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THE FORMATION OF HUMAN CAPITAL IN A BASED KNOWLEDGE SOCIETY

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Abstract. In a modern economy, the knowledge has multiple and essential roles and the continuous learning is an important element of a adequate medium creation necessary in a based knowledge society. Through the new learning and educational policies, the continuous professional formation programs, the abilities and the human capital knowledge are improved and updated. The educational and professional formation offers will satisfy a better adaptation necessity of the initial educational and professional formation at work market and at a based knowledge society needs. The improvement and the adaptation of the education and the instruction’s levels through the human capital formation development have an important role in economy transformation and in creation of a based knowledge society.

Keywords: human capital, formation, development, knowledge.

Introduction
The investment in the human capital, in education and formation focuses on the scientific and professional preparation of the human capital as well as on its adaptation to the present economical changes and requests. The development strategies of the human capital take into account the necessities of the national and social economy in the development of a society based on knowledge. The human capital as a concept was developed in time through the contributions of Kiker (1968), William Pety, Ernst Engel, J. Shield Nicholson, Alfred de Foville etc., regarding the estimation of the value of the human capital. We also mention the importance of Adam Smith, Leon Walras and Irving Fisher in the outlining of the presence of the human being among the existing capitals. Through the modern theory of the capital there have been developed ideas on the variation of the incomes according to the education degree of the individuals. This way, the educational capital and the education represent the essence of the human capital. From other points of view, we distinguish the importance of the human capital in preventing poverty through the investment in the formation of the individual and the investment in the continuous education. Through the formation of the human capital there will appear certain social and economical benefits. Through these, we turn to a new economy, towards an economy based on change, innovation and knowledge. The performances in the economical area, as well as in other areas, can be realized through the acquirement, use and capitalization of knowledge. The formation of the human capital depends on the reform in education, as well as on the public politics. The education generally grows the anticipated profits of an individual during his lifetime, being perceived as a long term effort (Bedrule-Grigorută, 2005/2006). Through professional formation and education, the human capital contributes to the development of a society based on knowledge.
The development and adaptation of education and of the instruction levels, of the offers of professional formation and education, confirm the fact that education really has an effect that is more important at a macro level than at a micro level.

The importance and efficiency of education manifest at the level of society, generally, and not at the level of the individual, particularly. The educational politics underline the passage from the education centred on school to that based on permanent education (learning society), through programs of reconversion and professional and continuous formation.

The needs, the processes and the learning support have suffered transformations by using the actionably, situational and experiential learning (Boghaty, 2004, p. 127).

The human factor in the society progresses through knowledge and it contributes to the subsequent development of the society. The knowledge, creativity and intelligence of the human capital are useful for the development of the society.

The most important resources are represented by the knowledge, the intellectual capital and the time.

The human capital becomes the only resource that owns the capacity of thinking and implementing new ideas and it occupies the central position in the formulation of relevant (Monga, 2002, pp. 5-6) productivity strategies. The interactions of the people in a permanently changing society involve the increase of the information, preparation and learning and cultural levels, from an individual and global point of view.

The human dimension plays a decisional role in the changes appeared at the level of the development politics of education and instruction.

The investment in the education of the human capital has as a benefit the insurance of certain opportunities to actively and efficiently participate to the activities of the society based on knowledge (Nicolescu and Nicolescu, 2005, p. 80).

The human capital becomes the most important element in the development of the society, through its dynamic and continuous interaction with the environment.

In the formation of the human capital as a bio-psycho-social-cultural system, a contribution is brought by the rhythm of the industrial development and the introduction of the new technologies.

One needs to focus on the reach of the basic objective of the contemporaneous education for the development of the individual personality for the opening of new perspectives to knowledge.

Through a reference to the finalities of education, to the content, to the human capital, to activities based on information, communication and active and conscious participation, we distinguish the use of and educational management at all the structural levels of instruction as an optimal, global and strategic methodology of approach.

Through these, there will be known and valued economical, sociological, psycho-sociological and politological information and data and transformations of the education system will be produced.

The continuous formation of the human capital will take into account a progress at the level of knowledge through innovation, education and technology.

In the learning/formation process we have to mention the role of the previous knowledge and experiences, the individual motivation, the attitude towards the self and towards education, the learning style, the behaviour related to the need to solve a problematic situation etc. The individual and cultural differences have multiple influences over the formation process, as well as over the evaluation of the performances of the involved persons.

The technological development and of the informational system have a main role in the definition of the present knowledge-dependent society.

The information is the main resource in the new informational society (“the next society”) (Drucker, 2001), "a society in which the quality of life, as well as the social change and economical growth perspectives depend more
and more on the way this is exploited (Martin, 1995). In such an environment, the information and the knowledge condition the educational system. The informational society where humanity fits irreversibly is defined as a society of knowledge. The perspectives of social change and economical growth depend on information and on the collecting, processing, stocking and transmission modalities.

In this context, the formation of the human capital and the continuous learning involve:
- The elaboration of the specific politics for the increase of the level of the human capital, of the investments in the research and development areas;
- The promotion of the entrepreneurial attitude and of the abilities through education at all the levels;
- The improvement of the offer of continuous professional formation;
- The development of certain innovative learning – professional formation methods and the use of the information and communication technologies.

Among the priorities from the educational area we mention: the investment and valorisation of the potential of the human capital; the insurance of the unity and coherence of the development of the educational system; permanent education and formation; coherent insurance and quality promotion system; the continuation of the European compatibilization of the national educational system and the increase of competitiveness on an European and international plan etc.

The new economy, the education and the instruction become a source of the competitive advantage for the human capital so that the constitution of a society based on knowledge imposes the formation of new aptitudes, competences and capacities.

The human development represents a basic element in the outlining of the evolution of technological progress in a society based on knowledge and cultural diversity.

The investment in the intangible capital and the investment in the human capital become crucial for the contemporaneous labour market.

The human capital and the investment in the human capital determine the capacity of the individuals to gain as well as their employment perspectives.

The education and the investment in education tend to determine a competitive advantage on the labour market. The adaptation of new educational models based on quality, creativity, continuous innovation (Nicolescu and Nicolescu, 2005, p. 80) demonstrates the importance of the development and modernization of the human resources for the building of an economy based on knowledge. As a building process of the society based on knowledge, we note the role of continuous learning which ensures the efficiency and equity of knowledge capitalization, as well as the individual and social development.

The education plays a crucial role in the formation of “the human capital” and in the determination of the chance of a person from an economical point of view (Bedrule-Grigorută, 2005/2006).

Through the promotion of quality education and professional formation at all levels and through the insurance of a better access, by supporting the research and the enterprises, the universities and the research centres, we describe a few of the requests of an economy based on knowledge.

The economical globalization has outlined “the informational revolution” or “the knowledge revolution”, through the fact that it is a competitive country in the world economy through intensive – knowledge.

The evolution of the technical-economical opportunities from the last years, of the informatics technologies, of the development of the human capital provokes modifications in the productivity and competitiveness of the companies, of the national and world economy.

By applying the innovation principles of an economy based on knowledge, the sustainable results will appear at the level of the human, social, economical etc. activity areas.
References


MODELING VS. TRAINING IN ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract. Modeling must be seen as a process of improving individual performances beginning with the best and ending with people that are less performing in the organization. Modeling can assure the improvement of the employees’ performances, competition in the organization and work productivity. The process of modeling can be applied even at your own person and some abilities, characteristics, can be studied and applied in another domain less performing. Modeling is a process by means of which one can create a model of success in any field, and this model can be then applied to any person. The advantage of modeling is particularizing the initial model, and it is not necessary to copy that model in order to obtain results. Modelling requires a lot of attention because if the model is not correctly and carefully obtained the application into practice is difficult. It means that the results will not be the expected ones. That’s way it is recommended the verifying and the particularizing of the model by every member of the organization.

Keywords: modeling, strategies, values, beliefs, physiology, language.

Modeling should be considered similar to a growth process of personal performances from the most accomplished individuals to the less accomplished of the organization. It can ensure the improvement of employees’ medium performances, the rise of competitiveness inside the organization, the growth of work efficiency. Modeling can ensure the transfer of minimum but fundamental information regarding individual performances, success at work, the mental schemata used, the order of their application, etc. so that the receiver can customize them in the moment he acknowledges them, creating his own excel pattern inside the organization.

The main question in modeling is „How?” you do it, not „Why?” you do a certain operation. Basically, modeling represents the rendering of behavior, attitude, communication abilities of a person considered more accomplished than other, or in other words it is an attempt to reach excellence by imitating the best examples. It may lead to excellence in: involvement; motivation, persuasion, attention, rise of learning ability, socializing, leading” (Knight, 2007).

“Finally, modeling means the capacity of learning new and useful skills at work, so that the employee becomes more productive, more efficient.” (Charvet, 2006). For example, when an employee learns to interact with the others through modeling it means that the process reached its aim. It doesn’t mean that all the members of the organization must become copies of the best member in organization. But if the changing of the members of that organization succeeds it means a great progress in the field of human resource in that organization. People of the organization can try to increase performances in some fields. They can use the best workers in studding the behavior, the attitude, the beliefs their values, mental programs, and its way of using.
"Modeling technique has five parts:
1. strategies – sequence of the internal process;
2. values and metaprograms – motivations to succeed;
3. beliefs – the power to overcome the obstacles;
4. physiology - physic components of the strategy;
5. language – the way in which the differences are coded" (Molden, 2007).

Strategies – they follow the elements of the verbal and nonverbal language but it must be follow the way of succeeding of success - what kind of mental schemes are used and how - because a few people know exactly what mental schemes they use, even if these assure them success.

Types of questions which can be used:
“When do you know when to….?”, “Remember, when was the last time when…..What exactly distract your attention? “ (Molden, 2007).

Values - by means of them it can be observed what kind of metaprograms are used usually and the elements of someone’s experiences, convictions, important events which leave a trace in that person’s life. Metaprograms can be defined being “structure of general order, independent of content, which determine our way of using experiences (http://carti.itarea.org/, www.nlpedia.ro).

Beliefs – the way a person motivates himself/herself, which are his/her fundamental values that he/she never gives up, how someone react in crises situation, what resources someone uses in that moments. These aspects are very important in shaping very powerful beliefs, which can serve for an optimal model of excellence in the future.

Physiology - is indicated "observation of the calibration of various states" (Molden, 2007). Calibration involves the recognition of someone state based on non-verbal reactions and behavior. It is a technique used in the development of sensory acuity. Overall changes in physiology occur, when passing from the main sense organ to the secondary ones.

Language - provides a lot of information about a person. A "change of tone of voice may indicate a change in general state, the used words can give information about processes, values, options, metamodels, metaprograms, needs, helping in achieving some differences depending on the context."

These five elements condition one by one result one from another. You can’t access to the next level without a previous element other wise he whole construction will lose balance, logic and efficiency.

Steps to follow in achieving the type of modeling:
1. “Identifying the ability which will be reproduced;
2. Selecting one or more persons that have this ability. It is necessary to be chosen only the best people in any field;
3. paying attention to the way that person acts. It must be considered the following elements: What that person does in some situation and how; Behavioral patterns, eyes movement, nonverbal language; The management of the environment; What metaprogram he/she uses; Convictions and values he/she expresses; How he/she communicates his/her sense of identity; Which is his/her aim.
4. Query - for example: "What are you saying and what are you doing?" In order to have a comparison between what he/she has just done and his/her explanation on that. "What are you thinking of?" Following the eyes movements, one can obtain a different response in comparison to that expressed by a person; "Which are your capabilities?" At least one of them must be chosen in order to be reproduced;
- "What is important for you at this moment?" The answer reveals that person’s values; "What do you think?" about yourself, about others, about a situation – shows his/her projection on himself/ herself and on the others; - "How can you describe yourself?" – in order to obtain information on someone’s identity;
5. Sometimes it is useful that a specific skill to be reproduced simultaneously by two
6. Reproduction the patterns of thought and behavior, so that the strategy to be identified.
7. Testing all the elements, one by one, and then eliminating them one by one and introducing some other.
8. If the results match those of the model, the process is complete; otherwise it means that the elements leading to differentiation have not been properly identified.
9. Strategy should be noted, used and developed. “(Knight, 2007). It may be a model TOTE to see if the model works and what are its results.

```
Test
Number of people >3

Operation
You are scarred

Testing
Are you scarred yet?

Exit
Yes
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Source: Freeth, Peter – Change Magic, p.222

„Using this model, we operate on a state to change and to achieve a purpose. Present state is constantly compared to certain elements in order to find out whether we achieved our goal or not.” (Freeth, 2008). Depending on the results, we adjust the operations as efficiently as we can. When our goal is not achieved we can modify the behavior somehow. Repeat the test sequence, and if the aim has been achieved them move to the next level. Otherwise the behavior must be modified again and the procedure must be repeated.

Model construction should be done in a logical and rational manner. We must take into consideration the order of execution of various activities. Apud Harry Alder it is necessary to observe closely the sensorial system, in order to be identified the main type - V, A, K - and then all the elements that are used by someone: images, sounds, feelings. After that the order of the elements can be modified and can be eliminated certain elements according to the specific results obtained by each person when they experience their own model.

Training is defined as a „constant process of transferring and acquiring knowledge, abilities and approaches necessary to the employee in order to efficiently perform the attributes of a job.” (http://www.effectiveconsulting.ro/training.php?id_submenui=5&id_menui=2).

Training guarantees the uptake of new information and knowledge necessary to the improvement of the working process. This way, the employees’ current beliefs, values and approaches can be changed and thus ultimately leading to a change in their attitude towards work. The influence of all these elements leads to the increase of employees’ productivity but also to the increase of the organization’s performance as a whole. Conf. Nicolescu O.: training is a method that can be used successfully especially for less accomplished employees. “Changing behavior concurs to the changing of the employees’ approach, it will generate new values that will determine not only the acceptance of the work methods but will also determine the request for professional improvement” (Nicolescu, 1998). The training has the following advantages in the case of its usage by companies: “The reliability of the services and the orientation towards the client; internal know-how and expertise; young and motivated organizer personnel; flexibility and adaptation towards the dynamic changes of the modelling; positive feed-back from the training activities attended until present; a high percentage of content participants; motivation/ acquiring the loyalty of the employees; internal promotion, the beneficiaries of the training become familiarized with the company” (http://www.revista-piata.ro/pdf2008/IV-3-Loreda-Dragomir-S116.pdf).
The training has the following disadvantages in the case if its usage by companies: “costs, duration, results aren’t immediate, limited practical experience, training only in certain fields, lack of control on investment and guarantee, training gets worn-out” (http://www.revista-piata.ro/pdf2008/IV-3-Loreda-Dragomir-S116.pdf).

The training follows only the familiarization with new physical activities so that the activity of the organization as a whole can be improved. The weaknesses of the trainings are the relatively high costs that are involved, relatively high period of instruction, lack of control over the investment, the high moral wear-off which the trainings are submitted to.

Modeling is a process which can create a successful example in any field, which can afterwards be applied by any person. The advantage of modeling is that it allows the customization of the initial model, a complete replication is not necessary in order to achieve certain results. The modeling process involves also a lot of attention, because if the model should not be correctly accomplished, then its practical rendering should be difficult and the results should not lift to the expectations. This way the average work efficiency increases using the internal resources, with a minimum investment, and it is applied to a great mass of people at the same time. The eventual resistance to change can be soften and even canceled, considering the large number of people attending who will probably share new ideas, because these techniques can be customized, so that the work stress will be minimum.

Modeling can be applied to any person from the organization, regardless its performances, the instruction period is relatively high but allows the customization of every model. The relatively high costs of modeling are quickly absorbed by the extended experience, the results that can be obtained in a short period of time, and what is most important, the achieved knowledge, on one hand they don’t go out of date, and on another hand, it assures the development of the members of the organization by the increasing abilities regarding beliefs, attitudes, values, and on another hand is accomplished an improvement of the psychological processes, which cannot be determined through training.

According to the comparative analysis of the two methods – see Appendix - it may be observed: the advantages of modeling compared to those of training are more ample, they develop on multiple grounds, the practicability field is larger, the sources of information come from the inside and not from the outside, the result usually appears in a shorter period of time and helps the development of physical and psychological abilities, not only physical. Regarding the disadvantages, - it should be considered that there are only two common elements: „duration” and „cost”. The rest all the others disadvantage should be attributed to training.

The conclusion that is made is that functionally and also from the point of view of the costs, resources, accomplishments, the modeling technique is superior the training technique.

### Appendix: The compared analysis training and modeling

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<th>Advantage\ Disadvantages</th>
<th>Modeling\ advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages modeling</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation/loyalty \ employees</td>
<td>costs</td>
<td>It may be applied in any field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal promotion</td>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>Modelling source is internal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Know-how and expertise</td>
<td>Result aren’t immediate</td>
<td>The possibility to customize every model individually</td>
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<td>Flexibility at new modifications</td>
<td>Practical experience is limited</td>
<td>Results are usually immediate and long</td>
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<td>Positive Feed-back</td>
<td>Training in only certain fields</td>
<td>Development of physical and psychological abilities</td>
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<td>Advantage(s) training</td>
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<td>Development of physical abilities</td>
<td>Lack of control over investment and guarantee</td>
<td>Motivation employees</td>
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FACING E-LEARNING CHALLENGE IN THE EUROPEAN KNOWLEDGE – BASED ECONOMY

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Abstract. “In a time of drastic change, it is the learners who inherit the future. The learned find themselves equipped to live in a world that no longer exists” (Eric Hoffer, Vanguard Management 1989). The „triangle of learning” (education – research – innovation) plays a central role for a positive trend in growth and job opportunities. In this context, lifelong learning, especially e-Learning phenomenon, is of major importance. In our paper we define the e-learning concept, presenting the characteristics of e-Learning versus traditional learning and focusing on quality assurance in e-Learning. Also, this paper tries to explain the interdependencies between e-Learning, e-inclusion and e-working.

Keywords: development, innovation, boosting growth, skills, training, quality, quality assurance, communication.

Introduction

Four years after it was re-launched in 2005, the Lisbon growth and jobs strategy demonstrated that it is working, but the European Union must reform further in order to succeed in a globalised age. We can state now that the “triangle of learning” (education – research – innovation) plays a central role for a positive trend in growth and job opportunities. But what does the New Lisbon Strategy involve in fact? – an increased research development & innovation, a more dynamic business environment, investing in people, and greening up the economy. With reference to the objective of investing in people, we must consider besides more and better jobs, lifelong learning as being of major importance (http://ec.europa.eu/growthandjobs/index_en.htm, http://ec.europa.eu/growthandjobs/key/lifelong-learning/index_en.htm).

Lifelong learning must mean high quality initial education for everybody, from an early age and throughout a lifetime, reducing dropout rates from schools, world-class higher education, vocational training systems that meet the students’ and employers' needs, real opportunities and incentives to learn new skills throughout careers, including for older workers. The Lisbon Growth and Jobs Strategy aims to transform Europe's education and training systems into world leaders. Lifelong learning equips people for change and better jobs, so it is also an important element of flexicurity, the labor market model, already used in some Member States that combines flexible work arrangements with strong social protection (Delivering lifelong learning for knowledge, creativity and innovation, 2007, p. 7).

The agreements from the 10-year work program of the European Commission, Education and Training 2010, constitute the EU strategic framework of co-operation in the fields of education and training, and are implemented through the open method of coordination. Over the last five years the Education and Training 2010 Work Program of the European Commission has made a vital contribution towards achieving the main
objectives of the Lisbon Strategy: growth and jobs working together for Europe’s future.

The conclusions of the spring 2007 European Council describe education and training as prerequisites for a well-functioning knowledge triangle (education - research - innovation) which plays a key role in boosting growth and jobs. In this context, of education seen as booster for growth and jobs and as key to increasing opportunities for individuals, and also of creating a new Meta framework of levels in Europe, we will analyze the e-Learning phenomenon. Developing innovative information and communications technologies (ICT) solutions to promote better education and training throughout a citizen’s life is a special focus of the European Lifelong Learning Program 2007 - 2013. Information and communications technologies (ICT) are seen as powerful tools for improving the quality and the ease of access to education and training, and because of this ICT are also Key Activity 3 of the Transversal Program of Lifelong Learning Program (http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/llp/index_en.html).

Why can we consider that e-learning is the core of lifelong learning? We think the best answer would be the words of Commissioner Figel - "We need lifelong learning for lifelong earning. But equally we need lifelong learning for personal development, self-esteem and to support a multilingual and multicultural society. ICT is an important tool in our efforts to improve quality, provide better access to learning and open-up our systems to the world. This concerted effort will ensure that ICT is used effectively and appropriately to help integrate learning into all aspects of our life and realize a learning society for all". E-learning is supporting the modern and independent lifelong learners, irrespective of their age. Thus, e-learning has become an excellent tool for supporting lifelong learning, and in this context Europe is talking about new i2010 with a clear long-term perspective of more and better jobs and of the existence of skilled and adaptable workforce with solid education (E-Learning for growth, jobs and an inclusive society, 2005).

Defining the e-Learning concept. Characteristics of e-Learning vs. traditional learning

Generally, e-Learning is a broad definition of the field of using technology to deliver learning and training programs (http://www.e-learningguru.com/gloss.htm#E) see It is a concept typically used to describe media such as CD-ROM, Internet, Intranet, wireless and mobile learning. Some include Knowledge Management as a form of e-Learning. First, in 1995 it was all called "Internet based Training", then "Web-based Training" (to clarify that delivery could be on the Inter- or Intra-net), then "Online Learning" and finally e-learning, adopting the in vogue use of "e-" during the dot com boom.

On the European e–Learning portal, we find the following interesting definition: E-Learning means the use of new multimedia technologies and the Internet to improve the quality of learning by facilitating access to resources and services as well as remote exchanges and collaboration (http://www.iclearningeuropa.info/index.php?page=doc&doc_id=1356&doclng=6&menuzone=1). So, e-Learning is more than 'web-based training’, as it involves processes and applications including computer-based learning, web-based learning, digital collaboration. E-Learning is no longer seen as the synonym of 'online learning’, which is only a part of technology-based learning (e-Learning) describing learning via the Internet, intranet and extranet. (http://www.astd.org/NR/rdonlyres/E2CF5659-B67B-4D96-9D85-BFAC308D0E28/0/ham brecht.pdf).

Trying to identify the specific nature of e-learning, Alexandra Draxler, Former Secretary to the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century Initiative, summarizes the four elements one can examine to observe the differences between e-learning and face-to-face learning:

1. Information acquisition. E-Learning transforms the process of information acquisition into something more directly under the control and responsibility of the learner,
where the mediator is either non-existent or in a role of counselor. It is also a process.

2. **Transformation of information into knowledge.** E-Learning liberates the learner into a world of almost infinite sources of information, and there is little to guide the learner. The traditional guides (judgement of teacher, choice of information to put into a library) are not operative, and the learner has a great deal of responsibility in choosing, sorting and evaluating that information. The transformation process is more open, more subject to individual choice and judgement.

3. **Mediation.** The mediation process can to some extent be freed of human intervention.

4. **Validation.** Here the difference between e-Learning and other types is small: most of the same techniques and issues prevail. It might be useful to seek out what significant differences and opportunities exist.

**Quality assurance in e-Learning**

Quality development and assurance is currently of growing interest and a difficult matter to handle. The effectiveness of any quality improvement will be as much a function of the ability to foster agreement around common goals as of any substantive input or process adjustments attempted by an institution.

In many circles, the term “quality” is understood as shorthand for Total Quality Management (TQM), or its close cousin, Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI). The quality framework is a tool for continuously improving online programs in higher education. Based on recommendations of the higher education community (http://www.adec.edu/earmyn), the quality framework provides ways of demonstrating institutional quality. As institutions continuously improve pedagogy, and as technology evolves, the framework itself is a work in progress, designed to facilitate the sharing of effective practices among institutions.

The formulation of *quality assurance systems for technology-based education*, while most frequently regulated at a regional or national level, has in recent years been driven by international developments. The global reach of the Internet and the lack of ways to regulate transnational commercial activities allow fraudulent operators to spring up. One response has been the promotion of consumer education by sites such as AboutEducation (http://www.about.com/education, Nancy).

At a basic level, the characteristics of quality educational delivery demonstrated in these frameworks include: 1) providing clear statements of educational goals; 2) sustaining the institutional commitment to support learners; and 3) engaging in a collaborative process of discovery, which contributes to 4) improving the teaching and learning environment.

Specific structures, known as the **five pillars** of quality, support the quality framework - *learning effectiveness, student satisfaction, access, faculty satisfaction, and cost effectiveness*. For each of the pillars, the framework enables institutions to set the goals, to identify supporting practices, and to project and measure progress towards the goals (Benjamin, 2001).

a) **Learning Effectiveness** means that learners who complete an online program receive educations that represent the distinctive quality of the institution. The goal is that online learning is equivalent to or better than learning through the institution’s other delivery modes, in particular through its traditional face-to-face, classroom-based instruction.

b) **Student Satisfaction** is the most important key to continuing education. It reflects learners’ evaluation of the quality of all aspects of the educational program. E-learners place a primary value on constructive, substantive interaction with faculty and, as appropriate, with classmates in classes that are the same size as equivalent face-to-face classes and are taught by the same kind of faculty.

c) **Access** provides the means for all qualified, motivated learners to complete courses, degrees, and programs in disciplines of their choice. The purpose is to broaden access to higher education,
so courses are accessible without special purpose equipment beyond a web-enabled computer and at least a telephone connection to the Internet. While access can motivate learners, unreliable access can demotivate them.

d) Faculty Satisfaction means that faculty find e-Learning and online teaching effective and professionally beneficial. The availability of qualified and enthusiastic faculty enables institutions to respond to growing demands for online learning and to maintain and improve the quality of learning effectiveness.

e) Cost Effectiveness strengthens the institution by enabling it to provide its best educational value to learners, and to scale its programs in response to market demand.

Interdependencies: e-learning - e-inclusion - e-working

We can also speak about a future paradigm: social e-Learning, which means setting up a socially inclusive e-Learning environment within the European Union context. So, e-Learning strategy must be directed to e-Inclusion, otherwise it will become a total failure. After a careful analysis of real e-Learning practices towards e-Inclusion, in Digital and Social Inclusion Chart, Barcelona, 2004, are stated the following key areas which are good starting points for both implementation and further research (http://www.charte.velay.greta.fr/pdf/charter_E-learning_towards_social_inclusion.pdf):

1. Social solutions to social problems. Social practices interact with technology, and one influences the other. If we want to have a really inclusive information society, we need to address the social problems that have turned people into digitally excluded, and not only consider the ones derived from lack of structure. As far as digital divide is concerned, not everyone has been created equally. There is an important qualitative difference between someone who is already excluded and need to understand and use ICT and someone who only needs some formal knowledge to jump in. This is a general principle which we think should permeate any type of e-learning strategy directed to e-inclusion.

2. Community and awareness. Learning communities are a hot subject nowadays. Nevertheless, they are mostly viewed as mere instrumental concepts towards improving learning. Again, this is useful, but it is not enough. ICT offers us wonderful social software which can be used in original ways to help real communities to expand their political, social, and cultural horizons. Isolated communities can use digital technologies to be better known and respected among our society. The dispersed members of a community can use several digital tools to stay in touch and continue developing their own lifestyles and culture. We should also keep in mind all the awareness power that lies in the Internet to describe and fight social exclusion. This strategy is key when we are considering rural isolated communities and migrants that are working far away from their homes, but they can become also an important measure to fight sexism in the computer world and help women to join and transform ICT.

3. Towards the transparent PC. Personal computers and software get more improvements and new features each year and therefore become more difficult to use. This may be fine for users that are familiar with ICT. However, it makes things worse every year for the digitally excluded, especially when elderly or people with disabilities are considered. In fact we consider that this “new feature” strategy is deeply wrong from a social and educational point of view.

4. Problem solving methodology for e-Learning. Because our target has specific needs, we need to avoid academicism, and to construct e-learning materials that are useful, practical, and motivational. This surely implies something that is usually neglected when thinking about e-learning strategies: the specific social and cultural context. Lack of trust and of motivation are important barriers towards e-inclusion. We will never cross those gates if we just create the typical “how-to” courses. Besides, information society becomes
more and more competitive. In a few years, just knowing how to use a word processor or an e-mail client won’t make any difference in the job market.

5. Internet for everybody. Software technologies are plastic enough to be adapted to any specific need an special collective may had: content can be adapted to any type of cognitive, sensorial or physical disability. Unfortunately, very few companies, administrations or individuals use that characteristic. We need to raise awareness on that topic among software and hardware producers, web designers and educators.

   The learning habits of today’s students will have a great impact on tomorrow’s workers, is the opinion of Bill Seretta from WhatIfNetworks, LLC. Nowadays young people are so familiar with the computer and network technology that they will expect a similar virtual working environment. Bill Seretta, in an interview for CHECK point e-Learning newsletter, considers that today’s youth are adapting and finding ways to use technology. All of these have significant implications on higher education institutions and the work place. As always, today’s youth culture gets incorporated into tomorrow’s global culture. He thinks we should learn a lot from the next generation today. For example, adults have a difficult time working in teams in a face-to-face environment, they want to be let alone trying to do it online. Today’s youth are using Internet-based multi-user games and Voice over IP to form virtual teams with people they may not know, carry on and complete a task and then disband. In effect, they are forming small, temporary learning communities. Knowing this, we can build this into future work and learning environments knowing that there will be much less resistance to using technology to communicate and work in a virtual environment. Observation, expanding on experience and applying it to future work and learning situations is not only possible, but it is mandatory if we are to avoid the "intellectual fight" between generations. Today’s youth utilize multiple methods of communication. Their communication is continuous. They move from face-to-face to online interaction very easily. They are accustomed to working in virtual teams and learning through simulation (http://www.checkpointelearning.com/index.php?co=8&aID=963).

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THE SOCIAL AND PRIVATE BENEFITS OF EDUCATION

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Abstract. Education externalities are social or public benefits from the education of each individual, others having benefits in the society in both current and future generations. They are beyond and above the private benefits that the individual decision maker takes into account in making his or her private decision to invest in education. They include education’s impacts on economic development goals that are part of the quality of life but that also benefit future generations.

Standard estimates of social rates of return include only a portion of the total social effects of education. They are limited to the market (or monetary) returns and do not include the non-market private or the non-market externality benefits of education. The pure private non-market benefits are taken into account by individuals when they make their decisions about how far to go in school.

Keywords: democracy, economic development, human resources, employment politics, social exclusion, labour.

Introduction

A sustainable and democratic society cannot exist if the majority of the citizens have not a minimum level of education.

The education of a child has benefits not only for his parents or for the child himself, but for the other members of the society. The education of my child contributes to your well-being by promoting a stable and democratic society’.

It is very difficult to identify all the beneficiaries of the investments in education and to pretend them a payment. As a conclusion we can say we face to a neighboring effect.

The Government intervention would be necessary, on the one hand, in order to require that every child get a minimum level of education, and on the other hand to finance that education, in case not everybody can afford it.

Nobody would contest that an individual that invests in his own education could bring benefits not only to his family, but to the others. However, there are a lot of other good things for the human co-operation or to a society, but it does not result that they should be produced by the state and financed by taxes and fees. Additionally, the investment in one’s training/education can finally be retrieved, when the individual comes to the labour market.

A lot of econometric studies show the fact that individual incomes depend firstly on education.

If the educated people can earn more than the uneducated ones, shouldn’t things be the same when we talk about the differences among the states of the world? For example, immigrants to the United States from Haiti or Mexico, or to Britain from south-eastern Europe and South Asia, know that they can earn more after arriving. This is partly because of the spill over benefits from democracy, the rule of law, and dissemination of new technology that are functions of education in prior generations.
Consequences of the investment in education as regards human capital

Considering the present economic development context, human resources represent the essential element of competition, both at national and international level. In the global competition of the IT economy, quality and human resources ingenuity are the main factors that make the essential differences among countries.

Specialists in the field say that there is a very close relation between the technological progress and the investment in education influencing all areas of life: economy, society, politics, and culture. People represent the main source of any economy on its way to modernization.

The human resources that are educated, healthy, with a high physical and intellectual potential, able to be educated during the whole cycle of life and that adapt themselves to the economic changes, are essential for an economic growth model based on competitiveness, efficiency and quality.

Based on the existence of “living organizations”, managers have reached the conclusion that human resources represent the soul of those.

Economic growth depends directly on work productivity. Higher capital investments and technological modernization, although necessary, are not sufficient to obtain these productivity improvements. This is why the improvement of human resources quality is necessary as an inherent condition that in the end implies the structural increase and optimization of public and private investments in key domains of human development, first of all in education and health.

The quality of human resources represents a sum of properties and characteristics of the human resources of an organization. The books related to this topic, refer to quality sometimes as “utility”, “capability to utilize”, or “conformity with the requirements”. In order to increase the labour and corporate adaptability, the following will be supported: assurance, development and maintenance of labour in order to achieve the companies’ high criteria regarding the labour competences, requirements that are essential in order to be competitive in the transforming process of economic and technological conditions required by the development of knowledge based society.

Adapting the professional competences of own personnel to the company’s development needs will support the increase of productivity and the quality of work. All these, together with better work conditions, will lead to a healthy and secure job, especially in activity domains and divisions with a high risk and will determine a substantial decrease of accidents at the workplace and of professional diseases, as well as promoting an active aging process (prolonged active life and reduced phenomenon of anticipated retirement) (Suciu, 2004, p. 20).

For continuous improvement of knowledge and managerial competences on all levels, entrepreneurial development will be supported. Implementing programs for entrepreneurial development will lead to ensuring entrepreneurial creativity, improving the manager’s and the entrepreneur’s capacity to manage their business and to adapt to the exigencies demanded by competitiveness and technological changes.

In order to make the changes in economic and social life faster, it’s necessary to have a human resources policy that ensures high quality personnel.

In a world characterized by globalization and internationalization of businesses, you can’t obtain performance without competent human resources, which means that personnel activities go to a next level concerning promoting total quality management (TQM) and related to that concerning the strategic importance for organizations.

The investment in human capital must be understood as an investment that sums up the investments in education. The investment in human resources includes the total expenses for increasing physical and intellectual aptitudes of people.
The investment in human resources should be understood as an investment comprising the sum of education investments. The investment in human resources includes the total expenditures in order to increase physical and intellectual skills of the people. Approaching the investments in human capital, and similarly, in physical capital, can be made through the cost-benefit, cost-efficiency and actualization analysis.

There are some of the factors that influence the investment in human capital: the economic general state, the length and stability of the income flow, income differences, direct and indirect costs, ability revenue, human capital investment rate of return, the marginal income of it, etc.

Investments in human potential, as key investments in an economy, should be focused so that they coincide also with employment politics at a national level. It should also be taken into account that an efficient regional and activity sector management of investments in human capital can lead to a better national economic development.

The perception of changes that took place in the structure of human resources and the effects caused by them on investments in human capital evolved on the basis of a decreasing of activity in some fields. Thus, the unemployment emerging and the effects of it on some socio-professional categories led to rapid changes mainly in the structure of work demand and generated significant changes in the human capital investments’ structure.

The most important part of human capital is, as we have already shown, education and implicitly, the level of training. In order to highlight the efficiency of investments in education we have to analyze both the costs and the benefits of the investment process.

The costs refer to the funds allotted to land achievement, but also for buildings meant to education purposes. The private benefits resulting from the investment in education are clear: increased incomes, decreased risk of unemployment, therefore the increase of the degree of insertion on the labour market. Social benefits consist in strengthening the social cohesion, the increase of productivity and the certainty of economic growth, the decrease of social costs by preventing social exclusion, etc.

Private benefits of the investment in education
The educational level of a person influences the level of his earnings, a relation of direct proportionality being between the two elements. The higher studies persons have, the better are they prepared to receive the new information and to familiarize with the new technologies, their earnings being thus greater.

The education a person gets has also strong consequences over the working place where he has his job. In his book, “Studies of the Human Capital”, Jacob Mincer provides: “The educated employees has at least two advantages comparing with those less educated, as follows: higher salaries and a much more higher stability at the job”.

Another aspect that has to be mentioned, being in a close relationship with the education, is the quality of our life. The people with a higher level of education have the tendency to be much more healthy than that with a lower level of education; they make an investmentment in their own person and they preserve their investment, undertaking protective measures (Mincer, 1974).

Taking into consideration the fact that individual investment into a person is made on a long term basis, not only in school but also at the workplace, the investment responsibility is not only of the employee but also of the employer, because the production process is the subject of permanent adaptation to the new techniques and technologies emerging on the market.

An OECD study shows that “participating in an additional year of secondary education amplifies the economic growth by as much as 5% and further, with 2.5% on a long term”. Also, an additional school year raises the level of individual salary by approximately 6.5% (OECD, 2004). The facts have also shown that, unemployment rate decreases along with the superior education levels, thus reducing the
social costs that are involved. In consequence, we can say that the employment rate increases together with the education level reached by a person.

According to a recent study, Romania has the highest percent in the region, of people who abandon primary school, 23% of population with ages between 18 and 24 years leaving school and the lowest percent of people involved in the education process throughout their life (Farrington, 2005).

Public benefits of the investments in education
The economists paid more attention to the economic growth beginning with the moment when Adam Smith wrote his work on the wealth of the nations. The education contribution to the economic growth happens by two mechanisms. The first and the most famous between them is establishment of new knowledge, known also as “the Schumpeterian growing”. The individuals that are much more educated will become later scientists and investors who will work in order to contribute to the enhancing of the human intelligence stock, by developing new processes and technologies.

Thus, we came to the second mechanism, by which the education influences the economic growth, by transmitting new knowledge and information. The schools ensure the necessary level of education, in order to understand new information, and approaching this topic, I think Romania is among the first countries. If there wouldn’t exist the schools where the pupils and students learn to use those new applications, the innovation effect would be much more reduced.

The education expenses are the lowest, compared to the Central and East European countries. Thus, school abandonment represents another problem of the education system, and in this case the parent’s education can play a major role. Ensuring the access to relevant information and developing programs for the parents can be some solutions for reducing and preventing school abandonment.

Education must help solve some of the problems that the contemporary society deals with. In this purpose, internal coherence of education systems and society must be improved, but also ensuring their certain stability and continuity, that will ensure long term efficiency.

If investments in tangible resources have as an output the creation and development of physical (technical) capital, investments in the growth, education and training of human resources generate the so-called human capital. The specialists that deal with the economic growth and development issue agree the idea that once a certain level of gathering human capital is reached, that becomes more productive, positively correlating with the growth and employment rates from the growth patterns.

Gary Becker (1997) demonstrates that investments in human capital, as education, training and medical insurance influence the highest growths of work productivity and thus, contribute greatly to increasing GNP (Becker, 1997).

Referring to Japan’s remarkable results obtained in the post war period, Salrero Okito, one of the creators of Japanese “miracle”, stated that one of the reasons of his country fast development was the “abundance of cheap and quality labour, and education able to deal with sophisticated technologies.” Actually, human resources, education and education system were the priorities of the Japanese society.

We can say that a better quality of work contributes to the growth of employment, productivity and social cohesion. Benefiting of a higher and higher reward for qualification, the polarization between those with a high volume and those with a low volume of knowledge affects the economic and social cohesion.

The access to education paid by the employer is often limited for those who already have a high qualification and so some groups are blocked in the inferior part of the labour market.
An important social desire is the development of education and training throughout the entire life, so that the changes in the economy don’t produce negative effects for the social cohesion. One of the most important conclusions of recent research in education is that investment in educating and training people is both a growth factor, especially in the present times characterized by fast technological changes, and a fundamental instrument in supporting social integration. This fact was also confirmed by the analysis of the PISA study results, which show that some countries with the highest medium achievements have, also, the lowest levels of differences between individuals and schools; in other words, the improvement of quality does not imply restricting the opportunities, on the contrary.

Education and high qualification education are considered as an instrument of reducing differences between highly and lowly developed regions, by providing human resources necessary to the economic and social development. (Farrington, 2005)

Choosing the regional or local level of the training degree as one of the six fundamental pillars of permanent education strategies in Europe and the movement for Learning Cities and Regions show how important have they become for hiring labour and for local and regional development.

The related question is: should education be seen as an exclusive public asset?

Regarding the Romanian education system, we can see that it faces structural issues and especially the rural education system which deals with major difficulties regarding investments in physical infrastructure, qualified teaching staff, limited access to professional education and to continuous education programs for the rural population.

A special interest for the investment in human resources is also reflected in the constant concern of the OECD to support the economic growth through permanent development programs of the educational capital, starting with the international comparative studies that show that on an individual level, income rate for the educational investment is higher for the university graduates. At the same time, the higher the education is, the more unemployment and poverty rate diminish (Geraint, 2005, p. 217).

On the other hand, it is noticed that on a macro social level, the income rate for the investment in the secondary education is higher than the one for the capital used in business (production or trade) while the outcome resulted from the investments in third level education can be placed at similar levels with income rate for the capital invested in trading or production activities.

International comparative studies for OECD countries show that at individual level, investment rate of profit in education is higher for higher education graduates than for secondary education graduates. At the same time, the unemployment and poverty probability decrease as the knowledge degree increases.

At macro-social level, the investment rate of profit for investments in secondary education generally exceeds the capitalized rate of profit used in business (production or commercial activities), while the benefits produced by investing in higher education is placed at similar levels to the invested capital rate of profit, invested in commercial or production activities.

Conclusions

The education of a human being can not be influence the average of the entire community. That does not happen because his investment in educational process is very low comparing with the entire community (which is the usual reason for a perfect competition) – it happens because those education effects work very slowly and are much delayed, and generally speaking, they have consequences on the future generations.

References


IMPACT OF TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS ON STUDENTS’ BEHAVIOUR

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Abstract. In contemporary life, an increasingly important place in influencing students’ behaviour is held by television, in general, and television advertisements in particular. Consequently, the present paper aims at analyzing both the amount of interest that students, as viewers and consumers of products, place on television ads and the way commercials influence their everyday attitudes and learning approach. Furthermore, the paper also focuses on drawing a parallel between good and bad TV ads and their effect upon students’ behavior.

Keywords: consumers, brands, media sources, ads, consuming public, campaign, marketing strategies

Introduction
Advertisements represent a part of our everyday life, since we come across all sorts of products, companies, jobs, activities, places that are advertised at each and every step we take while accomplishing daily duties in town, or listening to the radio, watching T.V., reading a newspaper or a magazine, looking for a job or a nice holiday to spend, and so on. Practically, our whole life is constantly surrounded and influenced by advertisements, one way or another.

People are consumers: of brands, products, services, even ideas and models. But what exactly is the thing that makes consumers choose one over the other of the above mentioned? The answer is quite simple: advertising – the key to people’s moments of doubt. It is always the ad that gets people informed on the existence of a certain product or service or even more, the one that makes the difference in consumers’ mind when they do not know what to choose.

The present-day society enjoys high living standards which are partly expressed through the great access to information that people have due to the various media sources. Among them, television seems to be the one to deservedly hold supremacy in the effectiveness of its advertising messages. Studies have proved that the average person around the age of 18 spends over 200 minutes per day watching television. That is over 4 hours a day. Thus, the time a young viewer spends with television exceeds the combined total time spent with other media: radio – 128 minutes, Internet – 45 minutes, newspapers – 30 minutes and magazines – 19 minutes (http://upn34.com.Online.Internet). It goes without saying that they are, inevitably, the most exposed to the advertisements broadcast on TV channels. That is why, this paper has in view an analysis and presentation of the way television advertisements influence young viewers’ mind and behaviour.

What Is Advertised on TV?
Television advertising represents, if not always the handiest and the cheapest, still indisputably the most effective type of advertising and also
the most preferred by any type of company. That is due to the immediate reach and impact that television has upon viewers, giving them an extraordinary impulse to try the products or services that are advertised on TV.

The answer to the question “What is advertised on TV?” is quite a broad one, covering all sorts of products from fast-moving consumer goods to automobile and white goods industry.

First of all, the fast-moving consumer goods (or FMCG) sector is the one to hold top position in television advertising. A host of products come under this category of FMCG, ranging from items of common daily consumption to more luxurious goods. Soaps, detergents, toothpastes, toothbrushes and cosmetics are the most widely-advertised products – advertised to the extent that one needs to escape from their marauding influence. Such fast-moving consumer goods adopt the so-called high-pressure advertising which is a sustained campaign by a company to preserve its product identity and image and boost its sales, apart from consolidating on its value to its customers.

Secondly, the soft drink industry also ranges among the most classic examples of high-pressure advertising. Coca-Cola and Pepsi have huge budgets and they choose the most expensive medium: television and ad films. They spend millions of dollars to push their products through celebrity endorsements. However, advertising specialists wonder whether this is justified as these products have got a history which does not need any celebrity to endorse them. Neither of the drinks has lost its fizz (literally speaking) over the years. And yet they spend enormous sums to stay in the limelight. This happens so because that is the way the market of this segment is built. First, through marketing strategies, they ought to edge out their rivals and once that task is accomplished, they need to reinforce their products’ image. Not just advertising but sponsorship of events also lends a varied image to the product and the company that sells it. For instance, tennis or football as games and the players who endorse the products, all help strengthen the company’s name, rather than the product.

A third place in the hierarchy of the most widely-advertised products is held by the automobile sector. This is the one sector that needs to have a sustained campaign. Unlike the soft drink sector, the products are not sold on such high volumes, but the field is so crowded that to get a foothold in the sector, one needs to be constantly seen in the public eye. Automobiles like Toyota, Hyundai, Volkswagen, Audi, Ford, BMW, etc. are constantly present on our TV screens because however famous they may be, their promoters are highly aware of the importance of advertising strategies in proving their virtues and excellence over their rivals and in gaining new customers.

Last but not least, white goods like refrigerators, washing machines, microwave ovens and all sorts of gadgets are another category of products that resort to television advertising to present their newly-appeared products. For famous companies like Samsung, LG or Philips, advertising is a backbone supplementing their aggressive marketing strategies. And television advertising is by far the best medium to accomplish that. White goods television advertising focuses mainly on sales products because this advertising medium is a powerful and necessary tool for this sector to help achieve its goal. Cost does not represent any concern here but the objective does. If cost and objective are compatible, then the strategy is a powerful and well laid-out one. When advertising for white goods, the low cost is emphasised in order to achieve the objective of making the product known to the customer and selling it.

The list of TV advertised products may well continue with products and services offered by insurance companies, banks, mobile phone companies, etc. Nevertheless, supremacy is held by the above mentioned products which can always be seen on TV, regardless of time, channel or broadcast. Focus will be placed in the present paper on those products that are an integrant part of students’
lives, influencing not only their social but also their educational behavior.

The Impact of Television Advertisements on Students

“People who understand consumer behaviour make more money in the stock market than professional stock pickers who rely on financial numbers. ‘If you like the store chances are you’ll love the stock.’ (Peter Lynch)” (Blythe, 1997, p. 1)

Basically, the marketing concept expresses the idea that any organization needs to anticipate and satisfy consumer needs if its goal is to remain on top in terms of making profits. The success of any company, product or service relies on constantly keeping consumers in mind as they represent the key factor of any marketing activity. The great role of consumers in the life of a product is best illustrated by the following quotes from Blythe’s book The Essence of Consumer Behaviour:

“Without customers, there is no business” (Anon.) (Blythe, 1997, p. 1).

“The sole purpose of a business is to create a customer” (Peter Drucker, management guru) (Blythe, 1997, p. 1).

“The customer is always right; and even if the customer is wrong, he’s still the customer” (Sign seen in a sports shop in Sommerset) (Blythe, 1997, p. 1).

When it comes to young customers, ad producers design commercials with a view to satisfying their interests and needs. Thus, the effectiveness of TV advertisements is generally noticed while analyzing students’ behaviour regarding the product advertised. A positive attitude is easily detected in high sale-rates while a negative one is seen in modest sale-figures. Actually, the success of a product mainly depends on the quality of the advertisement representing it, starting from the producer’s idea and ending with all technical details. Whether willing to admit it or not, consumers (in this case, students) are much more convinced to purchase a product or a service if an ad shows them that they are doing the right thing.

Why do TV ads have a much greater influence upon consumers’ minds than other types of commercials? If magazine or radio ads only incite consumers over a product that they want or need to buy, the repeated broadcasting of television ads during shows or movies that keep viewers close to the TV set increase and strengthen their wish to do so. A TV ad can be so convincing that it may turn people’s mere wishes into real needs. Since motivation comes from a desire to satisfy a need and the fulfilment of needs requires the formation of goals and actions, the following chart, adapted by Blythe Jim in his book The Essence of Consumer Behaviour, will illustrate the route from need to action (Blythe, 1997, p. 23):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychological event</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Need is recognized</td>
<td>The feeling of lacking something is categorized: the consumer becomes aware that the feeling of unease is caused by thirst.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A drive is generated</td>
<td>An desire to do something about the problem comes to mind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A relevant motive is selected</td>
<td>The consumer looks for something to drink.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A goal is selected</td>
<td>Some specific drink is aimed at; maybe the individual decides to buy a beer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A pattern of action is selected to achieve the goal</td>
<td>The consumer decides whether to go out and have the beer in a bar or buy it from a food shop.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once all these steps (from the identification of need to the selection of an action pattern) are fulfilled, the only thing that the consumer has to settle is the beer brand. Unless he is a loyal consumer of a certain beer, the decisive factor in choosing the type of beer will certainly be a
TV ad. Thus, ads promoting beer like Stella Artois, Carlsberg or Heineken will always “haunt” thirsty young men’s minds. To the extent that, when they are in a position to make a choice, they will not hesitate in choosing one of these brands. Even though the above types of beer are some of the most expensive ones, thirsty youngsters never look at price. The only important aspect for them is taste and brand whose quality has been inoculated into their minds by TV commercials. For instance, Carlsberg’s famous slogan “Probably the best beer in the world!” will always be easy to remember both by beer-drinkers and not only. Actually, the idea that lays at the basis of any advertisement should be that of connecting the product to the target consumer. Since the particular example of beer has been discussed so far, it is well-known that drinking beer has always been associated to sports-loving men and that young men are keen on football and enjoy watching a football game over a beer, together with their friends. In Romania, for example, when saying beer, one should probably think about football and football fans. That is why, most beer ads display the subject of sports, generally football and of supporters who encourage their favourites with a bottle of beer in hand. And, since sports fans are usually superstitious, their exclusive preference of one single beer brand would necessarily mean their favourite team’s success.

**Good vs. Bad TV Ads**

In television, effectiveness is measured in relation with viewers and their reaction to what they see. Most of the times, effectiveness refers to the creativity that ads display and to the way in which they succeed to attract consumers. A poll initiated by the famous Romanian advertising site [www.iqads.ro](http://www.iqads.ro) and regarding the categories of Romanian commercials which are considered most creative proves that, of 3207 votes, the viewers have appreciated the following: telecommunication services (923 votes), alcoholic drinks (752 votes), non-alcoholic drinks (379 votes), social campaigns (364 votes), media (227 votes), food products (164 votes), cosmetics (123 votes), detergents (95 votes), clothes (79 votes), financial services (38 votes), pharmaceuticals (35 votes), retail (28 votes) ([www.iqads.ro](http://www.iqads.ro)). And indeed, a detailed analysis of the preferences of the Romanian consuming public shows a great purchase rate of both alcoholic and non-alcoholic drinks.

Analysing students’ main interests we can easily see that what catches their eye are telecommunication services, drinks, media, cosmetics, some food products, and clothes. But, in their case, it is not only the advertised product that counts. In order to attract their attention, and to reach their goal, commercials should be funny and should have a very clever and creative message in their script.

The ads to mobile phones and mobile phone services are quite successful. Of all, the Zapp Share Free service has attracted viewers most through the ironical comments addressed to representatives of certain jobs. For instance, the ad that banter hair-stylists ranges among the commercials to mobile phone services that were much liked by young consumers. Adriana Lomnășan, advertising specialist, states her concise opinion this way: “Zapp comes back with a creative campaign for its share free service” ([www.iqads.ro](http://www.iqads.ro)).

*Coca-Cola*, Pepsi, Schweppes, *Sprite* and *Prigat* enjoy wonderful advertisements which young viewers cannot easily ignore or forget. The quality of these commercials is indisputable since both viewers as consumers and advertising specialists seem to agree upon the subject.

For instance, *Coca-Cola*, displays the topic of several thirsty young men on a beach longing for a draught of Coca-Cola in the intense heat of a summer day. While one of them imagines he is opening a Coca-Cola can and is drinking it, to his friends’ grudge, a real, beautiful young lady appears in front of the grudged, thirsty men and offers them real Coca-Cola cans to the amusement of their waggish mate. The commercial is so expressive that viewers can almost feel its taste at watching it. Its producers wanted to
show that Coca-Cola means temptation, taste, but above all, fun. Obviously, the above mentioned is only one of the many extremely suggestive ads to Coca-Cola which, even if not a Romanian product, represents a success of the Romanian advertising producers in terms of idea. 

_Pepsi_ is another brand which is very intelligently advertised. Like all the other non-alcoholic drinks, Pepsi appears in funny ads which promote the idea of joy and relaxation. Since there are several types of Pepsi (namely Pepsi Twist, Pepsi Max, Pepsi Light) each enjoying its own ad, only one type will be chosen for the present analysis. Thus, the commercials for Pepsi Max, which is the sugar free type, introduce viewers into the world of dangerous adventures which leave people breathless. The final message “Don’t worry, there’s no sugar” comes as a reassurance for those who want to drink Pepsi Max and who are, in fact, terrified at watching the Pepsi Max drinkers’ stunts. So, the message resembles that of Coca-Cola, instigating consumers to having fun and surpassing all limits of fear when drinking Pepsi Max.

Commercials like the above-mentioned reinforce the importance of socializing, of being part of a group or a team, of relying on one’s mates, an idea which is sought for in nowadays society and represents one of the constituents of the modern educational process.

Beside non-alcoholic drinks, Romanians are known as beer fans as well. And indeed, beer ads, be they of Romanian or foreign origin, succeed in attracting viewers by their beauty. 

_Stella Artois_, for instance, impresses by the cleverness of the idea that producers had: a barrel of beer, somersaulting through the snow, destroying a car but resisting without wasting one drop of the precious liquid. Another specialist in advertising, Alina Stanciu states: “I have thus realized how important is for a commercial to wake up in you, the stiff man who sits lonely in front of the TV waiting for something that he is not even aware of, a feeling. Of no matter what nature. That is why, I have tasted, drop by drop, the sweet venom injected in small but consistent doses, by the producers of the ad to Stella Artois. It has been like a marathon of a life’s examples towards the final conclusion: _value every glass_” (www.iqads.ro).

It is true that Romanian television channels abound in creative and attractive ads that make advertising breaks shorter and easier to tolerate by viewers but, however, there are some examples of TV ads that have the opposite effect upon people.

“Not even at the time that I am writing these lines can I believe that any biscuits can get sexual valences” (www.iqads.ro), states Alina Stanciu, specialist in advertising about the Ulpio biscuits. Indeed, by introducing some biscuits through such an image, the producers of this ad have succeeded in obtaining the opposite effect of the commercial. Instead of creating an appetite for those biscuits, the young man who is licking the cream on them rather makes us feel nausea. At the same time, the ad reinforces the nowadays youngsters’ bent towards hanging out with friends and the message is by far positive and educational, as it implies that there is nothing wrong with losing control of oneself and with crossing the limits of decency and of the accepted sexual behaviour.

Another example falling into the category of uninspired TV ads is the one to Fulga milk, which is not so bad in terms of idea but of effect on young consumers. When watching this commercial, teenagers are tempted to use the word “cow” in its pejorative sense and not in its proper one that is actually used in the ad. An anonymous advertising fan expressed his opinion about the above mentioned ad in the following way: “The ad to Fulga milk is purely and simply awkward. If somebody had come to me with such an idea, I would have fired him motivating that he is suffering from a chronic mental handicap. I am at a loss for words” (www.iqads.ro).

**Conclusion**

The power of television has become obvious through the supremacy of television ads within
advertising media. Since studies have shown that the time a young viewer spends with television exceeds the combined total time spent with other media, the top position of television as compared to the other media remains indisputable. The role of television and of TV commercials into students’ life is so great that one could not overlook mentioning the products promoted by this media. An objective presentation shows both the positive and the negative aspects of the matter. Neither of them can be ignored or avoided. Students are constantly exposed to them, easily influenced by them and it is the ad producers who should take this into consideration when designing a commercial, on the one hand, and the teachers who should channel their students’ interest only in those ads that have a positive impact on their behaviour, on the other hand.

References
USING TECHNOLOGY TO INCREASE ONLINE COURSE PARTICIPATION

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Abstract. The steady increase in Online teaching and learning is revolutionizing the educational process and challenging educators to investigate the myriad of new technological tools for motivation and participation. Interaction is the key to successful online learning and demands imaginative uses of the various electronic offerings, to further engage the technologically savvy newer generation of students. The E-learning promise of flexibility and mobility can be greatly enhanced through the use of Podcasts, that the student can download to their IPods and thereby access anywhere and anytime and which can simultaneously provide incentives for motivating student participation in the course discussions and chats. This presentation will focus on the use of Podcasts and other multimedia offerings to reinforce student engagement and satisfaction.

Keywords: life-long learning, students, technological revolution, online environment, competency levels, podcasting, critical thinking.

Introduction

Educational opportunities today include a myriad of traditional, hybrid and online delivery methods. As the demands of the modern world increasingly emphasize continuing education and life-long learning, recertification and frequent career changes, the higher learning institutions have invented a number of delivery methods to satisfy the ever-growing population of nontraditional students. E-learning or online learning offers flexibility to professionals with careers, single parents and other students who are home bound and unable to participate in the traditional face-to-face courses offerings. The technological revolution has not changed the notion of what learning is, but it has opened up more avenues in thinking how it can be done (Allen, 2009).

The newer population of students has grown up in the electronic environment, having spent over 10,000 hours online by the time they reach their 20th birthday and this new generation is dubbed ‘digital natives’ by Mark Prensky, an internationally acclaimed thought leader, speaker, writer, consultant, and game designer in the critical areas of education and learning (Presky, 2001a). Prensky, further explains that: “Our students today are all “native speakers” of the digital language of computers, video games and the Internet” (Presky, 2001b, p. 5) and even their thought processes are different, as the brain is greatly influenced by the experiences it encounters thereby developing neuroplasticity and malleability. Having been raised in an ever-present technologically rich environment, the younger generation is accustomed to the "twitch-speed, multitasking, random-access, graphics-first, active, connected, fun, fantasy, quick pay-off world of video games, MTV, and Internet” (Presky, 2001b, p. 5). Thus, the new generation requires different pedagogies for engagement more suited to their electronic world. Furthermore, the EDUCAUSE Center for Applied Research studies on undergraduate students and technology use, has found that Laptop ownership during the period 2005–8 increased at a rate of 55 percent (from 53% of students in 2005 to 82% in 2008) while smart
phone ownership, increased 60% in the same time period (Brown, 2009, pp. 66-67). These studies and others, indicate that the new generation of students require and even demand increased mobility and accessibility in their learning environments and therefore educational environments must be able to adapt and provide flexible solutions in course delivery and participation. What follows is an exploration of some of the newer enabling technologies, especially the use of Podcasts, which have been gaining popularity in the last few years.

**Online learning and digital literacy**

E-learning appeals to a variety of diverse individuals, who often have differing skills and comfort levels in their use of technology and although the younger generation may be quite advanced, older non-traditional students may require extra tutorials and practice to arrive at similar competencies. To this extent, the beginning of online courses should focus on ensuring that participants understand the system navigation and achieve an acceptable level of comfort in the online environment. In the beginning of a class, Ice breakers and other introductory short activities can be used to determine the digital literacy level of the participants and enable them to gain the appropriate competency levels required for the course. According to Allen Martin, the former Director of the IT Education Unit of the University of Glasgow, there are three levels to attaining digital literacy:

![Figure 1](image-url)

**Figure 1** provides a diagram of the three levels of Digital literacy. The first level consists of basic skills such as navigating a computer, opening and responding to email, word processing and the manipulation of digital images, conducting basic searches on the Internet and so on (Allen, 2009). In Martin’s view, however, “digital competence is a requirement for and precursor of digital literacy, but it cannot be described as digital literacy” (Allen, 2009) and thus, the emphasis for literacy evaluation must be focused on the other two levels.

On the second level, one discovers the appropriate use of technological applications within various areas of everyday life and situations, in different professions and contexts. This level can also vary greatly, but is mainly tied to solving problems and performing specific professional, work-related or business and community related tasks (Allen, 2009). Martin calls the highest level of digital literacy, ‘digital transformation’, in which the use of digital media leads to creativity and innovation, fundamentally transforming the individual or group and leading to critical reflection about the self and the technology (Allen, 2009). This is the level of immersion and transparency, where one finds numerous new social and communication applications that are revolutionizing both, societies and the educational environment through engagement of individual and society in the common goal of meaning creation and sharing.

Stephen Downes, a senior researcher with the National Research Council of Canada, explains the evolution of the second generation of the Web – Web 2.0 – the fundamental shift from “a medium, in which information [is] transmitted and consumed, into…. a platform, in which content [is] created, shared, remixed, repurposed, and passed along…” (Downes, 2009). In this new environment, people are communicating and sharing ideas not only through words, but audio-visual and multimedia files thereby creating a network. Today’s Web is composed of numerous such networks laden with cooperative social
applications and is often referred to as ‘social networks’. This evolution of the Web is paralleled in education, as many new applications enable greater cooperation and active engagement with both materials and colleagues.

Podcasting

Technically the term Podcast is a combination of the words pod, which means play on demand, and broadcast, thus Podcast means play on demand broadcasts (Keyes, 2009a). “Podcasting” is a term inspired by the Apple Computer Corporation’s iPod — a portable digital audio player that allows users to download music from their computer directly to the device for later listening, although the use of the term has grown to encompass any software and hardware combination that permits automatic downloading of audio files, which are most commonly created in MP3 format, for listening at the user’s convenience (Deal, 2009). Podcasts are not meant to be listened to live, but whenever and wherever is most convenient for the listener as they take advantage of Real Simple Syndication, known as RSS feed, which enables users to select content they want to hear and subscribe to that content, using a podcast aggregator - software that checks podcast feeds for updates at specified intervals (7 Things You Should Know About Podcasting, 2009), thereby having the content automatically download to their computers or MP3 players, rendering the medium very mobile (Podcasting in Education, 2006). Therefore, unlike traditional radio or other Web-based streaming media, podcasts give listeners control over when they hear the recording, and they also differ from the other media in the way that content is published and transmitted via the Web in that podcasting sends audio content directly to an iPod or other MP3 player (7 Things You Should Know About Podcasting, 2009).

Podcasting is very flexible and can involve practically anyone with an Internet connection, whether it is land-based or wireless. Podcasting has its roots in the blogging world, and is just as easy to use both in the means of creating content and the process of distributing and downloading it (7 Things You Should Know about Lecture Capture, 2009). All one needs is a good microphone. A part of the appeal of podcasting is the ease with which audio content can be created, distributed, and downloaded from the Web (7 Things You Should Know about Lecture Capture, 2009). This new means of creating content became popular as users simply connect their portable audio devices to the internet, log on to the subscription service and wait for the content to be ‘pushed’ out to them for later review. All of the tools needed to create, modify and distribute podcasts are within reach of anyone with a reasonably well-configured laptop and many of the applications are free for download on the web. The quality of speakers’ voices, speech patterns, intonations, and other sound effects may greatly enhance motivation via excitement and modulation of tone, but the quality may not be on a par with professional broadcasting (7 Things You Should Know about Lecture Capture, 2009).

Podcasting is primarily an audio delivery technology and, as such, has limited usefulness for the hearing impaired and it is not designed for two-way interaction or audience participation. The use of podcasts allows learners to bridge the gap between their technology-based entertainment systems and academic environments, by utilizing the same devices for both albeit with different purposes (7 Things You Should Know about Lecture Capture, 2009). But since students are already familiar with the underlying technology, podcasting broadens educational options in a non-threatening and easily accessible manner. Podcasts can also be enhanced with images and video, further broadening their use and enhancing the online environment.

Pedagogical uses of Podcasts

Podcasts can be used for lecture capture in traditional classrooms, blended environments or online platforms, thereby enhancing and extending existing instructional
activities. Enhanced podcasts, through the addition of visual imagery, work especially well in subject areas where students benefit from repeated viewing of content, for example when demonstrations and actions in scientific experiments are shown or when complex information is discussed. Other uses may include: mini-lectures, reminders, important announcements, interviews, guest lectures, short instructional modules for internships and fieldwork, and instructor feedback on submitted work. In addition, podcasting is not limited to content delivered to the student, as students can create their own podcasts — as a record of activities, a way to collect notes, or a reflection on what they have learned (7 Things You Should Know about Lecture Capture, 2009). And since podcasting is a mobile medium, it can be used to create learning experiences anywhere and anytime, for example in public venues such as museums, field trips, environmental observations, weather studies, foreign language exercises and many other uses limited only by the imagination of the users.

The possibilities of podcasting in education are tremendous, so long as they are grounded in sound pedagogical principles and an understanding of the ways in which people are already making creative use of this new medium (Lopez, 2009). Numerous venues already hold large repositories of podcasts — for example educational institutions, museums, news media and political commentators, and even textbook manufacturers are developing portable content to support their textbook offerings. Careful scrutiny of available materials on the web can diminish the necessity for duplication through the use of free materials, already available, thereby adding greater variety and interest to the course content. Critical thinking skills can also be greatly enhanced through the use of analysis of web materials and their careful critique along with assignments for students to create their own synthesis of materials and reflections. Yet, as with any new technology, its use and application in the academic environment must be informed by well-grounded learning theory and practice. And since no technology is a panacea, podcasting should be sparingly used to enhance motivation, keep the students on track and engaged them in further interactions through discussions in the course forums and chats. Tapping into the thinking patterns of the new technologically savvy generation of students and incorporating their many portable devices is a means to demonstrate the importance of learning and promote the relevance of the required academic content. These new applications lead the way to the next generation of technology, which emphasizes cooperative creation and sharing of meaning.

Conclusions
Podcasting is a relatively new means of quickly and efficiently utilizing applications to create enhanced content for educational purposes that can be easily used in a variety of delivery practices, from traditional classroom to hybrid and blended offerings to the purely online environments. Podcasting can enhance motivation through short assignments, reminders, announcements and timely feedback to learners while enabling them to control the time of listening and viewing of materials. Podcasting is mobile and thus it appeals to today’s students and their increasingly mobile devices and lives. Podcasting can enhance time management and multi-tasking skills and most importantly it can be used to increase critical thinking activities. Learners throughout the globe can access and utilize podcasts and other applications to develop their skills, demonstrate their mastery of learning (Keyes, 2009b) and access experts, colleagues and professors anytime and anywhere. These new technologies enable greater cross-cultural and cross-national communication, increase creativity and the forging of new connections between areas of knowledge and truly place the learner at the center of the educational process, by requiring them to become active participants in their own learning.
References


THE FAY’S TEST—A REAPPRAISAL

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Abstract. The paper presents an original test created in the middle of the last century by Dr. Fay. Similarly with other tests, the Fay test attempted to measure the intelligence quotient. One can raise the question if the test still may be used today. The answer is affirmative with a specification, however: the valences of the test are not so much cognitive but projective.

Keywords: testing, children, updating, cognitive level, projective level.

Introduction

The test of H.M. Fay is almost unknown today, though the psychologists, experts in child’s drawing development and projective tests do never disregard it when passing in review the tasks based on the drawing. There was however a period of intense utilization of this test, especially during its author’s life, a medical personality of that time.

On the basis of a study carried on 7000 subjects, Fay elaborates a drawing test aiming to evaluate the intellectual quotient. The study was published in La médecine scolaire, December 1924. Then the test was applied in Mexico, on a sample of 20 000 subjects; the results were similar, the differences being due firstly, to the cultural diversity. The test was republished by H.M. Fay in Paris, in 1934, in the volume L’intelligence et le caractère: leurs anomalies chez l’enfant. The book was translated in Romanian few years after the French edition. Perhaps this interest was stimulated by the fact that in 1927, Dr. Fay came to Romania, for lectures at the Medical School.

Fay has projected the test especially for the assessment of 6 and 7 years old, but he has established a range for children between 6 and 14 years (the minimum score). His intention was that, on the basis of the performances at this test, to be able to identify a possible mental handicap. Subsequent studies have established the range for a population between 4 and 15 years of age.

The present work proposes to recall into the light the Fay’s test, in an attempt of re-evaluation of this test valence. It wishes also, to identify the possible aspects that can be utilizes in the assessment of child’s behavior with the reference to the Romanian preschool population.

The Fay’s test

At its origin, the test was applied in group. The children receive a sheet of paper and a pencil. The experimenter writes on the blackboard the sentence: “A woman walks and it rains”. He asks the children to copy firstly this sentence on their sheet of paper and when everybody did it, he says: “Now, draw a picture representing what you wrote, that is “ A woman walks and it rains”. (Fay, 1941, p. 82)

Concerning the drawing analysis, Fay takes into consideration 5 elements: 1. a woman; 2. walks (the evocation of the idea of walking, of a movement taking place outside, in the street
or country), so 3. a landscape; 4. It rains, therefore 5. The woman shelters herself in a way or another. (Fay, 1941, p.83). The assessment is made on the basis of these elements. The woman must be recognized after certain attributes. The clothing is most important and a skirt has to be recognizable but also the coiffure.

When the woman is so schematic that represents a hardly perceived little man, the notation is 0. If the only indication is the hair arranged at the back of the head, the notation is ½ point. The skirt is sufficient to be noted with 1 point. If the feminine attributes are more than 4, each additional attribute will receive ¼ point

The act of walking is recognized after the feet position, after the presence of a dog in the leash and so on. Its value is 1 point

The rain represented by clouds (twirls) as the smoke: ¼ point; by small and uniform hatches in the upper part of the page or lines more or less curves, spread over the page: ½ point; by regular furrows crossing the background in one direction: 1 point.

If the rain stops on the umbrella, on eaves or drips from the tips of its spokes, or splashes falling on the ground, or makes puddles, or abundantly flows in the road stream, there will be given an extra ¼ or even ½ if three or four of these elements are represented.

A landscape, sketchy represented by only one line is ¼ point. If the ground is represented on several levels, ½ point. A street or a landscape, even if it is a single tree, a shop, a house, values 1 point.

The umbrella, if it is not held in the hand, ½ point. Held in hand - 1 point. The hood or the rain coat is also 1 point. (Fay, 1941, pp. 83-84)

On the basis of this score, Fay has established the average performance of a normal developed child, at a given age.

As specified before, the research objective is the reevaluation of the Fay test, as it was conceived and scored. It is followed the extent to which the Fay test can be updated and utilized for the Romanian preschool population of today.

The experimental sample contains 85 subjects between 4 and 7 years old (44 girls and 41 boys) from several Romanian towns. Being in progress, the research will continue with children from the rural places.

A first level of the results analysis refers to the comparison of the score obtained by the children with the average score established by Fay for each age. A first important element is the big score obtained by the children starting with 4 years old. Fay begins his assessment only from 6 years when, he finds, a child performs only half of a point.

But our results shows that only at the group of age between 4 and 5 years, there are performances of ½ de point or 1 point. Starting with 5 – 5 years and a half, the minimum performance is 1,5 points. Therefore, a first objection to the Fay test is the inadequacy of the quantitative assessment of the performances.

On the other side, there are objections of the qualitative type. Some of them refers to the different socio-cultural and historical context: to Fay, the decisive distinctive clue for determining the little man’s gender is the skirt; then, the hair follows, in a certain coiffure: the bun. If in the ’60-70th, the bun was coming back in the fashion and one could expect to find it in the drawings, obviously, our epoch has other coordinates. The skirt is generally replaced by trousers and the hair is short and very short. Therefore, if one would apply the test to a group of subjects as Fay did and not individually, as we did, these subjects would obtain an extremely low score, due to the fact that, given the two criteria, the little man could not be identified as a girl. That is why, by individual application, it was always taken into consideration the child’s intention to draw the different elements, as well as the continuity of this intention until the final result. The child is thus allowed to express verbally what he cannot yet express by his drawing.

Here there are few examples illustrating this:
A.Z., girl, 6,3yrs. old. Talking of the human person, she asks: „May I do trousers or skirt?” -„Do whatever you want.” – „Trousers, because the skirt is not good in the cold.” According to Fay’s range, the human person gets only 1/2 of a point because there is no skirt.

A.Ş., boy, 5, 4 yrs. old. The child’s graphic performance seems to be very low. In his little man, one cannot recognize anything could justify a “girl”. On the other side, the child’s intention, that he reveals actually in his drawing, though unintelligible to an adult, is to draw a girl who has also clothing. While drawing, he talks:” Let’s make the sky, first, because it rains from here. We make the cloud, well. A drop is curved because it goes faster. The ones which are curved go faster. Finished, I did the rain.” -„Do you have something else to do?” –„Yes, I told you: the little girl.”. He starts to draw the head : -„This is the hood.”, then he draws the neck, the body, the hands; -„And here, shoe. Finished, I did the little girl and little buttons still are needed”

So, the child fulfils the criterion but he gets a low score due to his minimal graphic competencies.

R.M., boy, 6 yrs old. At this age, especially in boys, the human character appears drawn with both arms up. The same happens in his case. However, the raised arms do not constitute necessarily, only a graphic stereotype of the age, but there can be a reason. While he draws the girl he erases, retraces the drawing and says: I made a mistake…I wanted she keeps her hand up to hold the umbrella.” Obviously, he did not succeed.

It seems that the results obtained in the test application do not recommend its further utilization. However, the observation of the subjects, of their verbal behavior during the graphic execution, shows that there is a special potential within the graphic idea of the test. What needs to be changed is the way of assessment of the children’s drawings.

Also, by individual application, the Fay’s test has revealed its excellent projective potential. This value can be marked out accounting the utilization of the page space, the symbols of the added elements or the graphologic traits as is the model of Ursula Avé-Lallemant’s test, Star-Wave.

Not in the last, this projective value is given by the child’s verbal commentaries. The topic of the drawing is extremely adequate to stimulate the expression of some emotional tensions. Here there is an example in this respect: N.L., girl, 7 years old. N. is the only child of the family. Her parents are very busy and every day she stays alone, for several hours in her home. She learned how to make a tea and to warm her food. Also, she does her homework by herself, without any adult help. During the pause she prefers to sit at his school desk and draw, rather than to go out and play with the other children.

She starts her drawing by tracing the line of the ground. Then she draws the person’s head and body. She draws a smiling mouth (standard in children) but erases it and draw a sad one. Then, she draws a skirt, erase it and draw trousers. She explains: it’s raining and it is cold. It’s not good for her to be in a skirt, she will get a cold.

The person’s soles are directed to the same direction (to the left): the girl is going home, she was up on the hill and the rain has cached her (no hill or house appears in the drawing). She draws a tree: the trunk is thick and has a hollow; she draws several branches, very thin and many leaves falling from the tree. In the upper part of the page, N. draws the clouds. The rain drops are big circles, spread all over the page: because it rains with ice. The girl in the drawing is sad because she is afraid of rain.

To the question:’ Would you like to draw something more?’, the little girl answers: „No, because the girl does not see anything because the rain”.

There are to be mentioned several elements that are strongly thickened with the pencil: the very sad head of the girl from the picture and the round hollow of the tree. An additional aspect: though the feet are well executed, with
an accent on the shoes, the arms are
primatively sketched; they do not have palms
or fingers. Other two elements that are
highlighted, this time by multiplication, are the
rain drops that are in fact hailstone and the
falling leaves.

The drawing as such, combined with the
child’s verbal answers provide us several
important information concerning his
emotional state: the sad mouth, cold, rain, the
hailstone, the hollow and the falling leaves
indicate an accentuated depression, determined
by the total lack of a love atmosphere in her
family (There is no affirmation of the fact that
the parents do not love her but the fact that the
little girl does not feel this love.) Obviously,
she feels that is completely abandoned; she
would like to be able to get out from this
situation (the girl from the drawing walks), to
come back to a previous situation when she
felt well (walking oriented to the left). But by
herself, she does not see any way out (she
cannot see because the rain) and cannot start
any action in this respect (hands with no palms
and fingers).

Here there is another example where the
conversation with the child, together with
minimum data obtained about the child, shapes
a more complex picture concerning his
emotional situation. R.A., a little boy of 6 yrs
and 10 months presents a drawing apparently
quite poor. A black stripe above the person is
the sky, the lower edge of the paper is
blackened, having some short vertical lines as;
this is the ground. In the center of the page
there is the personage – suspended silhouette,
entirely blackened, having some short vertical lines as;
this is the ground. In the center of the page
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subsequent conversation with the child is much facilitated. In this context, the continuation of the research seems to be not only interesting, but also necessary.

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Bibliography
EMPLOYEES’ MENTALITIES TOWARDS COMPUTER CRIMES

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Abstract. Employees face new technological changes in the workplace every day. Some employees embrace the changes information and communication technology brings; while others resist and become defensive feeling threatened or overwhelmed by it. Those that use it at its best and know everything what is going on in the organization they work for, use this resource in their own interest. We are going to see in this paper what are the employees - from the bottom level to the highest one - thinking when acting unethical and doing computer crimes in order to gain some money or other types of benefits.

Keywords: social engineering, managers, computer criminal, forensic investigators, managers, big organizations, IT security.

Introduction

Because of information and communication technologies present everywhere, either at home or at work, people are tempted to get some gains from their using. In this paper we are going to talk about organization’s employees and their ideas towards computers and especially computer crimes. They are trying all sorts of tricks and attacks, from social engineering to system penetration in order to steal data and use it mainly for financial gains and revenge. Once confidential data obtained they will be used against either the organizations or its employees. The motives are many, like: revenge, fame, courage, curiosity, money, and so on.

From the historical point of view, organizations have focused more on protecting the networks from the outsiders leaving or forgetting about the insider threat. But, facing too many problems, they have turned to internal electronic attacks, and that is why when something is happening, the first suspects are the employees, as we have to agree with the famous hacker Kevin Mitnick that “the human factor is truly security’s weakest link” (Mitnick and Simon, 2005, p. 67). Time and facts showed that the biggest losses in organization come from employees’ illegal acts using computers and their access to resources. We can transform one of Voltaire’s saying “God protect me from my friends, I’ll take care of my enemies.” into “God protect us from our employees, as we will take care of outsiders”. This idea strengthens the one that employees are more dangerous that anybody else. Even the most trustworthy employee can become the worst enemy. Let us see next, what they are thinking towards computer crimes.

Mentalities towards computer crimes

Employees conceive attacks from the ideas “Why can’t I do it?”, “If my colleague was successful why can’t I succeed?”. These are the first ideas that come to mind when trying to get something without too much work on fair ways. Let us see next some other opinions on computer crimes done by the employees or somebody else in the name of one or more employees. They are written from literature review and personal experience, together with observations and discussions.
with employees from various organizations. Before an attack, non-IT employees think that:

- “I am not doing anything dangerous, so I must not be afraid”. Wrong idea as we know that one small action could have great consequences.

- “I am not doing anything dangerous, but somebody could have done in my name”. This is the careful and knowing employee that reads from time to time news on computer crimes, and knows that he or she might be a victim without knowing and acting.

- “What I am doing is dangerous, risky, but the results are according to my efforts. For gains I will stand the consequences”. How brave should the employee to be in order to assume the risks? Or how good he or she must feel? Only he or she can decide upon his/her future.

- “I am doing something dangerous, I will stop when there are signs that I am about to be discovered”. Many say this, but they can’t stop, computer crimes start to run through their veins, and they cannot stop from doing illegal acts.

- “I am watched, so I will not do anything wrong”. It would be all right if there wasn’t the mistake, unfortunately money is stolen this way, weather the employee knows it or not.

- “I am being watched, but I will find the means to surpass the security”. This is a very determined employee to get something and knows very well the security. They might be even the network administrators. As a study shows (Cyber-Ark, 2008), 88% of network administrators would steal data from the organization they work or worked in.

- “Nobody sees me, so I can act”. Some questions rise: what if the employees are watched and they don’t know it, or are the network administrators using tracking software? Before acting one should know the answers to these questions.

- “I really want to see if I can do it”. First acts are small, just checks of networks, colleagues spying, data viewing, mostly informing and observing.

- “I am curious on the information that my colleagues are working with and I want to know more on this, I am not doing anything wrong”. It is just the beginning of planning a computer crime or is just curiosity towards the actions taking place in the organization.

- “Rules are made to be broken”. This is the idea of those that are conscious about what they are going to do. Sometimes too many rules are bad, forcing the employees to break them.

- “The sums taken from the organization are not important, so, nobody will see they are missing”. Probable, but we know that the computer criminal will not be satisfied with small sums of money especially if nobody is saying anything. Managers might find out but stay quiet in order to get more evidence.

- “I am too good, too skilled to be caught”. This comes from a skilled hacker or cracker, before and after an attack.

- “I want to see if I can surpass the system”, out of pride, greatness, fame, admiration from others to overcome both the system and the security.

- “If it worked once it can work again”. This is the greedy employee, wanting more and more. If the crimes are not bad, the employee can be forgiven but not if the acts repeat.

- “Why shouldn’t I do it?” Crime is catching especially if the attacks are not discovered, either they are not looked over or they are too complex to be discovered.

Let us see next employees’ mentalities after launching an electronic attack:

- “I am a model employee that is why nobody will suspect anything”. We know that there are many cases in which trusting employees are the worst enemies just because of the feeling which superiors have for this type of personnel. Computer forensics becomes a hard process for the investigators.

- “My deed is worth praising and appreciation so I can share it with others”. This comes from the self esteem and pride the person has.

- “I have hidden too good computer crimes’ traces so I will not suffer from this or be discovered”. These employees believe they are very capable, but they are mistaking and
their acts might be discovered in a long time by the forensic investigators.

− “If a long period of time has passed and I did not get any complaints means I will not be discovered.” This is not true as some investigations can take several months or even years for the crimes to be found out and proved.

We have seen above what the non-IT personnel is thinking and doing about computer crimes, and in addition IT personnel have their own ideas:

− “I have the biggest control over the network and organization’s resources, and that is why I can do everything I want without rising suspicions”. In many cases they are right, as they are considered to be trustworthy.

Many organizations have many losses because of this misconception. The system administrators supervise everything, have access to all resources, know how to delete traces and give the guilt on other employees. According to security policies, they should have limits too.

− “Superiors do not imagine anything about what I am working on computers, as they do not have the appropriate knowledge, I am trust worthy and that is why they will not suspect anything”. Many times they are right; managers should supervise their employees, no matter their position.

− “I will make things so that they become addicted to my help”, to avoid suspicions.

− “I will make changes in the system so that the ones that come after me do not discover my crimes. This is about a feeling of high esteem and confidence. Many managers, when hiring new people face the problem of documentation absence, loosing time and money to figure out what the previous employees have done.

− “In case I will get fired, I will create accounts that I can use from outside to access the network”. It is a “safety” method to get information and do damages after they are leaving the organization.

Even the managers have their own opinion regarding information and communication technologies in their organization. Some ideas regarding security and computer crimes done by themselves or other employees:

− “The employee is trust worthy so I don’t have to be afraid”. We have talked earlier in this paper about trust and managers’ mistakes led by it.

− “I am a born leader, everybody listens to me”. Apparently, as many employee work behind their managers’ back. People who are self confident and rely on their aptitudes to lead others this and tend to overlook the obvious truth, thinking they know everything.

− “I am leaving network’s and information’s security to IT personnel, because it is their duty”. As they have access to all organization’s resources they become the most dangerous employees. They should also have some limitation and be watched by their superiors.

− “That employee is a close friend and I trust him, so he/she cannot be the culprit”. We have already talked about this.

− “My superior has full confidence in me and I can do whatever I want”. The same idea as all the other employees.

− “Rules have been well set so they are not going to be broken”. Too many rules might bring more attacks, as they tempt even more cyber criminals that think the organization has very important and expensive information. Too many rules might lead to stress and conflicts.

− “Security measures are too strong to be broken by the employees”. No matter how strong the security is, how expensive the devices are; the most powerful element remains the human mind.

Big organizations that use the most expensive and powerful solutions for information and communication technology security, prevention and protection, are suffering the most as they have many employees. We can see that network administrators believe they are the networks’ and information’s owners, and many managers are not standing against it trusting them with security. Managers think that everything concerning IT is the duty of IT personnel, but
how wrong they are. One recent study done in 2008 by a security company called Cyber-Ark showed, as we already have stated, that 88% of the IT administrators would steal organization’s information for a financial gain or revenge when leaving the organization. It is true that they are the busiest people in an organization, they go everywhere and it is their responsibility to repair damages, listen to other people’s problems, ideas. This is why they consider many times that they are not paid accordingly and try to get money using unethical ways.

Many are willing to risk everything to get money. According to a study made in 2007, more than 45% of the employees would steal data if they would change their workplace (Gaudin, 2007), a difficult situation as we know that young people are opened to new challenges and change their workplace frequently.

Too proud managers consider the subordinates pay him or her biggest attention and do whatever he/she says. But many times, they are “stabbed behind the back” by the people he/she trusts the most. No matter the job and place, every employee should have their own limitations to information. They should only see and use that information necessary for doing their activities and that is all. Administrators should create account and password that should be changed from time to time. Even the administrators and managers should have a restricted access to resources in order to prevent, fraud, stealing, blackmail, money laundering and so on.

Apparently many employees feel that IT security has no value when there is no visible attack, however because many insider incidents are based on concealment, organizations often are unaware they are being victimized (Bean, 2004). “Technology plays a critical role, but unless you have the right people behind the wheel, and their knowledge levels are correct, you'll have some real challenges” (Gross, 2003).

Before and after an attack, employees behave different, rising questions and concerns from the vigilant eye of the managers. Their behavior can offer clues regarding to what has happened or is going to happen. We have studied by reading the literature and by observing behaviors around us, the psychological signs of a possible attack, signs that appear different from the usual behavior of an employee:

− strong argues with other people.
− lateness;
− weak performance reported to the usual results;
− financial problems for the employee;
− too many payments on the payroll of the employee;
− aggressive behavior or too calm unlike the usual;
− family problems;
− extra hour of work without justification;
− too many questions for colleagues and superiors;
− search among organization’s document without being able to tell why.

These are some of the alarm signal that can be taken in consideration to prevent computer crimes. If something is about to happen or has already happened managers should see the changes in behavior and watch the employee(s). Only the most skilled computer criminals know about these signs and try to behave as usual, luckily there aren’t many and some make mistakes that rise suspicions. Technical signs of a possible attack are:

− download and use of hacking instruments;
− unauthorized access on organization’s computers;
− frequent use of external data storage devices;
− looking on other people activities;
− loss of time by surfing the Internet;
− documenting on malicious software;
− downloading too many files;
− testing illegal software.

These are only some technical signs that can be seen for an employee without using monitoring software, but only through observation. More, using monitoring and controlling software system administrators can
track activities from the network and each computer, or from those connected from outside the organization (PDAs, laptops and so on). Next we are going to see the behavior after the attack:

- opposite behavior to the usual one;
- no more questions asking;
- no more extra hours of work;
- the employee becomes isolated or too friendly;
- takes sick leaves or other type;
- buys goods that before could not afford or cannot afford only from salary;
- helps anybody if he or she is asked in order not to raise suspicions.

If sudden changes in behavior are becoming visible for certain employees, managers should be aware, either the employee did some illegal act or might be some other kind of problems, like personal one. Not any change in behavior means a computer crime. People can feel bad; have works and personal problems and so on, but when everything is going on for a long time then it means something is wrong.

Everything an individual is doing is according to ethics which is different for each individual, it is something that it is filtered through each mind and is influenced by the individual differences that may be a function of people’s background. According to Michael Armstrong, this function will include the environment and culture in which they have been brought up and now exist (Armstrong, 2006, p. 253). He suggests that individual life structure is shaped by three types of external event:

- the socio-cultural environment;
- the roles they play and the relationships they have;
- the opportunities and constraints that enable or inhibit them to express and develop their personality.

Conclusions

It is sad and troublesome to hear on this kind of employees. As we have seen in this article, they have the power to do good activities or wrong one that could cause them and the organizations’ great loss. If they are discovered and punished they might spend years in prison, far from their families they are stealing for. It is true that people do foolish things out of despair, needs and pressures. Each person is responsible for their acts, good or bad; they have the power to decide. It is up to them to choose the way they want to live. This paper is only an introduction to what people think of computer crimes and surpassing the systems’ security.

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TEAMS ROLE IN THE MANAGERIAL PROCESS OF ROMANIAN ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract. Nowadays teamwork is promoted especially for difficult tasks to the personal and individual work disadvantage. All companies which use high technology, flawless services and a modern and efficient management require a staff with advanced communication skills and teamwork abilities. A professional team is a structure where the whole worth’s more than the parties. The team members act together and in unity to achieve the common goal. Team involves direct communication and require the continuous responsibility of their objectives, because the group is ready to sanction if they are not achieved.

Keywords: teamwork, teambuilding, companies.

Manager and team

The manager and its activity within the organisations is a polemical subject which creates debates in theory and in practice. All the persons involved in the managerial process shift their attention to the human potentialities and propose new solutions that take into account ignored aspects or not very well known till now.

The team formation within the organisation starts, in most of cases, from the growing complex needs of competence required by the present economic environment but also from an ancient human need, belonging, to the group, highlighted many years ago by Maslow as an important motivational factor.

Nowadays it is very important that people can solve more and more diverse tasks in due time and efficiently. Therefore it is necessary an assessment of the compatibility of the staff with the type of the assigned tasks, the job and the capacity of a broad action within the company.

The teamwork skills are more and more a requirement in the job advertisements, being a cliché. Teamwork has become more obvious as the human resources policies have been evolving and the company has taken into account the employees’ communication needs and their mutual support. The team members in the Romanian companies get to know each other very well and work together to overcome the current difficulties. Moreover each member contributes to the diversity and the diversity of solutions. Therefore, the teamwork may be very motivating because every project brings the experience of the contact with the colleagues and the satisfaction of benefiting from their support. What people regret the most, when changing their workplace, is a former colleague. If the colleague’s relationship become very strong, the affective comfort can supply other minuses, even those related to the salary. That’s why the teamwork can be often used as a mean to fight against the routine. The repetitive acts bring nothing new for the cognitive demands. People can act according to the same programme every day. Sometimes certain activities can be done with half of the normal attention, which allows the meditation.
The conviction that there is nothing new to learn about and there is time for a change becomes more and more imperative. This is the moment when people find different means to overcome the boredom such as the discussions with the colleagues or different recreational activities (reading of a magazine, playing a video game on the computer) in the less pressing periods. If the compensation means are not enough, the feeling of frustration related to the job and stress grows, opening a vicious circle. The negative effects of the routine can be considerably diminished talking with a colleague and sharing the personal problems.

On the other hand, the teamwork can have its reverse, when the team was not well formed or if there are conflicts between their members. The fact of depending on other can be very frustrating for some people, especially when partners do not respect their engagements, deadlines are overrun and the delay is continually growing. That is why so much importance is given to some necessary qualities for this type of organizing work, especially in the branches where the complex tasks prevail.

It is not enough to put people together and assign them a chief and an objective. This is the reason why so many Romanian companies have implemented team-building programs, that is to say, programs focused on teamwork building whose role is to create the deep welding between people who, without destroying the individualities, melts the resistances and separatists drives. The experts, the team–building trainers help the members of a group to become a team through various and inventive methods, techniques and procedures which bring together people and teach them how to work together, defining to each of them a precise role. A big mistake is to neglect the role of every employee, no matter his condition and education. Even people who seem the most insignificant have their role and have to be respected and valued per se.

The individualities are usually inclined to take on the role of leaders, coordinators and conductors of the whole process. But in a team the roles have to be complementary and alternative. This is the reason why the team-building is a very complex process, designed to change the perceptions of the leader role, helping every member of a working group to find his real place.

Types of teams in the Romanian companies

Romanian companies have different teams, such as:

a. Special teams formed to solve the problems of the organizations
Management faces daily manifold problems: production systems that do not achieve an appropriate quality, high costs, and unenthusiastic employees. Different solutions have been looking over the time for their settlement. These special teams formed by 5-12 members have appeared, at the beginning of ‘80s, their role focusing on analysis of some situations, eliminating a problem, rendering efficient a branch of activity, improving the general work environment.

When the consensus is reached, the members of a team propose the possible solutions for the analysed situation to the manager. The manager chooses if to implement the recommendations precisely, to modify and implement the recommendations or to demand further information to assess the recommendations.

This type of team does not always work easily. Many of its members participate to the project which is developing, only because they have to and they participate in it only partially. They often think that the integration in such a team deter them from solving their own tasks assigned within the department where they work and therefore are discontent. The team is generally dissolved after have solved the problem the organisation has faced.

b. Self-led teams
Manager show the need of relieving of the specific activities assigned traditionally to him and dealing more attentively with the environment analysis and the strategic positioning of his organization. This situation is possible when working with self-led teams (which appeared for the first
time in 1990 in Romania). These teams are formed by 5-15 persons who are creative, high qualified, can easily interact and have the responsibility and the authority to carry out specific activities. They plan, organize and control the activity with a minimum directing and intervention of the manager. Self-led teams are more and more numerous: on the one hand they are required by the actual business environment and on the other hand they are accepted by the employees who want a higher freedom at their workplace. Moreover, the speed of changes makes necessary the continuous adaptation of employees. The manager has to attentively select and train the members of the team in order to assure the success of the self-lead teams.

c. Inter-functional Teams
These are working teams formed by employees belonging to functional domains of the organization (marketing, finances, human resources, production) who focus on a specific objective. Their members, coming from different departments, have the necessary knowledge to achieve the assigned tasks and can efficiently work together with their departments. Teams created to chose and implement new technologies, teams created to improve the marketing efficiency, teams created to control the productions costs can be integrated in this category. In practice, the three types of teams can often mix: a team especially created to solve a problem can be in the same time a team which is self-led and inter-functional. Before building a team managers have to attentively analyse the specific situation within the organization and build the type of the team which tally the best with the real needs.

Managers have to know the mood of the members of the former teams and to make efforts to integrate them in new teams or activities which are as stimulating and attractive as those in the past.
Not all the teams within the organizations obligatorily experience these stages of evolution. But if managers know this cycle, they can easily

- obtain useful information about the way the teams works;
- adjust their actions according to the features of the new teams or old ones;
- hasten the maturation process of teams in order to benefit from their maxim productivity.
A deeper analysis of teams reveals the specific role each member has. The efforts of managers to identify and assign to each member the fitting role are based on this fact and on the idea that if a person is not perfect, a team may be perfect.
The research of the success management has been focusing for a long time almost exclusively on the employee. The organizations were interested in the qualification, experience, achievements of the employees. In fact everybody knows that it is not possible to find the ideal employee for a specific job because he does not exist.
If we think about a good manager we will make an endless list of qualities. But it is possible that a singular person has all these qualities? Therefore, a good manager has to be very intelligent but not too shrewd, strong but sensitive to the work mates feelings, dynamic but also patient, He has to have communications skills but also to be a good listener, to be determined but also able to think over the situation before taking decisions.
The communicativeness and the ability to interact efficiently, to respond operatively to the demand of the others, to pick creatively the group ideas and to provide in the same time- without self-interest — support to the other are the main qualities of a good co-worker . Patience and tolerance toward the style and the defaults of the others complete this psychological profile.
It is hard to find this perfect model of incompatible features! And supposing you find this treasure-manager, what would you do if he had an accident, chose to live in other country or wonted to work to a competitor company?
There is the teams’ solution. They meet more often the qualities we are looking for. Besides, it is unlikely that all the team members have
an accident or want to leave the company in the same time. Therefore, not the person but the team assures a continuous and a lasting success to the manager. In most of cases the team performance exceeds the sum of the individual performances of its members. An efficient team within an organization has to comply with some principals which are seen as ideal:

- All group members seek after high standards of quality.
- The group atmosphere is informal, comfortable and relaxed. Criticism is constructive.
- Members have long discussions and all the people are involved in. People listen to each other: all points of view are listened, there is a supporting atmosphere.
- Members have mutual confidence and rely on each other.
- Members and the leader inclusively are loyal to the team.
- Group members understand clearly, accept the general and specific objectives, the tasks assigned to the team.
- Decisions are taken through consensus, it no doubt there is a general assent and all the people are committed to respect it.

**Teams role in the managerial process**

More and more Romanian organizations offer to their employees’ social satisfactions which help them to overcome the professional frustrations they face. At his turn, every person brings the particularities of the background from which he comes from: values, attitudes, beliefs, behaviors, ideals which “personalize” the group he belongs to. A series of features characterize the team role in the managerial process of Romanian organizations.

- Teams are more eligible to solve the complex problems which require various knowledge and ideas;
- They are an excellent learning environment;
- They are more objective-oriented than the organization and establish more easily a specific vision and objective;
- They exploit better each member resources;
- They are more flexible than organizational groups because they can be more easily created, dissolved, reorganized, changed their size;
- They promote the loyalty and work on the principle « all for one, one for all ».
- They encourage the responsibilities delegation because they provide the guarantee of controlling the behavior of their members, through specific norms.

Managers have to comply with some basic requirements in order to assure the success and the functioning of their teams:

1. **Positive interaction** a good co-operation between the team members contributes to achieve the desired results and offer satisfactions to all persons involved.
2. **The effective presence** a team works well if their members have direct contacts one with other. There are more and more situations where they are at long distances (hundreds of kilometres or even on different continents (virtual teams).
3. **Sharing knowledge within a team** members share their knowledge to other and transmit their experience.
4. **Developing of certain aptitudes which contributes to the normally team working** (communication, cooperation)

Managers consider that a team is efficient if it achieves its objectives, come with innovating ideas, and adapts to change, if necessary. Managers do different types of activities in order to reach the increase of the efficiency of the teams they lead.

Managers respect some basic rules in order to increase the confidence of the co-workers in their manager:

- **to communicate often with the team members** Notifying the new events in the organization, explaining the reasons some decisions are based on, sharing the information about the activities of the organization- are requirements for managers when communicating with the team members.
- **to show consideration towards the team members** Managers have to prove to the team members that they are very appreciated. They
show their consideration for the team delegating tasks to its members, listening attentively the feed-back of the team and acting according to this feed-back.

• **to be honest with the team members** Team members have to receive the gratifications they deserve. Therefore the managers have to assess fairly the performances and to grant rightfully the premium. Favouritisms lead to distrust and resentments.

• **to be coherent** in their actions. Team members have, as a rule, to foresee the decisions, behaviors, reactions of their managers. At their turn, the managers have to meet their engagements they have promised in front of the team. Otherwise they can not enjoy the team confidence.

• **to be competent** Team members show confidence in the managers they consider to be competent, able to diagnose the organization’s problems and offer viable solutions.

The team work development take place step by step, gradually, as team members assimilate the behaviours which are necessary to the good functioning and the increase of the teamwork. The norms creation methods can include the explicit declarations of an important team member- the leader, who imposes certain behaviour or decides which behaviour can be a good example in a specific situation.

The working group has some values or norms which govern the mutual behaviour, at least in the case of problems everybody is interested to, contributing to the good understanding of the members. From the beginning, the status and role relationship are assigned in order to achieve the common objectives. Also, these norms help the members to clarify all expectances they associate with the belonging of a group and to structure their own behaviour, to “foresee” the other behaviour. With time, the feeling of solidarity develops and also the conformity.

**Conclusions**

The final benefits of the teamwork is obvious in a welded team, its members, even if they respect the individual differences, are ready to ignore them in order to achieve a common goal. Companies get advantage from promoting the cohesion of groups because groups’ common objective overlaps with their own business interest.

We acknowledge that most often, the success of a business depends on the teamwork. But examples of teams, whose members are fitting the type of tasks assigned to them, motivated in a personal way, showing coherent attitudes and behavior for achieving the common objective, are less frequent.

We have treated this theme because teams from the Romanian organizations should follow some recommendations related to the work atmosphere, achieving objectives and performances (working in a group, keeping good relations with colleagues, the importance of the results obtained through teamwork and not individual work).

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NATURALISTIC EPISTEMOLOGY AND EVIDENCE OF HUMAN IRRATIONALITY

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Abstract. The naturalistic view is not a single thesis about the conditions for knowledge and justification. Instead, it encompasses a general view about the proper role of science in epistemology. It holds that science should play a much more significant role in epistemology than advocates of the standard view have traditionally given it.

Keywords: causation, empirical thesis, „copy principle”, huma nature, causal reasoning, sceptical solution, improve by experience.

Introduction. Evidence on human irrationality

On the basis of a large body of research into the ways people form beliefs, some philosophers conclude that people are systematically irrational. The charge is that people have a deeply rooted tendency to make a variety of logical blunders, errors concerning probability, mistakes involving causation, and so on.

The Argument for human irrationality

Hume presents the Copy Principle as an empirical thesis. He emphasizes this point by offering, in both the Treatise and the first Enquiry, as an empirical counterexample to the principle, „one contradictory phenomenon” (Hume, 1975a, pp. 20-21) the infamous missing shade of blue. Hume asks us to consider „a person to have enjoyed his sight for thirty years, and to have become perfectly well acquainted with colours of all kinds, excepting one particular shade of blue...” (Hume, 1975b, p. 6). Then Let all the different shades of that colour, except that single one, be placed before him, descending gradually from the deepest to the lightest; tis plain, that he will perceive a blank, where that shade is wanting, and will be sensible, that there is a greater distance in that place betwixt the contiguous colours, than in any other. Now I ask, whether tis possible for him, from his own imagination, to supply this deficiency, and raise up to himself the idea of that particular shade, tho’ it had never been conveyed to him by his senses? I believe there are few but will be of the opinion that he can; and this may serve as a proof, that the simple ideas are not always derived from the correspondent impressions; tho’ the instance is so particular and singular, that ’tis scarce worth our observing, and does not merit that for it alone we should alter our general maxim (Hume, 1975b, p. 6). Hume’s critics have objected that, in offering this counterexample, he either unwittingly destroys the generality of the Copy Principle, which he needs, given the uses to which he will put it, or else his dismissive attitude toward the counterexample reflects his disingenuous willingness to apply the Copy Principle arbitrarily, while pretending that it really possesses the generality his uses of it require.

Hume’s defenders, on the other hand,
maintain either that he should have granted that the imaginative construction of the missing shade really produces a complex idea, or that he should have insisted that such counterexamples are exceedingly rare, and that the contentious metaphysical ideas, the cognitive content of which he uses the Copy Principle to critique, are not possibly ideas that could be generated by the imagination in the way the missing shade is supposedly generated.

These defenses have their attractive points, but there is a far more satisfying resolution of the issue the missing shade raises available to Hume. In Book II of the Treatise, he describes a similar remarkably similar phenomenon that occurs with certain passions: „Ideas may be compar’d to the extension and solidity of matter, and impressions, especially reflective ones, to colours, tastes, smells and other sensible qualities. Ideas never admit of a total union, but are endow’d with a kind of impenetrability, by which they exclude each other, and are capable of forming a compound by their conjunction, not by their mixture. On the other hand, impressions and passions are susceptible of an entire union; and like colours, may be blended so perfectly together, that each of them may lose itself, and contribute only to vary that uniform impression, which arises from the whole. Some of the most curious phaenomena of the human mind are deriv’d from this property of the passions” (Hume, 1975b, p. 366).

In these cases of impressions and passions, both of which are simples for Hume, two impressions or two passions are blended to form a third, which is also a simple impression or passion. It seems plausible to think, and Hume’s language in this passage certainly suggests as much, that one’s ideas of two shades of (say) blue could also be blended to produce a third simple idea an idea of the missing shade.

Naturalistic empiricism

While Hume’s empiricism is usually identified with the Copy Principle, it is actually his use of its reverse in his account of definition that is really the most distinctive element of his empiricism.

Believing that „the chief obstacle...to our improvement in the moral or metaphysical sciences is the obscurity of the ideas, and ambiguity of the terms” (Hume, 1975a, p. 61) Hume argued that conventional definitions, defining terms in terms of other terms, replicate philosophical confusions by substituting synonyms for the original and thus never break out of a narrow definitional circle. Determining the cognitive content of an idea or term requires something else.

Hume supplied what was required with his account of definition, which offers a simple series of tests to determine cognitive content. First, find the idea to which a term is annexed. If none can be found, then the term has no content, however prominently it may figure in philosophy or theology. If the idea is complex, break it up into the simple ideas of which it is composed. Then trace the simple ideas back to their original impressions: „These impressions are all strong and sensible. They admit not of ambiguity. They are not only placed in a full light themselves, but may throw light on their correspondent ideas, which lie in obscurity” (Hume, 1975a, p. 62).

Hume’s account of definition is not only the most distinctive feature of his empiricism, it is also a brilliant strategic device. He regards it as „a new microscope or species of optics, by which, in the moral sciences, the most minute, and most simple ideas may be so enlarged as to fall readily under our apprehension, and be equally known with the grossest and most sensible ideas, that can be the object of our enquiry” (Hume, 1975a, p. 62).

The Copy Principle accounts for the origins of our ideas. But our ideas are also regularly connected. As Hume put the point in his Abstract of the Treatise, „there is a secret tie or union among particular ideas, which causes the mind to conjoin them more frequently together, and makes the one, upon its appearance, introduce the other” (Hume, 1975b, p. 662).

A science of human nature should
account for these connections. Otherwise, we are stuck with an *eidetic atomism*, a set of discrete, independent ideas, unified only in that they are the contents of a particular mind. Eidetic atomism thus fails to explain how ideas are *bound together*, and its inadequacy in this regard encourages us, as Hume thought it encouraged Locke, to postulate theoretical notions, power and substance being the most notorious, to account for the connections we find among our ideas. Eidetic atomism is thus a prime source of the philosophical hypotheses Hume aims to eliminate.

The principles required for connecting our ideas aren’t theoretical and rational; they are natural operations of the mind, *associations* we experience in „internal sensation.“ Hume’s introduction of these *principles of association* is the other distinctive feature of his empiricism, so distinctive that in the *Abstract* he advertises it as his most original contribution: “If any thing can intitle the author to so glorious a name as that of an inventor, tis the use he makes of the principle of the association of ideas” (Hume, 1975b, pp. 661-662).

Hume locates three principles of connexion or association: resemblance, contiguity, and cause and effect. Of the three, causation is the only principle that takes us beyond the evidence of our memory and senses. It establishes a link or connection between past and present experiences with events that we predict or explain, so that all reasonings concerning matter of fact seem to be founded on the relation of cause and effect. But causation and the ideas closely related to it also raise serious metaphysical problems: „there are no ideas, which occur in metaphysics, more obscure and uncertain, than those of power, force, energy or necessary connexion” (Hume, 1975a, pp. 61-62).

Hume wants to „fix, if possible, the precise meaning of these terms, and thereby remove some part of that obscurity, which is so much complained of in this species of philosophy“ (Hume, 1975a, p. 62). This project provides a crucial experiment for Hume’s metaphysical microscope, one designed to prove the worth of his method, to provide a paradigm for investigating problematic philosophical and theological notions, and to supply valuable material for these inquiries.

Hume’s strategy dictates that he first show that alternative accounts of our causal reasonings are inadequate. This negative project directs his metaphysical microscope toward the intellectualist view that causal connections are made on the basis of the operations of the understanding. Hume proceeds by examining all of the possible ways in which our causal reasonings might be based on reason. Reasoning concerns either relations of ideas or matters of fact. Hume quickly establishes that, whatever assures us that a causal relation obtains, it is not reasoning concerning relations between ideas. Effects are distinct events from their causes: we can always conceive of one such event occurring and the other not. So causal reasoning can’t be *a priori* reasoning.

Causes and effects are discovered, not by reason but through experience, when we find that particular objects are constantly conjoined with one another. We tend to overlook this because most ordinary causal judgments are so familiar; we’ve made them so many times that our judgment seems immediate. But when we consider the matter, we realize that „an (absolutely) unexperienced reasoner could be no reasoner at all“ (Hume, 1975a, p. 45). Even in applied mathematics, where we use abstract reasoning and geometrical methods to apply principles we regard as laws to particular cases in order to derive further principles as consequences of these laws, the discovery of the original law itself was due to experience and observation, not to *a priori* reasoning.

Even after we have experience of causal connections, our conclusions from those experiences aren’t based on any reasoning or on any other process of the understanding. They are based on our past experiences of similar cases, without which we could draw no conclusions at all.

But this leaves us without any link
between the past and the future. How can we justify extending our conclusions from past observation and experience to the future? The connection between a proposition that summarizes past experience and one that predicts what will occur at some future time is surely not an intuitive connection; it needs to be established by reasoning or argument. The reasoning involved must either be demonstrative, concerning relations of ideas, or probable, concerning matters of fact and existence.

There is no room for demonstrative reasoning here. We can always conceive of a change in the course of nature. However unlikely it may seem, such a supposition is intelligible and can be distinctly conceived. It therefore implies no contradiction, so it can’t be proven false by a priori demonstrative reasoning.

Probable reasoning can’t establish the connection, either, since it is based on the relation of cause and effect. What we understand of that relation is based on experience and any inference from experience is based on the supposition that nature is uniform that the future will be like the past.

The connection could be established by adding a premise stating that nature is uniform. But how could we justify such a claim? Appeal to experience will either be circular or question-begging. For any such appeal must be founded on some version of the uniformity principle itself the very principle we need to justify. This argument exhausts the ways reason might establish a connection between cause and effect, and so completes the negative phase of Hume’s project. The explanatory model of human nature which makes reason prominent and dominant in thought and action is indefensible. Scepticism about it is well-founded: the model must go.

Hume’s negative argument showed that our causal expectations aren’t formed on the basis of reason. But we do form them, and „if the mind be not engaged by argument...it must be induced by some other principle of equal weight and authority” (Hume, 1975a, p. 41).

This principle can’t be some intricate or profound metaphysical argument Hume overlooked. For all of us, ordinary people, infants, even animals, improve by experience, forming causal expectations and refining them in the light of experience. Hume’s sceptical solution limits our inquiries to common life, where no sophisticated metaphysical arguments are available and none are required.

When we examine experience to see how expectations are actually produced, we discover that they arise after we have experienced the constant conjunction of two objects; only then do we expect the one from the appearance of the other. But when „repetition of any particular act or operation produces a propensity to renew the same act or operation...we always say, that this propensity is the effect of Custom” (Hume, 1975a, p. 43). So the process that produces our causal expectations is itself causal. Custom or habit determines the mind...to suppose the future conformable to the past. But if this background of experienced constant conjunctions was all that was involved, then our reasonings would be merely hypothetical. Expecting that fire will warm, however, isn’t just conceiving of its warming, it is believing that it will warm. Belief requires that there also be some fact present to the senses or memory, which gives strength and solidity to the related idea. In these circumstances, belief is as unavoidable as is the feeling of a passion; it is a species of natural instinct, the necessary result of placing the mind in this situation.

**Conclusion**

Belief is a peculiar sentiment, or lively conception produced by habit that results from the manner in which ideas are conceived, and in their feeling to the mind. It is „nothing but a more vivid, lively, forcible, firm, steady conception of an object, than what the
imagination alone is ever able to attain” (Hume, 1975a, p. 49). Belief is thus „more an act of the sensitive, than of the cogitative part of our natures” (Hume, 1975b, p. 183), so that „all probable reasoning is nothing but a species of sensation” (Hume, 1975b, p. 103). This should not be surprising, given that belief is so essential to the subsistence of all human creatures. It is more conformable to the ordinary wisdom of nature to secure so necessary an act of the mind, by some instinct or mechanical tendency than to trust it „to the fallacious deductions of our reason” (Hume, 1975a, p. 55). Hume’s sceptical solution thus gives a descriptive alternative, appropriately independent of all the laboured deductions of the understanding, to philosophers’ attempts to account for our causal reasonings by appeal to reason and argument. For the other notions in the definitional circle, „either we have no idea of force or energy, and these words are altogether insignificant, or they can mean nothing but that determination of the thought, acquir’d by habit, to pass from the cause to its usual effect” (Hume, 1975b, p. 657).

It remains only for Hume to confirm and illustrate his positive account by providing a precise definition of our idea of causation. In doing so, he accounts in his own terms for the necessary connection so many philosophers have taken to be an essential component of the idea of causation.

As we should expect from the preceding discussion, when we examine a single case of two events we regard as causally related, our impressions are only of their conjunction; the single case, taken by itself, yields no notion of their connection. When we go beyond the single case to examine the background of experienced constant conjunctions of similar pairs of events, we find little to add, for „there is nothing in a number of instances, different from every single instance, which is supposed to be exactly similar” (Hume, 1975a, p. 75). How can the mere repetition of conjunctions produce a connection?

While there is indeed nothing added to our external senses by this exercise, something does happen: after a repetition of similar instances, the mind is carried by habit, upon the appearance of one event, to expect its usual attendant, and to believe that it will exist. We feel this transition as an impression of reflection, or internal sensation, and it is this feeling of determination that is „the sentiment or impression from which we form the idea of power or necessary connexion. Nothing farther is in the case” (Hume, 1975a, p. 75).

Although the impression of reflection, the internal sensation, is the source of our idea of the connection, that experience wouldn’t have occurred if we hadn’t had the requisite impressions of sensation, the external impressions, of the current situation, together with the background of memories of our past impressions of relevant similar instances. All the impressions involved are relevant to a complete account of the origin of the idea, even though they seem, strictly speaking, to be drawn from objects foreign to the cause. Hume sums up all of the relevant impressions in not one but two definitions of cause.

The relation, or the lack of it, between these definitions has been a matter of considerable controversy. If we follow his account of definition, however, the first definition, which defines a cause as „an object, followed by another, and where all objects similar to the first are followed by objects similar to the second” (Hume, 1975a, p. 76), accounts for all the external impressions involved in the case. His second definition, which defines a cause as „an object followed by another, and whose appearance always conveys the thought to that other” (Hume, 1975a, p. 77) captures the internal sensation, the feeling of determination, involved. Both are definitions, by Hume’s account, but the „just definition” of cause he claims to provide is expressed only by the conjunction of the two: only together do the definitions capture all the relevant impressions involved.

Hume’s account of causation provides a paradigm of how philosophy, as he conceives it, should be done. He goes on to apply his method to other thorny traditional
problems of philosophy and theology: liberty and necessity, miracles, design. In each case, the moral is that *a priori* reasoning and argument gets us nowhere: „it is only experience which teaches us the nature and bounds of cause and effect, and enables us to infer the existence of one object from that of another. Such is the foundation of moral reasoning, which forms the greater part of human knowledge, and is the source of all human action and behaviour” (Hume, 1975a, p. 164). Since we all have limited experience, our conclusions should always be tentative, modest, reserved, cautious. This conservative, fallibilist position, which Hume calls *mitigated scepticism*, is the proper epistemic attitude for anyone „sensible of the strange infirmities of human understanding” (Hume, 1975a, p. 161).

**References**


INTEGRITY AND ETHICS AT THE MULTINATIONAL COMPANIES LEVEL

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Abstract. The good news for multinationals is that globalization is creating more universal standards of business conduct, and these are becoming more rigorous. As more companies adopt these standards, it becomes increasingly important for every multinational to establish companywide core values, standards of behavior, and relevant policies in tune with the rest of the world's ethics and compliance environment. The benefits of an ethical culture outweigh the costs. Globally ethical companies will be those that maintain a strong reputation in all their markets, experience increased employee commitment and loyalty, garner advantages in attracting and retaining customers, and generate superior levels of performance and success.

Keywords: global ethics, cultural differences, international business, multinational companies, corporate culture, global ethics, professional potential.

Introduction

Companies operating in foreign countries find that understanding and complying with variant laws, managing employees far from headquarters, serving customers and relating to suppliers and partners in multiple jurisdictions can introduce significant challenges to developing shared corporate values and realizing a truly global culture.

Multinational companies are challenged with three key issues: how to foster a culture of ethical conduct in all countries of operation; how to engage a global workforce in understanding and adopting its corporate values; and how to meet the web of complex legal and compliance obligations that may exist in all its locations. While each of these issues can be examined independently, the solutions require a systematic, holistic approach that reflects a corporate-wide commitment to responsible conduct.

Global ethics and standards exist in various forms and realities. These ethics include basic human interactions: respect for differences, trust that our counterparts will work with us in a truthful manner, honesty in communication with others, and expectations that each of us will keep our word and maintain credibility.

The essence of global ethics and professional standards is based on self-understanding, tolerance of differences, appreciation for the unique, and curiosity of the unknown. Without the personal quest for experiencing new frontiers, and working with other professionals who have their own perceptions of us and ours of them, our professional life would be mundane.

Promoting a global corporate culture

How does a multinational company create a unified culture that adheres to a high level of business behavior in all global
operations while respecting its local workforces and their traditions? Many companies have found the answer lies in following an approach that implements **global principles** based on corporate values, while allowing for **local policies** based on cultural traditions.

The advantages of this approach are multiple. **On one hand**, global principles reinforce the values the company seeks to promote in its corporate culture to instill universal standards of business conduct. **On the other hand**, local policies demonstrate respect for cultural differences among its global workforces.

Consider the issue of **business gifts**, for example. The company might establish the global principle that employees cannot accept gifts that appear to unduly influence business relationships, based on corporate values of integrity and honesty. In some locations, this may translate into a ban on gifts beyond those of *de minimum* value, but in other locations where business gifts are legal and customary as a sign of respect for customers, such as in Asia, the local policy would allow for gifts within culturally relevant guidelines that still respect the company's values. This distinction between global principles and local policies can be applied to many business practices throughout the company's operations.

**Two elements are critical to balancing global principles and local policies:** a corporate-wide code of conduct with guiding principles and the involvement of local offices in developing local policies.

Establishing a corporate-wide code of conduct

The clearest way to establish uniform principles is by crafting a **strong values-based corporate code of conduct**. Such a document spells out for all employees the fundamental principles that guide day-to-day interactions and decisions. Values are universally applicable, easy to remember and far more inspiring than a set of rules. To increase the relevancy of the code, it should be put into the local languages via culturally accurate, relevant translations. To reinforce a uniform global character, some companies publish their code of conduct as a single booklet with sections for each language of their workforce.

**Involving local offices in local policies**

To demonstrate sensitivity to local traditions, companies should allow their international business units to supplement the companywide code of conduct with local policies as necessary. To develop these, the local business unit managers and people from various functional areas, such as human resources, legal, finance and audit, might become involved. Enlisting the support of these local functions is important in shaping acceptable policies and dispelling notions that people at the home office dictate standards of behavior without respecting cultural differences.

Engaging global employees in ethics and compliance

Disseminating the company's principles and policies and achieving buy-in can happen only if the company inspires employees to feel as if they are owners and guardians of the company's values and culture. This task requires developing local leadership as well as engaging employees through education, communication and tools that equip them with the ethics and compliance knowledge and skills needed in their specific jobs. **Recommendations for actively engaging global business units and local workforces** include: establish a local presence; develop local ethics and compliance leadership; educate all employees; and build culturally responsive reporting systems.

**Establishing a local presence by forming a corporate-wide ethics and compliance committee**

As much as possible, companies need to take a local approach when conveying the importance of ethics and compliance. This can best be accomplished by establishing a presence in each location, by either installing satellite ethics and compliance offices or
"deputizing" local VPs or general managers to be in charge of the ethics and compliance initiatives in their locations. Some multinational companies form a corporate-wide ethics and compliance committee whose members are the heads of the global business units, each tasked with the ethics and compliance oversight in their location.

According to the 2008 LRN ethics and compliance risk management practices study, companies with global operations faced more challenges in controlling and mitigating risk in their international locations than at their headquarters. Specific findings included:

- Companies rated themselves as performing better in headquarters than in their international locations. When asked about the accuracy of their risk management process, the average self-rating on a 10-point scale was 7.65 for headquarters versus 6.71 for their international operations. Similarly, when asked about the timeliness of their ability to manage ethics and compliance risk, the average self-rating for companies was 7.60 for headquarters versus 6.69 for their international operations.

- When asked about challenges of doing an ethics and compliance risk assessment, 34 percent of respondents identified "difficulty of doing a global assessment."

- Educating specific types of employees also varied greatly between headquarters and international locations. For example, while 96 percent of companies educate both "supervisors/ managers" and "senior executives" in headquarters, the numbers drop to 84 percent and 83 percent respectively in their international operations.

- In terms of prevention programs offered, respondent companies also consistently provided more education for employees at their headquarters than for those in their international locations.

The challenges and inconsistency of educational programs indicated by the study results suggest that multinational companies need to strengthen efforts to equalize their ethics and compliance management processes throughout their international operations.

Local offices are effective for three reasons.

1. They can be more sensitive to the local cultural traditions and work with headquarters to formulate and approve any necessary policies that differ from corporate-wide principles.

2. Their immediate presence helps ensure that local risks are more quickly identified and communicated to headquarters.

3. In providing the home office with an on-the-scene ally, a local ethics and compliance official can clarify any problems that arise, participate in investigations and develop more effective responses to violations.

Conclusion

In conclusion, my own definition about global ethics refers to any form of communication, written or spoken, that applies to providing a service or product to a different culture or country in exchange for compensation or intangible reward. In this era of rapid change and globalization, we should expect the best from ourselves and others; deliver more than is required or expected by the highest standards. This will provide a positive direction, improved expectations, accountability, and work toward achieving global standards.
I think that there are **seven practical reasons** that show why **global ethics and standards are important to professional consultants, companies and organizations.**

**First**, it demonstrates a willingness to play by international rules while raising standards. **Second**, it makes us accountable and predictable during our engagements. **Third**, it demonstrates a willingness to develop our professional potential. **Fourth**, it shows our character and reputation to be more sound and marketable. **Fifth**, it shows our desire to develop long-term relationships. **Sixth**, it provides us with a leadership role in the global community. **Seventh**, it gives uniformity to our professional life rarely found in a changing world.

Learning global ethics and standards is another approach to moving from the old way of doing business to developing a new structure.

**Bibliography**

RISKS AND VULNERABILITIES TO HUMAN SECURITY

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Abstract. National security has both military and non-military aspects and deals with processes and phenomena of states and other actors. Their actions are influenced or even conditioned by the way the individuals perceive their own state of security and also by the way they perceive that their states achieve this vital necessity for security. Thus, it’s important to know the risks and vulnerabilities to the human security and identify effective ways and methods to counteract them.

Keywords: risk, terrorism, human security, neo-realism.

The 21st century is a century of profound transformations in the context of the current security environment, the world is much more complex and interdependent and the phenomenon of lasting development is irreversible.

A significant and obvious development is reflected in the indestructibility and commensurability of the notions “development”, “interconnection and their dialectical interdependence” (Ţirdea, 2001, pp. 178-180, 183-187).

The development of humanity is seen as an entire process of people’s options, based on the consolidation of their main abilities such as reading and writing, have knowledge, be healthy and well fed, have a shelter, be mobile and have a future.

In this context, the problems of the scientific, technical, social, economic and cultural development are connected to the processes of human survival.

The contemporaneity is more and more characterized by the profound changes of the survival strategy and the concept of global security is characteristic for the existence and sense of the future society.

The survival problem by securing the process of human development imposes a complete change in dealing with the strategy, forms and pattern of future development.

Passing to a new form of human development is determined by the ecological state and ensuring the security in a wider sense.

The new security crises (terrorism) at the beginning of the 21st century determined the demilitarization of the security studies, the reunification of the external and internal aspects and the regionalization of security.

That is why, the political, economic, ethnic and religious factors are more important nowadays because they can aggravate the tendency to violence and can generate tensions and conflicts. The fact that experts predicted a long time ago that ecological accidents could happen anywhere, will start to come true in the way that these accidents will ignore borders in the future.

Ever since 2001, terrorism has become a serious threat for the western states and turning to religion was the best thing to identify its sources.

The common law terrorism is the one considered as an ordinary offence, aggravated by terror (Andreescu, 2007), characterized by violence, as a method of achievement (Law no.535, 2004).
Social terrorism seeks to achieve a social or economic doctrine being instigated by a social reason and characterized by violence.

Political terrorism is based on the intentional element in the way that the act of terror is aimed at the state, its institutions or representatives and against a state’s political organization or its constitutional form.

Terrorism is a global fundamental problem and its development increases its importance taking into account the link between terrorism as a phenomenon and the discouragement procedures.

Terrorism is in close connection with the separatism which doesn’t always challenge but many times instigates the political violence and crimes.

The political or ethno-cultural separatism has violent implications on the state’s security and for this reason it’s perceived as a real threat to the state’s integrity and is a catalytic factor of terrorism.

The manifestations of the international terrorism are the separatism and the national liberation movements, religious, ethnic and ideological conflicts.

Applying the principle of self-determination, in the name of sovereignty, and the right to autonomy determine both ethnic tensions, conflicts and civil wars in the former Yugoslavia, Moldova, Chechnya, Georgia, Azerbaijan, Kosovo and also the premises of other future conflicts.

If every ethnic, religious or linguistic group used the principle of self-determination, the state fragmentation could become extremely dangerous for everybody’s security.

The 21st century can be considered the century of transition from the world development to the lasting development – a form for the survival of civilization and keeping nature as a natural fundament of the human life.

Human development is based on four essential components: equality regarding the fair access to opportunities; responsibility for the future generations; productiveness of research in the field of human resources and in creating the macroeconomic environment which permits people to reach their maximum potential; sense of decision – by means of which people can reach the level of individual development permitting them to achieve their options based on their own wishes (Buzan, 2000, p. 386).

The importance of human development reflects the tendency to a major re-orientation of goals in accordance with the social reforms of the contemporary world.

Man and his vital necessities are fundamental and supreme and the material factors, incomes or most of the consumption don’t represent a central condition anymore but only a means to ensure a lasting human development.

Security means that the benefits people had in expanding their opportunities and improving their capabilities are protected by current social, economic and political arrangements.

The security’s characteristic is the wide social acceptance based on the lasting institutions “of the people’s rights and obligations” (Babiuc, 1997, p. 86).

In the contemporary society, passing to a new dimension of human security took place at the beginning of the 90’s after the end of the Cold War and the ideological conflicts between the major powers. In this period, the danger of atomic extermination decreased and the human security shifted from the military domain to the humanitarian domain of life and human dignity.

In a methodological way, “the human security” is considered a positive factor because it is seen as an integral characteristic within which are united the parameters reflecting both the subjective and the objective aspects of the people’s social life.

Security is a multidimensional concept, dealing not only with weapons and their use but also with everything regarding the human being’s safety: society, economy, environment, food.

From the perspective of lasting development, the concept of human security is characterized by:
• the universality of the human security at the level of the whole population, rich or poor. Many of the existent threats are common to all peoples varying in intensity from country to country, from region to region;

• the interdependence of the human security components; thus, when the population’s security is in danger (famine, diseases, pollution, drug traffic, terrorism, ethnic tensions, social disintegration), nations are involved in one way or another and the consequences of these dangers can expand both regionally and globally;

• the human security can be achieved mostly by preventing than by subsequent interventions;

• security implies the individual integration in the society and also the freedom to exercise the right to choose among a multitude of options.

The two concepts, “lasting development” and “human security” are related, interdependent but are not identical; there is however an interconnection in the way that the progress in a domain expands the possibilities for the other’s progress and vice-versa.

The international opinion has given a special attention to the human security, starting with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). Article 3 states that: “Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person”.

“Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality” (Art. 22) (The universal declaration of human rights, 1948).

Human security implies first of all the lack of dangers such as hunger, diseases, conflicts then the protection of people against some unwanted everyday events (diseases, accidents at work or in society).

After 1989, the concept of security has become one of the most used international concepts together with the concepts of globalization and lasting development.

Until 1989, the concept of security had a subsidiary role, being used mostly in the army, in strategic studies; today, few are those who deny that security is among the main problems humanity faces with.

At present, the philosophers and scientists seek and examine a new interdisciplinary direction, noosferology, the generally scientific theory of human survival (Țirdea, 1998, pp. 31-39).

The concept used in the security analyses, especially those of non-military dimensions, is that of human security whose subject and object of reference is the human individual and people’s state of security is the starting point regardless of the analyzed level (national, regional or global).

Man represents the essential element of any form of social organization and achieving his security reflects in the security of the group he belongs to.

The definitions of this concept demonstrate the fact that, for now, the security problems are not clarified yet because all the meanings of human existence are built through definitions resulting from the people’s perceptive experience.

In the past, the classic notion of security was based on the state’s military forces; at present, this concept focuses on the human individual, their physical and psychological safety, economic and social welfare, respecting their dignity and values by protecting the fundamental rights and liberties.

The concept of human security is based on the principles of social justice and people’s emancipation, freeing them from fear and needs.

The new concept about “human security” transcends national defense, laws and order in order to include the political, economic and social order which could allow people to live with no dangers and fear.

In this context, the emphasis shifts from the state’s security to persons’ security but they don’t exclude one another.

Security is now considered “a public good” answering the strategic need to favor a
lasing human development, promoting peace and national, regional and global stability.

At present, human security is widely defined and is aimed at ensuring the people’s physical integrity against any form of violence following a conflict or not.

In a limited sense, this means linking threats to conflictual situations taking into account the threats of anti-personnel mines and light weapons proliferation and also civilian protection in armed conflicts.

The notion of human security is about safeguarding the essential civil liberties such as: people’s freedom towards the main needs; freeing of fear; freedom to act in our own name.

At the same time, human security also means putting at people’s disposal adequate means by which they can decide their present and future.

Human security is a complex process where the conditions of human dignity develop.

Thus, it represents the ensemble of social, economic, psycho-social, political, cultural, military and environmental conditions which allow the people’s existence and development, without endangering their physical and psychological integrity. Any series of threats, old or new, from diseases and natural catastrophes to the climate changes and economic shocks represents a threat to human security.

The security’s humanization focuses on protecting the people and human communities against violence. It emphasizes the absence of primordiality of rights, the impossibility to control the intra and inter-state conflicts, lack of transparency and imputableness of public affairs and the presence of organized crime and terrorism. By its active involvement, the state may be both the source and the factor of decreasing the human security.

Among the factors of insecurity for the human beings are: survival and earning their living; natural catastrophes; crimes and violence; civil conflicts and wars; shocks and stress caused by macro political factors; social vulnerability.

Diminishing or eliminating the factors of insecurity require ensuring the rights’ primordiality in any circumstance, conditions or time; promoting a person’s rights; restricting the privileged access to economic and financial resources; establishing a level of political stability enough to encourage people to invest in a susceptible activity helping to diminish poverty.

Today, the concept of human security is present at all levels – international, regional, national and local – by all state, intergovernmental and non-state actors involved actively and responsibly in the field of security.

Human security contributes to states’ security ensuring an additional dimension to human development and strengthening the human rights.

In order to promote people’s liberties, the human security suggests a double protection of people against dangers: on one hand, the one established by the states and on the other hand the one provided by the international agencies which aim at supporting the civilian society.

Achieving the state of security is done with difficulty because of the people’s values and interests which are contradictory at times raising fears about the individual, group, national, state or supra state security.

The security’s definitions in the dictionary refer to protection against dangers (objective security), state of safety (subjective security) and the absence of any doubts (trust in own knowledge).

The reference threats (danger and doubt) are very vague and the subjective feeling of security or trust isn’t connected to the real state of security or trust.

Security refers mostly to the fate of humanity and then to personal security, being affected by military, political, economic, social and environmental factors.

People’s security cannot be defined so easily. The factors involved – life, health, statute, material state, freedom are much more complex and some of them cannot be replaced when lost (life, statute).
It’s remarkable the fact that people’s existence can’t be outside the global system and thus, the security analyses cannot ignore its elements:

- the structural and historic context defining the main parameters or circumstances;
- culture that is the ideological perspectives, knowledge, feelings and reasoning which ensure value, sense and orientation to the system;
- the structure of actors and their resources by means of which the established goals are achieved;
- processes, dynamic antagonistic relations of cooperation by which the actors want to fulfill long or short-term goals;
- effects or intentional or unintentional consequences of actions, inactions and processes.

The analysis of security has two contemporary theories: neo realism which emphasizes the importance of the state’s role as a security provider and post modernism which has the role to emphasize the interdependencies of non state actors.

The neo realists, represented by Barry Buzan, state that approaching security only from the military point of view, promoted during the Cold War, only brought prejudices to the concept’s development. This determined a wider area by introducing new security dimensions – political, economic, social and ecologic.

The post modernists particularly Ken Booth (Booth, 1991, 1998, 2002), consider that the states and governments aren’t the security objects of reference because they have become sources of insecurity for the people they are responsible for.

Both approaches address the security non-military dimensions and the main difference between them is the nature of the reference object identified in the security analysis.

The neo realist point of view places human security next to the state security as an identical object of reference in the security theory and practice.

At the same time, the post modernists state that the idea of state security was used by governments to hide reality and the real security problems, thus promoting the concept of human security.

The notion of human security was introduced in 1993 in the annual Report on human development; later it became a new security pattern, a new paradigm of security.

According to UN, human society must have two levels of transformation with two results: the shift of focus from territorial security to that of the people’s and on the other hand, the transfer of the ways to achieve security from the weapon acquisition to sustainable human development.

The UN experts have now a definition of security including two categories of risks, dangers and threats:

- the first category represents the “hard” threats (international terrorism, weapons of mass destruction, intra and inter-state conflicts);
- the second category represents the “soft” threats (extreme poverty, lack of culture, unemployment, religious extremism, violation of human rights).

In UN’s opinion, human security needs counteracting a wide variety of threats to people, grouped as follows:

- economic security – a necessary minimum income is ensured for each individual;
- food security – ensuring the physical and economic access to the basic food;
- medical security – minimal protection against diseases and an unhealthy way of life;
- ecological security – protecting people against the deterioration of environment and against calamities;
- personal security – protecting people against physical violence regardless of its source;
- community security – protecting people against the loss of relations and traditional values, ethnic and sectary violence;
- political security – providing a way of life based on the observance of human rights.
The relationship between cause and effect regarding the threat to humanity is often obscure and controversial. Most threats are due to the fact that people are in a human environment generating inevitable social, economic and political pressures.

The social threats are of different types:
- physical threats (pain, wounds, death);
- economic threats (house destructions, preventing the access to work or to resources);
- threats to rights (imprisonment, denial of normal civil freedom);
- threats to position or state (demise, public humiliation).

Those in favor of the human security theory analyze both direct and indirect threat sources (Kanti, 2000) in the following groups:

- direct threats: violent death (victims of violent crime, killing women and children, terrorism, genocide, torturing and killing dissidents, war victims), dehumanization (slavery, kidnapping, arresting the political opponents), drugs (drug addiction, illegal traffic), discrimination (discriminating legislation, practices against minorities, undermining political institutions), international disputes (proliferation of weapons of mass destruction);

- indirect threats: deprivations of basic human needs (food, water, medical care, primary education), diseases, calamities (low level of GDP per citizen, the slow increase of GDP, inflation, unemployment, inequality, poverty, economic instability, stagnation and demographic transformation at national, local, regional and global level), population displacement (refugees and migration at national, local, regional and global level), degradation of environment at national, local, regional and global level.

Ensuring the stability of the state organization, the legitimate and constitutional order, human security, is determined by the economic stability which, most times, is under international criminal groups are those who organize and control the human trafficking at global level.

domestic and international pressures. If these pressures aren’t counteracted in time, they can lead to instability and destabilization.

The malfunction of any of the economic security components determines domestic instability, escalation of social conflicts, present in all the fields of human activity subject to change and causing economic chaos with serious consequences.

The new vulnerabilities, risks and threats the humanity faces today impose the global security principles of social and natural system and the balance between man and biosphere permits the supplying of the global and state needs for all the peoples and each person.

The evolution of contemporary society stresses the fact that we witness an expansion of violence and aggression against persons, public and private heritage and also an increase of corruption and fraud in different sectors of the economic and social life.

Domestic society implies the ensemble of the activities of protection, security and defense of inhabitants, human community, infrastructure and property against military or non military asymmetrical threats and also those generated by geo-physical, climate or other natural factors which endanger the life, liberties, goods and activities of the people and collectivities, infrastructure and the economic and social activities and also other values at a level of intensity and development much different from the usual state (Romania’s Security Strategy).

Domestic security means ensuring the citizen’s safety and public security, border security and the systems of vital resources supplies. It also includes the social security, ensuring the state of legality, counteracting the organized crimes and ensuring the security of the financial and banking security, that of information and communication systems, protection against calamities and protection of environment.

The human trafficking has also become a problem for all the countries in the world. The drugs represent a major danger to the whole society. Drug trafficking is controlled by specialized criminal organizations such as the cartels in South America, Chinese Triads,
Italian mafia and Europe is a market with an excellent infrastructure with great incomes.

Security must be perceived as a result of the dynamic balance between different components of the given life environment, a state where the dangers and conditions which could cause human insecurity are controlled in a way that the individual is protected against everything, thus contributing to everybody’s security.

Everybody’s security is the result of a complex process where human beings interact with their environment and implies the adequate control of global dangers bringing about welfare, peace and lack of fear for tomorrow.

Human security is closely linked to the concept of security environment which represents the ensemble of domestic and international conditions, processes and political, diplomatic, economic, social, cultural, military, ecological and informational phenomena which determine the level of protection for the individual, community, state, area and region while promoting their own interests (Băhnăreanu).

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VOTE-POPULARITY FUNCTION IN UNINOMINAL PARLIAMENTARY ELECTIONS

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Abstract. The paper aims at addressing the aspect of the relation between politics and economics, namely examining the effect of economic conditions on election results. It follows an analysis of the creation of vote behavior in local elections in Romania. To explain the creation of voting preferences in regional structures in Romania in June 2008 elections, two models have been taken into consideration for analysis: the “responsibility hypothesis” and the “partian” model. In conclusion, resulting aspects were drawn showing that the electoral behaviors at Romanian regional election in June 2008 were firstly determined by political reasons, with influence of the leaders and ethnical disturbances.

Keywords: electoral impact, economic variables, political model, economic voting, estimators, econometrically consistent, vote behavior.

Theoretical background

In the paper we will stress an aspect of the relation between politics and economics, namely, we examine the effect of economic conditions on election results (theory of economic voting). Concerning the standard theory of economic voting, Owen & Tucker (2007) assert: "In its most straightforward form, the predominant model of economic voting employed in studies of established democracies expects that voters will tend to punish the incumbent in bad economic times and reward the incumbent when the economy is doing well" (Owen and Tucker, 2007, p. 4), or as Lewis-Beck & Stegmaier (Lewis-Beck and Stegmaier, 2000a, p. 183) affirmed: "The citizen votes for the government if the economy is doing all right; otherwise, the vote is against" (Lewis-Beck and Stegmaier, 2000a, p. 183). That is because "after all, nothing is more fundamental to popular control than the idea that citizens hold government officials accountable for their collective actions" (Kuklinski and West, 1981, p. 437). According to Nannestad and Paldam (1994, pp. 213-245), this is the so-called responsibility hypothesis: the voters hold the current government responsible for the state of the economy.

There is nowadays a rich literature dedicated to this subject. Or, as Anderson stated (2007, p. 273), by the end of the twentieth century, the flow of academic papers on the topic had "changed from a trickle to a torrent of over 300 articles and books on economics and elections" (Lewis-Beck and Stegmaier, 2000a, p. 183) and covered virtually every democracy for which data on economics and elections were available.

The connection between vote and the condition of the economy is recognized not only in academic researches, but also in the analyses of the policymakers. It is well known the statement of Harold Wilson¹, former British Prime Minister: "All political history shows that the standing of a Government and

Empirical results for Romania

To explain the creation of vote behaviour in local elections in Romania – June 2008, we start in a first approach from Anderson’s idea (2007, pp. 271-296), which is: "Given citizens’ limited willingness and capacity to process complex information about politics, reward and punishment should most easily be detectable with regard to the performance of the economy - after all, the economy is perhaps the most perennially talked-about issue during election campaigns in democracies". Consequently, we examine the effect of economic conditions on municipal election results.

First, we have tested whether there is an econometric relation between the votes for candidates representing the ruling party and the state of economy, so-called responsibility hypothesis. Practically we have tested the connection between the votes for the ruling party (National Liberal Party) in the elections for County Councils from June, 1st, 2008 and the local economic conditions recorded just before the elections. The economic conditions are represented by the unemployment rate recorded in the 42 counties in May 2008 (U), the dynamics of Gross Domestic Product per capita (dGDP)\(^2\) and the evolution of Average Net Nominal Monthly Earnings – dANME.

The estimated model was:

\[
NLP_t = a_0 + a_1 U_t + a_2 dGDP_t + a_3 dANME_t + a_4 dumCV_t + a_5 dumHR_t + e_t
\]

where:

NPL = vote for National Liberal Party (incumbent party) in the elections for County Councils, 1\(^{st}\) June, 2008;

U = rate of unemployment, by counties in May 2008;

dGDP = dynamics of the gross domestic product per capita, by counties, yearly estimations (2007 = 100%);

dANME = dynamics of the average net nominal monthly earnings, by counties, yearly estimations (2007 = 100%);

t = county, \(t = 1, 2, \ldots, 42\);

dumCV = dummy variables used for Covasna county;

dumHR = dummy variables used for Harghita county;

e = error variable.

We use the dummy variables for Covasna and Harghita counties because the stable fidelity of electors from those regions for Democratic Alliance of Hungarians in Romania (ethnic vote).

Expected results:

- \(a_1 < 0\) increase in unemployment rate has a negative effect on voting for incumbents,
- \(a_2 > 0\) economic development increases the electoral chances for incumbent party
- \(a_3 > 0\) increase in wages has as effect an increase in votes for incumbents.

The obtained results for local elections in Romania (June, 1\(^{st}\), 2008) are not econometrically significant:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>20.4921</td>
<td>2.518*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>0.6892</td>
<td>0.944**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dGDP</td>
<td>-0.0004</td>
<td>-0.572**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dANME</td>
<td>-0.0858</td>
<td>-0.153**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dumCV</td>
<td>-22.0212</td>
<td>-3.245*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dumHR</td>
<td>-18.2289</td>
<td>-2.793*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(R^2 = 0.35, dw = 1.75\)

*) Significant at 5% level
**) Econometrically non-significant

The estimators \(a_1, a_2\) and \(a_3\) are not significantly different from zero.

Next, we test other models based also on responsibility hypothesis. None of these models were econometrically consistent.

As a conclusion, a model based on responsibility hypothesis is not adequate for explaining the creation of voting preferences.

\(^2\) Because we do not have quarterly estimation of regional GDP (at NUTS-3 level), we have used the yearly estimations of National Commission for Prognosis, see www.cnp.ro
in regional structures in Romania in the June 2008 elections.

Based on this conclusion, we tested a partisan model. In Romania, only the Social Democratic Party of Romania (SDP) can be loosely classified as a centre-left party, although the right-left division in Romania is quite blurred. Therefore we test the hypothesis that in poor areas and in those with high unemployment rate, the votes goes toward the left-wing party, namely SDP.

The estimators are not statistically significant (not significantly different from zero) on a reasonable level of confidence. This leads to the conclusion that the hypothesis of partisan vote cannot be econometrically supported. An explanation can be found in Tucker’s suggestion (2005, pp. 4-5): “Transporting a simple partisan based approach to the post-communist world is problematic because of the pervasive levels of uncertainty in any new democracy. It is difficult to apply a simple left-right classification scheme to parties in transition countries, both because it is hard to know where parties stand and because they can often change their positions. Moreover, even if analysts could come up with a compelling schema, it would be a stretch to assume that those voters would be able to associate parties of a certain partisan persuasion with specific policies as closely as voters can in established democracies”.

It seems that no evidence (at least through econometric reasons) is found for partisan model in Romanian regional elections, nor for responsibility hypothesis based model.

The end of economic voting? asked Christopher J. Anderson in a recent paper (2007, pp. 271-296). Actually, the stable relationship between economic performance and voter behaviour was challenged by Paldam since 1991 (so-called instability dilemma (Lewis-Beck and Paldam, 2000b, pp. 113-121)). In Anderson’s statement: ”After all, in the imperfect world of social science research, the use of different model specifications and different time periods (in time-series research) is bound to lead to at least somewhat different estimates of the relationship between, say, government popularity and the rate of economic growth” (Anderson, 2007, p. 275).

Although economic performance cannot explain the electoral behaviour in Romanian regional elections, we accept the hypothesis that votes don’t follow a random schema and, as a consequence, we have conceived a political impact model. We have tested in this framework the hypothesis of faithful voters between two consecutive electoral moments and the railway engine role played by the well-known leaders.

These are the obtained results:
1. For National Liberal Party, the estimators are significantly different from zero and they are in concurrence with expected values: the votes for National Liberal Party (positive related with the faithful electorate, the regional prominent leaders draw up the party). The impact of well-known leaders was also demonstrated by negative dummy variables inlaid for Suceava and Neamţ – counties where the important leaders from 2004 of NLP migrated toward other political party. Also in Bucharest, NLP had not a prominent leader able to draw up the political votes for Local Council.
2. The votes for the Social Democratic Party of Romania where reached essentially throughout the faithful electorate and by the railway engine role played by the leaders. The ethnic behaviour in Covasna and Harghita counties dwindles the votes for the Social Democratic Party of Romania.
3. The votes for the Democratic-Liberal Party where reached throughout the faithful electorate and by the railway engine role played by the leaders and the ethnic behaviour decreased the votes for the DLP. An interesting situation was recorded in Suceava and Neamţ counties: the leaders’ migration from National LP towards DLP drifted the votes to DLP.

Conclusions

The electoral behaviours at Romanian regional election of June 1st, 2008 were firstly
determined by political reasons (faithful electorate), together with influence of the leaders and ethnical disturbances. For all parties, the renowned leaders draw up the votes. The inertia in electoral behaviour (devoted voters) advantages all the parties and the ethnical behaviour advantages only the nationalist party.

The electoral impact of economic variables was marginal. Perhaps the probability of re-election of the incumbent party decreases when the economic situation deteriorates, but do not increase following a symmetric schema when the economic performance is "good". For example, through an analysis of the economic voting in Denmark, Nannestad and Paldam (1997, pp. 81-99) demonstrated that the reaction is about three times larger on deterioration in the economy than to an improvement. They called this finding the "grievance asymmetry" (voters may react more to negative changes than to corresponding positive ones).

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BILINGUAL ADVERTISEMENT

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Abstract. Today we live in a hybrid culture that does not respect the bookish notion called segmentation. The days of the pure one-language, one-message, one-marketing objective are fading fast, while we are heading towards merging markets and mixed-language advertising. The paper studies a major topic of interest in cross-cultural communication that is the effects of language choice in advertising to bilinguals in four countries: Japan, Canada, Spain and India.

Keywords: commercial landscape, language segmentation, unilingual ads, foreign language, development, market, language of communication.

Introduction

The fast movement of immigrants into many parts of Europe, Australia and America has been blurring the lines of what used to be called ‘core markets’. For decades, there have been China Towns in many major metropolitan areas around the world. A ‘Little Italy’ came together in some obscure town in mainstream America and Portuguese communities, Middle-eastern shopping districts, and Greek festivals made up the commercial landscape.

But when these communities began to move into the mainstream, their food, music, dance forms and fashion began to erase the lines between one community and the next, one language and the other. The US Census Bureau released figures for the year 2000 that show how Hispanics have overtaken African-Americans as the dominant hyphenated minority – 12.5 percent of the population, or 35.3 million people.

The old laws of segmentation, where a company could target one consumer group with a TV commercial in one language, and another group in another market are proving inadequate. Ethnic groups don’t live in neat demographic boxes anymore. We are approaching the days of mixed media, where marketing communication is seen as relevant. The parallels in other cultures are unmistakable. In the US for instance, the children’s TV program named Nickelodeon started incorporating a Spanish-speaking character in a popular English language cartoon series. But incorporating ‘Dora’, the heroine was a tough choice in a white dominated network like CBS. People thought a Latino character using Spanish words on an English program would alienate the audience, while trying to cater to another. Dora’s skin color was darkened, and her eyes were made browner. The producers took the risk, and it paid off.

Gone are the days when language segmentation was rigid. On the chat lines, the site administrators see many people engaging in ‘code-switching’ between English and another language, or between two other different languages.

Bilingualism in Japan

Bilingual commercials represent a new trend for the present days we are living in.
Foreign residents in Japan sometimes complain that Japanese TV advertising is hard to understand. But now an increasing number of commercials use English or other foreign languages, either alone, or together with Japanese. Sometimes the viewer can even choose which language to hear a commercial in.

Last year, English speaking households watching a McCann Erickson Hakuhodo commercial for Gillette's Sensor razor could hear the commentary in English. Simultaneously most of the country's Japanese speaking households are viewing the same commercial and hearing the track spoken in Japanese. This unusual spot, the first of its kind, uses the bilingual capacity of Japan's TV stations for dual language broadcasts. The capability is regularly used for foreign movies plus some sports and news programs. The McCann spot was the first used in advertising, and added a new element to Japan's growing fascination with bilingual advertising.

The commercial itself delivered a straightforward message, saying: "Gillette presents Sensor. The system, the technology that will change the way you shave. Sensor. Twin blades set on springs to read your face and respond. Independent suspension sensing and adjusting to every curve of your face. No other razor comes close. Gillette Sensor. For the best shave a man can get." (http://www.gillette.com)

Easing the pains of foreign residents is of course not the reason for the trend. Bi-lingual commercials are proving a new method for advertisers in Japan to break through the clutter and grab viewers’ attention. Over the last year, over a dozen campaigns have run using languages such as Chinese, Spanish, Russian, and English in addition to Japanese.

Advertisers including Nissan, Toyota, Suntory, Japan Railways (JR), Gillette, Ueshima Coffee Corp (UCC), Teijin, TDK, Mizuno, Menicon, Honda, Fuji Xerox, and All Nippon Airways all run bilingual ads. Suntory were the first advertiser to begin running bi-lingual commercials. They started using Chinese and English about ten years ago to advertise canned Oolong tea. Here are some examples of advertisers using bilingual ads:

- A Japan Railways (JR) campaign for a new express train service from central Tokyo to Narita airport features American business types talking about the difficulties of traveling to Narita which the new train service solves;
- A Ueshima Coffee Corp (UCC) commercial promoting Coffee No 19, a canned beverage, made from Puerto Rican beans, uses a Spanish-speaking presenter to talk about the quality of Puerto Rican coffee;
- A campaign for TDK audio tapes by McCann Erickson Hakuhodo has musicians from around the world talking in their own languages about their attitude to music. The campaign is built around a series of different musicians. Each one talks about the philosophy of their music. They don't say anything directly about TDK or its tapes.

While English is the most popular new language for commercials, news events can prompt other choices. Menicon chose Russian for their campaign. The Menicon commercial made by the Mannensha Agency was for their Menicon "EX" contact lenses. These claim to be much clearer than regular contact lenses. "There's a trend to use foreign languages" said Mr. Yasuhiro Takeuchi, a manager in the international division. "We planned the campaign to coincide with Mr. Gorbachev's visit to Japan. With so much interest in developments in the Soviet Union, we felt using Russian would help grab attention."

Bilingualism in Canada

In the present chapter I will refer to the two most important markets in Canada, namely the Francophone market and the English market in regards of publications distributed on national level.
In Canada, the language of advertising is closely linked to the importance of the Francophone market. We were told repeatedly that national companies are generally motivated to market their products or services in French as well as English. These companies do not wish to ignore an entire portion of the market on the basis of language. For them, it simply makes good business sense to communicate in the language of their target audience. The Francophone market, as defined in terms of the province of Quebec, represents almost one million Canadians.

Several nationally distributed publications are issued in distinct English and French versions (Canadian Tourism Commission’s TOURISM and PureCanada, Foreign Affairs and International Trade’s Bon Voyage, But... and Industry Canada’s SchoolNet), whereas two others (VIA Rail’s Destinations and Canada Post’s SmartMoves) separate the two languages but attach them in tumble format. Anyhow they are distributed, the separation of the English and French versions lends itself to two-language advertising. It is widely accepted that advertisements and sponsorships should appear in English in the English version of a publication and in French in the French version.

The perceived impact of linguistic considerations on the marketability of each publication to advertisers varies considerably. Officials at Canada Post and Foreign Affairs explained that the uniqueness of their publications, one aimed at people in the process of moving and the other at people traveling abroad, and the elevated spending habits of their respective readers, enable them to be highly selective in their advertisers and sponsors. The situation also enables them to impose a bilingual requirement for all ads and sponsorships without risk. Neither organization has lost an advertiser or sponsor for linguistic reasons, even though some may have little experience advertising in French.

Several officials explained that national companies that routinely market their products and services in Quebec are accustomed to providing service in French. These companies show little resistance to bilingual requirements for advertising where they exist, but they may also opt for unilingual ads where the choice exists.

**Bilingualism in Spain**

In this chapter I will deal with the big international company Toyota Motor Corp. which ran a bilingual ad during the Detroit 2007 Super Bowl - one of America's most-watched sporting events, by aiming to reach out the Hispanic consumers.

In the 30-second television commercial, a Hispanic father is driving his young son in their new hybrid Toyota Camry. When the father explains how the hybrid car switches between gas and electric power, the son compares it to the way his father can switch between English and Spanish. “Because I’m always thinking of your future,” the father says, explaining why he learned English — and why he bought a hybrid.

It would be the first ad aired for the 2007 Toyota Camry, which was at dealerships in March. The hybrid version of the Camry came out in May. The Camry has been America’s best-selling car for eight of the last nine years. Jim Farley, vice president of marketing for Toyota’s U.S. division, said it’s the first time Toyota has made a bilingual ad. Throughout the ad, the father and son mix English with Spanish, but the words they use are familiar enough to English ears and there aren’t any subtitles.

The ad is a nod to the Hispanic market, where the Toyota Corolla has been the best-selling car since May 2004, Farley said. The Camry is the third best seller among Hispanics, behind the Nissan Altima. “Many people look at Toyota as a brand popular with highly educated Caucasians, and the stereotype is not true,” Farley said. “Most people don’t think about the Hispanic market being such a powerhouse in the industry.”

Toyota says about 4 percent of its Prius and Highlander hybrids are currently bought by Hispanics. But the company says that data can
be imprecise because it’s based on buyers’ surnames. Around 4.2 percent of all vehicles were bought by Hispanics in 2005. Toyota says the Super Bowl is popular with Hispanic viewers. Twenty-five percent of all Hispanics over the age of 18 watches the game, and half of those are under 35, a key demographic for the automaker.

Bilingualism in India

In this chapter I will deal with an interview taken on the 9th of December 2008 by Avi Arditti, a reporter at the Journal of Consumer Research, to Rohini Ahluwalia, referring to choosing the right language for advertising. This interview is based on a paper written by Rohini Ahluwalia, an Associate Professor of Marketing at the Carlson School of Management at the University of Minnesota and Aradhna Krishna, a Professor of Marketing at the Ross School of Business at the University of Michigan. They studied how bilingual consumers in New Delhi evaluated ads written in Hindi or English, or in a mixture known as Hinglish (Ahluwalia and Krishna, 2008, p. 430).

Professors Ahluwalia and Krishna compared multinationals with local companies, and necessities with higher-priced goods. They found out that when one has a local company, it seems people are not paying that much attention to the language of advertising, or the language of communication. This means that consumers pay more attention to the language of advertising, if they know that that product is made by a foreign company. Paying more attention could be good or could be bad, depending on the language that one uses and the associations that come out of that language. And the reason they would pay more attention to the language is simply because the language may be unexpected.

The foreign corporation that is marketing its product might be communicating to the consumers in a more formal way, maybe in a foreign language such as English. The moment the consumers get a message that is either in the native language or it is a mixed message, it seems to generate more attention to the language that is used. In every case, the consumer might be thinking about what it is that they are talking about, or what is their selling proposition or what is the communication content. But the fact that you would pay attention to the language of the communication is much more likely if the message is coming from a multinational corporation than when it comes from a local corporation.

So for a multinational corporation that is marketing a product such as detergent, soap or any other necessity that we want to think about, if their advertising is in the local language- the native language, then it's likely that the language associations would get triggered in the mind of the consumers. And that feeling of belongingness or closeness might be more likely to be brought out, meaning that the consumers will feel more likely to buy the product. However, if a company would use the native language for selling a luxury product, let’s say chocolate, which could be sold at a moderate price but in certain markets it might be more of a luxury product than a detergent.

When a company uses a luxury product such as chocolate, when using a Hindi slogan versus let’s say an English slogan, what professors Ahluwalia and Krishna found is that the Hindi slogan actually hurts consumers, because it’s not the closeness, it's not what is important in evaluating that product. What seems to be more important is the sophistication, the prestige or maybe the global character or cosmopolism of that product.

As a conclusion, people expect that the higher priced chocolate is going to be advertised to them in English, because English is associated with greater sophistication than Hindi does.

Conclusion

Given the growth of bilingual populations all over the world, the question whether language can cue context has special relevance. Many bilinguals live linguistically bifurcated lives.
Their life at home, in their ethnic community, and with friends and family is experienced in their native language, whereas life at school, at work, and in the community at large is experienced in English or another second language. This duality of experiences may lead to distinct thoughts when faced with advertisements written in either of the two languages, a bilingual is able to understand. We consider the fact whether it is possible that for a bilingual, the exact same selling message can cue different associations depending on the language in which it is presented. Furthermore, the choice of which language to use when communicating with a bilingual is only a choice if the bilingual in question actually consumes media in both languages.

Ultimately, advertisers should consider the consumption context of the advertised offering when deciding which language to employ when advertising to bilinguals.

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THE IMAGE OF NAPOLEON IN BYRON’S POEMS

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Abstract. The Napoleon poems reveal Byron as a myth-maker compelled to recreate himself under various disguises as the titanic figure whom he calls his “greatest man”. Napoleon is the human divinity – his “little pagod” before whom, in effect, he pours his oblations and who, no more than any other, controlled the rhythms of his life. The four Napoleon poems (1815-1816) appeared together in May 1816 in a slim volume of thirty-nine pages entitled simply “Poems”. They represent the Byron’s chief response to the campaign of defamation mounted against him. In them, Byron publicly avows his radical sentiments, repudiates Tory policies at home and abroad and identifies himself wholeheartedly with Napoleon.

Keywords: exile, metaphysical speculation, boyhood, hostilities, Waterloo, Napoleonic epoch, conqueror.

Napoleon and Byron together dominate nineteenth century conceptions of the hero. Fascination with Napoleon pervades Byron’s writings and affected how he lived his life. Particularly during 1814-1816 he found himself obsessed with huge shadow cast by the twice-fallen Emperor.

Whereas the twentieth century regards Napoleon chiefly as a military and political figure, nineteenth century intellectuals closer in time, viewed him in a more encompassing philosophical framework. For them, Napoleon embodied the possibilities of the human spirit for good and evil. For men of action, the example of Napoleon confirmed their belief that their ambition need not to be bounded; for the oppressed and lowly Napoleon represented the capacity of genius to rise magnificently from nothing to the heights of power.

Napoleon left an ineradicable imprint upon nineteenth-century men of letters. Goethe mesmerized by the Corsican as well as Byron, thought Napoleon embodied “continual enlightenment” and in thinking about the daimonic according him central importance. Stendhal in his autobiographical “Life of Henri Brulard” asserted that he “fell when Napoleon fell”.

Balzac said he would finish with the pen what Napoleon had started with sword, and he wrote two thousand pages a year for nineteen years to prove it.

Raskolnikov in “Crime and Punishment” enthusiastically identifies himself with Napoleon in his passionate longings for greatness, whereas in “War and peace” Prince Andrei’s ardour for Napoleon leads him to self-alienation.

Analogy between Napoleon and Byron range from psychologically predictable to the curiously coincidental. Both Byron and Napoleon had begun as outsider; both experienced a meteoric rise in early manhood; both had contemplated exile. As Napoleon had conquered most of Europe, so Byron’s successive volumes of poetry had taken literary world by storm. His poetic triumphs matched Napoleon’s military ones, or so he liked to think, and in “Don Juan” he remembered his years in England as the time when he had reigned “the grand Napoleon of the realms of rhyme”.

Both men manifested an extraordinary willingness to take risks, to play for high stakes; both revealed in the contradictions of their character. Both disliked systems and
abhored metaphysical speculation; both could stand apart from themselves and look upon their lives with detachment. Both emperor and poet radiated extraordinary energy and egoism. Although Byron’s serious poetic involvement with Napoleon began only in 1814, Napoleon had been the idol of his boyhood. The young Byron venerated the young general and first consul and followed with enthusiasm his tumultuous progress back and forth across Europe.

At Harrow, he defended his bust of Napoleon “against rascally time servers” (Moore, 1835). This was in 1803 shortly after Britain had commenced hostilities against Napoleon. Crossing Spain in 1809, Byron halted to ponder soberly the devastation wrought “by the Scourger of the world”. But he remained in thrall. The disastrous Russian campaign of 1812 upset Byron greatly. When he learned that Stendhal had been in Russia with Napoleon, he plied him with questions so insistently about exactly what had happened that their conversation (Stendhal recalled) became a cross-examination.

The journal kept during 1813-1814 reveals Byron’s tremendous agitation of mind in regard to the beleaguered Emperor: “Napoleon! –this week will decide his fate”, he records on February 18. “All seems against him; but I believe and hope he will win!” During February and March Napoleon fought desperately against European powers combined to defeat him. In mid-February he won against overwhelming odds six battles in seven days. These months mark high point of Byron’s esteem. But at the end of March the allied armies entered Paris, and on April 6, 1814 Napoleon was forced to renounce “the throne of the world”. The news of Napoleon’s abdication and his agreeing to exile on Elba left Byron “utterly bewildered and confounded” 1. His journal for April 1814 bears ample testimony to the mental anguish Napoleon’s downfall caused him. It ceases abruptly with Lear’s despairing cry: “O, fool! I shall go mad!” 2

During the two years from April 1814—March 1816, a time when the English and European climate was fraught with speculation and anxiety, Byron responded to Napoleon with particular intensity. To control his overleaping thoughts Byron set down five poems about the French emperor. Beginning with “Ode to Napoleon Bonaparte” the other poems are in order of composition: “Napoleon’s Farewell”, “From the French”, “Ode on the Star of Legion of Honour” and “Ode”.

Byron wrote his “Ode to Napoleon Bonaparte” in April 1814, only days after learning that Napoleon had surrounded his empire to the Allies and agreed unconditionally to exile on the island of Elba. He uses in his title the original spelling “Buonaparte”, a spelling Napoleon had largely abandoned after his first campaign in Italy. 3

Byron appended to his Ode two epigraphs. The first “Expende Annibalum:– quot libros duce summo / Invenies?” derives from Juvenal’s tenth Satires and may be translated “Produce the urn that Hannibal contains/ And weigh the mighty dust which yet remains/ and this is all.” Dust is all that remains of Hannibal, and its weight is negligible: thus (implies Byron) the fame of conquerors. The second epigraph is from Gibbon’s “Decline and Fall” and concerns the Emperor Nepos who” by his shameful abdication…protracted his life a few years, in a very ambiguous state between Emperor and an Exile.

In this poem Byron measures the fallen Emperor, now a nobody against not only Satan but other fate-defiers, including Milo, the Greek wrestler who wedged his hands in an oak and thus entrapped become prey to wolves.

Byron addresses Napoleon directly with passion: “All evil spirit as thou art/ It is enough to grieve the heart” These are the Ode’s key lines- and the most heartfelt. But his spirit was evil Napoleon quit too late.

The Ode’s sixteenth stanza, heavily revised invites Napoleon to be Prometheus: “Wilt thou

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1 Byron’s Letters and Journal 3:256
2 Byron’s Letters and Journal 3:257
3 Napoleon thought the spelling “Buonaparte” would help win the Italians to his banner
withstand the shock? And share with him, the unforgiven / His vulture and his rock.”

In comparing Napoleon with Prometheus, Byron ends his Ode on a note of climax. But the poet’s mind continued to whirl. A few days later he wrote an additional stanza (present stanza 5).

“Napoleon’s Farewell” reveals the poet as ventriloquist: he imagines himself to be the deposed Emperor bidding farewell to his native land. Looking back on the France he has raised to “Glory” Napoleon concedes that his ambition was unquenchable and excessive: “I have warred with a world which vanquished me only/ when the meteor of Conquest allured me too far.” France has abandoned him, he has abandoned France. Although the chain linking him to France is now broken, the final act in the Saga of Napoleon has not yet been written. Napoleon remains his country’s chosen “Chief” who incarnates political freedom.

“From the French” is another exercise in ventriloquism and reveals Byron in the unlikeliest of the roles: that of a faithful subordinate of unquestioning loyalty who contemplates his master’s exile with despair. Napoleon informed that St. Elena was to be his destination was allowed by the British government to be accompanied by only three officers. What amazed the British was those who wept the most were those who could not accompany their emperor into exile. Byron begins his poem depicting the grief felt by Napoleon’ die-hard supporters: “Must thou go, my glorious Chief, / severed from thy faithful few? /Who can tell thy warrior’s grief.” The lines also indicate how crucial to Byron was his relationship to Napoleon.

In 1816, as Byron contemplates his own exile “mightiest now” would take on even greater significance. The Emperor’s crash and subsequent exile would appear to Byron to bear remarkable similarities to his own fall from grace. So thoroughly did he identify his fate with Napoleon’s that in order to achieve a full Napoleonic apotheosis he felt he had to exile himself from England. In his Napoleonic poems Byron repeatedly imagines himself as Napoleon going into exile; in effect he experiences before undergoing it his own exile.

The following lines ” Many could a world control/ Thee alone no doom can bow” capture the essence of Byron’s response to Napoleon, Napoleon fulfils his destiny.

Ode on the Star of “The Legion of Honour” is a poem in which Byron treats the star of the Legion of Honour symbolically. Once a living symbol of freedom it has now, with Napoleon’s departure left the earth to dazzle, elusively from on high: “Star of the brave! Whose beam hath shed/ Such glory o’er the quick and drop / Thou radiant and adored deceit.”

For Byron and his fellows Napoleonists; if not for England Napoleon in the years after the Revolution kept aloof the torch of freedom. Now, he has fallen. Human means to restore, the freedom of nations having failed, Byron turns to the natural world to fulfil his hopes for political revolution. His hurls forces of apocalyptic destruction upon British-backed European monarchs restored after Waterloo.

“The Legion of Honour” appeared anonymously in James Perry’s Morning Chronicle, a whig organ supportive of Byron on March 15, 1816. After hailing the dissemination of freedom, the Ode insists upon its ultimate triumph. The powerful first verse paragraph, its movement propelled by irregular tetrameter lines, prophesies political apocalypse.

Waterloo becomes the necessary prelude to s final, bloody overthrow of tyrants everywhere.” We do not curse thee, Waterloo/ Though Freedom’s blood thy plain bedew/ There ‘twas shed. But is not sunk,/Rising from each glory trunk.”

The poem has been called, not unjustly “lurid and outrageous”4. But, the poem expresses Byron’s deepest political commitment one for which he will give his life: he intends to fight, by word or by deed, for freedom in every land oppressed by tyranny.”

Together with Waterloo stanzas of ”Childe Harold” which are their culmination and capstone, Byron’s Napoleon poems

4 Hobhouse to Murray ( May 1810) refers to the volume immediately forthcoming
demonstrate his extraordinary involvement with the fate of French Emperor. Offering glimpses into Byron’s complex psychology, the Napoleon poem states the fundamental reconstitution of self that the poet underwent between Napoleon’s first abdication in April 1814 and Byron’s own decision exactly two years later, to exile himself to Continent. Only if we attempt to seize the hidden springs behind this extraordinary involvement with Napoleon will we Begin to understand his many paradoxical, apparently contradictory statements about the Emperor.

Byron identified another alter ego in the towering historical figure of Napoleon Bonaparte, who to the contemporary imagination combined, in Satan’s manner, moral culpability with awe-inspiring power and grandeur. Between 1795, when Napoleon took command of the armies of France, and 1815, when defeat at Waterloo banished him from Europe to his final exile, patriotic supporters of Britain’s war effort represented Napoleon as an infernal, blood-thirsty monster. These demonizing representations frequently alluded to the example of Milton’s “enemy of mankind,” as William Wordsworth did in an 1809 sonnet, “Look now on that Adventurer,” and George Cruikshank did in an 1815 cartoon depicting the colossus in exile on the tiny island of St. Helena. Satanizing Napoleon made for effective wartime propaganda because it invoked an already established plot, a narrative of inevitable downfall. Yet Byron’s complex response to the man, worked out over the entire body of his work, yields a contrasting account of history—and also, and in particular in the “Ode to Napoleon Buonaparte” he wrote following Napoleon’s abdication, a contrasting account of Milton’s fallen angel. To Byron, Napoleon represents both a figure of heroic aspiration and someone who has been shamefully mastered by his own passions—both a conqueror and, after Waterloo, a captive.

Napoleon thus becomes as much the occasion for psychological analysis as for moral condemnation. There was more than a touch of self-projection in this account. (At a tongue-in-cheek moment in canto 11 of Don Juan, Byron dubs himself “the grand Napoleon of the realms of rhyme.”) The characteristic doubleness of the Byronic hero is dramatized in the story of Napoleon’s venturesome rise and inglorious fall.

By publishing Napoleon’s poems Byron distances himself from the English society. He, also departs his native land. Although an exile by his own choosing Byron views Napoleon’s banishment to St. Helene as emblematic of his own fate.

Napoleon played a great role in the poetry of the romantic period. To most French poets, as well as to the Pole, Adam Mickiewicz, the German, Heinrich Heine, and the Austrian, Joseph von Zedlitz he stood for an idea and was passionately loved and hated accordingly. He was a symbol of the great Napoleonic epoch, often seen in contrast to the bleak years of Restoration and the Holy Alliance. His image stirred the imagination and invited the emulation of the passionate and ambitious. More books have been written about Napoleon than any other figure in history. Why have so many books been written? First and foremost was Napoleon’s impact on history. During the period 1800-1815 almost every significant event in European history was the result of an action initiated by Napoleon. The Napoleonic wars were the greatest event in the 19-th century, and as such people literally devoured everything that was written concerning Napoleon and the Napoleonic Wars.

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