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Aspect of School Integration in Student Acquisitions and Performance

Keywords
learning, school integration, school performance, motivation

Abstract

This paper aims to study the relationship between school achievement through learning, school performance, and social and school integration of students. Regarding learning, characteristics and particularities of human learning, types, and styles of learning will be analysed. School performance, often associated with school success, can be influenced, augmented by certain factors, including motivation, learning style, literacy level, or even success itself. School integration will be analysed from several perspectives, given the diversity of students enrolled in the education system. Each child is unique in terms of physical, mental, intellectual development, and health, therefore action plans are developed for every category of students to achieve equity and equal opportunities.

Learning is not a specific human phenomenon but is often found in the animal world, associated with adaptation. Some authors define learning as a process of adaptation of the organism to the environment but differ depending on the stage of evolution on which each living organism is (Sălăvăstru, 2004). In the opinion of A. N. Leontiev (as cited in Sălăvăstru, 2004) learning represents "the process of acquiring the individual experience of behavior" (p.14) and contributes to the development of the human capacity to create, to evaluate, and to form himself. A. Clausse (1967, as cited in Sălăvăstru, 2004) defines learning as "a change in behavior, achieved by solving a problem that puts the individual in touch to the environment" (p. 14).

Human learning

Unlike animals, which learn through trial and success, humans add to this the ability to acquire a background of ideas, to recall facts, and to plan what can happen, to analyze, to conceive, and to infer (Thorndike, 1977/1983).

> „Learning is that change in human disposition or capacity that can be maintained and that cannot be attributed to the growth process. The change called learning manifests itself as a change in behavior, and its production is deduced by comparing the behavior that the individual was capable of before being put in a certain 'learning situation' with the behavior that shows after this treatment. The change may consist (...) in a greater capacity for a certain type of performance. (...) The change must last more than a moment; it must be capable of maintenance for some time" (Gagné, 1965/1975, p.11).

Matei (1995) states that the child's first cognitive structures are closely related to the unconditioned and instinctual primary neuro-physiological structures. The learning process goes from indefinite to definite, from diffuse to conceptual, from perception

to sensation. Following some experiments, Matei (1995) concludes that the first perception in young schoolchildren is usually inaccurate so that the representation of the perceived object is incomplete. Learning must remove this shortcoming, so this stage must be followed by an analytical phase. After analysing the object, retention and reproductive capacity increased significantly.

Thorndike (1977/1983) argues that in school learning based on reward or sanction in the "trial and error" process, the law of effect is not enough, and learning needs three laws to work together: the law of preparation, the law of exercise, and the law of effect itself. Thus, the individual is considered intelligent insofar as he has several connections that he can transform associatively.

Progress in learning is largely determined by the following elements: real knowledge of students' dispositions and skills, intuition, prior knowledge, interest, willingness to participate, direct activity, sympathy for the teacher, knowledge, and method, personality, and personal example of the teacher, living conditions of students (Matei, 1985).

Types of learning

From a certain perspective, learning can be direct, intentional, when the individual wants and seeks knowledge, or indirect, spontaneous, in which the individual does not seek directly, especially to learn (Sălăvăstru, 2004). Palicica (2002) calls these two forms of learning systematic and spontaneous, respectively.

Assimilating education with learning, from the perspective of how the activity is organized, education can be formal, non-formal, or informal. Formal education is synonymous with education obtained in the educational process, through schooling, based on curricula, curricula, and textbooks. Therefore, it can be considered a form of intentional learning. Non-formal education is often associated with extracurricular education, being complementary

to formal education. It can materialize in school clubs by disciplines, cultural or sports competitions, festivals, activities in collaboration with theaters, schools, museums, public libraries, or media. Informal, unsystematized, non-institutionalized, non-formalized education can act in a disorganized way through the influences exerted by small or extended social groups, life experiences and has a profound influence on the learnable because this type of learning lasts throughout his life (Palicica, 2002).

Formal learning is perceived as institutionalized training, which represents the compulsory education, variable as period depending on the school system specific to each country and which offers as finality a specific certification of the acquired skills. It is a form of intentional learning by both the learner and the teacher (Rogers, 2014).

On the other hand, non-formal education is often perceived as the opposite of formal education, being placed outside the educational system. Non-formal education is provided by providers of educational institutions that are not recognized by the state but can be alternatives. Examples of non-formal education are training programs offered by certain community institutions, such as libraries, music schools, foreign language schools, community centers that organize training courses for various skills: theater, dance, sports, painting, and others (Tudor, 2013). Non-formal education is intentional from the perspective of the learner (Rogers, 2014).

Informal learning is natural, as is breathing, and results from daily activities associated with work, family, or leisure. It is not structured and is often not certified. Informal learning can be both intentional, but often unintentional (Rogers, 2014). It could be exemplified by individual activities, such as distance learning by purchasing books and educational materials, individual study (Tudor, 2013), cooking and music culture classes, use of different devices, or programs digital (Rogers, 2014).

A study conducted by Tudor (2013) aimed to identify teachers' views on the effectiveness of non-formal education. The results of the study revealed that the way teachers manage to structure their contents and combine teaching strategies, using alternative solutions, based on the analysis of the advantages and disadvantages offered by it is efficient in teaching activities. The open attitude of the teacher, the permanent adaptability, his creativity, the increase in students 'skills and acquisitions obtained from other sources than in the formal framework are advantages and steps towards increasing the students' school performance.

In the contemporary era, information and knowledge must be constantly updated due to the information explosion. The three forms of learning presented above intertwine, complement each other, and learning becomes a process that does not end with graduation but lasts a lifetime. Thus, a new concept is emerging lifelong learning, which applies to all age segments. Lifelong learning begins with the first years of life, through family education, and continues with the stages of school life - preschool, school, vocational, high school, university, postgraduate - extending to the end of life (Palicica, 2002).

Learning styles

The concept of learning style describes individual differences in learning, based on the natural, ordinary, preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills. The learning style can considerably influence the learner's response to different methods of presenting the content to be learned (Wu & Alrabah, 2009). A modern educational trend is a replacement of traditional classroom learning with active forms of learning, based on personal learning styles, which make this process more efficient and lead to superior academic results (Fallan, 2006).

Each individual has a unique learning style, personal qualities that influence the ability to acquire information, interact with others, and participate in the learning experience (Al-Balhan, 2007; Mupinga et al., 2006). Learning styles are the result of preferences for a particular way of learning, the context of the learning environment, the areas of learning growth, and the general way of conducting each (Rassool & Rawaf, 2007).

Often, the term *learning styles* is associated with *cognitive styles*, *thinking styles* or *ways of learning* (Rassool & Rawaf, 2007). In general, teachers teach in a style that is in line with their preferences and that they consider effective for themselves (Healey et al., 2005). Students whose learning style is compatible with teachers' teaching style tend to retain information longer, apply it more effectively, and have a positive post-course attitude toward learning topics (Dinakar et al., 2005).

Chiou and Yang (2006) found in a study that teachers can influence students' learning styles and occupational stereotypes. Therefore, it is especially important the model that each teacher presents because it can affect school results. Both the learning style and the formative assessment strategy significantly affect the results of students learning through the computer-assisted method.

The identification, classification, and definition of learning styles largely depend on the researcher's perspective. There are over 80 learning models, each classification highlighting at least two predominant styles. For example, Markova (1992) identified six learning styles resulting from the combination of visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic perceptions (Al-Balhan, 2007). The learning style can be a combination, or a dominant of one of the three (Fearing & Riley, 2005). Long and Coldren (2006) refer to six distinct learning styles: competitive, collaborative, avoidant, participatory, dependent, and independent.

Kolb identified four learning styles: divergent, assimilative, convergent, and accommodative (Rassool & Rawaf, 2007),

although in 1995 he stated that we should not consider them stereotypes, and in 1999, he developed a measurement tool. for them (Kolb, 1999). Divergents are described as sensitive, imaginative, and people-oriented, assimilators are less focused on people but more interested in abstract ideas and concepts, convergents can solve problems and prefer technical tasks, and accommodators excel in active experimentation and concrete experiences (Rassool & Rawaf, 2007).

Honey and Mumford (as cited in Rassool & Rawaf, 2007) developed Kolb's learning styles questionnaire and, in 1986 and 1992, identified four learning styles: active, reflective, theoretical, and pragmatic. Those with a predominantly active learning style are dominated by immediate experiences, reflexives observe experiences and prefer to analyze them, theorists adopt logical and rational tools for problem-solving, and pragmatists are essentially practical (Rassool & Rawaf, 2007).

Felder and Silverman (1988, as cited in Graf et al., 2009) developed a questionnaire model for identifying learning styles, which is combined with Kolb's (1984) model. By combining these models, Felder-Silverman Learning Style Model (FSLSM) describes learning styles in detail, characterizing each subject according to four dimensions: active/reflective, sensory/intuitive, visual/verbal, and sequential/global (Graf et al., 2009).

According to the Felder-Silverman Learning Style Model (FSLSM), students who have an active learning style learn better if they actively work with learning materials, applying, and testing. They prefer to work in groups, where they can discuss the material learned. Reflective people prefer to think, reflect on the material to be learned and work on their own. Students with a sensory learning style prefer to learn concrete facts, using their sensory experience and are considered realistic and sensitive. Students who learn intuitively prefer abstract subjects, theories, principles, these students being considered more innovative and creative. The visual/verbal dimension targets students who remember best what

they saw (diagrams, maps) or those who learn best from textual representations, regardless of whether they are written or spoken. In the sequential/global dimension, students are characterized according to their understanding: graded or holistic (Graf et al., 2009).

School performance

> „Performance is a general concept that means a special, exceptional achievement, the fulfillment of a task at certain standards of correctness and completeness. (...) School performance is a type of performance, not always associated with exceptional achievements, which appears as a product of school experience and learning continued at home and sometimes in other environments with educational impact. (...) School performance (...) is determined by the performances obtained previously because the agreement with oneself and with the obtained results or the disagreement with oneself and with the results leads to the modification of the performances" (Gherasim & Butnaru, 2013, p.13).

Performance is the result of all activities and responses of the subject, the product of experience and learning under the guidance of the teacher. School performance is expressed by the performance index, respectively by grades, and has a strong motivational effect. It intensifies and supports the learning effort, stimulates the establishment of a high level of performance, and inspires satisfaction in the development of the experience. The most important factor in determining the need for performance is the performance itself. Positive performances tend to increase the efficiency of learning, while failure determines its diminution (Lazăr, 1975).

School performance is determined by certain individual factors, effort, previous school failures, learning strategies, students' self-esteem, nature of intelligence, self-efficacy, and contextual factors (Gherasim & Butnaru, 2013).

A study by Goldenberg et al. (2001) examined the reciprocal relationship between parents ’expectations and students’ school performance in a sample of Latino families. The results of the study indicated that students' school performance influenced parents' expectations, but on the other hand (Benner & Mistry 2007), parents' expectations did not influence performance. In short, there is much empirical evidence to suggest that not only parents' expectations influence students' expectations and achievements, but also that achievement can influence parents' expectations.

Wigfield and Eccles (2002) developed the *expectancy-value* theory of motivation for achievement. The theory states that adolescents' expectations and values are influenced by their social context (parents, teachers, colleagues, neighbors, and community) and previous academic achievements. Once the expectations and values of the individual are established, they influence the academic performance, perseverance, and choice of the academic topic. In other words, the theory presents causal relationships between the social context (for example, parents' expectations), their expectations, and academic achievement.

School success

School success is often associated with school performance and unsuccess with school failure. Both success and failure can be discontinuous and temporary. However, there may be situations of generalized failure, in which the student has difficulty adapting to school life in general and cannot meet the minimum conditions for promotion in most school subjects, or limited failure, in which the student encounters difficulties only in certain subjects. From another perspective, school failure can be cognitive, when the student does not achieve the pedagogical objectives proposed in certain disciplines and achieve extremely poor results, or non-cognitive failure, which refers to situations in which the student

does not adapt from the social view of the school environment (Sălăvăstru, 2004).

Academic results can be influenced by several factors related to two directions: social/emotional support and academic support. How students receive socio-emotional support consist of social ties, learning communities, health, and counseling, assistance and leisure services, campus facilities, mentoring, non-discrimination, capitalizing on minorities, ensuring a sense of security, cultural capital, fairness, assistance, and personal guidance. Academic support can be demonstrated through counseling and assistance regarding pre-enrollment, teacher-student relationship, quality of education, academic success, providing additional instruction, flexibility, student-centered learning, differentiating learning by adapting to students' particular conditions, such as learning (Zepke & Leach, 2006).

The results of the study by Gumora and Arsenio (2002) on a sample of 103 students in grades 6-8 indicated that although the regulation of students' emotions, general emotional states, and those related to school tasks was correlated, however, each of these variables had a unique significance on school performance. Thus, students who had a high level of emotion regulation were better rated by teachers, and negative emotions related to school tasks were minimal. Also, students who experienced a combination of both general and school-related negative emotions had a higher risk for learning difficulties.

Premises, causes, influences of school performance

School performance is an important reference point for the achievement of the person as a whole, throughout life. Studies conducted by Gherasim and Butnaru (2013) have shown that school results are an important predictor of future school results, in the sense that success is followed by success, and failure, by failure. School failure is often associated with dropping out of

school, entering the labor market at an early age, lacking an adequate professional qualification, or joining a deviant social entourage.

Fortier et al. (1995) proposed and tested a model of the influence of motivation on school performance, based on the theory of self-determination, developed by Deci and Ryan. According to this model, perceived academic competence and perceived academic self-determination influence autonomous academic motivation, which in turn leads to school performance. The research hypotheses were confirmed, in other words, it could be concluded that students who felt competent and self-determined in the school context, developed an autonomous motivational profile towards education, which led them to achieve school performance.

Berlinski et al. (2009) emphasize the importance of preschool education on school performance. They showed that, for a sample of third graders in Argentina, attending at least one year of kindergarten increases average test scores by 8% and positively influences self-control, measured by behaviors such as attention, effort, participation. and involvement in class and discipline. Albulescu (2020) argues that the level of reading comprehension is directly proportional to academic success, and a student who has difficulty understanding the text read will have a higher risk of dropping out of school.

School motivation. The role of motivation in learning

Motivation is the impulse that causes a person to do a certain thing. "In the school context, motivation is nothing but the process that leads, guides and maintains a certain desirable behavior to the student status: participation in classes, involvement in learning activities in the classroom and at home, successfully solving tasks" (Popenici & Fartușnic, 2009, p. 11). On the other hand, school motivation is not only associated with the object of learning, but

also with the conditions in which learning takes place and with the mental processes of the student involved in this process.

The analysis of any motivational process must start from the learning framework and the situations in which the student is placed. Thus, Viau (2004) suggests that school motivation is generated by the student's perceptions about himself and the learning environment, including teachers, school subjects, teaching tasks. Weiner (1992), on the other hand, considers that school success or failure depends on the subjective model where students explain these phenomena, and which are related to the intensity of the emotions that accompany them. The effects of negative emotions can influence the student's attitude and confidence in himself and the school.

Both Popenici and Fartușnic (2009) and Sălăvăstru (2004) conclude that the factors that can influence motivation are grouped in three directions: individual characteristics, family, and school. Individual characteristics refer to those personal endowments related to the individual's perception of himself, the value of the activities he performs, his competence, or the control he has over the performance of the activity. Often, the effects of negative emotions can persist either until the next learning situation or for a longer time.

The family can be a motivating factor from the following perspectives: socio-material situation, emotional-emotional-intellectual support, family values. Although a modest financial situation may be an obstacle to maintaining the motivation to learn, an exceptionally good financial situation does not have to be a positive guarantee in this regard. In situations where parents can support their children in doing homework, this will be an advantage in favor of stimulating and maintaining students' motivation. The family's values, interests, and attention to education and learning are also passed on to children. Parents' attitude towards school is decisive for the attitude that children will have: if parents do not show respect for teachers and the

educational activities, children will not do it (Popenici & Fartușnic, 2009; Sălăvăstru, 2004).

Regarding the school as a motivating factor, here must be considered aspects related to the competence of teachers, their professional and human training, the model offered by them, the school context, the physical environment in which the teaching activities take place, but also the students' preference for a certain school discipline, towards a certain teacher, towards a certain didactic strategy or a certain learning style (Jinga & Negreț, 1994; Popenici & Fartușnic, 2009). Catching and maintaining students' attention until the end of teaching is the key to teaching success and is possible only if the students desire to participate actively, through their effort in the learning activity (Jinga & Negreț, 1994).

Learning motivation is regulated not only from the outside, by external conditions, family, school, but also from the inside, by self-motivation, and students can achieve a higher level of independence from external interventions to teachers. It is recommended that learners clarify their teachers' expectations, select those learning strategies with which they are familiar, set clear goals and precise deadlines for completing their homework, ask for feedback, to self-evaluate their partial and final results, and self-reward themselves after fulfilling some important stages (Jinga & Negreț, 1994; Popenici & Fartușnic, 2009).

Learning style and school performance

Manochehri and Young (2006) argue that learning styles are significantly related to knowledge performance, namely that students with assimilative and convergent learning styles perform better in computer-assisted learning; instead, divergent, and accommodating students perform better in instructor-assisted learning. Calissendorff (2006) states that younger students have a mixed learning style, obtained from the visual-auditory-kinesthetic combination. This result has been demonstrated in the case of

children who learn to play an instrument: they go through all the stages so that they can learn to play. A study by Wang et al. (2006) found that performance is ranked according to preferred learning style, namely: assimilative, divergent, accommodative, and convergent.

Lister found that specific learning styles differentiate students into three categories: students in need of help, regular students, and high-achieving students and that there are differences between the characteristics of the learning style of students in need of help compared to regular students (Lister, 2005). For example, Brand (1999) and Brand et al. (2002) found that students with attention deficit disorders were less persistent in learning. Fine (2002) identified that students with special education had low persistence, low motivation, and low responsibility towards students considered normal. Honigsfeld and Lister (2003) found the same results.

It has been found that learning styles are closely related to academic performance (Al-Balhan, 2007). The preference for a particular learning style varies according to gender (Lincoln and Rademacher, 2006), age, experience, and maturity (Long & Coldren, 2006; Palloff & Pratt, 2003; Sheridan & Steele-Dadzie, 2005), depending on thinking style, intellect structure (Sheridan & Steele-Dadzie, 2005), depending on the discipline (Dinakar et al. 2005), and the teacher's teaching style can sharpen, improve the learning style (Long & Coldren, 2006). The style, ability, and speed of learning differ from person to person. A study by Șirin and Güzel (2006) found that students had different information processing systems and learning styles. The results of the study indicate that learning styles differ depending on the subjects of study in high school and the modes of testing at university admission.

Nevot (2008) identifies for each learning style – active, reflective, theoretical, and pragmatic – the main blockages that students may encounter and suggests some solutions that teachers can address to improve these sensitive issues. The most common

blockages that can hinder the development of an active learning style are fear of failure or fear of making mistakes, anxiety, feeling of obligation to do what they do not want, lack of self-confidence, thinking too carefully about certain things. The proposed solutions include new activities, things that have never been done before, at least occasionally, activating curiosity, practicing problem-solving in groups, changes in activities during classes, discussions, communication of ideas, solving exercises using repetitive techniques, allowing mistakes, stimulating critical thinking.

Concerning style, the main blockages are due to insufficient time for planning and thinking, the need to quickly change activity, impatience, lack of control, and lack of focus on finality, students paying more attention to work itself than getting results. Teachers can improve these aspects by practicing writing carefully, taking out the blackboard to perform certain tasks, developing protocols, collecting information through observation, oral communication, investigation, adding new information, giving time for creative thinking, providing thought patterns, introducing a stage of reflection in each action, awakening the joy of knowing, activating, and maintaining interest, oral presentation of the teacher (Nevot, 2008).

Students who have a predominantly theoretical learning style may face the following blockages: the urge to stay with first impressions, preference for intuition and subjectivity, dislike of structured and organized approaches, excessive dependence on others (teachers or colleagues), preference for spontaneity, and risk, inability to convert thoughts into action and inability to perform and finish the work. The suggestions offered refer to the careful reading of the theorems, of the problems, analysis of complex situations, anticipating obstacles and finding solutions to overcome them, summarizing the theories, formulating conclusions, practice formulating questions, perseverance, memorization practice, and automation, application of concepts (Nevot, 2008).

The pragmatic learning style can raise certain problems for students, such as exaggerated thinking about useful things, lack of vision about the usefulness of what is learned, not completing topics, distraction, and lack of concentration. Possible suggestions for remedying these problems are self-correction and self-assessment, seeking help from experienced people, experiments, and observations, studying techniques used by others, role-playing games, exercises, and using images (Nevot, 2008).

School performance evaluation

The learning process is self-regulatory, so it requires the presence of feedback to regulate actions. This inverse connection is obtained through evaluation (Palicica, 2002). Assessment is a complex process of pedagogical actions through which the achievement of the proposed objectives concerning a norm is measured and evaluated based on certain criteria, a grade is assigned to the student's performance, the degree of correspondence between a set of learning information is examined. by the student and a set of criteria related to a certain objective, to decide, a judgment is issued, it is estimated to be verified, a verdict is given (Manolescu & Panțuru, 2008).

The assessment has a pedagogical purpose, that of providing an answer regarding the students' level of knowledge. The answer given by the evaluation must be argued, to ensure a clear justification of the appreciation that the teacher makes of the students' works. Sometimes, the teacher's grading can be subjective, influenced by certain disturbing effects: the "halo" effect, in which a partial impression expands and becomes general, categorizing weak or good students; the “Pygmalion” effect, in which the evaluator's stereotypes generate predictions that are fulfilled so that students who are constantly disregarded and discouraged by the teacher will fail in that subject; the contrast effect, in which students' results are assessed differently if they are

obtained in different contexts; the inertia effect, in which the evaluator maintains a certain stereotype in the case of students with different performances (Cucoș, 1996/2014; Popenici & Fartușnic, 2009; Sălăvăstru, 2004).

Cucoș (1996/2014) come into notice to some undesirable symptomatic behaviors that evaluators may have and can affect the quality of evaluation: psychotic syndrome, in which teachers turn evaluation into an opportunity to display their power and personality; the symptom of exaggerated objectivity, in which teachers seek impartiality and tend to measure students' behavior more than assessed content; the symptom of the instrumentalist, in which teachers are overwhelmed by the technique of the assessment tool in the detriment of the assessment itself; the symptom of misappropriation, in which the assessment is used as a means of maintaining order or as punishment; the symptom of conformity, where the teacher considers correct in the evaluation only the information provided by him or those from sources specified by him.

School integration

School integration must be analyzed from several perspectives, considering the categories of students existing in the education system. Every child has their rhythm of physical, mental, and intellectual development, therefore, even if they all belong to the same age group, there are physical, mental, and intellectual differences between them. Some differences may consist of deficiencies, disabilities, handicaps, or, on the other hand, excellence, and giftedness. Other differences can be ethnic, religious, behavioral, or related to a certain socio-economic condition.

The problem that appears in this context of the heterogeneity of student groups is not the uniformity and alignment of all to the same standards, but the identification of

ways to capitalize on each other's skills and abilities, mitigating the negative aspects involved in the instructional-educational process.

Special situations

To correctly understand the problem of people with special educational needs, it is necessary to define the three associated terms: deficiency, disability, handicap. Deficiency is a medical issue and "refers to a deficiency established by clinical or paraclinical methods and means, functional operations or other evaluations used by medical services, a deficiency that may be sensory, mental, physical, locomotor, neuropsychic or language" (Gherguț, 2013, p. 19). The deficiency consists in the temporary or permanent loss or disturbance of a physiological or anatomical structure and is presented as a state of functional abnormality, with pathological aspects, which affects the capacity and quality of the process of adaptation and school, professional or social integration of the individual (Gherguț, 2013).

Disability or incapacity is a functional aspect and "represents a loss, a total or partial decrease of physical, locomotor, mental, sensory, neuropsychic possibilities, etc., a consequence of a deficiency that prevents the normal performance of certain activities" (Gherguț, 2013, p 19). Disability consists of certain changes, limitations, or disturbances of the capacity to adapt, with effects on the development of the level of personal, professional, or social autonomy (Gherguț, 2013).

Handicap results from a deficiency or disability that limits or prevents the fulfillment of a role in a cultural, social context, being considered a social disadvantage. The disability consists in the particularities of the relationship of the disabled person and his living environment, being highlighted especially in the context of cultural, physical, or social barriers that prevent access to various activities or social services, in which other people can normally participate (Gherguț, 2013).

In Romania, children with disabilities have access to different forms of education and can be enrolled, depending on the degree of disability, in the special education system or mainstream education. Children with moderate disabilities, learning difficulties and language disorders, socio-affective or behavioral disorders are integrated into mainstream schools where they can benefit from educational support services. Special education is organized according to the type of disability – mental, hearing, visual, motor, and other associated disabilities. The identification of deficiency type and its degree is within the competence of the Commission for Child Protection, an institution subordinated to the county councils.

Children in special education can follow the boarding school curriculum, the adapted boarding school curriculum, or the special school curriculum. Also, the duration of schooling may differ. For example, for children with severe mental disabilities, the duration of schooling in primary and secondary education can be 9-10 years, which means that it is 1-2 years longer than the 8 years spent in mainstream education. During schooling, children with special educational needs have access to psycho-pedagogical rehabilitation and recovery resources – medical and social – and to other types of specific intervention services available in the community or specialized institutions, including special education (Organizația pentru Cooperare Economică și Dezvoltare, 2007).

Minorities

A longitudinal study by Moody (2001) on a group of teenagers that examines the relationship between formal integration indicated by racial heterogeneity and background integration indicated by patterns of inter-racial friendships showed that racial similarity is generally preferred in social relations. The problem of segregation of racial friendship is complex. History shows that people prefer people who are like them. While

similarity, balance, and status are important at the individual level in forming friendships, the structural constraints of population distribution affect people's ability to achieve individual preferences.

It is known that students belonging to the Roma community have a lower level of schooling and a higher dropout rate than other students. The most frequently involved factors in the phenomenon of socio-economic exclusion are poverty, unemployment/unemployment, internal and external migration, lack of personal documents, geographical location. On the other hand, the attitude of distrust, prejudice, lack of motivation, lack of models to and from the Roma community have a negative influence on the school integration of Roma children (Arbex et al., 2013).

To increase the level of schooling and to improve the quality of education for the Roma population, various opportunities have been created and several intervention tools have been developed. They consider first of all the analysis of the environment from which the students come, the belonging to the school units, and the knowledge of the particularities of the local community to which the students belong. Another important element in these strategies is the creation of links with those students, followed by the design and implementation of specific, personalized action plans, which include collaboration with students' families. A permanent monitoring of students' progress, counseling them and their families, can make a positive contribution to school success. The evaluation of the whole process ensures the feedback and reiteration of the strategies (Arbex et al., 2013).

Gifted students

Gifted students are considered those who have high mental abilities and are associated with certain attributes: wisdom, brilliance, sharp mind, sharpness. They demonstrate attitudes,

dispositions, and habits that lead to objectivity, impartiality, an open mind, and practice metacognition, analyzing their thought process. Gifted children are driven by a special curiosity, being eager to understand how they can make improvements, to produce useful values for society (Kelemen, 2010).

Jarvin and Subotnik (2006) suggest that gifted students in academic fields, such as the humanities, need analytical skills, creative skills, and practical intelligence. Teachers, families, and communities play an important role as they provide resources, mental stimulation, places, and opportunities to promote their skills, motivation, and success. Expert teachers in their field help students acquire specific techniques and knowledge and facilitate students' transition from looking at others for feedback to become self-critical.

School counselors have the role of helping gifted students in academic fields to be able to manage their self-doubt and unhealthy perfectionism, to teach them techniques to reduce stress and anxiety, to support their intrinsic motivation, to train them in organizing and own time management, to facilitate their communication and social skills that will help students to interact correctly in collaborative relationships with colleagues (Peterson, 2006).

Although the general vision converges towards the integration in mass education of all categories of students, there are still opinions that gifted students, for example, cannot develop to their full potential in such a heterogeneous group. The arguments refer to the partial or total dissatisfaction of their intellectual and emotional needs, due to the insufficiency or non-existence of additional educational means (David, 2008).

Conclusions

To improve the act of learning and school performance, students must acquire certain knowledge and skills to use study

methods. Some of these tools are scientific reading or the art of reading (Albulescu, 2020; Sălăvăstru, 2009), taking notes (Jinga & Negreț, 1994; Sălăvăstru, 2009), planning the study rigorously by correctly evaluating the time available, achieving a study schedule, exercising perseverance, cultivating self-confidence, creating a learning environment (Jinga & Negreț, 1994), RICAR method: browsing (răsfoire) – questions (întrebări) – reading (citire) – memory (amintire) – recapitulation (recapitulare) (Sălăvăstru, 2009).

Some studies have shown that many students who have learning difficulties consider school activities as negative experiences, which they cannot control (Fincham et al. 1989), and learned helplessness affects learning motivation (Valas, 2001). Due to these difficulties in important matters, despite the effort, they attribute the failure to internal factors, which increase the degree of distrust in their strengths.

Studies on the relationship between assignment and school results have shown that students who made internal assignments, stable and personal, assumed their ability or effort, obtained better results than those who made external assignments, unstable and non-personal (Liu et al. 2009; Meyer et al., 2010).

How students may attribute their failure may vary depending on the frequency of exposure to failure. Thus, previous, repeated school failures can lead to the attribution of this situation to uncontrollable causes, while sporadic failures can lead to the attribution of controllable causes (Au et al., 2009).

Objective integration is achieved when the child with disabilities is transferred from a special school to a boarding school, and the class he enters will change his educational design to integrate him into the team.

School integration of students with special educational needs (SEN) can be achieved if it intervenes correctly and in time in the child's life by early detection of disabilities, early diagnosis and assessment, early intervention and psychological and psycho-

pedagogical counseling, collaboration, and involvement of parents and services community (Roșan, 2015).

Every person in one of the situations that incapacitates him in one way, or another needs to be provided with adequate living conditions, to ensure a normal physical, functional and social life, they need rehabilitation with the support of the community they belong to, need social inclusion based on positive actions and non-discrimination, need equal opportunities for education, support services and social protection (Gherguț, 2013).

Educational programs for gifted students must be developed in such a way as to be consistent with the specifics of their thinking. These programs should bring to their attention real problems, in which students ask clear and precise questions that lead to well thought out solutions, collect and evaluate relevant information using abstractions in their interpretation, open thinking in alternative thinking systems, recognizing assumptions, implications, and consequences, communicates effectively with others (Kelemen, 2010).

The education of gifted children requires a special educational program, with an adapted Curriculum, accelerated academic pace, additional courses, and specially trained teachers to work with them. This type of program aims at the enormous learning potential of students, directing educational influences away from mainstream education, to stimulate them. It is created especially according to individual developmental characteristics and is found everywhere in the world (Kelemen, 2010).

Research has shown that school performance is influenced by individual and contextual factors: implicit beliefs about intelligence, academic self-perception, style of attribution on school results, the orientation of learning goals, motivation, support received from teachers, colleagues, family (Gherasim & Butnaru, 2013).

The school performance that a student can achieve is unique, incomparable, specific to the individual, and depends on the level

of school acquisitions, the style, and capacity for learning, physical, mental, and intellectual conditions, the level of socio-emotional and intellectual integration. If for some students it can be a normal result, obtained without much effort, for others it can be an excellent performance. Each child is unique, must not be compared, and his level of performance can only be measured with himself.

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