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TABLE OF CONTENTS

SOCIAL PEDAGOGICAL WORK WITH UNACCOMPANIED YOUNG REFUGEES WITH EXPERIENCES OF WAR IN INSTITUTIONAL CARE IN SWEDEN: AN ETHNOGRAPHY-INSPIRED ANALYSIS OF THE NARRATIVES OF YOUNG PERSONS AND INSTITUTION PERSONNEL

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Abstract

The study purpose was to analyse 1) narratives of young people who experienced a war, fled to Sweden and were cared for and placed in institutions; 2) institution personnel narratives about the day-to-day work of taking care of young people who have experienced war; and 3) interactive patterns contributing to constructing the category 'social pedagogue'. The material was gathered through interviews with young people in care with experiences of war and with personnel who work with these young people at residential or care homes. The social pedagogic perspective in social sciences stresses including the individual in the community, which gives the individual confirmation of an identity through community participation. Successful interaction between individuals is fundamental for achieving community integration of unaccompanied children and young people in Sweden. Analysis of the study's empirical material reveals major variations in what is expected of a social pedagogue working in

institutional care in Sweden with unaccompanied young refugees who have experiences of war. A common denominator is that the mission of and context in which the social pedagogue operates appear flexible enough to enable an individual to play the role in a variety of ways. Only when the individual social pedagogue adopts an active, assertive, independent, personal and relatively strong posture will there be a chance of being important to other professional categories and for the client. In practice, therefore, only when the individual social pedagogue transcends the expectations of the conventional role will there be a chance to be appreciated by other collaborators.

Keywords: social pedagogic, social pedagogue, residential home, care home, expectation, variation, stigma, social comparison, identity, category

Introduction

According to Hämäläinen (2012), social pedagogy in the Nordic countries follows two developmental lines: social education for all and pedagogical support for those with special social and educational needs. The definitions for these lines of development of social pedagogy according Hämäläinen are, respectively: a) a line of social care and welfare activities preventing and alleviating social exclusion, and b) a line of social education supporting growth into membership of society. Hämäläinen means that in the Nordic countries, both of these lines exist in social pedagogical research, discussion and practice (Hämäläinen, 2012). In 2015, approximately 35,000 children and young people came to Sweden unaccompanied by a guardian (Swedish Migration Agency, 2018a, 2018b, 2018c) [1] . Most of these

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1 The study's analysis was presented at the social pedagogical conference, 'Social Pedagogy and Social Education: Bridging Traditions and Innovations' (Basic, 2018a). For valuable comments on this text, I would like to thank Kyriaki Doumas (Linnaeus University, Sweden), Margareta Ekberg (Linnaeus University, Sweden), David Wästerfors (Lund University, Sweden) and the anonymous reviewers.

unaccompanied children and young people were boys from war-torn countries, and most were placed in 'HVB homes' (residential homes for children and young persons[2]). This major influx of unaccompanied children and young people has been a substantial challenge for the Swedish welfare system, which is fundamentally based on the concept of all individuals being included and integrated into the social community. In modern warfare, it is not uncommon for civilians to be the targets of – and sometimes participants in – acts of war (Basic, 2017, 2018b; Malešević, 2010). Children and young people who have fled from such wars may have been involved in them, either directly or indirectly, which is likely to affect them for a large part of their lives. Survivors of wars are often influenced by what is known as post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, recurring nightmares, emotional blunting and flashbacks to traumatic moments (Majumder, 2016; Sanchez-Cao, Kramer, & Hodes, 2013). With that background knowledge, we can establish that the professional work of attempting to help and facilitate inclusion and integration of that client category in the Swedish community is not an easy task.

This article develops Hämäläinen's (2012) analytical starting points through social pedagogical analysis of narratives of young people who have experienced a war, fled to Sweden and been taken care of and placed in institutions, and through social pedagogical analysis of narratives of institution personnel who work with this category of client.

The purpose of the study is 1) to analyse the narratives of young people who have experienced a war, fled to Sweden and been taken care of and placed in institutions; 2) to analyse the narratives of institution personnel about the day-to-day work of taking care of young people who have experienced war; and 3) to analyse interactive patterns that contribute to constructing the category 'social pedagogue'. The material used in the study has been gathered by means of

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2 A residential or care home is a form of institution in Sweden that provides treatment, care, support or nurturing. HVB homes can, for example, specialize in substance abuse problems or in unaccompanied children.

interviews with young people in care who have had experiences of war and interviews with personnel at HVB homes who work with these young people.

Social pedagogic perspective

The social pedagogic perspective is one of the perspectives in social sciences that stresses the importance of including the individual in the community (Eriksson, 2014; Eriksson & Winman, 2010; Hämäläinen, 2012; Hämäläinen & Eriksson, 2016; Kornbeck & Ucar, 2015; Ucar, 2013). Individuals are given confirmation of their identities by participating in the community, and successful interaction between individuals is a fundamental prerequisite for the successful integration of unaccompanied children and young people in Sweden. Hämäläinen and Eriksson (2016) and Eriksson (2014) highlight the importance of interaction between those already established in the community and the individual who is on the margin. One of the most important dimensions from a social pedagogical perspective is to analytically investigate relationships between individuals needing help and the professional participants tasked with helping these individuals as part of their professional role. The writings of Hämäläinen and Eriksson (2016), Kornbeck and Ucar (2015), Hämäläinen (2012), Eriksson (2014), Ucar (2013) and Eriksson and Winman (2010) provide insight into some expectations that come into play in the various social contexts of the role of a 'social pedagogue'. A social pedagogue is portrayed as an expert who works toward a specific and defined goal. The goal is to help or guide the client to overcome obstacles that hamper integration and success in the context. Hämäläinen and Eriksson (2016) and Eriksson (2014) illustrate four important dimensions of the social pedagogical perspective. The first of these focusses on goals in the context to be achieved by means of social pedagogy. In this dimension, the importance of the participants' socialisation is foregrounded in the context by, among other things, integration and mobilisation of all community forces with the aim of helping the individual on the community margins. The second dimension focusses on the social pedagogic approach,

especially in the relationship between the professional participants and the individual who needs help. The professional participants working in accordance with the social pedagogic perspective are empathic towards the individual requiring help while also being aware of the specific expectations of the professional role. The third dimension focusses on appropriate social pedagogic methods in working with the individual who needs help. Methods considered to be appropriate are the dynamic methods based on the individual as part of the group and part of a wider social context (such as environmental therapy). The fourth dimension focusses on social pedagogy as a resource for professional work with the individual on the community margin and in need of help. In this dimension, the emphasis is on the importance of the goal of creating progress in the relationship with the individual who needs help by means of well-thought-out dialogue (Eriksson, 2014; Hämäläinen & Eriksson, 2016).

Theories of relevance to social pedagogy

The study's general theoretical points of departure are interactionist, though influenced by an ethnomethodological perspective of how people present their social reality (Blumer, 1969/1986; Garfinkel, 2002). As Gubrium and Holstein (1997) point out, ethnomethodology will not explain what a social world is but rather how it comes about. Both the accounts given by the interviewees and the analysis of these accounts can, in view of this perspective, be regarded as activities that create meaning. According to interactionists, the I (or the self) is a basic construction for creating an identity. An interactionist explanation of the self is based on two fundamental ideas: *self-reference* and *role-playing*. Self-reference is a matter of describing oneself and, in a wider context, describing objects of all kinds, for example people in various groups, ideas, opinions and attitudes (Blumer, 1969/1986). The second fundamental idea concerning the self is about role-playing. Being acknowledged in our roles is to be acknowledged in our identities. Over the course of their lives, people in a society play a number of

different roles before different publics; as a result, the self is shaped and changed in each social situation (Goffman, 1959/1990).

For this study, this framework means that experiences of war and being cared for are examined as an interaction in which one person's behaviour constitutes a motive for and a response to the other person's behaviour. Perceptions of the treatment provided by the social community (Swedish society) are also studied as a result of an interplay between the participants involved. In this study, 'role' is not used only as an unambiguous analytical instrument but also, in an ethnomethodological spirit, as an investigation of how the interviewees themselves *use* role, status and identity when expressing their own and other's living conditions and experiences. Two concepts are particularly important: social comparisons and stigma. With regard to social comparisons, it is generally human, ordinary and perhaps necessary to see oneself in relation to others (Scheler, 1992). Simmel (1908/1965) wrote, for example, about how poverty is not absolute but is seen in relation to others. This relativity is also the case with care and perceptions of care. A more modern concept is Merton's (1996) 'reference groups', which are used in various ways: identity-creating, as an expected member group or as positive and negative reference groups, for example. Such groups or categories may be anticipatory (a group that one expects to belong to in the future), contemporary or historical: 'that's what it was like for them before', or 'that's how people in my group used to live'. However, the concept is thought to imply static limits for groups. This study's analysis is inspired rather by Snow and Anderson's (1987) use of social comparisons because this concept is more associated with a more flexible and dynamic relationship; the participants are allocated an active, interpretive work (Åkerström & Jacobsson, 2009).

In research into care recipients, *stigma* has been the subject of particular attention. The concept is derived from Goffman's (1963/1990) analysis of stigmatisation. Goffman believes that a person becomes stigmatised when not fully acknowledged in a desirable social identity. According to Goffman, it is

possible to distinguish between three different models of how to live with one's stigma: being born with it and learning to live with it 'from the beginning'; not being stigmatised until later in life or being forced into a new, stigmatising context (see also Basic, 2012, 2015, 2017, 2018b; Wästerfors, 2012, 2014; Wästerfors & Åkerström, 2016). Loss of identity in time of war and after war, comparison with other young people in Swedish society, and placement in an institution without one's parents and siblings creates and reinforces a stigmatised context for young people in care – a context that is related in interviews in the course of the study.

Social pedagogy has a limited possibility of analysing all social phenomena that are actualised in the work with different client categories who receive help with inclusion and integration in the community from different professional actors (Eriksson, 2014; Eriksson & Winman, 2010; Hämäläinen, 2012; Hämäläinen & Eriksson, 2016; Kornbeck & Ucar, 2015; Ucar, 2013). General theoretical points of the study include terms that help facilitate the analyses of the context in which social pedagogues work. Adolescents who have experienced war as well as personnel at HVB care homes who work daily with these adolescents use and are involved in several different identifications alternately or simultaneously, such as their occupational identity, gender identity or ethnic identity. The current article highlights how these overlapping and parallel identifications operate through a variety of interactions, where the individual claims or is assigned identity categories in different ways. Thus, the study shows when, how and by whom stigmatisation processes, social comparisons and identities are actualised and how it happens in relation to war memories and institutional care placement.

Method of relevance to social pedagogy

The study was conducted based on inspiration from ethnographic tradition, and the empirical material in the study consists of interviews, field notes and documents (Bryman, 2016; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983).

Ethnography is a research method in which the researcher (1) is involved in a social environment for a fairly long period of time, (2) makes regular observations of how the participants in this environment interact, (3) listens to and takes part in various discussions, (4) conducts interviews with informants about phenomena that cannot be observed directly and about which the ethnographer is uncertain, (5) gathers relevant documents that are related to the investigated group or phenomenon, (6) develops an understanding of the group's culture and daily interaction patterns in this cultural context, and (7) formulates a detailed description of this environment (Bryman, 2016, pp. 422-464). In other words, ethnographic research is characterised by a varied analysis of different types of empirical material (in this study, interviews, field notes and documents). The ethnographic method also is characterised by producing in-depth knowledge as a result of the researcher's participation in the daily life of the individuals being studied. Experiences, views and social phenomena are not always discussed in the course of interviews but instead can be revealed when the researcher observes the informants' everyday activities and everyday interactions. Combining interviews with fieldwork allows the researcher to produce an in-depth account of individual narratives and phenomena (Becker, 1970, 1998; Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 2011; Gubrium & Holstein, 1999; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983, p. 156). During an interview, those involved communicate based on day-to-day knowledge of the social context (Riessman, 2008; Silverman, 2015). During the fieldwork in this study, an effort was made to give interviewees space in the discussions so that they could talk about topics of immediate interest that they themselves considered to be important (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995). The objective was for the interviewer to adopt the role of an interested listener who wanted to find out more about young people who had experienced a war and who had taken refuge in Sweden, and also about the professional participants who work on a daily basis with these young people in care in Sweden. Conducting interviews in this way created the variation in

empirical material required to differentiate – and in the next stage to analyse – those phenomena that are relevant to achieving the study purpose.

The following topics were discussed during interviews with young people: 1) life in their homeland before the outbreak of war; 2) the mood in town when the war broke out (new norms, values, anything experienced as new by the informant); 3) experiences during the war; 4) an ordinary day during the war (accounts of good/bad situations during the war); 5) escape to Sweden; 6) the contributions of the institutional personnel, the social services, the Swedish Migration Agency, the custodian and the school; 7) life in the institution; 8) help after arriving in Sweden and later (medical – psychological, which organisations were contacted); 9) working through trauma; 10) differences between young people with experiences of war; 11) identification (e.g. refugee, immigrant, victim of war); 12) future; and 13) help from various authority staff going forward. During interviews with personnel at HVB homes, the following topics were discussed: 1) work with young people with experiences of war; 2) treatment (advantages, expectations, results, drawbacks or difficulties); 3) suggested improvements – resources; 4) cooperation with other authorities/authority personnel; and 5) the young people's accounts of the contributions of social services, the Swedish Migration Agency, the custodian and the school.

The interview material consists of qualitatively orientated interviews with six young people in care (from Afghanistan, Iraq and Syria) who had experiences of war and who were later placed at HVB homes in Sweden, and with nine employees at HVB homes who work with this category of young people. During the interviews, an effort was made to obtain detailed descriptions of experiences of war, life in Sweden and professional work with these young people, and to find out whether special ideas and/or working methods have been developed. The interviews lasted from about 30 minutes to 2 hours and were recorded because the interviewees gave their consent. An interview guide designed around the above analytical interests was used as a basis before and during the interviews. In the course of the interviews, an effort was made to achieve a conversational

style, known as 'active interviewing' (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995), with an emphasis on openness and follow-up questions rather than the question-and-answer model. All interviews were transcribed from speech to text prior to the analysis work (Potter, 1996/2007; Jefferson, 1985).

The interview material was analysed based on traditions in qualitative method (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012; Silverman, 2015). Analytical induction was the guiding principle, i.e. a continuous to-and-fro between material and explanation (as well as deselection and reselection based on negative cases) with the aim of gradually honing the analysis by means of empirical examples (Katz, 2001). As a result, the study's theoretical interests – the concepts of identity, social comparison, total institution and stigma – were not only applied but also nuanced or challenged. The interviewees were informed of the purpose of the study and were guaranteed confidentiality and the opportunity to withdraw at any time. In publications and presentations of the results of the investigation, names of people and places and other information that could be used to identify the interviewees were changed or omitted. During the work on the empirical material, not only were the names of individuals omitted or changed but also the names of regions, municipalities, institutions and districts, as well as means of transport and anything else that could link individuals (the institution) with various cases. The interest of the study relates to experiences as general social phenomena, so there is no reason to document personal data (Ethical vetting, 2016). If we borrow analytical glasses from Hämäläinen and Eriksson (2016) and Eriksson (2014), we can read the following from this study: 1) *social pedagogic target groups* – as represented by a) young people in care who have experiences of war and who were subsequently placed in HVB homes in Sweden, and b) personnel at HVB homes who work with these young people; 2) *social pedagogical arenas* – as represented by various contexts that are brought to the fore in the study's empirical material (war context, migration context while fleeing to Sweden, migration context during integration into Sweden, institution

context and school context, among others; and 3) *social pedagogical roles* – as represented by various roles that are brought to the fore in the study's empirical material (such as victim of war, student, homosexual, empathic personnel, competent personnel, incompetent personnel).

Analysis: narratives of young persons

Analysis of empirical material has teased out the following themes in interviews with young people: a) war as a permanent social condition; b) school, demonstration and war; c) learning war (war as pedagogical practice); d) normalising/neutralising the condition of war ('playing football', 'as normal'); e) flight from war is also war – or part of the war (deprivation of liberty/abduction, slave labour); and f) the future in Sweden (struggle for social recognition/recognition of identity – for example as student, employee, person, breadwinner or homosexual). None of the adolescents who were interviewed expressed a need for treatment while staying at an HVB care home. Instead of using the unilateral image of people who have experienced war and were traumatised by it (Majumder, 2016; Sanchez-Cao, Kramer, & Hodes, 2013), the current analysis instead sought to apply an actor-oriented image, where the stories told by those who were interviewed are analysed as arenas in which the storytellers in various ways formulate their experiences in their home country and in Sweden. The stories told by the interviewees are analysed as a multifaceted comment on their own autobiography, especially regarding what resulted from the institutional care stay in Sweden and the everyday dynamics in relation to adolescents and institutional care placements. Analysis of the this part of study's empirical material shows that the lives of young people in Sweden are characterised by uncertainty: they do not know if they will be allowed to stay in Sweden, whether they will have the opportunity to keep attending school or whether they will ever get to see their parents again. The material provides a picture of a waiting period that involves a considerable adjustment for these

young people, regardless of whether or not they are given leave to remain in Sweden.

The time after first arriving in Sweden can seem like a prelude to starting a new life, one that sometimes is characterised by a continuing flight. The war goes on and is present in stories. Interviews with young people in this study are sometimes extremely emotionally charged. There may be painful stories about, for example, someone's entire family and everyone living in the village fleeing from a Taliban attack, about how solders harass civilians (elderly, young, men and women), about how their best friend was killed in a suicide attack. The stories are also about friends and relatives who are taken away and never return, a father who was executed or a difficult journey to Sweden, as well as about personnel at HVB homes who are empathic, who understand and try to help young people. The way that adolescents depict life in Sweden is characterised by war experiences from the home country and experiences from the escape to Sweden. These stories can be analysed as a display of a humiliated and stigmatised self and a display of victim identity through the dissociation from actions performed by other actors and the situation that is described. The adolescents are displaying their stigmatised selves as a product of war experiences and their subsequent escape, both of which are created and re-created in contrast to other actors in the context. The dissociation from actors in a war and escape context appears to serve as a basis for reconstruction of the adolescent's victim identity as well as relationships with HVB personnel. Disassociation from one opens up possibilities and creates a foundation for a relationship with the other (who is also tasked with helping adolescents with inclusion and integration into the Swedish community). The adolescents who were interviewed are overall pleased with how they have been treated and their cooperation with personnel at the HVB care home and the school. Any discontent that emerges during the interviews is aimed at legal guardians and the Swedish Migration Board and personnel from social services. The stories that the

adolescents told about everyday interactions in Sweden are characterised by appreciation, criticism and expectations for the future. Their lives at the HVB care home and school are basically equated with friends and personnel at the HVB care home (and school).

A recurring theme in their stories about the appreciated professional actors has to do with small-scale help in everyday interactions (such as organising one's everyday life, cooking, homework assistance, having access to networks, leisure time, culture). Young people greatly appreciate the practical help that they are provided by HVB personnel (and the teachers at the school). The young persons who talk about HVB personnel in positive terms depict different images of an involved social pedagogue. Images that are depicted in stories are about charismatic institution employees who put other professional actors to work by phoning them, demanding meetings and making demands based on young people's rights. In the interactions, these institution employees are given a protective role in relation to the adolescents, who are described as being in need of protection against other professional actors.

Analysis: narratives of institution personnel

In interviews with institution personnel, the following themes were crystallised: a) previous chaos in reception centres in Sweden that are now more orderly; b) young people singled out and stigmatised by society; c) importance of empathic attitudes and humanity; d) no treatment is offered or given in the institution; e) main task: to help young people to integrate in society; f) there is collaboration with other professional categories, but it is limited (no more than what is essential); g) young people's age as a problem; h) young people are described as greedy (reason for coming to Sweden); i) maltreatment in institutions; and j) (in)competence of personnel. Studies such as Majumder (2016) and Sanchez-Cao, Kramer, and Hodes (2013) construct and reconstruct the image that the surrounding world attributes war experiences a prioritised status to a much too high degree; that the dominating explanations are about

posttraumatic experience and such, while competing accounts of the life of the adolescents and personnel have a difficult time being noticed. None of the interviewed HVB personnel noted that any form of treatment is performed at HVB homes in relation to the adolescents who have been placed there. Interviewees emphasise that their work at HVB homes is focussed on inclusion and integration of adolescents into the Swedish community. The current analysis focuses on the different ways the interviewees feel that their work with inclusion and integration of the adolescents has been treated and interpreted in interactions with other parties in the Swedish community. Interviews with personnel at HVB homes in this study are sometimes emotionally charged. There may be emotional stories, for example, about personnel at HVB homes who are empathic, who understand and try to help young people, but also about others who belittle and abuse young people and even contribute to the risk of worse mental health in young people.

Institution employees at HVB homes acknowledge the significance of the practical work in including and integrating adolescents into the Swedish community. These stories observe inadequacies in the work performed by legal guardians, social services, schools and the Swedish Migration Board. The professional actors that are identified by HVB employees are described as slow and ambiguous regarding planning for the adolescents, as well as non-empathetic (because they do not consider the adolescents' war experiences in their home country and their escape to Sweden). The adolescents are portrayed as generally stigmatised and singled out in the Swedish community, which in turn hampers the inclusion and integration job assigned to personnel at HVB homes. Negative media reports about the adolescents, politicians' populist appearances aimed at the adolescents and the public officials' (for example, the police) negatively charged opinions about the adolescents are noted as a contributing dimension to the stigmatisation and debasement of the entire group. These factors in turn make the inclusion and integration job assigned to personnel at HVB homes more difficult. The attention spent on informants at HVB homes regarding the

contribution from the media, politicians and the police when it comes to stigmatising and debasing the entire group is in line with the information dissemination on the Internet (see, for example, Aftonbladet, 2016, 2018; Nyheter 24, 2017; Sveriges Television, 2016, 2017a, b; 2016; Upsala nya tidning, 2016; Expressen, 2018).

Inadequacies in the cooperation between HVB personnel and other professional actors are widely discussed, which creates the image of HVB personnel as cooperative in contrast to other professional actors, who are construed as less involved when it comes to cooperation. The adolescents at HVB homes are portrayed as victims of inadequate cooperation as well as a stigmatising development in the community, as victims in need of protection – protection that most people interviewed in the study argue for, implement and are happy to display in the interview. Institution employees' stories of adolescents in HVB homes are characterised by the attention that has been spent on the fact that certain adolescents at HVB homes are older than they had stated when arriving in Sweden. Two interviewees in that part of the study are intensely critical of the adolescents they have met in their work. The adolescents are portrayed as greedy, and the goal of their arrival in Sweden is described as a planned effort to use ('rob') the Swedish community. These two stories are permeated by criticism against the adolescents and the resistance that these adolescents are described as displaying in relation to inclusion and integration into the Swedish community. Two other interviewees in that part of the study are intensely critical of co-workers at HVB homes whom they have met in their work. They tell the story of one adolescent who was physically abused by an employee at a HVB home, and other employees at HVB homes are portrayed as non-competent in relation to their work. These employees are portrayed as criminals, a danger to the rule of the law and not oriented to the community themselves, all of which are framed as not suitable to working with adolescents.

By portraying other employees at HVB homes, legal guardians, social services, schools and employees at the Swedish Migration Board as less competent, interviewees in the study portray themselves as competent actors. Acknowledging and emphasising another person's incompetence creates the conditions needed to assert and display the narrator's own competence. In the interactive process, an image is created and re-created from a competent and respectively incompetent social pedagogue in the context. The competent social pedagogue provides practical assistance, understands, structures everyday activities and can gain and affect interactions. The incompetent pedagogue is uninvolved, ignorant, forced, creates stress, and is controlling, argumentative and socially awkward.

Social pedagogical work: expectations and variations

The aim of the study is 1) to analyse the narratives of young people who have experienced a war, fled to Sweden and been taken care of and placed in institutions; 2) to analyse the narratives of institution personnel about the day-to-day work of taking care of young people who have experienced war; and 3) to analyse interactive patterns that contribute to constructing the category 'social pedagogue'.

In this study, the stories told by the adolescents and the HVB personnel are about everyday interactions that occur while the adolescents stay at the institution and how the personnel work with that category of clients. The analysis pays attention to details about war and post-war interactions and how a community's moralisations can affect social pedagogical work with inclusion and integration into the community. Adolescents who have immigrated to Sweden in 2015 are now a permanent group in the community. Many of them have received permanent residence, whereas others have had their applications rejected or are waiting for a decision from the Swedish Migration Board (Swedish Migration Agency, 2018a, 2018b, 2018c). In light of this, it becomes of great importance to study a modern war's continued social consequences for

individuals and groups (Basic, 2017, 2018b; Malešević, 2010). From a Swedish perspective, it is easy to imagine that the war's consequences are taking place 'over there', in a different country or another part of the world, at another time in place. It therefore becomes especially important to allow people with war experiences who are in Sweden to share and relate how the experiences are significant here and now. By allowing this sharing, knowledge is also created about how preconceptions, inequalities and discrimination can be faced and discouraged. This study shows how overlapping or parallel identifications of adolescents and HVB personnel operate through a number of interactions where the individual claims or is assigned identity categories in various ways. Categories such as victim of war, student, homosexual, empathetic personnel, competent personnel and incompetent personnel are actualised in relation to the adolescents' war experiences and institution placement. The interactive dynamic in the situation helps to create and re-create these categories (Basic, 2012). The study's analysis observes individuals in a vulnerable and strenuous situation with the aim of highlighting their opinions, stories and terms. Adolescents with war experiences are at risk of being affected by stigmatisation and singled out in the community and for discrimination and unequal relationships because of their background and how it is treated in Sweden. HVB personnel who have been interviewed in the study note that the social climate impairs their work with inclusion and integration of that client category.

A social pedagogue in the Nordic countries works in a variety of social contexts in which individuals need professional help with integration and success in those contexts. This work can involve students in school; inmates at youth institutions and prisons; children, young people and adults who are the subjects of intervention by social services; patients undergoing psychiatric treatment; and other individual categories where people find themselves in critical life situations and need professional help to overcome them (a social pedagogue also works within different prevention projects and within voluntary organisations).

Social pedagogues are expected to possess specific professional qualifications to support and motivate their clients in overcoming obstacles and meeting their goals. A social pedagogue works in a socially oriented way and occasionally plays an educational fostering role. It is anticipated that this work will help the client develop an understanding of how to act in accordance with desired expectations, norms and values and to resist peer pressure and involvement in anti-social activities (Eriksson, 2014; Eriksson & Winman, 2010; Hämäläinen, 2012; Hämäläinen & Eriksson, 2016; Kornbeck & Ucar, 2015; Ucar, 2013).

A social pedagogue is also expected to supervise other professional categories in the context of the various issues related to the client's living conditions. In addition, the social pedagogue is expected to act as a link between different professions with the goal of facilitating collaboration that supports the client's social and educational development (when the client is a child or young person, the social pedagogue is expected to also collaborate with parents). The social pedagogue sometimes has a limited scope for action; the role has occasionally low status and standing in relation to other professional categories involved. The role of the social pedagogue is portrayed as diffuse, unspoken and full of contradictions in relation to other professional categories in the organisational hierarchy. The role of social pedagogue also tends to assume a controlling and repressive function as support for other professional categories in the context.

In conclusion, there are major variations in what is expected of a social pedagogue. A common denominator is that the mission of a social pedagogue and the context in which the social pedagogue operates appear to be sufficiently flexible to enable an individual to play the role in a wide variety of ways. It is only when the individual social pedagogue adopts an active, assertive, independent, personal and relatively strong posture that the person has a chance to be important to other professional categories and for the client. Taking on this posture means in practice that it is only when the individual social pedagogue

transcends the expectations of the role presented above that there is a chance that the social pedagogue will be appreciated by other collaborators. One question that has been actualised during the study is how a social pedagogue can help by initiating and strengthening interactions that will include and integrate clients into the community. It is of importance that one attempts to analyse what type of social pedagogical help the unaccompanied refugee children desire and need, for example in terms of receiving help or organising their everyday lives and having access to school, work, network, leisure time and culture.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALITY OF TEACHER AND ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENT ON SOCIOLOGY SUBJECT AT SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL 12, MEDAN-INDONESIA

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Abstract

We reported about relationship between teacher quality and achievement of student in term of sociology subject at Senior High School 12, Medan-Indonesia. The purpose of this research is to know the relationship between quality of teacher and achievement value's student on sociology subject. The research method is explanatory method with 65 students as respondents. The data was collected by using questionnaire technique. Then, data was analyzed with SPSS program. The results show that the quality of teacher may affect the achievement value of students. The quality of teacher relates to many factors such as using the reference book, preparing lecture material, competence in sociology field and good interaction between student and teacher.

Keywords: Sociology subject, Quality of Teacher, Senior High School, Achievement Student

Introduction

    Many researchers have reported that education is depended on teacher education, licensing, hiring, professional development and capacities of teacher (Canales, 2018; Elken, 2016; Batool, 2018; Girvan, 2016). Even the quality of education and graduates from a school are often seen as dependent on the teacher's role in managing the teaching components used in the teaching and learning process, which are their responsibility. The high competence and skill of teachers are expected be able to improve capability of students especially in term of their pedagogic (Schoenfeld, 2014). One aspect that determines the quality of learning outcomes is the ability of teachers to build social interactions by developing effective communication patterns with students in teaching and learning activities with student center learning system (Tam, 2013).

    In line with these prerequisites, according to (Kuenter, 2013; Skvortsova, 2013), one of the elements possessed by professional teachers is social competence, including the ability to: 1) communicate verbally, written and gesture, 2) use functional communication and information technology, 3) socialize effectively with students, fellow educators, parents/guardians of students, and 4) get along politely with the surrounding community. Learning subject contents on social such as sociology subjects, it has an impact on the formation of attitudes (behaviors) sociologically. This is in line with the linearly relationship between teacher's social interaction and students in term of learning process so that the competencies and other learning outcomes desiring may be achieved. Therefore, quality of learning process is affected by social interaction between teacher and student. Opdenakker (2011) reported that the link between teacher-student interpersonal behavior and academic motivation may improve the quality of learning process outcomes.

    One aspect that determines the quality of learning outcomes is the ability of teachers to build social interactions by developing effective communication patterns with students in teaching and learning activities (Hurst, 2013). The elements possessed by professional teachers are social competence, including the

ability to: 1) communicate verbally, written and gestured, 2) use communication and information technology functionally, 3) interact effectively with students, fellow educators, parents / guardians students, and 4) get along politely with the surrounding community (Scharp, 2019; Okoli, 2017; Bambaeeroo, 2017). In simple terms, learning can be understood as a process of interaction carried out by students and teachers during the teaching and learning process takes place. Socially charged learning such as sociology subjects, has an impact on the formation of attitudes (behaviors) sociologically. This is in line with the need for teacher social interaction with students in the learning process so that learning can be achieved in the competencies and other learning outcomes desired (Blazar, 2017; Oers, 2008; Christenson, 2017; Martin, 2009).

Teachers can be declared as key actors in education and at the same time bearers in socializing or in other words having social competence as a guide who can understand and interact well with students during the learning process both done inside and outside the school. Likewise, the teacher who teaches sociology subjects is a role model who understanding well how the patterns of interaction and communication can be done in learning. Interactions in sociology learning (teacher-student) can be realized when the teacher is able to provide stimulus (stimulation) to students. When the teacher cannot manage the class well, the impact on learning interaction patterns is less attractive and tends to be monotonous. The effectiveness of learning actually occurs when teachers have the ability to create a dynamic and two-way atmosphere (McGill, 2018; Akdeniz, 2016; King, 2018). The form of interaction between students and their groups is by way of cooperation to achieve the desired goals on the material presented by the teacher. The social interaction of one study group with the other learning groups, namely social interaction carried out by asking each other questions and responding so that students are more active during the learning process so that there is discussion between the groups to reach conclusions from the questions given by the teacher (Davidson, 2014). Therefore, we are interested in examining

the relationship of the quality of the teacher's social interaction with the achievement of student on sociology at SMA Negeri 12, Medan.

Materials and methods

Location and duration of study

This research is explanatory research with quantity approaching. The location research was conducted at SMA Negeri 12 Medan with 65 students and 1 teacher who subjected sociology class.

Analysis data

We collected data by using questionnaire where respondents consist of level quality of social teacher interaction (independent variable) and student sociology learning achievement. In addition, interview also was carried out to teacher's sociology of SMA Negeri 12, Medan. Then, we analyzed all of data with SPSS software.

Results

In this research, we used 65 students and 1 teacher as well as respondents. The respondents composition consist of male (27 students) and female (38 students), 39 students (Moeslem), 23 (Christian) and 3 students (Catholic), Batak (21 students), Jawa (20 students), and the others tribe (24 students). The students' response to teaching materials which were implemented by teachers in accordance with the curriculum may be seen in Table 1.

Table 1 Students response to teaching materials

Respondent's response	Formulation number	%
No answer	4	6
Always	45	70
Often	14	21

Sometimes	2	3
Total	65	100

The quality of the first interaction is seen from the compatibility of teaching materials provided by the teacher with the curriculum. Out of all 65 respondents, the respondent's answers were obtained as below: answers were always given by 45 respondents (70%), often 14 people (21%) and sometime by 2 respondents (3%). Respondents' response to teacher who used the latest sociology book references is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Students response to teaching materials of sociology references

Respondent's response	Formulation number	%
No answer	1	1
Always	36	57
Often	17	26
Sometimes	9	14
Seldom	1	1
Never	1	1
Total	65	100

The quality of other interactions was determined based on indicators of the usage of latest references sociology by teacher. Based on the data, respondents' answer are always 36 students (57%), often 17 students (26%), and sometimes 9 students (14%).

Subsequently, respondents' response regarding teacher's ability to lead class is shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Students response to teacher's ability on leading of class

Respondent's response	Formulation number	%
No answer	1	6
Always	36	7
Often	17	27
Sometimes	9	22
Seldom	1	5
Never	1	33
Total	65	100

Some of the current phenomena are many teachers who teach are not accordance with their fields of expertise, the data found in the field shows that sociology teachers can teach for geography, history and so on.

The respondents' response to teacher's ability on sociology subject is shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Students response to teacher's ability on sociology subject

Respondent's response	Formulation number	%
No answer	3	5
Always	40	61
Often	12	18
Sometimes	8	12
Seldom	1	2

Never	1	2
Total	65	100

Table 4 shows that majority of students' response always regards to the student's ability. The respondent data of teacher's ability to manage class (incompetence sociology) may be seen in Table 5.

Table 5 Students response to teacher's ability on sociology subject (incompetence sociology)

Respondent's response	Formulation number	%
No answer	1	1
Always	3	4
Often	7	11
Sometimes	13	20
Seldom	14	21
Never	27	43
Total	65	100

The majority respondents choose never (43%), meanings teacher's skill is very important.

The next indicator of the quality of interactions (students-teacher) is determined by Sociology subject teacher responses in treating students as good friends in the classroom and outside the school. Treatment as creating more intense closeness and social interaction between teachers and students are needed. So that the teaching and learning process can be more relaxed and students can discuss and dare to give opinions. That is be able in Table 6.

Table 6 Students response to teacher's sociology subject who treats students as friend

Respondent's response	Formulation number	%
Always	21	32
Often	23	36
Sometimes	14	22
Seldom	4	6
Never	3	4
Total	65	100

Table 6 shows that majority of student is like with the teacher method where students are teacher's friend.

The next statement concerns the review of reference books held by students by teacher when the teaching and learning process takes place (Table 7).

Table 7 Students response to teacher's ability to review sociology reference book

Respondent's response	Formulation number	%
No answer	1	2
Always	30	45
Often	21	33
Sometimes	8	12
Seldom	2	3
Never	3	4

	Total	65	100

Table 7 shows clearly 45% students believe to their teachers' ability especially for reviewing the sociology reference books.

The teacher's ability also may be measure base on teacher's skill to deliver the sociology subject (Table 8).

Table 8 Students response to teacher's ability on sociology subject (concept, theory, and object)

Respondent's response	Formulation number	%
No answer	1	1
Always	40	62
Often	15	24
Sometimes	5	7
Seldom	2	3
Never	2	3
Total	65	100

The method of teaching carried out by the teacher. It can make students understand the lesson. In this case the school gives the teacher the freedom to apply the methods used in teaching and learning activities that are adapted to the applicable curriculum. With regard to concepts, theories, the object of sociology is described by the teacher with facts that occur in society. It may help students understand easily various sociological concepts and theories. In this case the teacher must provide examples of cases that have occurred and circulated in the community, as well as referring to news media from newspapers and research journals. Surprisingly, 62% respondents regards to the teacher's ability.

Discussion

      This research was conducted with survey techniques and observation of teaching and learning processes in the classroom. The patterns of social interaction between teachers and students at outside the classroom and in the community, and a study of secondary data in the form of administrative documents and school values from Sociology subject school which is the sample of this study. The number of respondents in the study was 66 people consisting of students (65 students) and 1 teacher who studied Sociology in Public High School 12, Medan (SMA Negeri 12 Medan-Indonesia).

      The quality of the first interaction is seen from the compatibility of teaching materials provided by the teacher with the curriculum. Out of all 65 respondents, the respondent's answered (70%) believe that their teacher teaches them followed the curriculum (Table 1). Based on the data, it can be concluded that teacher in SMA Negeri 12 Medan uses teaching materials that are in accordance with the applicable curriculum, namely KTSP. Table 2 shows that the teacher always uses the latest sociological book references as their teaching material as mentioned by the most respondents, 36 students (57%).

      The data above (Table 3) may be seen that the teacher is able to lead the class and explain sociology theory well with the highest answers of respondents namely 17 students, 27% of the total respondents as many as 65 people. This data is also consistent with Table 4. It means sociology's teacher has high competence to do their professional duty. The teacher competency is also be confirmed by Table 5, where the respondents answer never (43%), indicating that teacher is very professional in sociology field.

      In addition to building good interactions during the learning process, the relationships that occur when outside school are also important. Based on the data above (Table 6), the interactions between teacher and students outside of school will be explained. The data obtained shows that 21 respondents gave answers always (32%), and often 23 respondents (36%). The results of

processing the data show that when in outside school the teacher continues to build good relationships with students and treat them as friends.

Based on the data with the most answers, it can be concluded that when the teaching and learning process takes place, the teaching staff always examines the reference books owned by students (Table 7). This data also consistent with the teacher can make students understand the lesson (Table 8). In this case the school gives the teacher the freedom to apply the methods used in teaching and learning activities that are adapted to the applicable curriculum. With regard to concepts, theories, the object of sociology is described by the teacher with facts that occur in society, to help students understand easily the various concepts and theories of sociology. In this case the teacher must provide examples of cases that have occurred and circulated in the community, as well as referring to news media from newspapers and research journals. Based on the questionnaire obtained from the responses of respondents with answers always referring to reference sources in describing case examples or social facts. In general, every school equips all media needed by teaching staff to deliver the material in the classroom. It's just that it all depends on the method used by the teaching staff so that it can create an effective and efficient learning process. We also test the relationship between sociology teachers with students by using Chi Square Tests (Table 9).

Table 9 Chi Square Test

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.603[a]	20	.679
Likelihood Ratio	18.689	20	.542
N of Valid Cases	160		

The above conditions are also illustrated by the value of the Pearson chi squared statistical test results, namely $x^2 = 16,603$, which turns out to be greater than the critical price of the chi-square with df = 20 at the 95% significance level of 10.85, or the value x^2 count: (df: 20, α = 95%) = 10.85. So that it can be concluded that the Behavior factor of the sociology teacher treats students as friends in relation to Obsession Students as a sociologist after completing the study.

Conclusion:

The teacher and student social interaction in the teaching and learning process in the classroom shows that the teacher is always trying to build good interactions. The interaction process can be seen with various learning methods that are applied by teacher so that it can facilitate the delivery of material. The interaction built by teacher is cooperative and friendly interactions.

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STREET CHILDREN AT THE INTERFACE WITH SOCIAL REALITY

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Abstract

More and more children experience a new way of living as they are pushed to the streets due to the altering of the inter-human relations within family and to social reality. Social and economic changes worldwide have had a tremendous impact on the whole social system, including the structure and organization of family. After 1990, Romanian society witnessed the coming out of the phenomenon of street children. The issue of such children is still topical, due to the specificity of this social phenomenon, on the one hand, and to the different manners of diagnosing and initiating efficient measures capable of decreasing it. The article analyses several studies which focus on the characteristics of street children.

Keywords: street children, social, reality, issue, characteristics

1. Introduction

In the vision of Dabir (2014, p.5) most definitions of street children concentrate on just two characteristics: presence on the street and contact with the family. The definitions of street children are seen to be incorporating the two

groups of children: home based, which refers to children who usually return home at night; and street based, which is used to signify children who remain on the street and have no family support (Dabir & Athale, 2011). The phrase 'street children' has not been the only term referring to such children; they have been identified by various terms, including 'teenage beggars', 'street kids', 'homeless kids', 'street boys', 'street bums', 'parking boys', 'city nuisance' and 'children in difficult circumstances' (2016, p. 2071).

UNICEF following the UN International Year of the Child, introduced and described the term "street child" which refers to unaccompanied children working or living in the streets who do not have an adult to take care of them, no place to live, and who sleep where they want (Veale et al. 2000). UNICEF (1986) and other international organizations claimed, without empirical evidence, that these "street children" were parentless and therefore in need of supervision and direction. Many organizations also assumed street children came from the rural poor who had recently migrated to the capital, and could not cope with city life. Street children stoled and begged and came from abused or neglectful homes and were therefore forced to survive on the streets (Aptekar, Stoecklin, 2014, p.8).

Other international organizations and UNICEF agreed that all of the children on the streets in the developing world did not have the same family circumstances and hence developed new terms. Street children were " of the streets" meaning they did not go home at night.

There are several social science theories that can be used to understand these reactions to children in street situations. Festinger (1957) suggests through cognitive dissonance theory that society's attitude about what children should be doing in public and what they see children in street situations doing in public are not in synch. "The dissonance between the beliefs that children belong at home under caring adults, and the behaviors of children in street situations in public is uncomfortable; it produces a psychological tension which the person wants to reduce. The two ways to reduce the tension are either to think of children in street situations as having been abandoned or abused and therefore still

children, but children who have a reason for acting this way, or to think that children in street situations have no excuse; they are acting delinquently, and thus they are in need of action to get them back in line with what is appropriate children's behavior" (Aptekar, Stoecklin, 2014, p.108).

Social constructivism theory explains that reality is formed by the interaction of the children and their environments. "Children in street situations under social constructivism theory must be considered in the context of multiple realities, and the way to help them is to focus on the quality of the multiple relationships of the child and his or her diverse social world" (Aptekar, Stoecklin, 2014, p.109).

The sociological perspective looks at what society demands of the child. James Jenks and Prout (1998) propose a critical exploration of the various ways in which the sociological tradition has conceptualized childhood. First is the functionalist approach to explain that uniform and predictable standards of action from participating members of society are the only way to maintain stability and integration. The first participants in the social order are children and they must be socialized in ways that are functional for the social system (Ibidem).

2. Street children as a minority

With a view to adequately approach the issue of "street children", we consider it appropriate to begin by delineating their position in relation with society, the manner they are perceived by society together with the solutions adopted by society to fix the issue.

2.1. Social framing of street children

A series of researchers regard the issue of street children as a limited phenomenon due to the connection they make with "the more traditional issues of juvenile delinquency, such as: the use of drugs, abuse, prostitution or vagrancy" (European Community, 1992, p.22).

Our opinion is that, in order to define the social issue of street children, we should consider them a minority group at a social level. We have chosen this approach as we are able to debate it at a global level, leaving aside the individual, for the moment. When we analyse the minority represented by street children, we have in view its position in comparison with the standards of the majority, namely of the society it belongs to. The definition proposed by J. Perez and F. Dasi suggests that "a minority regards everything that deviates from the standards desired and imbued with value by a majority", a fact also proved by empirical researches in this field (Apud, Neculau, 1996, p. 62).

2.2. The behaviour of street children as a minority

Starting from standards, we might assert that two types of "standards" may be outlined: the standard of society or majority and the "counter standard", which is the standard of minority, transposed in a specific behaviour adopted by each member of such a group. This specific behaviour is a rebel one, a result of the individual's refuse to obey the standards and is the consequence of the individuals' reactions to standards and expectations combined with their decision to reject such expectations and to act contrary to them (McDavid & H. Harari, 1978, p. 327). Let's also notice a desire of these individuals to become independent of such standards. Mc David asserts that "the true independence represents the indifference in face of standards and expectations". Moreover, in the case we consider his opinion that the "standards of society represent one of the most important mechanisms of social control, of the individual's behaviour in society", we might assert that independence is exactly the desire to escape this social control, transposed in a delinquent behaviour that begins with vagrancy, which represents the "primary school of a delinquent" (Manoiu & Epureanu, 1996). Under such circumstances, the minority of the street children, as we use to call them, represents the "nursery" of juvenile delinquents and of the subsequent recidivists reflecting "behavioural consistency" (Dasi & Perez, Apud Neculau, 1996). This represents the mere repetition of an action, which, in the

end, attaches an "existence and visibility to the group, which is perceived as an independent entity and which, although it gives no chances to recovery practices, maintains social conflict active" (Dasi & Perez, Apud Neculau, 1996).

There is no doubt that the coming out of such a behaviour was facilitated by the technique of the so called "strike with the foot in the door", in the case we consider the origin environment of these children, who, most often (in accordance with empirical researches) come from families who are well positioned on the social scale or from families of intellectuals; nonetheless, once the contact with the vitiated environment is made, they accept compromise, which subsequently determines the specific behaviour.

2.3. Child's identification with the minority of street children

Another characteristic of street children is their desire to identify themselves with a minority or to be perceived as belonging to it. The example of the Ku- Klux- Klan group, which used to wear white gowns that hardly allowed the perception of their face, suggests a comparison with the street children. These ones, under the cover of anonymity and having become members of the "street children" grouping, reach the psychological status known as de-individualization, characterized by "decreased self-care, diminished fear or reaction to the negative evaluations expressed by others; in accordance, the individual becomes more apt to engage in impulsive, antisocial and non-standard behaviours" (Feldman, 1976). Both institutionalization and the mentality of the majority (discrimination and critical opinions on these children, rather originated in a desire to supress them than to help the) have also contributed to this process of de-individualization of the children who are, at present, in the streets. One of the solutions to this issue resides both in the education of majority, with a view to accept street children, and in the education of the professionals, with a view to focus upon the social integration of these children. Church might also have an important role to play as it is the promoter of moral values.

3. Factors that turn children into street children

If we have previously referred to the street children as to a minority, we are further going to regard them amidst the factors that act upon their psycho-somatic development as well as on the results given by the action of such factors.

3.1. Parents and family environment

As already known, family environment offers the primary condition for a balanced and normal development of a child. Starting from the hypothesis that about 50% of the street children have families, a question is set forth: what might have determined these children to become street children? The negative "contribution" of family and of parents, in general, to the strengthening of the negative attitude of the child in face of them and society is extremely large. Family environment leaves marks upon the child's development and behaviour. Peter Weldge suggests that: "friends significantly contribute to the foundation of self-respect as well as to repulsive appearance, bad manners and an inadequate social behaviour, which are going to attach a stigma on the child" (P. Weldge, 1992). We might specifically speak about a series of characteristics encountered especially in the case of the children who left their families as a result of the effect determined by the following two factors occurring within their families: neglect and aggression.

The analysis of these factors appears to be motivated by the jeopardizing and prejudices they determine upon the existence of the family micro-group, which is also influenced by other social factors, such as: poverty, unemployment and interpersonal relations, mainly in Romanian socio-culture.

The public can assume that children in street situations are not making a long-term rational choice and thus need immediate help. The same can be said of their parents who are not making a rational choice to be abusive or neglectful, in which case they also need help. Even if the public can accept that the children are acting rationally, it still does not provide an option to grant them adult respect.

There are always strings attached to this way of thinking (Aptekar, Stoecklin, 2014, p.109).

3.2. Neglect

In accordance with the definition given by J. Gibbons, and Weldge (1992) neglect regards "the lack of protection of a child in face of all types of dangers, including cold weather and starvation or the obvious failure to provide a series of important responsibilities specific to care-giving; consequently, a significant deficiency of the child's health and development comes out"; let's notice that these observations characterize a lot of children who, at present, are looking for a self-valorisation in the street due to the fact that their families fail to provide it to them. "When children are not monitored, vagrancy, delinquency, and troubles of character and behaviour come out" (Manoiu & Epureanu, 1996). Meanwhile, intellectual development is affected due to a "lack of an adequate cognitive stimulation that may result in deficiencies of the general intellectual abilities" (Gibbons, Weldge, 1992).

Under rational choice theory children in street situations are on the streets because they have made a rational decision that it is better than staying at home, either because it was abusive or neglectful, or because as boys they were expected to leave and earn money to help the family. This decision might not be the optimum decision in the long run, but the best one available at the time, given the lack of complete information (Aptekar, Stoecklin, 2014, p.109).

3.3. Abuse

The social constructivism theory explains that children in street situations as being abandoning and abandoned, having abusive or neglectful families and families that are rearing them to do their best with what life has to offer, and of a supporting or ostracizing society (Ibidem). "Violence and child abuse are among the most serious problem facing children today, but they are not the only ones" (Sorescu, 2016, p. 105).

50

In the vision of other authors (Ayub, Kumar, Shora), abuse was reported quite often. Children shared their experiences about abuse on their own in the natural course of interview and therefore offered valuable insight into the prevailing abuse at the hands of biological parents, step parents, and others (2016, p.1807).

Among the forms of abuse encountered in the life of street children who have family environment origins, three of them come to front and have as an effect the fracture of the relation parent-child and the child's appropriation of a wrong behaviour in face of other adults.

The three forms are the following ones:

3.3.1. Physical abuse and maltreating

3.3.2. Sexual abuse

3.3.3. Emotional abuse

3.3.1. Physical abuse and maltreating

A research made upon a sample of 70 children abused by their parents, before the age of 5, showed a connection between physical maltreating and their subsequent anti-social behaviour, the research having confirmed previous results (Gibbons, Weldge, 1992).

In the case we closely analyse the results of the research mentioned above, we observe the manner parental aggressiveness is transmitted to the child as "aggressiveness is the social behaviour learnt by children in their family environment. Among the causes that determine or influence parents to adopt an aggressive behaviour against their children, which manifests as a body abuse we may mention: stress, poverty, alcohol, frustration, pornography, insecurity and a dangerous environment" (Neculau, 1996), which they might have also faced.

3.3.2. Sexual abuse

Another form of abuse encountered within the families of the children who become street children is sexual abuse. In accordance with a case study of a 12-year old child, they noticed that the child was sexually abused by his aunt at whom he lived (his parents being divorced, they abandoned him). He only had

the courage to leave his home after two years and he entered the category of street children. They estimate that the average age when street children begin sexual relations, including through sexual abuse. Paedophilia and prostitution are also encountered in such cases.

3.3.3. Emotional abuse

Emotional abuse represents the "current or probable negative effect upon the affective and behavioural development of a child, determined by the persistent or reversed emotional maltreating or rejection (Gibbons, Weldge, 1992). Why this form of abuse is mostly encountered in the case of street children? Such a situation occurs owing to the fact that they come from mono-parental families, with affective drawbacks, or from disorganized families, which have children from previous marriages. "Rejection is one of the most usual causes that have as a result the phenomenon of street children. It includes rejection by family, friends, school or rejection by a series of persons who use to take care of them" (European Community, 1992). Children are emotionally abused by the parents because they are deprived of parental care and attention that are irreplaceable for any child growing up (Andrioni, 2011, p.8).

3.4. Internal factors

Other factor, which exerts its action upon children's life and augments the issue - irrespective of the fact that the children live with their family or are institutionalized - is represented by the internal or individual causes. The research made by Europe's Council upon children showed the global cause "directly connected to the child, namely: violence, vices and the strong desire of youngsters for independence, especially during teenage." (European Community, 1992). In the case we extract from this definition the first two individual influences, namely violence and vices, and we relate them with Freud's vision on human instincts (Zamfir, 1992) we would reach the conclusion that street children did not manage to correctly direct their aggressive tendencies; yet, by asserting this, we would limit to a simple demonstration that blames the

individual and shows no opportunity of social reinsertion for these children. Although we cannot neglect certain biological influences in the lives of these children, nonetheless we should not stress only heredity. We assume that all these influences play a well-defined part (family, social environment, individual, heredity) in determining the behaviour of a child.

"The wrong behaviour of a child is the sign of a series of uncertainties, connected with the child's search for his/ her own positioning within society. Children believe that, in accordance with their behaviour, they are going to find out and ensure their desired place within society as well as the admiration they look for" (Dragomirescu, 1976). Neglected children (as previously shown) will try to escalate a position and to dominate the other children around with a view to draw attention, while adopting a wrong behaviour in the face of adults; they begin with contradictory issues, which determine conflicts, first at the level of their family (in the case they live with their families), and later at the level of their relations with the other children and adults. Their self-image, wrongly forged, represents the factor that determines most affective and behaviour issues that manifest in the case of the children separated from their families. In accordance, help may be given in developing a feeling of personal identity through creating authentic relations within the environment children live, be it the family, an institution or the street. Such relations are the only ones able to provide hope for this disadvantaged group and also represent a reward for the professionals' effort with a view to reintegrating these children

3.5. Institutional factors

The institutional environment represents the second origin milieu of street children. As already known, care-giving institutions were designed to foster orphan children and socially disadvantaged children (poor and those who were victims of abuses).

Due to the fact that they were institutionalized, children suffer as a result of the breaking of the relations they were familiar with before institutionalization

and have minimal chances to initiate new and correct relations, positive for their development, in the institutional milieu. In accordance with their definition, care-giving institutions include a series of rules and standard social constraints meant for the social modelling of the children. Once children enter the car-giving institution, they are not going to face a diverse environment; instead, all the children are going to develop the same characteristics of social disabilities, which are either determined by social factors, parents or poverty, or by the internal influences that direct them to social deviance.

Nowadays, such institutions are perceived, to a certain extent, and especially by the teenagers looking for independence, as a form of forced separation from daily life, as limitation and isolation instead as a form of social integration. There is no doubt that such a perspective would determine a child to leave the institution and go to the streets, becoming an anonym among the other "street children", far from the imposed standards. "Due to the fact that in the past the children living in such institutions were isolated from normal life, they are not prepared to relate correctly with the adults, the other children, and, generally, with people, at the moment they leave the care-giving system" (Gibbons, Weldge, 1992).

3.6. Education – an integrating factor of the process of socialization

Education plays an important role in the social integration of individuals. This is more obvious in the case of street children due to the factors mentioned previously. The absolute majority of street-connected children do not have access to either education or medical services beyond emergency care (UNICEF, 2018, p.6). For instance, researches subsequent to the physical abuse of a child analysed the relation between physical abuse and cognitive development, the capacity of educational progress, behavioural and physical development. Generally speaking, results show that physical abuse is accompanied by a series of negative effects, on a long term. "Cognitive abilities and educational assimilation are generally slightly decreased than in the case of the children who were not abused"

(Gibbons, Weldge, 1992). After a sexual abuse a series of "school difficulties" are expected. Poverty also has a negative effect upon the development of children, in accordance with Elena Zamfir, determining the cultural confinement of the children to their homes (…) and their exclusion from collective activities (Zamfir, 1992).

Within the educational process, school plays an important part, and, in the case it is fractured, children's abilities decrease. We consider that the stress on education might be a solution for improving the condition of children in difficulty.

4. Street children characteristics based on comparative results of international research

There are several studies which analyse street children characteristics. One of the study argue that that street children are not victims, but are the more resilient of the poor. For example, Wright et al. (1993) studied about 1,000 children, divided into two parts, one was made up of street children not living at home and the other group was made up working children living at home. They were surprised to find that the street children had somewhat better nutrition and physical health than the street vendors.

In Northeast Brazil, "street children do experience hunger at times. But most street children are probably better nourished than their siblings at home" (Hecht 1998, p. 54). In Nepal, street children suffer from less severe malnutrition than children from the countryside (Panter-Brick, Todd, Baker, 1996). Panter-Brick has a long history of excellent public health studies in Nepal where she has made several physical health comparisons between homeless street children and both urban and rural poor children (Panter-Brick et al., 1996). In 2001 she used a finger prick sample of blood to determine the body's ability to ward off pathogens. While she mentions several possible sources of error in the data, she showed that homeless street children experienced signifi cantly less ill-health than children of rural areas (Panter-Brick 2002). Both in Nepal and another study

she conducted in Ethiopia, she showed that while middle class children did better than poor children, among the poor children the homeless did no worse than the ones who stayed in their families.

In an article by Scanlon et al. (1998) the authors compared the physical health of street children and their matched counterparts living at home. They found that while street children suffered more physical trauma such as cuts sprains, bruises, etc. they had better nutrition than their counterparts. Some the advantage might come from begging and thievery, which is directed at food or means of obtaining food. Scanlon and others concluded that the street children they are talking about aspired to many careers, have had experience in working toward their goals, and were adept at achieving them.

Other research made in Jakarta, Indonesia, based on a comparative study, between street children compared to other poor children living at home showed that the street children had, at times, more financial resources than their poor counterparts and were not less healthy or underweight than their counterparts at home (Gross et al., 1996). In conclusion that might mean that the street children had more resources due to having more social services, or might mean that the street children worked better in their groups of peers than poor families (Ibidem).

While Mathur et al. (2009) carried out the study to examine the prevalence, types and intensity of abuse in street children, in Jaipur, India what the study shows, the major cause of abuse is not from their families, as would be assumed by the concept in the developed world, but from the societal and economic factors that we have mentioned which are associated with homeless children in the developing world.

Davies (2008) did some comparison between street children in Western Kenya and poor domiciled children. He found that street children had a higher standard of living than domiciled children. The explanation is because street children keep themselves in the public view, thus drawing more than their fair share of aid.

In La Paz, Bolivia, Landfried, Herman, (1996), in a paper describing their project for street children, compared at risk youth with street children. They found that physical abuse, problems with the police, and school attendance, separated the two groups.

There are exist large data sets from many countries that tell us that homeless youth in developed countries are having many mental health problems while street children in the developing world are resilient (those that break down the genders favor resilient boys). There are studies that show street children with poor mental health (Ahmadkhaniha, Shariat, 2007; Mathur et al. 2009; Sherman and Plitt 2005 ; Njord and Merrill 2008 ; Thabet and Matar 2011).

In Shanghai, China, street children suffered from, cold, illness, hunger and psychological uncertainty, and in the author opinion the rather harsh conditions, constraining the child to immediate survival strategies, with almost no compensation in terms of peer-group sociability, were, according to the Cheng (2006), an illustration of how psychological satisfaction can be reached only when physiological needs are met.

5. Conclusion

Over time, the understanding and conceptualization of the street-child phenomenon has changed considerably because of the increased availability of evidence-based literature published by researchers and child-rights professionals across the globe (Dabir, 2014, p.4).

This paper attempted at analysing the issue of "street children" through employing the concept of "minority", which helped delineating their position within nowadays society.

The synthetic conclusion of the problems under debate shows that each factor that determines this phenomenon may be eliminated in the case there is an understanding of the human being as a whole and of the roles each of us should play.

The resolution made by UNCHR (2012) and related publications recommend actions to be taken by state and nonstate players and provide concrete guidelines for policy and practice, the goal ultimately is to make progress in reaching out to all street-connected children, wherever they may be, to ensure protection of every child's rights (Dabir, 2014, p.20).

Last, but not least, we have to stress the idea that each child represents a universe, which, once discovered, cared for and correctly guided, is capable of proving its whole value within society.

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THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE EMOTIONAL COMPETENCES OF THE TEACHER – A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH

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Abstract

The article addresses the prerequisites for the development of a category of transversal competences of the teacher – emotional competences, which represent a novelty and interest issue in the postmodern pedagogy studies, focused on the professional training for the didactic career. The article tries to configure the cognitive nucleus of the emotional competence issues, based on conceptual analyzes in the representative literature, focused on comprehensive analyses of the terms of emotional competence and emotional intelligence. The multidimensional structures of the two conceptual domains, being in a functional connection, outline the perspectives of the theoretical and methodological approach of the teacher's emotional competence profile.

The presented theoretical foundations will be used in theoretical studies and future empirical research, which we intend to achieve, according to the general assumed objective, of developing a theoretical, methodological and operational system of the process of development of transversal competences for the didactic career, in general, and of the emotional ones in particular.

1. MODELS OF CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF THE KEY TERMS

Appropriate management of the diversity and complexity of educational, teaching and classroom situations is conditioned by the unitary and progressive development of the teacher's professional and transversal competences. In the structure of the professional competence profile of the teaching career, the emotional competences are part of the transversal competences category, they are situated on the affective dimension and they are aimed at maximizing the emotions and feelings in the training-educational process and in their own personal and professional development.

The concept of emotional competence of the teacher is configured by integrating and developing elements from three conceptual spheres at the intersection of which are delineated the specific elements of this category: 1) the general concept of emotional competence; 2) the concept of emotional intelligence; 3) the concept of transversal competences of the teaching profession.

The emotional competence brings together, first of all, functional elements and features of transversal competences, which are structured from "competences of role and competences of personal and professional development" (Methodology for achieving the National Qualifications Framework in Higher Education – Application Guide, apud Bunăiaşu, coord., 2012, p. 15) and are asserted in the "social and group context of exercising a profession, as well as in the awareness of the need for continuous professional training" (ibidem).

The conceptual analysis of emotional competence was initiated by Saarni, based on the assumption that they are developed and asserted in the process of

socialization, in relation to the emotional development, the self-identity, the development of cognitive abilities, the development of moral consciousness (Saarni, 1999). According to Saarni, the abilities acquired in the emotional experiences, in the context of social interaction, underlie the structuring of emotional competence, which indicates "personal effectiveness in clarifying the social transaction of emotions" (Saarni, 2000). Having this in mind, ***emotional competence*** involves the ability to understand and capitalize on the "moral and ethical character of values that influence emotional responses to facilitate the individual's personal integrity" (ibidem).

Saarni identifies eight components of emotional competence, described in terms of capacities, abilities and attitudes that facilitate emotional learning, emotional management and social interaction (Saarni, 2000, apud Baudrit, 2011, 97-98):

1. Awareness of one's own emotional state and evaluation of the types of emotions lived.

2. Perceiving and analyzing the emotions of others based on expressive elements and contextual behaviours.

3. Proper use of terms that define emotions and expressions specific to cultural environments and the acquisition of cultural patterns that combine emotions and social roles.

4. Empathy and manifesting of sympathy for the emotions experienced by others.

5. Understanding the relationship between internal emotional state and external expressions that do not always correspond, and the impact of one's emotions on others.

6. Using personal strategies to overcome negative emotions.

7. Understanding the level of intimacy of social relationships that is determined by the mutual or reciprocal sharing of authentic emotions.

8. Managing your emotional states by accepting your personal emotional experiences by referring them to your beliefs about emotional balance and adopting strategies and techniques to achieve that balance

Based on Saarni's theory, more conceptual-explanatory patterns developed, capturing the cognitive essence of the concept and delimiting categories of derived emotional competences. A representative model with cognitive consistency and educational applicative possibilities is Mikolajczak's model (2014), where five fundamental emotional competences are analyzed: identification, comprehension, expression, regulation, use (Mikolajczack, coord, Quoidbach, Kotsou, Nelis, p. 7):

Competences	*Intrapersonal dimension*	*Interpersonal dimension*
Identification	identifying one's own emotions;	recognition of others' emotions;
Comprehension	understanding the causes and implications of one's own emotions;	understanding the causes and consequences of others' emotions;
Expression	expressing personal emotions in such a way as to determine their social acceptability;	accepting the expression of the emotional states of others;
Regulation	managing stress and one's own emotional states;	management of the emotions and stress of others;
Use	capitalizing on one's own emotions, in order to increase their effectiveness at reflexive, decisions and actions' level.	capitalizing on the emotions of others, in order to increase their effectiveness at reflexive, decisions and actions' level.

Each of the five general competences is detailed on three levels: knowledge, abilities and dispositions (emotional characteristics) (op cit, p. 8). On each level, derived competences are defined, which can be translated into specific situations of emotional learning. ***Emotional learning*** represents a type of experiential learning, centred on the acquisition of metacognitive strategies and techniques used in the development of basic competences that structure the emotional profile of the individual.

Knowledge
(complexity and expansion of the emotional conceptual

Abilities
(application of knowledge in emotional situations and implementation of a given strategy)

Dispositions-features
(the predisposition to behave in a certain way in emotional situations in general)
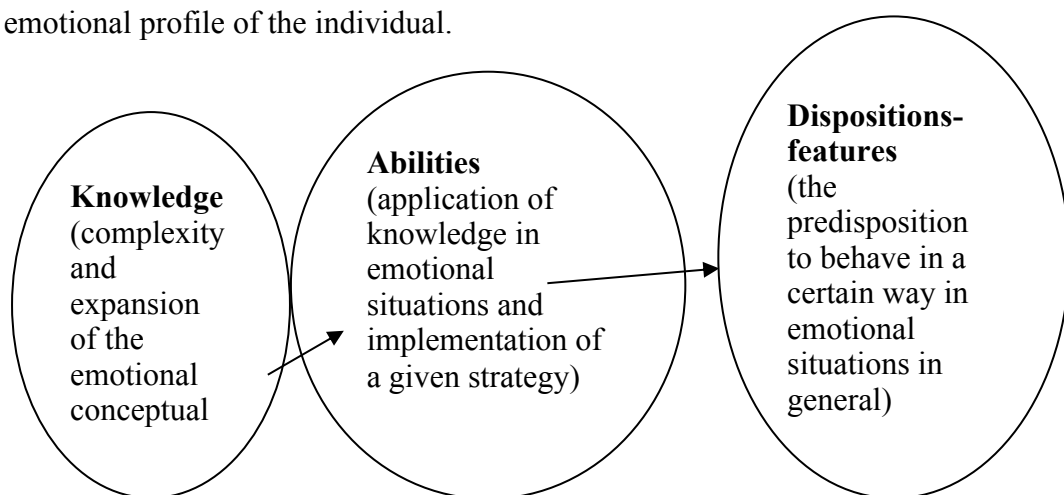
Fig. 1. The three-level model of emotional competences (Mikolajczack, 2014, p. 9)

The analysis of the psycho-pedagogical complementarity relation between the concepts of emotional competence and emotional intelligence facilitates the understanding and maximization of emotions in learning, training, counselling and psycho-pedagogical assistance activities. The psychological basis of emotional learning is the theory of emotional intelligence, developed by Daniel Goleman.

In a generic sense, ***emotional intelligence*** refers to the correct identification, understanding and interpretation of emotions and feelings of oneself and others, to their constructive management and approach in learning situations, social relationships, personal and professional development. Goleman

identifies and operationalises four components of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2001):

1) *self-knowledge*: emotional self-knowledge and awareness of one's own emotional profile, self-confidence, self-image and self-esteem;

2) *self-control*: self-control by managing your own emotional states, defining desirable outcomes and focusing on them, flexibility, optimism, perseverance;

3) *social consciousness*: empathy, orientation towards social performance;

4) *social relationships management*: relationship and communication skills, in the context of organizational and social diversity, leadership skills and change management, adequate management of tensions, focus on cohesion and synergy of the group.

The psychologist Reuver Ban-On develops a theory in which he integrates the concepts of emotional intelligence and emotional competence, in the spirit of comprehensive approach and facilitating the educational approach. Reuver Ban-On introduces the term **emotional coefficient**, which represents the level of development of emotional competences in four dimensions: 1) the intrapersonal level; 2) the interpersonal level; 3) the dimension of stress management; 4) personal flexibility (Bar-On, 1997).

2. THE TEACHER'S EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE PROFILE

The emotional profile of the teacher is the ensemble of affective processes (dispositions, emotions, feelings), the characteristics and degree of development of emotional intelligence and emotional competence, whose conjugate functionality configures the affective-motivational framework of school learning and their own personal and professional development. An important feature of t**he teacher's emotional competence profile** is the areas of intersection of the emotional competences with other areas of transversal competences of the teaching profession, where common elements can be identified: social and civic competences, educational communication skills, intercultural competences.

In a generic sense, the *emotional competence* of the teacher represents the set of knowledge, abilities, values and attitudes so structured, related and transferred to facilitate educational, social and personal and professional development, through the proper management of emotions, feelings and situations which generated them. In our opinion, the teacher's general emotional categories of competence are:

1. ***Cognitive competences***, consisting of:

a) the complex knowledge of one's own feelings and emotions (intellectual, moral, social), of the impact of one's emotional states on the psychosocial climate of the class and of the school institution;

b) correct definition and complex analysis of the forms of manifestation of emotional states of the pupils, as well as the ways of using them as an affective-motivational support of learning.

2. ***Methodological competences***, development and application of affective-motivational strategies that generate positive emotions and positive feelings of the students, desirable values and attitudes in the school environment, impacting on cognitive, emotional, social learning.

Networking and communication competences, consisting of capacities and abilities that facilitate: the expressiveness of educational communication, the nuance of the educational message through non-verbal and paraverbal communication, didactic empathy.

4. ***Managerial competences***, divided into two categories:

a) competences of self-management of the emotional profile, with reference to: adequate management of their own emotional states; professional stress management; the definition of an emotional profile desirable for the teaching profession and the context of the class and of the school institution; the development and application of personal strategies aimed at forming the desirable profile of emotional competence as a structural element of the professional competence profile and objective assumed in career management;

b)   competences to manage the emotional states of the student class level, consisting of: managing the emotions and feelings of students; creating an affective framework and a psychosocial climate oriented towards: stimulation, encouragement, motivation, involvement, prevention of tensions in the class of students, cohesion, cooperation, solidarity, emulation.

3. CONCLUSIONS

The conceptual framework of the teacher's emotional competence profile provides the multidisciplinary perspectives of reflections, theoretical issues and applied research aimed at developing a taxonomy of specific categories and identifying strategies for developing the emotional competences of the teacher. These intentions represent the general objectives of our future studies, which will be on the particularization of elements of emotional competence on dimensions of the personality of the teacher, through the interdisciplinary relations between psychology, emotion sociology, education sciences, career management. Also, a feature of our further analysis and research will be to capitalize on the relationship between the emotional and the intercultural competences of the teacher, the latter having cognitive support and results of personal studies and research (Bunăiaşu, 2015, Bunăiaşu, Strungă, 2016).

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VISIBLE MANIFESTATIONS OF CORPORATE CULTURE: JARGON

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Abstract

We intended to offer in this article a synthesis of the ways in which the culture developed at the corporate level is manifested. The term culture in the organizational analysis refers to the common values and believes that end up characterizing the organizations. Beyond the diversity of these variables, their intensity and their manner of manifestation vary from individual to individual, from one working group to another, but a strong organizational culture will always find and use a common denominator.

Keywords: manifestations, corporate culture, jargon

1. Introduction

The intention of this approach is to provide a synthesis of the ways in which the culture developed at the corporate level is manifested. The term culture in the organizational analysis refers to the common values and believes that end up characterizing the organizations. The concept can be approached from several perspectives, as presented by Eisenberg E. M. , Goodall in their study: *the anthropological vision analyzes the organizational culture as an always evolving,*

organic element; *the* organizational symbolism highlights the language aspects, the stories, the non-verbal messages, as component elements of the organizational culture; *the* critical or postmodernist vision regards organizational culture as a whole, made up of distinct elements, visible in the struggle for holding the control within the organization; *the* cognitive vision defines this type of institutionally developed culture as the set of assumptions that a group has invented (created, discovered) or developed, learning to correctly manage its external adaptation and internal integration problems.

Regardless of the point of view it is regarded from, the organizational culture can be compared to human personality. As humans have a character, a personality, so organizations are represented by a particular culture. It forms the core of the entire institutional network, it influences, and it is influenced by strategy, structure, system, staff and skills. Thus analyzed, the culture that is developed at the level of the organizations becomes a multifaceted factor of influence, consisting of many directions represented by the management styles, the histories, the myths, the rituals, the heroes, the type of power structure, the characteristics of the decision making manner, the policies and the management system. Beyond the diversity of these variables, their intensity and their manner of manifestation vary from individual to individual, from one working group to another, but a strong organizational culture will always find and use a common denominator.

2. Organizational culture and its manifestations

The organizational culture is the center around which the organization is developed, it is built by people and it has its roots in the culture of the nation on whose territory the institutions operate. By understanding this construct, many managers give a major importance to corporate culture management. Becoming a well-structured body, this type of culture has the role to unify the organization into a chain of tacit meanings, providing human specific meanings to all activities

and organizational processes. At the same time, it becomes the most resistant factor in any change endeavor, regardless of its scale.

Definition, structure, manifestations of organizational culture have become an important object of study in the literature with the birth of transnational companies, with the transition from general management to international management and then to the global one.

The manifestations of organizational culture are numerous, we can distinguish between them visible elements such as: behaviors, jargon elements, rituals, symbols, ceremonies, but also invisible elements: values, convictions, norms, concepts. All cultural and organizational manifestations are in an interdependence relationship that accentuates their strength.

3. The jargon, the presentation of the concept in dictionaries of the Romanian language

Before presenting the specifics of jargon within the culture of an organization, we offer a series of points of view on this concept. These conceptual developments are taken from the reference dictionaries of the Romanian language. As it is known, jargon means "a socio- professional variety of the language specific to groups of persons united on the basis of the community of interests, professional concerns, social situation, age, etc. Unlike the territorial variations of the language (speeches, dialects), jargon is not characterized by specific phonetic or grammatical particularities. The characteristic feature of these languages is the use of neological, last hour, unadjusted elements, unknown yet in larger circles. Sometimes, the jargon vocabulary contains also elements taken from the common language that have undergone certain changes in meaning " (limba-romana.ucoz.ro/index/jar/0-63).

Another definition of the concept, the most used one, we believe, considers the jargon as "a language including specific words and expressions, used by certain social categories" (Oprea, Pamfil, Radu, Zăstroiu 2009: 774).

In Marele dicționar de neologisme (the Great Dictionary of Neologisms), Florin Marcu defines jargon as "a language specific to certain social or professional categories, with a restricted sphere of circulation, which has no main vocabulary and grammatical structure of its own" (March 2008: 532).

A broader explanation of the concept made from the perspective of a linguist, meant to achieve a precise inclusion of the jargon as a form of language manifestation, in general, is provided by Gheorghe Constantinescu-Dobridor in *Micul dicționar de terminologie lingvistică* (the Small Dictionary of Linguistic Terminology): "jargon is a language specific to wealthy social categories and to some professions (physician, lawyer, etc.); it has a narrow sphere of circulation, it does not have a basic vocabulary and a grammatical structure of its own, but a small number of pretentious words and expressions of foreign origin (very close to the etymons from the languages from which they were borrowed and not assimilated by the usual language). Jargon elements are also used by other social categories in their desire to differentiate themselves from the large mass of speakers. However, they are not recommendable, since there are plenty of synonyms in the language - inherited or borrowed - used by all speakers. In the Romanian language, there were mostly Grecian and French jargon elements. Nowadays, some elements of French jargon still persist in some people speech (Constantinescu-Dobridor 1980: 257).

We note from the above-mentioned definitions that the jargon is a language used by various professional categories, hard to understand by the vast mass of speakers not familiarized with the fields of activity in question. It is a specific code that distinguishes one job from another. Beyond the pragmatic aspects of each professional activity, there is also a language that makes us realize that those who use it are teachers, doctors, informaticians, jurists, etc. This is one of the reasons that have led to consider the jargon a colloquial variant of specialized languages, relying on a specialized technical vocabulary. Of great importance today is the jargon of informaticians, given the wide spread of this profession.

4. The jargon, a visible manifestation of the culture of an organization

The jargon vocabulary has a variable character, suffering frequent changes caused by certain influences or by changing professions.

Being connected, as we have specified, to the carrying out of professional activities, the jargon naturally penetrates into the culture of organizations and becomes one of its forms of manifestation. For, each organization tends to create their own, specific language, which reflects both the characteristics of their members and also the nature of the performed activities and pursued objectives. The language tends to allocate certain meanings, connotations to some words that are selected by the members of the organization. The jargon is a customized form of this type of transmission of meanings specific to the members of a group.

It was noticed that the jargon used in a company is often quite different from the one used in others. Even within the same company, jargon distinguishes one group or department from another. For example, accountants may have a certain type of jargon, sales agents, another one. On a hierarchical level also, in an organization, there are notable differences in language, between the top level, of the management, and the lower one, of the performers. Our opinion is that language differences between various organizations or between departments of the same institution, arise from an apparent differentiation of culture and education of the members in the institutional framework.

At the same time, the jargon can provide an insight on the level of professionalization of the staff and of other components of corporate culture. The outer layer of the culture is made up of symbols. The cultural symbols are the words (jargon and dialect), the gestures, the figures, and other physical objects that have a particular meaning in a culture.

5. Conclusions

The language specific to a particular organizational culture is gradually formed, over time. The longevity and permanence of an organization guarantees

the existence of a strong culture on which it relies and, therefore, its impressive forms of manifestation. We once again insist on this particular language of every institutional structure, because efficient communication in any organized environment is based on the use of a common linguistic code. The companies that pay attention to the values and beliefs of employees (for example, IBM, General Electric, Procter and Gamble) also had a high level of performance. The culture of an organization affects most policies, decisions and activities of the company and thus it has an important effect on business success.

Strong cultures do not always involve success, but only the existence of widely shared rules of behavior. For the values, norms, symbols, language that accompany the culture of an organization to be relevant, it is necessary to respect the institutional and legal framework in question.

From the presentation of the jargon elements as forms of visible manifestation of the organizational culture, we wanted to highlight the close connection that is formed between all these elements that the corporate culture is based on and that it highlights. Together they converge towards a strengthening of the organization, which will affect the business success.

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THE MAIN PRINCIPLES AND TECHNIQUES OF RADIO NEWS WRITING

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Abstract

Radio broadcast journalism has certain principles and techniques which are always to be taken into consideration when writing a script. News writing for radio is based on some rigors meant to assure that the public will receive the information properly. First of all, radio news must be concise, clear, and accurate. The information should be meticulously verified and transmitted only when the radio journalist has a confirmation beyond any doubt. The script must answer to the most important journalistic questions (the so-called Five W's: who, what, when, where, and why), and it is mandatory to be structured in a manner that helps the presenter draw and maintain the attention of the listeners for as long as possible. The text of the news must be easy to be read and easy to be understood. It is meant to be comprehended only by listening, so the editor should comply with the rules that guarantee an impeccable reception of the message transmitted.
Key words: radio, broadcast, journalism, news, writing, techniques, principles

Writing for radio broadcasts is not as easy as some might think. Especially when one deals with radio news writing, because there is a significant difference between the conversational discourse and the broadcast journalism/news discourse. The tone is different, and also the vocabulary used and the structure of the phrase. A radio journalist must always have in mind the

fact that the text is meant to be received only by listening. There is no graphic/visual support, there is no way of immediately revisiting the text. So the journalist should be a hundred percent sure that the message transmitted will be flawlessly comprehended by most if not all the audience of the radio station. That implies a set of rules, rigors and principles which very often are different than those applied in the written press. The radio journalists must be aware of the fact that they write texts to be listened to, not to be read, therefore they should construct the news in order to create certain mental images.

An essential principle for journalism, in general, and for broadcast journalism, in particular, is the accuracy. It is the cornerstone of news writing, because on the accuracy of the facts described relies all the other elements of the journalistic product delivered. A serious radio station can't afford transmitting incomplete or loosely verified information, not to mention fake news. The reputation is of vital importance for media institutions, it is a trademark that must be preserved at any costs. The good reputation is gained in time and with persistent efforts, but it can be lost in a moment. It is hard to gain, and harder to regain. That is why it is mandatory for news editors to verify and re-verify the information acquired. To verify the information from three sources, as the manuals and guidelines advise us to always do: "The hallmark of journalism as a writing art - either print or broadcast - is the accurate presentation of facts. Your finished product must correspond accurately with the facts of the story. In the field you will follow every possible lead to get the facts as well as report them" (www.tpub.com/journalist/146.htm).

There must be stressed that, although there are still controversies upon this matter, a journalistic style really exists and it is to be referred to accordingly. Some theoreticians consider that there is also a news-writing style, which is an understandable tendency when taking into consideration the distinctive elements identified in the way news are constructed. One of the most important rules in writing for radio is the concision. It is frequently reminded in the news rooms the expression "Keep it short and simple", or "Keep it short and sweet" (KISS). This

phrase is extremely evocative and must be applied with religiosity by news editors and anchors, as David Brewer, the reputed journalist and media strategy consultant who founded Media Helping Media, emphasizes: "The script should be written in simple, short sentences. Try to use everyday language and terms your audience will understand. It should not contain any complicated concepts that could confuse and distract. Use everyday language and avoid complex concepts" (www.mediahelpingmedia.org/training-resources/journalism-basics/646-tips-for-writing-radio-news-scripts).

We must highlight here also another golden rule for radio news journalists: clarity. The editors must be careful and focused on the fact that the text is comprehensible and the structure is as simple as possible. Easy to read, easy to understand. Otherwise, the entire journalistic effort is useless: "The vast majority of your audience is focused on basic needs. Their language is simple. If your audience can't get what you're saying, all the investigating you've done will have been done in vain" (www.mediahelpingmedia.org/training-resources/journalism-basics/646-tips-for-writing-radio-news-scripts)

In order to attract and keep the attention of the audience for as long as possible, the lead or the attack phrase of the news must be short and suggestive. The first paragraph should contain the answers to most of the main journalistic questions, the so-called Five W's: who, what, when, where, and why. The answer to the rest of them and, in addition, the question "how", are to be found in the body or the running text of the story. This writing structure is widely known as "the inverted pyramid" (also called summary news lead style, or bottom line up front - BLUF) and it is meant to draw the attention instantly and not allow the listeners lose their interest in the story rendered.

Most Newsworthy Info
Who? What? When? Where? Why? How?

Important Details

Other General Info
Background
Info
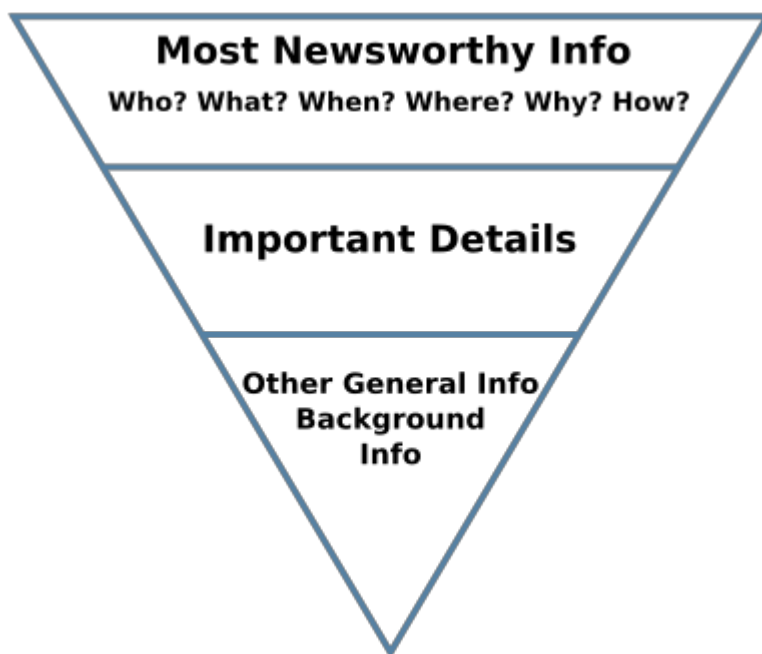
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Inverted_pyramid_(journalism)

You must grab the attention of the audience by teasing the most interesting part of the news from the very beginning, without neglecting the rest of it and remaining relevant throughout the entire text, as David Brewer underlines: "You are crafting a tease to material that is designed to make people stop and listen. The language should be in the active tense. The most important information must feature in the first few sentences. However, the quality should be consistent throughout, and the script must not tail off at the end" (www.mediahelpingmedia.org/training-resources/journalism-basics/646-tips-for-writing-radio-news-scripts). As Brewer stresses, we must start with a crisp and sharp introduction that pinpoints the main elements of the news, the most valuable information, and only then we can add the contextualization, the background and the analysis that will help our listeners understand the multiple nuances and the correct perspectives of the story depicted.

Ranking the news in the bulletin is also essential. The inverted pyramid technique, used in the manner demonstrated earlier, must be taken into consideration also when we rank the stories about to be included in the bulletin.

The correct order is from the most important events to those who we feel that, although not as important as the first ones, must be presented to our public. There are some simple tips which can solve this stringent problem of the news editors and presenters. First they must read all the information available, then read once more and organize three lists or categories:

"Important stories which you must use;

Stories which you can use, but which are not so important;

Stories which you cannot use, for any reason.

First look at the stories in category one. Calculate roughly how much news these will give you (if each story will be approximately 40 seconds long and you have four of them, they will take about 2 minutes 40 seconds to read). Now choose enough stories from category two to more than fill the remaining time. Together with your essential category one stories, decide the order in which you want to use them, taking into account their importance, length and pace.

You can combine stories on similar topics, either running them as one story or as two stories linked with words such as <Meanwhile> or <Still on the subject of ...>. A word of caution. Do not combine too many stories, because they will become a shapeless mass and you will lose the impact of separate intros" (www.thenewsmanual.net/Manuals%20Volume%202/volume2_49.htm).

Another fundamental rule for the news writers is that they must be aware of the fact that their own opinions on the story depicted are not meant to be included in the news under any circumstances. The information is presented in a very equidistant manner, the anchor letting the story speak for itself: "Commenting is judging, expressing an opinion. This is not why you're there. Stick to the facts" (www.24hdansuneredaction.com/en/radio/24-major-radio-principles/). The only opinions allowed in the news are those of the persons involved in the story.

The way of speaking on radio is just as important as the way the information is structured and written. Finding the right tone and speed when reading the news in front of the microphone is essential in order to avoid altering

the process of transmitting the message. The listeners must be able to comprehend the information provided, and the voice of the anchor, the tonality, the intonation, the phrasing, they all have a key role in radio communication process. The voice is the radio tool that must be used in the right way to describe and suggest: "We speak more slowly on air than in real life, but we need to describe, to tell stories, to create pictures. We need to come off as lively, not as robot. You must find the right style, a simple one, fitting with your character. In just a few words, a reporter can describe an empty place, recently deserted by a crowd – and you will picture it, just as if you were there. Having your own style and on air presence requires perpetual work" (ww.24hdansuneredaction.com/en/radio/24-major-radio-principles/).

The newsreader should find the right reading rate and make the correct calculations and assessments: "Once you know your average reading rate, you can estimate how long it will take to read each story. Of course, you will not want to count all the words in all your stories; this would take too long. It is better to count just the number of lines. First, count how many words there are in 50 lines of your standard news scripts, then divide the total by 50. This will give you the average number of words per line. For example, if there are 600 words in 50 lines of script, the average is 12 words per line. Now you can calculate how long it takes you to read a line of script. For example, if your reading rate is 2 words per second and your script contains an average of 12 words per line, you can read one line in 6 seconds (12 divided by 2). By counting the total number of lines in each story, you can calculate quite accurately how long they will take to read. For example, a story with 8 lines of type will take 48 seconds to read (8 times 6). Mark the time on the bottom right-hand corner of each story" (Stewart & Alexander, 2016, p. 5). In the end, as Peter Stewart and Alexander Ray reveal, we must emphasize the fact that it is not for everyone to succeed in broadcast journalism because of the skills and the talent required, as well as the permanent development of these qualities: "Demanded skills include finding stories, crisp, concise fast writing, packaging together scripts, sound, interviews, pictures,

maps or graphics, reporting live, reading news, multimedia skills, understanding media law and social media hazards, versioning texts to be seen on mobile devices, knowing the names of people in the news, people about to be news, people who once were news, getting wet, hot, cold, being alert at three in the morning or standing outside a building for hours waiting for a moment that will last seconds. The good news? You will never be bored" (Stewart & Alexander, 2016, p. 5).

The broadcast journalists must constantly train their writing techniques and lose under no circumstances their thirst for information and personal development. They must be alert at any time and aware of the fact that improving their skills means that the information will be transmitted in a more efficient and reliable way: "Writing for broadcasting is not a natural process in which you just write sentences in your usual way. For The Job you will obviously have done a lot of writing and enjoy the power of words. You read lots of news, books, maybe poetry. Sometimes you read something and you can think: I love that sentence and I wish I'd written a sentence like that. And one day, you will" (Stewart & Alexander, 2016, p. 5).

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MOTIVATION AND SCHOOL LEARNING. QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH ON "STEFAN VELOVAN" NATIONAL COLLEGE CRAIOVA

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Abstract

The "Motivation and School Learning" work addresses students' motivation and learning issues, which helps them understand the benefits of these two processes, so that the goals set by them are attained. The theme chosen by us is important in that it presents the forms of motivation and its influence on the teaching-learning process and the harmonious development of the student's personality. To be motivated is to act, to tend towards something, to do something. A student who feels no impulse or need to act is an unmotivated student, while a student who is activated or energized to act toward a goal is considered a motivated student. It is important for the pupil to show interest in school, to accomplish the school tasks and to meet the established goals. To be successful, teachers need to form a teaching-learning style that motivates students, centered on arguing their usefulness, enhancing existing skills and competences, and ensuring action. It is good for teachers to encourage students

to take ambitious goals or to persuade them to accept the goals they propose, depending on the interests and skills identified.

Keywords: students, motivation, knowledge, teachers

1. Introduction

The theme "Motivation and School Learning" is an important topic in Romania because in most cases students claim that they are not motivated to learn because the benefits of school learning are not clearly explained and the methods adopted by the teachers for motivation are not convincing enough. That is why we want to emphasize the importance of a correct motivation from the point of view of school education. The motto of our research on this subject is represented by Anne Gottlier's words "It's so hard when you got to ... and so easy when you have a motivation."

The motivation for choosing this theme derives from our passion for becoming teachers and using the appropriate means to motivate students. At the same time, we want to emphasize that students need to be motivated and supported in what they do, both teachers and parents, in order to achieve the proposed objectives.

The research objectives are as follows:

• Identification and analysis of elements / factors related to the motivation for students learning;

• Description of the most frequent didactic and motivation strategies used by teachers in current practice;

• Identifying the reasons for learning;

• Underlining the importance of school activities in learning.

In order to achieve the objectives of this paper, a questionnaire was used as a research tool for quantitative research, targeting pupils of "Stefan Velovan" National College in Craiova.

In the broad sense, learning is performing some activities in order to assimilate knowledge, skills, and abilities. The question is "how can students assimilate this knowledge?" Under these conditions, there are methods to motivate students to learn. The term "motivation" comes from the Latin "move" or "movere" = move, set in motion. It follows that motivation is any force, whatever its nature, which moves the body, the activity it carries out. The concept of motivation was launched in psychological literature in 1930 by E. Dichter, who considers that motivation is the real cause of human behavior. Motivation works at different levels: superficial and unconscious (stimulates and impulses) (Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1992; Zlate, 1994).

Learning also depends to a large extent on the goals that students propose, to reach where they want. Motivation is the key to success in this situation due to the fact that if the teacher motivates students to assimilate as much knowledge as they can, they may succeed in creating a career path to suit them. Thus, motivation is a totality of dynamic factors that determine the conduct of man (Savca, 2005).

External stimuli such as: the pupil learns due to the fear of punishment or because it is told to learn are not the best methods of motivation. Rather, these modalities should not be applied because they may have negative effects on the personality of the student. Instead, rewards have the strongest control effect, because the pressure to meet a request in order to receive a reward is evident (Popescu, 2015; Popescu et al., 2017).

Interests influence the learning outcomes by the fact that a child with learning interests will engage in such activity, while an uninterested one will escape from such activities by using various pretexts. Interests can be triggered, developed, modeled, but if the teacher has no tact in this respect, it is possible to suppress the interests even if the student had them initially. Therefore, teaching methods should be adapted to the interests of children.

When a student is in a learning-friendly psychic state, the student is attentive to the content, perceives more and more accurately. There may,

however, be psychological conditions unfavorable to learning, which lead to a distorted perception of a thing, a phenomenon or a notion. The psychic state can be influenced by the student's attraction to the learning activity, the awakening of his interest, the student's engagement in the activity.

In other words, students can effectively avoid the failure to solve the task of learning by being careless and indifferent if they are seen as such by others. In this respect, the methods used by the teacher to stimulate the student to learn prove to be inefficient and useless.

2. Aspiration towards competence and the desire to become a good specialist

"What is school motivation or learning motivation?". The motivation for learning is made up of all the motives that, in their quality of internal circumstances of personality, determine, direct, organize and amplify the intensity of the learning effort. (Trust & Mardar, 2007; Teodorescu, 2017)

Thus, we can say that the student, as indeed any person, until he has not satisfied his or her primary need, such as the need for nourishment or security, cannot feel the necessity of self-realization or the need to learn (Voinea, Negrea & Teodorescu, 2016). From our experience as pupils, we can say that the environment in which the child develops, as is the case of those left in the care of their distant relatives and neighbors, as their parents work abroad, leaves a poignant mark on school learning.

The current concepts of motivation seem to be based on the premise that a motivational state is a special one, distinct, clearly differentiated from the other things that happen in the body. A correct theory of motivation should, on the contrary, assume that motivation is constant, infinite, fluctuating and complex, and that it is an almost universal feature of all the states that characterize the body (Maslow, 2007, p. 69).

The presence or absence of motivation influences the initiation, orientation and support of any psychic activity. For example, a student motivated for learning can be recognized by the following features: he is deeply involved

in learning tasks, self-controlling through goals that he / she clearly sets, he / she adjusts his / her learning activity, has a great capacity for learning, has the tendency to constantly operate the transfer of what has been learned from one domain to another.

In the concrete existence of man, various forms of motivation are classified in opposite pairs. Thus, there would be positive motivation, produced by premature stimuli, for example: praise, encouragement, reward; versus negative motivation, caused by the use of aggressive stimuli, for example: threat, punishment, blame, and another pair would be intrinsic motivation versus extrinsic motivation (Buzdugan, 2006; Popescu et al., 2017).

It is therefore very important for teachers to instill a motivation for positive and intrinsic learning in their students, which will lead to school success and the determination of students to achieve their goals. The intrinsic motivation refers to those internal motives that are satisfied directly by performing the learning action (eg, the desire to know a certain thing, the personal curiosity etc.). The extrinsic motivation is generated by the desire to avoid a punishment, or the desire to get a reward from another person. Such reasons are met indirectly through learning activity, unlike the intrinsic motives, whose satisfaction is directly achieved through this activity.

In fact, learning is motivated both intrinsically and extrinsically. It has been found, however, that learning is much more productive when the child comes to learn from pleasure, from cognitive interest to a particular object of study, when it is intrinsically motivated. Some intrinsic motives have a primary character, being related to the basic needs of the human being, others have a secondary character, being derived from extrinsic motifs, by their internalization. For example, at young ages, the motivation for learning is predominantly extrinsic, as the child learns more from the desire to please his family or gain the teacher's sympathy (desire to belong), from meeting the requirements and obligations set by adults (the normative trend), or by the "ambition" of being a school prodigy. It is possible, however, over time that these extrinsic reasons lead

to the "discovery" by the child of the interesting character of the object of study and this may contribute to the emergence of intrinsic motivation.

The strive for competence, the desire to become a good specialist can also contribute to the transformation of the initial extrinsic motivation into the intrinsic motivation of learning (Trandabăţ & Gîfu, 2017). The personal example of the teacher, the parents and other close persons, the mastery of the teacher in providing his or her lessons with an atmosphere of intellectual solicitation and in giving the pupils the sense of constant progress on the way of knowing a certain field can all constitute important pedagogical factors of transformation extrinsic motivation in intrinsic motivation of learning.

3. Motivational factor - predictor of success

In the long run, the motivation to achieve higher-level achievements tends to be associated with higher returns. Therefore, the motivational factor is considered a better predictor of success than the measurement of skills.

There are a significant number of environmental factors that teachers can use to increase student motivation.

1. Start the lesson by giving students a clear goal in order to be motivated

2. Explain their expectations clearly

3. Set short-term goals

4. Verbal and written assessments

5. Using familiar materials for examples

6. Minimize attractiveness of competitive motivation

At the age of preadolescence, the motivational value of the skills is, however, less well-known to students. The situation is explained by the fact that these attributes are not yet fully formed, as well as by their limited possibilities of self-knowledge. However, we included the category of special skills, because, especially when learning about the subjects they are interested in, some students motivate it by the presence of these attributes: "I am better at this subject"; "I have skills"; "I have talent"; "I learn with ease at some disciplines" etc.

Included in this category of reasons are the students' answers that state "why" they learn without interest, with no pleasure in some objects: "I am not good at this subject"; "I am tone deaf"; "I have no talent in modern languages"; "I solve problems hard because I'm a slow thinker", etc.

The optimal motivation should not be understood only quantitatively, according to the criterion of energy intensity, but also qualitatively, according to the criterion of the value of the energizing factor (Frunză, 2018). Observations show that when they feel they lack sufficient knowledge to answer a question and their operational background is too undevelopped to solve a problematic situation successfully, pupils usually panic, become agitated and nervous. Limiting the orientation in the learning task to the perceptual model, to "attempts and errors", increases the share of subjective activism (affective). Cognitive uncertainty generates anxiety and affective tension. Too much mobilization in the direction of extrinsic emotional experiences makes students work impulsively, under pressure, in insecurity (Golu, 1987; Dramnescu & Enachescu, 2017; Roşca, 2017).

Learning, as the general property of the human psychic system, is an expression of the ability to self-organize and self-develop, based on hereditary potential and activity conditions. But as a psychic activity, it is a relationship between the body and the environment, in which energy consumption with an adaptive purpose takes place; a process that carries a certain human relationship with the world, according to specific needs; all manifestations of external or mental conduct that lead to adaptive results. However, learning is also an activity of assimilating or acquiring knowledge and intellectual operations needed for building up cognitive systems and operational structures.

There is an interdependence between psychic processes and learning (Negrea, 2015). On the one hand, the learning activity engages and involves all psychic processes and functions, such as perception, observation, imagery, and imagination as a whole, especially thought and memory, motivation and affectivity, and especially language, will and attention (Vlăduțescu, 2013; 2014;

2019). On the other hand, learning, especially in its intensive forms, contributes to the modeling, structuring, and even the constitution of mental processes, as it not only enhances their content but also imposes the construction of new operative means, restructurings or special organizations within the whole human psychic system. Therefore, it is considered that learning is in some frameworks generative or formative and constructive.

Cognitive learning contributes and relies on the development of analysis and synthesis, abstraction and generalization, comparison and classification, algorithmics and heuristics, systematization and logical organization of thinking. The center of cognitive learning concerns the assimilated information-cognitive content. Therefore, programmatically, cognitive learning opposes superficiality and formalism. It is possible to learn something to reproduce orally or in writing through words without having understood the conceptual meanings correctly or without mastering the appropriate system of ideas.

4. Quantitative research on motivation and school learning

The study was carried out on a number of 50 pupils of the "Stefan Velovan" National Pedagogical College from Craiova.

The objectives of the research are: to identify methods that help pupils to be more motivated to learn; how motivated they are; emphasizing the importance of school activities in learning; identifying the reasons for learning.

After applying the questionnaire, we realized that 40% of the respondents are male and the remaining 60% are female. As far as their level is concerned, all those who responded are pupils in the 10th grade.

Starting from the desire to learn as much information as possible about the questioned students, I asked the following question: "How motivated / motivated are you for learning?". The recorded responses, as they appear in the appendix, are the following: 16% very much, 46% much, 30% less and 8% very little.

To find ways to help students become more motivated, we have asked the following question: "What makes you more motivated?" The result was surprising. Thus, 60% considered it to be more motivated by attractive classes, 32% considered practical lessons, 2% class climate, 8% other.

In order to understand and identify the reasons why students learn, we have asked the following question: "What are the reasons for learning?" Starting from the premise that each student has different opinions and expectations, we have developed a number of variants, so the most representative answers were: 46% to get good grades, 38% because the curriculum is interesting, 22% to pass the tests, 12% the teacher's methods, 6% fear of the teacher.

Taking into account that school activities play a rather important role in shaping the pupil's personality and in the learning process, we have asked the following question: "How much does school activities help in learning?" The answers to this question were: 16% very much, 40% much, 28% little, 8% very little, 8% at all.

The question "Do you think the things taught in school will help you succeed in life?" had the objective of learning the students' opinions about the usefulness of things they learn in school for later in life. The following responses were recorded: 16% yes, 24% no, 30% maybe.

To find out the students' satisfaction with the teaching methods used by teachers, we asked the following question: "How satisfied are you with the teaching methods used by the teachers?" The answers were: 14% very dissatisfied, 22% dissatisfied, 42% satisfactory, 18% satisfied and 4% very satisfied (the degree of satisfaction with the teaching methods used by teachers in a college that prepares students to become teachers is quite low).

How satisfied are you with the teaching methods used by the teachers?

14% 22% 42% 18% 4%

very dissatisfied · dissatisfied · satisfactory · satisfied · very satisfied
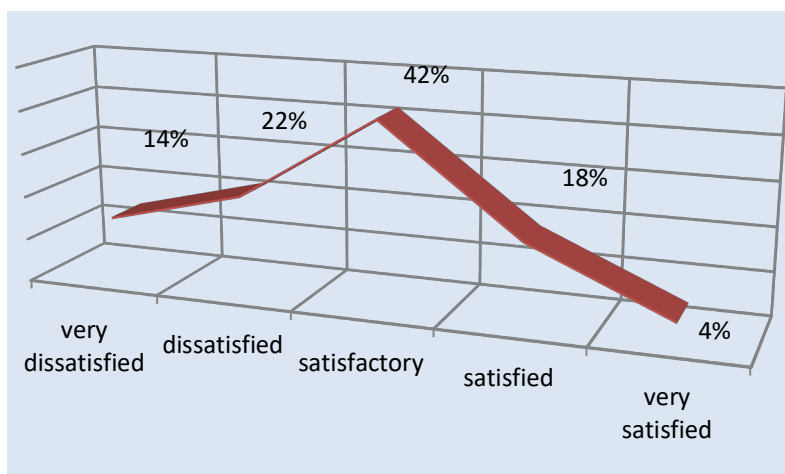
5. Conclusions

In order to create motivation, it is necessary to present to the pupils the purpose of learning, the fields of application of knowledge, to positively appreciate and encourage them to achieve their life goals, to show the progress they made, to awaken their curiosity about what they need to learn.

The teachers 'motivation for motivating school education is insufficient and teachers' pedagogical skills are more important than the amount of technical means available. The learning efficiency decreases when there is a minimum level of motivation or overmotivation and increases at an optimal level as an area between the minimum and the maximum. Knowing the real motives of student learning will enable teachers to intervene appropriately and timely to ensure student success in learning.

Also from our perspective, a motivated child who wants to learn, enjoys doing activities related to learning and believes that school and learning are

important activities for his life. The role of motivation in school learning is very complex. Motivation explains not only the student's learning at one point but also its dynamics from one stage to the next. Motivation plays an important role in learning, as it leads to an increase in student efforts, a better concentration of attention, a faster workflow. Intensifying learning, it influences the memory capacity, in terms of the amount of information retained.

Motivation thus appears as the end product of multiple interactions. It is, first of all, a result of the student's own perceptions and expectations about the difficulty of the task and the ability to address it. Teachers will have to pay attention to the problems students have to clarify, not to minimize the problems that trouble them, to give them respect, and motivate them in order to achieve school success.

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THE MESSAGE AS AN INDIVIDUAL LINGUISTIC FACT

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Abstract

The present study is on the axis of the history of communication and refers to incidental elements of the history of the concepts. The object of the research is the conception of Tatiana Slama-Cazacu (1920-2011) about the message as an individual linguistic fact. The methodical procedure of research used is meta-analytical and synthesizing. Firstly, Tatiana Slama-Cazacu's significant contributions to the development of Linguistics and Psycholinguistics are revealed; then, there are arguments to prove that she is the founder of communication research, of communication studies in Romania.

It highlights the research she has made about the message, the relationship between meaning, meaning, speech, speech and message. Finally, the joints of her thesis about the message as an individual linguistic fact are brought to light.

Keywords: meaning, language, system, communication, message

1. Introduction

The most important Romanian contribution to the development of linguistics is Tatiana Slama-Cazacu's book "Language and Context" (1959); this book develops the "Principles of Adaptation in Contexts" previously formulated (Slama-Cazacu, 1956). It has been translated into several languages, including French (Slama-Cazacu, 1961) and cited hundreds of times.

Also, Tatiana Slama-Cazacu has a significant contribution in the world to the consolidation of psycholinguistics as a science and its introduction in Romania. His book "Introduction to Psycholinguistics" (Slama-Cazacu, 1968) was translated into French (Slama-Cazacu, 1972) and English (Slama-Cazacu, 1973) and is quoted by research from all continents; to highlight that it is quoted by one of the greatest contemporary specialists in T. A. Van Dijk (1997).

Thirdly, Tatiana Slama-Cazacu is a pioneer of research in the field of communication sciences in Romania (Slama-Cazacu, 1962; Slama-Cazacu, 1964; Slama-Cazacu & Bejat, 1973).

Four of his ideas on the message are of great relevance to understanding the functioning of communication processes:

a) the idea of using verbal messages in automation (Slama-Cazacu, 1964a; Slama-Cazacu, 1964b);

b) the idea that when multiple codes are used in the communication one can speak of a "mixed syntax" (Slama-Cazacu, 1973; Slama-Cazacu, 1976) and

c) the idea that in the work processes verbal messages acquire traits (Slama-Cazacu, 1963; Slama-Cazcu, 1964c);

d) the idea that the message is an individual linguistic fact (Slama-Cazacu, 1999).

2. Language and message

According to Tatiana Slama-Cazacu, the main function of language is communication. This function is accomplished by the finality of its two aspects, its issuing and reception. The moment of issuance, on the one hand, is not, in the

case of normal language, an unintended act, nor is it a free effort to express, but it has a precise purpose, to transform a psychic content into an objective fact, has a significantly coded value, clear to the other. This objective fact is passed to the interlocutor via the message (with everything that it contains as implicit and explicit elements). Reception, on the other hand, is manifested through an active attitude, not only of interest for what the emitter expresses, but also of an effort of understanding, which attempts to value what was externalized and what was implicit, unexpressed. The two partners have to solve the problem of adapting to each other.

The external medium through which agreement is made between the speaker and the auditor is the use, for the "message building" and for its decoding, of a common instrument, that is, of the language known by both interlocutors. A condition that is not enough, however. First of all, the transmitter and the receiver always operate a selection in the language system (in what they stored from it through the individual linguistic system), reworking at each moment original, original sequences in their entirety. But "a little more", used in language, "language" becomes a concrete act (as we have seen, individual linguistic facts, messages) that acquires all the nuances or characteristics appropriate to the various circumstances in which it is used and the auxiliary means, non-verbal "(Slama-Cazacu, 1999, p. 103).

In the act of communication, any articulated movement represents (with the exception of emotional expressions or "parasitic", etc., which can intervene at the same time) a certain intention to signify the transmitter coded by a certain system of signs. The message is not only composed of materialized forms (for example, sounds) that can be directly perceptible to the receiver, or simple articulation movements that the transmitter appears to produce automatically and without intermediate stations. A sequence of sounds does not constitute an "information" message for a transmitter unless it implies a meaning for it, that is, if it can be decoded completely. "The significance, says T. Slama-Cazacu, is not" added "by the receiver, the material forms being transmitted are not only

subsequently significantly complemented by the receiver. The message is thus materially constructed that it carries its meaning with itself, so the receiver also receives productive germs of meaning" (Slama-Cazacu, 1999, p. 104). That is why the process of issuing is much more complex than a simple articulation, and the reception exceeds the mere perception of some stimuli. Even in the process of articulating as such, there is the intention of signification, of conveying a meaning, of giving meaning to expression - an intention of signification with all that involves it.

Reception is a dynamic, active and complex process, it requires a rich, conscious activity, sustained attention, and even an effort - unobserved in general, in this case it has been banalized - to gather all the data necessary for the understanding of an expression. The receiver must be careful of all the information he could collect around him, he must select the message proper (isolated from the surrounding stimuli); he must also use additional clues (offered by voice, gestures, mimics, etc.) (Slama-Cazacu, 1999, pp. 108-109).

Even when it was perceived and "deciphered" a message, orally or in writing, in every element of it, it cannot be said that its total understanding was implicitly made (Frunza, 2018; Frunza & Sandu, 2018). In reception, the meaning is not "impersonal", strictly denotative. The receiver reports - is obliged to do it - to the subjective, personal nuances, to the connotative meaning. At the moment of reception (as is the case at the time of expression), the meanings of the various perceived forms are now selected by the receiver, by his "personal baggage", depending on the possible relationships between these meanings in the lexical systems, the receiver relying on an interpretation contextual (which corresponds to the contextual organization made by the emitter).

Reception implies a continuous "creation" by trying to recreate, around a nucleus, the meaning intended by the transmitter: the reception does not consist of passively accepting an "associated" value by virtue of the authority of the dictionary or a fixed ratio due to simultaneous occurrence, repeated and mechanical, sign and object. Understanding, in language activity, is not only to

accept someone's manifestation as a "fact of language"; it true value must be remembered: that is to say, to be properly captured by the organization, the explicit relations and, at the same time, the implicit ones (Ekaterina, 2016; Basic, 2018). A sign is always issued by someone at some point (Medveschi & Frunza, 2018; Chernov & McCombs, 2019). Understanding goes beyond, in order to achieve an optimum, the actual expression, because it relates to the entire personality of the transmitter (Siminica et al., 2017; Sandu et al., 2018). On the other hand, in expression (as in reception), signs are used, organized in an obvious system in the consciousness of each person and characteristic of each individual.

3. System and message

Professor T. Slama-Cazacu does not see this system as coming from the interchange of the "system" with the "norm", and it seems necessary to introduce a fourth or even fifth notion in the Saussurian systemization (besides the language or language system, speech as passwords, and language), or rather, the dissociation in the concrete realization of the individual linguistic system and individual linguistic fact in "speech" as passwords, a phenomenon of some generality. The individual linguistic system is based on a selection, it is a selective organization of the components of the integral system of the language, having as a basis the common invariant system - with all their virtual possibilities - and is variable only within the limits allowed by the communication needs (which make SLI not to be able to distance itself too much from the common system), but adds the possibility of individual, concrete-concrete variation (in turn disciplined by being part of a system).

The facts of language are concrete achievements (individual linguistic messages or facts) and their psychic substrates. "The language activity, T. Slama-Cazacu explains, involves a technique applied to an interior material - the psychic state - and an external one - the system of signs of the language (in turn internalized)" (Slama-Cazacu, 1999, p. 125). Language activity involves a

technique applied to an inner material - the mental state - and an external one - the sign language system (in turn internalized) (Slama-Cazacu, 1999, p. 117).

3. Conclusion

It can be concluded that the message is a concrete act, a fact of individual language. It is made of material from an inner material (mental condition) and an outer material (the system is sign of the tongue). By asserting that the concrete meaning is the content of the message (which is at the limit of the meaning of meaning), Professor T. Slama-Cazacu tends to take a step forward. The tendency is canceled by claiming that the material of the message is the sign, the tongue. This is a lateral step that places this conception of message in the shadow of Saussure in the sign order, whose thesis is that the message lies at the level of the language, of a sign system.

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LINGUISTIC CONCERNS OF MIHAI EMINESCU

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Abstract

The study highlights Mihai Eminescu's linguistic ideas and his contribution to the structure of Romanian linguistics. The method used is meta-analytical and comparative.

Keywords: linguistics, journalism, expressiveness

Introduction

Without the knowledge of the vast knowledge of philology, the journalist deals with the problems of the language, expressing pertinent points of view: linguistic and historical unity, the relation between language and literature, culture, philosophy, the role of habits and proverbs in speech, syntax, polysemy, neologisms and Gypsy argos, the indestructible tongue-to-peer relationship, etc. Eminescu's linguistic linguistic proficiency tells us that the poet's platform of knowledge has not been built on nothingness, amateurism and arbitrary reading, but on solid treaties belonging to Meyer-Lübke, Friedrich Diez, Hasdeu, Cihac plus all the grammars weather. It almost equated with a sacrilegious omission of a large linguistic work of the Eminescu classical panoply.

In the case of language, Eminescu did not speak much, which, thank God, did not bring forth proselytes "(Ibrăileanu, 1970, p. 120). Taking into account

that, for Constantin Noica, the effigy applied to Eminescu was "a universal uomo" (Noica, 1975, pp. 115-132), it was utopian that linguistics was among the "ashes" type disciplines. With increased concern about language issues and how to express themselves, Eminescu resembles Cassirer, believes Ion Dur (1996), both of whom are conscious that language is a force of culture. As long as the Romanian language has a philosophical load - sounds the hypothesis of Constantin Barbu (Barbu, 1991) - one third of the terms refer to being, reason, logos. In the works of M. Eminescu, L. Blaga and C. Noica, the three archeological concepts are added to the three concepts. To whom Sergiu Al. George consecrated a book (George, 1981), relying on two major ideas: that Eminescu had developed a philosophy and that it gravitated around the notion of "archeus."

Linguistics and Philology

Returning to the philologist's face, revealed especially by C. Noica, we will note that the great thinker of the twentieth century, an ardent studio of the Eminescu manuscripts, discovered his propensity to lexicology, more specifically, the derivation phenomenon with prefixes and suffixes.

On pages 192-193 of the 2261 manuscript (Noica, 1975, pp. 37-43), Eminescu discusses the living suffixes, the dead suffixes, after having previously found 11 words from the Greek pornography. Starting from the supposition that "our language is not new", but on the contrary "old and stationary" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 221), in the "Language of Romanian Scholars of Transylvania", the journalist insists on qualities, maturity, homogeneity, the cohesion of Romania, because it is "fully formed in all its parts" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 221).

Above all, chanting, reticent with forced innovations, a semantic enviable wealth, spoken beyond and beyond the boundaries of Romania, bypassing sophisticated, pedantic, pompous expressions (which would degenerate into the "bird language"). An additional argument to validate that "language is the very flower of the Romanian soul's ethnic soul" (Baciu, 2005, p. 40). The Romanian

everywhere uses a simple, frustrating tone, focusing in words on deep ideas, a sign that the mentality of the people had felt their presence: "And because spirit and language are almost identical, and language and nationality - like" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 213), is appreciated in "Language and Nationality". It seems an ordered article, but nothing more fake, because no one could order the reporter to write, in case of coincidence of opinion between the director and the editor, then, indeed, create the illusion above, an article with thesis. The substantive journalist tried a bet with himself and the specialists, opting for the definition: "The Romanian language is the organ through which the nation inherits the intellectual and historical wealth of its ancestors" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 213-214). A people can not dignity in the absence of the mother tongue transmitted from generation to generation. The German-speaking binder is seeing how it could not have been happier in our situation of the Romanian people, master of the ancestral glove. Thus, the study of the Romanian People's Unit combines skillful linguistics and history, the reader finding that on these lands, Romanian has been spoken since the sixth century when, "at the invasion of avars in Thrace" (in 579) the "ruler led by Morţiu and Comentiol "Included" people who spoke Romanian "(Eminescu, 1970, p. 215). In the footsteps of the chronicler Grigore Ureche, regarding the latinity of the language, the publicist patriot admitted: "Yes ... we come from Rome, dear and beloved compatriots, not from Dacia Traiana!" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 214). The lesson of the history of the language is prolonged by resuscitation of truism: "The unity of the Romanian nation (s) before the formation of the national states" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 214). Investigating documents and compends of national history, the journalist concludes that since the time of Matei Basarab the unity of the spoken language has been manifested. Maybe that's why he also uses a popular, argotic sample: "Better do not mix where the pot is not boiling" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 214). It is, of course, amazed at the lack of care / ease of moving from grave, serious things to humor and orality (Karpf, 2016; (Alkilani, 2017)) through an idiomatic argotic tunnel/tunnel.

After the Romanian language connections with the nationality (in Language and nationality) and with the people (in the "Romanian people's unity") and the stability of some particularities of the language (in the language of the Romanian scholars in Transylvania), the attention of the journalist with linguistic preoccupations focuses on the structure of the Romanian language (also Renea, 2017). The basic vocabulary has, of course, also a Latin genealogy, but only Slavonic terms have been used to designate the area of the church (in the Church Books and the Church in Romanian Culture), and in Transylvania the foreign occupants brought an unpleasant infusion of Hungarianism and Germanism in the language of the Romanian scholars in Transylvania).

The church has been and has remained the number one bastion of Romanianism through centuries. In those moments, the troubled have appealed to God and the Christian officers to encourage them. Not a few voivodes, headed by Stephen, Constantin Brâncoveanu, rewarded the aid received by the ascension of sacred places. There was forgotten the clean, natural, pleasant, accessible Romanian language. Over time, the language of the church was in the state language. Romance words in the popular sector have gradually replaced the Slavonic terms, gained in the Romanian culture thanks to the Christian missionaries Kiril and Metodiu.

A clear, literary monument is registered in the reign of Matei Basarab. Also in the Middle Ages there were energetic metropolitics, with a special contribution to the evolution of culture, the preservation of the national specificity.

Thus, Varlaam's church, "the spiritual mother of the nation" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 218), gave birth to the unity of the language and the ethnic unity of the people. " Among the components of the language, Eminescu first stopped at the lexicon. As mentioned, it was a Romanic priority, but it had also adopted foreign words from the peoples with whom it had come into contact in the exercise of the religious service, slowly, the Slavonic terms would be shuffled and substituted among others, neolatines. It was well known that in Transylvania, the

prints, the written works assimilated a series of troublesome Hungarians and Germans. The bold journalist proposes the eradication of those damaging vocabulary, persisting the impression of missing a linguistic implant, given that the Romanian language was already formed, stationary. Eminescu's lexical ideas sometimes get a semantic glaze. The occasion is represented by several words with multiple meanings, such as the term "sama" (Eminescu, 1970, pp. 221-222), a component of many expressions and deductions: to notice, to take of itself a single person, and realize, get yourself.

Constantin Noica (1975, p. 36) made a parallel between the Romanian verbal and the German verbs, examining the 239th eminescian manuscript. Voalat gave the idea of the polysemy of the Romanian language, a richness of meanings, which materializes / incorporates in expressions and habits. Visited excitedly by the more ingrained fate of Transylvania, Eminescu went with increasing joy to the literature written in that part of the country, despite exotic linguistic excuses that defiled the essence of our language. The proposed solution: the immediate elimination of unnecessary, non-cantable Germanic and Magyars. Depending on the ordeal of destiny of Transylvania and Bessarabia, the journalist is animated, however, by the revelation: the robustness of the tongue, the cohesion regardless of the cardinal point, the "old and the tongue" coat, concluding that it is fully formed in all parts (Nn), that "he no longer gives buds and new branches" and "a road to produce what is no longer capable, it means to abuse it and to make a road" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 221).

Ideas, press-man's initiatives have not gone unnoticed; they had a cognitive role, irrespective of the linguistic / lexical register used: "Studying Eminescu's ideas, it is firstly necessary to make the necessary distinction between the content of thinking with cognitive functions", M. Ciurdariu (Ciurdariu, 1965, p. 81) "and that philosophical content that fulfills more thematic, artistic, metaphorical, symbolic or allegorical functions in the poet's writings." From here, it is easy to reach magic, mythological and folkloric idealism. The semantic interest in the article About housing (Eminescu, 1970, pp. 225-226). The

bourgeois journalist polls with philologists who pleaded for the risky word "pomology", an inappropriate term, much more clearly being the "tree culture". An aspect of linguistics that is perceived and commented is stylistic. Admitting polysemy and figurative meaning, the inclination towards metaphor and irony is deduced. Taking as an example the quality of the Romanian language due to Metropolitan Moldavian Varlaam, himself intellectual with literary preoccupation, the journalist sneaks into the text an irony, a paradox: "But Varlaam was a fool. Nowadays neither a member of the Academy could be "(Eminescu, 1970, p. 218).

There is a hint of criticism of the Romanian elite, of the academics, where, on the wide open door, the poor, the incompetence, the lincentities with insignificant merits stepped in. Let's not look at challenging the criteria - in another article - to award the academic prize, something of an embarrassing predictability, improper for an authentic intellectual.

Moving on to another aspect, Eminescu admits tacitly that the literary language is refractory to regionalisms, linguistic varieties, but which do not interfere with the interpersonal communication, compared to the imperfections and the barriers between a sudist and a Nordist from France / Italy. In our country dialects do not encourage incommunication, the message does not fracture, as in other Western countries.

The Gazette allocates pages and encoded language to a disadvantaged social group: the Gypsies. "Bibliographic Notes" (Eminescu, 1970, pp. 235-237) is set in a review of a book on Gypsies signed by Dr. Barbu Constantinescu, Problems of Gypsy Language and Literature in Romania. It is reiterated the origin of the Roma - in India - and the specific phonetics of a randomly distributed population around the world. Like any objective chronicle, the qualities and flaws of the work in question are highlighted.

Another sector of language / linguistics, which is given special attention, is the syntax. The study of the Church in Romanian Culture - one with a thesis, with a precise message: the Romanians' theism, the respect for religious holidays

and the contribution of Orthodoxy in the crystallization of Romanian spirituality. From a grammatical perspective, some linguistic ideas are also foreseen, including "our old language, with its beautiful, but heavy syntax, with its many habits" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 218).

Of course, the journalist understood through the "beautiful" and "heavy" epithets the multitude of propositional parts, the diversity of subordinate sentences, the permutations between the subject and the predicate, between them and the attribute and complement, thus the flexible topic allowing the placement of the temporal and spatial indices at the beginning of an enunciation , infiltration of inversion and poeticity even in the narrative text. The vast horizon of grammatical knowledge belonging to the autodidact gazetteer should not be omitted. Among the grammar treatises published towards the end of the 19th century, the columnist turned to the Syntax Manual by C. S. Stocescu and D. St. Călinescu. His disappointment - double - is based on the cruel truth that "we have no serious writing on the Romanian syntax" and the filling of a void of grammatical concepts with foreign terms in inoports: "Generally, the book fades from neologisms" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 235).

Verdict sounds harsh, implacable, on the whole, the work is a wrong trial. Who would have allowed a negative diagnosis if he had not been a doctrine himself, a super-volunteer in the matter ?!

Old science, the phonetic temptation, obsessed Eminescu, many years, in terms of pronunciation. A first proof: "Studies on Pronunciation" examining small phonetic differences between Moldavia and Montenegro. From the front page (Eminescu, 1970, p. 228), the publicist is tentative, persuasive: "A mistake of pronunciation is that of the Romanians in Muntenia who say: ah, here, instead of: gold, here, "then the tiring frequency of the prepositions:" pa, "" gives, "beyond Moldova, there is the lengthening of the voice" e" in words populated by another "e": pépene, réce, tréce, conjunctive by spraying the initial particle: do, silence. Aside from the phonitism of the native area, the attentive linguistic phenomenon observer also noticed the transformation of the conson "j" into the

group" gi", of "z" in" dz" in the examples: giudecata, gioc, dzuu, dziua ... (Eminescu, 1970, p.).

Emancipation is the assimilation of the French and German languages at that time.

Instead, fear fades miraculously, when newer Romanian words are in play, some estropied ones, without mercy (Eminescu, 1970, p. 230). Here, the journalist censures deviations from the linguistic norm of Transylvania. Whenever he had the opportunity, Eminescu pleaded - in the case of Linguistic Notices - for the phonetic principle in spelling (Eminescu, 1970, pp. 232-234).

A relentless reader of magazines and newspapers, the editor of "Curierul de Iaşi" and "Timpul" was also set up with the Sibiu press. Thus, "positively welcomes the Telegraful" and "Carpathian Albina", the aim being the thorough investigation of the writing of the journalists. With this pretext - the journal magazine - the professional journalist lobbies on another linguistic sector: spelling, orthopedics and punctuation. For example, the spelling of the second journal seems to be less phonetic than the first, but "tongue is more neat" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 234). Generosity is finally pouring out: "We are enjoying the advancement of phonetics in Transylvania" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 234).

The focus plays an active role in the identification of homonyms and homographies. Some impressions of accent can also be gleaned from the Linguistic Notices article, where, with the accusations of rigor, a few cases of false marking of the accent in the Transylvanian perimeter are amended. The publicist overcomes his professional condition again (Voinea, 2017; Negrea, 2016; Voinea & Negrea, 2017), probing vast knowledge of grammar, phonetics, lexicology etc. Eminescu also showed openness to the history of the language, and to Romanic linguistics. His information on Romanity, the allogeneic element of the lexical structure of the Romanian language, the Slavic adrast, the infiltration of the Greeks, the Turks, and the Germans, are, of course, the spheres of the history of the Romanian language. But the resemblance of Romanian spoken in the nineteenth century with post-classical Latin, along the lines of

plural forms, converges to the side of the diachronic (also in "linguistic notes"). Oases of romantic linguistics can be found in "Studies on pronunciation", by comparing the Moldovan pronunciation with the Tuscan dialect (Eminescu, 1970, p. 230) and the Romanian language with the Calabrez dialect. A great European linguist is evoked in "Friedich Diez" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 261) which analyzed the controversies between the Romanian linguistic schools on the Romanic origin of the Romanian language, rejecting the slavofilm point of view. Going over the Orthographic Horseshoes (Eminescu, 1970, p. 262), the article Romanians in Moravia conceals in the subtext the dramatism of the Romanian language preservation, the natural pronunciation by a population condemned to the loss of self-identity (Roșca, 2017; Qatawneh, 2018). The range of Eminescu journalism also has studies unpredictable. For example: "About philologists" starts from a parable about the boy who knows "two bucks to the Germans" and imitating Schiller.

Some "arrows" are sent to philologists who have no common vision on profound linguistic phenomena and do not take into account the popular language (Eminescu, 1970, pp. 260-261).

Conclusions

Polemizing with the written language, she is accused of undoubtedly promoting neologisms, hilarious, grotesque, trivial syntaxes. From this angle, the press, scholars and academics, pseudo-instructed abroad, contributed to the emergence of a new cosmopolitan idiom, "the tongue of the bird" in Maiorescian terminology, "the drunkenness of words."

Fortunately, a handful of shining scholars voluntarily engaged in an unequal dispute with the aim of safeguarding the language of the nation, preserving its defining features. Specifically, they are the representatives of the church, "enemies" on the face, of the mutilation of the Romanian language. The Church is due to the fact that the Romanian language spoken in these lands remained "the same, one and inseparable in the palace, in the hut, and in all

Romania" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 218). From the perspective of interdisciplinarity (Vlăduțescu, 2012; Drămnescu& Enăchescu, 2018; Basic, 2018; Vlăduțescu, 2018), Eminescu relates the linguistics of literature, culture, philosophy, perhaps not with the same abnegation with which he approached some clearly delimited themes. And yet in the intertext it can be read that language and people, language and nationality form indestructible couples.

In lexicology articles, references to neologisms and derivation could not be missed. Conservative, reticent, the journalist likes to be anachronistic, spreading the Romanian vocabulary with foreign vocabularies. Neologisms are stringent under certain conditions, when the Romanian language lacks the word apt to designate a new situation: "The confusion of elementary logic leads to grotesque contexts. Eminescu exemplifies the terms << ingrat >> >>and << grat >>, subject to derivation according to the model of his affixing and prefixing <<satisfactory, dissatisfied >> " (Eminescu, 1970, p. 213-214).

According to the theory of meanings, the journalist knows that there is a concrete and abstract meaning (Eminescu, 1970, p. 227), and according to another criterion, principal, secondary and figurative sense (Eminescu, 1970, p. 220-221). Sometimes, the author of language articles defames his vocation of philosophy and word games: "Satisfaction or dissatisfaction are psychological phenomena, grace, and embarrassment are entirely ethical" (Eminescu, 1970, p. 228). The history of the Romanian people was intertwined with the tongue. Compared to the subjugated people, the Turkish, Russian, Austro-Hungarian and Habsburg oppression, the language opposed the influence of foreign influences, displaying almost metallic resistance, accepting only some lexical implants or grammatical adaptations. A pillar of Romanianism, of continuity, is the church.

Being "stationary, old, fully formed" since the sixth century, the Romanian language preached from the pulpit was stripped of undesirable linguistic additions (Germanic, Slavonic, Magyar). The unity of the language impressed the unity, the solidarity of the Romanians.

Traditionally, in some respects, the journalist also expressed modernist views, as in the article Development of the Language (Eminescu, 1970, p. 219), through poets, prose writers.

The culture-literature report reveals an unexpected play of words, with philosophical (Frunză, 2018) and metaphorical irises: "The culture of the privileged classes, at least, is far above the literature of their country, but it is alien; literature is national, but it is culture. People of contrasts is a phrase "(Eminescu, 1970, p. 219). Language, reluctant, circumspect, with linguistic innovation, may remain behind culture (Eminescu, 1970, p. 221). Also in the category of philological articles are mentioned: Friedrich Diez (an obituary about the European linguist immortal) and about philologists conceived in another way: a parable with the boy who does not know "two bucks to the Germans" but who hopes to produce literature in his own way Schiller.

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PATRIZIA SPOSETTI, LE SCRITTURE PROFESSIONALI IN EDUCAZIONE. TEORIE, MODELLI, PRATICHE

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Patrizia Sposetti's *Le scritture professionali in educazione. Teorie, modelli, pratiche* ('Professional Writing in Education. Theories, Models, Practices') Rome, Edizioni Nuova Cultura, 2017, 113 p. is published in the collection "Quaderni di ricerca in Scienze dell'Educazione" ('Investigations in Education Sciences'), including researches, investigations and studies in the field of education undertaken in the Teacher Training and Education Sciences study area of the Sapienza University of Rome, as well as research reports completed by researchers, PhD students or university students under the supervision of academics, in other Italian higher education institutions.

As underlined by Pietro Lucisano in *Prefazione. Scrivere per fare l'educatore, scrivere per essere educatore* ('Preface. Writing to Work as an Educator, Writing to Be an Educator'), "[i]l lavoro di Patrizia Sposetti affronta la tematica del ruolo che la scrittura svolge nella costruzione delle competenze di un educatore. Si tratta di un problema complesso che tra l'altro si pone in un momento storico in cui il processo dello scrivere, per sua natura un processo di riflessione, viene spesso ritenuto superato e è spesso sostituito da attività in cui la dimensione compilativa tende ad assumere un ruolo preponderante rispetto alla dimensione riflessiva e la dimensione riproduttiva parimenti rischia di

imporsi sulla dimensione creativa" ('Patrizia Sposetti's work deals with the part played by writing in constructing the competences of an educator. This is a complex issue which, *inter alia*, is placed in a historical moment where the writing process, an intrinsically reflective one, is frequently replaced by activities where the compiling dimension tends to acquire a prevalent role compared to the reflective dimension and, similarly, the reproductive dimension risks to prevail to the detriment of the creative one') (p. 9).

The volume we present includes four chapters.

The first chapter, *Scrivere. Una competenza metodologica e professionale* ('Writing. A Methodological and Professional Competence', pp. 13-32), analyses writing in relation to knowledge (pp. 14-16), explains what "writing as a profession" means (pp. 17-21), presents a principle of order for the analysis of professional writing (pp. 21-25), "traceable in the objectives to be attained by those who write professional texts" (p. 21) and reflects on a model for professional writing in education (pp. 25-31).

The second chapter, *Formare gli educatori alla scrittura* ('Teaching Writing to Educators', pp. 33-60), since "[n]elle professioni educative, la scrittura rappresenta in molti casi una pratica solida e stabile e connessa allo sviluppo della professionalità in chiave di progettazione, documentazione e valutazione delle esperienze e dei percorsi realizzati dagli educatori" ('in many cases, writing in educational professions represents a solid and stable practice, connected to the development of the skills to design, document and assess experiences and paths covered by educators') (p. 33), first explains the meaning of writing to develop professional practice in educational contexts (pp. 33-41), and then analyses writing training delivered to future secondary school teachers (pp. 41-48). The subchapter *Disegnare percorsi formativi* ('Designing Training Paths', pp. 48-56) makes us understand the meaning of designing writing paths for educators, while the subchapter *Costruire pratiche di scritture professionali* ('Building Professional Writing Practices', pp. 56-60) deals with the phases of

these training activities that must be clearly individualized in terms of succession, objectives and results for the entire group of participants (p. 56).

The third chapter, *La scrittura multidimensionale* ('Multidimensional Writing', pp. 61-78), first explains *Che cosa significa "saper scrivere"* ('What being able to write means') (pp. 61-65), since "[c]hi sa scrivere sa scegliere e può scegliere, ha a disposizione un ampio ventaglio di opzioni possibili e sa di volta in volta selezionare la migliore, tenendo conto del fatto che la scrittura richiede di fare a meno di tutti quegli elementi che nel parlato agiscono a supporto della comprensione, come il tono di voce, i gesti, la possibilità di chiedere spiegazioni" ('s/he who can write can choose out of a wide range of possible options and, when needed, can choose the best of them, as writing implies discarding all elements that aid comprehension in speaking, such as tone, gestures, the possibility to ask for explanations') (p. 65). The following subchapters deal with *Multidimensionalità delle competenze di scrittura* ('Multidimensionality of Writing Competences', pp. 66-69), *Le caratteristiche distintive dei testi scritti* ('Distinctive Features of Written Texts', pp. 69-73) and *Dimensione applicativa delle competenze di scrittura* ('Applied Dimension of Writing Competences', pp. 74-78).

Of the fourth chapter, *Per un Vocabolario di base delle professioni educative* ('For a Basic Vocabulary of Educational Professions', pp. 79-105), we mention the subchapters: *La comunicazione cooperativa. Dalle massime conversazionali alle teorie e alle tecniche di scrittura controllata* ('Cooperative Communication. From Conversational Lemmas to Theories and Techniques of Controlled Writing', pp. 80-91), *La scrittura orientata* ('Oriented Writing', pp. 91-96) and *La sfera del lessico. Le parole dell'educazione* ('The Area of the Lexicon. The Words of Education', pp. 96-105).

We also have to mention the extremely rich bibliography (pp. 107-113), including a high number of reference works.

In conclusion, the volume *Le scritture professionali in educazione. Teorie, modelli, pratiche* ('Professional Writing in Education. Theories, Models,

Practices') by Patrizia Sposetti is well structured, consistently designed and impressively documented, and we are confident in its success.

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PROCEDURES, RITUALS AND CREATIVITY IN THE MEDIATIC TEXT

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Abstract

In this study, we review the changes that the mediatic text has undergone so far, subject to change of delivery method. The channel, the support is part of building block of the the text, and implicitly of the message. Thus, as shown below, dialogue, interactivity, and participation are traits that not only modify the mediatic text, but also bring about changes at the level of media ideology: the categorical boundaries between the subjective and the objective, the soft press and the hard press (Vattimo) weaken increasingly more.

Keywords: online media, dialogue, subjectivity, information

In this study we approach the theme of modern media writing, writing that is not competing with the image, but it is part of what specialty theory calls (in fact, since the 1980s) convergence. Researchers (Kawamoto 2003) spoke of a new type of text, a new journalist, a new bussines model, all dependent on a receiver that could get involved, and could *interact* with the issuer.

Many researchers agree that journalistic narrative urgently needs rehabilitation (Michael Karlsson, 2011). Some producers and some researchers (Allen, 2008; Plaisance, 2007; Robinson, 2007) show that this is already happening. Kovach, Rosenstiel (2001) and Singer (2007) discuss the changes in

the media landscape and urge journalists to publicly state their rules to reinforce and differentiate from those who do not adhere to them. It has been observed (Vaia Doudaki, Lia-Paschalia Spyridou 2014) that, in general, the attention of the researchers has gone to the professional and organizational issues generated by online journalism (Castilhos Karam, 2009, Deuze, 2003, Singer, 2004) but too few studies refer to the patterns of online reports (Quandt, 2008; Vobic, 2011) and very few scholars have questioned narrative resorts (Karlsson and Stromback, 2010).

For several years, however, they appeared theories that no longer oppose two types of journalism, but presents them in dialogue. Some researchers have gone further and have theorized online journalism as a form of traditional journalism (Quandt, 2008). Other researchers (Oblak, 2005) have shown that the links between journalism and the online environment have been sporadic, and the Internet has not revolutionized journalism in such a radical way as theorists predicted. Jacobson (2012) suggested that multimedia was used as an extension of the written word and not an original narrative format, the result is explained by the use of online writing techniques and the dominance of hierarchical news.

The quality of online journalism is questioned and research has been carried out on journalists' and news consumers' attitudes towards the speed of reaction, but there is very little study on how this feature affects the content (Kopper et al., 2000). In the online environment, the press meets with a clearly defined audience: young people, an ignorant audience, but, as we shall demonstrate, who are in a relationship of media interdependence. Young people with media literacy are more likely to recognize what Goodman (2003) calls the "cultural triangle of fashion, sports and music" created and promoted by the entertainment industry.

Our hypothesis is that the boundary between the representation of *hard* and *soft* media writing is, if not artificial, at least *weakened* (Vattimo) by the historical challenges that have been traversed to this point. Digitization, the communication explosion, the financial and economic crisis of 2008, the

liberalization of image-text competition are, in our opinion, historical moments that have produced irreversible changes in media expression and expressivity. And these effects can be found at the content level, but also in the expectations of the public from the media.

From the research so far, we have been able to systematize a series of features reunited in the concept of "new media": digitization, multifunctionality, ubiquity, bidirectionality, interactivity, specialization and decentralization, de-masking, asynchrony, hyperreality and virtuality (M. Castells, Paul Virilio , L. Sfez). As we have demonstrated on several occasions, the *online* environment has already produced modifications both on the skills and abilities of the actors of communication, and, of course, on the text.

New skills and creative abilities

A threshold of these transformations was, as we have had the opportunity to show, the rethinking and repositioning of the recipient of the media message. In the digital era, the consumer has become, in the first phase, *the user*.

Of course, these pragmatic identity mutations correspond to the changes that the transmitter has incurred, respectively, the production and editing of messages. Mark Deuze (in Paterson and Domingo, 2008) inventories four changes made by new media on communication in general and on the text, in particular: (1) information flow, (2) alteration of selection, (3) acceleration of production times , (4) convergence cultivation: print - tv - online. We are, therefore, talking of a new world and a new language.

Narrative structures, the architecture of various discursive types (from articles to entire publications) have been modified, journalistic expressions in tune with atomized texts of the nonlinear world have been reconsidered, with the dispersion of informational weight centers and the reconfiguration of reading and information consumption needs.

New skills and abilities for the producer and the recipient have generated effects both at the level of the text / message quality, but also at the channel and management level. Specialty research speaks about these new effects, such as: improving access to information, of the storage capacity for information, better transparency leading to production, freedom of expression, emergence, development and cultivation of participation modalities.

Another change appears as to the type of broadcast - broadcasting is replaced by narrow casting (Maingueneau, 2007: 165). By default, there is also a shift from agenda-setting to agenda-melding. Most researchers, whose papers we have had access to so far, consider that the online environment has generated transactional mediated communication as a type of communication (J. Bryant, S. Thompson, 2002: 364).

As demonstrated by speciality research, the online environment has, in the first instance, *caused an imbalance between demand and supply at the informational level* (McQuail, 2004), a situation that has led to the reconsideration of the text production mechanisms by increasing motivation and exploiting the potential for inter-human communication. McQuail anticipates that, in the context of maximum freedom of communication, the written press is orienting itself towards *a model of consultation*.

The concept has been explored and exploited both in the media industry and in speciality research, in the context of the mutations generated by time-shifting devices, which has made information the main driving force, and innovation, the base principle (see Dorina Guţu-Tudor, 2008).

Our idea is that the online environment has become in the last two decades an environment of *informational euphoria (*Adam, 2005). But this feature raises many questions about the power that the editor, the gatekeeper, can exert. In the traditional environment, these were true arguments of authority and experience for credibility. In these circumstances, the online text may appear / can be considered, after Maingueneau's wording, a heterogeneous text, in a permanent reconfiguration, depending on the reader's "*decisions*", and the

informational euphoria require new ways of *directing information*, other then titration, illustration, pagination, rubrication and the structural principle of the reversed pyramid.

The appereence of personalized news feeds, depending on the former consumption habbits of the users, also leads to the creation of some filter bubbles, bringing the user information which tend to emphasize and radicalize his views and opinions.

Emergency, subjectivity, performance

One of the most obvious changes comes from the genetics of the type of online communication, namely the writing in a constant news feed fashion. The issuer will develop what I. Ramonet calls the "cult of instantness." Thus, the ways of speeding up news are developed by a rhythm of dynamic reading and writing, bringing less time to verify information then in print journalism, because the deadline is always *„as soon as possible”*.

Stylistic procedures are applied in online communication that are combined by specialized studies in the 3Cs: compression, conversion, convergence, and a first textual effect is the conciseness, which knows different degrees and types depending on the type of media and, implicitly, the text, since on this medium the communication unit is the *bit*. The consubstantial interactivity of digital logic raises dialogue to the status of the main communication process. Thus, interactivity, transactivity, dialogue write new media texts.

The traditional boundries between the so-called "serious" and "objective" writing actually means a mix of common methods, predictable expressiveness, detachment exercises, a simplistic theatricalisation of sobriety. This sobriety betrays what we have called an invisible, indigestible, powerful (until desemantized) ritualized writing. The transfer of expressiveness from the area (also overstated) of talent, inspiration, predisposition to the area of false ethical

and deontological pressures provoked (in my opinion) this still recoverable cleavage between *soft* writing and *hard* writing.

The absence of nuance, expressivity, emotion does not automatically imply correct, just information. As the exaggerated coloring of the text (through rhetorical and semantic figures) - itself at a point of ritualization - does not immediately imply pseudo-advent or pseudo-information. Exaggerating expressivity and deontological anguish are diseases that have divided media expression into false territories of seriousness and entertainment. And these linguistic simplifications fertilize two ontological-professional fields, namely serious media and entertainment media.

Thus, from expression, we reach a ritualization of the content and we assume, at least in the Romanian media, identical types of subjects that follow in a predictable temporal logic for anyone with minimal media literacy. We can talk here of a ritualization of the frequency criterion (from the series of *newsworthiness* criteria), a criterion that takes into account the frequency, on the other hand a predictable synchronization of the content with the public agenda. I refer here to materials specific to the various fixed moments of the social calendar: start of the school year, winter holidays, other events with a cyclical frequency in the social agenda, etc.

In these cases, for example, professional procedures have turned into rituals, a phenomenon that we observe at the level of expression. Thus, in the case of the beginning of the school year, the types of subjects are the same and follow the logic of the positive or negative peaks – students / teacher heroes (those with international acadamic achievements), respectively, deplorable conditions of the romanian educational institutions. We also recall other subjects with the same ritual weight: the cost of school supplies, the overcrowding of kindergartens, the absence of textbooks.

As it is well known, the difference between procedure and ritual is given by the positioning of the issuer. If, in the case of procedures, we are talking about a set of operations that the issuer has at its disposal to collect, select and

hierarchize information about an (unforeseen) fact, and the result is extra information, plus knowledge, in the ritual, the fact is specifically selected to respond to limited professional functionality - predictable, expected and therefore sought. The informational effect, the knowledge effect does not exceed the level of confirmation. In other words, the information burden is not the workload of professional efforts, but the dose of acceptability and predictability.

Conclusions

This repetition also extends to writing, so that we come to talk about and cultivate fixed formulas, formulas that go beyond the boundaries of the syntagm and proceed to phrases and paragraphs. This, let's say, conformism also reveals an anemia of professional profiles. The search for the predictable and not of the event has opened yet another path, the expressive over-reacing of which I was talking above. The absence of the social event leaves room for the linguistic event. The evaluation, over-reaching, over-interpretation (to remain in the area of still acceptable procedures) covers an informational goal under the pretext of *popular culture*.

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"#FAKENEWS. THE NEW ARMS RACE", A BOOK REVIEW

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Abstract

The present intervention represents a review of the most significant book about fake news phenomena published in Romania so far. Within the limits of a meta-analytical reading, this review presents the subject, the thesis, the issue and the ideology of the study. We emphasize the theoretical and practical merits of the book. Among the theoretical merits, we can mention: a) the realistic presentation of the geopolitical, socio-economic, demographic and technological changes which form the background of the fake news phenomenon; b) the clarifications of the fake news concept; c) the development of the 2.0 disinformation concept. Among practical merits, we can mention the author's proposal for finding a solution to defend ourselves from fake news, 2.0 disinformation, digital disinformation.

Keywords: fake news, disinformation, communication, new arms race

1. Introduction

Professor Alina Bârgăoanu is the most important Romanian researcher in the domain of fake news, 2.0 disinformation. On the other hand, she is a member of High Level Expert Group on Fake News and Online Disinformation,

initiated by the European Commission. As a member of this group, she participated to the elaboration of the group report entitled "A multi-dimensional approach to disinformation. Report of the independent High level Group on fake news and online disinformation"(2018) (https://ec.europa.eu/digital-single-market/en/news/final-report-high-level-expert-group-fake-news-and-online-disinformation). Thus, she is a reputed specialist, and, as a result, her book about fake news was anticipated and it representsa publishing event and a moment of theoretical research ("#Fakenews. Noua cursă a înarmării" - "#Fakenews. The new arms race", Bucharest, Evrika, 2018).

2. Title, thesis, structure, issues

As it is mentioned (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 194) the title of the volume was inspired by Mark Zuckerberg's statement: "It is an ongoing arms race".

The academic structure of the book respects the general principles of the scientific research. The Observation Area is represented by "the Romanian public space, online and offline, Facebook, online news sites, TVs" (2018, p. 234). The subject is clear and representative for the investigated field.

The subject of the study is that "the reflection regarding the fake news, in fact regarding the whole phenomenon of information disorder, must be placed in the context of the changes that are taking place all over the world nowadays" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 21). Additionally, we have to keep in mind that "the term of fake news imposed itself (...), but the realities which it refers to represents only the tip of the iceberg; the omnipresence of the digital technologies, the computerization, the algorithms, the capping of our lives and of the ecosystem which we live in represent the iceberg" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, pp. 21-22).

The book is structured in five chapters (Chapter 1: The Technology is our Destiny", "Chapter 2: We vs. They. Digital Metropolis and analogical peripheries", "Chapter 3: The New Global Tyrants", "Chapter 4: 2.0. Disinformation. New Generation Disinformation", "Chapter 5: The People are not put in motion by other people", "Chapter 6: The Digital Dining Room") and

an argument ("Instead of Argument, a short autobiography. I haven't thought that I would ever post something"), an introduction ("Introduction: At Time Crossroads") and conclusions (The Intellectual Leadership- shapes the future").

In Introduction, the author demonstrates that "The period we live is tumultuous, paradoxical, revolutionary because the global order is changing"; the author describes the four ideas that guide the research: a) "the processes triggered by technology are irreversible", b) "the dominant technologies, the communication technologies included, must be valorized and used", c) "the communication technologies – digital platforms – have fundamentally changed the current informational ecosystem, emotionally and symbolically", d) "the phenomena gathered together superficially and in wrong order under the general term of fake news are new, being associated with the development and the spread of the digital platforms" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, pp. 31-33). The author emphasizes that the major role of "the digital platforms (especially Facebook and Twitter)" was noticed during "two events that shook the European Union first, and then the whole world – the Brexit and the election of Donald Trump as president of the U.S.A." (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 36).

As the academic research rules require, the methodological elements of the research are presented:"social psychology, mass media effects, public opinion", "the bias of confirmation", the analytical perspective (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, pp. 35-36).

Then, the author speaks about the four types of today's world's changes: in introduction and in the first chapter, the geopolitical changes are discussed, in the second chapter the demographic and socio-economic changes are analysed, and in the fourth, fifth and sixth chapters the technological changes are discussed.

The changes represent a part of the unseen iceberg that let the fake news on the surface. Beyond this metaphor, the pertinent observation that the term "fake news" appeared in the worldwide public space since 2016", Donald Trump being the one that "introduced this term in the global political discussions" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 134) makes us understand that the major merits of this

book are on the top part of the iceberg, the one that can be seen. There are four major merits of this book in direct connection with its title: a) its contribution to the clarification of the "fake news"; b) the development of the 2.0 disinformation; c) the discussion about the fake news incidence in Romania and d) the suggestions regarding the protection against fake news. Without going into further details, we emphasize that, for example, the author explains "why fake does not mean false" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 137) and she searches for the identification of the "50 shades of fake" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 155). The term of 2.0 disinformation was proposed previously: "In order to reflect what is new about the contemporary communication, information and persuasion ecosystem, we propose the term disinformation 2.0" (Bârgăoanu & Radu, 2018a, p. 26; Bârgăoanu, 2018b); "The leap from 1.0 disinformation to 2.0 disinformation was made as a result to the appearance and the development of social networks/ platforms, of the possibilities offered by technologies" (Bârgăoanu, 2018a). The term is now clarified: 2.0 disinformation is the match between "the old generation disinformation (...) and the technological factor" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 133). Moreover, after explaining it, the term seems to the author "with a vague shade of fake": "I think we have to deal with a digital, algorithmic content, created, distributed and amplified by the meta-data. But, in order to keep this discussion clear, I will stick with the term "2.0 disinformation" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 133).

On the other hand, the author states that "Romania has fake news for all of us" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 234). The following solution is proposed: "The defense against fake news, against 2.0 disinformation will firstly come from a new solidarity, articulated less around some hyper-emotions and more around some hyper-ideas" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 238).

Apart from a well-delimited field of facts, a clear subject and a cohesive system of ideas, the present book uses a vast up-dated bibliography whose books, articles and the Internet sources being analysed and interpreted critically, some of being from 2017 and 2018.

3. Conclusions

The author evaluates her book as "atypical, non-academic" and estimates that some readers will consider it "too journalistic" (Bârgăoanu, 2018c, p. 233). The book is very well structured; the arguments are coherent and rigorous, deeply methodologically argued and proving a good understanding of the basic concepts and of the most advanced and up-dated theories regarding the investigated field; the presentation is nice, fresh, rapid, having a benefic journalistic style. The book is presently the most serious and valuable book about fake news and on-line disinformation.

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