of different learning styles;
- the teachers help the students to overcome difficulties, formulating questions and guiding them to their correct solution.

In a parallel discussion concerning continuous learning, Candy (1994) suggests that the persons learning continuously have, inter alia, the ability to make a correlation between various aspects of knowledge, as well as the capacity of managing their learning. Knowles (1984) identifies the elements of learning which are required in working with adult people, which process also identifies the role of the teacher which puts the pupils in the center of learning. The pupils must be actively engaged in learning and assume a high degree of personal responsibility in this respect. Knowles considers auto-orientation as the essence of learning in adult people and argues that the needs of the learning person must be above the instructor's expertise. Adults, as he considers, are persons who orient in the learning process and each adult is unique due to his personal experience.

The principles that underlie the effective pupil-centered learning are:

- The learning activity emphasis should be on the learning person and not on the teacher.
- Recognizing of the fact that the teaching process, in a traditional sense of this word, is only one of the instruments that may be used to help pupils learn.
- The teacher's role is to manage the learning process of the pupils he takes care of .
- Recognizing the fact that, to large extent, the learning process does not occur in the class room, neither when the teacher is present as well
- Understanding the learning process should not only belong to the teacher – it must be shared by the pupils as well.
- The teachers should encourage and facilitate the active involvement of the pupils in planning and managing their own learning process, through structured designing of learning opportunities both in the classroom and outside of it.
- Taken individually, the pupils can learn efficiently in vary different ways.

Here are some examples of pupil-centered learning:

- The lesson originates in the experiences of the pupils and includes questions or activities which involve pupils.
- Students are allowed to choose their own way how to get informed on a particular subject and how to present the results of their study.
- Students may receive tutoring, within which they can discuss their individual concerns with respect to learning and may ask for guidance.

- Students are allowed to choose themselves the way how they get informed on a certain subject and how they present the results of their study.
- The pupils may receive tutoring within which they may discuss their individual concerns with respect to studying and may ask for guidance .
- The ability of the pupils to find searched information is being developed - no standardised information is given. .
- In addition discipline-specific learning, the pupils are offered the opportunity to acquire fundamental transferable skills, such as the ability to work in a team.
- Assessments are made that allow pupils to apply the theory in some real-life situations, such as the case studies and the simulations.
- The lessons include a combination of activities, so as to deal with the styles which the pupils prefer in learning (visual, auditory, practical/kinetic).
- The lessons make the discoveries made under guidance easier and require the active participation of pupils in learning.
- Lessons end with the request for the pupils to think about the things learned, about the way how they learned and to assess the success that the learning methods had in their case.

Shifting from focusing on teaching to focusing on learning

It is obvious that many teachers (in Romania and other countries) are concerned with teaching the syllabus and are tributaries to traditional teaching methods. These people do not believe they taught a certain subject in the in he syllabus if they did not utter it for the class and did not ask the pupils to copy fragments of the manul or to writr them manually as per dictation. However, in case of these two teaching method, pupils are some passive recipients of learning, they are not required to think or to put under question what they are offered. They are simply asked to listen and to write, without getting involved in the content of the subject taught.

Perhaps, in the acceptance of the teachers, knowledge is a thing that is transmitted and learned, understanding occurs later on and the clarity of exposition, as well as the reward for the patient reception, are essential requirements of a quality teaching. However, a merely passive pupil only receive teaching, he is not required to participate in the learning process.

Shifting to a more active pupil-centered methodology involves the pupil in the learning process and teaches him the learning skills, as well as the fundamental skills of work with others and of problem solving. Pupil-centered methods involve the individual in evaluating the effectiveness of the learning pocess and setting the objectives for the future development. These benefits of the pupil-centered methods help in preparing the individual for both a smoother transition to the working place, as well as for continuous learning.

A consensus exists among the researchers with respect to learning and the cortex, according to which we do not learn if we passively receive information, then we remember what we were taught. Learning rather involves actively building our own meanings. This really involves creating connections between neurons. We invent our own concepts and ideas related to what we already know.

When we learn something, our brain undergoes a physical change. We perceive most acutely this creative process of creating meanings when it works wrong. It is a matter, for example, of funny mistakes which children make, or the mistakes in an exam, which the teachers spread in the teachers' room and on behalf of which they make fun.

These genuine mistakes show how „creation of meanings " works in practice. If the pupils would only remember what they were said, they would never get to make such mistakes, but simply they would remember or not. The conceptual errors show that in mind we build our own concepts and we do not simply remember the concepts of others.

Not only children and pupils learn in this constructivist way. If more adults with a higher education see the same movie or read the novel and they are then asked to describe it, they will exhibit some very different concepts. They will not only find themselves in disagreement as to how good is the movie or novel. They will interpret the characters' motivations and meanings of the screenplay in very different ways. If adults are exposed to the same lesson, they will have formed at the end of it very different concepts. Therefore, it is important to use teaching methods which allow the person who teaches or the teacher to identify misconceptions, and then correct them.

Changing beliefs with respect to learning

Unfortunately, most pupils and many of the teachers have the belief that learning is a process by which knowledge is transmitted and not an active learning perspective, and this is very difficult to change.

- This conviction presumes that the brain is an empty container which the teachers must fill it with knowledge.
- Acquiring knowledge only requires listening with a reasonable degree of attention, or even just the physical presence.
- Evaluating is verifying the extent to which the cortex was filled.
- Analogies in order to learn involve the transfer and not active learning:

Is the cup filled by the pitcher?

The teacher, as well as an employee of a gas station, fills the empty tanks of the pupils.

Teaching with a view to active learning – Teaching which stimulates the intellect.

Learning requires a stage in which the pupils are required to process the information offered to them. They need activities that compel them to interpret personally the subject and thus create their own meanings.

- Studies show that learning activities that require the pupil the active processing result in a setting of knowledge of up to ten times better, are more popular and lead to deeper learning.
- The significance is a personal and unique thing; it is built based on learning and previous experience, which differ from pupil to pupil. There is no unique way, suited to all pupils, to learn something; a multitude of tasks and experiences to meet the individual needs is needed.
- A useful analogy, with effective teaching is the sports training. The pupil is the sportsman and the teacher is his coach. The teacher (coach) may provide explanations, but this is not enough. The pupil (the sportsman) must be trained in order to be able to practice and develop his skills, and the teacher (coach) offers activities suitable for this purpose, after which he provides a feedback with respect to the pupil performance during the exercise, suggesting remedies, where they are needed. The sportsman is only able to improve his performance by training; the pupil can not only improve his performance through learning activities.
- The cortex does not process information sequentially. Therefore, the people who learn must think about the parts and the whole at the same time and to integrate the topics.
- Skills, such as higher ranking reasoning, should be taught along with the curriculum content and not separate from it.
- Challenges stimulate learning, whereas threats undermine it. Threats cause releasing of hydrocortisone in the body, which makes the thinking skills of higher ranking pass to the background.

Teaching strategies with a view to active learning.

Learning must include processing activities of the newly taught subject, which should be linked to what the pupil already knows. The tasks must be genuine, set in significant context and related to real life. They should not only involve the repetition of some things, since this leads to "surface" learning and not to "deep learning".

Taking into account the fact that pupil learning will involve errors, the tasks should give them the opportunity to self-assess, to correct, to discuss with colleagues, to receive the teacher's reaction, as well as to make other checks of "compliance with reality".

Therefore, it is necessary to use in the classroom:

- "Teaching through questions" or the discovery under guidance
- Explaining the tasks that require the pupils to explain to each other the way they understood a particular thing and to frame this way of understanding before they express it
- Putting questions and using answers of "diagnosis" as well as using the wrong responses to explore and to correct misunderstanding. (Socratic Questions).
- Using tasks and questions that stimulate students ' thinking and based on Bloom's Taxonomy and not mere reminding. These tasks and questions require more thinking and processing.

Analysis: "why" type questions,

Synthesis: questions of "how", "could you" type

Evaluation: questions of judgment.

These higher rank questions compel pupils to create their own conceptions with respect to the newly learned subject. No judgements may be made on the subject learned before it should be conceptualized; therefore, the questions requiring reasoning will determine the conceptualization.

Learning is not the same as taking an exam or acquiring qualifications. Both are possible without a real understanding, which is the basis of learning. Evaluation aimed at accreditation adds another optional stage in this cycle. However, this form of assessment is not a substitute for the assessing process, which can take place and it takes place without accreditation.

Research studies and reports published in recent years have highlighted an extremely wide range of the concrete approach of focusing on pupil, at educational practice level, versus focusing on the teacher. From these studies and reports it results that focusing on pupil represents an effective approach. At the same time, the fact is pointed out that the principle of individualisation may not go to the extreme, as no specific approach for unique cases may be created.

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Innovation and acting for a better school. Applications of Psychology in PE

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Abstract: As the practice of sport psychology expanded throughout the 1980s and 1990s, some practitioners expressed concern that the field lacked uniformity and needed consistency to become "a good profession." In our study, we highlight the importance of sport psychology and outline the specific of this domain while aiming for performance.

Key words: sport, competition, performance, education, social education, innovation

Research reports in sport and exercise psychology often conclude with a familiar refrain: an acknowledgement of limitations and future research directions

Enhancing individual performance is a mainstay of sport and exercise psychology. Sport and exercise psychology aims the scientific approach for people`s behavior study with regard in sport and exercise context, mostly regarding the practical application of that knowledge.

As the education, training and preparation to practice applied sport psychology are generally linked to the phase of the student (beginning or advanced) (Tod, 2007), research and information on programmes aimed at preparing for applied sport psychology practice will be reviewed first. Second, a retrospective view will be used by evaluating the educational background of the actual applied sport psychology practitioner in light of their ASP practice.

Recent research has more closely investigated the influence of practitioners' characteristics on athlete service delivery. A study with 30 male elite United Kingdom athletes revealed that being personable, a good communicator, knowledgeable and experienced in sport and sport psychology, honest and trustworthy, and providing good practical service and exhibiting professional skills were perceived to be desirable in the applied sport psychology practitioners with which they had worked (Anderson et al., 2004).

Psychologists are generally taught of the imperatives of ensuring their methods and instruments conform to acceptable criteria of validity in order to be confident that the effects they test reflect the true effect in that population. Most research in sport and exercise psychology is applied social psychology, and many social psychologists make assumptions about the validity of the measures they use and often presuppose that previous validation efforts imply that they can forgo tests of validity. Researchers in the sport and exercise sciences must, therefore, not assume that a statistically significant effect size, however large, will make a contribution to target outcomes or behaviors that is meaningful in a practical or clinical sense. Reasoned interpretations of research

findings based on what is important to people in a practical sense is essential if research in sport and exercise psychology is to be a socially-relevant discipline.

In "physical education terminology" 1973, the concept of the game is defined as a complex activity predominantly motor and emotional, developed spontaneously, according to predetermined rules, in recreational and adaptation to social reality.

M. Epuran in "Aspects of socialization in sport" brings a number of remarks which completes the definition of the features that this game has, namely: first - natural spring need ludic activity, second - free activity participation voluntary, free, third - activity attractive causes positive affective states, fourth - total activity engages all parts of the human being, fifth - great selfless work activity, and sixth - compensating creative activity extends to recreational activities of adult entertainment, the activity of "leisure", relaxation, rehabilitation, compensation.

The analysis of results definitions presented, once again, the complexity tactics caused so many factors involved, and the multiple interrelations between them .The tactic that combines a system of principles, ideas and rules for dealing with competition by the player, the who exploit all technical, physical, mental, is aimed to resolve problematic situations (competition) created by opponents, teammates, and ambiance for abstinence success.

Tactics is an activity that is used in the most varied resources rationally, according to opponents, game situations in order to achieve victory. In each game stage a player acts designated by the rules. In terms of determining the best mode of action of each player, we might consider that no dynamism, no set of rules and features of the game are not essential.

Global action is essential issue each player. If we try to look at least this definition we see that covered a range of issues such as: acting in a multi-player game that, at some point created by game situations and rules, must choose from their luggage knowledge the best solution for solving a concrete situation. This can be done in optimal conditions, only if players hold a sufficient amount of information with which to collaborate with other players to act appropriately, to encourage the development of strategies, various playing techniques, an action plan.

Accurate perception of favorable moments for downgrading tactical action is of decisive importance in terms of tactical action phases of the development of others. A good collection cause information clear and accurate that can be processed, analyzed and interpreted effectively by player. Perceived quality depends on several processes, such as peripheral vision, attention focused or comprehensive, specialized senses. Preparing tactics summarizes basic motor skills development and combined technical improvement elements and processes as well as educating mental qualities in order to be used as well during races.

Tactics has a different role for each game in hand, its importance being determined by the specific regulations and rules underlying each of them. Components after A. Dragnea tactics are tactics conception, tactical plan, and the system of tactical action game. Tactics has the following components: a) conception tactic b) tactical plan c) tactical actions d) Tactical skills e) game system.

Concept tactic is a tactic of principles, ideas, relatively stable rules and norms developed in order to participate successfully in competitions.

Tactical plan is targeting all measures in order to solve tactical problems posed by the development of competition. The concept establishes tactics according to their own performance capacity of athletes in this stage the competitive characteristics of adversary target for a race, place and conditions for the contest.

Tactical actions - are practical tools for achieving tactical plan and tactical conception. It is a basic component, encompassing the physical and mental baggage driving skills. A main feature is that mental resolve first, then drive.

Learning is a tactical-tactical automated through practice in stable condition, is characterized by precision, regularity, similarity of movements and last but not least, effective.

The game is how to place athletes on the field, the departments and positions, interaction and synchronization of these phases of attack and defense, higher potential to capitalize their team in the competition. The game has a dynamic character, is specific sports games and conception is determined by tactical and tactical plan, prepared in advance for the contest. In conclusion, the game concept is based: cognitive ability, technical skills, physical training and capacity of discernment and decision, all of which are conditional on: principles, ideas, rules and regulations resulting in optimal behavior victory.

Psychology of sports activities are concerned the psychological factors that influence participation and performance in sport and exercise and psychological consequences derived from there. Psychologists researching motivation, personality, aggression and violence, leadership, team dynamics, motility and shape mental intellectual and emotional processes, other dimensions of participation in sport to improve execution, to improve the quality of sport and skill training. Applied sport psychology focuses on identifying and understanding the psychological theories and techniques that can be applied in sport and exercise to improve performance and cultivation skills involved in physical activity. Psychological training goal is to learn to consistently create the ideal mental tension that drives those physical qualities that allow athletes to make everything better.

Inspired by concepts behavioral learning theory is based on the acquisition of aggressive behavior through learning. Among those who proposed social influence perspective the most notable is Albert Bandura (1973) which states that aggression is a behavior called social chosen and maintained as well as other behaviors. Bandura believes that learning and take on aggressive behavior follows the direct influence of learning from observations. Unlike instinctual and induced theories, social influence theory suggests no consistent influence on aggression. According to the theory, aggression is learned through modeling and encouragement and assaulting individuals only under conditions that facilitate aggressive behavior.

In his theory about excitation, Freud introduces two completely different groups of instincts, instincts of life or Eros and instincts of Thanatos or death. Sexual instinct belongs to the first group, while aggressive impulses through their destructive tendency, belong to the second.

Sport psychology research conducted on the relationship between aggression and Sports started in three directions: some researchers perceive aggression in sport as a catharsis which allows release aggressive impulses and reduces aggressive behavior in sport situations, other researchers have examined the antecedents and consequences of bullying in sports others were concerned about the effects of aggressive behavior in sporting events. The issue of aggression in sport psychology is whether sport can act as a catharsis that would reduce aggressive behavior in situations unsportsmanlike.

Most experts agree that the single most important factor in acquiring skills is a skill Repeated practice so you can become effective. In general, the greater the number of repetitions, the learning is more thorough, however, the practice itself is not sufficient to allow athletes to state with certainty. The old adage that practice makes perfect is not necessarily true, athletes must participate in training with the intention of mastering, that means skills training involves more than just exercise.

Athletes learn through a specific training to be able to relax in a very short period of time, maybe in a few seconds during competition. Relaxation can be mental and physical relaxation. Mental relaxation techniques are called, usually by techniques of mind-body: requires a quiet and comfortable in learning phase but, as with it accommodates athlete, training can take place in different situations (in uncomfortable positions or when tired) to stimulate conditions similar competitions.

Applied sport psychology may include work with athletes, coaches, and parents regarding injury, rehabilitation, communication, team building, and career transitions. We consider that sport psychology will become an interdisciplinary field with applications increasingly tend to integrate diverse mental training in physical and technical training. Also, training in sport psychology continues to be a major concern by creating a scientifically rigorous and skills training in sport psychologist practitioner.

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Teacher as Manager. A System of Competences

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Abstract: *A competent teacher as manager is a professional in both activities. A professional in the management activity is that well-trained specialist who has acquired a conduct proper to the working environment, a facilitator of success in the work carried out.*

The present study represents a theoretical approach, holistic, of the competency elements that form the possible (still officially undefined in a generic manner) occupational standard of the manager, very useful for further qualitative assessment of the level of training attained at some point. We present the roles of the modern manager at present, related to the challenges he must face, measuring them in competency elements and synthesising them as a result of the investigation carried out.

Drawing up the standards as basic elements of the process of quality assurance and the differentiated approach which depend on the specific areas of activity of the managers were the premises for the implementation of the present study.

Keywords: quality, competence, occupational standard, teacher, manager.

We need competent managers in order to have an efficient company. Generally, this statement would be a truism or a slogan. A competent manager is a professional of the management activity.

A professional in management is that trained specialist who has acquired a *conduct proper* to the working environment. This *proper conduct* is a series of complex competences, of transfer, resulted from combining specialized acquisitions with basic operations / procedures. From this perspective, a manager is a *double specialized expert*, empowered to carry out the transfer between the theoretical and the practical.

Given the complexity of the manager's competences - always of transfer – it becomes necessary a reconsideration of the conditions that are to be achieved in initial effective training of a manager, on a medium-term perspective:

- a focused professionalization of those who prepare the managers;
- structured training courses and internships, offering a larger space to the transfer area from knowledge and general skills to specialized aspects, in agreement with the predicted context in which the future manager will undertake his activity;
- a reorientation of the masterly speech and the examination of students - future managers, in terms of interactive strategy and reflectivity;
- a refresh of the research conducted in specialized training domain; this should bring together learners, trainers and active top managers;

-connecting the level of training to social realities and existing needs at a given time in the company, together with the prompt adjustments that are to be operated on the curriculum and the specialized practice in the structures involved in training managers.

Preparing for the career of manager in transdisciplinary context

The characteristics of the socio-economic context, the accelerated pace of change, the need for systematizing / operationalization / optimization of the information, under the continuing increase of its volume, require *changes in professional training programs*, implicitly in training managers. Training managers requires adapting to a changing social context, that has an evolution difficult to predict.

From a procedural viewpoint, the manager specialized in a particular discipline is faced with the challenge of overcoming the boundaries of the familiar domain. All these lead to an integrative vision and the need to build-rebuild the knowledge from a transdisciplinary perspective, for both the manager and the trainer.

Traditionally, the trained manager is not offered the chance to meet transdisciplinary openings - a normal thing for a past with clear scientific boundaries - but in disagreement with the actual knowledge society. Formative activities should also be part of the current tendency of knowledge development.

What can such an approach do? Why would it be useful? The following key points may be a possible answer: avoiding overlapping; strengthening the connections; learning the macro-concepts by providing multiple perspectives; transferring procedures and concepts; facilitating the transfer of acquisitions and strengthening them; identifying the problem situations in other disciplines relevant to the discipline source; unifying the language to facilitate communication in related areas.

One training direction is the *transdisciplinary approach* both in knowledge domains and in the formative activity. From an epistemological point of view, developments in recent decades indicate movement from the disciplinary „Big Bang” to tendencies of knowledge fusion; from an educational point of view, integrated approaches are also enhanced, as they meet the requirements of reporting and solving problems in a world with globalisation tendencies .

Finally, a way of training with obvious methodological tint refers to the *investigation of research strategies* in related domains and their relevance to learning curriculum subjects.

Managers no longer learn „the rudiments of the course”, they recreate the cognitive approach of the domain they study. Knowledge is not declarative anymore, but procedural and conditional. The need to find relevant answers to the following questions is contoured:

- 1) What are the skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviours that define a „good manager” and are the basis for his career development?
- 2) Can the manager’s role / roles be formalised? What is the „theory” that can substantiate this/these role/roles?
- 3) How should the manager be taught / trained in order to meet this / these role / roles?

This study is intended to be the starting point of the many attempts to give complete answers to these questions, which were, are and will continue to be the favourite topics of the discussions on professional training for future managers in the changing social context, with an evolution difficult to predict. However, for this, we need to rethink the professional training system in terms of acquiring the specific competences.

Moreover, the present study is based on a series of personal findings resulted from the interaction with several generations of young managers. Among them, it is relevant the „sad” constataion that the training graduates start their career manager without having any particular competences adapted to the context in which they will undertake their activity.

We firmly believe that training managers must precede, accompany and follow the reforming process.

Any system of training / forming is closely related to the changing social values. We can say that training a manager does not ignore the expansion of his general functions associated with the process of reconsidering his specific roles. The company adds to the traditional responsibilities new functions / roles, with new emphasis on new contexts / environments.

If we consider the basic functions of a company and the specific tasks of a manager, then we can say that his priority roles are: *resource person* (instructor and guide in documentation), *manager of human relations* (organiser, but also a manipulator of the various relationships and interactions), *technician* (setting out actional situations or individual and collective materials, with multiple technical support), *evaluator* (counselor in methods and progressions supervisor), *inspector* (manager of the individual projects of study and of investigation and mediator of the relations with the outside world). All these require the switch from the „functionary manager”, applicator of procedures, dependent on a possible superior-hierarchical management, to the *professional manager, reflective and independent practitioner* of his profession (founded by professional standards), which *requests* the department director (professionalised as well) appropriate conditions for carrying out the specific activity, a *colleague* of the possible hierarchical manager (transformed from a bureaucrat and a „hierarchical controller” into a professional of coordination and evaluation).

Only such a manager can ensure the quality of *management* - defined as a „geometric locus” of the aims, standards, decisional and actional expectations and of concrete conditions in which they operate. Thus, *possession / acquisition of competences adapted to the concrete actional context* becomes the key to success in an operational environment in which the manager is constantly called upon to adapt to conditions, means and private technology, in concordance with the overall evolution of modern society .

Standard - Competence – Qualification

Establishing standards is a complex process, closely related to the circumstances in which these standards will be used and to other factors that may influence that context – legislation, institutional policy, etc. However, it was concluded that measuring institutional performance through

sets of standards is expressed either by „*real sets of standards*” („*real benchmarks*”) or by „*less true / effective sets of standards*¹”.

„Real sets of standards” always involve creativity; they allow adapting the best practices to concrete situations, without copying them; on the other hand, „*false sets of standards*” are designed to create a final hierarchy, regardless of the exploring potential of the institution and with no prospects to improve institutional activities.

To be competent in a profession means: to apply technical knowledge, to use specific skills, to analyse and make decisions, to present yourself creative to the given tasks, to work with others as a member of a team, to communicate effectively, to adapt to the specific working environment, to deal with the unexpected.

Occupational standards refer to carrying out work activities in a profession; to the necessary capacity of successfully performing specific functions in the profession; and to the proper application of knowledge and skills. In occupational standards, the profession is subdivided into several units of competency. We will argue in the following paragraphs the need for substantiating professionalisation of the managerial career on specific sets of professional competences. Furthermore, we will analyse the definition of the concept of „competence” in terms of the formation process in the profession.

In the sociology of professional groups were imposed situational theories („*contingency theories*”); „the good professional” came to be regarded as the one who masters and puts into practice, in various situations, some „wholes” (of knowledge, attitudes, practices, qualities, skills, etc..), later called „*competences*”.

„The competence” belongs to the person practicing a profession, whose performances are judged on the basis of professional standards defined at the level of professional groups. The issue of standards interests us in terms of how competences are formed (what happens before „entering the profession”) and not how those competences are performed and later evaluated on the basis of standards.

Elements of competence associated to roles

With a rich referential, synthetic and categorial of the indicators-variables, we configure the system of competences of the manager.

Domains of competence	<i>Units of competency</i>	<i>Elements of competence</i>
<i>I. At work</i>	<i>1.1. Professional development</i>	- identifies knowledge needs; -acquires new knowledge - maintains a high level of management knowledge.

¹ Benchmarking in the Improvement of Higher Education ENQA Workshop Reports, Helsinki, Finland, 2003.

	<i>1.2. Teamwork</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - identifies roles for team working; -coordinates team working - provides good conditions for the team's / teams' activity.
	<i>1.3. Preparing and processing administrative documents</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -prepares correctly and operatively the materials; -organizes materials to enable fast and efficient access to their content; -ensures conditions for the form and substance of the materials; -successfully uses the computer;
	<i>1.4. Current activities planning</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - determines the objectives and the duration of the circumscribed activities; - determines resource requirements; - plans the calendar of the activities; - manages well the elaborated documents; - shows concern in personal development activities;
2. Communication	<i>2.1. Communication Manager - Employee</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - chooses the best ways of communication, adequate to the communication content and the characteristics of the context and the personality features of the other person; - uses feedback in communication; - facilitates the communication; - uses adequately non-verbal and paraverbal means in communication; - shows empathic behaviour in communication ;
	<i>2.2. Communication Manager - Partner</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - identifies possible related areas of collaboration; - communicates adequately the identified issues; - ensures that the message is received and understood correctly and on time; - chooses the best communication methods, contextual (depending on the needs) and situational (depending on the task);
3. Management	<i>3.1. Intercepting (Identifying) requests (needs)</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - works to identify the needs in the workplace; - ensures the reception of those needs; - analyses the needs in order to distinguish the solving competences; - provide advice to solve various problems; - is fully informed before making a decision; - accepts the possibility of personal error;
	<i>3.2. Organizing, providing and monitoring responses (solving / satisfying needs)</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - decisions are based on a thorough documentation; - answers are accurate, complete and targeted; - resorts to consulting others; - identifies and rigorously establishes priorities; - the planning and resource allocation is made according to estimated needs; - seeks intermediate and final results in terms of quality; - identified deficiencies are corrected and fixed;
4. Metodologie	<i>4.1. Knowing ways to solve problems</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the manager expertise is achieved gradually, on the basis of specialized knowledge ; - basic formation and socio-professional experience are essential; - internal procedural rules are correctly and completely assimilated;
	<i>4.2. Creating original ways to solve problems</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - is able, based on the expertise, to identify and experiment with new/proper models of solving specific problems; - shows concern in identifying new solutions; - shows concern in optimizing the activity;

	<p>4.3. <i>Developing problem solving strategies</i></p>	<p>- based on the contextual analysis of needs, after determining the aims and immediate goals, he generally structures the solving strategies; - determines the form, the sequence of steps, the appropriate means and methods, the working schedule, the tools, the resources support and new models of action.</p>
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- Possible and general Manager Occupational Standard -

The continual training of managers is a critical premise for an effective educational system in the field. The problem is the perspective from which the managers will be trained, but also the methodological premises for developing the model of training. What is important is that an effective training of managers will not end with their graduation, but will continue through *a process of continuous learning, on an individualized and selective basis*. This will involve: training to improve the competences needed in the field, training the abilities to use modern means, advanced techniques of action, retraining, intensive courses, applicative internships, etc.

In agreement with experts in education and training, we mention the fact that the mere knowledge and compliance with regulations, specific principles of work and utilisation of the most modern means of action do not represent the only ways to ensure success in business.

We believe that there are many managers who do not fully understand what human motivation means and how a person and its behaviour may affect the social and cultural factors. Technology is neutral, as long as it does not send a message, and the message is not helpful to the aims pursued only if it creates a reaction, namely the one followed by the manager.

Training young managers in a specific way of thinking related to the modern management should be aimed at actual formative specialized projects / programs. A formative system that wants to operate efficiently will generate optimization agents: managers-experts, endowed with adequate competences. Therefore, the future manager with vocation should be a manager-expert.

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THE MODERN SCHOOL AND ITS TEACHERS

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Abstract: The modern school is different from its previous institutional existences by three sets of variables: the organizational culture, the organizational climate and the ways in which management is achieved. In these three areas there have been changes that influence the organizational behavior which in turn influence the processes specific to teaching activities, especially the instructional and educational process. There is a certain overlap and mutually dependent relationship between the three variables, making any cause-effect analysis ranking difficult because, for instance, good management must take into account climate and prejudice, but these can also be modeled by a management that knows how to shape them for desirable purposes.

Compared to the traditional school system, the most dramatic changes in the modern school are brought about by *a new form of management*, known as “*quality management in education*”. This approach to management involves both a new organizational culture of the school and also a new climate within the school which significantly changes the behavior of school organization members. It relies on several principles which are also key factors for continual improvement of the organizational performance, among which the most important are: (1) client centered approach geared towards client satisfaction (practicing pupil-centered teaching, identifying and catering for the specific educational needs of pupils, but also for the requirements coming in from other clients such as parents and the local community); (2) staff involvement (awareness that quality of education is a personal problem for each employee); (3) constant-improvement, result-oriented approach (striving to continually improve one's own teaching performance by adapting it to the needs and expectations of school clients, encouraging staff initiatives for improvement); (4) fact based approach to decisions and (5) provision of leadership (creating and maintaining an adequate work environment that ensures staff's dedication to achieve the targets of the organization).

Quality management also means: constantly seeking stakeholder satisfaction, providing accountability to the community, involving community in the running of schools, planning for institutional development, using results-based financing, ensuring institutional self-assessment, tracking indicators for quality and excellence and so forth. There is still preoccupation, as it has always been, for continual improvement of certain essential components needed to attain educational objectives: *teaching staff professional qualification, school learning experience quality, curriculum improvement, rating improvements* and others.

Usage of this new form of management is only possible in schools in which a *new organizational culture* was installed and crystalized in a new “*philosophy*” embraced by teachers, providing the new *standards* of their teaching job and new *mentalities* for topics such as power

distance, collectivism versus individualism, attitude towards change and innovation, or towards competition.

Power distance refers to the collective, dominant beliefs within an organization in regards to the interaction that should exist between those in power and their subordinates. Where power distance is *low*, there is a predominant belief that bosses should treat their subordinates as equals. This means that teachers treat pupils as their peer, expecting and allowing them to show initiative, while pupils treat their teacher as their equals, by addressing them by name, asking them to justify their requests etc. In such schools, decentralization is used to solve daily managerial challenges. By contrast, in schools in which the general belief prevails that subordinates should keep their distance from bosses, as power distance gets higher, docility is cultivated more and more, while centralization is used to organize all activities. Pupils are taught to be submissive, teachers want to have the final word and assume all responsibility. In the modern “pupil centered” school, the power distance is shrinking, substantially changing the behavior of teachers within the organization.

The collective/individualist approach is another aspect based on which organizational culture differs from school to school. In organizations where there is a common belief that opinion of individuals must not deviate from the opinion of the *collective*, pursuing individual opinions is discouraged in order to learn and respect “superior commandments”. The purpose of education is considered to be integration within society, and the requirements for that goal are known only by the teachers, which legitimizes centering the whole instructional and educational process on the initiative and requirements of the “master”. Where *individualist mentality* prevails, one is expected to take care of its own, confrontation of opinions is encouraged and individual self-accomplishment is considered essential. The purpose of education in that case is to develop the individual capability to adapt to new situations.

As a result, the teaching is pupil-centered and the management of the school organization is focused on the satisfaction of its “clients”. In the modern school, the collective mentalities are gradually replaced by the individualist approach.

Attitude towards innovation/change is another differentiator of schools, because some have a tendency to see any change as continuous threat, with paralyzing effects, while some others see it quite differently, as a “challenge”, with invigorating effects. Where change frightens people, one can usually find resistance towards anything new, conservatism, negative attitudes towards youth, preference for strict school schedules and preoccupation for unique answers which are considered correct. A lot of rules exist, many times unnecessary, and those that do not follow them must be punished. Organizations that consider uncertainty as a normal part of life value innovation promote youth, use fewer rules which are more general and can be changed when no longer deemed useful. Teaching is based on open discussion and consultation of pupils in regards to aspects to be delved upon and the approach to work. The modern school is pursuing and promoting innovation.

The competitive climate in the modern school is focused on developing cordial relations between people, on having friendly attitudes, on social availability of the teacher who values modesty and shows sympathy for the weak. Solving conflicts is achieved through compromise and negotiation, and perseverance is considered to be a human quality essential for any success.

The affective *climate*, especially in the classrooms of the modern school, give teachers new tasks, as it requires them to seek *affective relations* between teacher and pupils that would avoid triggering psychological trauma or inferiority complex; teachers are expected to enjoy in front of their pupils *real authority* (achieved through professionalism, morally upright stance, flexibility, consistency and not by any means of coercion), *pedagogical tact*, *permissiveness*. Teachers with *affective personalities*, which are *understanding and friendly* and are more inclined to disburse *praise and encouragement*, to be *benevolent* (the exact opposite of teachers with a distant attitude, egocentric and obtuse) are encouraging their pupils through these qualities to work harder, be more creative, to wish to identify themselves with such teachers whom they love and, by an unconscious “affiliation instinct”, to become drawn to the course they teach. (Ausubel, D., Robinson, F., 1981)

Teachers who *display responsibility, methodical approach and systematic actions* (opposite to the ones with withering, careless personalities, lacking planning) proved to be more stimulating for those pupils driven by the “self-affirmative impulse”, by the desire to reach a certain social status, to reach scholar success; they inspired safety in their pupils safety and induced them the certitude that they have a good teacher capable of leading them to certain success, reducing anxiety.

Teachers with *enthusiasm* for the subject they teach, with *imaginative minds*, capable of maintaining in their classes an atmosphere of “intellectual effervescence“ are able to induce to their pupils the sense of importance that a subject holds, curiosity, interest, and ultimately to motivate them, by exploiting fully the existing “cognitive impulse” that normally exists in any human being. (Ibidem)

Other necessary qualities belong to the *level of culture* of the teacher, demanded by the *social and cultural responsibilities* in the contemporaneous society:

- ability to dialog
- ability to inform objectively and ease in communication
- critical, non-dogmatic attitude
- democratic and civic virtues

The *contemporaneous technologic society* imposes teachers to develop certain personal qualities, such as:

- mastering new techniques that are used in the contemporaneous classroom
- ability to devise new ways to use these techniques
- ability to innovate (to propose necessary improvement)

The *scientific function* of the modern teacher means developing some other new qualities and attitudes:

- mastering the logic and structure of the subject to be covered

- promoting scientific spirit
- propagating scientific knowledge

Professional ethic and continuous self-improvement demands require:

- capacity for self-organization
- open mentality and availability to do comparative observation and study of different schooling systems and experiences across the world
- experimental attitude in order to continuously perfect the methodology and the personal teaching style
- placing the interest of children entrusted for education above any other interests

All these qualities needed from a teacher suggest that the teaching profession requires *carefully selected* people which will need a *long time of professional and personality training*.

The requirements of modern school on its teachers generate multiple tensions among those that embrace a teaching career and transform it into an extremely stressful profession.

Tension and stress of the teaching profession in the modern school are triggered by several *factors*. Some are related to the characteristics of the *teaching profession characteristics*. The social role of “simple teaching staff” is unlike any other social role on multiple aspects, all generating tension (E PAUN, 1999):

- is regulated twice, both by institutional regulation required from members of the teaching institution (schedule, conduct etc.) but also by teaching regulation regarding how activities with students take place.
- multiple expectations interplay (e.g. by inspectors, manager, head of department, parents, pupils, colleagues), sometimes contradictory in their content, which may generate a “status of psychological and behavioral dissonance” to the teacher;
- specific conflicts are present, which may take the form of “teaching profession dilemmas”. For instance, when bonding with the students, the teacher has to choose between: (a) relations based on either affection or indifference; (b) the prevalence of either learning activities or capacity-building activity; (c) evaluation of either knowledge or psychological qualities; (d) pursue of personal interest, pupils interest or institutional interest.
- Occasionally intra-role conflicts may appear (between professional qualification and the demands of the position assigned to) and inter-role conflicts (between the base role and other competing roles outside the institution).

The results of the effort taken to model the personality of pupils are not *immediately* obvious, only after long periods of time; hence the *feeling of incertitude* over one's professional accomplishments, or the feeling that those efforts were futile. In addition, the behavior of students is influenced by multiple *factors beyond teacher's control*, even though there is a tendency to consider the teacher the sole responsible for the way in which students behave during class.

Working in a school is *team work*. Often, the priority of educational objectives or the best methods to achieve them are *perceived differently* by the people working together (manager, inspector, colleagues) why may lead to conflicts, to the feeling that when it comes to education everything is “relative”, that at any time you may be subjected to critique by anybody because nothing you can do can prove its value instantly.

Only superior teacher training can help the teacher impose by force of argument the validity of his/her way of work with students. Most exposed to the tensions generated by such characteristics of the teaching profession are teachers which do not possess a sound *theoretical* foundation and - for that reason – are unable to give legitimacy to their decisions by linking them to results of psychopedagogic research. The scientific argument - provided both to own professional conscience and to subjective criticism – is the best way to remove both the feeling of uncertainty and the conflictual state triggered by different perceptions of priorities and solution within the institution.

Some other stressful factors arise from the *features of the school* where the teacher is working. In the schools where there is an authoritarian manager who over-stresses work organization through various rules and regulations imposed on teaching staff, the teachers might feel that they have no control over their own activity, that spontaneity and creativity are forbidden to them. The poor working conditions (endowment, comfort etc.), the humiliations caused by dealing with certain students deepens the stress of the teaching profession.

Such tensions could be diminished by constructive dialogue, which, instead of the compliant submission to some arbitrary decisions without a theoretical base, could lead, by strength of argument, to solutions in which the teaching aspect is dominant. But this requires - again- broad psychological and pedagogical training that goes beyond the methodical algorithms.

There is also some *social pressure*, especially at times when the public opinion has a the tendency to “over-criticize” towards the school, which has presumably “decayed” or towards the teachers, who are “no longer as they used to be” or are “corrupt”, “unfair in grading” etc. The parents tend to make the teacher the sole responsible for the school results of their children or for their success at different exams and tests, and this tendency is also shared by the students (for instance, it is known the case of an American citizen who sued the school for giving him a diploma without teaching him a thing). The feeling of frustration is the highest for the teachers with the highest level of training in the field, who therefore had the highest expectations regarding their careers, those who feel they were sent to a certain school they did not wished for, or for those at conflict with the school management.

These kinds of tensions are diminished in those places where the *organizational culture* of the school is based upon “pre-assumptions” and “values” meant to give trust to the entire staff in the social mission accomplished and trust in the right pedagogical bearing of their collective efforts. The organizational culture of the school, as we have seen, depends on a collective desire to approach and seek out the most appropriate answer to base *pedagogical* problems which more often than not belong

to the “teaching philosophy “topic rather than to the “teaching technique”. Not that the latter is less important, but in those places where “pedagogic theory” is considered to be reserved to those preparing for various exams and not daily practice, they lose track of the fact that the teaching profession is particular relies on ability to *interpret* pedagogically some situations, and – based on this – decide on the educational action to take. In the teaching profession, interpretation of educational situations depends on *pedagogical culture*, the basis of which is laid during initial teacher training and its lack means that teaching profession becomes a stressful activity.

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Social learning. Pedagogical use of theories of learning

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Abstract: Social learning theory approaches the explanation of human behavior in terms of mutual interaction continues between the determinants of cognitive, behavioral and environmental ones. Reciprocal determinism describes the people the opportunity to influence their own existential trajectory and its limits. This concept shows that people are not powerless objects decision, exclusively controlled by environmental factors, but it is not completely free agents who can become whatever they choose.

Teoria învățării sociale accentuează importanța deosebită pe care o au procesele simbolice, (numite de A. Bandura, *vicarious*) și procesele autoreglate, în funcționarea normală a psihismului uman. Înțelegerea faptului că gândirea, procesele afective precum și comportamentul uman în ansamblul său pot fi influențate de către actul generat de ipostaza de *observer*, într-un mod asemănător experienței directe, au determinat dezvoltarea paradigmatelor centrate pe influența observației asupra actului concret. [1]

Capacitatea indivizilor de a utiliza simbolurile în toate împrejurările de viață generează posibilitatea de reprezentare a evenimentelor, precum și posibilitatea de analiză a experiențelor conștiente avute, de comunicare cu alte persoane, de planificare a viitorului, de creație, de imaginație, și de implicare prudentă în acțiuni. Re-accentuarea importanței rolului funcțiilor simbolice a nuanțat paleta de tehnici de analiză a mecanismelor prin intermediul cărora gândurile influențează acțiunile concrete.

O caracteristică distinctă a teoriei învățării sociale este dată de funcționarea proceselor autoreglate și importanța rolului acestora. În ființarea lor, indivizii nu sunt doar persoane reactive la influențele externe ci și entități proactive. [1]. Ei analizează, operează cu selecții după diverse criterii, structurează, organizează informația și transformă stimulii care acționează asupra lor într-o manieră specifică și proprie. Datorită acestor operații care implică și consecințe autogenerate, indivizii determină o anumită influență asupra propriului lor comportament. Ca urmare, un act comportamental, o reacție la un stimul, o decizie luată, implică cu necesitate și influențe autogenerate. Înțelegerea capacității indivizilor de a se autoinfluența a creat posibilitatea unor cercetări axate pe conștientizarea faptului că oamenii pot și devin ei înșiși agenți principali pentru propria lor schimbare și devenire.

Teoria învățării sociale abordează explicarea comportamentului uman în termeni de interacțiune reciprocă, continuă, între determinanții cognitivi, comportamentali și cei de mediu. Procesul de determinism reciproc descrie oportunitatea oamenilor de a-și influența propriul traiect existențial precum și limitele acestuia. Prin acest concept poate fi conștientizat faptul că oamenii nu sunt obiecte lipsite de putere decizională, controlați exclusiv de factorii de mediu, dar nu sunt nici

agenți complet liberi care pot deveni orice își aleg. Atât oamenii, cât și mediul sunt factori care se determină reciproc, care se influențează unul pe celălalt. [10]

Din perspectiva învățării sociale, funcționarea psihologică umană reprezintă o interacțiune reciprocă și permanentă între determinanții personali, comportamentali și de mediu. Termenul *reciproc* este folosit în sensul unei acțiuni mutuale între evenimente și nu în sensul restrâns de contraacțiune similară sau opusă.

Din punctul de vedere al învățării sociale, indivizii nu sunt conduși nici de forțe interne și nici de stimulii din mediu. La nivel uman, funcționarea psihologică este înțeleasă sub aspectul unei interacțiuni reciproce, permanente între determinanții personali și cei de mediu.

Conform teoriilor psihologice tradiționale, învățarea are loc doar atunci când se produc răspunsuri și sunt experimentate efectele acestora. În mod concret, fenomenele de învățare sunt generate de experiența directă și au loc într-o manieră delegată, mediată prin intermediul observării comportamentului altor persoane și a consecințelor pe care comportamentul observat le-a avut pentru aceștia. Capacitatea de a învăța prin observare dă posibilitatea de asimilare de modele integrate de comportament, fără a fi necesar să le formeze gradual, prin încercare și eroare.

Învățarea observațională reprezintă un tip de învățare care are loc prin observarea comportamentului altor oameni. Această formă de învățare nu are nevoie de întărire pentru a se putea produce. În schimb, învățarea observațională oferă cu necesitate, un *model* care poate fi acceptat sau respins. Un tip de *model social* poate fi un prieten, părinte, frate, profesor, etc. În copilărie, un model este reprezentat de cineva cu un grad mai ridicat de autoritate sau cu un statut mai înalt. Modelul social are o mare importanță în procesul de învățare observațională, pentru că permite o procesare cognitivă a comportamentului, codifică ceea ce este observat, și carer este în final stocat în memorie, pentru a putea fi imitat mai târziu.[9] A. Bandura susține că în copilăria mică individul asimilează continuu comportamentul dorit și nedorit prin învățare observațională.

Prin actul învățării observaționale, comportamentele unei persoane se pot disemina în cadrul unei culturi printr-un proces numit *lanțul de difuziune*. Acest proces are loc atunci când un individ învață un comportament prin observarea altei persoane și acea persoană, datorită ipostazei de element care este imitat, devine un model pentru alte persoane. [2]

Prin învățarea observațională poate fi afectat comportamentul individului în mai multe moduri, rezultând consecințe fie pozitive, fie negative. Astfel, se pot preda comportamente complet noi, prin observarea unuia singur. Sau se poate, mări sau micșora frecvența de producere a unor comportamente învățate anterior. Prin învățarea observațională pot fi încurajate comportamente care au fost interzise anterior (vezi comportamentul violent față de papusa Bobo, în studiul Albert Bandura). Învățarea observațională poate avea impact asupra comportamentelor care sunt similare, dar nu identice, cu cel modelat.

Accelerarea procesului de achiziție prin intermediul învățării prin observație este vital atât pentru dezvoltare, cât și pentru supraviețuire. Învățarea prin eroare are limite imediate, pentru că,

greșelile pot produce consecințe costisitoare sau chiar fatale. Șansele de supraviețuire ar fi mici dacă am putea învăța doar prin suportarea directă a consecințelor determinate de încercare și eroare. [6]. Dincolo de problema supraviețuirii, este imposibil un proces de transfer social în care limba, stilul de viață și practicile instituționale aparținând unei anumite culturi sunt predate fiecărui membru nou prin întărire selectivă a comportamentelor, fără a avea avantajul modelelor care să exemplifice tiparele culturale.

Anumite comportamente complexe poate fi produse doar cu ajutorul modelării. Dacă, spre exemplu, copiii nu ar avea ocazia să audă vocile unor persoane-modele, ar fi aproape imposibil să achiziționeze și să-și formeze abilitățile lingvistice care constituie limbajul [1].

Capacitatea de a folosi simboluri oferă indivizilor mijloace puternice și eficiente de adaptare la mediu. Prin intermediul simbolurilor verbale și imaginare, oamenii procesează și mențin experiențele în forme reprezentative, care servesc drept indicatori pentru comportamente viitoare. Abilitatea de a acționa *cu intenție* își are baza în activitatea simbolică. Imaginile viitorului dorit determină cursul acțiunii care urmărește scopuri mai îndepărtate. Prin intermediul simbolurilor oamenii își pot rezolva problemele fără să pună în scenă diverse soluții alternative și pot prevedea consecințele probabile ale diverselor lor acțiuni. În acest mod ei pot să-și adapteze comportamentul într-o manieră corespunzătoare. Fără să se folosească de simboluri, oamenii ar fi incapabili de reflecție. Prin urmare, o teorie a comportamentului uman nu-și permite să neglijeze activitățile simbolice.

Un alt aspect demn de reținut pentru teoria învățării sociale îl constituie rolul pe care aceasta îl acordă capacității de autoreglare. Prin aranjarea inductorilor de mediu, prin generarea suportului cognitiv și prin producerea consecințelor pentru propriile acțiuni, oamenii pot exercita un anumit grad de control asupra comportamentului lor.

În actul de înțelegere a comportamentului trebuie să fie explicat cum sunt asimilate tiparele de comportament și cum este reglată exprimarea acestora de către interacțiunea dintre sursele de influență auto-generate și sursele externe.

În afara reflexelor elementare, oamenii nu sunt dispun din naștere de un set de comportamente. Ei trebuie să le învețe. Noile tipare de răspuns pot fi însușite *fie prin experiența directă fie prin observație*. Bineînțeles, în tot acest tablou, factorii biologici joacă un rol important în procesul de însușire. Ereditatea influențează dezvoltarea fizică, care, la rândul ei poate influența comportamentul.

Comportamentele complexe nu sunt generate ca și tipare unitare, ci se formează prin integrarea mai multor activități constituente, cu origini diferite. Pentru acest motiv, este mult mai productiv să analizăm determinanții proceselor comportamentale decât să categorisim comportamentele în învățate și înnăscute sau să încercăm să măsurăm aportul fiecărui factor.

În context pedagogic, elevul învață nu numai în cadrul instituției școlare, ci și în alte contexte și de la alte persoane. În mod concret elevul învață permanent din împrejurările de viață, oricând,

oriunde, orice și de la oricine. El învață la școală de la profesori, cunoștințe, deprinderi, valori, atitudini, comportamente relaționale. Dar aceste cunoștințe le învață și de pe stradă, de acasă, de la colegi, prieteni etc, existând permanent o situație de comparație și de verificare a celor învățate.[10]

Conținutul învățării observaționale nu are în vedere numai achiziționarea de experiențe socio-umane cum ar fi: concepții, stiluri și moduri de viață, norme și tradiții socio-culturale și strategii de adaptare și organizare.

Funcțiile învățării observaționale:

1. funcția instrumentală – înțeasă ca fiind o mai mult o tehnică de execuție. Prin această funcție este asigurată atingerea obiectivelor instructiv-educative și a obiectivelor operaționale preformulate.

2. funcția cognitivă – asigură un mod de a cunoaște, de a cerceta, de a acționa, de a descoperi sau redescoperi noi adevăruri și de a le folosi în mod independent.

3. funcția formativ – educativă - asigură formarea de noi structuri cognitive, noi deprinderi intelectuale, comportamentale, atitudini, trăiri, sentimente, fiind în același timp și un proces educativ.

4. funcția normativă – se ipostaziază ca indicator pentru modul de acțiune, pentru a atinge obiectivele prestabilite.

5. funcția motivațională – asigură stimularea și dezvoltarea interesului pentru studiu a curiozității epistemice, a dorinței de a înțelege, de a descoperi și de a acționa.[4]

Învățarea observațională reprezintă în cele din urmă, un anumit mod de a proceda care tinde să plaseze elevul într-o situație de învățare, mai mult sau mai puțin dirijată, mergându-se până la una similară aceleia de cercetare științifică, de urmărire și descoperire a adevărului și de raportare a lui la aspectele practice ale vieții.

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Applying psychological theories for success in higher education

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Abstract: The perceptions and choices of prospective high education students are constructed within a complex interplay of social factors that are underpinned by basic social class and ethnic differences. Of course, given the history of high education in Romania, we should not be very surprised by this. The Romanian high education market is diverse and highly differentiated in terms of general status and reputation, research activity and income, private or state based, even geographical coverage, etc. Various studies have proven the continuing dominance of the middle classes in high education (Metcalf, 1997; Roberts & Allen, 1997; Williams, 1997), even if recently at least in Romania, most youngsters plan to attend high education, also because of the financial support and future career opportunities.

Different kinds of practical knowledge are at work in choice-making. Knowledge about and use of status hierarchies and reputations is uneven and varies systematically between schools and families. Social and cultural classifications and distinctions run through and underpin the process of choice in such a way as to combine individualist and collectivist modes of social exclusion (Parkin, 1974, p. 9). Individual attributes are important in a variety of ways; not the least those related to attainment. However, the class-related patterns of social and cultural capital sketched in, as well as the deployment of generalized social attributes based on ethnic or class categories, indicate the continuation of strategies of closure based on vestiges of 'reproduction' rather than pure 'nomination', in Parkin's terms. The latter are evident at key moments of 'choice rejection'.

Social exchange theory further assumes that individuals are goal-oriented in a freely competitive social system. Because of the competitive nature of social systems, exchange processes lead to differentiation of power and privilege in social groups. As in any competitive situation, power in social exchanges lies with those individuals who possess greater resources that provide an advantage in the social exchange. As a result, exchange processes lead to differentiation of power and privilege in social groups.

Recent debates about increasing participation in high education and opening up access to 'elite' institutions have focused on 'barriers' to application or entry, and while these are important they tell only part of the story of patterns of access. The distribution of classes and minority ethnic groups within high education and across high education institutions has to be understood as the outcome of several stages of decision-making in which choices and constraints or barriers inter-weave. Many students, especially working-class students, never get to a position where they can contemplate high education. Others are qualified to do so but exclude themselves (Archer & Hutchings, 2000). Others

who do apply avoid certain institutions. Conversely, for working-class and minority ethnic students, for a combination of negative and positive factors, other institutions are attractive (Ball *et al.*, 2001; Reay, 2000). Entrenched inequalities in ‘participation’ in and across high education, if they are to be properly addressed and systematically dismantled, need first to be understood in all their sociological complexity and indeterminacy, as issues of process and structure, and exclusion and ‘choice’.

Social exchange theory has been criticized often and even rejected for different reasons, the most important being its basis in the philosophy of hedonism and egocentrism (e.g., Caporael *et al.* 1989; Chadwick-Jones, 1976; Fromm, 1959). The idea that “people maximize rewards and minimize costs” has been ascribed frequently to social exchange representatives, but is rejected explicitly by Kelley *et al.* (2005). Even Homans, who would agree with the idea and the concept of “homo economicus,” cannot be accused of hedonism – according to him the rewards obtained include such benefits as altruistic satisfaction.

Systematic use of social exchange theory is described, particularly in the context of my function as a school psychologist. The advantages of systematic use are particularly obvious when the rewards-costs of more than two people have to be taken into account, which is the case in a school. An example presents of the treatment of a boy who bullied other students along with the related treatment involving the class, parents and teachers.

The literature of social exchange deals with real exchange between people. However, clinical experience led me to pay attention to *imaginary* social exchange – which has consequences for real relations and is a powerful factor affecting mental balance. We can use Knobloch’s (1963, 1979) concept of *group schema*, an image of a small social group which functions as a cognitive map guiding social behaviour, serving as a “playground” for social training and offering trial-and-error solutions in fantasy and a parallel market of social exchange – e.g, a person receives imaginary rewards and punishments, such are the naggings of conscience. An extreme example of the far-reaching effects of imaginary social exchange is *litigiousness*, the delusional conviction of being a victim of injustice, which moves the person to unending legal actions, sometimes even resulting in financial collapse.

We propose that Social Exchange Theory provides a model for understanding the student decision-making behavior regarding continuation of study. The idea of having a ‘balanced life’ and finding ways of dealing successfully with competing demands to accommodate work, careers and social integration is not new (Wilensky, 1960). Contemporary students have many competing selves: student, worker, partner, parent, child, sibling and friend (McInnis *et al.*, 2000). The theory of social exchange (Emerson 1981) whilst commonly employed to examine interpersonal relationships has been used in this study to examine intrapersonal relationships: relationships between the selves. We propose that students continually evaluate the cost/benefits associated with each of their selves, investing in those roles that are relatively rewarding and disinvesting in those that they perceive as relatively costly.

Understanding and proper use of the social exchange theory can positively influence youth orientation to education and more education may determine a path as close as possible to the native potential of the future students.

Recent studies indicated that current students have serious thoughts of discontinuing study. What factors persuaded students to continue with their studies? Those who decided to stay did so because of specific reasons important to them, even though they were not satisfied with all aspects of their university experience (Zimitat, 2003). Factors in their decision-making were identified as maintaining new friendships that they had made and influence from parents and friends (particularly from students under 25 years of age), the convenient location of the campus, availability of unique course offerings, the good university environment or to prove a point to themselves.

Human beings view themselves not merely as who or what they are, (as matter of role and social status) but also, and importantly, as who or what they have the potential to be (Chang, 2001). This power of possibility represents an important determination of how they exist and is influenced by a range of possibilities from expectations of good things, or optimism, to expectations of bad things, or pessimism. Attitudes towards optimism and pessimism can also be seen in terms of hope and despair which “inspire feelings of well-being and is a spur to action” (Frank, 1968, p.383). Student comments about reasons for persisting often contained messages of optimism. Optimism influenced students to persist in their studies as part of their plan for a better future. Optimism acts as a mediator representing “a generative mechanism” through which it is able to influence the dependent variable of interest, in this case persistence (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p.1173). Optimism about one’s ability to achieve, based upon past achievements, also influences the investment in study. Martin (2002) considers whether students attribute success in study to optimism, as one element of academic resilience. Bandura (1977) also refers to such optimism about achieving goals and being able to meet academic challenges as ‘self-efficacy’.

As students age is marked by the debut of a professional life, we believe that they are naturally optimistic. There are specific age as an optimist, which often is not sustained or caused by a number of principles, but he is simply based on specific attitudes of youth. This optimism is a very important resource because it actively support involvement in action and provide the necessary resources in order to motivate students in solving educational tasks. There are many challenges to students. Preparing for exams, learning and assessment, and an image forming, attitude towards learning and towards active involvement in the labor market after graduation, is an effort that can result in stress and neurosis to the student. This possible stressful factor is offset by optimism that sustains motivation to be actively involved students.

The example of student recognition of competence at university studies demonstrates how increased optimism about one’s studies, leads to greater satisfaction with studies, which ultimately influences persistence. University education is not only a model but also a social one as they are encountered hierarchies, relationships and community type activities merit recognition and support.

Social Exchange Theory appears to be an appropriate, though limited, model for examining first-year-student's decision making regarding continuing or leaving university study. Decisions to leave university study appear to be unrelated to the number of roles or selves existing in the lives of first year students (Zimitat, 2003). Social Exchange Theory assumes that the selves are independent and competitive and that they are defined largely by time-on-task.. Zimitat's study (2002) sheds some light on how students conceptualize their role and their identity; however, establishing a measure of the strength of the student-self and satisfaction with studenthood are needed for further consideration of Social Exchange Theory to understand persistence, particularly as it applies to the negotiating power of and amongst selves.

Conclusion:

We believe that school psychology specialists of undergraduate must apply the social exchange theory in working with prospective students and career guidance counselors view them. Applying of such working system can prove useful in the long term as a result of the formation of specialists in various fields based on the preparation of a potential doubling native a good academic background and then the results can be recorded on the labor market.

Social Exchange perspective provides us with a framework that many researchers have used profitably. Yet, it does not offer a clear definition of its central concepts, which leads to difficulty in actually testing the theory. Further, it presumes several things about humans that some find difficult to accept. The notion of people calculating their self-interest apart from a group's is offensive to some researchers. Yet, the emphasis that Thibaut and Kelley place on interdependence is congruent with many researchers' notions of interpersonal relationships, and Social Exchange Theory continues to generate research findings of interest to students of communication.

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Recommendations for an efficient education system with application in primary and secondary school environment

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Abstract: Îmbunătățirea radicală și diversificarea a ofertei educaționale a întregului sistem de învățământ și formare profesională din România este recunoscută ca un obiectiv prioritar de importanță strategică și o condiție obligatorie pentru transpunerea în fapt a principiilor dezvoltării durabile pe termen mediu și lung. Se are în vedere și faptul că reformele de sistem și investițiile de efort și resurse în acest domeniu prezintă un înalt grad de inertialitate, capacitatea de absorbție fiind un factor determinant, iar rata de rentabilitate este mică pe termen scurt, rezultatele tangibile devenind evidente abia numai după un număr însemnat de ani.

Toate deciziile privind angajarea, motivarea, dezvoltarea carierei, formarea continuă și concedierea personalului se vor lua la nivelul unității de învățământ, în baza unei metodologii stabilite de Ministerul Educației, Cercetării, Tineretului și Sportului, care va intensifica procedurile de control al calității resursei umane. Pe parcursul ultimilor douăzeci de ani, instituțiile școlare au făcut obiectul a numeroase reflecții și reforme, în special în privința nivelului de autonomie acordat. Acestea au fost investite cu puteri sporite în scopul ameliorării participării democratice, administrării mai eficiente a fondurilor publice dedicate educației și, mai ales în ultimii ani, creșterii calității predării.

În anii 2000, transferul de noi responsabilități către școli a fost legat de preocuparea privind îmbunătățirea calității educației. O nouă abordare pragmatică, de tip experimental, este remarcată odată cu derularea de proiecte pilot și implementarea graduală a măsurilor de reformă, legate de autonomia școlară. În cele mai multe țări europene, măsurile privind autonomia școlară sunt definite printr-un cadru legislativ național și sunt impuse tuturor școlilor. Abordarea de tip top-down a autonomiei școlare, este confirmată și prin faptul că personalul din instituțiile școlare a stat rareori la originea acestui proces.

Așa cum indică experiențele internaționale în privința descentralizării, aleșii locali și părinții nu au, de cele mai multe ori, competențele necesare pentru a participa la luarea deciziilor în privința cheltuielilor și a administrării școlilor. Dacă în prezent directorii școlilor trebuie să urmeze cursuri de management și să reușească la un examen pentru a deveni directori, părinții și reprezentanții consiliului local nu vor trebui să urmeze niciun curs. În cazul anumitor județe, procentul cetățenilor cu studii superioare este unul deosebit de scăzut. Cu toate acestea, deși românii au una din cele mai reduse rate de școlarizare din Europa, se află pe locul doi într-un clasament al celor mai mulțumiți europeni în privința educației pe care au primit-o. Această poziționare poate indica o lipsă de expunere față de educația superioară, precum și faptul că numeroase comunități locale nu împărtășesc telurile de echitate de a avea mai mulți studenți din mediul rural în universități. Dacă această

presupunere se va confirma, iar comunitățile locale vor aloca educației cheltuieli direct proporționale cu procentul absolvenților de învățământ superior din județ, rezultatul se va traduce printr-o situație total opusă țelului de echitate de a reduce diferențele între mediul rural și cel urban – comunitățile sărace din mediul rural vor cheltui din bugetul local, procentual, cel mai puțin pentru educație. Situația poate deveni și mai gravă în satele unde majoritatea adulților au emigrat temporar în căutare unui loc de muncă. Consiliile de administrație din școlile din aceste sate vor găsi cu greu părinți care să participe la ședințe.

Menținerea structurii curente a consiliilor de administrație garantează că majoritatea consiliului o constituie profesori și administratori cu experiență, ale căror interese vizează un orizont de timp pe termen lung, diferite de cele ale unor părinți care au copiii în acea școală pe termen scurt sau ale unor reprezentanți ai unor aleși locali, de asemenea interesați direct pe (și de) durata mandatului.

Menținerea structurii actuale a consiliilor de administrație nu împiedică însă părinții și reprezentanții aleșilor locali sau ai mediului de afaceri (excluși din consiliu în noua formulă) să aibă un cuvânt de spus în administrarea școlii.

Sistemul de ponderi pentru educații din mediul rural a fost conceput să asigure necesarul de finanțare care să compenseze numărul redus de elevi din școlile din mediul rural. Școlile din mediul urban au în medie 470 de elevi, iar școlile din mediul rural doar 280. Ponderea de 1,2 pentru elevii din mediul rural compensează parțial această diferență, ținând cont de numărul minim de profesori ce trebuie să fie angajați pentru a acoperi toate materiile predate. Desigur, dacă Ministerul va implementa și o reducere a numărului de materii, aceste costuri vor scădea.

Sistemul de ponderare nu ține însă cont de nevoile educaționale mai crescute ale elevilor provenind din familii sărace. Acești elevi, precum și școlile din mediile din care provin, au nevoie de finanțare crescută pentru procurarea de cărți și calculatoare, la care cei săraci au un acces scăzut, în ciuda eforturilor Ministerului de a oferi fonduri copiilor săraci pentru achiziționarea de calculatoare. Datorită numărului crescut de părinți ce au emigrat, școlile din mediul rural au de asemenea o nevoie sporită de consilieri școlari. Deși greu de implementat în condițiile unei grile unice de salarizare, școlile rurale ar trebui să primească, de asemenea, fonduri mai mari pentru a atrage profesori calificați.

Un alt argument împotriva ponderilor urban-rural este reprezentat de faptul că diferențele dintre sate și orașe în termeni de resurse educaționale, recreaționale și culturale sunt adesea ne semnificative.

Datorită unei politici de urbanizare forțată în timpul regimului comunist, multe sate au devenit orașe numai cu numele iar locuitorii și-au păstrat ocupațiile agrare după ce s-au construit câteva blocuri, uneori fără canalizare. În 2003, Parlamentul României a votat o lege prin care multe sate primeau statutul de oraș, deși nu îndeplineau multe din cerințele de urbanism și, în câteva cazuri, nici numărul necesar de locuitori. Județele unde numărul orașelor a crescut semnificativ sunt județe cu rate scăzute de școlarizare și rate crescute de sărăcie. Școlile din noile orașe vor primi o finanțare mai

redușă, aferentă școlilor din mediul urban, deși prezintă caracteristicile unor sate. Chiar și orașe mai mari duc lipsa unor resurse educaționale și culturale.

Închiderea sau fuzionarea școlilor este realizată în scopul eficientizării sistemului, însă subminează scopul Guvernului de a crește rata de școlarizare a elevilor din mediul rural. În condițiile în care școlile mici din mediul rural se vor închide, elevii vor trebui să fie transportați la alte școli, adesea pe distanțe mari. Ținând cont de situația precară a drumurilor din România - ce devin impracticabile în condiții meteo nefavorabile - există riscul ca elevii să nu poată ajunge la școală pe perioade îndelungate. Transportarea copiilor pe distanțe mari va fi încă un motiv pentru părinți de a nu își trimite copiii la școală și pentru copii, de a lipsi de la școală.

Segregarea *de facto* a etniei rome este o realitate în România, iar multe școli au clase speciale care concentrează elevii rome. Între 12 și 20% din elevii rome sunt elevi în școli unde mai mult de 50 sau chiar 70 la sută din elevi sunt rome. În trei sferuturi din școlile unde elevii rome sunt majoritari, lipsește o bibliotecă școlară.

Copiilor rome li s-a interzis, începând cu anul școlar 2007-2008, formarea claselor I și a V-a segregate preponderent sau numai cu elevi rome. Un studiu al organizației Romani Criss arată că multe școli au ignorat pur și simplu ordinul Ministerului. Proiectul de lege propus de ministrul Funeriu prevede că școlile vor putea selecta elevii „în baza unei metodologii a Ministerului”. Această metodologie trebuie să fie clară și neinterpretabilă în privința interzicerii și prevenirii discriminării pe bază de rasă sau etnie, printre alți factori. Orice formă de admitere pe bază de rezultate școlare sau care depinde de venitul familiei, pune în mod indirect elevii rome în dezavantaj, datorită ratei extrem de ridicate de sărăcie în rândul acestei populații. Având în vedere rolul crescut al comunităților locale și restrângerea atribuțiilor Inspectoratelor, mecanismele prin care autoritățile centrale pot preveni și elimina situațiile de segregare de altfel deja observabile în teritoriu, trebuie să prevadă sancțiuni și mecanisme clare.

Concluzii si recomandari

Această analiză arată modul în care descentralizarea riscă să conducă la niveluri crescute de inegalitate în ceea ce privește cheltuielile educaționale, dacă „frâiele” conducerii școlilor vor fi date părinților și reprezentanților consilierilor locali. Închiderea și fuzionarea școlilor din mediul rural îngreunează, de asemenea, accesul elevilor din mediul rural la educație.

În ciuda tuturor dovezilor din alte țări în privința dificultăților și a consecințelor negative ale descentralizării sistemului educațional, precum și a avertizărilor experților Băncii Mondiale, Guvernul pare determinat să implementeze sistemul de finanțare per capita, în același timp cu realizarea descentralizării și introducerii unor opțiuni de privatizare școlară.

Recomandările enunțate anterior propun modificări legislative ce ar putea reduce consecințele negative ale noii Legi a educației. O opoziție puternică din partea sindicatelor, a opoziției politice și a părinților nemulțumiți de închiderea școlilor, pot însă influența această Lege în sens favorabil tuturor actorilor implicați.

Posibilitatea de înființare a unor „alternative școlare”; sistemul de evaluare a școlilor în urma căruia unele școli ce au obținut calificative nesatisfăcătoare ar putea fi închise; înființarea de clase private în școli publice; înființarea de consorții școlare.

Din păcate, se constată că există puține studii asupra noii Legi a educației naționale și a consecințelor măsurilor prevăzute de aceasta. Prevederile Legii, deși vagi, angajează statul român față de organizații private, culte, și părinți doritori să își educe copiii acasă (*home schooling*). Exemplul statului Chile, care a implementat un sistem asemănător celui prevăzut în noua Lege a educației naționale (prin care părinții pot muta liber copiii la școli private care primesc finanțare de la stat), a dus la o explozie a școlilor private. Din păcate, dezbaterile asupra Legii educației se concentrează pe probleme de moment, precum salariile, reducerea numărului de posturi sau diverse aranjamente în privința examenelor sau a trecerii clasei a 9-a la liceu. Consecințele acestei Legi sunt încă greu de anticipat, ținând cont de multitudinea de prevederi neclare care deschid legal calea unor schimbări radicale în societatea românească.

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School curriculum and curriculum development in the non-formal education

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Abstract: The modern concept of education regards education as "Lifelong Process", i.e. a learning process developed during a lifetime, as against the traditional one where education is obtained during school education.

From an etymological point of view, "non-formal education" traces back to the Latin "nonformalis", taken with the meaning of "out of some special/ official forms set up for a certain type of activity". Non-formal is not the synonym for non-educational; it designates an educational reality with formative educative consequences. From a conceptual point of view, the non-formal education is made up of all the activities and actions which take place in an organized and institutionalized background, but out of the school system, being "a bridge between the knowledge assimilated at school and the pieces of information assimilated in the non-formal system".

The modern concept of education regards education as "Lifelong Process", i.e. a learning process developed during a lifetime, as against the traditional one where education is obtained during school education.

Complementarity - the key word that underlines the dominant European position regarding the relationship between non-formal and formal education shows how much importance is given to the non-formal education. Nowadays the non-formal education is considered in Europe as a necessary part of the modern concept of education, an essential and irreplaceable part of the formal education as well.

The non-formal education was defined by J. Kleis as "any deliberate and systematic educational activity usually developed outside the traditional school, whose content is adapted to the individual needs and special situations, with a view to maximize learning and knowledge and to minimize the problems in the formal system" (the stress of receiving marks, the imposed discipline, doing the homework, etc.).

From an etymological point of view, "non-formal education" traces back to the Latin "nonformalis", taken with the meaning of "out of some special/ official forms set up for a certain type of activity". Non-formal is not the synonym for non-educational; it designates an educational reality with formative educative consequences. From a conceptual point of view, the non-formal education is made up of all the activities and actions which take place in an organized and institutionalized

background, but out of the school system, being “a bridge between the knowledge assimilated at school and the pieces of information assimilated in the non-formal system”.

It is in this institutionalized system that the activities take place. The quality of these activities are secured by the reevaluation of the educational activity organized out of the school system under the guidance of a specialized teaching staff at different levels of flexibility as compared to those in the formal education. The teachers working in the Children’s Palaces and Clubs are required much more flexibility and enthusiasm, adaptability and quickness when teaching different types of activity depending on the students’ requirements. The activities that are to be carried on during a school year are fixed by a schedule. The quality of these activities result from the argument that motivates the choice of the contents and their importance as well as the reference objectives and the practical activities suggested by the teacher.

The syllabuses of the classes (classes called ”circles”) consist of special documents that deal with a great flexibility depending on the children’s interest, age, sex, their aptitudes and their personal gifts. The syllabuses include in their annual and half-yearly planning’s, activities that correspond to the children’s interest, aptitudes and wishes. At the beginning of the school year the children are presented the activities that are to take place during the year; they aren’t forced to attend the courses of a certain circle (class); they have the possibility to choose the activity they like best according to their preferences, aptitudes and wishes. They also have the possibility to suggest the teacher other subjects they like and want to be developed during the year.

The extra-curricular activities carried on in clubs and palaces have an optional character. Their qualities consist not only in their contents or in a calm and pleasant atmosphere but also in using attractive teaching aids meant to attract children of different ages. Each circle has a classroom of its own endowed with all the necessary teaching aids. The small number of children to form a group provides a friendly and familiar atmosphere where horizontal relationships are prevalent. It’s not the teacher who plays the most important part in supporting an activity but the student, who is the one who plays the leading part. The teachers (the coordinators) are only moderators, so their part is a discreet one.

The non- formal education is centered upon the interests and desires of that one who learns, otherwise it will lose audience. In the case of non-formal education, learning is to a greater extent controlled by the one who wants to be educated, this one being the only one who decides when and how he/she wants to go on learning. In order to ensure a good quality of non-formal education, the teachers have to stimulate the student’s desire, curiosity and positive attitudes and to develop their learning gifts as well. Thus, the non-formal education is the one that offers wonderful learning opportunities. These facts must be taken into account by the teachers in the process of training and development of the individual’s personality. The most efficient teacher is the one who allows and supports the birth of the teaching in extra-curricular activities.

In this context, according to “The Regulations relating to the organization and work of the Children’s palaces and clubs” beginning with the 2012-2013 school year, the Children’s palaces and clubs are enabled to award, when requested a competence certificate which together with other documents - studying year card, the total amount of diplomas, certificates, etc. obtained after an evaluation of the of the competences acquired in a specific activity make up the student’s portfolio existing at the school where the respective student attends courses.

In the context of non-formal education, The Children’s Club in Sighișoara has implemented and has taken part in several educational projects for a durable development both in the country and abroad. Here are some of the most important ones: the project “European Schools For A Living Planet – ESFALP organized by WWF (World Wide Fund for Nature) together with the ERSTE foundation which has successfully been carrying on for 4 years in 11 countries: Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Hungary, Moldavia, Romania, Serbia, Slovakia and Ukraine.

The program is dedicated both to the teachers and the students aged 12- 16. At the beginning of each program the latter ones take part in an initial training event, the ESFALP Academy (European Schools for a Living Planet). In this background the student-teacher teams representing the selected schools thoroughly study the tasks suggested by the organizers, such as: “The Ecological Stamp” (Consumption and the Global Effects of Consumption), “The Danube” (The Life- line of Europe) and “Active Citizenship” (Be Active and Motivate the others).

Our taking part in such a project has been a real success. The project took place in Illmitz, Austria and has successfully offered a good opportunity of affirmation and involvement of our club in the development of the durable education and the representation of our country abroad.

Another impressive partnership in the development of the durable education in the non-formal education has been the one with the Bucharest University - The Faculty of Geography and The Faculty of Psychology and the Science of Education regarding the implementation of the optional course “*Education for a Durable Development for the Future Teachers*”.

Last but not least, the acquiring of a new Eco- School statute (for the third time, consecutively), the right to maintain The Green Flag for another two years as well as the National Competition Project of the Ecological Education “The Earth is Our Home” (9th edition approved by CAEN and MECS (Ministry of Education) that took place in Sighișoara are good opportunities to show that education for a durable development has an important influence in the non-formal education.

In conclusion: “By modelling characters, you can develop competences”!

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Economic Education: A New School Based Curriculum for Elementary School

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Abstract: The paper presents a new curriculum on economics for elementary school developed as a successful program of Romanian Center for Economic Education in partnership with Romanian Ministry of Education and Council for Economic Education, New York, USA. It was designed as a school based curriculum with the purpose to familiarize elementary students with economic concepts and economic way of thinking and represents a unique combination between economics knowledge for elementary teachers who do not have an economic background and active learning strategies recommended in elementary classes. The lessons have both cognitive (basic economic concepts oriented) and formative objectives (skills and economic reasoning oriented). In addition, they are focused upon positive attitudes towards learning. Economic lessons for elementary students are attractive, fun, and challenging. Is the belief of authors that the study of economics has to be an interesting and exciting experience not a 'dismal' one.

Keywords: Economic education curriculum, elementary school, content and skills oriented lessons

Introduction

Economic education in elementary school is the result of a successful program conducted by Romanian Center for Economic Education (CREE) in partnership with Romanian Ministry of Education and Council for Economic Education (CEE) din S.U.A.². The curriculum for elementary school includes basic economic concepts direct related to everyday life, to the way in which people are acting as consumers and producers. Such economic concepts are: productive resources, scarcity, opportunity cost, consumer and producer, cost of production, profit, productivity, specialization, division of labor, market and price, competition, savings and investments, limited intervention of government, money, and exchange.

Economics for elementary school

To teach economic concepts, attractive lessons which involve students in different learning activities have been developed. At the beginning of the program 20 lessons have been developed. These lessons were selected from materials published by CEE and adapted to a reality which is familiar to an elementary school student in Romania. Each of the above economics learning sequences includes specific information on the economic content, key economic concepts, learning objectives – in terms of student competencies to be formed, time, classroom materials, detailed procedures

² Former National Council on Economic Education - NCEE

regarding the learning process to be conducted in classroom, detailed description of the debriefing process, student learning evaluation tools, learning closure, recommended homework, recommended learning links and extensions – other learning subjects included.

Table 1 Economic education for elementary school

Lesson content	Lesson title	Economic concepts in the lesson	At the end of the lesson, students will be able to :
Introduction on Economics	<i>Back to School</i>	Scarcity, human resources, natural resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify productive resources • Identify situations that implies scarcity
Scarcity	<i>The Green Emperor's Country</i>	Scarcity, resources' allocation methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand scarcity as characteristic of every society • Identify methods of resources allocation • Express an opinion regarding the fairness of resources' allocation methods
Productive resources	<i>Resources game</i>	Productive resources. Labor , natural resources, capital goods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify productive resources used to produce different goods and services • Make distinctions between different types of resources
Opportunity cost	<i>The Chocolate Mountain</i>	Scarcity, decision making grid, decision, opportunity cost	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify alternatives in given decision making situations • Use a decision making grid to weight alternatives • Identify a decision as the best alternative in a given situation
Opportunity cost	<i>Daniel's Present.</i>	Choices, opportunity cost, alternatives, decision, better-off	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify alternatives in given decision making situations • Use a decision making grid to weight alternatives

Decision making	<i>Give and Take</i>	Choices, decisions, opportunity cost	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make personal decisions using a decision making model • Identify opportunity costs of different decisions
.Goods and Services	<i>Name a Good, Take a Price, and Pay a Cost.</i>	Goods and services, productive resources, human resources, natural resources, capital goods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify resources used to produce specific goods and services
Goods and Services	<i>What Can I Do for You?</i>	Goods and services, productive resources, human resources, natural resources, capital goods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify resources used to produce specific goods and services
Producers and consumers	<i>Hard Work, Smart Investment, Good Business.</i>	Producers, consumers, incentives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify people incentives for work • Identify rewards in economic activity
Trade	<i>Let's Trade A Little.</i>	Exchange, barter, money	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand the need of money as mean of exchange
Money	<i>Money Doesn't Grow Like Trees.</i>	Money, mean of exchange, measure of value, deposit of value	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand the role of money in economy
Money	<i>The Surprising History of Money.</i>	Money, mean of exchange, measure of value, deposit of value	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Give examples of money used in different period of times • Give examples of money used in different countries
The Market	<i>That Yummy Game – The Apple Market.</i>	Market, producers, consumers, sellers, and buyers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand market as result of interaction between sellers and buyers
Demand	<i>The Candies I</i>	Demand, quantity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand negative

	<i>Can Afford.</i>	demand, law of demand	relationship between price and quantity demanded
Supply	<i>Readings and Rewards.</i>	Supply, quantity supplied, law of supply	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand positive relationship between price and quantity supplied
Supply	<i>Bring Me a Souvenir.</i>	Price, cost of production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calculate cost of production • Understand why different producers of a particular good may have different costs and why are they interested to sell their products and higher prices than costs
Productivity	<i>The Workshop of Triangles and Rectangles</i>	Productivity, division of labor, specialization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify the benefits of specialization
Market Equilibrium	<i>Weight The Jellies.</i>	Market, price, equilibrium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand the market price mechanism • Identify equilibrium price as the market price
Competition:	<i>Why Should I Win The Contest?</i>	Competition, incentives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand the benefits of competition • Understand the every competition has rules that make it fair
Economic Flows	<i>Guide Me Mr. Lion.</i>	Goods and services, productive resources, market, economic flows, income	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify economic flows • Understand how resources, goods and services and money are circulating in an economic
The Economic Functions of The Government	<i>The Gift That Troubles Me.</i>	Productivity, government regulations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand the need of government regulations • Understand that some government regulation may

			have negative effects on economic activity, but they are necessary
Public Goods and Services	<i>Since I Paid It Better Worth</i>	Public goods and services, taxes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identity public goods and services in their community • Understand why have people to pay taxes

Alternative lessons have been developed by elementary teachers who have participated in teachers' contest 'Best Economics Lessons' between 2005-2012 and as references for the in-country Elementary Training of Trainers Program conducted by CREE during 2008-2010.

Attractive content and skills oriented lessons for elementary students

The curriculum for elementary school represents a unique combination between economics knowledge for elementary teachers who do not have an economic background and active learning strategies recommended in elementary classes. Most of the teachers who are not enrolled in an economic education program, and especially elementary teachers, consider that economics is a difficult subject and, as consequences, have a negative attitude toward teaching economic concepts and/or economic way of thinking. The curriculum for elementary school was developed with the intention to make the process of teaching economics easier and very attractive and, eventually, to create positive attitude toward this subject. Hard economic concepts from high school and university textbooks are presented in a simplified manner in order make them accesible and emphasize their practical ablicability.

The developers of curriculum for elementary school chosen to focus on few significant and relevant economic concepts and to allocate time to teach them seriously through alternative activities that give students many opportunities to practice economic way of thinking and economic analysis. It is the belief of the authors that a deep understanding on a limited number of economic concepts is better than receiving many information but with no time for teacher to analyze and to explain enough and for students to practice and to apply what they have learned. Students remember what is really significant and useful.

The lessons have both cognitive (basic economic concepts oriented) and formative objectives (skills and economic reasoning oriented). In addition, they are focused upon positive attitudes towards learning. This is why activities developed are multiple task-oriented activities. First of all, they are learning situations based activites: students are acting as producers, consumers, or savers and their behaviors are analyzed in discussions conducted by teachers thourgh detailed and adequated

questions that lead step by step from a particular case to real economic situations; it is an inductive approach in that the thinking is moving from individual cases to general ones.

Secondly, special attention is given to content. The effort made in order to make economic concepts accessible to elementary students is combine with critical eyes of the economist who want to make sure the scientifically requirements are respected. Making economic content as simple as students understanding requires is not an easy task. This involves concepts ongoing processing and severe attention paid to lesson's planning.

Third, the athors were aware of scarcity of time available for instruction and the need of efficiency in the learning process. This is why most of the lessons are interdisciplinary designed in relationship with mathematics, language and communication, arts, history or geography. More important than to teach a economic content is to develop an economic way of thinking and elementary teachers to understand that economics is 'a way of thinking' aplicable to majority of subjects and also that economcs is 'overall present and students benefit if teachers will use any opportunity to make them understand 'economic way of looking at life'

Least, but not last, economic lessons for elementary students are attractive, fun, and challenging. Is the belief of authors that the study of economics has to be an interesting and exciting experience not a 'dismal' one.

Conclusions

Economics, as many other school subjects, has its own logic. In order economic concepts to make sense for students they have to be taught in a specific sequentiality and succesion. Lessons are successive interdependent and must be taught in order according with logic of economics. No matter as good they are, lessons themselves cannot ensure the succes of learning economics. Teacher remains the key component of any learning process, his or hers enthuziasm and dedication couldn't be substitue with nothing else.

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Romanian economic education between tradition and post-transition

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Abstract: *Evoluția economiei de mărfuri în spațiile locuite de români a impus cu necesitate și dezvoltarea unui sistem educativ corespunzător, capabil să pregătească specialiștii noului tip dominant de economie.*

Cuvinte cheie: învățământ economic românesc.

1. Începuturile învățământului economic în România mică

În România mică învățământul economic își are începuturile în secolul al XIX-lea și se leagă, în mod direct, de reformele de modernizare din timpul domniei lui Al. I. Cuza.

Potrivit documentelor³, la data de 28 noiembrie 1864, în București a început să funcționeze prima școală comercială elementară, în baza „Legii generale a instrucțiunilor publice”, promulgate la 5 decembrie 1864. La puțină vreme de la înființare, ea devine Școală Comercială Superioară (de gradul II), ce urmărea instruirea teoretică și practică a elevilor ce trebuiau să devină „mari comercianți și industriași”, capabili de inițiativă în domeniul comerțului intern și extern. Însă acestui proces economic și educativ, care se afla în plină construcție, îi lipseau așa numiții „impiegați comerciali”, adică oameni care să cunoască tot ce era legat de circulația mărfurilor.

Ministrul comerțului, P.P. Carp, prin „Legea de organizare a învățământului profesional”, promulgată la 9 aprilie 1893, obține înființarea la Iași și București a unor școli comerciale de gradul I, cu trei ani de studiu, menite să pregătească „impiegații comerciali”. Aceste școli comerciale erau organizate și înființate de către Primăriile și Camerele de Comerț ale raioanelor în care urmau să funcționeze.

În 1904, apare „Regulamentul pentru Școalele Elementare de Comerț”, elaborat de Spiru Haret, Ministrul Cultelor și Instrucțiunii Publice de atunci. Potrivit acestui Regulament Anul școlar era împărțit în cinci cicluri, la sfârșitul fiecărui ciclu profesorii verificau cunoștințele elevilor prin extemporale sau probe orale, notele fiind consemnate în primele zile de după terminarea fiecărui trimestru. Frecvența elevilor era urmărită cu atenție, deoarece numai elevul, care în tot cursul anului nu avea nici o absență nemotivată, la niciun obiect, avea nota 10 la „frecvență”. La 75 de absențe nemotivate pe an, el era declarat repetent și eliminat din școală. Elevii din anul II și III aveau cursuri numai dimineața, iar după amiaza efectuau ore de practică în prăvălii, de la 2 la 7 seara. Efectuarea

³ Malinschi Vasile, *Din trecutul învățământului economic*, Editura Academiei R. S. R., București, 1978.

practicii pe la diferiți negustori se făcea cu sprijinul Camerei de Comerț, iar șeful prăvăliei consemna prezența și comportamentul elevului într-un carnet de control.

Prima instituție de învățământ economic superior - Academia de Înalte Studii Comerciale și Industriale din București - s-a înființat la 6 aprilie 1913, printr-un Decret Regal. Inaugurarea cursurilor s-a făcut la 1 noiembrie 1913. În anul I s-au înscris 700 de studenți, dintre care doar 210 au trecut în anul II. În anul următor s-au înscris doar 200 de studenți. Cei mai puțini studenți – 20 – s-au înscris în anul universitar 1916-1917. Primii licențiați au fost în anul 1918. În timpul Primului Război Mondial, anii 1916-1918 au fost cei mai grei pentru AISCI. Studenții și o parte dintre profesori s-au mutat la Iași. Anul 1919 marchează începutul stabilității și dezvoltării, continuate până în anul 1940, în mandatele celor mai importanți rectori ai AISCI: Ion N. Angelescu și Ion Răducanu.

În cei 100 de ani de funcționare Academia a școlit peste 300.000 de economiști de diverse specializări.

2. Evoluția învățământului economic în Ardeal

Începând cu secolul al XVIII-lea, în Ardeal au fost fondate noi **școli românești**, laice și confesionale la Blaj, Brașov, Sibiu, Făgăraș, Arad. Unul dintre cele mai importante centre era Brașovul. Viața culturală a Brașovului și în special învățământul cunoaște o dezvoltare deosebită în sec. al XIX-lea.

Condițiile economice și geografice pe care le-a oferit Brașovul au determinat organizarea în 1837 a „Gremiului românesc pentru comerțul levantin”, organizație profesională cu mari contribuții în organizarea și desfășurarea învățământului economic în țara noastră.

Datorită lui **George Barițiu** (1812- 1893) ia ființă, încă din 1836, în cadrul „Școlii naționale a Capelei românești din Cetatea Brașovului” **„clasa pregătitoare pentru comerț”**. Cunoștințele au fost predate de Emanoil Ioan Nichifor, autorul „*Pravilei comerciale*”, considerată prima carte de contabilitate, tipărită la I. Gott în Brașov abia în 1837 și care cuprindea regulile „*comerției, ale catastifelor și socoteala interesurilor*”⁴. Această școală a fost frecventată de tineri în vârstă de 15-18 ani din împrejurimile Brașovului, având în același timp și elevi din ținuturile românești de peste munți. Cu toate greutățile timpului, George Barițiu a adunat până în anul 1845, cât a funcționat la **Școala Națională Comercială**, multe generații de tineri, cărora le insufla dragostea pentru limbă și pentru neam.

⁴ Bârseanu, Andrei - *Istoria școlilor centrale române* Tipografia Giurcu & Comp. 1902.

După 1850 negustorimea din Braşov se preocupa tot mai mult de pregătirea tinerilor în activitatea comercială, înfiinţându-se astfel în 1857 un curs seral cu denumirea „*Curs de seară pe seama ucenicilor și a calfelor de la prăvălii*”; finanțat de către comercianții români din Braşov⁵.

Exigențele comerțului braşovean și ale dezvoltării economiei de mărfuri, de la acel moment făceau simțită nevoia înființării unor instituții speciale permanente de instruire în arta comerțului. Această necesitate s-a împlinit începând cu anul 1869, când s-au înființat pe lângă școlile centrale românești o școală reală și una comercială. La 19 iulie 1869, se publica în „*Gazeta Transilvaniei*”, „*Telegraful*” și „*Trompeta Carpaților*” deschiderea acestor două școli, organizate după cele mai bune modele de școli existente în acea perioadă. „*Cu înființarea școlii reale și a celei comerciale, întemplată în toamna anului 1869, se introduce un nou element în viața școlilor noastre centrale. Scopul înființării acestor două institute era, ca pe lângă învățământul teoretic, ce se preda în gimnaziu, să se ofere tinerimei și nesce cursuri de instrucțiune, care să o potă prepara pentru viața practică și îndeosebi pentru cariera industrială și comercială*”⁶.

Școala comercială avea un dublu scop: unii absolvenți urmau să intre în activitatea comercială; alții, mai destoinici, puteau continua pregătirea „*în Academia comercială de doi ani în Viena sau în altă Academie superioară*”⁷.

Conducerea școlii comerciale a fost încredințată profesorului doctor Ion Meșotă (1837-1878). Planurile de învățământ au fost întocmite de George Barițiu, iar disciplinele economice au fost predate (la început) de Nicolae Gheorghe Orghidan. Treptat, școala a fost încadrată cu numărul corespunzător de profesori pe bază de concurs, dintre care s-a remarcat în mod deosebit Andrei Bârseanu⁸. În 1884 intervine împărțirea școlii în cursul inferior, cu trei clase pentru ucenicii de prăvălii și cursul superior la care se primeau absolvenții a patru clase gimnaziale. În anul 1896 s-a hotărât separarea școlii comerciale de gimnaziu și de școala reală.

În perioada 1869-1900 numărul elevilor înscriși (în toate cele trei clase) la Școala comercială din Braşov s-a ridicat la 1295 elevi. În jurul anului 1900 sau după acest an, au apărut multe periodice economice cu caracter general sau special. Amintim în acest sens: „*Revista economică*”, „*Bunul econom*”, „*Spicuri economice*”, „*Munca*”, „*Meseriașul*”, „*Deșteptarea*” etc. La răspândirea cunoștințelor economice au contribuit, în perioada aceasta, alături de presa economică de specialitate, ziarele și revistele politice și social-culturale: „*Gazeta Transilvaniei*”, „*Libertatea*”, „*Transilvania*”, „*Telegraful Român*”, „*Tribuna*”, „*Observatorul*” etc.⁹.

⁵ Popescu Gheorghe, *Învățământul Economic Superior din Ardeal 1920-2010*, Editura Imprimeria Ardealul, Cluj-Napoca, 2010

⁶ Bârseanu, Andrei, op. cit.

⁷ Popescu Gheorghe, op. cit.

⁸ Bârseanu, Andrei, op. cit.

⁹ Drăgoescu Anton, coordonator, *Istoria României. Transilvania*, vol. III, Editura „George Barițiu”, Cluj-Napoca, 1997.

La 1 septembrie 1918 a apărut la Braşov „Şcoala Superioară de Comerţ a Statului”. În anul şcolar 1921-1922 „Şcoala Superioară de Comerţ” se reorganizează după modelul şcolilor similare contemporane, transformându-se în şcoală comercială de patru ani, având clase paralele de băieţi şi fete. În 1 ianuarie 1922 i se atribuie denumirea „Şcoala Superioară de Comerţ Andrei Bârseanu” ca un omagiu adus eruditului şi distinsului profesor Andrei Bârseanu (1858-1922), care timp de trei decenii a servit şcoala cu credinţă şi devotament.

La sfârşitul anului 1928, numărul şcolilor medii de comerţ din întreaga ţară s-a ridicat la cifra de 54.

În spaţiul geografic al Ardealului au mai funcţionat – începând cu secolul al XIX-lea – şi alte instituţii de învăţământ cu caracter comercial de nivel pre-universitar, printre care amintim doar câteva¹⁰: Academia comercială din Arad (1855-2010); Academia Comercială din Cluj (1878-1923); Şcoala de ucenicocomerciali Cluj (1882-1961); Liceul comercial de fete „Marianum” (1896-1948); Liceul comercial din Oradea¹⁶ (1888-1948); Şcolile comerciale din Satu-Mare (1906-1954); Liceul Comercial de stat din Târgu-Mureş (1907-1955); Şcoala Medie Tehnică de Comerţ Fete (1921-1955); Şcoala superioară de comerţ Aiud (1923-1931); Şcoala practică comercială Cluj (1924-1931); Şcoala normală de gospodărie „Carmen Sylva” Cluj (1924-1949); Liceului Comercial reformat de băieţi din Braşov (1927-1948); Şcoala medie tehnică de comerţ Turda (1928-1955); Şcoala superioară de comerţ Dej (1929-1931); Şcoala superioară de comerţ pentru băieţi „Marele Voievod Mihai” Cluj (1931-1954); Şcoala normală de gospodărie „Sf. Tereza” Cluj (1932-1950); Liceul comercial Gherla (1938-1955); Liceul comercial de fete Cluj (1940-1953); Liceul economic din Odorheiu Secuiesc (1943-1975); Şcoala medie tehnică de comerţ băieţi Cluj (1945-1955); Liceul comercial maghiar (1945-1948); Şcoala tehnică financiară Cluj-Napoca (1948-1973); Şcoala tehnică comercială Cluj-Napoca (1960-1978); Grupul şcolar comercial Cluj-Napoca (1961-1965); Liceul Economic şi de Drept Administrativ nr. 1 (1966-1982); Liceul Economic şi de Drept Administrativ nr. 2 (1969-1980); Şcoala de Specializare Post-Liceală (1973-1978); Liceul Economic (1982-1992); Grupul Şcolar Economic Administrativ şi de Servicii (1992-2001); Colegiul Economic „Iulian Pop”(2001 – prezent), etc.

Prima instituţie românească de învăţământ economic superior din Ardeal s-a înfiinţat la Cluj-Napoca în **anul 1920**, prin preluarea Academiei Comerciale Maghiare, fondată în anul 1903. Numele iniţial a fost de **Academia Comercială**, după primii doi ani de existenţă ea devenind **Academia de Înalte Studii Comerciale şi Industriale (A. I. S. C. I.)**. Scopul înfiinţării acestei instituţii trebuia să fie *„înzestrarea studenţilor cu cunoştinţe de cultură generală, economică şi profesională în așa măsură ca, după un studiu de practică relativ scurt, să poată îndeplini funcţii de conducere şi să*

¹⁰ Popescu Gheorghe, op. cit.

devină îndrumători în chestiuni de economie națională”¹¹. Academia a fost deschisă de la înființarea sa tuturor tinerilor doritori să studieze, indiferent de naționalitatea lor.

În perioada 1920-1940 Academia de Înalte Studii Comerciale și Industriale a funcționat în Cluj-Napoca, iar în urma Dictatului de la Viena, din 30 august 1940, *Academia* s-a refugiat la Brașov, pentru perioada 1940-1950. În anul 1950 institutul de la Brașov a fost desființat luând sfârșit (pentru o perioadă) și învățământul economic superior în limba română din Transilvania. Această gravă eroare va fi corectată în anul 1961 când ia ființă la Cluj-Napoca Facultatea de Științe Economice, care începând cu anul universitar 1961-1962 va funcționa în cadrul Universității Babeș-Bolyai (înființată în 1959).

STUDENȚI ÎNSCRIȘI ȘI LICENȚIAȚI 1920-2010

Indicatori	Total	1920-1950	1961-1990	1991-2010
Studenti înscriși	201.058	17.783	61.731	121.544
Licențiați (Absolvenți)	32.935	2.133	10.772	20.030
Absolvenți/Studenti (%)	16,38	12,00	17,45	16,48

Sursa: Popescu Gheorghe, *Învățământul Economic Superior din Ardeal 1920-2010*, Editura Imprimeria Ardealul, Cluj-Napoca, 2010

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¹¹ Popescu Gheorghe, idem

Digital manual: e-learning component

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Abstract: *Manualele sunt cartea de vizită a unui sistem de educație. Marele avantaj al manualelor digitale este că pot valorifica deplin componenta "activă". În această viziune, diferența dintre un manual digital și un manual tipărit este dată de faptul că un manual digital nu poate fi tipărit fără a i se pierde calitatea definitorie de a fi interactiv – pentru a nu mai vorbi de alte caracteristici care i-ar putea fi integrate precum instrumentele de social networking și adnotările (sociale).*

Cuvinte cheie: manual digital, e-learning

Pentru cei ce studiază conceptul de e-learning întrebarea cheie este *Cum să aducem noile tehnologii mai aproape de școală și în beneficiul elevilor?*. Răspunsul la această întrebare vizează următoarele probleme¹²:

(1) nevoile reale ale elevilor și ale profesorilor în ce privește suportul pentru învățare autentică pe care pot să-l aducă noile tehnologii. – Încă nu există o analiză a valorii adăugate a TIC pe care o poate aduce pentru educație, în special în contextul învățământului românesc și care să răspundă la întrebări precum: Care instrumente TIC pot constitui un avantaj pentru învățare și pentru ce tipuri de conținuturi pot fi recomandate? Este nevoie de manuale digitale sau este suficientă o utilizare avizată și mai frecventă a resurselor existente deja la dispoziția școlilor și a elevilor? În ce zonă așteptăm efecte, de ce natură și în ce orizont de timp? etc.

(2) nevoia sistemului de coerență internă și consistență, de interconectare a instruirii asistate de calculator cu ceea ce permite curriculumul (prin modul în care este construit), cu ceea ce știu să facă și cu ce pot face profesorii (datorită celor învățate pe parcursul formării inițiale și continue, precum și experienței), cu resursele tehnologice disponibile în școală (inclusiv personalul de suport, asistență, administrare a acestor tehnologii);

(3) nevoile procesului de educație, pornind de la adecvarea metodelor la obiectivele educaționale și până la nevoia de timp (considerând o activitate didactică cu componentă TIC mai degrabă cronofagă, cel puțin într-o primă etapă).

Dar ce reprezintă un manual digital? Iată două definiții care ne pot clarifica acest concept¹³:

¹² Istrate, Olimpius, (2013), Manuale digitale sau Cum migrăm către un mediu educațional avansat tehnologic. Ce așteptări avem astăzi de la un program de implementare a manualelor electronice?. În: Elearning.Romania Nr. 89/2013. București: Institutul pentru Educație.

1. Un curs universitar digital reprezintă un produs software ce este utilizat de studenți și profesori, de regulă prin intermediul unei platforme de e-Learning sau pe iPad (cu iBooks), Tablet PC. Acesta oferă accesul comod și eficient la cunoștințele și informațiile cele mai noi, metode noi și eficiente de predare, învățare și evaluare a cunoștințelor, instruire și formare permanentă, în scopul obținerii unei experiențe privind înțelegerea și stăpânirea de cunoștințe și competențe într-un domeniu al cunoașterii. Un curs universitar clasic în format tipărit (print), chiar în format pdf, conține reprezentări statice ale unor descrieri de teme și subiecte, explicații și texte, teoreme și demonstrații, scheme și tabele, grafice și diagrame, etc. Utilizarea noilor tehnologii împreună cu folosirea metodelor moderne pedagogice și psihologice, susținute de instrumente software oferite de calculator, dau posibilitatea cadrelor didactice să conceapă și să proiecteze cursuri universitare digitale într-o nouă abordare atât științifică, cât și pedagogică. Astfel, se pot realiza reprezentări dinamice pentru descrierea și studiul proceselor și fenomenelor pentru abordări și soluții noi în cercetare, pentru schimbări și interpretări noi ale unor teorii, modele și metodologii

2. Manualul digital este definit ca un model funcțional prin care se asigură trecerea de la reproducerea informației la crearea cunoașterii de către elevi. În baza cercetării fundamentale și aplicative am structurat conținutul eBook. Am elaborat deja prototipuri funcționale, iar evaluarea calitativă făcută în interiorul școlilor a relevat că profesorii și elevii sunt pregătiți să îmbrățișeze noua tehnologie. Am reușit să creăm efectul de imersivitate pe care îl așteptăm de la un manual digital. Lecțiile nu sunt simple pdf-uri transpuse pe ecran, ci sunt însoțite de secvențe audio, video, animații, simulări, activități în laboratoare reale sau virtuale, iar în e-portofoliu pot fi salvate toate temele și încercările elevilor. Astfel, lecțiile capătă sunet și culoare, simulările incită imaginația, iar temele devin adevărate provocări pentru elevi. Manualul digital astfel elaborat oferă sistemului de învățământ național o viziune inovativă asupra abordării curriculare și asupra activității la clasă și în afara ei, prin caracterul interactiv al conținuturilor învățării și prin utilizarea tehnologiei touch-screen pe care tableta o pune la dispoziția elevilor. Mulți dintre ei sunt deja familiarizați cu utilizarea tabletelor și a smartphone-urilor, astfel ca interacțiunea va fi una firească. Avem în vedere crearea unor proiecte prin care aceste manuale să ajungă la elevi.

Pentru a implementa aceste noi modalități de abordare a unui parcurs de învățare, cadrele didactice trebuie¹⁴:

1. să aibă o pregătire superioară în domeniul de cunoaștere;
2. să aibă experiență privind instruirea asistată de calculator și instrumentele TIC pentru educație;

¹³ Vlada, Marin - Manuale digitale și resurse universitare digitale – întrebări și definiții, În: Elearning.Romania (ISSN 2247-9007) Nr. 89/2013. București: Institutul pentru Educație.

¹⁴ Vlada, Marin – op. cit.

3. să cunoască și să poată implementa metodele și modalitățile oferite de pedagogia modernă în contextul utilizării noilor tehnologii IT.

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Better teachers - better school

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Abstract: Being a teacher requires being a good actor in the classroom for students, to be able to convey them the emotion and the desire to deepen certain content. It is important the way the teacher manages to stimulate curiosity and to maintain students' interest in living the joy of their personal discoveries.

The goal is to keep the attention and interest of the public as much time and to resolve any problems spontaneously. The effective learning is directly proportional to increasing interest from students. There are a number of factors that explain the differences between students, in terms of learning performance (such as: genetic potential, family opportunities, style of thinking / understanding / expression / learning etc.), to which proactive professor has weak influences. However, the teacher has in his hand a key element that can influence student learning and outcomes, namely: Enthusiastic Teaching.

Keywords: interactive strategies, enthusiastic teaching, creativity

To be teacher is undoubtedly the most important and noble profession of humanity because it has direct access to the children's soul and the entire human evolution depends on the efforts of the educators. For this job it is not enough to study three years at the faculty; it takes a long and a lot of dedication, for life. You must have inside, in the heart, in the soul, something like a calling, which makes students listen to you. Teacher's concern regarding the needs of student it is not only to make him understand the science but also to make him feel the excitement to studying it. The way he communicates with the student and using appropriate methods and techniques to stimulate creativity, the teacher may attract his interest, his curiosity and his desire for knowledge. The enthusiasm of the teacher is the key for a good learning in school. This arouses the student interest, maintains his attention and positive attitude. In this way, there is an increase in student motivation which influences the performance, good results obtained by the student in the learning process.

To be a good teacher requires being a good actor in the classroom, to be able to convey to the students emotion and desire to learn more about certain content. It is important the way in which the teacher manages to stimulate the curiosity and maintain the students' interest in living the joy of personal discoveries. The teacher, as an actor on stage, must know very well his role and the content (matter) while being able to create moments/experiences adapted to new situations, unexpected, being able to make creative improvisations and to find alternative solutions. The goal is to keep the attention and interest of the public as much time is necessary to resolve any problems spontaneously. The

effective learning is directly proportional to the increasing interest from the students. There are a number of factors that explain differences between students in terms of learning performance (such as: genetic potential, family opportunities, style of thinking/ understanding /expression/ learning etc.), to which the professor has weak influences.

However, the teacher has in his hand a key element that can influence the student learning and its outcomes, namely: *the enthusiastic teaching*. Through his teaching style, the teacher can contribute significantly to increase or decrease the performances of a student. He can coordinate the student to discover new truths or he can bored him. The way he communicates with the student and using appropriate methods and techniques to stimulate creativity, the teacher may attract his interest, his curiosity and his desire for knowledge.

The enthusiasm of the teacher arouses the student interest, maintains his attention and positive attitude. In this way, there is an increase in student motivation which influences the performance, good results obtained by the student in the learning process. The success creates the potential for a new mobilization, because when he is more confident in his achievements the student also has the courage to try new involvements in the activities proposed by the teacher. The activism of the student leads, through a benefic circuit, to the increase of the teacher enthusiasm. Having students with good results and motivated, teacher is more than willing to make a new effort to support a new interactive learning activity. The interactivity leads to stimulating creative thinking, thorough knowledge, skills and abilities. (see the fig. nr. 1)

But what is an enthusiastic teacher?

The enthusiasm requires energy and expressiveness in assuming roles for creating a suspenseful and a cognitive surprise for students. This is manifested by an animating voice and through the body movements transmitted according to the message. These can be seasoned with humoristic sequences able to revive and regain the attention of the audience . Important in teaching is also the creative way in which the teacher chooses to use existing space and materials to create an efficient environment/learning framework. Also, the teacher's creativity determines how the activity begins as a premise for a good process designed to stimulate a new learning. Neither end of the lesson is neglected, which can maintain the energization in order to cause public interest for the next activity.

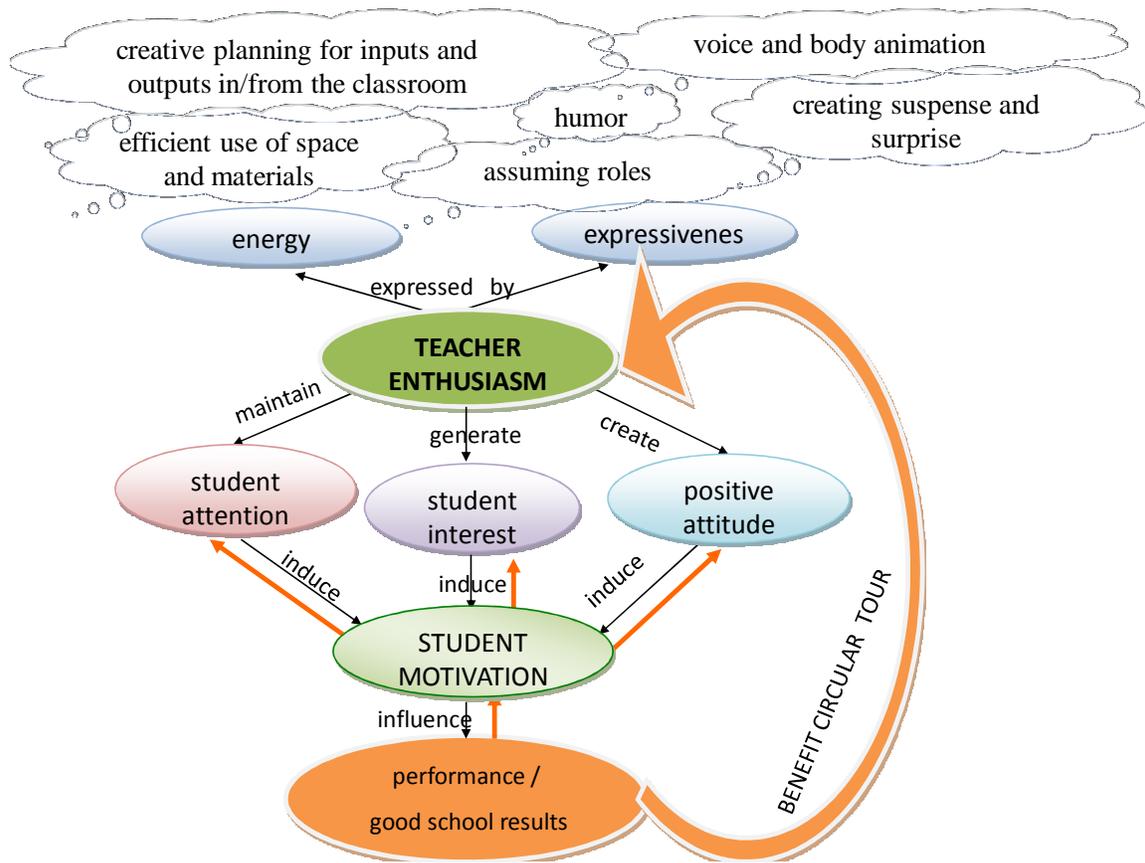


Fig. No. 1. Conceptual map: teacher enthusiasm

The teaching-learning lesson must become an adventure of knowledge in which the child is challenged to participate according to his own powers, meeting challenges and learning situations designed to make him to analyze and examine them, for finding plausible solutions. The teacher's role consists more in stimulating and guidance for students. The motivation arises from the teacher`s enthusiastic participation. The student is involved both in teaching, learning and assessment, and the discipline becomes self-discipline, ensured by the satisfaction of cooperation. "Learning should be fun" - said J. Olsen and Th. W. Nielsen, using an adapted, diverse and exciting methodology. "If learning is not fun - said these authors - we make huge efforts, both the students and the teachers." [1]

A good teacher knows and appreciates/develops the views of students. Their views are like an open"window" to their own reasoning, illustrating how they think and understand the world. Giving them the opportunity to express their views, the teacher stimulates students' confidence in their own forces.

The teacher, as a physician of souls, is that person who gives with love from his knowledge, making a balance in why and how gives from his knowledge so that the trainee soul receives this, as something which is natural, which he needs for its own perfection.

As teachers we must be the discoverers of human values, to seek what is best in people, especially in our students and in any situation. Then, we can be distributors of these beautiful experiences and we can develop these, in all of us (teachers, parents, students). Right words, spoken at the right time can be the most precious gift, supportive and lasting which the teacher can provide to his pupils. Words can create fond memories and those are a flavor for our soul.

As is stated by G. Berger, "the best disciples of a teacher are not those ones who repeats lessons after him, but only those who have awakened the enthusiasm to learn by the teacher where he developed forces to make them to go alone on their roads. "[2] The teacher "must possess a teaching element inside the heart, in the soul and this element is vibrating and influences the pupils: even without opening his mouth, they feel the need to imitate him." [3]

In the pedagogical literature [4], are highlighted three important aspects that characterize a good teacher, according to the student:

- Ability to establish positive interrelations with students (to show that they care about);
- Ability to exercise authority and to provide structure and clarity of rules without doing so in a rigid way, threatening or through the use of punishment;
- Ability to make teaching and learning in a fun way, by using creative teaching strategies.

A successful teacher must "continuously monitor the performance of their students and to have positive expectations on what the students can do". [5]

The secret of the methods used by the teacher consist in the way in which the words are used. The words can convince if its are carefully selected and have the desired effect on those to whom they are addressed. The key is awareness of their impact and to use them in the desired way.

The effectiveness of teaching method is relevant when it has transformative qualities, being understood as the method used by the teacher to make students find themselves their own path to follow, to build their own knowledge. Thus, the student becomes aware not only on the content of a specific field of study but lives also the emotion of studying, motivating his choices and making a thorough learning.

Teaching methodology from postmodern vision focuses on creating and sustaining pleasure of learning, discovering and applying, involving intrinsic motivation (avoiding "learning for obtain the notice"). Important is how the student uses what he has learned, with a focus on a formative way and on developing cognitive processes. Related to that issue, are promoted interaction strategies and cooperative learning.

Considering its role as a facilitator of knowledge, a postmodern teacher has to teach his disciples how to think not what to think. He must "unlock thoughts", to arouse the curiosity and "to ignite minds." [6]

It is important that "the students are still looking for the teacher, if he cause them, maintain and develop the curiosity and the joy of discovery." [7]

The classroom, in a postmodern vision, is regarded as a true research communities, demonstrating the importance of the social learning for all. The goal is not necessarily to train them in formulating questions or problems mentioned, but rather, to help them to discover new ways to ask questions and critical issues;

Teacher's concern is not only to make students understand the science, but also to feel the thrill of studying it. The education in school should be the one to lead individuals to be constantly in a problematize state, a permanent state in which to ask questions and to seek answers.

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INNOVATION AND REFORM IN CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION

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Abstract: Decentralization in education implies redistribution of responsibilities, of decision authority and of the public responsibility for particular educational functions ,from the central level to the local level. The decentralization efficiency should also be available in the added value in education,materialized through the capacity of integrating young graduates into society, based on the acquired professional skills and depending on the local, national and international labour market level.

Decentralization in education involves the redistribution of responsibilities, the decision-making authority and accountability for specific educational appointments from central to local level. Effective decentralization must be reflected in value added in education, by the ability to integrate young graduates in society based on occupational skills and labor market depending on local, national and international level.

Keywords: decentralization,efficiency, quality, risks.

Decentralization in education implies redistributing responsibilities, of decision-making authority and public responsibility for particular educational appointments, from central level to the local level.

Decentralization implies participating of the civil society representatives in the decision-making process (parents, NGO,business environment, professional associations, social partners etc.).

Decentralization in education represents the transfer process of decision-making competencies from the central levels to the local levels and /or organizational ones, for bringing the decision near the beneficiaries of the public education service. Decentralization also implies participating of non-administrative factors in the decision-making process (parents, civil society, business environment, professional associations etc.)

Decentralizing the pre-university education represents transferring authority, responsibility and resources with respect to making decisions and the general and financial management to the particular schools and the local community.

Decentralizing is not an end in itself. It is a part of the national decentralization strategy and aims at creating an organized education system, administrated and financed according to the European rigours with respect to assuring the quality of the instructive-educational process, the free equal and full access, of all children and young people to the educational process, making the educational offer adequate to the interests and needs of the direct and indirect beneficiaries.

The decentralization efficiency should be available in the added value in education , materialized through the ability of integrating the young graduated people into the society on the basis

of their acquired professional abilities and depending on the local, national and international level labour market. Decentralizing should not cause imbalances and distortions in organizing, leading and supporting, from a national level, the education system. This process should ensure the clear, balanced and well defined allotment of the decision power among the representative organisms institutions of the local and regional communities, on the one hand, and the ones on the national level, on the other hand. Also, decentralizing the decision does not exclude, but involves developing the monitoring, control and evaluating system, on behalf of the local community, but also of the specialized institutions and bodies alike.

The proposed decentralization model promotes the free access to education, the equity and the quality of the educational services. și calitatea.

From the perspective of durable development and globalising education, for creating the necessary premises for ensuring quality in education and efficiently using the resources, decentralizing becomes dynamic approach, which implies involvement and accountability, on the one hand, as well as strategic thinking and control, on the other hand.

The decentralization model which we propose awards to the school the role of main decision factor, ensuring participating and consulting all social interested actors.

Fields in which decentralization is applied

The decision transfer, from the central level to the local level, took place in different rhythms, in the various fields of the system – curriculum, resources, managing the local school, personnel policies etc, in a legislative framework, in which contradictory provisions persist, thus engendering certain inconherences and malfunctions in the system.

The expected results of the decentralization process

- Making the activity efficient and increasing the performances of the educational institutions; at central level - through relieving them of the current administrative tasks and concentrating on elaborating and monitoring the implementation of educational policies; at local level – through increasing the degree of accountability of the local community and of the school; at the school level – through consolidating the autonomy and the capacity of managing the financial and human resources.

- Democratizing the educational system through consulting / involving the community and the other beneficiaries of the educative process in taking decisions and assuring quality based on self-evaluating, external evaluating and public responsibility. The decision and consulting mechanisms should involve both the structures of the education system, and the external partners or the beneficiaries of the educational services (the parents)

- Insuring transparency in taking decisions and managing the public funds allotted to education.

- Insuring the access and of the quality in education through allotting funds on the basis of the costs per pupil. Decentralizing shall enable getting near the situations and the particular context of each community, shall stimulate interventions focused on the local problems: cultural and ethnical diversity, increasing participation, inclusive approaches, social-economical discrepancies.

- Increasing the relevance of the educational services offer through insuring a a btter correlation with the loval needs, with the various situations and problems of the communities, with the needs and and the individual interests of the pupils.

- Stimulating the innovation, the professional responsibilitiy and of the public responsibility at the teachers', school managers' and pupils' level, through the school level transfer of the decision power, with respect to budget execution and the personnel policies, but also through increasing the the curriculum share, at the decision of the school. Approaching the financial, administrative, educational (curriculare) and of human resources to the needs and to the interests of the beneficiaries shall lead to a better allotment of resources, to stimulating the partnership in education and to diversifying the ducational functions of the school.

Proposals of decentralization: fields and functions

1. Curriculum

The main objective targeted by the curriculum decentralization is the one of emphasizing the relevance and the aequacy of the educational offer in relation with the neds and the local interesses and the pupils' needs. An important instrument is increasing, gradually și diferencialyl, the curriculum share at the dcision of the school (CDS), within the national curriculum, depending on the education level. The CDS ratio, the possible minimum and maximum limits of the latter on , shall be controlled by MEdC, upon the poposal of their specialized institutions.

The local factors shall enjoy more freedom in stucturing the curriculum offer, taking into account the following:

- the local need of labour force qualification;
- the development potential of the zone and of thr school;
- the material and human resources, available at school disposal;
- the needs and the interests of the pupils;
- realizing of educationa partnerships (school/business environment/community) for insuring practical training of the pupils in concrete situations.

2. Human resources

The human resources management in education is regulated, at national level, through various categories of normative acts and the decetralized execution of the following functions is realized :

1. Insuring the human resources

- a. Initial formation and certifying
- b. Planning
- c. Recruiting, selecttng and engaging
- d. Ending of labour relations

2. Motivation

- a. Working time and salary payment
- b. Granting financial incentives and penalizing

- c. Guiding, monitoring and internal control
- d. Internal evaluation of professional performances

3. Forming and developing human resources

- a. Continuous forming
- b. Professional development
- c. Career management. Promoting

4. Maintaining human resources

- a. Discipline, security and health
- b. Counseling

3. Management and administration

The public local administration shall be involved in taking decisions with respect to:

- the school network: structured per branches, profiles, specializations and professional qualifications, depending on the local educational needs; formation, reorganizing, monitoring.

- Heritage development and organizational development.

The school leadership, The Board of Directors respectively and its Manager shall have decision power with respect to patrimony administration, protection and development.

The school shall be led by a Board of Directors, in tripartite composition:

- representatives of the parents,
- representatives of the pupils (for the classes 9-12/13),
- representatives of the economic agents (compulsorily for the professional and technical education , as appropriate for the seven types of education)

- representatives of other similar institutions and organizations of the local community;

- representatives of the local public authorities ;

- representatives of the school..

The School Director shall be, as per law, a member of the Board of Director , nevertheless he may not hold the office of President of the latter one.

4. Financing

Financing of the education shall be achieved, mainly, from four sources:

- The state budget – shall totally ensure funds for staff costs and textbooks for the compulsory education and partially for grants, pupils' transport. As against the current situation, a minimum amount intended to defray the material costs and services shall be provided from the State Budget. Also, it shall support financing of certain annual and multiannual education investment programs, as well as of certain pupils' social support programs;

- The County Council budget – shall grant amounts from the local budgets offset, for the education. Also, it shall support financing of certain annual and multiannual education investment programs, as well as of certain pupils' social support programs;

- The Local Council budget – shall allot funds to the schools, from their own achieved revenues funds. Also, it shall support financing of certain annual and multiannual education investment programs, as well as of certain pupils' social support programs;

- Own revenues of the school

Bugetul alocat școlii, ca sumă globală, va acoperi cel puțin costul / elev.

5. Relations: school – local community

Unrolling the whole educational proces shall take place observing the following requirements:

- the local council participates in framing the local interest educational policies, in implementing the school infrastructure development programs, they achieve the school financing audit, and the decisions concerning the current activity shall be taken at the school level by the Manager;

- the local council responds to national character government initiatives concerning education development;

- the school leadership is exerted to the benefit of the pupils and of the community it belongs to;

- the school accomplishes an active partnership with the local community – parents, economic agents, church, organizations and foundations, other schools etc. – first of all, through the representatives of the latter one in the board of directors;

- the school reports and informs the local community about the effects of the unrolled financial and administrative management, as well as with respect to the quality of education.

Decentralization risks and policies to diminish them

There is a risk of some failure due to the resistance of certain factors to the renewal proces or due to the inappropriate invervention of poltitics in the hiring and promotion processes for the staff, or in the way of allotting fund.

The risks may be registered as far as the stages of dentralization shall not be well defined and shall not run coherently, controlled and the the respective deadlines. The weak points of this process might be:

- a) insufficient managerial training of the involved staff;
- b) the ineffectiveness of some of the local and national cooperation structures;
- c) the insufficient attractiveness and variety of the educational offer;
- d) the low degree of mobility in the education system;
- e) the low intra- and inter-institutional competition level ;
- f) the lack of attractiveness of the teacher's profession;
- g) difficulties of understanding the educational problems of the decision makers at local level;
- h) insufficient allocation of resources in infrastructure, logstics, communication systems etc.;
- i) poor initial and continuous forming of teachers;
- j) emergency of imbalances between schools – localities – regions;
- k) misintepretation and improper applicationof the law.

A sudden decentralization might have undesirable effects and which, coming out of control, could lead to the destabilization of the education system.

Policies of diminishing risks

- interministerial cooperation in the field of decentralization, according to the law;
- harmonization of the education specific legislation with the national legislation, in the public administration field;
 - developing clear methodologies/guidelines, coherent and adequate to the target groups;
 - providing the forming frame for all the stakeholders;
 - promotion, communication, debating information, concerning the content and the effects of the decentralization;
- suitable distribution of specific management roles and functions between institutions participating in the process of decentralization;
- internal and external monitoring of the decentralization process during the implementation of the strategy.

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Economic Education between Formal, Non-Formal and Informal

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Abstract: If we consider how to effectively deal with economic education, we should start from the questions that entrepreneurs use to ask themselves when they want to start a business. Their goal is to make it profitable. It is therefore necessary to answer to the following questions: What do we produce? How to produce?, Where and by what means? In other words: How to teach students? How much should we teach?, Where and by what means to teach?. Economic education can be achieved in formal, non-formal and informal ways, the share of each structure depending on structure of the educational system, its resources, the principles that govern it, and the ways chosen by the teachers.

Keywords: economic education, formal, non-formal, informal education

1. Lifelong learning - "a lifestyle of modern man"

„Lifelong education” is being developed around the world, resulting in changes and diversification of educational systems. This development appears normal and is mostly conducted under the auspices of social contradictions: the growing role of the voluntary and non-profit associations, the ongoing search for new values and cultural identities in response to various forms of cultural hegemony, economic crisis, unemployment and the increase of the free time.

2. Integration of economical types of education

2.1. The specificity of economic education

Educational offer for economic disciplines at pre-university level is formed on the basis of centralized decision by the authorities. Beneficiaries (students) are subordinated according to objective / territorial criteria, and transfers are relatively small in number, without changing school offer. It also does not affect the bid price, secondary education being supported by the state.

Regarding the structure of the educational offer individual provider has reduced freedom, according to the curriculum and syllabus. School curriculum has a share of 5% -20% of the total curriculum. Economic education can take up to 1 hour / week, starting third grade until eighth grade, these hours may be supplemented by the inclusion of economic, interdisciplinary activities. At high school economic education changes its weight by their profile, but the offer of economic education

(core curriculum) in the upper cycle oscillates around 3% of the total hours, tending to a maximum of 6% -7% in social science classes and the service profile.

Demand of economic education comes from students, especially high school students who choose technological high profile services, or theoretical high, humanities, social sciences specialization or those who chose to enroll in this optional curricular area available in their school.

In Romania the demand has declined in the last decade and a half - partly due to the decreasing number of suppliers and human resources available in public schools, although in recent years one can observe a slight recovery, especially in the private supply of economic education.

Comparative educational studies show consensus opinion on the role of economic education as an essential part of the general culture of citizen¹⁵ and the preparation for a globalized, emerging economy.

2.2. Types of economic education

If we consider how to effectively deal with economic education, we should start from the questions that entrepreneurs use to ask themselves when they want to start a business. Their goal is to make it profitable. It is therefore necessary to answer to the following questions: What do we produce? How to produce?, Where and by what means? In other words: How to teach students? How much should we teach?, Where and by what means to teach?. Economic education can be achieved in formal, non-formal and informal ways, the share of each structure depending on structure of the educational system, its resources, the principles that govern it, and the ways chosen by the teachers.

2.2.1. Formal education

From the conceptual point of view, formal educational includes all activities and actions carried out at the institutional level (in kindergartens, schools, colleges, universities, training centers, etc.) in the education system, planned and organized by level and year studies with well-defined education purposes. It is done in a rigorous training process achieved in time and space: plans, manuals, courses, learning materials etc.¹⁶. Etymologically, the term originated in Latin ,formalis' which means organized formally. In this sense, formal education is official education.

Economic education provides basic economic knowledge for economic activity, consumer and producer exchange, money and interdependence, efficiency and productivity, and market price, supply and demand, competition, revenue, role in the economy, growth and economic stability, unemployment, inflation, free trade and trade barriers, exchange rate and trade balance, globalization

¹⁵ G. Georgescu, *Eficiența educației economice*, Teză de doctorat, A.S.E.- Facultatea de Economie Generală, București, 2006, p. 5

¹⁶ S. Cristea, *Psihologie și pedagogie școlară*, Constanța, Ovidius University Press, 2002, p. 212

and economic integration¹⁷. These concepts were chosen taking into account the role that each individual plays in society, from consumer to producer, who must make a series of choices.

There are also a sensitive side: How much to teach? How much to deepen a theme, especially now when there are alternative textbooks at undergraduate economic education? It is difficult to answer, but the syllabus for the baccalaureate exam can be considered as a landmark.

2.2.2. Non-formal education

Non-formal education means student interaction with cultural institutions (theaters, museums, libraries, etc.), NGOs or other institutions for educational purposes, which have staff specializing in specific areas of activity, often with training and teaching, but not necessarily with temporal finalities determined at project level. The contents are organized on a particular issue and completion of milestones not always require certification. But in this case, there is great freedom to choose and organize the themes and content of education as opposed to formal education.

Moreover, non-formal economic education brings a number of direct benefits to students: opportunities for capitalizing life experiences, skills and abilities necessary for life, but also access to a better service, better paid. Non-formal education limits reported in the literature is the fact that this type of education includes programs sometimes too flexible, focused only on short-term objectives and too much "freedom" methodological educators.

In Romania non-formal education offer is diverse - many student organizations, foundations, associations that aim to create a bridge between the world of corporate, business and future employees, students today. In secondary education stands out Junior Achievement Romania, a non-profit foundation, whose mission is preparing the younger generation to succeed in a market economy. Students are involved in programs and projects, competitions, by which they are introduced in economic education, achieving at least economic literacy.

2.2.3. Informal education

The last form of education is informal. The term comes from the Latin, *informis / informalis*, meaning spontaneous, unexpected. Informal education includes all everyday influences, spontaneous, heterogeneous, incidental, bulky quantitatively not deliberately aimed to the achievement of educational goals, but with educational effects, occupying the largest share of time in the life of the individual; these spontaneous influences, are not pedagogically selected, processed and organized¹⁸.

¹⁷ M. Lăcătuș, *Învățământul preuniversitar și educația economică*, Teză de doctorat, București, A.S.E.- Facultatea de Economie, 2008, p. 47

¹⁸ Link Education and Practice, *Direcții de dezvoltare a formelor educației*, [<http://leap.ro/Downloads/Directii%20de%20dezvoltare%20a%20formelor%20educatiei.pdf>]

The need for informal economic education is correlated with development of the knowledge economy, where the central role is development of the competitiveness. For the employer, diplomas, certificates and other qualifications is a benchmark in the company and the labor market.¹⁹

3. Valorisation of synergies between formal, non-formal and informal economic education

3.1. Brief overview

Types of education were defined traditionally, as we explained above, in formal, non-formal and informal education. This distinction is valid only in theory because in reality, all three functions simultaneously, forming a complex whole.

Thus we will try to highlight the interaction and connection between all three forms of education as part of lifelong education. To that end, we followed the connections between the elements of formal, non-formal and informal education in economic education for high school students through comparison curriculum syllabus for economic, the upper cycle, Class XI, Program "Applied Economics" held by Junior Achievement Romania and influences of economic informal education in the process of the student training.

3.2. Formal Economic Education

In order to conform to the needs of the market economy, students are familiarized with a curriculum that includes:

- *An explanatory dimension*, aiming at acquiring knowledge about the economic activity of the rational behavior of consumers and producers, as well as mechanisms of market economy;
- *The normative dimension*, regarding the behavior and decisions of individual as an economic agent, in accordance with the norms, principles and laws of economic activity;
- *Reflexive dimension*, which takes into account the specific skills of critical thinking and practical dimension, following the formation of attitudes and practice of rational economic behavior.

3.3. Economic Non-Formal Education

For exemplification we have chosen the program, Applied Economics' Foundation Junior Achievement Romania. It is included in the series of economic education programs that help students to experience real-life roles: consumer, employee, and contractor (through computer simulations or in the classroom, role play scenarios, analysis of case studies).

The program Applied Economics consists of a series of activities for students aged between 16 and 19 years, providing case studies presented by an authentic learning: basic economic concepts are

¹⁹ O. Ciobanu, Educația economică în România, București, Ed. ASE, 2003, p. 48-49

accessible, but are also linked to everyday life. Moreover, it creates a range of skills required of students in the future, as an employee or contractor, such as data analysis, research, charts construction, documentation, critical thinking, data interpretation, decision making, teamwork, negotiation. The topics addressed are: What is the economy, supply, demand and market prices, business in a free economy, business financing, production and productivity, competition in business, government and economy, money and financial institutions, economic stability, international trade and economy global-achievements and challenges.

The program can be done in 12 to 24 hours of training and can be included as optional/auxiliary for applied economics and entrepreneurial economy²⁰. Moreover, Junior Achievement Romania offers free materials for this course, but also the participation of volunteers from the business community.

3.4. Informal Economic Education

In economic education, informal element is essential. Students learn new things in the museum, home, library or park. This information is not always accompanied by the correct explanation for the concept or process described. Lacking a constant evaluation activity and organization, informal education may have negative impact. For example, discussions about the causes of the current economic crisis bring into debate similar situations such as the Great Depression of 1929, the concepts of inflation, unemployment, minimum wage, but they are not explained properly, by people with specific training. Children assimilate some knowledge incorrectly, partially or not at all understood, for later use in other contexts.

But there are a number of initiatives such as youth groups that are formed for discussion on specific topics of interest and receive the help of volunteers, sometimes specializing in the field, designed to encourage participants to think about their own experiences, situations life and discuss them with other members, clarifying the economic concepts they use in the discussions.

4. Conclusions

It is important for students to be offered the necessary element for the proper use of economic terms and concepts, both through formal educational institutions (such as schools) and through non-formal educational providers such as NGOs and other associations to promote economic education and not the least, encouraging informal education activities through discussions on economic interest. Career success as an individual is given by the knowledge, skills owned, and the way in which the student, as future employee or employer will know how to react to everyday problems they will be faced.

²⁰ <http://www.economieaplicata.jaromania.org/>

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THE ROLE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION IN TEACHER TRAINING

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Abstract: Teacher training increasingly concerned the representatives of educational policies and the researchers involved, especially that it represents the key to reforming education, and thus to reform society.

As a basic research study aims to determine the possibilities of application of cognitive and constructivist approaches to teacher training education in terms of entrepreneurship, as evident for near real experience for a balanced development of training and quality dimensions of personality, so the formed as a product of formal and informal education can prove the understanding realities, anticipate effective solutions to solve critical problems, arguments and relational act, take action to solve critical management, human resources development, environmental education and effective use natural resources, economic and social. Emphasis should be placed not on knowledge, but on capacity building, skills, competencies, attitudes, experiences that promote, support education of students / pupils.

The study aims to capitalize on the value of constructivist approach in entrepreneurship education plan and prepare future teachers on dimensions that support professional development, but to support and entrepreneurial training to its students as individuals and as actors in context, environment in which to assert social, professional, economic, and cultural.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial education, mentoring, constructivism, cognitivism

Practical experience of teachers in entrepreneurship is seen as a problem for teacher competence in the field. Is a fact that during initial teacher education curriculum does not refer to entrepreneurial training teachers. We believe it is an urgent need to improve this area, more so as many countries in Eastern Europe provides teachers training courses in entrepreneurship, without a systematic approach.

Training requirement in the student entrepreneurial culture can not be achieved effectively if the teacher is not trained to prove the competent on entrepreneurship education. This case highlights one of the key directions in educational plan-preparing students to change teachers. One of the strategies impact refers to alternative constructivist teaching applied directly in their training, from curriculum.

The initial findings made on a small sample (128 second and third year students, Faculty of Mathematics - Informatics), senses that there is no difficulty switching from traditional to constructivist thinking in teacher training. Initial observations show that training with a constructivist teacher uses a wide range of activities, roles, procedures to ensure its success in developing an entrepreneurial culture in the classroom.

Constructivist teacher is no longer related to the transmission of traditional teaching, but he has the task of organizing context, to prepare various resources essentialized content.

The investigations carried out showed that the students - future teachers are strongly influenced by traditional practice, known to them as learners: teachers still use heuristic strategies - the constructivist realized, because there were presented specialized Romanian literature than fragmentary and in the general context of activating students.

We give the award to a student who made the representations that we have for the role of "enabler", according to previous experience:

Role	Indicated Skills	Greatly	Much	Satisfying	Not at all
Enabler	Organize actions, free development tasks	56%	24%	12%	8%
	Creates opportunities for exploratory learning for all students	48%	28%	14%	10%
	Provides direct contact with situations real cases	40%	39%	16%	5%
	Provides and maintains active learning climate	39%	40%	14%	7%
	Specifies the context of learning, adapted learning strategy students	38%	36%	20%	6%
	Provides tools to direct learning through exploration	25%	39%	24%	12%

Table 1 - Percentage Valuing the powers assigned the role of "enabler" in class

Descending order of specific skills set, depending on the indicator "greatly", highlights the traditions of the traditional practice where teachers use learning strategies of differentiation and activation of students, but these strategies are not necessarily constructivist origin.

The effects of this situation in preparing students for exploratory learning type, entrepreneurship, individually and through collaboration were identified at the beginning of research: students were expected to materialize in the classic lecture, showing difficulties in independent study support materials offered the establishment of free communication relations, in the call for papers. Teaching entrepreneurship can be achieved by involving students in projects and practical activities, the emphasis is on practical learning that is gained real experience in entrepreneurship. Orientation syllabi from content to skills facilitate the inclusion of entrepreneurship in school curricula.

In student-centered education is important for teachers to guide students toward personal recovery experience, to encourage modes of thinking and entrepreneurial skills.

It is essential to provide training courses for teachers who have completed the initial training because in the literature are reported frustration arising teachers change their traditional roles in student-centered, constructivist style:

- Teachers notes that previous teaching experience, with good results in the acquisition of knowledge and skills is not sufficient to respond poorly diversified entrepreneurship education;
- teachers' for curriculum must complete "loading students with more themes, censored thinking, creativity and originality of students;
- Because their initial training teachers see teaching as assimilating knowledge transmitted marginalizing communication, interaction, negotiation;
- Are not trained to redesign roles in the classroom, the educational values for reconsideration in accordance with appropriate measures for their implementation.

In light of these findings we are entitled to say that teachers should have a good understanding of entrepreneurship education, objectives, content and methods thereof. It is important for teachers to go through the same learning process as one that they will use with their students, such as creating an idea and its implementation, the approach in problematized, timely recovery of cognitive experiences gained in non-formal situations and informal, to build their understanding, evaluation acquired skills, as well as evaluating the whole process.

Interest in entrepreneurship initial teacher training is primarily due reconsidering the role of teacher.

It is now recognized the importance of balancing balance between teacher theoretical knowledge and skills pedagogical. Entrepreneurship training initial teacher requires developing a reference framework for curricular design a program for training and / or development of entrepreneurial skills of the teacher.

Methodological framework developed without exhaustively want, because such an approach can be approached in various ways, can be a valuable tool for illustration, we intend to determine a set of roles and skills that determine success constructivist teaching in action needed entrepreneurship.

Regardless of specialty that teaches profile of the teacher in terms of teaching entrepreneurship skills and competence include specific skills that focus on **promoting and facilitating learning** by asking questions of understanding, making direct experience using the continuous feedback site. It is also necessary to ensure exploratory learning opportunities, enabling students to apply their ideas, solutions and other situations. All this in a climate of individual and collaborative learning, allowing debate ideas, solutions, promoting student motivation for proposing the advantages. Professor aims to capitalize epistemic curiosity expectations, interests, presenting workloads as exploration and solving problematic situations for varied directly.

Teacher has the role **to stimulate** the free expression of students, by asserting autonomy, initiative, and their opinions, **to train, practice animate exploration**, processing data analysis, and application in different situations diversifying differentiated tasks.

Teacher activity is oriented towards **guiding and mentoring** students to conduct direct exploration, solving tasks, providing points of support, opportunities for understanding.

In entrepreneurship education an important role is **communication and moderation** by asserting the role of nurse, counselor, stimulating teacher's guide, participating in group discussions, with its interpretation, argumentation without manipulation.

Two other important roles returning to the teacher are of classroom manager and evaluator. The heart of entrepreneurship education is the development and implementation of a project by the students. The teacher must have the necessary skills to support students during this process, so we include a new variable, namely the leadership as a process of mobilization, encouragement, training, guiding students in individual and group activities.

In conclusion, we can say that the most effective way to ensure the teacher competence in the field of entrepreneurship education is to be compulsory subject of study in initial teacher education.

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New education strategies to improve courses quality of PhD Marketing students

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Abstract: School is the education institute which has the role to prepare students, to cultivate their personality and continuously improving their knowledge. It follows the individual development and integration on the labour market. The present article illustrates the perception regarding the educational activities of current PhD followers in Marketing. This research will provide important information on how the activity should be conducted so that the current and future PhD students will be satisfied within the courses quality. The study will serve to reveal the main factors influencing the perception and the importance in PhD students behaviour. After data compilation, there will be provided the necessary information regarding the students goals on issues that need to be improved for the good evolution of education.

Keywords: Education strategies, PhD students, Courses quality;

Introduction

Perception is the process that determines the individual to respond to certain factors. People act and react to certain actions based on perceptions that they have and they give a certain significance to environmental factors (Arnold E., Price L., Zinkhan G., Consumers, 2002, p. 309). Young people play an important role in society, and therefore their needs and wishes regarding to educational programs must be constantly reviewed. Adolescents perception about the way that various activities should be conducted in the educational institutions is very important, representing the starting point in outlining educational strategies (Guadagnin R., Ferneda E., H. A. do Prado, and G. M. F. dos Santos, 2011, pp 129-133). Students perception can be influenced by a number of factors such as: culture, family, friends, motivations, previous experience.

Students perception regarding educational services

Education represents the entire measures applied for the creation and development of the intellectual, moral and physical characteristics of the individuals. In a society which is constantly changing, the purpose of education is comprehensive and permanent with particular implications in the development of individuals. Due to constant changes in the levels of society, people are forced to continuously adapt to changes of the environment. Education is a constance value in a persons life and its effects are felt at different stages in the evolution of personality. In the last years the

” permanent education” concept has been developed, representing a new kind of education and it has the role to determine the student to continuously improve, to acquire new knowledge and learn whenever they have the opportunity.

The students perception regarding the university that they learn into, is a key element that provides valuable information on how work should be organized so that the university will have a positive image among students. Regarding educational services, we can not talk about feeling through all senses because services can not be perceived through taste, touch or smell. In this case an important role has the component that can make them tangible like: the personal of the institution (the teachers and auxiliary personal), the facilities offered by tertiary institutions, access to various facilities, the tuition and fees of the course. All these elements are designed to create the image of the institution in the consumers mind and to positionate it among competitors.

The student perception regarding the courses within the program study is influenced by both the teaching process and the achievements in the analyzed field. Previous studies on this topic indicate that there is a close relationship between students attitude towards school and the development of science in the research field. More than that, an important role regarding perception has also the professors teaching method, representing a strong connection between science and student.

In the last period of time, the educational institutions had started to adapt a marketing vision placing the student first and his needs, also offering high quality services. Students are searching for study programs that can offer them unique and memorable experiences and the high competition between universities has increased the level expected by students, who are looking for diversified services that can satisfy their own desires (Ravindran Sudharani.D., Kalpana M., 2012, pp.401-410). Students satisfaction regarding services offered by a university has the role to increase the confidence of student in their own forces and this in turn leads to the development of certain skills in the studied field.

Research regarding the perception of PhD students from The Bucharest Academy of Economic Studies in the Marketing field.

The current article has the purpose to study the perception of PhD students of the Marketing Faculty, regarding the activities conducted during the PhD Program. The main objectives are: the degree of satisfaction regarding the PhD Program followed, students view on how the activity of this Program should be organized and how the knowledge acquired during this Program helped them to find a job. This research has been conducted between 04.04.2013 and 11.04.2013 in Bucharest. To obtain the necessary information has been prepared a questionnaire that was loaded on the eSurveysPro platform. To achieve the objectives mentioned above, data were collected from both secondary and primary resources. From the category of primary resources we mention: previous research conducted by The Bucharest Academy of Economic Studies to determine the students satisfaction regarding the activities made during the program.

The primary sources were obtained through a questionnaire that was posted on eSurveysPro platform for online data recording. Survey link was sent to email addresses of currently enrolled students in the PhD Program in Marketing. The community studied is represented by Marketing PhD students regardless of their academic year. The survey unit identifies with the observation unit and it is represented by Marketing PhD students.

In the Faculty of Marketing are estimated 65 PhD students. The current research was made for a number of 24 persons. The most important aspect of any investigation is to develop the questionnaire. It has 16 questions and it was distributed to respondents to identify their perception regarding the PhD Marketing program. The analysis revealed the following:

7 (29%) respondents are in their first year of study, 9 (38%) are in the second year of study and 8 (33%) in the third year. Regarding the status on the labour market of the respondents 66,7% have a stable job right now while 36% don't have a working place. The ones that have a job are working in: Marketing (64%), Management (6%), Financial (6%), Accountancy (6%), Medical (6%), and also in other fields (12%) like: IT or Customer Relationship. We can see that a great part of the respondents work in the same area that they choose to prepare their PhD thesis, while 36% work in other fields. In spite of this, the PhD theses are elaborate in the same field that they work in, so the ones who work in the medical field, financial or management they try to apply marketing in their activity. We observe the link between the status on the labour market and the research field of the PhD thesis. Regarding the labor market inclusion of respondents, most PhD students are working for about two years, closely followed by those who work for a year or less than one year. We see the opportunity offered by doctoral studies in conducting also other activities outside the research ones. Those who work for more than two years are making their thesis based on the field they work in and try to apply marketing in their daily activity.

Regarding the PhD specialization most opted for: Services Marketing, Online Marketing, Marketing Research or Informatic Systems, Medical Marketing, Social Marketing, Consumer Behaviour or Ecological Marketing. We see the diversity of the fields analyzed in terms of marketing, the PhD students are trying to create behavioral models and various strategies that can be implemented at their level. Regarding the main reasons that have led respondents to pursue doctoral studies in order of importance are: desire to become a teacher, the pleasure of working in research and the big amount of information obtained in the reference field. Another reason that led to the decision to pursue these courses was to overcome their limits. Getting a better job or obtaining additional income is not among the priorities of the respondents. The main reason for young doctoral students to follow PhD Program is rather to get a personal satisfaction that takes more than a desire to overcome their own limits and not to get a material reward or to be promoted at work.

Regarding on how the activities should be conducted, most students believe that there shouldn't be a timetable that they must follow. Moreover, they think there should exist a series of conferences where the PhD students can discuss on various topics, and a series of workshops to help

them preparing the final work. PhD students considered inadequate the idea of extending the period of study, wishing at the same time changing the way in which their work is valued.

89.47% of respondents believe that the doctoral studies will be helpful in the future. Regarding their satisfaction: overall they are satisfied with the doctoral activity and the involvement of this teacher in making the final paper and quality sources recommended by the profesor. They present a slight degree of dissatisfaction regarding the existance of specialty books in the library of the Bucharest Academy of Economic Studies in and in terms of electronic resources available. PhD students strongly agree with the statement that the specialty literature helps them to become teachers, most students going through special courses to acquire this profession. They believe that doctoral studies helps to specialize in a certain area, being in the same time a major consumer of financial resources. However, respondents feel that the activities they carry out also bring some extra income because they have scholarships and their are payed by the teaching hours. They are in a slight disagreement regarding the social status offered by doctoral studies but they consider that it has stronger influence in their personal development. The analysis shows that many of the respondents want to become teachers, dedicating their entire activity to self-studing and currently they don't have a stable job. At the same time, there are students with stable jobs and they follow doctoral studies to specialize in the field in which they operate.

Limitations of the study

To confirm the above statements, future specialized studies will be necessary to support or contradict the results presented. Undoubtedly, it is possible that a number of relevant variables have been omitted. In this case other studies are required to include variables with significant impact to demonstrate the presented statements. Regarding the main limitations of the research it should be noted that the study was conducted on a small number of respondents, which does not allow us to extrapolate the results. Future research can be conducted on a larger sample to provide valuable information regarding the PhD Program. A higher number of respondents can offer significant answers that can develop a new educational strategy. Moreover the questionnaire was distributed online, so we are not sure if it was filled exclusively by the target audience. Thus to avoid these errors it can be made a field research among PhD students, in this way we have the assurance of accurate answers that we can rely on. This analysis is relevant only for factors that contribute to students perception, besides these there are a number of elements that have the ability to influence behaviour of target audience. In this situation future research can be carried out taking into consideration other important factors in the consumer behaviour of educational services.

Conclusion and recommendation

This study gave us relevant information about students perception regarding the PhD Program they are following. This paper can be considered the starting point in the development of further research based on this topic and it offered us an overview and provided the main elements that should be implemented for the doctoral programs so that students will show a high degree of satisfaction. In this case, the faculty will have to consider the views of students to create a conference so that PhD students can have the opportunity to exchange information and learn from each other. It also can organise workshops on different themes of discussion to develop the strategic thinking of the students. All this amount of information can help the Marketing Faculty to reschedule its communication strategy in order to create a package that fulfills the needs and desires of the students. Starting from this study, it can be created a behavioral model, based on the key attributes that contribute to student satisfaction. A similar study could be done also in other universities from the country that offer doctoral programs, both to improve their activity level and to increase students satisfaction.

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School – Where to? Is it a global or a local community institution?

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Abstract: This paper treats a complex and actual subject: which is today school's specific – an institutions that responds to the pressure of globalization or an institution that belongs to the local community?

The answer is complicated and complex. The school is subdued to multiple global and also local pressures. It must educate citizens belonging to the global world, capable of integrating themselves social and professional at a European level and whose certificates and competence can be recognized and manifested in the global society. On the other hand, the school is influenced by the local community specific in which it functions, it must educate people that are conscious of their role inside the community so that they can pass on the local values and to reproduce social models based on traditions, customs and cultural elements.

We propose a theoretical analysis of the global and local influences on the school and an analysis model for the school as a part of the local community that can be adapted and used by those interested in the school development (school managers, teachers, representatives of the local and central institutions, NGOs) as a complex institution that contributes both to integrating the global trends and to the local development.

Keywords: globalization, local development, educational partnership.

1. Social change – In between global and local

The important political, social and economical changes of the contemporary society often pushes us to wonder what our identity is, what are our values and what is the direction of change.

Today, we witness a strong global influence, a flattening of the social practices, especially in the economical field. Globalization, started economically and socially with encouraging results, generated unexpected effects, most of times harmful, on a cultural level. The current economical crises are assigned to both the economical and the axiological dimension.

In our contemporary society we have on one side a strong global influence that implies ignoring local aspects and individual identities and on the other side we have a tendency to „defend” and affirm local identities, local values and local specific.

In social and economic practices we find the tendency to promote local specific on a global level (the differentiation of local markets, the promotion of cultural diversity in order to get the consumer number growing for all kinds of products) and also a levelling of the consumers' habits. Simultaneous tendencies of promoting local specific on a global level and of individualisation on a local level got the name „glocalization” (R. Robertson, 1992, T. L. Friedman, 2005). The balance between the two distinct tendencies is hard to maintain.

We believe that education and the school institution has an important role in maintaining the balance between contemporary local tendencies. A school based on common social values must avoid the standardization of solutions and procedures. It is therefore necessary to establish an educational space that is based on convergent general values and finalities that also leaves enough freedom for local functional options. On the ground of dramatic change, the education, the school have the role of restoring social identity and valuing human potential.

2. Community development – an answer to the influences of globalization

The community development follows it's evolution, a process of complex intervention and planning that has a purpose of developing the capacity of the community of putting into practice it's own development vision.

The community can be seen as a social system that supports personal, informal, traditional relations, based on feelings, a system that promotes the perception that the individual is part of a small, emotionally secure system that works for the development of common good. (F. Tönnies, 1887, Z., Robert M MacIver, 1937, Bauman, 2001,). Opposite to the community, in the society the relations are impersonal, utilitarian, formal, rational, based on commercial or political exchanges. (M. Weber, E. Durckheim, 1895).

Community development can be defined a social process that enables individuals in a community to control and adapt to the specific aspects of a world in continuous change. This is a planned evolution where the economical, social, cultural, environmental and administrative aspects work together for a „common better”, to the welfare of the community and the people that are part of it.

The process of community development implies a sustained and long term effort of its members that will show good results over time. This is why it is so important that the time plan to be comprehensive and fair for its members, complex and based on social tendencies both global and local.

3. The development of the school into a community school

The school is an institution that offers a social service and is therefore directly influenced by what is happening in the social environment. The school shares knowledge, develops abilities, norms, values that are recognized and socially accepted and therefore has internal development logic, it multiplies its own specific norms and values and has its own system of management.

Being one of the central institutions of the community, the school has specific roles and it can not function and develop without taking into account the specific of the community that it resides in, taking into account all of its educative factors: the family, the authorities, governmental and non-governmental organizations, economical gents, church, cultural institutions, health institutions that also have an educational dimension, whether explicit or implicit.

The school is also influenced by global social tendencies, carried out in: the take-out of education (purpose and objectives), the content of each subject matter, the organization of the educational system and educational institutions, legal and administrative regulations. Today we can see the global influence on the education and on its system in structure of the learning process, the system of getting and recognising professional qualifications, the acknowledgement of learning experiences obtained in different contexts.

In the community, the school, next to other institutions, is directly influenced by the community's level of the development. Phenomenon like: low birth rate, migration of young work force, population growing older, changes in occupational structure influence the school's life. On a local level, communities develop differently they have characteristics that differentiate them. The school, a central institution of the local community, develops according to local directions.

We propose all those interested in school development and local community development (school managers, professors, teachers, representatives of local and central institutions, of NGOs) a model of analysis of the school's specific in a local context, of the school's history, of the elements of continuity, of the tendencies of development, elements that, integrated, can become models of community development that have the school in the centre.

Each school functions in a different local context due to: history, economy, human resources (demographics, structure), natural resources, development perspectives, culture etcetera. This is why we believe that a national statistic analysis is not possible without diminishing some of the local specific and originality. Based on this very local specific, the school's needs for institutional development vary. Based on the analysis of the local specific, we can develop programs that respond to the needs and the local specific and that can locally integrate global tendencies.

Community study includes several fields of study:

- **institutional:** schools, authorities, local institutions (medical units, police, church, cultural institutions), local economical agents, NGOs;
- **human** (representatives of the community): teachers, students, professors, priests, doctors, representatives of the economical agents, representatives of the authorities and local public institutions;
- **informational:** statistics, special documentation papers, sites, administrative documents, school studies, historic documents etcetera.

In the research, complex methods are required: the investigation, the observation, the study, social documents analysis, case studies, the interview, social biography etcetera.

We propose as main research instrument **The grid of evaluating the community and the school** that will take into account three main temporal levels:

- **past** – the historic dimension of the school and of the local community;
- **present** – the situation of the school and of the local community at present time;
- **future** – The school's development in local and global community context.

The community and school evaluation grid is not an exhaustive one; it can be improved and nuanced. The results of a complete analysis, obtained by applying this grid, can help both school managers and other community representatives to put together a coherent development strategy for the school and apply it.

Research levels:

1 The historic level of the school and the community:

School history:

- The foundation of the school, the evolution of the school, existing school types in the community, certificates and qualifications conferred etcetera;
- The existence of some partnership forms in the school's history
- Community and school cultural elements (important representatives, community personalities, socially important persons that studied in the school).

Community history:

- Documentary attestation, social evolution of the community, important community events etcetera.

2. Local resources for nowadays development:

- geographical location, area, administrative structure (sectors, neighbourhoods, commune with belonging states);
- natural resources: field, subsoil richness, touristic zones etcetera.
- access roads, utilities and the population's access to them;
- the profile of economical agents;
- population services: health, culture, social protection, leisure, safety etcetera;
- social situations, disadvantaged population, the occupational profile of the population.
- rate of birth, ethnic configuration.

3. Human resources level:

In school:

Professors:

- school management – the way it was elected;
- the number of professors and auxiliary personnel in the school;
- title/non-title professors, their fluctuation;
- qualified/unqualified professors, years spent teaching, teaching grades, improvement courses that they took part in.

Students:

- classroom number, student number, age and grade distribution;
- sex, religion, ethnic group;
- the rate of school abandonment, graduation rate, study sequel;
- different needs of the students and their families;
- students' social problems (social scholarships, mono-parental families, children brought up by grandparents, emigrant parents, bad health condition, children with disabilities, behavioural deviance, etc.)

In community:

- the number of persons in the sector/locality and the percent of the families that have children at school;
- the families of the students - structure, level of education, income level, occupation, social family problems: mono-parental, divorce, conflicts, emigration;
- birth rate;
- community occupation;
- personnel involved in social services for children and their families, qualified personnel that works with them etc.

4. Leadership and management:

School level:

- school management structure (administrative board, professors' board, parents committees, student representatives, community representatives);
- the activity of taking part in leadership and school management;
- the school's decision attributes: in the field of human resources, of material resources, of partnership etc.

Community level:

- number of people in the local council;
- representatives of the school in the local council, backing up school's interest in the local council;
- taking decisions that have an impact on education, on social services, culture, leisure of children and their families;
- decision attributes of the authorities regarding the school's life (local funding, building administration, partnerships).

5. Informational resources – school curriculum: what subjects are included, who decides on the included subjects, number of hours, elements of community history in the curriculum, by the school's decision etc.

6. Communication

In school communication:

- Inside the school – are there internal communication procedures?
- Outside the school:
 - Parent communication procedures (consultation schedule, student agenda, e-mail, written mail?)
 - Does the school have a web site?
 - School magazine, how it is distributed, what does it contain?
 - The existence of a special press communication procedure – how does the school appear in the local press?
 - What does the school do for external communication, for promoting itself?
 - School image on community level – how is the school seen in the community?

7. Qualifications and certificates, employment rate:

- The level of qualifications and the type of certificates (national, European) presently conferred;
- The history of qualifications and certifications conferred by the school;
- Local employment rate, the structure of the local employment demand, migration of the workers, the offset between conferred qualifications and demand of work force.

8. Culture:

School's organizational culture: :

- What are the school's specific visual elements of recognition (name, logo)?

- Are there cultural manifestations of the school (school day, celebrations)?

Community culture – Community cultural manifestations and the school’s involvement in them.

9. *Strategically resources:*

School level:

- Does the school have a medium-long term development strategy?
- Does the school have information on birth rate, movement of the professors, diversity of funding sources, a grid for professors’ development?

Community level:

- Do the authorities have a medium-long term local development strategy?
- Is the development of the community’s schools a strategic direction for the authorities?

9. *Material resources:*

School level:

- School buildings and their keeping in repair;
- Equipment: teaching materials, lighting installations, heating, running water, sanitary installations etc.
- Means of transport for students etc.

Community level:

- Education institutions’ headquarters: day centres, libraries, cultural houses, theatres, museums, cafeterias, sports courts etc.

10. *Financial resources*

School level: funding sources: national budget, local budget, own sources: taxes, economical activities, sponsorships, parents’ contribution, and external funding projects.

Community level: funding sources, level of income, school allocations, the variation of the schools income level.

11. *Other sources:*

- The students’ and professors’ access to community resources: day centres, health services, educational and cultural institutions, social services of any kind, theatres, cinemas, national agencies, telecommunication and internet networks, libraries etc.
- Social services institutions for students and their families: name, number and main attributes;
- Police stations, concern for road-safety education, juvenile delinquency prevention, prevention of violence in school and family violence, drug traffic prevention etc.;
- Medical unities, economical agents, churches;
- Other schools (horizontal partnerships), competition;
- High level institutions (Ministry, Inspectorate- vertically)

- NGOs – how many, what services do they offer, how many were involved in the school’s activity?
- The local transportation system (the distance between places, national and local roads, public transportation system, students transportation)
- Educational resources of the community: theatres, museums, cinemas, national agencies, telecommunication and internet networks, libraries etc.
- Geographical area, natural resources, pollution etc.;

12. Partnership programs:

School programs:

- Involving families: existent, types, description, potential, necessity;
- Involving authorities: city hall, local council, social service unities;
- Involving other community agents: police, economical agents, health units, church;
- Partnership with NGOs etc.

Programs initiated by others:

- Programs initiated by other community members, police, NGOs, health units, church, economical agents.
- Availability for partnership: claiming availability for partnership by all those involved, the level of involvement in existing partnerships, the motivation for being involved in a partnership etc.

As we have stated, the instrument that we suggest is an analysis model. The data obtained by using this instrument can lead to a complex local development strategy that integrates the globalization tendencies and promotes local specific.

Conclusions:

We believe that a school developed within a community is the engine for community development, the engine that integrates and gives a meaning to the globalization influences. The school is the engine of the community development and therefore it must adopt a participatory management. School representatives must be open, must translate the community’s evolution, must have the availability and least but not last, must have the specific training needed in order to get involved in the community’s development. The school must be open and must take the initiative of starting partnerships both on local and European level. Partnership has good effects for the school, families, and children and for the community. For example: Developing alternatives for spending leisure time for children lowers the risk for juvenile delinquency, creates jobs within the community for the adults, prevents diseases and promotes a healthy life style for children, it supports development of social services and helps poor families, it lowers the risk for family abandonment of children and the risk of abuse against children; the road-safety education lowers the number of road accidents, the exchange of European good practice and role models sustains the acknowledgement of local values

and promotes them, it also has as a result a better social and professional integration of the graduates etc.

Developing the school into a community school implies a real effort and will, from the ones involved, but also a management option. Although they all have the same social role, schools function in different communities and their level of development is co-dependent on the resources of the community, on the type of management that the school has adopted and on the ones that benefit from it: children, families, adults etc.

A developed school is a school that adequately responds to a vast field of needs of its beneficiaries, a school that is willing and that is involved in partnerships, that is flexible and has motivated and well prepared people working for it.

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New Organizational Culture in Universities

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Abstract: The paper uses organizational culture theory as a valuable instrument to explain nowadays changes in educational organizations such universities. Models of organizational culture such as hierarchy model, market model, clan model, and adhocracy model are presented and described and factors such as national culture and government policy on education are linked with the behavior of the higher education institutions in order to identify national models and academic types. Knowledge production has been always considered the primary mission of universities, and although the tasks that higher education institution are supposed to diversify, change and shift, the knowledge production remains still the most important of all. The new mode of knowledge production is associated with the post-industrial knowledge economy. The implementation of new modes of knowledge production is much depending to the interdisciplinary academic approach, both on teaching and research, and this implies a marketisation of higher education and research.

Keywords: organizational culture models, academic models, mode of knowledge production

Introduction

Nowadays, the organizational culture concept is considered an effective instrument used to describe and explain organizations and small communities from habits, customs, and rituals, norms of behavior, value and belief systems perspectives. Organizational culture is defined rather as “a set of basic tacit assumptions about how the world is and ought to be that a group of people share and that determines their perceptions, thoughts, feelings and, to some degree, their overt behavior” (Schein, 1992). Schein believes that leaders have a critical role in giving shape and reinforcing the culture of their organizations (Schein, 1994). Edgar H. Schein emphasized that the values, beliefs, convictions and assumptions either invented, discovered, or developed, usually shared and accepted and necessarily respected by the members of a particular organization should be interpreted as rules and norms that explain why and how that organization get formed, function and last. The organization culture helps organization to adapt to environmental circumstances and integrate internally; it works like a solving problem framework or guide, and even as a tool meant to enhance the functioning of the organization as well as its decision making process, performance, effectiveness and competitive position (Cameron, Freeman, 1991).

Organizational culture models

Various models of organizational culture have been identified:

- 1) *Hierarchy organizational culture* - specific to a strong structured and formalized organization, with precise and reinforced procedures, rules, policies.
- 2) *Market organizational culture* - specific to a market-like organization, in which competitiveness and productivity are the main values and sets transactions that provide competitive advantage and market leadership.
- 3) *Clan organizational culture* – characteristic to a family-like organization based on the mutual support of its members, who work like a team. The main asset is commitment built through mentorship.
- 4) *Adhocracy organizational culture* – associated to a dynamic and creative group of people, who count mostly on flexible norms, promote growth and innovation. (Omerzel, 2011)

Figure 1: The matrix of cultural congruence

		Flexibility and Discretion			
Internal Focus and Integration	Clan culture	Adhocracy culture	External Focus and Differentiation	Hierarchy culture	Market culture
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Family-type organizations ○ Commitment to employees ○ Participation and work team 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Dynamic and entrepreneur organizations ○ Cutting-edge output ○ Innovation 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Formalized and structured organizations ○ Smooth functioning ○ Stability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Competitive organizations ○ Increasing market share ○ Productivity
		Stability and Control			

Source: Cameron and Quinn, 1999

Cameron and Freeman (1991) also considered that the type of culture - clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, or market – becomes important as the organizational effectiveness is concerned more than any of the other two factors, congruence and strength.

Models, patterns and features of the traditional university

The behavior of the higher education institutions is influenced, among other factors, by the national culture and the government policy on education. A comparative study on the evaluation system concluded that in the United Kingdom and in the Netherlands universities are encouraged to move toward economy and develop market-oriented approaches, while in France and Sweden universities are treated as public servants with visible political strings attached and don't compete in the market (Amaral, 2007). From the perspective of the relationship between state and higher education institutions, which would imply a certain degree of autonomy of universities, a comparative report on eight European countries (Le Feuvre, Metso, 2005) shows that three categories of national models can be identified, on a gradual scale that goes from a centralized (top-down) mode of regulation, where the state plays a major role, to a de-centralized (bottom-up) system, where universities play a central role, as follows: *Centralized Mode of Regulation* (top-down): France, Spain; *Concerted Regulation* (state recognizes the legitimacy of the academic profession and universities, imposes unnecessary decisions): Finland, Germany, Hungary, Sweden; *De-centralized Mode of Regulation* (bottom-up): Norway, United Kingdom.

An analysis based on the Burton Clarck's triangle of factors – state authority (national policy), academic oligarchy (university), and market (societal forces), the relationships between those being considered from the perspective of exerting power and prestige within the space of higher education systems, led to a few academic types, such as: *The Market type*, as in the United States; *The National Concentration type*, as in the ex-Soviet countries, but also in Sweden; *The Academic Guild type*, as in Italy.

The paper published by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching reported comparative findings of a group of 13 nations world wide selected, which highlight similarities and differences between the national high education systems and identified models or patterns such as: *The German pattern*, focused on research, visible in Germany, the Netherlands, Japan, Korea, Israel, and Sweden; *The South American and Russian pattern*, focused on teaching, visible in South American countries like Mexico, Chile, Argentina, as well as in Russia; *The Anglo-Saxon pattern*, focused both on research and teaching, visible in the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, Japan and Hong Kong.

The model of knowledge production

Knowledge production has been always considered the primary mission of universities, and although the tasks which higher education institutions are supposed to diversify, change and shift, the traditional one remains still the most important of all. The report of Le Feuvre and Metso (2005) presents the traditional mode of knowledge production: problems of knowledge are set and solved in a context governed by academic interests; knowledge is based on disciplines; homogeneity of

knowledge production locations; hierarchical and durable knowledge production structures; quality control through peer review.

A kind approach on the generic features of the contemporary university would reveal the following ones, which any decent higher education institution is supposing to display: flexibility of programs and attitudes; dynamic ability to forecast changes and implement necessary changes in curricula and programs; integration of programs and connection to society; innovation; contemporary and international openness; modern basis of information; highly qualified, competent teachers; diversification of research fields, connected to contemporary changes and trends; high quality and competence of research; rendering academic degrees, evaluating extended university education, professional skills and scientific competence.

At the same time, universities – generally speaking, share a set of values, which establish a universal pattern: *values defining the mission* - liberal education, intellectual development, competence, openness, perseverance of the intellectual culture of the society (creation, accumulation, storage and passing over of knowledge, as well of other material and nonmaterial culture values); *values which reveal the uniqueness of university education* given its autonomy and academic freedom; *values related to the members of the academic community* - teachers and students, to their rights, duties, and activities: research, rationality, freedom of discussion and mind, tolerance, autonomy, critical thinking, personal achievement.

The traditional academic pattern - still in place, of the higher education institutions consist of a low corporate culture, protecting the individual freedom, in a collegiate climate, with bureaucratic norms and quite ambiguous goals. The concept of collegialism might encompass the nature of the good traditional model of university world-wide is probably collegialism, which treasures and nurtures all its basic values and features. In terms of the traditional pattern of the university structure and functioning, collegialism turns into the concept of loose-coupling. University's working texture may be described as a tapestry of work units or cells of specialisation operating side by side, located in departments and loosely connected at operating level. Another description, as accurate as the first, is this: university is a collection of containers housing a large number of academic departments, each of those representing a monade – complete, self-sufficient, and ready to set and implement its own objectives.

Collegialism applies to any of the university components, from by-laws and curriculum development to research projects and ceremonies. As the collegial governance is concerned, this might be the grey side of the academic. Collegial governance would presume shared decision-making by a collegial group in relation to academic matters, mutual support in upholding the academic integrity of members, conservation of a realm of special knowledge and practice.

As a matter of fact, in this point collide two opposite governance patterns of collegialism, that form the two ends of a scale on which each university get positioned. On one hand, the traditional (conservative) type of university governance would imply isolationism, individualism, defensiveness,

wary of change, elitism, vague quality criteria. On the other hand, the new (radical) collegialism would imply networking, teamwork, responsiveness, innovation, empowerment, readiness to change, the facilitation of active learning, explicit quality criteria.

While observing that the collegialism may be a better or a worse way for a community of scholars to work along, we need to refer to the alternative contemporary type – the bureaucratic university, based on the authority of expertise and office as well. The latter one might be the dominant factor, supported by the prevalence of regulations and legitimated by rational principles.

The bureaucratic university type isn't common in the Western contemporary world, and that may apply to the Central-Eastern part of Europe if exclude its communist period in the past century.

The project of a new European academic model

The new European mission of the higher education institutions has been defined and triggered by two interconnected factors. On one hand, the real process of convergence of the European societies, under the circumstances of political, economic, labor market, monetary, financial and – in the near future, fiscal integration, which has led to the need of integrating the education and research systems as well, for to grow and multiply the entire potential of the European Union.

On the other hand, the real trend of education convergence has been institutionalized through narratives, rule and regulations generated by the European Union bodies in order to hasten, optimize and control the course. This mostly about the Lisbon and Bologna processes, which have provided specific requirements to the European higher education institutions for to converge to and share a frame of reference in terms of goals, objectives, policy, open coordination, benchmarks, good practices, research resources and output, mobility of faculty and students, exchange and transfer of knowledge and expertise, project collaboration, cooperation on monitoring, evaluation and peer review. As a result, the process of the European convergence of higher education systems needs to deal with certain problems and threats, while advancing toward its goals:

- The democratic deficit of the Bologna process, which is sometimes, blamed for super-ordinating the national systems, and universities themselves as well, while the latter struggle to get back space of freedom from governments.
- The peril advancing toward a uniform European pattern, under the pressure of the EU bureaucracy, though some authors think that – for the time being at least, the Bologna process gave universities the opportunity to shift to what they have dreamed.
- The threat of an emerging gap between the Europe of bureaucrats and the Europe of academics, that would expectedly lead to the vanishing of the European universities as site of cultures and replacing those with institutions focused on market competition suppressed by the ideology of individualism.

For one thing, in the foreseeable future, it is unlikely for the convergence policy to lead to the same results across all the European countries. A unique European model seems to remain just a

hypothesis, whereas the local academic traditions would prevail, with the good news and the bad news attached, altogether. (Le Feuvre and Metso, 2005)

Conclusions

In the present time, universities show a certain tendency to shift in more and more determined manner from the classic collegiate-bureaucratic pattern to the entrepreneurial and corporate types of culture. The shift of the universities' culture to a pragmatic pattern is not just a choice, but rather a key for the numerous challenges the universities need to cope with in the present fast changing times. The new mode of knowledge production is associated with the post-industrial knowledge economy and the so-called „service university”. The implementation of new modes of knowledge production is much depending to the extent of developing the interdisciplinary academic approach, both on teaching and research, and this would imply a marketisation of higher education and research in the global economy.

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Montessori vs. Traditional Educator in the Contemporary Romanian Education Society

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Abstract: This article attempts to highlight a number of ideas regarding Montessori educators, those teaching professionals from this educational alternative which is currently slightly on the rise after re-entering into the Romanian educational system approximately 20 years ago.

In this respect, we will show that the Montessori educator, by differently tackling his role compared to the traditional educator, creates and maintains an atmosphere of freedom both for the field work carried out in a prepared environment and for other specific teaching activities with limited intervention from the educator, based on the method of observation, which prove to be helpful, efficient and „productive” from the educational point of view, compared to the static, limited activities imposed by traditional educators.

Not lastly, we intend to stimulate people`s interest for a deeper knowledge of the Montessori method and search some possibilities and resources to promote and support its expansion within the entire Romanian educational system.

Keywords: the role of traditional/Montessori educator, prepared environment, specific materials and activities, maintaining order, children surveillance

Introduction

This method of education seen today as an alternative to the traditional educational system, used throughout almost the entire world (of course, preserving the local particularities regarding the social, economical and political conditions), was set up after the year 1900 based on the psychological and pedagogical studies carried out in the field of the optimization and individualization of educational methods by the Italian doctor and educationalist Maria Montessori (1870-1952). At first, working especially with several children who had different types of deficiencies from several youth centres in Rome, Italy, she managed to test, based on her own pedagogical views, a number of educational practices out of which some had already been mentioned by other predecessors such as doctor Jean Marc Gaspard Itard (1774-1838) and doctor Édouard Séguin (1812-1880), thus obtaining amazing positive results. Maria Montessori also managed to discover and invent new educational objects and materials that in time became part of the philosophy of the Method named Montessori.

Except for the special materials particular to this method and the prepared environment, there are in the centre of the Montessori alternative, as basic pillars, the observation and the educators trained in the spirit of this method; without them Maria Montessori did not imagine a high quality education that would make the most of the stimulation of educated persons` individual characteristics

and of the exploitation of children`s temporary behaviour to naturally and spontaneously learn, characteristics that are specific for the sensitive periods.

Under these auspices, this great Italian scholar, aware of the importance of a qualitative education for the young generation (a need also imposed by the criticism brought to the traditional system of education of that time) starting with the earliest age of childhood, tried and managed to underline the primary educational importance of the first years of children`s life and, as we have already mentioned, their inclination towards learning, work, study and democratical normalization.

Among all these endeavours we have briefly named, Maria Montessori tried and successfully managed to give a new dimension to the role of the adult (of the educator) involved in the education process through a series of new aspects, different from the ones pertaining to the traditional educator which we shall continue to discuss further on.

1. On the traditional educator

We are completely convinced that one could write thick papers on this subject as on all the subjects that are relevant for the field of Education Sciences in general; because of this type of approach (article-communication) we shall try to synthesize only a few aspects that are relevant for the subject we have chosen to present.

Thus, educational practices and tradition that got lost through time, drew upon school and upon the educator a number of characteristics based on a pedagogy that is mechanical, closed and formalist, dogmatic and compelling for the educated persons; we regretfully say that these aspects can still be found in the daily practice of the Romanian school, although people have made various, but almost useless efforts to modernize and bring it up to date; even nowadays specialists say that the current educational practices are inhibitory and unproductive from the educational point of view; we strongly believe that only by means of common efforts we shall manage to support and bring up new ways to improve the already worn educational system in Romania.

Going even further, we consider that we should at least think of if not be preoccupied with the fact that it is on this unproductive basis that we wish to offer knowledge to the new generation of children, i.e. through closed methods, in a passive school where the educator plays the central role as a model to be followed and imitated, where the present is left aside, not keeping in mind its particularities nor the child`s interests.

In a traditional school where the educator, by means of an authoritarian discipline, leads the entire educational process, where there is no respect paid to the interests and inclinations of the educated persons, through a mechanical reproduction and without much inward spiritual involvement, where mistakes are being corrected through repetitions, punishments and rewards, we are compelled to support the idea that Romania is not offering the premises of a qualitative education.

In these conditions, the everlasting yesterday`s traditional educator still lingers on today (among the ones that have managed to overcome the ordinariness of the past) without going through

great substantial transformations regarding the principles that have been governing his activity throughout time and despite all the undergone reforms. Nevertheless, there are important differences between yesterday's traditional educator and today's so-called modern one.

Thus, if in the past the educators, the teachers, the teaching staff in general were seen as persons with a great deal of knowledge and culture, dedicated to their work, who got involved body and soul in their activity, who were real models for the other people, for the community and society as they had a broad education and an attitude to match, nowadays we are tempted to believe that we find young people who teach and who lack more and more the characteristics we have just named; part of today's educators, looking for a better paid job, temporarily become teachers, transiting without any commitment or implication this profession („until they find something better”) that is of an extraordinary importance for the education and future of the young generation. We are convinced that the results of this transition can be found in each of us, as we have personally been through experiences with yesterday's and today's teachers.

2. On the Montessori Educator

Maria Montessori noticed, from the observations she carried out, among other things, that the treatment, behaviour and attitude of the educators and caretakers towards both children with various disorders abandoned in centres in Rome and towards normal children, did not offer a minimum environment for children to be trained, advised to carry out activities that would stimulate their recovery, development and education; children were only offered food and medical treatment when needed, and were ensured the minimum conditions of hygiene and self-hygiene.

These preliminary conclusions led to Maria Montessori's personal involvement in the life of the children she met in different children's centres, having a respectful attitude towards the sick ones whom she ended up educating by getting them involved in different types of activities, especially adapted for their needs and diseases. Step by step, she started to adapt to her needs different studies carried out by her predecessors, she began to invent, to discover and experiment several working materials, most of which can be found in today's Montessori philosophy.

Once she started working with children (who at first seemed upset, cold, sad and forgotten by society) in that centre, it did not last long until positive results appeared. Most of the children she worked with developed a positive, active behaviour, they voluntarily got involved in activities where some of them ended up by having spectacular results compared to normal children, while others managed, to a different extent, to be re-integrated in society.

Following these experiments, Maria Montessori came to the conclusion that the recovery of some children is not strictly a medical issue but also an educational one, and that it can be made possible by using different methods of education adapted to the context where they are applied and by having a proper attitude of the educators towards the educated persons (i.e. towards the children undergoing the process of education and care).

As mentioned before, by experimenting and improving education practices, Maria Montessori managed to draw a new dimension for the role of the educator by assigning for him a number of characteristics particular, on the one hand, to the Montessori method, and on the other hand, to the spirit of the “New Education” current that managed to occupy a seat in the world of Educational Sciences, with the purpose of improving the old-fashioned educational practices that existed at that time, by practicing a democratic education centered on the educational interests of the child, according to the capacities of each individual and his/her inclination towards learning, work and acquiring new knowledge.

Thus, in Maria Montessori’s vision, the prepared educators, besides the competencies resulted from their initial training as educators (if it pre-existed) had to comply with certain practical and theoretical conditions particular for the Montessori method they wished to practice.

These competencies specific to the Montessori philosophy (that aimed, among other things, at maintaining order, supervising and observing children, teaching lessons, etc.) were assimilated and developed in theoretical and practical training sessions that lasted for several months according to the level of education where they were to be applied (0-3 years, 3-6 years, a.s.o.); at the beginning, the training of educators was carried out under the direct supervision of Maria Montessori, and afterwards of the collaborators she chose for this job.

The Montessori educator creates and maintains an atmosphere of liberty for the specific activities carried out by the educated persons and for the use of instructive materials that lack the intervention of the educator in the process of work and learning based on the method of observation; this approach has proved, in time, to be much more “productive” from the educational point of view, compared to the static, limited activities imposed by the traditional educator.

In conclusion, we believe that the Montessori method has and uses several characteristics that are peaceful, easy, quiet, natural and cozy, where the human being can be protected, respected, and guided even from birth, through the simple but precious observation method where the intervention of the adult (parent/supervisor/educator) is done only when it is strictly necessary and the child carries out his/her activities in a special environment, especially prepared in a as natural manner as possible, that offers him/her the possibility to choose from the specific recommended Montessori activities the ones that represent him/her the best, that offer satisfaction, answer his/her needs at the right time, offer motivation in the process of work, discovery and learning.

During this entire process of discovery, the educator is not the source of education, but a good observer and a positive moderator of a natural process that starts on its own, step by step, through physical contact with the prepared environment, through the individual liberty of the educated person to choose a certain work and repeat it as many times as he/she likes, a process that stimulates and develops education, that appears and continues spontaneously, purely and individually for each human being and according to each and every one’s particularities.

3. The Montessori Educator in the Contemporary Romanian Educational Society

In nowadays` Romania we believe that we may speak of an increase of the interest for alternative pedagogies in general; once Romania came out of the communist era, there appeared several endeavours regarding the re-integration and re-implementation of some models of alternative education like the Montessori method we have been discussing, that had been forbidden until the 90`s but that are currently regrouping into an educational movement recognized both at a local as well as at an international level.

Thus, together with the increase of the interest for the Montessori Method, there appeared the problem of the lack of qualified personnel, accredited and recognized as such by the national institutions of the state with responsibilities in this field, as well as by the entities that protect and govern the principles of this pedagogy at the international level.

As such, there is currently no accredited institution (training centre) authorized in Romania to carry out the training of the persons interested in practicing the Montessori Method; persons interested in establishing Montessori institutions (pre-schools or schools) have been sending their recruited teaching staff to study and obtain the necessary diplomas in Montessori Centres in USA, Italy and the Czech Republic.

Nevertheless, there are perspectives to set up an institution for the training of the persons and teaching staff interested to work within the Montessori method at all teaching levels, by different representatives of Montessori institutions that currently exist in Romania who are interested in having a well-trained, Montessori authorized personnel that would be extremely expensive to train in the countries we have named before.

Not lastly, the analysis we have carried out shows that there are more and more persons drawn to this philosophy as far as the knowledge of its governing principles is concerned, as well as its practicing at the level of several educational institutions.

Conclusions

Traditional pedagogy has definitely evolved compared to the times when the Montessori method had begun to assert itself internationally; traditional educators have become a part of these changes, as through their training they are nowadays trying to compete with different principles of the alternative pedagogies regarding both the liberty, autonomy and democracy of the educational activity/instrument and the way alternative methods are organized and the material basis with which they work. Nevertheless, we believe that the Montessori educator, trained and dedicated to this philosophy cannot be equalled by the traditional educator, as far as we believe, at least at the international level where the teaching staff that works in Montessori educational institutions is carefully selected and financially motivated to carry on with the exquisite work of Maria Montessori. They are real teaching professionals who live in the spirit and norms of this method and do not intend

to temporarily transit the profession of educator or member of the teaching staff in order to look for other easier and better paid jobs.

We are convinced that the qualitative degradation of this profession should stop for the sake of education, of its noble purpose; not lastly and maybe the most important, we should show a sign of respect for the future of our children and for tomorrow`s generation in whose arms, spirit and soul we place our hopes to carry on and improve the educational, cultural and moral “dowery” of the Romanian people.

Thus we believe that the decision making people within the educational system should actually wake up and stop from their endless and pointless propagandism and act until it is not too late (if it is not too late already), so that a change for the better can take place in the field of education.

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Traditional and Montessori Curriculum – a Comparative Approach

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Abstract: This article attempts to highlight several ideas regarding the Montessori educational alternative that managed to re-enter into the Romanian educational system after the 90's and which has reconsolidated nowadays into an educational movement.

Considering the actuality represented by this educational model in the field of educational methods that currently exist in Romania, we intend to comparatively deal with several characteristics relevant both for the traditional as well as for the Montessori curriculum, with the aim of arising for the reader several logical reflections meant to lead to a better understanding of the realities that govern the way the national curriculum is managed within the Montessori method.

Not lastly, we aim at both people's acknowledgement regarding the beneficial implications induced by this alternative at a local level on persons educated in this method, and at the stimulation of people's interest to search more information on Montessori pedagogy.

Keywords: traditional/alternative/compared pedagogy, curriculum, Montessori.

Introduction

This method of education of the young generation based on experimental psychological and pedagogic studies carried out by the Italian doctor and scholar Maria Montessori in the field of optimization and individualization of educational methods, had its official debut in 1907 when the first "House of Children" (Casa dei Bambini) was opened in one of the poor neighbourhoods from the suburbs of Rome. Maria Montessori was given "a free hand" to apply her own educational principles as she had the entire support from the local authorities that were interested in finding solutions to ensure the surveillance, care-taking and education for the children of the workers who lived in poor social and economic conditions and who had difficulties in taking care of their children as they had to go to work on a daily basis.

Thus, we support the idea that the emergence and the later development of the Montessori method in the field of the methods of education at the beginning of the twentieth century, was mainly determined, in our opinion, by two particular factors that we shall briefly name: on the one side, the need to improve the traditional methods used in the education process that had become more and more criticized for being rigid, old and un-adapted to the social and economic needs and to the rhythm of development of the society of the time that was under the effect of technology in all the fields of life, as well as the need to train people who were more and more useful for society and who could efficiently manage the future and the progress of society; on the other side, there was the force of this "education engine" called Maria Montessori who managed to draw people's interest for her ideas and

discoveries in the area of educational methods and quickly brought by her side scholars from all corners of the world who were called to be part of the layout and implementation of a new manner of making education.

Thus, one of the basic components of this method of education is the specific curriculum which we shall comparatively approach further on.

As far as this comparative approach is concerned, professor Stanciu Stoian (1900-1984) from Bucharest University considered compared pedagogy as that scientific discipline that is meant to ascertain and prospect similar elements and/or the differences in the systems of education, in order to underline and make the most of all un/common elements, with the aim of improving and optimizing them, both for the sake of scientific progress of education and for a better knowledge and closeness between different nations of the world.

1. Elements of traditional curriculum

The attempts to define and conceptualize the notion of curriculum in general, started especially with the work: „The Child and the Curriculum”, written by John Dewey, the one that we believe to have decisively marked this concept that has received a number of sometimes confuse interpretations as it has been used with different meanings by different authors.

Thus we chose an elaborated definition by D' Hainaut, relatively accepted today by the majority of the scientific community who agrees that „A curriculum is an educational project that defines: a) the purposes and objectives of an educational activity; b) the means, ways and activities used to attain these purposes; c) the methods and instruments used to evaluate as to what extent the activity was fruitful”.

Returning to the realities of the Romanian education system, we are entitled to say that it has been through various reforms lately, reforms that in general caused changes for the curriculum and in particular for the curriculum for pre-school, wishing to line it up to the European one.

Under these auspices, traditional curriculum in nowadays projected, at least on paper, within the limits of the strictness and formality of the European curriculum, bearing in mind and trying to adapt it to the social and cultural particularities of Romania`s population.

In these conditions, we shall focus on the pre-school curriculum where we mainly find the Montessori method that makes one of the subjects of comparison between with the elements pertaining to traditional curriculum which we may say that is fully comprised by the Montessori curriculum, but with a different approach according to the particularities imposed by this educational philosophy of Italian origin.

2. Elements of Montessori curriculum

As far as the Montessori curriculum is concerned, it is organized as an ascending plan of interrelated pieces of information where lessons are gradually introduced according to their

complexity, from concrete to abstract; they are simple and accurate in the first years of school and are reintroduced several times throughout the years of study at more advanced levels of generalization and complexity.

During the entire educational process, the child works with various study contents supported by specific recommended materials, disciplines are linked to one another and therefore it is easy to pass from one lesson to another and thus to ensure an educational continuity.

Mrs Elisabeta Negreanu, one of the most well-known practitioners of the Montessori method in Romania, believes that the specific curriculum practiced in the spirit of this philosophy has the following general characteristics:

- A curriculum appropriate for individual and community development (any material, activity that responds in a positive manner to the needs of development of any child and that fills in the capacities of an independent, active, responsible, cooperative, creative life).
- A complex and integrated curriculum (comprises objectives, activities, materials from different cultural and civilization fields with multidisciplinary functions).
- Unified curriculum (transparency of the relation between the hidden and overt curriculum).
- A curriculum developed and verified at an international level, applied according to cultural particularities and national curriculum". (Journal of Pedagogy, no.1-12/2006, p. 22).

With all these in mind, educators, through their vocation and the special training acquired, plan the teaching (presentation of the material) according to the inclinations of every educated person, on different stages and on all areas of recommended training, so that every child may acquire knowledge according to his/her own abilities and capabilities.

3. A comparative approach

This alternative method of education compares the demands of the national curriculum with the ones pertaining to the Montessori curriculum, in order to make sure that all the fields that are recommended and compulsory for the traditional curriculum are covered by the one pertaining to Montessori; most of the times, the Montessori educational alternative manages to cover even more topics that do not appear in the traditional terms of reference, mostly for pre-school.

The rigid, imposing and sometimes military atmosphere created by educators within the traditional education while trying to teach and implement the curriculum elements, inhibit the educated persons (who are in a process of acquiring knowledge), refrain them from working freely and at a high potential, compared to the children from Montessori groups who work according to their own abilities, who are never bored in the especially prepared environment (with appropriate furniture and materials), arranged according to the curriculum and where they are free to move around the classroom instead of being compelled to sit down as they are in the traditional classes, a.s.o.

In these conditions, Montessori children can study, at any time of day, at all levels, all the elements of the curriculum such as: Mathematics, languages, sciences, history, geography, drawing, music, a.s.o.

As we have already mentioned, the Montessori method finally aims at covering all the elements, all the disciplines from the traditional curriculum, but presents them to children in an inter-multi-trans-discipline manner, where teaching is individualized most of the time and learning is carried out on the axis: attempt-error-discovery-analogy-association; at the same time, all these educative endeavours respond to the requirements of the national tests such as the high school entrance examination or the examinations taken after the eighth or twelfth grades, a.s.o.

4. Conclusions

In conclusion, the curriculum of the Montessori method integrates, as we have already mentioned, various branches that are in an inter-multi-trans-discipline relationship; we briefly name here: sensory life, language, geography, Mathematics, natural sciences, practical life.

As far as the activities from the curriculum carried out by traditional groups that we find today in the Romanian educational system are concerned (both in the public and private field), we find that they are more deeply approached in the Montessori view and curriculum thanks to the special professional training of the teaching professionals who are internationally specialised in Montessori; the activities are transposed and adapted to the current society, respectively to the activities in the classroom, with specific materials and with visits to the museum, trips, visits to the theatre, a.s.o.

Not lastly, we would like to mention that there are no demands for the evaluation of the curriculum carried out for the ages from 0 to 6, but children who attend this curriculum manage to acquire a great deal of things that are normally taught in the first grade in traditional classes; between the ages 6 to 18, the activities of the persons educated in Montessori method are analysed and encouraged by the educator who permanently observes the interests of every child and facilitates research and individual development in the field of these interests (and this is also later on integrated in the national curriculum, disrespecting the level of studies i.e. the grade children are in).

Finally, we consider that the approach of the curriculum within the Montessori method is much more “productive” from the educational point of view, compared to the one pertaining to the traditional mass education. In these conditions, we mention that among the reasons that considerably reduce the results obtained by educated persons, after getting through the curriculum, are, on the one side, the optimum selection of human resources in this field (based on the will, qualities and inclinations of the candidates to work with educated persons from early ages); on the other side, there is the lack of a qualitative professional training of the candidates, as well as an adequate equipment for schools and not lastly a financial motivation and professional recognition of a responsible practice of this highly important profession.

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