

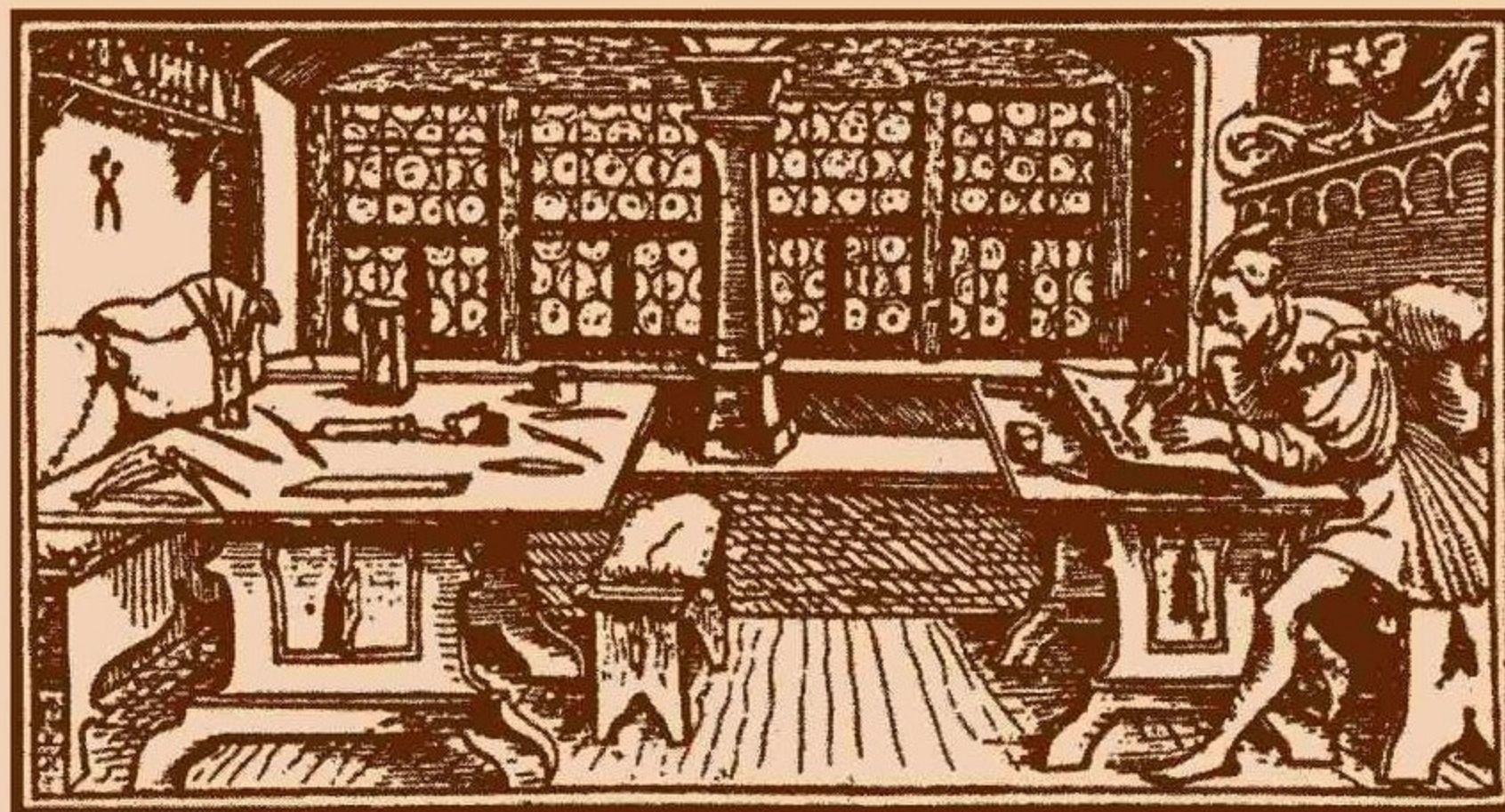
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METACOGNITIVE THINKING AND IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESSES

HAVATZELET RONEN*, VASILE CHIS**

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. *Das Konzept, das in diesem Artikel vorgelegt wird, wiedergibt die persönliche Erfahrung als ein wertvolles Mittel, um den Lehrer und den Schüler zu fördern. Wir glauben, dass die Entwicklung der Fähigkeit des Schülers und des Lehrers introspektiv über ihre Gedanken und Tätigkeiten nachzudenken, der Schlüssel zur Existenz des kognitiven Prozesses darstellt.*

Die Beispiele wurden aus dem Ausbildungsbereich ausgewählt, um die Spirale der Entwicklung des Lehrers und Schülers, die zusammen in das Lehr-Lern-Prozess wachsen, zu betonen.

Der Aufbau dieses Artikels ist, aus dem Standpunkt der Form und des Inhaltes, die Beziehung zwischen Theorie und Praktik zu unterstützen. Der Artikel besteht aus zwei Teilen, ein theoretischer und ein praktischer Teil, die sich einander beeinflussen. Der Zentralpunkt dieses Artikels ist die Bedeutung der Selbstbeobachtung unserer persönlichen Erfahrung, und dies wird sowohl theoretisch als auch durch die Beziehung mit dem pädagogischen Bereich dargestellt.

INTRODUCTION

The concept presented in this paper relates to personal experience as a valuable resource for empowering both the teacher and the pupil. We maintain that developing the ability of both the learner and the teacher to reflect upon actions and thoughts introspectively is the key to the existence of the cognition process.

The examples selected from within the educational field are brought in order to stress the spiral development of the teacher and the pupil who grow together in the teaching and learning process.

The reciprocal relationship between theory and field and between field and theory constitutes the organizing axis of the structure of the paper, both in terms of form and content. There are two sides to the paper, the theoretical and the practical, and they influence and are influenced by one another. In view of the fact that the importance of introspection on personal experience constitutes the central orientation of this paper, it is repeated twice, once at the level of theory and once in relation to the educational field.

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Introspection and metacognition - key concepts for conscious educational experience.

Dewey (1938) revealed that education and experience go side by side, and he even sees in experience the educational process. In his view "education therefore is a process of living and not preparation for life." The saying of Rabbi Yitzhak Arame "There is no school like experience," points up the significance of human experience as an opportunity for learning which influences a person's development in knowing how to act wisely.

The term experience contains in within itself the totality of actions which a person makes in order to obtain or achieve something. In this totality of actions are included all those occasions when he tried to succeed, to realize expectations, to realize his ambitions or to conform to the demands and needs of the social frameworks.

The totality of actions which a person makes includes tests and events etc., in which he succeeded or failed. All the situations which a person has experienced shape his attitudes and affect his self-perception which is affected by the knowledge, the skills or expertise he has acquired in the course of a wide variety of events which constitute his personal experience .

The totality of events, knowledge and emotions which make up a person's experience, create and mould a person's special character. Consequently, a "wise" person is someone who succeeds in developing the consciousness required in order to reflect upon the thinking processes which have influenced and are influencing the formation of attitudes, perceptions, approaches, expectations, resulting from the variety of his experiences. This conscious reflection will enable him to preserve what is worthy of preservation and to correct that which needs to be improved.

Vigotsky distinguished between two stages in the acquisition of knowledge: the first stage he described as unconscious acquisition of knowledge and after it comes the stage of the gradual increase of the conscious command of this knowledge. The distinction between these two stages points up *the significance of meta-cognition as the conscious and cognitive stage.*

Figuratively, when applied to the educational sphere, this means that turning it into meaningful learning depends on the ability of the teaching staff to enable the pupils to pass from the stage of acquiring the knowledge to that of making the concepts, the subject matter, the learning situations, "their own property." Only when they have turned these concepts from "theirs" into "ours" will the pupils be able to find meaning in the learning text and thus internalize it.

In school the pupils are exposed to experience in countless social and learning situations. Because of its organizational character the school is the scene of many events and diverse dynamics, between the teacher and the pupils and among the pupils themselves. The classroom is fundamentally very active and focused on a system of relationships between all the partners in the educational practice. The school and the classroom can be "the place" to learn from experience.

Experience within the learning environment constitutes a central component in the development of the pupil's experience as a person, as a friend, as a learner, as one who is tested. Developing the reflective ability will affect the development and the change of all the partners to the educational practice.

In order to conduct learning from experience one must develop the ability of the learner and the teacher to reflect on actions and thoughts, to be conscious of them, to learn from them and to change by choice. In order for the choice to be conscious one must enable the pupils to develop the ability to reflect upon their experience and the experiences of others. The term "others" includes the "peer group", the educational staff which the pupil encounters, and the variety of characters and the events which constitute the personal experience which the pupils are exposed to in the knowledge contexts which make up the school curriculum.

In order for the experience of the pupils as learners to be the source of growth and development two essential conditions must be available for the pupils; firstly, in the planning of teaching: expression must be given to the analysis of situations in the process of their growth as thinking and feeling pupils. Secondly, in the subject matter: the pupils should be enabled to analyze the human experience, which they discover through the various knowledge contents. The subject matter as a source of personal learning and growth. The subject matter is an additional mean of developing meta-cognitive thinking.

This argument derives its strength from the theoretical literature and from the practice in the educational field. In this paper we shall combine the relevant theoretical conceptualization with the knowledge we have accumulated in the educational field as teacher, lecturer and instructor. The experience gained in the educational field will lead to illustration, explanation and elucidation of the theoretical conception.

What is meta-cognitive thinking from a theoretical standpoint?

According to Flavell (1976, 1977, 1978), one of the pioneers of the development of meta-cognitive thinking, meta-cognition refers to knowledge which a person has about his own cognitive processes, their outcomes or anything deriving from them. Meta-cognition means consciousness of the thinking that occurs whilst performing specific assignments, and the use of this consciousness to regulate what one does. According to this conception two foci for meta-cognitive thinking are knowledge and control, *knowledge* which a person has about the cognitive processes and their outcomes and the ability to *control* cognitive processes and their outcomes.

Paris and his colleagues (Paris and Lindauer, 1982; Paris, Lipson and Wixson, 1983) see in meta-cognition the ability for "strategic thinking" which leads to purposeful and controlled behavior. Zohar, 1966 sees in meta-cognition a person's thinking about the knowledge he has and about his thought processes. Brosh-Vaiz

(1999) sees in meta-cognition a system of control and mental regulation, a higher-order thinking system which works by means of self-inspection mechanisms which a person activates when trying to solve a problem. Kaniel (2001) sees meta-cognition as a kind of lens through which a person observes his own thoughts.

The various researchers enable us to argue that meta-cognition is a thought control mechanism which is supposed to develop abilities for controlling and evaluating the learner's success, the order of the stages of the performance and their timing.

In order to develop learning of this kind we must expand the concept of reflection with the help of the concept of reflective practice. The meaning of the term "reflection" in the original Latin is "turning back", i.e. to cast a glance back at an action or event which has already taken place in the past. In accordance with this definition most researchers see the term reflection as focusing on what happened in the past.

Schon (1987) strikingly exemplifies the associating of reflection with both the past and the present. Schon attaches great importance to the distinction between *reflection in action* and *reflection on action*.

Reflection on action, renewed reflection on the action, reflection from a distance of time on an action performed in the past.

Applying the concept to the educational act will focus the reflection on successes and difficulties, after the performance of the teaching action. Teaching and learning characterized by practice of this kind, will regard the teaching and learning situations as situations calling for actions to be analyzed. Case study which will be characterized by a review of the data and the aspects relating to the event being analyzed. In this way decision-making concerning the continuation of the educational action will take into account the "learning through the experience" in order to preserve and improve the practice by very careful deliberation. This introspection enables the improvement of ability prior to the next activity.

In order for the pupils to be able to experience learning of this kind the teacher must plan teaching units containing assignments which will enable them to engage in introspection on the learning action; introspection on their experience as learners, introspection which will be an expression of meta-cognitive thinking characterized by the existence of a control process with regard to the learning.

V. Chiş (2005) describes the learning sequence as an integrated unity of cognitive and metacognitive processes. During the learning process two main components are involved:

- the learning process itself: reception – processing – consolidation – putting into practice

- introspection in the pupil's case and meta-cognition which brings new acquisitions, such as:

- Knowledge about himself, as subject/pupil of the learning process
- Knowledge about the nature of the learning task
- Efficient methods and strategies for learning

Meta-cognitive thinking and reflective practice from the applied standpoint.

A case study (A method for creating group discourse around a pupil or event, leading to the identifying of principles enabling transference from experience of the specific event to additional events. The discourse promotes joint learning which enriches all the group members, The case study can be an instrument for organizing the concepts which are supposed to turn into a common language for all members of the group. Moreover, it can enable the development of personal and professional relations between the instructor and the learner.) from the course for training pedagogical coordinators, will serve as the first text "for gathering and analyzing applied knowledge" (In order to help pupils with learning deficiencies to progress and to enable them to obtain the Bagrut matriculation certificate, the Ministry of Education trains teachers for a special function, that of pedagogical coordinator. The pedagogical coordinator must undergo a process of training in order to be able to instruct the teaching staff who teaches these pupils. For many years we planned and directed courses for pedagogical coordinators. The coordinators gain experience of learning and instructing which sees experience and theory as two essential strata in the development of the pedagogical coordinator. The case study presented in this part of the paper is drawn from the ongoing current 2006 course.). The activities and assignments in the course are planned in such a way as to enable the course participants to bring their experience in the field to the learning group. In the group where was created an atmosphere which facilitated and justified sharing experiences of events with friends.

During the discussion about significant events among the group members, one of the group said that she had had a very meaningful experience (the participant whose experience became a teaching and learning text for the whole group is called throughout the paper "Kochav"). All her pupils had succeeded in passing the Bagrut matriculation exam. We suggested to her to look back and review her work process. To try and reconstruct strategies that had led to her success. To try and identify principles according to which she had acted. Following Schon's concepts, we sought to carry out Reflection on action, namely, after the action had already been done, at a distance in time, to reflect upon her teaching action once again.

The assignment offered the opportunity to see in her experience a learning text. A text which would enable her to focus on successes and difficulties, after the performing of the teaching act. The assignment made it possible to have a retrospective view of the practice; introspection based on the ability to reconstruct her experience as a teacher. At the same time she was asked to reconstruct thinking processes from which she could identify principles to develop her role of pedagogical coordinator, a role which requires her to instruct teachers on ways to improve the teaching in order to bring about improved learning achievements.

In order to compare her role as a teacher to her role as a teacher instructor she had to think about her thinking processes in all aspects relating to the creation of her role. She had to focus on "two foci of meta-cognitive thinking, *knowledge* and *control*, *knowledge* which a person has about cognitive processes and products and the ability to control cognitive processes and their outcomes.

The request was acknowledged as being of great value but as being hard to execute. She explained that the difficulty lay in the need to extract from her experience process principles which would enable her to control the cognitive process of her practice. The need to reflect upon the subjective experience as a source for objective learning was perceived as a difficulty.

We decided to begin the assignment by way of reconstruction of all that she was able to recall from the moment of starting her job until the end of the educational action. In order for the reflective reconstruction to be anchored in meta-cognitive thought processes three categories of questions were suggested to Kochav to write about freely. The text obtained as a result of the reconstruction, will be a learning text both for her and us. As instructor, through the text we will be able to teach her to identify the "strategic thinking" which lay behind her practice. This thinking will be translated into principles for developing the roles of pedagogical coordinator and the professional teacher respectively. The whole process will enable her and ourselves to plan a learning encounter with the whole learning group. We decided that the subject of the encounter would be: "There is no school like experience," and the three of us would moderate the encounter.

The theory as a mean of interpreting reality.

Is this difficulty the difficulty of the specific teacher? And also how does the professional literature relate to this difficulty? Educational practice of the above-mentioned kind sees the teacher both as a researcher who researches his own action and also as one who is being researched.

The dual role of a person as researcher and being researched, as object and subject of the human action, is perceived as a difficulty not only by Kochav but also by researchers and academics. Personal experience as a source for learning casts doubt on the validity and degree of effectiveness of the action. On the other hand, it is found that a person's hypotheses about himself affect the practice, despite (and perhaps because) of their subjective importance.

Morris (1981) suggests three components in a person's subjective reflection on his experience. The first he calls *Self Hypotheses*, a person's hypotheses about himself and the reasons for his action. The second he calls *Strategy-Reports*: a person's report on the methods he uses consciously when he deals with a given assignment. The third he calls *Phenomenal-Reports*, the report of a person on the objective bases of the practice.

We decided that the experience would be an opportunity for the whole group to learn from the success of their fellow group member. The case study was perceived as an opportunity for learning which combined theoretical knowledge with their needs as pedagogical coordinators. The development of *experience awareness* in parallel processes of teachers and learners can enable the coordinators to apply the action with the teachers they will have to instruct in the future.

The component which Morris suggested for a person reflecting on the practice process – *Phenomenal Report* - points up the importance of a person's awareness of his attitudes and perceptions about the position. The member of the group thinks that there are objective components for the position: "*About a year and a half ago I was offered the position of pedagogical coordinator in a school. I replied affirmatively and began to study the subject* " That is to say, learning the job is an objective principle which can be right for any functionary.

The components which Morris suggested for a person to reflect upon the practice process – *Self Hypotheses* and *Strategy-Reports* – are subjective components which enable a person to develop *awareness* of his *hypotheses* about the perception of the post, and the strategies he should adopt in order to succeed in it.

She reconstructed: "*...And then I took the decision to teach and also to educate the class. It was important for me not only to be a pedagogical coordinator, but to experience it myself, to make certain and to prove that I was capable of achieving the goals, that I was in fact setting my teacher colleagues.*" She sees in her experience as a teacher a central component of *her perception of the role of pedagogical coordinator*. Her *hypothesis* is that teachers will accept her authority as a coordinator instructing teachers in ways to improve teaching - if she proves that her experience as a teacher has led to an improvement in the ways of teaching and success in the goals which she sets herself.

The 'case study' enabled the group to define several principles bearing on the role of pedagogical coordinator:

*The experience of the coordinator as educator and teacher can become a source of empowerment and confidence.

*One's own conscious experience will be a source of knowledge for learning in the sense of "to practice what one preaches."

The reflective reconstruction enabled us to understand the thoughts about the strategies which can be the means to enable the pupils to progress towards achieving the goal. She reconstructed: "*I taught at a slow pace, and of course I began everything from the beginning, I did not rely on any previous knowledge. After every subject (not whole chapters, but all that I had taught) I would give a test in order to make certain (and not simply to rely on feelings), that they all understood the subject matter. (I didn't want there to be gaps, because then some pupils would fall behind and the gaps between them would only grow bigger). Through the tests I would continue to act, like for instance revising things which most of them had got wrong and had not understood or sufficiently internalized.*"

The 'case study' enabled the group to define several principles bearing on teaching planning:

* Adjusting the learning pace to the needs of the pupils according to their style of learning

* Responsibility for imparting knowledge rests on the teacher – the teacher does not make assumptions about the pupils' knowledge but teaches everything (the pupils in the past studied in junior high schools).

* The responsibility for examining the connection between the teaching planning and the development of the learning rests with the teacher- holding class tests (also with an open notebook) in order to ascertain that the pupils understand the subject matter.

* The class tests are the control mechanisms for the continuation of the teaching planning- to go over a given subject, to reinforce small groups, to give additional exercises on certain subject/s.

*Holding class exercises is an integral part of the teaching planning.

The case study, which is one of many, enables us to conclude that we underwent a significant learning experience. When we finished the preparation for the encounter the trainee teacher wrote: "*Thank you so much. I learnt so much! ...In my opinion the way in which you analyzed things is excellent!- I shall be happy if you continue in this vein. One can learn so much from it.*"

The principles here are regarded as indicators for reflection on a pattern of practice of each of the members of the group as teachers and learners. The story is clear to them because it brings out the experience of a fellow group member and this experience contains elements which they are all familiar with.

From her own experience she understood that she must plan an assignment that would enable her pupils *to reconstruct* their experience as learners, to *make hypotheses* regarding the reasons, the ways and behaviors which led them to success in the Bagrut examination in language and expression. In this way she will begin to experience the application of a pedagogical model based on her experience as a learner, and will translate this into an action pattern as a teacher. In this way the class will be able to learn principles of success, which they will be able to apply in their grade twelve studies. This activity might influence the development of motivation and achievements of the pupils' for the following school year.

We asked the group whether it was worthwhile to plan events that would lead to analysis of situations which reflect the growth process of the pupils as thinking and feeling human beings. Their answer was that their experience as mature adult human beings experiencing a different way of teaching brings home to them the meaning of the way and the method. They also see and understand the need to develop meta-cognitive thinking ability in order to succeed in applying this teaching model in the classroom. Therefore, in their opinion, allocating time to learning of this kind is worthwhile. Regarding its adoption as a work pattern by a teacher, they must continue to learn how to do this.

In conclusion, an effective dialogue which developed *through reconstruction and the interpretation of experience*, influenced the *development of the consciousness* of the person describing the event. It helped the group to progress several steps in developing thinking about the need and ways to effect *pedagogical change in their school*.

Reflection in action – A cognitive challenge

Following the theoretical discussion it is important to present Schon's conception regarding the significance of reflection in the course of action. Whereas in the previous section we dealt with the act of reflection after the action, in this section we shall clarify the concept of *Reflection in action* – the teacher examines his moves in the course of the action itself, and rapidly decides on ways to resolve the problems he is faced with. If he didn't obtain the anticipated results, he revises the situation, tries other solutions and persists in his search for improving the action. When a teacher or pupil examines the action and also corrects what requires correcting in the course of the action, such thinking is what is called *Reflection in action*.

Reflection in action is complex and requires a high level of meta-cognitive thinking. During the action the teacher must observe *the thoughts driving his action*. He must activate control mechanisms in real time. Control mechanisms that will embrace the "whole range of educational practice". He must be aware of the three categories of meta-cognitive thinking, aware of himself, aware of the strategies of the action, aware of the assignment he is performing as a teacher.

Schon maintains that the extent of accuracy and effectiveness of the renewed reflection is *complex* because it must be tested during the action. The analogies between the environmental activity and the planned activity must be more rapid and more accessible, they demand a greater degree of flexibility. The performance of the reflective contemplation during the action itself involves a continued sense of insecurity which derives from the need to create limits and rules in the course of the action dynamic.

The unplanned changes and uncertainty do not arise solely from the fact that a person must draw conclusions, which he must then apply, but also from the fact that he must build cognitive categories such as a fresh understanding of the reality, definition of the problem and choice of other action strategies.

At the same time, *Reflection in action is important* since in this way conclusions drawn can be applied at the time of the experience itself. Because of its complexity, importance and significance, reflection of this type requires experience (Schon, 1987, p. 68).

Dewey's conception with which we opened the discussion on the subject of reflection, - that education and experience go side by side – "*education is a process of living and not preparation for living*,"- can be applied if the teacher and learner can experience learning which sees introspection as both means and content.

It follows from this that the reflection in action represents a cognitive challenge for the performer, and, with all the difficulty this entails, it can contribute to the development of meta-cognitive thinking. Learning of this kind, by its very nature, enables spiral development of thinking abilities, thus reinforcing the significance of experience as contributing to the development of future thinking flexibility.

Meta-cognitive thinking and reflective practice from the application standpoint.

The event we shall refer to is taken from the context of my work in the Department of Educational Sociology at the Hebrew University in Jerusalem. We ran and taught the course "*Involvement in the educational field: theory and practice.*" The aim of the course was to enable outstanding students to gain experience of learning encounters combining theory and practice in one course.

These encounters took place at three levels. The first level focused on relevant theoretical learning. The second level focused on joint learning of an education lesson – a lesson with informal elements in the context of formal education. This lesson was attended by the form teachers, the class pupils and a group of students attending the "Involvement in the educational field: theory and practice" course. The third level focused on students tutoring junior high school pupils, whereby the students gained experience of teaching together with teachers and pupils, as well as experience of academic theoretical learning and teaching and helping pupils to progress.

The lesson was based on the following basic premises:

*Learning takes place in a social structure, and the social structure of the classroom is inseparable from and essential for the entire learning process.

*The social structure is not a given static, but a dynamic system, which can be influenced, and which can be changed and built up in one or another direction.

The activities and assignments in the lesson were planned in a way that enabled the students to express their experience and experiences as learners in the transition from the junior high school to the high school. The joint encounters between the students, the pupils, and myself as instructor, led to the creation of a climate which encouraged the sharing of thoughts, perceptions and feelings. Levavit (for the purposes of the discussion, the reconstruction of the experience of a pupil from the classroom in which we were acting will serve as a case study, and for the purposes of this paper we shall call the pupil Levavit.), an intelligent pupil who had begun with learning and social difficulties, was considered to be a pupil in "drop-out danger". As with the other members of her group, we held regular conversations with the pupils on the significance of their experience as pupils in the junior high school. After two years of experiencing formal and informal encounters, we asked the pupils to stop, to look back over the process they had undergone and to write freely what had been meaningful for them in the education encounters.

Levavit handed us the text and noted that she would be happy if her writing would enable me, the students and the teachers to learn from it as we had done with the texts of pupils during the two years of joint learning.

In Schon's conception, Levavit had performed *Reflection on action*, renewed reflection about an action that had already been performed, at a distance in time.

We called the text "Levavit's Story" since through the story told by Levavit we would be able to focus the discussion on the significance of the pupil learner's self-reflection upon his own stream of consciousness.

Theory as a mean of interpreting reality

Kaniel maintains that meta-cognitive thinking refers to the ability of a person to contemplate himself and to relate consciously to the information he has received about himself, thus enabling him to draw conclusions which can influence his subsequent mental activity. This ability enables a person to gather data about him in all areas (thoughts, feelings, attitudes, approaches) both to preserve and to improve correspondingly. (Kaniel 2001, p. 220).

Levavit begins her letter with *"I shall begin by saying that I feel free with you, and in conversation - in this letter I write to you all that I feel and think."* She uses the sequence "feel and think" as a natural sequence. In the opening sentence she begins to introduce us into her thoughts: *"I think that I am writing to a friend."* She is conscious of her attitude and approach to the assignment: *"Thus I am more open and freer to tell what enters my mind."* that is to say, reconstruction of the process she has undergone is perceived as legitimate.

From an analysis of the whole discourse it can be seen that Levavit succeeds in combining reflection made up from *Reflection on action* with *Reflection in action*. Levavit describes learning actions which she looks back on: *"... I can remember a profound conversation about my having to make a separation between school friends and studies, I remember how much I listened to you and concentrated on your words, and I would say to myself 'How wise that woman is and how right she is and I always thought .to myself that, even if not for my sake, I shall make an effort to improve...then I shall do that for you! Because you told me very true things, even though some of the things, for example, that I can improve also in English- but in the end, you were right that in the way can that one learns education one learn any subject"*

In retrospect the conversations also bring out the understanding of the learning action in the course of its performance. Levavit uses expressions which indicate clearly that during the experience she could reflect on her thought processes, and moreover, from the very fact that she had not succeeded in applying insights in real time she felt frustrated on the one hand, and at the same time very much wanted to apply the insights she had gained. Levavit wrote: *"...I would feel good, and that I suddenly knew myself better."*

The ability which she had developed, to combine meta-cognitive and reflective thinking in the course of the learning action and after the learning action, enabled her to progress from a situation of "being in a situation of dropout danger" to one of having an influence on her friends that they should not drop out.

Meta-cognitive knowledge that can contribute to reflect on the teacher's role

Three types of knowledge are important for meta-cognition: declarative, factual knowledge, procedural knowledge and conditional knowledge.

The three types of knowledge will be the categories through which we shall analyze Levavit's perception regarding the process she has undergone. In our view, the creation of knowledge through this analysis has value and significance since it is created through a pupil's experience and reflection about the process she has undergone. The reconstruction of the process expressed in the form of free writing which is not prompted by questions, enables us to gaze into her "stream of consciousness."

Declarative knowledge- factual knowledge

Heart to heart conversations as a mean

Levavit wrote: " *You asked me in class to think about something which occurs to me from the two years which you taught us, and the first thing which came to my mind was all "the heart to heart conversations" we had "*

Heart to heart conversations represent a significant strategic mean for her experience as a learner.

The first knowledge which we shall want to elicit from her writing will relate to meaning, time, to the place in which the heart to heart talks took place. "*In every conversation which we had (almost) the conversation began with talking in class and would develop also after the lesson, and in the break we would talk and then it would come to me and what was happening to me and what was worth me doing and how I should do this, and at times you would give me a question to think about! "*

The heart to heart conversations were perceived by Levavit as a ritual with a set structure. The talk in class was seen as an opening for personal discourse. The class discourse continued in the break. From class discourse it became a personal discourse aimed at developing Levavit's ability to reflect on the processes which she was experiencing as a learner. The discussion ended with the shaping of a pattern for continued higher order thinking, sparked by a relevant question.

Procedural knowledge

Procedural knowledge includes information about the various actions which must be performed; "procedures describe a broad range of actions in each assignment. They constitute the reservoir of behaviors which a person can call upon, from which he chooses according to the different aims.(Paris, Lipson and Wixson, 1983, 303). In order to obtain the required information we need an answer to the question how to perform such and such in order to obtain such and such? *In our case, how to hold the conversations so that they should achieve their goals?*

The nature of the conversations as a mean for developing strategic thinking

Levavit wrote: "...*We would talk about what I was, or what I had to do in order to improve, afterwards I would feel very good. And sometimes when I was really downhearted, because I hadn't done well in studies, then these conversations helped me a lot, I cannot describe how much. It was not simply some conversation which would help me in education, but it would help me for all the subjects, and it made me feel good that there really was someone who listened to me and not simply listened but concentrated on what I was saying, and also trying to help me after that!*"

The contents of the conversations touched directly upon analysis of Levavit's learning situations. The conversations *related to the situations* in which Levavit had not functioned as expected. Despite the frustrating situation Levavit felt that **the teacher was listening**, concentrating on her words **and trying to help**. That is to say the conversations had characteristics of **support** leading to a good feeling. **Reflecting** situations which could be improved. The supportive relationship influenced the development of the ability to transfer principles from the area of the education lesson which was done in an informal framework to the learning in formal lessons.

Levavit gives an example of a "heart to heart conversation" which expanded the range of her behaviors: "...*We had a conversation last year concerning how sometimes I speak with my friends during the lesson, and then I am not concentrating on the learning and this creates a gap for me, and I also deteriorate and actually show the teachers that I appear not to want to learn, or that my friends speak with me and then I answer them and this also takes me out of concentration, then you gave me ways to be an **internal policeman**- that I should think carefully about what Havatzelet told me, where does this lead to, what is worthwhile for me to do and that I should differentiate between the break when I will be with my friends and in the lesson when I am a different girl- a thinking pupil when we talked in the conversations about the processes which I undergo in correct and good learning, then we spoke about good manners, about behavior which affects no less than the exam mark or the work in the subject, and about the rules – lateness, absences, concentration, speaking in the lesson etc. .I remember a profound conversation about how I must make a distinction between my friends and studies, I remember how much I would listen to you and concentrate on your words, and I would say to myself: "how wise this woman is and how right she is, and I always thought to myself even if not for myself I shall make an effort to improve and truly to make the distinction between friends and learning, then I shall do this for you! Because you told me very true things, even if some of the things, for example that I can also improve in English – but in the end you were right because in the way we study education we can learn any subject, one simply needs the will and motivation to succeed."*

The heart to heart conversations became a mean and a goal, a mean of developing meta-cognitive thinking. Analysis of subject matter which expressed the social and learning reality, led to a change in her perception about the learning.

From the perception that the teacher doesn't know that she doesn't understand English, to gain a perception that success depends on the will and ability to identify the principles through which she succeeds in education. After identifying the principles, she must apply them to other subjects.

Conditional Knowledge

Conditional knowledge refers to knowing why a given strategy works, or when to exercise this skill or strategy and not another. Researchers like Schoenfeld (1985) lay particular stress on its importance. (Collins and Brown, (in press) identified this kind of knowledge as an essential component of successful training projects.

In considering the heart to heart conversations as a strategy we shall try to understand why this approach is preferable to another way.

The teacher's meta-cognitive thinking as a condition for the development of the pupil's meta-cognitive thinking

Levavit writes: "...*What helped me most of all in the conversations was that I knew that you wanted to help me, and that all that you did was only for me, because I saw that how you were fighting for me –in these conversations you opened my mind for me to understand that if I wanted to then I could, and you explained to me how important is the matter of the learning, and the confidence you gave me helped me – this is a part of my development in the last two years, because when I entered grade 7 I was a little shy, I didn't talk in the class and didn't apply what I had internalized, and after we learnt all the process of the learning and norms and all kinds of concepts, then I began to gain confidence and I knew that if I didn't speak and bring out what I had, then no one would know that I had something to say, and then when we had a notebook, and I and you would hold a written dialogue, you told me in a conversation we had in the summer vacation before the return to studies (with Liat) that you think that I was clever and that I had something to say, and that I must say it, and not only in the notebook, because that is how we apply things. And then that is really what I did. What really very much troubles me is that you really wanted me to try and separate the learning from the friends. And I tried, but many times I didn't succeed, and I wanted to, but it was hard for me. I think that now I am already achieving this, and more than that – I have already turned this into a very important norm!*"

Levavit's reconstruction stresses the importance of the teacher's behavior as deriving from meta-cognitive thinking. The teacher teaches the pupil to reflect upon the reality in order to change it. This is a difficult and complex process which the teacher must be aware of and prepared for. Levavit describes a two-year process, a process in which the program instructor took her under her wing. During the two years there were regressions and failures. Levavit describes a situation in which in the course of conversations *she felt and understood* that the instructor wanted the best for her.

She felt that she was disappointing herself since she was not keeping promises, and despite this the heart to heart conversations which focused on analysis of situations continued to be encounters directed at the possibility of building a new reality. Encounters in which two people wished to change reality and it was difficult for both of them.

One may conclude that *the heart to heart conversation* approach, analyzing reality from a desire to build a new reality, in contrast to moralizing conversations and expressions of disappointment, made the difference.

In conclusion- There is no school like experience

Levavit writes: *"...when we had a conversation in the summer vacation, you gave me an assignment – to be a leader and to lead --, of course in a good way, and I think that I have only done this this year- with Sivan, Hili and Reut, and for a moment, when I spoke to them, I would think about you and that I was carrying out the assignment, and suddenly I felt, as it were, that I was imitating you, or more correctly transmitting your words, and I am very happy that this is so "*

Levavit , like many other pupils in the education system, is on the list of pupils defined as "pupils in danger of dropping out". In the framework of a course whose aim is to make a connection between theory and practice, Levavit was given the opportunity to develop meta-cognitive and reflective thinking on the process of her growth as a learner. Levavit is an intelligent pupil. Her development in thinking and understanding preceded the process of making good the learning deficiencies in the syllabus material as required in the context of the formal education. The investment in the development of mega-cognitive thinking through the holding of heart to heart conversations enabled her to progress from a pupil at risk of dropping out to a pupil rescuing her friends, who at the outset had been liable to drag her into dropping out.

After a two-year-plus learning process Levavit prevented her classmates from dropping out. She developed meta-cognitive thinking which enabled her to reconstruct her experience in order to be a counselor for friends who initially had tried to drag her into leaving school, and at the end of the process Levavit had instilled in them the will to continue and to finish their high school studies.

In conclusion Levavit wrote: *"...I have developed greatly and grown from all points of view, both physically or spiritually. Suddenly now I have a well-formed ideas and I know what I am saying In these years I think (in fact I am certain of it) that I have developed and grown on the norms and concepts we spoke about. And how to cope with difficulties and problems.... I feel that I know you very well, I have reached a state that I know each time what you want to say and tell about each period. For example, in the period before the certificates it was already clear that you would speak to us about the semester, about the certificates, about the distribution of criteria, about parents' meetings and so forth. I feel that you also know me from all the conversations and from all we spoke about and all my opinions...I know that all our conversations will remain with me forever in my mind I learnt a terrific amount"*

Concluding discussion: The repercussions on teaching in the field of education

Meta-cognitive thinking relates to knowledge that a person has about his own cognitive processes, their outcomes or anything deriving from them. This ability will manifest itself in a person's consciousness of the thinking that occurs while engaged in performing specific tasks and the use of this consciousness to exercise control over the execution. Meta-cognitive thinking leads to purposeful and controlled behavior.

Kaniel (2001, p. 220) maintains that reflective practice that derives its strength from meta-cognitive thinking must be voluntary and conscious. A person will analyze the results of the reflection. This type of practice enables fresh understanding and rebuilding.

For instance, the rebuilding of *commitment*. Commitment is not a chance matter; and people have the ability to develop commitment at any time. Blasi and Oresick (1986) point out that *commitment is a matter of making a decision- a decision to invest energies in a task*. Paris and Cross (1983) refer to this aspect of meta-cognition as "a marriage between will and skill."

Many pupils, as also some adults, mistakenly associate commitment with the feeling that they have regarding work ("If I enjoy it, if it's a pleasure, I am committed; If I don't enjoy it, or it's not pleasant, I am not committed"). The pupils should not allow their feelings to decide the question of whether it is worth making an effort. Rather, they should consider whether *they decide to commit themselves*.

Planning teaching in which the discussion about commitment derives from the analysis of the contents or of the situations, can enable the pupils to develop awareness of the fact that commitment derives from decision, from adoption of norms, and is dependent on the person and not on external factors. Discussion and examples in the class can clarify the nature and importance of commitment. The teachers can instruct pupils towards two understandings: that all attitudes affect behavior; and that they can be controlled to some extent. The pupils can learn this through discussion of examples from everyday life, where positive attitudes helped people to overcome obstacles or to make impressive achievements. Teachers can also bring as examples successes in learning, especially when a pupil has succeeded in overcoming a problem. In view of the fact that pupils tend to doubt their ability to control their attitudes, it will take time until they develop this understanding. One can give examples from the classroom or from the subject matter, for example in literature or in history, where a change of attitude was of decisive importance regarding the outcome, and then to discuss the way in which this change occurred.

The teacher's introspection on the process of his practice, is likely to help in coping better with the learning and educational tasks. The role of the teacher is to help the learner to develop abilities for introspection.

Meta-cognition may be regarded as a control system of the action; teaching, learning and so forth. It diagnoses and assesses the success of the teacher/learner,

the order of the stages of the performance and their timing. It helps in connecting the inner world of the thinker and the outer world. It helps in understanding attitudes, thoughts and approaches, and thereby can lead to the preservation of what is worth keeping, and the improvement of what needs perfecting.

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DIDACTIC SELF EVALUATION AND ITS DETERMINANT ELEMENTS

CRISTIAN STAN

ABSTRACT. Didactic self evaluation represents an essential component of educational process. This process' unrolling is influenced of two categories of elements: internal elements (endeavour level, immediate expectance level, estimating its own potential, estimating task difficulty) and external elements (teacher's evaluative step, pupil's status, child's status). This article is focused on the description of internal and external elements and of the way in which those elements affect the unrolling of pupil's self evaluation step.

For many years, the structure of educational process was conceived as having only two main elements: teaching, realised by teacher and learning realised at student's level, didactic evaluation was seen as an external element and it appeared after teaching-learning interaction. Nowadays, didactic evaluation is considered integrant part of educational process but we can not say the same thing about didactic self evaluation.

Generally speaking, evaluation's steps are not specific only for instructive-educational activity but also for human activities. No matter human activity's nature, the man needs an evaluation element nearby this activity to realise the degree in which the obtained results are up to experiences level on the base of launching this activity.

Later on, by comparison, they took into consideration at instructive-educational activity level, the need for constructing an evaluation element capable to present this activity's efficiency at registered results level.

The studies about educational sciences area proved the fact that didactic evaluation can not be considered as a separate and independent step in educational process structure, being in fact an activity to which both teaching and evaluation are in a permanent interaction.

So, we tried to enclose didactic evaluation nearby educational process components: teaching and learning. The classical model for educational process is presented in the first image.

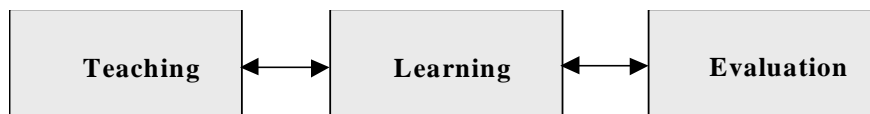


Image I *Classical model of education process*

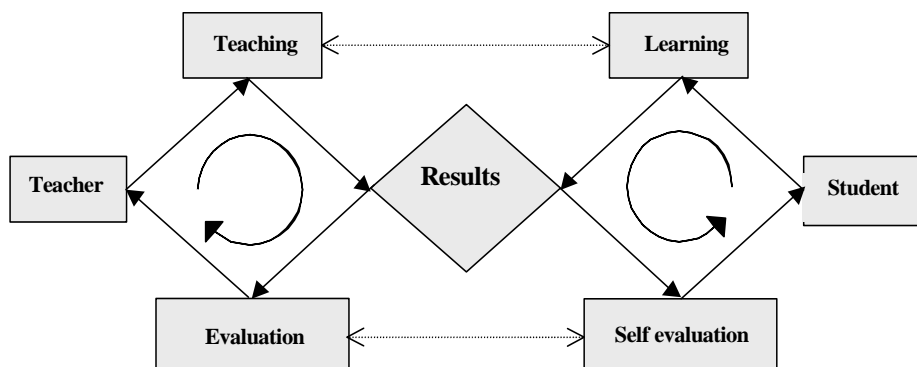


Image II *The model of educational process in interactions*

As we observe in the image above, the educational process according to classical conception includes the interacting elements as fundamental elements and these are: teaching, learning and evaluation.

Even if this model represents a certain step ahead towards previous models, he does not include the self evaluation element.

According to modern didactic principles, the pupil is not a simple object of education but also a conscious subject of education, involved profoundly in the process of self transformation through school training.

In opposition with the enunciated principle, the classical model of educational process structure, by the absence of self evaluation element, gives to the student a secondary and a passive place, in a certain manner, inside the instructive-educational activity.

Educational system's classical structure is centred mainly on pupil's external actions who has a passive position near teacher's active position: the student is thought, the pupil is evaluated, he has only the task to learn what they teach him and to comply with didactic evaluation realised by the teacher.

The pupil is interested but, sometimes can do better then teacher does, on his school evolution, reason for which, he uses frequently didactic self evaluation which is, in several cases, a reference for learning.

Ignoring pupil's self evaluation is risky because it can transform didactic evaluation in appreciation incapable to interfere with pupils inside feelings. This fact makes us to rethink educational process structure in a manner which includes in its components, didactic self evaluation realised at pupil's level.

The findings already enunciated make the rethinking of educational process structure necessary and conceive it from another perspective, different from didactic evaluation place and role in this frame, in order to be clear and explicit represented. In the prolongation of this idea, we propose, in the second image, an

interaction model of educational process structure, capable to offer the possibility of a recovery, justified in our opinion, of student self evaluation step and also the opportunity to give new effective dimensions for pupil's didactic strategies.

As we can see in the image I.6., at educational process level, there are two main activity's spheres, the teacher's and the pupil's, having as modulation point, the results of the person educating oneself. In this context, we make the difference between student's results (transposed effectively in practice) and its potential performances (at a latent level), between two performance types if we find discrepancies.

The main concentration point for pieces of information, to develop activities for both actors for educational binomial, teacher and student, is represented by objective or effective results. The particular relevance for this sector is underlined and distinguished by the following facts:

- a. The professor is teaching to reach educational purposes and he evaluates the measure in which students reach educational purposes, using their performances;
- b. The student has a learning activity materialised at his performances level, he is capable of; performances considered according to its own self evaluation step;
- c. According to objective results, the level is found after didactic evaluation action and the teacher restructures or maintain its way of teaching, monitoring permanent pupil's effective activity;
- d. Objective performance is monitored, through didactic self evaluation, and by pupil who, brings modifications more or less consistent to learning activity, regarding registered findings,
- e. Objective performances area transposed effectively in practice, makes teaching knowing influences not only in a direct manner, regarding evaluative action, but also mediated influences, because at effective base of student's performances, we have especially learning, determined not only by teaching but also by learning style which knows successive adjustments after self evaluation step;
- f. Didactic self evaluation is developed both on external influences conditions of evaluation realised by teacher and also on student's self deliberative action influence, regarding its objective performance level;
- g. Pupil's self evaluation step, except didactic evaluation, is guided several times not only by objective performance level but also by its potential performances;

Synthesizing what we have already mentioned, we can affirm that explicit inclusion of didactic self evaluation inside educational process elements proves not to be only useful but also necessary. The piece of knowledge and the capitalization of didactic potential regarding self evaluation step can contribute, in our opinion, to optimize instructive-educational process at a superior level.

On generic terms, we can define self evaluation as pupil's capacity to elaborate and to express valuable opinions regarding its competences and school

results, and its person, in general. According to didactic horizon, self evaluation is closely connected to school performance and competence and is translated in a set of opinions more or less stable expressed by pupil regarding its personal school status.

Contrary to appearances, didactic self evaluation can not be realised if it does not gets its final form gradually. Self evaluation realised by a pupil has a gradual character, developing sequence by sequence and including many restructuring moments, induced distinctively by main part of factors regarding to which, it interferes. Didactic evaluation analysis leads us to the revelation, from this point of view, of two categories of determinant factors, internal and external.

Pupil's self evaluation step includes at internal factors level, as we can observe in image III, two categories of elements, in a permanent relation of interdependence: the affective motivational element (endeavour and immediate expectation level) and valuing element (valuing its own potential and the difficulty degree of school task).

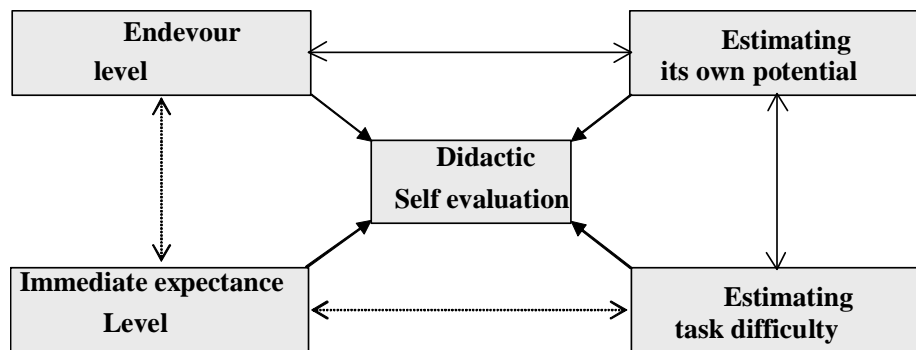


Image III. *Internal determinants of didactic self evaluation*

Endeavour level refers to standards assembly and purposes proposed by subjects to reach on medium and on long term. The researches in this field proved the fact that feeling of failure or success is not connected to school task in itself but with individual endeavour level. Subject's aspiration level is less susceptible for major variations in short period of time.

Immediate expectance level is established regarding endeavour level and aims pupil's expectations for the moment, respective, the objectives proposed by him to reach on short term, objectives regarding a certain task. Immediate expectation level can be superior or inferior to endeavour level and is more fluctuant then the last one, according to the estimation of its own abilities and school task's difficulty degree.

Estimation of its own potential or school competence perceived as a cognitive nature construction according to subject's opinion on its own value, on action's plan. Cognitive representation, fluctuant at pupil but constant at adult, is in

grater part, one's previous experiences consequence and it has an adjuster role in motivation and in the way to involve the task. (Durand, M., 1999).

Task's difficulty appreciation represents beside the level of immediate expectation, the component which register more variations and refers to pupil's effort to establish situation's complexity degree. Correct estimation of task difficulty degree plays a decisive role in pupil's abilities mobilisation.

Synthesizing the facts regarding self evaluation process' internal determinants, we can present the following facts:

- a. Endeavour level, even if it knows in time, a certain stabilisation, is relative fluctuant for pupils, reason for which is necessary to make the evaluation step a permanent support ;
- b. Activation of endeavour level at pupil's real abilities is mediated both by it's personality structure and by its self knowing possibilities and the rules of the group to which he belongs (Levy-Leboyer, C., 1999);
- c. Between endeavour level and immediate expectation level there are elements which are not congruent, the last one is variable according to the estimated degree of school task's difficulty and regarding competence level;
- d. At his term, task's difficulty level is appreciated near the estimation of its own abilities and is a condition for pupil's engagement intensity towards school task, knowing the fact that school tasks are considered too easy and does not lead to a greater motivation then the one estimated as difficult;
- e. Didactic self evaluation knows a multifunctional internal determination, the variations at the level of one sub element determines variations of different degrees at other levels ;

Didactic self evaluation's isolated approach or reducing it at a simple internal self deliberative step and also to an autonomous step, leads to major distortions in the understanding and explanation of this process. Launching, developing and including didactic self evaluation effects are inherent conceptualized such as pupil's engagement in school task solving which is considered, at its term, a contextual one. So, we consider necessary the self evaluation step approach for pupils not only from internal process perspective but also by external dynamics perspective.

Pupil's self evaluation step does not develop under already mentioned internal elements auspice, as we see in image IV, and in action conditions for certain context factors such as: evaluation realised by teacher, colleagues' and parents' appreciations.

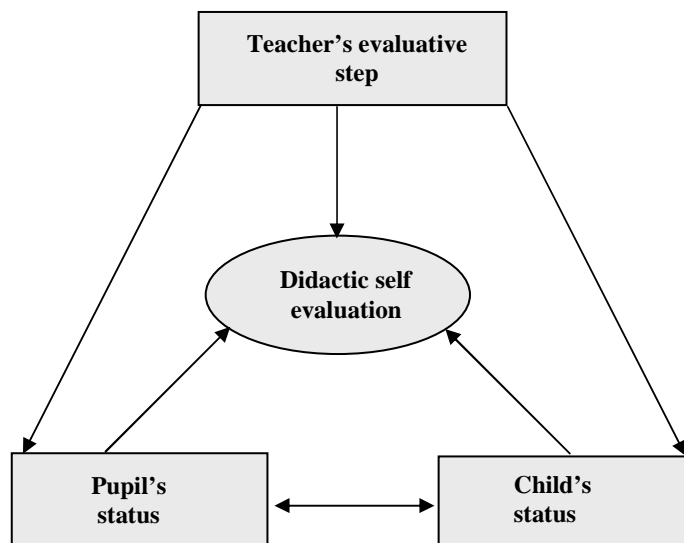


Image IV *External elements for didactic self evaluation*

Didactic evaluation, through teacher's appreciative enunciation (marks, verbal or written appreciations and so on.) represents the main external reference for pupil self evaluation step.

The way in which pupil evaluates himself knows a permanent relation with didactic evaluation realised by teacher who becomes, as a rule, the main source to validate its own appreciations. The pupil gets the external and the official confirmation of its performances through didactic evaluation, and implicit the way of self evaluation.

Didactic evaluation realised by teacher creates at pupil's level, self evaluation premises, after an inner process. This phenomenon is not a spontaneous one because it is necessary, to present in an explicit manner teacher's evaluation step, as a preliminary one. So, pupil's capacity of self evaluation is build in time and involves evaluation action with a training character realised by teacher, which will help the child to know the distance which delimitates self evaluation from evaluation, preparing it to assume the responsibility of self evaluation and to reduce simultaneously this distance.

Pupil's school status is defined as an occupied position or recognised as being occupied by itself inside classroom social relations, especially the behaviours assembly to which the pupil can expect, in a legitimate manner, from teacher's part and from its colleagues according to this position (Doise, W., 1996).

Pupil's classroom is by it structure a comparison space inside which, pupil's status is shaped and concentrated. Colleague's appreciations according to

pupil's success level are at their term, an important level of appreciation for self evaluation step. It is known the fact that, both endeavour level and self image are constructed by a permanent reference to the other, both using all the time, the pupil self evaluation effort.

Pupil to pupil interaction existent inside educational group is released by the formalism characterising teacher-pupil interaction, reason for which, the communication and opinions changed at this level, knows a dynamic and an increased consistency, fact which can not be without any consequences in pupil's self evaluation plan. Knowing his colleagues opinions regarding his person, the pupil knows himself/herself better and makes a better self evaluation.

The child's status is connected both to the type of pupil-parents relation and to the positive or negative appreciation of himself about its success abilities. We refer to parent's opinions set regarding pupil's school efficaciousness.

We consider necessary in this context, both the exposure of the difference between satellite relation and non satellite relation (terms used by Ausubel, D.P., Robinson, F.G., 1991) and other two types of relations effects on pupil's self evaluation step.

Satellite relation is characterised by the fact that pupil makes no efforts to have an independent social position, he/she benefits from an inner atomization and is pleased with the obtained position derived from parent's sure social status. The pupil characterised by the existence of a child's status of satellite type, gets its social status by identification with his parents, the belief in its own value, feelings which deaden school failures not to be considered disasters. For satellite pupil, marks are a simple way to satisfy parent's expectations and school efficaciousness is not consider a base for its position or a reference for its value as a person.

Non satellite relation characterised the pupil who does not have a social status derived from parent's social status and who regards their dependence towards parents as a conjuncture relation. In this situation, pupil is valued from external point of view by its parents, because pupil's marks are a way to consolidate their own social status. This type of child status makes the pupil to endeavour to a social position through its own realisations. For "non-satellite" pupil, expectation level is increased and its school results are basic elements for its personal values. Sometimes, the endeavour for this type of pupil is not realist near its own possibilities and is extreme resistant to change according to external events, which contradicts them. This fact makes non satellite pupil to be sometimes less adjustable and more vulnerable in failure school situations.

Summarizing what we already said, we consider that is necessary to present external nature's determinant factors, previously enumerated, acts on self evaluation step both for inter correlated and mediated pupil, by interpretative assembly of inner elements.

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PROGRAMMES DE STIMULATION PRÉCOCE DESTINÉ AUX ENFANTS AVEC DES TROUBLES DU SPECTRE AUTISTIQUE

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ABSTRACT. *Early Stimulation Programmes Meant for Autistic Children.* The author of this study starts from the assumption that the programmes and techniques of early stimulation and education are mainly based on research that emphasises the relation between nature and nurture, between the inborn tendencies and the things learned in early childhood. The following essential aspects are analysed: a) the early diagnosis of autism; b) the characteristics of early stimulation in autistic children; c) the proper techniques of assessing autism and the Asperger syndrome; d) the characteristics of the most renowned programmes of early stimulation and education for children with autistic disorders (TEACCH, LOVAAS, T.E.D. etc.) and their effectiveness.

Programme zur frühen Stimulierung der autistischen Kinder. Der Autor geht von der Voraussetzung aus, dass die Strategien und Programme zur frühen Stimulation und Erziehung von Kindern meist auf die Forschung basieren, die sich auf das Angeborene, Angeeignete und Erlernete im jungen Kindesalter beziehen. Es werden folgende wichtige Aspekte analysiert: a) Charakteristika der frühen Stimulierung der autistischen Kinder; b) frühe Diagnose des Autismus; c) angemessene Techniken in der Evaluierung des Autismus und des Asperger-Syndroms; d) Charakteristika und Effizienz der bekanntesten Stimulierungs- und Erziehungsprogramme für Kinder mit autistischen Verhaltensstörungen (TEACH, LOVAAS, TED, usw.).

Schlüsselwörter:

Autismus, Asperger-Syndrom, früher Eingriff, frühe Diagnose, Stimulierungs- und Erziehungsprogramme für Kinder mit autistischen Verhaltensstörungen (TEACH, LOVAAS, TED, usw.)

1. Interaction inné-acquis et le stimulation précoce

Les programmes de stimulation précoce ont été développés pour trois types de population: a) enfants vulnérables car appartenant à un milieu socio-économique défavorisé et peu stimulant sur le plan éducatif; b) enfants atteints d'une pathologie connue entraînant un retard de développement; c) enfants à risque d'origine prénatale et périnatale (prématurés, enfants de faible poids de naissance).

Des programmes de stimulation précoce sont ciblés sur l'enfant lui-même, soit sur la famille, ou combinés pour aider à la fois l'enfant et sa famille. Ils sont destinés à augmenter les compétences des enfants, à diminuer leurs retards de développement, tout en assistant les parents.

Les programmes d'intervention et de stimulation précoce sont développés à partir des notions de *plasticité cérébrale* et d'*interaction inné-acquis*. Les connaissances sur la plasticité cérébrale nous apprennent qu'elle est très dépendante de l'âge. Les travaux neurophysiologiques et neuropsychologique sur la plasticité cérébrale ont permis de définir les concepts de "*période critique*" comme période de temps limité où des conditions normales de développement permettent le développement normal d'une fonction, et de "*période sensible*" comme la période de temps limité où des conditions anormales peuvent modifier la structure ou la fonction d'une région corticale. Ces travaux concernent donc la plasticité sensorielle au niveau des "cartes corticales" et leur réorganisation possible. Cette plasticité corticale a également été décrite au niveau des systèmes sensoriels, par exemple visuel, auditif, tactile, mais aussi au niveau du système moteur. Elle sous-tend la prise en charge et stimulation précoce nécessaire des enfants déficients.

Selon Jakobson (1978), Changeaux et Danchin (1976), au cours du développement normal, l'évolution de la densité des connexions synaptiques se caractérise par une hyperproduction initiale de connexions suivie d'une diminution des connexions redondantes. Il existerait ainsi une "révision synaptique" associée à une réduction progressive de synapses par neurone.

La révision synaptique, qui a été appelée "validation fonctionnelle" par Jakobson ou "stabilisation sélective" par Changeaux et Danchin, serait un processus développemental qui favoriserait le maintien des connexions nerveuses activées par les stimulus extérieurs, et éliminerait des connexions surnuméraires moins activées par les mêmes stimulus, pour aboutir progressivement enfin à l'organisation corticale de l'adulte. Ce processus constituerait la base de la plasticité cérébrale (Gentaz, Badan, 2000, p. 45).

La compréhension de phénomène de l'organisation corticale et de phénomène de plasticité cérébrale pourrait avoir des implications positive pour les déficients inclusivement par une approche multidisciplinaire des programmes de stimulation précoce.

La connaissance des différents mécanismes du développement cérébral des premières années de vie tels que la stabilisation synaptique, la réorientation axonale, le bourgeonnement axonal et dendritique et le recrutement des projections transitoires (François et Bonnier, 1991), phénomènes précoces très dépendants de l'expérience de chaque individu, a influencé un courant de pensée de type "tout est joué avant 4 ans". Ce courant de pensée doit cependant être modulé par la mise en évidence des interactions constantes entre les capacités biologiques d'un individu et l'influence de son environnement. On connaît mieux maintenant par exemple les processus de plasticité tradive ou encore les possibilités de compensation cognitive de déficits précoces par un milieu de vie très stimulant (Netchine-Grynberg, 1999).

Selon Rapport d'Inserm (2004, p. 156), l'influence de l'environnement sur les problèmes développementaux d'origine pré- ou périnatale peut schématiquement se situer à trois niveaux différents: a) les facteurs d'environnement représentent par eux-

mêmes un facteur de risque (exemple: le syndrome d'alcoolisation foetale); b) ils peuvent être un frein à l'accès à des techniques d'aide ou de réadaptation; c) facteurs environnementaux peuvent combiner leurs effets aux autres types d'agression ayant entraîné des difficultés de développement ou des lésions cérébrales, créant un effet de "double danger". Ces deux derniers aspects sous-tendent le désir de faire bénéficier le plus rapidement possible les enfants cérébro-lésés ou à risque de toutes les possibilités de "compensation maximale". Par exemple, l'évaluation des techniques de stimulation précoce dans les troubles envahissants du développement ou des techniques de stimulation précoce dans les troubles du spectre autistique a montré la nécessité de les mettre en pratique le plus tôt possible (Perry, Condillac, 2003).

2. Prise en charge et stimulation précoce des enfants avec des troubles du spectre autistique

La stimulation est le principe essentiel de l'éducation précoce. Toutes les expériences effectuées sur la stimulation des enfants font apparaître des principes généraux d'application:

- a) La stimulation du développement doit suivre les étapes du développement et amener l'enfant à acquérir les habiletés au moment où il est prêt. Il faut donc évaluer où se situe l'enfant et stimuler ensuite pour qu'il accède à de nouvelles habiletés.
- b) La stimulation doit être globale et concentrer tous les sens: visuel, auditif, tactile et moteur.
- c) La sur-stimulation doit être autant évitée que la sous-stimulation; de ce fait, le programme de stimulation doit s'appliquer progressivement. Graduellement, de nouvelles activités s'ajoutent lorsque l'enfant progresse et acquiert une nouvelle étape du développement.
- d) Un programme de stimulation doit fournir à l'enfant un milieu de vie et des activités qui lui permettent d'évoluer harmonieusement.
- e) Les activités courantes de soin et d'interaction avec l'enfant doivent faire partie du programme de stimulation. Le fait d'utiliser et d'enrichir les activités courantes de la vie quotidienne rend le programme accessible à tous, l'enracine véritablement dans le milieu de vie.

Les programmes et les plans personnalisés de stimulation sont conçus de façon à offrir à l'enfant des activités qui lui sont agréables, qui requièrent une interaction avec des parents et qui stimulent très souvent plus d'un aspect du développement à la fois. Une activité, par exemple, peut permettre à l'enfant de développer sa motricité, mais aussi sa capacité d'imitation et d'interagir dans le plaisir avec parents ou avec les intervenants.

Dans le passé, les enfants souffrant de syndrome autistique n'étaient souvent diagnostiqués qu'au moment de l'entrée à l'école primaire. Actuellement, dans la plupart des pays, l'âge moyen auquel les enfants sont évalués et diagnostiqués

se situe aux environ de 3-4 ans. Il est extrêmement difficile de faire le diagnostic de l'autisme chez des enfants très jeunes, de moins de 1 an, car leur repertoire comportemental est trop restreins pour identifier avec fiabilité les symptômes typiques du syndrome autistique. Cependant, la plupart des parents commencent à s'inquiéter du développement de leur enfant aux alentours de 15 – 18 mois, en particulier s'ils sont déjà parents d'un enfant plus grand et donc sont plus aptes à identifier de manière précoce les premiers symptômes d'un développement anormal.

2.1. Le diagnostic précoce de l'autisme

La détection rapide de l'autisme permet un diagnostic précoce. Grâce au diagnostic précoce, les parents comprennent plus tôt pourquoi leur enfant présente un comportement si inhabituel et peuvent réagir plus vite et d'autant plus efficacement à la situation. L'intervenant doit bien connaître les symptômes de l'autisme, afin d'être en mesure de l'adresser le plus tôt possible à un spécialiste (tableau I).

Tabelau I

Les signes précoces de l'autisme (selon J.-Ch. Juhel, 2000, p. 302-303)

Âge	Développement	Comportement
0 à 6 ans	Moteur: absence d'attitude anticipatrice, anomalie de la motricité et du tonus (hypotonie, attitudes inhabituelles) Perceptif: indifférence au monde sonore, anomalies du regard. Social: défaut de contact par le regard, anomalies des premières émission vocales.	Bébé trop calm ou trop excité. Troubles du sommeil et de l'alimentation.
6 à 12 ans	Moteur: confirmation des particularités motrices, hypo ou hypertonie, anomalies des gestes, de l'attitude. Social: activités solitaires, absence d'intérêt pour les personnes, défaut de contact; ne se laisse pas facilement consoler; peu ou pas d'émissions vocales, peu ou pas de mimiques.	Utilisation inhabituelle des objets (gratter, frotter), habitudes bizarrer: jeux de doigts et de mains devant les yeux, balancements, hypo- ou hyperactivité
1 à 2 ans	Moteur: jeux pauvres, retrait: fascination pour des mouvements, des lumières, des sons (musique); difficulté générale à évoquer des représentations mentales. Sociales: ansence de développement du langage, indifférence.	Stéréotypies. Difficulté à exprimer des émotions et à comprendre celles des autres.
2 à 4 ans	Communication: retard ou absence dans le développement du langage; compréhension amoindrie du langage; absence de gests appropriés; tendance à	Manipulation étrange des objets (alignement ou pivotement); mouvement inhabituels du corps

	<p>répéter ce qu'on lui dit; façon inhabituelle de parler (voix atone, arythmique, criarde ou chantante).</p> <p>Social: solitude, retrait; ne recherche pas le réconfort, même quand il est malade, blessé ou fatigué; évite le regard d'autrui; conscient de la présence d'autrui; n'utilise pas le jeu symbolique, ne manifeste pas d'imagination dans les activités; réaction non conventionnelle face à l'émotion de l'autre.</p>	<p>(battements rapides des mains, cognements de la tête); attachement à des objets inhabituels; actes routiniers déraisonnables; difficulté dans l'apprentissage de la propreté.</p>
4 ans et plus	<p>Communication: langage expressif limité; usage rare ou nul des gestes appropriés; usage impropre des pronoms, des énoncés, des répétitions, des remarques des autres; difficulté à l'égard du langage abstrait.</p> <p>Social: traite les autres comme des objets; peu conscient de l'existence ou des sentiments des autres; ne joue pas avec les autres; peu ou pas de réactions émotives ou réactions inhabituelles; réagit de façon négative aux marques physiques d'affection; é comprend pas les conventions sociales.</p>	<p>Préoccupation pour un sujet d'intérêt unique ou pour plusieurs sujets restreints; besoin excessif de répétitivité et de constance; attachement à des objets; fascination devant des objets qui tournoient; besoin de routine; aime les tâches impliquant l'usage machinal de la mémoire (répétitionj de dates, de listes questions; langage souvent hors de propos; d'articles etc.)</p>

Le dépistage de l'autisme et des troubles du spectre autistique peut être conçu à trois niveaux: a) dépistage systématique en population générale ; b) la détection précoce de l'autisme chez les enfants pour lesquels des problèmes de développement de nature et de sévérité variables ont déjà été identifiés; c) l'activité d'évaluation et de diagnostic d'équipes spécialisées dans le diagnostic de l'autisme et de syndrom d'Asperger, qui confirment ou non la présence de la pathologie chez l'enfant. La présence des signes d'alerte absolue, même s'ils ne sont pas exclusivement spécifiques des troubles envahissants du développement, devrait alors déclencher un examen secondaire des enfants. Les signes d'alerte absolue sont: a) pas de babillage à 12 mois; b) pas de gestes (pointage, au revoir de la main ...) à 12 mois; c) pas de combinaisons de deux mots spontanées (pas seulement écholaliques) à 24 mois; d) n'importe quelle perte de compétence (de langage ou sociale) à tout âge.

Cheklis for autism in toddlers (le CHAT) est le premier instrument développé à des fins de dépistage systématique chez des enfants de 18 mois dans la population en Grande-Bretagne. Il comprend des questions sur le jeu social, l'intérêt pour les autres enfants, le jeu symbolique, le pointage protodéclaratif, attention conjointe. Il contient également des questions contrôles (par exemple sur le jeu physique et corporel) qui ne devraient pas être affectées dans l'autisme, et

questions permettant d'indexer la présence d'un retard mental ou motor associé. Une extension de CHAT est *Modified checklist for autism in toddlers (M-CHAT)*, orientée vers les enfants de 24 mois. Il possède de meilleurs qualités métrologiques que le CHAT, repose sur le parent seulement et ne nécessite pas de participation directe ni de formation des professionnels.

La mise au point d'un équivalent du CHAT utilisable au cours de la première année est actuellement en cours. (Rapport Inserm, 2004, p. 242). Les anomalies de la communication et du langage sont beaucoup plus difficiles à repérer chez un enfant d'âge préverbal. Il en est de même pour les anomalies des interactions sociales qui tendent à être plus visible lorsque l'enfant commence à fréquenter une crèche ou une garderie. Plus ce dépistage se fera tôt, plus la en charge thérapeutique, pédagogique et psychologique sera efficace.

Le tableau II propose un résumé des évaluations multidisciplinaires et des mesures d'évaluation spécifiques recommandées pour les enfants avec des troubles du spectre autistique.

Tableau II

Résumé des pratiques exemplaires en matière d'évaluation de l'autisme
(adapté selon Perry et Condillac, 2003, p. 41)

Portée de l'évaluation	Mesures couramment utilisé	Mesures optionnelles	Commentaires
Diagnostic	- DSM-IV, -Childhood Autism Rating Scale (CARS) -Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule –Generic (ADOS-G)	- Autism Behavior Checklist (ABC), -Autism Diagnostic Interview Revised (ADI-R) -autres questionnaires, entretiens, observations.	Diagnostic découlant du jugement clinique d'un clinicien expérimenté (médecin ou psychologue) se fondant sur l'observation du sujet (y compris les interactions sociales et les communications), ses antécédents et des mesures types.
Niveau cognitif	WPPSI, WISC, Bayley, Stanford-Binet	Autres mesures spécifiques d'évaluation cognitive: mémoire, attention... tests neuropsychologiques au besoin.	Ecourir au test correspondant le mieux à l'âge et au niveau de développement du sujet, y compris les aptitudes verbales, non verbales et globales avec seuil adéquat et se fondant sur les normes récentes; une grande compétence de l'administration du test est nécessaire.

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Niveau adaptatif	-Vineland Scales of Adaptive Behavior (VABS) ou -Scales of Independent Behavior-Revised (SIB-R)		Information fondée sur l'entrevue avec les parents.
Langage/Communication	-MacArthur Communicative Development Inventories; -Communication and Symbolic Behavior Scales (CSBS); -Sequenced Inventory of Communication Development (SICD) -Rosetti Infant-Toddler Language Scale	Évaluation officielle au besoin des aptitudes préverbaux, phonologiques et langagières.	Recours à un ensemble de tests types (grande compétence nécessaire dans l'administration du test) , les observations et l'entrevue avec les parents
Niveau de fonctionnement/curriculum/comportement	-Portage -The Assessment of Basic Language and Learning Skill (ABLLS); -Revised Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Early Development	Évaluation fonctionnelle des comportements problèmes au besoin.	Comprend les interactions sociales et le jeu et pas simplement l'évaluation des compétences scolaires et langagières.
Examens médicaux et autres évaluations	Obtenir les antécédents médicaux et les rapports précédents	Évaluation au besoin des déficiences sensorielles et motrices, test de dépistage du plomb en cas d'inquiétudes de nature pica ou environnementale, évaluation métabolique au besoin et EEG de sommeil en cas de régression ou de crise épileptique.	EEG et procédures d'imagerie qui ne sont pas couramment recommandés.

La précocité du dépistage va jouer un rôle majeur dans le pronostic de développement de l'enfant autiste, et dans la qualité de vie de son entourage (Magerotte, 2002). Contrairement à l'autisme qui peut être diagnostiqué de façon fiable avant l'âge de 2 ans, *le diagnostic du syndrome Asperger* est plus souvent posé lorsque les enfants atteignent l'âge scolaire. Or, lorsqu'on leur pose des questions à ce sujet, les parents peuvent souvent se souvenir d'avoir constaté l'apparition de signes du handicap chez leur enfant avant l'âge de 3 ans. Ceci est possiblement dû au fait que les enfants atteints du syndrome d'Asperger présentent habituellement des attitudes verbales moyennes ou supérieures à la moyenne ainsi qu'un développement social assez normal dans les premières années de vie. Ils ne présentent pas non plus les retrads développementaux ainsi que les problèmes de comportement qui inciteraient les parents à s'adresser très tôt à un service d'évaluation. Des praticiens bien intentionnés qui ignoraient qu'il avait chevauchement des symptômes de ces deux types de troubles ont posé d'autre diagnostics (autisme, trouble obsesivo-compulsif etc). Certaines des principales similitudes et différences entre les groupes de personnes autistes et du syndrome d'Asperger figurent dans le tableau III.

Tableau III.

Comparaison entre l'autisme et le syndrome d'Asperger
(selon Perry et Condillac, 2003, p. 43)

	Autisme	Syndrome d'Asperger
Début des symptômes	entre 1 et 3 ans	après l'âge de 3 ans
Développement langagier précoce	retard dans le développement	maîtrise langagière (qu'on peut même considérer précoce)
Aptitudes motrices	correspondantes au niveau de développement	Maladroitesse qui va en augmentant
Aptitudes intellectuelles générales	les plus souvent de beaucoup inférieurs à la moyenne	les plus souvent moyennes ou supérieures à la moyenne
Aptitudes spatiales ou visuelles	plutôt fortes	plutôt faibles
Aptitudes verbales (p. ex.: vocabulaire et compréhension)	plutôt faibles	plutôt fortes
Aspects pragmatiques sociaux du langage (p. ex.: conversation, prosodie, expression non verbale).	plutôt faibles	plutôt faibles
Comportements et intérêts répétitifs.	maniérismes physiques plus fréquents	maniérismes verbaux/cognitifs plus fréquents.

Pour être en mesure de distinguer plus facilement l'autisme du syndrome d'Asperger, il convient de tenir compte du profil cognitif de l'enfant faisant l'objet de l'évaluation. La plupart des chercheurs s'entendraient pour dire que pour déterminer si une personne est atteinte d'autisme par opposition au syndrome d'Asperger, il est nécessaire d'évaluer ses aptitudes cognitives, motrices et de communication ainsi que de faire des recherches approfondies sur ses antécédents, son niveau du fonctionnement actuel ainsi que ses symptômes observables. Chaque fois que c'est possible, il conviendrait de recourir à une évaluation multidisciplinaire faisant appel à la participation, selon cas, d'un psychiatre, d'un psychologue, d'un psychopédagogue spécialisée, d'un pédiatre développemental, d'un orthophoniste, d'un psychomotricienne, d'un ergothérapeute.

Une réévaluation effectuée à fréquemment l'avantage supplémentaire de permettre aux aidants naturels de mieux comprendre les capacités de l'enfant autiste ou de l'enfant avec le syndrome d'Asperger, ce qui permet d'adapter plus adéquatement les traitements, les programmes de stimulation précoce et les milieux de vie à leurs besoins.

2.2. Les programmes de stimulation précoce

La diversité des profils autistiques implique que les prises en charge et les programmes de stimulation précoce soient adaptées à chacun, en fonction des capacités, des particularités et des environnements. La progression passera donc nécessairement par un aménagement de l'environnement et un soutien pluridisciplinaire du développement.

Les perspectives d'une prise en charge précoce sont prometteuses. Grâce à une intervention et une stimulation précoce intensive, les chances de modifier sensiblement la trajectoire développementale de l'enfant autiste ou de l'enfant avec syndrome d'Asperger sont importantes. Les interventions et les programmes de stimulation précoce utilisées par les praticiens et par les familles sont de différentes natures et de différentes catégorie (tableau IV).

Tableau IV.

Interventions et programmes de thérapie et de stimulation précoce chez l'enfant autiste ou l'enfant avec syndrome d'Asperger

(selon Schopler, Lansing et Waters, 1993; Barthelemy, Hameury et Lelord, 1995; Perry et Condillac, 2003; Magerotte, 2002; Carlier et Doyen, 2005)

Catégorie d'interventions et de programmes	Variante d'interventions et du programmes
1. Interventions sensori-motrices	1.1. Thérapie de l'intégration sensorielle ("Sensory Integration")- Schopler, Lansing et Waters, 1993 1.2. Rééducation auditive (RA) – "Auditory Integration Training" (AIT) 1.3. Thérapies visuelles Exercices pour imitation, perception, motricité générale, motricité fine et pour coordination oeil-main (activités de TEACCH)

<p>2. Interventions fondées sur le langage et la communication</p>	<p>2.1. Communication augmentative 2.2. Système de communication par échange d'images ("Picture Exchange Communicati System" - PECS) 2.3. Approche du comportement verbal (Verbal Behaviour Approach") 2.4. Communication facilitée 2.5. Modèle de développement social pragmatique ("Developmental Social-Pragmatic Model " – "DPS") – Wertherby, Schuler et Prizant, 1997. 2.6. Le modèle SCERTS – une approche personnalisée pour développer la capacité de communication (Prizant, Wertherby et Rydell, 2000).</p>
<p>3. Interventions prosociales et intervention fondées sur le jeu</p>	<p>3.1. Histoires sociales 3.2. Entraînement fondé sur les scénarios sociaux 3.3. Enseignement par les pairs 3.4. Entraînement à la théorie de l'esprit 3.5. Intervention fondé sur le développement des relations</p>
<p>4. Programmes pour l'acquisition d'habilités générales</p>	<p>4.1. Enseignement comportemental 4.2. Aides structures environnementales 4.2.1. Aides temporelles afin d'échelonner les événements dans le temps; 4.2.2. Aides procédurières pour préciser les étapes d'une activité ou la relation des élémentsw aux événements ou aux personnes. 4.2.3. Aides spatiales afin de fournir l'information sur l'organisation de l'environnement. 4.2.4. Aides à l'assertivité qui favorisent l'établissement de rapports ou qui permettent à la personne d'exercer un controle sur son environnement 4.3. Pictogrammes</p>
<p>5. Psychothérapies expressives</p>	<p>Thérapies par médiation artistique: musicothérapie; danse-thérapie; thérapies par l'expression plastique (dessin, peinture, modelage, collage, les assemblages); le photolangage; le photodrame, le masque; les contes.</p>
<p>6. Programmes de vision globale</p>	<p>6.1. TEACCH ("Treatment and Education of Autistic and related Communication Handicaped Children") – qui offre une vaste gamme de services destiné aux enfants, aux adolescents et aux adultes autistes ainsi qu'à leurs familles et leur collectivité. Les activités de TEACCH sont pour: imitation, perception, motricité générale, motricité fine, coordination oeil-main, performance cognitive, compétence verbale, autonomie, sociabilité et pour comportement (auto-mutilation, agressivité, comportement destructeur) - Schopler, Lansing et Waters, 1993 6.2. Intervention comportementale intensive ("Intensive Behavioural Intervention" – "IBI")</p>

	<p>6.3. L'analyse comportementale appliquée ("Applied Behaviour Analysis" – "ABA") – Lovaas, 1987.</p> <p>6.4. Le modèle fondé sur le développement, les différences individuelles et les relations ("Developmental, Individual, Difference, Relationship (DIR) Model") – Greenspan et Wieder (1997)</p> <p>6.5. Le modèle Denver, fondé sur une adaptation aux besoins des enfants autistes du modèle Stern de développement interpersonnel lors de l'enfance et de la théorie des systèmes dynamiques (Rogers et al., 1991, 2001)</p>
7. Interventions proposées dans le cas de comportements difficiles	<p><i>Les stratégies comportementales:</i></p> <p>7.1. Les stratégies visant à accroître le comportement souhaitable (stratégies d'amélioration du comportement);</p> <p>7.2. Les stratégies visant à réduire le comportement non souhaitable (stratégies de réduction du comportement);</p> <p>7.3. Les stratégies visant à enseigner des nouvelles habilités (stratégies éducatives) ;</p> <p>7.4. Les stratégies visant à prévenir les problèmes de comportement en modifiant l'environnement (stratégies écocomportementales).</p> <p>7.5. Aides comportementales positives (méthodes non intrusives) – ("Positive Behaviour Support") – Koegel et al., 1996; Jackson et Veeneman Panyan, 2002)</p>
8. Interventions biomédicales	<p>8.1. Contraintes chimique (médicaments neuroleptiques/antipsychotiques)</p> <p>8.2. Autres approches biomédicales (l'administration de hormones, les régimes alimentaires).</p>

2.3. Évaluation des principales programmes. Considérations relatives à la réussite des interventions précoces

La diversité des profils autistiques implique que les prises en charge soient adaptées à chacun enfant, en fonction des capacités, des particularités et des environnements. Grâce à une intervention précoce intensive les chances de modifier sensiblement la trajectoire développementale des enfants autistes et la qualité de vie de son entourage sont importantes (Magerotte, 2002; Rogé, 2002).

Les thérapies pour l'autisme sont fondées en large partie sur *le principe comportemental de conditionnement opérant* (méthode Lovaas) ainsi que sur les *approches psycho-éducatives* et *comportementales* centrées sur l'acquisition des compétences cognitives et développementales (méthode TEACCH, méthode "Thérapeutique d'Échange et de Développement" – "T.E.D."). Les deux approches sont utilisées dans une perspective de normalisation scolaire ou sociale.

1) L'efficacité de programme Lovaas

A partir de l'année 1965, Lovaas entreprend des études sur une durée de sept ans dans le but d'identifier des variables reliées à l'efficacité du traitement de l'autisme par le programme comportemental de conditionnement opérant (Lovaas et al., 1973). Un schème expérimental à niveau de base multiple en fonction des sujets est utilisé. Ces protocoles permettent de vérifier l'effet du traitement en effectuant des analyses inter-sujets et intra-sujets. Les programmes éducatifs visent l'acquisition de la parole, qui constitue 80 % des objectifs d'intervention: a) imitation verbale; b) identification d'objets significatifs; c) développement de concepts plus abstraits, tel que les couleurs, les prépositions ou les verbes. De plus, des habilités sociales et d'autonomie sont enseignées.

Les données du premier suivi sont tout d'abord présentées. Premièrement, la fréquence des comportements non appropriés diminue: auto-stimulation passe de 23 % à 10 % du temps et l'écholalie de 5 % à 2 % du temps. Deuxièmement, les comportements adaptés augmentent. La fréquence moyenne du langage approprié passe de 2 à 8 %, les comportements sociaux non verbaux vont de 4 % à 10 % et le jeu approprié augmente de 22 % à 45 %. Sur le plan des autres mesures, soit les quotients intellectuels et le niveau de comportement adaptatifs, les sujets présentent une augmentation de leur performance. Le quotient intellectuel est mesuré chez dix-neuf sujets. Quatorze sujets ne répondent pas à l'examinateur avant le traitement. Lors du suivi, ils collaborent et obtiennent des Q.I. qui les situent entre 30 et 75. Un dernier sujet passe d'un Q.I. de 80 à 100.

Des mesures effectuées deux ans plus tard indiquent que les enfants ont perdu leurs acquisitions et les comportements non-appropriés sont réapparus. Ces données permettent donc de conclure que le traitement est responsable des apprentissages de l'enfant puisqu' aussitôt le traitement interrompu, les comportements autistiques réapparaissent pour remplacer les comportements sociaux acquis. Lovaas et al. (1973) identifient deux faiblesses du traitement. D'une part, les enfants accusent toujours des retards de développement suite à la thérapie. D'autre part, les acquis ne se maintiennent pas si les parents ou les intervenants ne poursuivent pas le traitement au domicile de l'enfant.

Un nouveau programme thérapeutique a été appliqué par Lovaas (1987) – "Young Autism Project" (1970-1984), suit *les critères* suivants:

- a) Des sujets plus jeunes sont choisis, âgés de deux à quatre ans, ce qui vise à faciliter la généralisation des apprentissages;
- b) Le traitement est plus intensif; il dure au moins quarante heures par semaine pour minimum de deux ans;
- c) La thérapie a lieu à la maison;
- d) Tous les parents suivent un entraînement afin de faire partie intégrante de l'équipe thérapeutique.

Lors de la première année, trois objectifs ont été visés: a) augmenter la fréquence de comportements d'obéissance, tels que répondre à une demande, imiter

des gestes, des mots et des comportements de jeux; b) réduire les comportements d'autostimulation et d'agressivité; c) entraîner les parents à application du traitement à la maison.

Lors de la deuxième année, ces objectifs sont poursuivis et l'emphase est mise sur le développement des habiletés langagières complexes et d'habiletés d'interaction sociales. De plus, une intégration dans une pré-maternelle ordinaire est effectuée avec une enseignante qui accepte qu'un thérapeute soit présent pour assurer la poursuite du traitement. Pendant la troisième année, l'enfant entre en maternelle. Le traitement est alors réduit à 10 heures ou moins et vise l'expression des émotions et l'apprentissage d'habiletés préscolaires et scolaires, telles que habiletés de base en lecture, écriture et en mathématiques.

Afin d'augmenter la fréquence d'un comportement acquis, Lovaas utilise les renforcements positifs et les renforcements négatifs.

L'analyse des résultats révèle que le groupe expérimental présente des niveaux intellectuel et scolaire supérieurs aux groupes contrôles. Dans le groupe expérimental, neuf enfants (47 %) réussissent leur première année ordinaire et obtiennent un Q.I. normal, variant de 94 à 120 ! Huit enfants (42 %) réussissent leur première année dans une classe pour troubles du langage et obtiennent un Q.I. variant de 59 à 95 (soit de la déficience légère à l'intelligence normale). Deux enfants sont placés dans une classe pour enfants autistes et déficients intellectuels et se situent au niveau de la déficience intellectuelle profonde (Q.I. < 30). Deux ans plus tard, deux enfants changent de niveau scolaire. Un enfant régresse: d'une classe pour troubles de langage, il est replacé dans une classe pour enfants autistes. Un autre enfant progresse: d'une classe pour troubles de langage, il est transféré dans une classe ordinaire.

Les résultats d'une analyse de variance révèlent que l'âge mental pondéré de l'enfant avant le traitement est significativement relié à son pronostic. Selon les résultats, la réduction des comportements inappropriés et l'augmentation des comportements adaptés sont peu apparentes et instables lorsque les punitions ne sont pas utilisées. Lors de leur introduction, les changements de comportements sont soudains et stables.

Une étude du Wisconsin Young Autism Project sur l'efficacité de programme Lovaas (ABA / IBI) montre: des gains de Q.I.; des gains dans la compréhension et l'expression du langage; des gains dans les habiletés sociales et d'adaptation.

Donais et Poirier (<http://www.autisme.net/lovaas.html>), soulignent que en dépit de critiques Schopler, Short et Mesibov (1989), Mesibov, 1993), les travaux de Lovaas et de ses collaborateurs génèrent l'appui de d'autres chercheurs (Baer, 1992; Foxx, 1993, Kazdin, 1993). Ces recherches sont nécessaires pour l'avancement des connaissances au niveau du traitement de l'autisme. Elles servent à répondre à des questions sur le fonctionnement du traitement, telles qu'identifier les variables du traitement responsables des changements et les facteurs individuels expliquant les différences de réponse entre les enfants.

2) L'efficacité de programme TEACCH

La méthode TEACCH anticipe l'intégration en enseignant à l'enfant à utiliser et à compter sur des horaires et des directives visuels pour se diriger seul, sans dépendre des autres. Le programme TEACCH se centre sur la structuration visuelle de l'espace, du temps, sur la façon de travailler et sur la tâche (Magerotte, 2002). Le travail éducatif est individualisé (évaluation précise du niveau de l'enfant avec des instruments standardisés et par l'observation) et l'enseignement structuré.

En dépit des différences interindividuelles, il existe certaines régularités dans les profils autistiques avec des points faibles: difficultés à organiser l'information, à mémoriser ce qui n'est pas directement lié à leur intérêt et à traiter l'information verbale, et des points forts: intégration de l'information visuelle et la mémorisation d'informations simultanées. L'enseignement doit tenir compte de ces faiblesses et de ces qualités. L'approche se veut résolument positive avec une valorisation des potentialités et l'acceptation des déficits. Les déficits se doivent d'être repérés, mais aussi et surtout les réussites et émergences.

L'approche se veut aussi développementale: les compétences à acquérir sont toujours replacées dans le contexte du développement individuel. La progression est planifiée en fonction de potentialités de l'enfant, l'apprentissage est organisé de manière à favoriser la réussite rapide et le renforcement qui résulte. L'enseignement aide à la généralisation par fractionnement des tâches et modelage (Carlier, Doyen, 2002, p. 62).

Résultats rapportés sur l'efficacité de TEACCH (selon Yarnall, 2001):

- a) Amélioration de l'adaptation grâce aux modifications de l'environnement et augmentation des habiletés fonctionnelles.
- b) Les stratégies apprises peuvent être appliquées avec succès indépendamment de l'environnement scolaire.
- c) La généralisation est appliquée grâce à l'utilisation d'horaires et routines.
- d) Les approches utilisées (le gestaltisme et le visuel) contribuent à réduire le stress lié à l'apprentissage de nouvelles informations.
- e) Des gains dans tous les domaines de fonctionnement et de développement évalués.
- f) Des plus hauts taux de réussite en emploi observés par rapport à n'importe quel État (États Unis d'Amérique).
- g) Le plus bas niveau de demande de placements en dehors du foyer familial.
- h) Le plus bas niveau de stress parental.

L'âge, le niveau de développement et d'autres aspects des troubles (par exemple la sévérité des troubles associés) vont influencer les modalités de prise en charge des enfants atteints d'autisme. Dans les dernières années, en Roumanie, les jeunes enfants avec des troubles du spectre autistique bénéficient généralement des soins précoces assurés par des hôpitaux de psychiatrie pour les enfants, services de psychiatrie infanto-juvénile, institutions éducatives spécialisées (des garderies spécialisées). La méthode

TEACCH et la méthode Lovaas a été transposée dans les institutions roumaines qui prise en charge les enfants avec des troubles du spectre autistique.

3) La Thérapeutique d'Échange et de Développement (TED)

Cette thérapie a été proposée par Lelord, Barthélémy-Cault, Sauvage & Arlot (1978). Elle s'inspire des données de la physiologie nerveuse, et se base sur le fait que les syndromes autistiques sont davantage dus à des troubles somatiques précoces et à un trouble du développement qu'aux difficultés émotionnelles environnementales. L'hypothèse de l'équipe française est que les troubles de la communication et de la relation avec autrui, qui caractérisent l'autisme de l'enfant, sont étroitement liés à un trouble du développement des structures nerveuses qui participent au filtrage et à la modulation sensorielle, émotionnelle et posturo-motrice (Lelord, 1990). Le TED se centre sur les troubles de l'attention, de la communication et de l'imitation, ces troubles possédant une base physiologique et neuropsychologique. Un examen neuropsychologique et psychopédagogique destiné à apprécier les fonctions cognitives et de communication, s'avère donc complémentaire au protocole classique mis en oeuvre dans le cadre d'un diagnostic d'autisme: attention conjointe, langage expressif et compréhension, imitations gestuelle et vocale, jeu symbolique, expression des émotions, image de soi sont évalué, par l'examen psychologique et par entretien avec les parents.

La TED est une psychothérapie qui vise à améliorer l'attention, l'imitation, la perception et la communication. Les échanges entre l'enfant et le thérapeute vont être favorisés, suscités et développés. Il s'agit de séquences sociales, comme l'imitation ou l'échange du regard. Elles sont nécessaires au développement de la communication chez les enfants avec des troubles du spectre autistique.

Concernant les fonctions de la cognition, l'intervention du thérapeute consiste à reproduire ou à enrichir les conduites de l'enfant tout en introduisant des modes de comportement d'un niveau supérieur, le but étant de créer une situation de conflit juste tolérable pour l'enfant. La stratégie du thérapeute est essentielle pour obtenir l'attention de l'enfant et l'encourager à réaliser l'action. L'environnement est simplifié, le local est particulièrement sobre. Ici, seul, le thérapeute demeure une source d'attraction; il subtilise les jouets non-utilisés. Ensuite, le thérapeute prévoit d'aménager des séquences, mettant en jeu des stéréotypies peuvent, par exemple, être utilisées comme préparation d'un mouvement. Il s'agit de replacer les contextes habituels, de manière à les orienter vers un échange (par imitation, les encouragements). A long terme, ces séquences vont permettre d'éviter une surcharge sensorielle et réduire l'anxiété de l'enfant (Adrien, Barthélémy et al., 1988, selon Carlier et Doyen, 2002, p. 60-61).

Pour un bénéfice réel, les séances se doivent d'être régulières et très fréquentes. De ce fait la famille est forcément incluse dans le projet d'intervention précoce. Il faut considérer l'enfant et ses progrès dans une trajectoire développementale.

La TED est un programme validé par les études longitudinales (Barthélémy, 1988). Les observations sur 10 ans de 27 enfants avec des troubles autistiques, de 2 à 8 ans, ont été analysées. Les enfants ont effectué entre 50 et 150 séances au total, au cours d'environ 4 séances par semaine (ce qui correspond globalement à une séance par jour de présence dans le service). En observation en groupe, il y a amélioration dans les secteurs attention, motricité, contact et communication. Donc, les traits les plus spécifiques à l'autisme, appelés "fonctions-problèmes", s'améliorent à la fois en groupe et sur le plan individuel. La TED modifie finalement peu les capacités de l'enfant à utiliser les objets de manière adéquate lorsqu'il est en groupe. Par contre ce qui a trait aux comportements vis-à-vis des objets et aux réactions émotionnelles ne s'améliore pas, et va même légèrement dans le sens inverse.

Sur un autre échantillon d'enfants autistes, Adrien, Blanc et al. (1988) confirment les améliorations dues à la TED sur le plan émotionnel et social.

L'importance de la précocité du diagnostic et des premières interventions avec les programmes comme TEACCH, Lovaas, TED etc. est soulignée par les travaux montrant des gains substantiels sur le plans du développement cognitif, du langage, de socialisation et d'autonomie, lorsque les programmes éducatifs sont suffisamment intenses et débutés précocement.

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IMPROVEMENTS APPROACHES FOR THE SOCIAL FUNCTIONING OF PERSONS WITH MENTAL RETARDATION

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Dieses Studium zeichnet die hauptsächliche Eigenschaften der Defizite und der Verhaltensstörungen der geistig verspäteten Personen aus; es betont die soziale Funktion und ihre Optimierungsmöglichkeiten. Gleichzeitig, weist es einige Anhaltspunkte betreffs der Ausarbeitung eines Verbesserungsprogramms der soziale Defizite der geistig verspäteten Kindern an. Das Verbesserungsprogramm gründet sich auf die Theorie der emotionale Intelligenz.

Mental disorder is a term used to describe individuals who demonstrate significant concurrent deficits in the areas of intellectual functioning and adaptive functioning, which are evident before the age of 18 years. According to the definition of mental described by the American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR; 1992), significant deficits are characterized by scores two standard deviations below the mean on standardized measures of both intellectual and adaptive functioning. Mental retardation is a term for a pattern of persistently slow learning of basic motor and language skills ("milestones") during childhood, and a significantly below-normal global intellectual capacity as an adult. One common criterion for diagnosis of mental retardation is a tested intelligence quotient (IQ) of 70 or below.

The prevalence of mental retardation among the general population is dependent, in part, on the definition of mental retardation used. Prevalence estimates range from about 3% when only IQ scores are considered (Hodapp & Dykens, 1996) to less than 1% when other factors such as adaptive functioning are included (APA, 1994). More accurate information is available regarding the breakdown of individuals across functioning levels. Most individuals diagnosed with mental retardation, approximately 85%, function in the mild range. Ten percent of those persons function in the moderate range, 3-4% in the severe range, and 1-2% in the profound range (APA, 1994). In Romania we don't have statistically information concerning exactly number of persons with mental retardation

Due in part to several X-linked disorders (e.g., Fragile X Syndrome), estimates indicate that more males than females are diagnosed with mental retardation (APA, 1994). Both adults and children with intellectual disabilities:

- have trouble speaking
- find it hard to remember things

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- ❑ have trouble understanding social rules
- ❑ have trouble discerning cause and effect
- ❑ have trouble solving problems
- ❑ have trouble thinking logically.

In early childhood mild disability (IQ 60–70) may not be obvious, and may not be diagnosed until they begin school. Even when poor academic performance is recognized, it may take expert assessment to distinguish mild mental disability from learning disability or behavior problems. As they become adults, many people can live independently and may be considered by others in their community as "slow" rather than "retarded".

Moderate disability (IQ 50–60) is nearly always obvious within the first years of life. These people will encounter difficulty in school, at home, and in the community. Among people with intellectual disabilities, only about one in eight will score below 50 on IQ tests. A person with a more severe disability will need more intensive support and supervision his or her entire life.

The limitations of cognitive function will cause a child to learn and develop more slowly than a typical child. Children may take longer to learn to speak, walk, and take care of their personal needs such as dressing or eating. Learning will take them longer, require more repetition, and there may be some things they cannot learn. The extent of the limits of learning is a function of the severity of the disability.

The etiology of mental retardation is often unidentified. Some researchers estimate that the etiology is not known for 20-30% of individuals with severe mental retardation, and upwards of 50-60% of individuals with mild mental retardation (Hodapp & Dykens, 1996).

For the remainder of those diagnosed with mental retardation the etiology can be one of numerous factors. The causes of mental retardation are:

- ❑ genetic abnormalities(e.g., Down's Syndrome, Fragile X Syndrome),
- ❑ prenatal / perinatal complications (e.g.,prenatal exposure to disease, anoxia at birth)
- ❑ postnatal factors (e.g., seizures,malnutrition)
- ❑ psychosocial influences (e.g., socioeconomic status) (Hodapp & Dykens, 1996).

Behavior problems and deficits associated with mental retardation

Individuals with mental retardation are often described with respect to their ability to function independently. Communication is one skill identified as essential for independent functioning. Communication skills deficits are common among individuals with mental retardation (McCoy & Buckhalt, 1990), and may contribute to other behavior deficits (e.g., social skills) and/or contribute to the emergence of problem behaviors (e.g., self-injury and physical aggression) (Matson, Smirolfo, &

Bamburg, 1998). Subsequently, researchers have found that individuals with mental retardation have pronounced social skills deficits (Lovett & Harris, 1987) and engage in problem behavior, such as physical aggression and self injurious behavior, more frequently than the general population (Gardner & Cole, 1990; Johnson & Day, 1992). Ineffective communication may also restrict the individual's ability to access necessary resources and therefore limit his/her capacity for nonrestrictive independent living. Independent living is a relevant issue concerning persons with mental retardation. Many groups advocate for full inclusion into the community. However, individuals with mental retardation frequently lack the self-help and self-care skills required (AAMR, 1992; APA, 1994). A large body of research in the field of mental retardation has been devoted to training and increasing social, self-care, and self-help skills, and the assessment and treatment of problem behaviors (e.g., self-injury, aggression, and noncompliance) (Carr & Durand, 1985; Matson et al., 1998; Schoen & Sivil, 1989; Wheeler, Bates, Marshall, & Miller, 1988).

Social functioning of persons with mental disorders

According with the definition of mental retardation, as described by the American Psychological Association (1994) and the American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR), a person must have difficulties in adaptive functioning in addition to subaverage intellectual functioning to meet diagnostic criteria. (Druțu, 1995) Social functioning is considered to be a major component of adaptive behavior (Grossman, 1983), and is consequently a common deficit among individuals with mental retardation (Lovett & Harris, 1987). Social behavior/functioning can be conceptualized in several ways; that is, those behaviors that provide individuals with the means:

- ❑ to interact effectively with others
- ❑ to recognize and respond to social cues
- ❑ to apply appropriate responses to a specific situation
- ❑ to avoid interpersonal conflicts
- ❑ to adjust to both simple and complex social situations (Matson & Swiezy, 1994).

Individuals who engage in appropriate social behavior can effectively demonstrate and utilize these skills and are able to maintain positive social relationships (Guralnick, 1986).

While the etiology of social functioning deficits can be idiosyncratic, Elliott and Gresham (1993) identified several possible causes, including the lack of opportunities to practice appropriate social behavior, inadequate feedback and/or reinforcement following social behavior, as well as the adverse effects of other behavior problems on social functioning. Furthermore, without sufficient practice or reinforcement for appropriate social behavior, the individual may be less likely

to initiate any social interactions (Njardvik, Matson, & Cherry, 1999). Singh and Winton (1983) found that individuals with learning difficulties were more likely than the general population to engage in excessive inappropriate social behaviors and fewer appropriate social behaviors.

Several researchers have examined differences in social behavior across groups of individuals with dual diagnoses and individuals with mental retardation and severe behavior problems. Duncan, Matson, Bamburg, Cherry, and Buckley (1999) compared the social skills of three groups of individuals with mental retardation who engaged in either aggression, self injury, or both, with experimental controls. They found significant differences between control and experimental groups. Similarly, Njardvik, Matson, and Cherry (1999) examined social skills differences among individuals diagnosed with Autistic Disorder, Pervasive Developmental Disorder (PDD), NOS, and mental retardation. The PDD group consistently demonstrated more positive nonverbal social skills than the autism group; however relative to the mental retardation group they had significantly fewer skills. Kuhn, Matson, and Mayville (2001) compared the social behavior of individuals diagnosed with profound mental retardation who engaged in rumination with peers who did not engage in rumination. Results were similar to those found by Njardvik et al. (1999); individuals who did not engage in rumination consistently demonstrated more positive social behavior than those who did ruminate. Finally, Matson, Smiroldo, and Bamburg (1998) examined the social behaviors of individuals with mental retardation who display symptoms of psychopathology, and compared them to individuals diagnosed with mental retardation who were not experiencing symptoms of psychopathology. Individuals with a greater number of symptoms of psychopathology displayed more negative behaviors and more social problems than the mental retardation only group. Furthermore, those individuals who engaged in stereotypes were significantly less likely to display behaviors characterized as positive.

There is a growing body of research examining the presence of relations between social functioning and other co-morbid behavioral and mental health problems (Duncan, Matson, Bamburg, Cherry, & Buckley, 1999; Kuhn, Matson, & Mayville, 2001; Matson, Smiroldo, & Bamburg, 1998; Njardvik, Matson, & Cherry, 1999). Duncan and colleagues (1999) found that individuals who display aggressive and/or self-injurious behavior also have more significant impairment with respect to social skills. Similarly, Njardvik and group (1999) found that individuals with PDD and Autism displayed fewer appropriate nonverbal social skills than their peers, though individuals with PDD displayed more than those diagnosed with autism.

Functional analysis and antecedent analysis can prove to be helpful in identifying the source of reinforcement or the situation where the behavior is likely to occur; however, the results can be limiting. For example, an analysis may suggest that the individual engages in a behavior to access adult attention, but it does not indicate whether the individual has the skills to appropriately and

effectively recruit that form of reinforcement or if the individual has access to other sources of reinforcement across their day.

In 2001, Kuhn et al. extended both of the aforementioned lines of research in a study that demonstrated that individuals diagnosed with mental retardation who engaged in rumination were more likely than their peers to have poorer social skills, such as inability to communicate effectively either with words or gestures, not participating with others in activities or games, and failing to show a preference for some people over others. The authors offered several explanations and implications for their results including the possibility that the participants ruminated, or began ruminating, due to an inability or unwillingness to access other forms of stimulation such as interpersonal contact. The study by Van Hasselt et al.(1989) demonstrated that training appropriate social behavior could also result in a decrease in problem behavior not targeted in treatment. Therefore, it may be possible to reduce instances of rumination by increasing the individuals' skills at recruiting other forms of stimulation.

The improvement of social skills at persons with mental retardation

During the 1980's a significant body of literature began to develop addressing the improvement of social behaviors displayed by persons with mental retardation. Due to the large amount of research in this area, the current review of social skills training will focus only on those studies designed to improve interpersonal behavior, such as communication skills and nonverbal interaction skills. Other topics which can fall under the heading of social skills include procedures to increase self-help and/or self-care skills and interventions designed to decrease antisocial behaviors (Singh & Winton, 1983).

Stokes, Baer, and Jackson (1974) evaluated the effects of operant procedures to teach and generalize appropriate hand waving in four individuals with mental retardation. Stokes and group used a prompting and shaping procedure to teach four individuals residing in an institution (ages 10-13 years) to wave appropriately. Using a multiple baseline procedure across participants, the authors demonstrated the effectiveness of the intervention and generalization.

In a study by Koegel, Koegel, Hurley, and Frea (1992), four autistic children were taught to successfully increase appropriate interactions with others across multiple settings using a self management procedure. The children were taught to recognize correct and incorrect responses and record them accordingly. Appropriate responses resulted in the delivery of reinforcement. The authors also managed to effectively thin the schedule of reinforcement. This intervention resulted in an increase in social interactions and a decrease in disruptive behavior.

Bornstein, Bach, McFall, Friman, and Lyons (1980) conducted a study with 6 individuals diagnosed with mild-to-moderate mental retardation. The purpose was to improve various interpersonal deficits including:

- ❑ eye-contact, enunciation
- ❑ rate of speech, loudness of speech
- ❑ stereotypic behaviors
- ❑ intonation
- ❑ the number of words used when speaking.

The intervention consisted of verbal instructions, modeling, rehearsal, feedback, and social reinforcement in the context of various social settings. The authors successfully improved the interpersonal target behaviors across all six participants. The improvements were maintained at a one-month follow-up.

Senatore, Matson, and Kazdin (1982) compared the effectiveness of two social skills training procedures on increasing deficits related to conversational interactions. Following a pretest of social skills during an interview, 35 individuals diagnosed with mental retardation were matched according to their skills and randomly assigned to one of three groups. Group one received no skills training. Group two received a standard skills training procedure consisting of prompting, feedback, modeling, and praise. Group three received the same training as group two in addition to active rehearsal of the learned skill in an analog setting. The researchers found that the added rehearsal component was instrumental in effectively increasing the participants appropriate social responses in both an interview situation and during role-play.

In a study by Matson, Manikam, Coe, Raymond, Taras, and Long (1988) social behaviors were increased among individuals with multiple handicaps (e.g., autism and hearing impairment). Three adolescents diagnosed with mental retardation between the ages of 12 and 14 years participated. Using visual cues in addition to verbal praise and edible reinforcement, the authors successfully increased each participant's amount of eye-contact, inset behavior, and on-task behavior. Treatment effects maintained following generalization of the treatment to the classroom teacher and the actual classroom. Taras, Matson, and Leary (1988) attempted to replicate and expand these findings with two autistic children (9 and 10 years old). In addition to the cues, praise, and reinforcement, the experimenters employed a modeling and role-playing procedure in which a therapist would act out the preferred behavior followed by a role-play where the child had the chance to participate. A multiple-baseline design yielded results indicating the utility of the intervention at increasing social behaviors (e.g., appropriate affect, eye contact, appropriate sitting, and appropriate content of speech) for both participants.

Van Hasselt, Hersen, Egan, McKelvey, and Sisson (1989) cited by Kuhn (2001) implemented a social skills intervention for two deaf males with mental retardation and limited eyesight. Targeted behaviors included:

- ❑ on-task behavior and social interaction, characterized by the participant
- ❑ touching a peer to get their attention

- ❑ offering an object to a peer
- ❑ making eye contact, and/or playing cooperatively.

Using a graduated prompting procedure and the delivery of a token for appropriate responses, Van Hasselt et al. successfully increased both on-task behavior and social interactions for both participants, and the schedule of token delivery was systematically thinned. Experimental control was demonstrated using both a treatment withdrawal design and a multiple-baseline design across target behaviors. In addition, Van Hasselt and group collected data on non-targeted behaviors to monitor the effects of improved social skills. For both participants the occurrence of self-stimulatory behavior decreased significantly following treatment: 40% reduction for Ron and 25% reduction for Samuel.

Improvement programme for emotional competence of children with mental retardation

We propose for the improvement of social behaviour of persons with mental retardation a program based on adaptation of components of emotional intelligence according with their psychological characteristics. Among the emotional intelligence components we consider that managing emotions, recognizing emotions in others and handling relationships could be in our opinion the strengths of a development programme of social competence at children with mental retardation.

Definition of emotional intelligence (Salovey and Mayer, 1990;) includes abilities in five main areas:

1. Self-awareness: Recognizing one's feelings as they occur is the linchpin of emotional intelligence. The ability to monitor feelings from moment to moment is key to psychological insight and self-understanding.
2. Managing emotions: Having appropriate emotional reactions is a capacity that builds on self-awareness. The ability to modulate negative affects such as anxiety, anger, and depression is a crucial emotional skill. Emotional resilience helps one to prevail over life's inevitable setbacks and upsets; those who lack emotional self-regulation are continually besieged by feelings of distress.
3. Motivating oneself: Being able to focus on a goal is essential for a range of accomplishments. Emotional self-control—such as delaying gratification or controlling impulsivity—is crucial in working towards such life goals.
4. Recognizing emotions in others: Empathy, another skill based in emotional self-awareness, is fundamental to interpersonal effectiveness.
5. Handling relationships: relationships requires skill in managing others' emotions.

Training of emotional competence reveals a widespread benefit for children's emotional and social competence, for their behaviour in and out of the classroom, and for their ability to learn (see table 1).

Table nr. 1

Self-awareness	Managing emotions	Motivating oneself	Recognizing emotions in others	Handling relationships
Improvement in recognizing and naming own emotions	Better frustration tolerance and anger management	More responsible	Better able to take another person's perspective	Increased ability to analyse and understand relationships
Better able to understand the causes of feelings	Fewer verbal putdowns, fights, and classroom disruptions	Better able to focus on the task at hand and pay attention	Improved empathy and sensitivity to others' feelings	Better at resolving conflicts and negotiating disagreements
Recognizing the difference between feelings and actions	Better able to express anger appropriately, without fighting	Less impulsive; more self-control	Better at listening to others	Better at solving problems in relationships
	Fewer suspensions and expulsions	Improved scores on achievement tests		More assertive and skilled at communicating
	Less aggressive or self-destructive behaviour			More popular and outgoing; friendly and involved with peers
	More positive feelings about self, school, and family			More sought out by peers
	Better at handling stress			More concerned and considerate
	Less loneliness and social anxiety			More pro-social and harmonious in groups
	Harnessing Emotions Productively			More sharing, cooperative, and helpful
				More democratic in dealing with others

Emotional learning begins in life's earliest periods, and continues throughout childhood and into adulthood. Childhood and adolescence are the most critical windows of opportunity for the establishment of essential emotional habits. The primary skills of emotional intelligence each have critical periods extending over several years in childhood. Each period represents an opportunity for instilling effective emotional habits

A growing body of studies suggest that how parents treat a child—with harsh discipline or empathy, with indifference or warmth, and so on—has deep and lasting consequences for the child's emotional life. Only recently have there been hard data showing that emotionally intelligent parenting is itself of enormous benefit to a child. The ways parents handle emotions between them—in addition to their direct dealings with a child—impart powerful lessons to their children, who are astute learners attuned to the subtlest emotional exchanges in the family. Gottman's microanalysis of interactions in couples on how the partners handled their children suggested that couples who were more emotionally competent in the marriage relationship were also the most effective in helping children to cope with emotional ups and downs.

All the small interactions between parent and child have an emotional subtext; the repetition of these messages over the years forms the core of a child's emotional outlook and capabilities. These interchanges mould the child's emotional expectations about relationships, which will influence emotional functioning in all realms of life for better or worse.

The risks are greatest for children whose parents are grossly inept—immature, abusing drugs, depressed, chronically angry, or simply aimless and living chaotic lives. Such parents are far less likely to give adequate care, let alone to address their children's emotional needs. Simple neglect, studies find, can be more harmful than outright abuse. Studies of maltreated children find that neglected youngsters fare worst of all: they tend to be the most anxious, inattentive, and apathetic, alternately aggressive and withdrawn.

Emotional competence may be decisive in determining the extent to which any given child succumbs to such hardships or responds to them with a core of resilience and thrives despite the odds. Long-term studies of children brought up in poverty, in abusive families, or by a parent with severe mental illness show that those who survive the most severe hardships tend to share key emotional skills. These include social adaptation that draws people to them, self-confidence, persistence, optimism, resilience in the face of upsets, and an easy-going nature.

Elaborating a development programme of emotional competence for children with mental retardation should support the improvement of their adaptive behaviour.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF ASSESSMENT IN DEAFBLINDNESS

ANDREA HATHAZI*

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die Evaluation des taubblinden Kindes vertritt der erste wichtige Schritt in die Planung des Interventionsprozesse. Die Komplexität und der Wirkungsgrad der Evaluation erlaubt die Identifizierung angemessenen Strategien und Ressourcen, die nötig für die Optimierung des Infomationzugang und der Entwicklung der Mitteilung-, Orientierung- und Mobilitätfähigkeiten sind. Der Herangehen der Evaluation ist im diesem Studium konkretisiert, unterstreichend die Wichtigkeit des Evaluationprozesse in der Sicherung der Entwicklung des höchsten Potential des taubblinden Kindes.

Assessment in special education represents a process that involves gathering information about a child with the purpose of making decisions and elaborating strategies and resources for that child. Pierangelo and Giuliani (2006) present Gearheart and Gearheart's definition of assessment (1990) which is: "a process that involves the systematic collection and interpretation of a wide variety of information on which to base instructional/ intervention, classification and placement decisions. Assessment is primarily a problem-solving process"(p.4).

The process of assessment or evaluation is based usually on using psychometrical testing with tests or tools that are standardised and have as an outcome a score or a quotient which give information about a level of development or a certain performance or skill. Deafblindness is a disability that determines a particular pattern of development, style of learning and communication. We cannot use psychometrical testing as it is used traditionally with deafblind children as we cannot compare one child to another. Each child is unique and they have different levels and profiles of achievement which makes it impossible to have a test that can be applied to a number of individuals. Professionals must think about types of assessment that are suitable for deafblind children in order to assure validity of the results. According to Snell and Brown (2000) the types of assessment that professionals think they are meaningful and appropriate are influenced by three variables. First of all, the purpose of the process and the ways in which information will be used determine which instruments are appropriate. Second, the team's educational philosophy determines the educational goals. The third variable refers to the legal requirements of assessment. As Snell and Brown evidentiate (apud Turnbull and Turnbull, 1998) „The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires a multidisciplinary, multifaceted, nonbiased evaluation of a child before classifying and providing special education to that child" (p.70).

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The importance of assessment is also sustained by Pierangelo and Giuliani (2006) who underline the critical role that assessment plays in the determination of six important decisions. These are:

- Evaluation decisions which refer to the information that is obtained about the child's strengths, weaknesses, performance.
- Diagnostic decisions that provide detailed data about the nature of the child's disability. It is also very important to make the differentiated diagnosis so that the intervention strategies are adequate to the implications of the identified diagnosis.
- Eligibility Decisions so that the obtained information can be used to determine whether a child is eligible for special education services.
- Individualized Educational Plan (IEP) Decisions refer to the collected information about the child that determines the development of an efficient IEP that sets the proper objectives and use of strategies taking into consideration the needs and abilities of the child.
- Educational Placement Decisions refer to the information that determines the best educational placements that suits the child's profile and abilities.
- Instructional Planning Decisions that take into consideration the data obtained in the process of assessment is used to plan the appropriate instruction and intervention which is adequate to the child's special social, academic, physical and management needs.

These decisions have to be considered when planning the assessment of a deafblind child. Because of the functional implications of deafblindness, many children don't benefit from the proper intervention because they are not assessed properly. Clinical assessment and observational functional assessment have to be seen as parts of the overall intervention. This is why a multidisciplinary team is necessary to complete an assessment. These professionals must use a variety and specialised tools and strategies to gather relevant functional and developmental data in order to elaborate a profile of capacities of the child, a term that is proposed by the Nordic School. The multidisciplinary team must include the following professionals: special education teacher, psychologist, ophthalmologist, educational audiologist, speech and language therapist, physiotherapist, medical specialist, occupational and physical therapist, social worker and at last but not at least the parents. Parents have an essential role in the assessment team. Their contributions are valuable as they can offer information which cannot be obtained by the other members of the team. It is said that they are the ones who know their child the best and they sometimes don't even know how much they know about their child. The role of the parents in the assessment and intervention process is more and more acknowledged and nowadays we are talking about family centered approach and not only a child centered approach. Parents must be part of the multidisciplinary team and when decisions are taken it is also their right to approve of the intervention concerning their child.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ASSESSMENT IN DEAFBLINDNESS

Paul Hart in Sense Scotland's Personal Profile, Questions and Answers, November 2002, p.3, underlines the important elements of effective planning and assessment. These are:

- **Ownership** – assessment should belong to the person being assessed and must involve the person being assessed
- **Collaboration and sharing** – assessment material should be able to go with the person, building on what is known and only attempting to discover new information.
- **Cyclical process** – assessment must be an ongoing process that helps supporters to know exactly what support a person wants and how to offer it in the most effective way.
- **Have a clear purpose** – if you are not gathering information to influence change, then why find it out?
- **Build on positives** – avoid the deficit model and instead find out what people can do, what they want and what they need.
- **Should be done by people who know what they are doing.**
- **Holistic** – consider the whole person in the situations in which they live and work, alongside the people with whom they live and work.

Principles of assessment must be taken into consideration and these refer to:

- the necessity to consider the child as a whole;
- obtain information about the functional hearing and vision, communication, motor development, use of touch, compensation strategies, sensory integration, personal and social development, daily living skills and degree of independence;
- the issue about the specific assessment tools for deafblind children that are rare and that must be adequate to the complexity and degree of impairments. This is the reason for adaptation of materials and use of a great variety of objects and toys in order to evaluate the behavior and use of these by the deafblind child;
- the necessity to establish a trustful relationship with the child, to become aware of his family and social environment;
- the outcomes must be analyzed taking into consideration the information that the child has access to, that is the residual sight and hearing and the cognitive potential;
- the answers and behaviors can be inconsistent due to internal factors like hunger, health, tiredness, discomfort, pain, medication or external factors like noise, light, inappropriate methods and approaches, sensory over-stimulation;
- the use of observational methods;
- the implication of all the people who know the child;

- carrying out the assessment in different moments of the day;
- to identify what the child can do
- to offer time for response and the chances for success;
- to the use of adequate methods to record the child's answers and behaviors;
- to be reserved and not make prognosis after one session of assessment;
- to compare the child only to himself in order to identify progression or regression;
- the involvement of parents.

Another issue that must be taken into consideration is about the tool and method of assessment. As Barbara Miles and Marianne Riggio evidentiate in *Remarkable Conversations* (1999) the means of assessment are many. Some are direct like observing or using a test or a developmental scale and some of them are indirect like reading reports and talking with people who get in contact with the child and know him very well and can offer valuable information about behaviors or abilities that otherwise cannot be obtained and that are important for planning an efficient program. Some methods are formal, such as standardized tests and checklists; others are informal and use play, interaction, conversation and observations.

The Callier- Azusa Scale is a developmental scale that was especially designed to assess deafblind children. Its purpose is to provide the assessment information necessary to synthesize developmentally appropriate activities for a child. The scale is particularly comprehensive at lower developmental levels and it is also used to evaluate a child's developmental progress. The Callier Azusa Scale is composed of 18 subscales in five areas: Motor development, Perceptual Development, Daily Living Skills, Cognition, Communication and Language and Social Development. Each subscale is made up of sequential steps describing developmental milestones. Some steps are divided into two or more items (A, B, C, etc.), which describe different behaviors that appear at approximately the same time in development. The scale is a very efficient tool not only for assessment but also to know about the behaviors that the deafblind child present in the process of development. It also gives ideas about the possible activities and exercises that can be carried out in order to intervene using as a paradigm the zone of proximal development. The outcomes of the scale give a developmental profile of the child identifying the needs in different areas of development.

Jane Eyre (2000) distinguishes the necessity to be positive about the child's achievements and abilities, but also to be ambitious about what the child may be able to achieve and to have high expectations. And this can be really captured by using observation as an assessment method. Observation is not only a method but it is also a skill that the teacher has to acquire. Jane Eyre (2000) talks about an observational attitude, which means that the teacher is an efficient

observer, records the information in order to improve the intervention strategies. A first temptation is to observe the child all day long in every activity, which is very difficult, but in time, with gaining experience, the teacher will obtain through observation the valuable information, the causes of different behaviors and the general performance. This way the information that is obtained can be matched to the initial records of the child, and the assessment becomes holistic, and does not refer to one particular area. For example when assessing communication, we must take into consideration sensory functioning, cognitive level, ways of accessing information, relationship and interests of parents, personal and environmental factors.

To have a complete observation, it is essential to include the following situations:

- observation of a specific situation which is during a specific time, like lunchtime, playtime or academic activity;
- observation in various settings like classroom, playground or cafeteria;
- observation at different times during the day (Pierangelo, Giuliani, 2006,p.185).

Because of the complex, multi-faceted nature of the difficulties faced by the deafblind child, the assessment should take into consideration all the factors that have implications for that area (Eyre, J, 2000). These factors can be best captured if video recording is used. The video capture in an unobtrusive way the child as he puts skills into practice and can be played and replayed, analyzed and discussed as often as it is necessary. The video permits the observation of the child but also the behavior and attitude of the teacher and their interaction. This approach to assessment of observing the child's skills in practical use determines a much more reflective style of assessment. Sometimes the teacher can observe an inadequate approach or use of method thus being able to change and improve the strategy. The recorded activity can be also shown to parents in order to present a particular behavior or progress.

Using observation in assessment makes it functional. Aitken, S. (1995) emphasizes that instead of abstracting tasks from settings, functional assessment structures the environment to offer opportunities for observing skills in practical use. Functional or ecological assessment analyses a child's total learning environment according to Overton (1996) (Pierangelo, Giuliani, 2006). According to Pierangelo and Giuliani (2006 apud Bigge, Stump, 1999) a thorough functional assessment should include the following:

- Interaction between child, teachers and others in the classroom and in other settings;
- Presentation of materials and ideas;
- Selection and use of materials;
- Environment adaptation if necessary;
- Offering support and time in elaborating an answer;
- The teacher's teaching style;
- Academic, behavioral and social expectations within the learning environment.

But why is assessment so important in deafblindness? Especially the initial assessment? The purpose is to develop the Individualised Family Service Plan (IFSP) and the Individualised Educational Plan (IEP) and to identify properly and accurately the needs, abilities and interests of the child. What is the best service that the child has to have access to and which is the most adequate intervention strategy? Or, in simple words, where to start?

We will present in the following an initial assessment of a two years old little boy whose medical diagnosis is cerebral palsy, epilepsy and visual impairment. In order to realize an efficient initial assessment, to gather important information and think in perspective we need to think of a plan. In the beginning, we ask for information from the parent. In this case the little boy comes for evaluation with his mother. The medical report mentions the cerebral palsy, epilepsy and blindness. But mother says that she went to three ophthalmologists who had different opinions about the residual vision of the child, one of them saying that the child has light sensitivity at his right eye. This information must be verified during the assessment, the child being observed during his performance to visual tasks. Another difficulty that is obvious concerns the motor abilities. He cannot maintain his balance, he has to be supported and he walks on his toes when supported. What do we know at this time and what have we observed so far?

- Visual impairment with possible light sensitivity
- Motor difficulties
- Delay in language development

What do we have to find out in order to identify the best service that the child must be provided? We have to find out about his functionality. As a method of assessment we use observation and items from the Callier Azusa scale. We look for his behaviors, his reactions, initiatives, style of learning, time needed for elaborating answers, degree of attention, level of needed support, interactions, perseverance. The resources that are used are toys and different objects that become stimuli and triggers for behaviors. He becomes very interested and explores actively a toy apple that makes a sound when a button is touched. He becomes aware very rapidly of the cause-effect relation between the touch of the button and the sound production. He leans over the apple and seems like focusing on the button. He maintains interest in this activity for a long period of time. He is very receptive and attentive. Another activity that he became very interested in consisted in applauding together with the evaluator. He initiated the activity and maintained interaction for a long period of time. The child directed the frequency and intensity of applause. Why are these activities, apparently with no great significance so important? Because they offer information about the child, about him being open, receptive and flexible. Intensive interaction for one hour and a half took place, finally the child being tired and refusing any activity. His learning potential was investigated and it made the team becoming very optimistic. After one demonstration of the sequences of the activity the child could do it by himself.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ASSESSMENT IN DEAFBLINDNESS

He also transferred skills from one situation to another. But what about his visual functioning? There were two significant times when it seemed that he is focusing visually? But is that enough? Certainly not. This behavior must be investigated further. Because he could easily be influenced by other stimuli of other nature and have a reaction to. These could include touch accidentally, vibrations, sound or air movement. This is why detailed discrimination is needed.

The recommendation after the first assessment session was to include the child in a service that provides recuperation activities for his motor difficulties so that in time he could have access to an educational service for visually impaired children. This decision was discussed and approved by the child's mother. Further stimulating and functional training was recommended.

In conclusion, knowing and understanding the factors that contribute to the child's general performance and behavior and that are identified in the process of assessment using various formal or informal methods, determine the best approach in intervention.

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LE BILINGUISME - UNE PERSPECTIVE LINGUISTIQUE

MARIA ANCA*, MUŞATA BOCOŞ*, CAROLINA HAŢEGAN**

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. In der Einleitung dieses Artikels werden die Begriffe Sprache und Sprachakt aus der Perspektive der Linguisten betrachtet, die distinkte Paradigmen befürworten, wie E. Coşeriu, W. von Humboldt, Ferdinand de Saussure, K. Vossler und Jespersen, indem man den doppelten Einsatz der Sprache, das heißt, den sozialen (normierten) und den individuellen (kreativen) hervorhebt. Danach werden die Kriterien der Erklärung der Zwei- und Mehrsprachigkeit definiert und umschrieben, die E. Coşerius Tabelle der Sprachebenen zugeordnet werden, und zwar dem historischen und individuellen Niveau. Der Endteil wird der Betrachtung der Zwei- und Mehrsprachigkeit aus pädagogischer Sicht gewidmet. Man verfolgt seine Auswirkungen auf die Erziehung, und dabei werden auch die neuen Richtungen der heutigen Erziehungswissenschaft, die kulturelle und interkulturelle Erziehung, die auf Zwei- und Mehrsprachigkeit beruht, in den Vordergrund gehoben.

1. Les concepts de langue et d'acte linguistique du point de vue des linguists

Le concept de langue, complexe et multidimensionnel, et le phénomène complexe et dynamique de la communication par la langue sont étudiés, d'une manière mono et interdisciplinaire, dans plusieurs domaines de recherche: la linguistique, la théorie de la communication, l'axiologie, la philosophie, la psychologie, la didactique, les sciences de la nature etc. Naturelement, les conceptions propres à un certain domaine agissent et font valoir des perspectives propres à celui ci, lui mettant en valeur les paradigmes et les concrétisent dans des définitions descriptives.

Le sens consacré du terme de langue se trouve dans les dictionnaires explicatifs, par exemple: la langue représente un système de communication, composé des sons articulés, par lesquels l'homme exprime ses pensées, sentiments et desirs. C'est le langage d'une communauté humaine, historiquement constituée, caractérisée par une structure phonétique, phonématique, grammaticale, lexicale et syntagmatique.

L'acte linguistique et la langue ou le système linguistique, dont l'acte linguistique correspond, sont les deux réalités du langage articulé.

Le langage est défini comme étant tout système de signes symboliques employés pour l'intercommunication sociale, c'est-à-dire tout système de signes qui aide à l'expression des idées et des sentiments ou des contenus de la conscience.

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Le langage articulé est considéré comme système unique de signes seulement d'une manière idéale, parce qu'en réalité il existe plusieurs systèmes de signes (langues), qui correspondent aux différentes pays et communautés sociales ou à d'autres groupes de parlants.

La réalité concrète du langage, l'aspect matérialisé en fait, est l'acte linguistique. Celui-ci suppose l'emploi des certains signes du langage, en vue de la communication, qui configure l'acte linguistique.

Les actes linguistiques varient de l'individu à l'individu, étant caractérisés par la manière individuelle, personnelle, mais ceux-ci doivent être, en même temps "identiques" aux actes antérieurs, tant du point de vue physique que du point de vue de leur signification (leur contenu). La condition de l'identité est essentielle lorsque la finalité communicative du langage est visée.

Les coordonnées de l'acte linguistique spécifiques à une certaine communauté sont: l'espace (des actes linguistiques sous l'aspect du milieu physique et sous l'aspect du milieu géographique aussi), le temps (des actes linguistiques considérés sous l'aspect historique), la stratification sociale et culturelle. Ainsi peut-on parler de la définition de la langue comme étant l'ensemble des actes linguistiques communes d'une communauté d'individus parlants.

E. Coseriu est celui qui affirme le fait que "ce concept de langue ou mieux dire, la langue en général est une abstraction qui nous appartient; on constate en fait seulement des actes linguistiques individuels, plus ou moins semblables, qui, pour la commodité méthodologique, peuvent être considérés identiques. Une langue n'est que l'ensemble des actes linguistiques, pratiquement identiques, d'une communauté d'individus, un système d'actes linguistiques communes qui contient tout ce que les expressions d'une communauté et même d'un seul individu ont en commun en différentes époques". (E. Coseriu, 1999, p.31)

W. von Humboldt est celui qui a mis en valeur l'acte linguistique étant le fondateur de la linguistique générale. C'est lui qui, dans son œuvre sur la langue kawi de l'île Jawa, a distingué les deux aspects fondamentaux du langage: énergie + la création permanente des actes individuels (l'aspect dynamique) et ergon - produit, un système réalisé historiquement (la langue).

F. de Saussure a rapporté en discussion les deux aspects essentiels du langage, c'est-à-dire parole (acte linguistique) et langue. Saussure considère que la langue constitue la règle, le système linguistique qui se réalise dans le parler, celui-ci appartenant à l'individu, au niveau individuel.

Même si la linguistique investigate l'aspect nommé langue, elle ne peut pas nier l'importance de l'autre aspect, c'est-à-dire, parole, Saussure étant celui qui a évincé le fait qu'il n'y a rien dans la langue qui n'eût pas existé dans le parler.

Karl Vossler a insisté lui aussi sur l'importance de l'individu en qualité de créateur de langage. Vossler a mis l'accent sur celui qui écoute, parce que chaque acte de communication implique, toujours deux pôles: un parleur/ émetteur de messages et un écoutant/ receveur de messages.

Cet aspect évidencie que l'acte linguistique n'appartient exclusivement à un individu, étant simultanément un fait individuel et un fait social, le fait individuel signifie que l'individu parlant exprime, d'une manière inédite, une intuition inédite qui lui appartient exclusivement et fait social parce que l'individu ne crée pas intégralement son expression, mais plutôt, la récrée conformément aux modèles antérieurs, c'est-à-dire il se soumet aux normes de sa communauté et ne s'éloigne pas d'elle, autrement il existe le risque de ne pas être bien compris et perçu par celui avec lequel on communique.

Le langage n'existe pas seulement dans une communauté. Les limites de la communauté sont conventionnelles, cf. à Jespersen. Pourtant, l'individu ne peut pas appartenir à une seule communauté, mais à un nombre variable de communautés, changeant la manière de parler conformément à la communauté dont il appartient (professionnelle, familiale, de médecins etc.).

Les communautés idiomatiques doivent être considérées comme communautés culturelles, chacune ayant un certain patrimoine de culture, qui est reconnaissable au niveau de la langue.

L'histoire de la langue ne peut pas être dissociée d'autres phénomènes de nature spirituelle et sociale, la langue étant intimement liée à la vie sociale, à la civilisation, à l'art et au développement de la pensée, en un mot, à toute la vie de l'homme.

Les phénomènes linguistiques concrétisés dans des actes linguistiques conditionnés et déterminés socialement, se soumettent à la norme de la communauté ou ils ont été produits. Ainsi, le parleur ne peut pas changer les signes imposés par la société, mais il a toujours la chance d'induire le changement par l'inventaire des nouveaux signes, des signes qui constituent le résultat de la création dans le parler et qui passent dans la langue, cf. A.F. de Saussure (apud E. Coseriu, 1999, p.64). Ce paradoxe doit être compris dans le sens qu'une communauté linguistique exerce sur le parler une action double, un contrôle double: elle limite l'innovation et accepte ou rejette les innovations, conformément à certaines normes, qui sont liées très souvent au prestige culturel, mais il s'agit aussi des motifs de clarté de l'expression, de commodité et expressivité.

2. La définition du concept de bilinguisme et multilinguisme

Généralement les termes désignent l'aptitude d'utilisation courante, des deux ou plusieurs langues différentes, par la même personne.

Les situations concrètes de communication mettent en évidence la manifestation plénière et fréquente, spécialement du phénomène de bilinguisme. Ainsi, du point de vue socio-éducatif, les personnes bilingues sont celles dont la langue maternelle ne coïncide pas avec la langue dominante du milieu socio-culturel. Indifféremment s'il s'agit de la manifestation individuelle ou collective de ce phénomène, dans la littérature de spécialité on délimite deux formes de manifestation

du bilinguisme (J. Navracsis, 2000) c'est-à-dire: le bilinguisme aditif (lorsque l'acquisition de la deuxième langue représente un adaos social, cognitive et linguistique) et le bilinguisme soustractif (lorsque l'acquisition de la deuxième langue fait difficile l'acquisition de la première langue ou minimalise l'emploi de celle-ci).

Du point de vue des mécanismes psychologiques, il s'agit d'une transposition complexe du système communicationnel du langage de la pensée (la langue maternelle) dans celui de la langue nonmaternelle. M. P. Pereira (1999) précisait la nécessité de la description exacte des capacités linguistiques qui consacre à l'individu le statut de bilingue. On considère ainsi que la prémise du bilinguisme représente la maîtrise, des deux langues, du moins d'une compétence fondamentale (lire, écrire, parler, comprendre).

Ces capacités de création et de réception d'un message orale ou écrit ne peuvent pas être acquies par la personne qui a, en consequence, le statut de bilingue, que par un enclavement dans la culture, qui se définit comme étant une coordonnée essentielle de celle langue. À ce niveau, la perspective proposée s'appuie sur les théories et les paradigmes linguistiques présentées au dessus.

Ayant en vue le soustrait neurophysiologique de la langue et sa représentation mentale, on a conturé le type de bilinguisme coordonné et le bilinguisme complexe. Le premier se réfère aux situations où les deux systèmes sont acquies parallèlement ou séparément. Il s'agit des situations où les langues sont acquies par des personnes différentes, un type d'enseignement décrit par Rojat (2000), ayant à la base le principe: une langue, une personne. Ce phénomène est commun pendant la période de la première enfance, c'est-à-dire l'acquisition de la langue nonmaternelle se réalise à l'aide de celle maternelle, initialement acquise.

Les preuves concrètes, qui considèrent comme étant essentielle la dichotomie bilinguisme coordonné-bilinguisme complexe, peuvent être trouvées, spécialement, au niveau de la composante sursegmentaire du langage (des éléments du paraverbal: structure accentuée, rythmique et intonative de la langue). Dans le cas de la manifestation du bilinguisme coordonné, à la différence de la situation du bilinguisme complexe, la composante sursegmentaire des langues est acquise ainsi comme elle se présente, sans des modifications majeures. On ne peut pas parler de la même chose dans le cas du bilinguisme complexe. Dans ce cas il s'agit d'un phénomène d'extrapolation des éléments sursegmentaires, qui appartiennent à la langue maternelle, sur le système linguistique de la langue nonmaternelle, acquise plus tard.

Dans la pratique de la langue on peut observer "l'accent étranger", que le parleur natif peut le saisir facilement. Le bilinguisme suppose, dans ce cas, une reconsidération aussi de celui ci, parce qu'on établit certainement le niveau de la compétence linguistique et de la communication, dont un bilingue ou un plurilingue aboutit à un moment donné. On établit aussi la distinction d'entre la composante linguistique et la compétence de communication. Par la compétence de communication on passe du niveau historique au niveau de la langue, de la compétence idiomatique au niveau individuel du langage, passage qui apporte un argument en plus pour la

considération du résultat des recherches linguistiques. Ce résultat a évincé le fait qu'il n'y a pas des langues historiques, mais seulement des actes linguistiques.

Les trois plans du langage ont été évincés par Eugenio Coseriu et sont rendus dans une table intuitive:

Table 1.

Les plans du langage (selon E.Coseriu)

POINTS DE VUE NIVEAUX	ACTIVITE	COMPÉTENCE	PRODUIT
Universel	Parler en general	Competence elocutionnelle	La totalité du "parole"
Historique	Langue concrete	Competence idiomatique	Langue abstraite
Individuel	Discours	Competence expressive	"Texte"

À cause du fait que l'acquisition de la langue nonmaternelle peut se réaliser dans des différentes étapes du développement ontogénétiques, on peut parler d'un bilinguisme précoce et retardé. La délimitation de ces deux aspects est difficile parce qu'elle est liée à l'âge chronologique des parlants. Les recherches dans le domaine sont variées en ce qui concerne l'établissement des barrières temporelles. Ainsi, Meisel affirme que le bilinguisme précoce implique l'entrée de l'individu en contact avec une autre langue que celle maternelle, dès le premier mois de l'existence. (ce que constitue en fait le bilinguisme simultané), De Houwer (apud Cs. Bartha, 1999), place le seuil délimitatif dans la première semaine d'existence. Bialystok (apud J.Navracsis, 2000) présente une perspective plus flexible, la période établie par lui est 0-3 ans.

Une autre dichotomie pour illustrer la complexité du multilinguisme et du bilinguisme peut être réalisée de la perspective de l'acquisition. Ainsi, peut-on parler d'un bilinguisme spontané, celui qui apparaît sans un effort soutenu, à cause de l'influence du contexte linguistique de l'individu et du bilinguisme institutionnel, qui apparaît dans un cadre organisé, par enseignement systématique, ayant à la base une motivation intrinsèque puissante.

L'acquisition des compétences linguistiques précise aussi la définition relative du bilinguisme de la perspective de l'idéal éducatif. Conformément aux finalités éducatives du système éducatif roumain, on préconise l'emploi fonctionnel de la langue nonmaternelle, à un niveau qualitatif semblable à celui de la langue maternelle. Ainsi, d'une manière idéale, on poursuit la formation du bilinguisme symétrique ou congruent, mais les formes de l'asymétrie ou de l'incongruence reçoivent des manifestations variées. Dans ce sens, on peut parler des différences entre les contenus linguistiques acquis dans les deux ou les plusieurs langues maîtrisées par l'individu. Le caractère limité des habiletés communicationnelles dans toutes les deux systèmes linguistiques est désigné par le terme de "sémilinguisme".

Q. Susanne (2001) propose une taxonomie du bilinguisme dans les catégories: bilinguisme individuel, conscient, intellectuel, social, spontané et collectif. Conformément a cette perspective, on peut présenter dans une table, d'une manière synthétique, le problème complexe du bilinguisme, un phénomène qui suppose des descriptions ayant à la base plusieurs critères. (adaptation selon Q.Susanne) (2001)

<i>LE CRITERE DE COMPARAISON</i>	<i>LES CATEGORIES TAXONOMIQUES</i>
1.Le critère socio-educationnel	1.1.Le bilinguisme aditif 1.2.Le bilinguisme soustractif
2.Le critère de la periode de socialisation linguistique	2.1.Le bilinguisme precoce 2.2.Le bilinguisme attarde
3. Le critère de la base neuro-physiologique	3.1.Le bilinguisme coordonne 3.2.Le bilinguisme complexe
4.Le critère du contenu de l'acquisition	4.1.Le bilinguisme receptive 4.2,.Le bilinguisme productif 4.3.Le bilinguisme symetrique 4.4. Le bilinguisme asymetrique
5.Le critère de l'identite	5.1. Une personne qui s'identifie avec deux langues, implicitement avec deux cultures
6.Le critère fonctionnel	6.1.L'emploi fonctionnel par la même personne des deux langues differentes

Ces critères descriptifs évidencient la réalité linguistique par les catégories clairement délimitées, mais la complexité du phénomène linguistique offre souvent des configurations difficilement à inclure dans l'une des catégories désignées. Cette difficulté peut être surmontée par l'inventaire des multiples contextes socio-culturels et des variations inter-individuelles qui influencent l'acquisition des langues. On peut souligner le fait que, ainsi comme la manifestation des actes linguistiques a un caractère individuel et leur acquisition conserve cette caractéristique, par la coaction des aspects sociaux, des normes collectives fixées dans la langue. Ainsi, le moi bilingue doit être perçu sous l'aspect unitaire, comme ayant des possibilités d'expression linguistiques différentes. Dans ses contextes essentiels de vie, une personne emploie systématiquement deux ou plusieurs langues en fonction de ses finalités communicationnelles, socio-professionnelles etc.

On peut délimiter ainsi l'emploi du terme de bilinguisme par l'acception suivante: le bilinguisme représente un processus d'activation des compétences linguistiques communicationnelles dans les discours interpersonnels, ou on active les intentions du moi éducationnel en le rapportant continuellement au contexte socio-culturel.

3. Les implications pédagogiques du bilinguisme ou plurilinguisme

Le bilinguisme et le plurilinguisme ne sont plus aujourd'hui strictement délimités localement, mais on peut parler des formes de l'échange intellectuel dans le cadre d'une société caractérisé par la globalisation, des manifestations concrètes de l'épanouissement de la culture vers la diversité, du moment que la principale manière de véhiculer une culture est la langue.

En ce sens, on peut parler des conséquences impératives sous l'aspect pédagogique. Ainsi, la pédagogie interculturelle construit des stratégies de facilitation et promotion de la communication entre les personnes qui appartiennent aux cultures différentes; une fois assumée, elle doit déterminer non seulement un changement curriculaire, mais un changement structurel aussi du système éducatif. La prémise de cette nécessité objective de reconsidération conceptuelle fondamentale est rendue par la réalité pluriculturelle et plurilinguistique, caractérisée par la diversité culturelle et linguistique. La pédagogie interculturelle a cristallisé ses paradigmes, spécialement par la promotion de la réciprocité, de la négociation et des activités communes réalisées par les appartenants aux différentes cultures. Les échanges culturels devrait devenir, progressivement, des véritables itinéraires de sens pour soi et toutefois pour pouvoir être transmises à d'autres personnes aussi, mais d'une manière organisée. Les échanges culturels ne peuvent pas être institués seulement comme résultat de la bienveillance, de la spontanéité ou de l'état de moment des participants à l'activité, mais il est nécessaire qu'elles soient projetées d'une manière anticipée par des véritables projets éducatifs, fondés sur des objectifs clairement délimités et sur des stratégies d'action rigoureuses et scientifiques. (M.Abdallah,1986)

Les spécialistes ont constaté que, généralement, les conflits, les perturbations et les disfonctions sont dues aux ruptures dans la communication entre les individus et que les échanges culturels accomplissent une fonction pédagogique évidente. La préparation des individus pour instituer et promouvoir de tels échanges doit s'inscrire dans un processus éducatif dont les finalités sont les suivantes:

- a) la formation d'une philosophie autour des liaisons qui réunissent les individus et les groupes de cultures différentes
- b) la conscientisation des problèmes communicatifs qui crée des disfonctions dans la cohérence des groupes.

L'éducation culturelle, l'une des directions de la pédagogie contemporaine, semble être le type de l'éducation qui peut répondre à ces exigences d'ordre pratique. C. Cucos affirme que l'école doit être premièrement culturelle et ensuite interculturelle, que nous devons aspirer vers l'intercultural par le culturel. Par cette affirmation, le pédagogue roumain veut souligner la nécessité de l'enclavation culturelle de la langue maternelle et ensuite de celle nonmaternelle, l'enclavation culturelle étant celle qui permet la configuration du statut de personne bilingue ou plurilingue, la compétence communicationnelle impliquant une série d'autres compétences.

L'éducation interculturelle, c'est-à-dire l'éducation qui promouvoit la valeur du bilinguisme et du plurilinguisme sur le fond du multiculturalisme européen, se concrétise dans une réelle richesse, à la condition qu'elle ne diminue l'identité de chaque culture. Ce type d'éducation vise l'instauration des manières de communication, d'échange, de connexion entre les multiples modèles culturels, mettant en relation et en égalité des manières de pensée et des codes expressifs différents, par la l'accentuation de la conscience de contraste. (Bouchez et de Peretti, 1990, p. 146, apud C. Cucos, 2002). La conscience de l'identité culturelle se fortifie par le dépassement du milieu culturel, dont les valeurs, sont parfois perçues dans la propre culture.

L'accès à la condition de personne bilingue ou plurilingue se constitue dans un avantage important sous l'aspect de la configuration de la compétence culturelle et interculturelle, offrant l'opportunité d'épanouissement vers l'autre, dans le contexte altéré politique et social de nos jours.

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PRELIMINARY STUDY ON PUPILS' INTEREST FOR INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT. In the last 20 years the concept of intercultural education has developed; if initially the interest in the topic were directed to the rights and needs of minorities, today this interest is concentrated on cultural diversity, equal opportunities and interdependences, which are established on the level of different cultures. This study aims to identify research directions in the domain of intercultural education.

Die interkulturelle Erziehung ist ein aktuelles Thema. Das Ziel des Artikels ist eine Ausmessung darüber, wie und was die Lehrern und die Schülern über die interkulturelle Erziehung meiner. Wir waren neugierig, sind die Schüler motiviert über dieser Thema zu lerner?

1. Conceptual analysis

The concept of culture is an ambiguous one: it depends on the philosophical position, it has a history and it is polysemous (Gal & Gal, 2006, p. 205). The culture could be characterized from a lot of points of view. Though Hollos (in Frunza & Jones, 2006, p. 205) and Hall 1997 (in Dassen, Perregaux & Rey, 1999, p.85) identify some general descriptors:

Table 1. *The concept of culture - descriptors*

Culture	is common for a community, and there are many communities
	is not inborn, is transmitted
	can be learned by any member of the community (elite, mass)
	is based on symbols, especially on language
	integrates knowledge, beliefs, arts, morality, habits, skills, rules, mentalities, values, behaviors etc.
	contains universal values, not only owns

Multiculturalism and interculturalism

The background of multiculturalism could be found in the meaning of two terms: culture and zone. If in a geographical zone there are many cultures we can say, "this is a multicultural place". Multiculturalism attempts a reconstruction of the common cultural space in which minority identities are regarded as equal partners.

Interculturality promotes *interdependence, inter-relationship, interaction, change and reciprocity between cultures*.

The multiculturalism is criticized as an ideology that promotes separatism, atomization, self-closure, exclusivism. In change, the interculturalism is criticized for the risk of the homogenization that could appear in the case of the non well-defined cultural identities.

Plesu (p. 23), in Frunza & Jones (2006), affirms that interculturality and multiculturality have to be conceived as interdependent realities, *as the faces of the same coin*, which ensure the game of exchange within cultural pluralism.

Intercultural Education is defined by Stephenson, Polechova & Willumsen (1999): *Intercultural Education for us means education that both in the content and process looks at differences and similarities among the cultures to understand them better, including our own culture. The differences are respected, and utilized as an advantage.*

Intercultural Education supposes education for:

- recognition (awareness of diversity) and respect of values, references, ways of life and symbolic representations to which people (individuals or groups) compare in their relations with other persons and the understanding the world (Barry & Lechner, 1995);
- recognition of interactions that could appear in time and space between the multiple aspects of the same culture or between different cultures (Rey, 1986);
- challenge of changes and interactions between the diversity of representations and references;
- promotion of the dialogue between the different cultures, subcultures etc.
- understanding and respect for all peoples, their cultures, civilizations, values and ways of life, including domestic ethnic cultures and cultures of other nations;
- awareness of the increasing interdependence between people and nations;
- abilities to communicate with others;
- awareness not only of the rights but also of the duties incumbent upon individuals, social groups and nations toward each other (Batelaan & Coomans, 1999);

The IAIE - an international network of educational professionals involved in the development and implementation of Intercultural Education - considers that Intercultural Education includes issues about:

- intercultural and international understanding;
- the recognition of and respect for cultural differences;
- the negation of racism and xenophobia;
- human rights and citizenship;
- equal opportunities (to make the education system more inclusive);
- equal access to knowledge and to the learning processes.

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In the opinion of IAIE, Intercultural Education is characterized by:

- clear policy guidelines for schools, based on the principles of human rights in educational institutions;
- the provision of opportunities for communication and co-operation amongst heterogeneous groups;
- recognition of the value of the knowledge, skills and contributions of all students to the learning process;
- criteria for a broadly based and accessible curriculum;
- criteria for optimum interaction processes in the classroom;
- the promotion of multilingualism (Batelaan & Coomans, 1999)

Other practitioners, as for example, the team of INTER Project (2002), prefers to describe what Intercultural Education is not:

- isolated celebrations: the often named "Intercultural week", "Gastronomic Day", "Peace Day" etc.
- just learning about the characteristics of certain groups as "others", so as to "get to know them better";
- having recipes to solve conflicts, or to address so called differently labeled groups;
- educational programs aimed to specific groups, such as compensatory classes;
- mixing students from different backgrounds without promoting positive relationships or other wider aims;
- avoiding conflicts! Conflicts are part of our everyday life; the key is to manage them properly, and to be aware of our biases, positively and actively learning to fight against discrimination and prejudices.

The goals of Intercultural Education were defined by Rus (2003), at four levels:

- (1) to acquire knowledge regarding the culture in general and the impact of the culture on the individual and groups behaviors, regarding the own culture/cultures and regarding another cultures;
- (2) to develop skills in connection with life in multicultural/intercultural society (the awareness of own cultural determinations, stereotypes and prejudices, the identification of these skills to the others, the capacity to make more acceptable/ relative the points of view, the communication and skills and the relationships);
- (3) to construct attitudes as there are: respect of cultural diversity, of own cultural identity, of culture of the other one, to refuse the discrimination and intolerance;
- (4) the stimulation of participation and action in the scope of the promotion of the principles of intercultural society and to fight against the discrimination and intolerance.

Bennett (in Elliott, Adams & Sockalingam, 1999) describes six stages of the development of intercultural sensitiveness; these are presented in Figure 1.

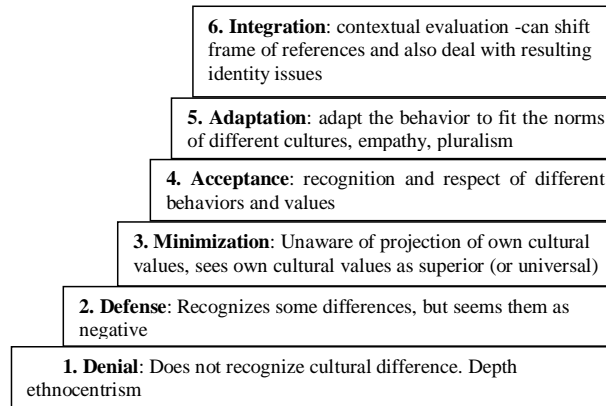


Figure 1. Stages of Intercultural Sensitivity

These stages offer a good framework for planning teacher training in the field of Intercultural education.

2. Questionnaire about intercultural education

In November-December 2006 we had a survey among teachers and pupils about intercultural education. The aim of these questionnaires is to see, what teachers and students know about intercultural education, and if they are interested in learning more.

2.1. Questionnaire for teachers

The aim of this questionnaire is to question teachers about their interest in intercultural education, and collect those keywords, they think, are important for describing the essence of intercultural education (see Appendix 1 for this questionnaire).

The questionnaire was answered by 36 teachers (3 kinder garden teacher, 19 primary school teacher, 2 kinder garden and primary school teachers, 12 secondary school and high school teachers). These teachers are from county Harghita, where the majority of the population is Hungarian. But only 1/3 of answers are from Hungarian ethnic teachers, and the rest from Romanians. Most of them are teachers with a lot of teaching experience (5 teachers between 16-20 year of experience, 12 with 21-25 years, 9 with 26-30 years, and 10 teachers with more than 30 years of teaching experience).

In the first question we were interested about teachers' interest on intercultural education. 27 teachers consider intercultural education very interested, 8 teachers not so interested, nobody has chosen the third choice, "not interested at all". Some reasons, why teachers consider it interested: "it helps us to know the traditions, customs, believes of those, which we leave together"; "it helps to

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discover differences and similarities”, “as many languages, cultures we know, as better people we are”, “in our classrooms we have gipsy pupils, and intercultural education would help us to deal with the problems”; “it is an important topic in point of view of integration of Romania in EU and the need of tolerance in social life”. Analyzing these answers, there are two type of reasons: the willing to learn more about other cultures, and the need to solve those problems in classroom, which arise from the present of different cultures.

In the following question we asked the teachers to give keywords related with intercultural education. In the following table (Table 2) we have collected the keywords, which the teachers wrote, and counted, how many times each keyword appeared. We used these keywords in the questionnaire for pupils.

Tolerance	18	Curiosity	1
Acceptance	10	Differences	1
Knowledge	6	Diversity	1
Tradition	5	Dualism	1
Equal opportunities	4	European interethnic culture	1
Novelty	4	Gipsy	1
Understanding	4	Harmony	1
Custom	3	Hate	1
Exchange of experience	3	Identity	1
Compassion	2	Influence	1
Cooperation	2	Interactions	1
Integration	2	Mutual respect	1
Language	2	Realization	1
Assimilation	1	Respect	1
Culture	1	Self-knowledge	1

Table 2 *Keywords given by the teachers*

In the last question we asked teachers, if they are interested or not to attend training courses in intercultural education. 22 teachers would like to attend a training course in intercultural education, 13 of them said, that they don't want to learn more; one teacher didn't reply to this question. In the following let see, how they explained their choice.

Teachers are interested to attend training courses, because “I want to learn”, “it is the most current issue in the world”, “I think, this is helpful, and I don't have knowledge in this topic”, “because the place where I live has population of different ethnics (Romanians, Hungarians, Gypsies)”, “it would help me in my didactic activity, as I have Hungarian children in my group”, “I have Gipsy pupils in my class”, “it is interested”.

Those teachers, who are not interested in training courses, explain their choice as follows “I don't have time”, “I have been attended courses related with this topic”, “I don't think that this would be helpful”.

It is interesting to observe, that 7 teachers, who replied, that intercultural education is a very important topic, don't want to attend training courses. There are teachers, who don't know the meaning of "intercultural education". They think, that intercultural education is very interesting, because "it is very important to relate the different subjects to each other, not to teach independent information, but student see the relations, "I could use it for teaching, especially at Geometry. After the participants completed the questionnaire, we had a short interview with them. This interview convinced us, that they confused the concept of interculturality with the concept of interdisciplinarity.

2.2. Questionnaire for pupils

In this questionnaire we wanted to find out, what pupils know about intercultural education, and if they are interested to learn more (see Appendix 1 for this questionnaire).

We have the answers from 172 high school student (15-20 years old students) from Cluj-Napoca, from three schools with traditions in education (two Romanian and one Hungarian school), having

- the following nationalities: Romanian (107 students), Hungarian (53 students), Romany (Gipsy) (3 students), Ukrainian (1 student), Moldavian (1 student), Romanian – Spanish (1 student), doesn't reply 6 students.
- the following religions: Orthodox (86 students), Reformat (37 students), Roman-Catholic (14 students), Pentecostal (11 students), Greek-Catholic (4 students), 7-th Day Adventist (3 students), witnesses of Jehovah (3 students), neoprotestant (2 students), Baptist (2 student), Unitarian (1 students), Free evangelical (1 student), Catholic (1 student), faithless 1 student, doesn't reply 6 students.

In the first question each student has selected 5 keywords. We gave 5 point for the keyword considered the most important, 4 for the next one, ..., 1 for the 5th selected one. Then for each keyword we added these numbers, and get a number. This numbers are given in Table 3.

Mutual respect	338	Tolerance	85
Acceptance	284	Compassion	70
Cooperation	268	Curiosity	64
Equal opportunities	255	Custom	51
Understanding	207	Identity	43
Knowledge	166	Tradition	37
Culture	146	Diversity	30
Exchange of experience	140	Interactions	30
Self-confidence	111	Influence	13
Integration	101	Interdependence	6
Language	95	Differences	4

Table 3 Keywords selected by pupils from Table 2

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We can observe, that the 5 most important keywords for students are: mutual respect, acceptance, cooperation, equal opportunities and understanding. In this list “interactions” is on 19th place, interdependence on 21st place. Analyzing the situation in case of each school, in one of the two Romanian school the order of the keywords is: mutual respect, acceptance, equal opportunities, understanding, language, “interaction” being on 17th place, “interdependence” on 20th place. In the other Romanian school the order is: mutual respect, acceptance, cooperation, understanding, and equal opportunities, “interaction” being on 17th place, “interdependence” on 21st place (being selected by only one student). Students from the Hungarian school involved in the study consider that the following keywords are the most important for describing intercultural education: equal opportunities, cooperation, mutual respect, acceptance, understanding, “interaction” being on 19th place, and nobody selected “interdependence”. It is interested to see, that “acceptance” were selected as the most important keyword 34 times, “mutual respect” 27 times, “equal opportunities” 23 times, “cooperation” 19 times, “culture” 10 times. Taking in account only these “most important” keywords (labeled by 1) selected by the students, the order of the keyword is different, than in the Table 3: acceptance, mutual respect, equal opportunities, cooperation, culture. Analyzing the top of the list, we see, that the most important keyword selected by students reflects a multicultural point of view, not an intercultural one. These keywords (with exception of “cooperation”) show static attitude to other cultures. The keywords, which usually are important for intercultural relations (interdependence, interactions), are not considered important for students.

It is interested to compare the five most important keywords selected by teachers and by pupils. For teachers these are: tolerance, acceptance, knowledge, tradition, equal opportunities (see Table 2), for students: mutual respect, acceptance, cooperation, equal opportunities, understanding (see Table 3). So two keywords agree, but the other three are different. “Tolerance” is only on the 13th place in pupils’ answers.

In the second question only about 1/4 of students wrote about some experience. Here are some examples:

- In primary school every summer a group of students from Scotland organize us English lessons. Here we have learnt a lot; in spite of our different origin we don’t have to make differences, we have a lot to learn from them
- In primary school once I have a new colleague, who knew only few words in Romanian, because he was English. We got in contact, he has learnt some Romanian from me, and I have learnt some English from him.
- I participated on some meetings at a Gipsy association, to discuss about this ethnic, traditions and customs.
- I met people from different countries, especially Holland, Filipinos and America, because of an online game. I speak with them every day about many things, for example religion, customs.

- Because I am in a traditional dance team, I had the opportunity to participate on festivals in different countries. There we exchanged customs, told about our countries.
- I visited my Hungarian relatives, who I have never met before. There I saw how they live, their culture and customs, which are different, as ours. They are Catholics, and their religion is very different from the orthodox religion. I took part of their community for two weeks. I have integrated in their community, and they accepted me quickly. Their language is very difficult, but I managed to learn the most important words. [she is Romanian]
- Learning a foreign language. Writing letters to a person from a different country helps to learn that language and culture.
- In my class there are pupils with different religions, and we are in good relations. I visited a Pentecostal church, and I felt well there. [she is orthodox]
- I have a tide friendship relation with four American teenagers. [...] The friendship with them helped me to know better the American culture, and to overcome some preconceptions about America. [...] I accept the American style of life and their customs, because I know that they helped me to understand that preconceptions about different cultures are not useful for the social life.

Analyzing the answers for the third question 143 students are interested to learn more about intercultural education, 21 don't want to learn more, 8 students didn't reply.

Those, who answered yes, have the following reasons: "for my general culture, and to apply it in everyday life", "I would like to know as much as possible about people around me and their life", "I don't know too much about interculturality, and I would like to learn", "to know better the customs, traditions of others", "for a better integration in EU".

Pupils, who answered no, have the following reasons: "I am not interested in", "I don't know exactly, what intercultural education means", "I don't have time", "I respect and I am respected by people of other religion and nationality", "I was abroad and studied with students from other countries, so I have satisfied my curiosity".

Conclusions and future directions to develop the study

The survey reflects the wish of teachers and students to learn more about intercultural education. In one hand teachers are interested to know how to solve intercultural problems in their classroom; on the other hand students are interested to learn facts about intercultural issues, and to know people of different culture. Students' answers show a static view on interculturality, because they don't have many opportunities to interact with persons from other ethnic groups, because usually they are separated in schools, in their group of friends, in family, etc.

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As a future development of this study we propose to extend the study on different regions of Romania, with different ethnic, religious and language structure; to make interviews with those teachers and students who replied the questionnaire.

This work was realized in the framework of the Comenius 2.1 European project, ICTime.

Appendix 1. Questionnaire for teachers

Taught subject:

Teaching experience: years

Teaching level: kinder garden, primary school, secondary school, high school

1. For you, as a teacher, the intercultural education is a
a) very interested b) not so interested c) not interested at all
topic. Please, explain your option.
2. Give at least three keyword related with intercultural education.
3. Would you be interested to attend a training course in intercultural education?
Yes, because
No, because

Appendix 2. Questionnaire for pupils

Age:

Nationality:

Religion:

1. Which of the following keyword are important to describe an intercultural relation? Choose the most important 5 keywords, and order them (the first is the most important, etc):

Acceptance	Influence
Compassion	Integration
Cooperation	Interactions
Culture	Interdependence
Curiosity	Knowledge
Custom	Language
Differences	Mutual respect
Diversity	Self-knowledge
Equal opportunities	Tolerance
Exchange of experience	Tradition
Identity	Understanding

2. Tell about an intercultural experience.
3. Would you like to learn about interculturality (intercultural education)?
Yes, because
No, because

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THE DIALOGICAL PRAXIS DURING THE PHILOSOPHY CLASS. PSYCHO – PEDAGOGICAL RESEARCH

MONICA DIACONU

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die daliegende Ermittlung wurde aufgrund eines zehnklassiges Muster durchgeführt. In jede – abituriente – Klasse war die Philosophie Unterrichtsgegenstand. Unser Interesse wurde, unter anderen umfangreichen Aspekten der dialogischen Praxis, der argumentativer und resolutiver Produktivität der Schüler, sowie dem Dialogalstil der Lehrer gewidmet. In diesem Ausschnitt haben wir es vorzüglich betrachtet, wie die Vielfalt der von den Lehrern geübten Dialogformen die Denkensfreiheit der Schüler sowie ihr Interesse für die Philosophie fördern. Die Schlussfolgerung ist dass je die dialogische Praxis mehr diversifiziert und von unnützlichen Richtschnüren befreit, desto mehr die Schüler sich entgegen der Philosophie öffnen lassen.

Preliminary statements

The concept of DP has been inspired to us by the philosophy of F. Gonseth which articulates its main coordinates. These are given by the quality of dialogue with regard to the knowledge exchanged between partners, the methodology involved in the debates, the ways of reaching consensus and the decision of closing the approach, as well as with regard to the ethical connotations engaged in the vivid exchange of ideas between partners.

The concept's adaptation to the scholar reality prescribed the taking into consideration of other elements of interest as well, such as dialogical forms used in the context of the Philosophy class, the logical steps called mainly by the method, what pupils gained, the general feeling during the class etc.

The research we made covers 312 pupils from 10 high schools in Cluj, philology type, Mathematics/ IT and arts. It is organized in two steps, namely the preliminary research, of a certain nature, in which we intended to see the specific methodology used for the chosen groups and to detect the value of the dialogical praxis. The second step, the interventional research was meant, after a prior training for the teachers of these groups, to intensify the taking of methodological steps of dialogical nature, in the analysis and in the comments on the text, as well as in its contextualization inside the theme it belongs to, by systematic inquiring brought to the level of experience of pupils everyday life and their power of interpreting and re-interpreting of the debated issues. The results we present here come from what the data, that we have consistently gathered together with

practicing students, offered. The instruments we used were: observation notes of different interest area for the research as well as pupils and teachers behavior before and after the intervention.

We must say that when we started, the research was centered on the hypothesis according to which the method of dialogue perfected and diversified depending on various learning situations could be more efficient than its circumstantial practice. Also, we assumed to obtain among the effects of intensified work by diversified dialogue an increased interest of pupils for Philosophy and gaining certain thinking, argumentative and debating issues.

Conclusions concerning the dialogical praxis [DP] during the Philosophy class

A. Dialogue as a type of speech for pupils

1. Dialogue as open talk used to clarify our own judgments, prejudices and interests is a moment that all teachers exploit in various ways (before or after reading and making comments on the text), depending on the importance given to the problem and to its solution at the level of the systematic conscience. After the intervention we proposed with respect to the increasing role of the questioning and making the dialogue more dynamic in order to obtain from the pupils a more profitable interpretation of the historical part, as well as an increase capacity of them to relate in their own way to classical solutions we noticed the following tendencies of significant constancy:

- promotion, to most of the chosen groups, of a dialogical way of making philosophy, oriented towards the philosophical problem and its reevaluation from the point of view of historical nature dialogue;
- the partial overcome, for the benefit of ideas exchange, of the dichotomy between the use of text vs. open talk, between reproducing ideas from the texts vs. thinking by oneself;
- preservation by some of the teachers of the classical teaching formula quasi-dialogical, based on lecture associated with dialogue on the text and debating in the text's area; in this way of achieving the DP we will talk neither about the reserves in operating the changes presumed by our intervention, nor about an opportunist opposition: these teachers are definitely convinced that the model they use is the best way to serve philosophy, and this is the reason why giving it up is impossible; trying to offer an interpretation of this fact, we recall what O. Reboul said. He labeled as indoctrination the impossibility to detach from the "doctrine" one has adhered, "as if it were the only possible" (1977, p.24). The teacher indoctrinates when he insists on convincing himself and the other that the methodological perspective he used is the only one valid.

2. Dialogue as way of attracting partners into talk, by listening, namely the texts reading, commenting and interpreting the text, as well as taking part in the class activities, is an omnipresent moment, which may vary as spreading and purpose from teacher to teacher. It has been noticed that pupils own thinking was stimulated (with various intensities and effects), context in which a teaching open talk can produce the most diverse ideas: they move on an axis which has at one pole the exact reproduction of the text's ideas, and which coincides many times with resuming the text, not with making comments on it, and at the other pole, the integration of the text's ideas in personal explanatory - argumentative structures. *If at the beginning of our research the dominant was represented by DP experiences closer to the idea of remaining, in dialogue, to comments on and interpreting the text as (the only) valid purposes of learning, the integration of texts' ideas in personal explanatory structures was a sporadic presence, understood as a gain by the teachers, but not enough practiced or exploited by the group of pupils. After the intervention we noticed the following changes in DP, with regard to the purposes for which the texts have been used and the effects that took place in the dialogue context;*

2.1. Situations of using the texts, the comments and the interpretation as main purposes of acknowledging the philosophical problems and their classical solutions; these situations remained, in DP context, the majority of approaches, or they were sporadically combined with the questioning, included more out of external reasons, then out of inner dialogical reasons; this situation is characteristic, till the end of the research, for the way of organizing the DP for two of the chosen teachers;

2.2. Situations of using the talk as a "valve", "motivational support" of a dialogue, while only the text is the one carrying "the real philosophy"; they characterize the DP organized by those teachers open to change and to the necessity its practicing, they understand its meaning and anticipate the educational consequences, but do not have enough skills to operate the change itself;

2.3. Situations in which reading and making comments on the text are oriented towards the understanding of the problems in it and the classical approaches, naturally and constantly mixed with the problems formulated in class; in this consistent encounter, we have seen personal ideas reevaluated, using texts support, integration of certain questioning elements in classical explanations and arguments, the comparison of some personal resolutions to classical resolutions of problems; these are inner changes of the DP operated, giving it a more dynamic aspect and a diversification of the problems brought into discussion; they assure in the same time the overcome of the speculative point of view, by engaging in a humane way of making philosophy, in which context the actual problems can be reevaluated from the point of view of their encounter with philosophical issues.

3. Dialogue as formula for a common meaning of debates and as a way of reaching a common resolution, most often left open to be re-evaluated and amended afterwards. *This moment in DP is present in all experiences of teaching*

and learning. By it the advanced opinions are selected and their main idea can be formulated beyond their diversity. As a permanent presence in DP, from the beginning till the end of our research this aspect of the dialogue did not suffer big changes. Its common sides are manifested by:

3.1. the assuming by all teachers of synthetic approaches and relating to class as if it were a multiple partner, whose participation is mostly tacit;

3.2. drawing the conclusions, as well, belongs to the teachers; in this approach we still find partial solutions presented by pupils during the debates, but the final conclusion belongs to the teacher; the fact can be explained by various causes out of which we noticed:

- an increased difficulty experienced by pupils facing synthetic approaches then analytical ones;

- a difficult access to the maximal generality level, towards which all synthetic approaches are oriented, way of thinking the pupils are not familiar with;

- the complexity of processes involved in formulating resolutions, which presume re-examining and a chain of re-formulations, re-organizing of pupils knowledge, in order to obtain new revaluations (on the condition of keeping their coherence) and drawing the conclusion, stating that it is not a definite one and it is meant to be revised from time to time;

- one last argument is the time factor, and its usage in order to obtain a maximum of results, so that the debates would not remain unfinished or postponed to be (maybe) taken into account another time.

After the intervention, as we said, we did not notice significant changes in this aspect of the DP. We must nevertheless say that some of the teachers hold on to the standard approaches at the level of drawing the meaning unity of debates and establishing a conclusion, while other teachers try and succeed to save a place for the pupils in drawing the conclusions, but establishing the common meaning and the resolution of the dialogue, is reserved, however, to the teachers. The conclusions are clearly drawn and presented to the class, without being imposed. What is different is the tone in which they operate, which varies from authoritarian coming from the authority of the teacher's position, to the cooperative form, directly correlated with teachers' competence.

B. The nature of the dialogical approaches engaged in DP

1. The observational experience from the initial part of the research, as well as some of the experience during the intervention time underline a **dominance of the historical dialogue**, to which it is attached in quantities varying according to theme and class discussion, the questioning dialogue. Fragments of hermeneutical dialogue are also present, directly related to the necessity of texts interpretation. This is the "recipe for success" that most of the chosen teachers used till the intervention, with very few exceptions, where the questioning and the historical part meet and mix naturally, for the benefit of the debated issue. *This dominant is*

associated with a certain common mentality of a significant number of teachers chosen for the experiment, according to which teaching philosophy is quasi – synonym to teaching elements of history of philosophy, because the history of the issues would identify itself to the history of great philosophical doctrines. Beyond this mentality, the persistence of this DP model can be explained through some objectives to which teaching and learning philosophy should be related to, and which most of them call for pupils' knowing and reproducing "classical" texts comments. Pupils' grading during the exams is judged by this structure of the model – commentary, which imposes the main trend in the DP of the classes. We should not be surprised by the fact that this form of DP, based on the historical dominance, is fundamentally present in the philology and humanistic type classes and especially in those where the teachers are used to have students picking among the final exams the philosophy one.

2. There is, beside the "classical" combination that we presented above, especially in the Mathematics/ IT and arts type of classes, **a relation between the questioning dialogue and the historical and hermeneutical one.** The causes of this practice of DP can be found in the teachers' intention to increase pupils' interest for activity in class, for their active involvement in debates centered on the very philosophical problem and less on its evolution in the history of philosophy. The purpose of this type of dialogue and the preference to work with it is to create personal opinions which are to be transformed in reflection subject, related to the meaning found in texts. These teachers, given the type of the high schools they work in, cultivate the diversity of DP and they cultivate especially pupils' personal need of reflection when approaching philosophical ideas, as an important purpose of the teaching philosophy itself for these types of schools.

2.1. Related to the initial research period, during the intervention we could notice the fact that all chosen teachers agreed on the increased efficiency of DP if renounced to the philosophical text vs. free talk dichotomy and pupils ideas and opinions are reevaluated as approaches to better show certain aspects of the discussed philosophical problem, related to other solutions present in texts.

2.2. What underlined the interventional stage is the gradual putting into practice of this new way of seeing the DP. There were two teachers among the chosen ones, of whose competence we do not doubt, who managed only sporadically and formally to mix the questioning with the historical aspect. The main opposing and reticence factor is linked to the way of seeing the teaching of philosophy, way that presumes an approach to philosophy through texts and interpreting. If we judge the efficiency of the DP practiced by these teachers we can notice that the pupils coming from the classes where they teach had remarkable results in school contests. But if we widen the area and appreciate the quality of all the pupils' knowledge in these classes, not only of those interested in philosophy, we can see that there is not much of an

interest for philosophical ideas and that, mainly, pupils' behavior is not involved. The element of novelty that showed up after the intervention was a more careful attitude towards those classes that were not involved and an attempt to attract it into the debate by aspects related to the questioning.

2.3. The gradualism we were noticing includes also experiences in which the DP accustomed to the new amends is built as a hybrid between historical and questioning, context in which the two way of looking at the problem do not meet and the debates are definitely solved by the historical aspect.

2.4. We must also notice that the increased role of the questioning in DP and the fusion with benefits for both parts, for the issues debated as well as for increasing pupils' interest for these, had in certain classes obvious cognitive effects. By the end of the intervention time there were situations that indicated (by various forms of grading such as papers, term papers, essays etc.) higher grades, way above those from the initial research time. The effects of the intervention can be noticed, for these classes, also in the degree of pupils' participation in debates, in their genuine taking part in the ideas exchange, as well as in the partial conclusions they draw.

***Drawing a conclusion** of general value for the issues taken into account we can certainly assert that the diversity of the forms of dialogical approach of the philosophical issues give the DP an increased quality which reflects on the pupils on two significant levels:*

- *Increased interest for the debated issues and*
- *Increased level of knowledge, especially among the pupils initially graded as mediocre.*

C. Analyzing the DP by the form of dialogues used we can see a teachers' clear preference, during the initial research, for the triadic dialogue (Hegelian). This preference is due to:

1. the way of structuring of the lessons in the textbook on the line of "thesis – antithesis - synthesis", which suggests a similar approach in dialogue of the lessons;
 - When the textbook proposes lessons as applications for already studied themes, the dialogue's form is pyramidal, with a wide basis of premises, which are selected and gradually put in a hierarchical system;
 - In certain classes the teachers prefer the dialogue as spiral, practiced mainly to the IT and arts types of classes, but also in classes of philology, with the intention of reviewing and reevaluating prior advanced ideas.
2. After the intervention, with regard to the forms of dialogue used we noticed the following:
 - The preference manifested by some of the teachers for the triadic dialogue is better integrated in the DP with historical dominant;

- For most of the chosen teachers there was a new opportunity to combine the Hegelian form with elements of the spiral form;
- For two of the chosen teachers we can notice that the experimentation of various dialogue forms is a good opportunity to exploit hidden knowledge of pupils.

*The **conclusion** we can draw is that the DP dynamic is better exploited by the exchanged ideas if alternated different forms of dialogue. The alternation is determined by a few constant factors:*

- *the way the themes are structured in the textbook;*
- *the way it is perceived the ration between questioning and historical in DP;*
- *the general conception about teaching philosophy that the teachers cultivate;*
- *the type of classes, of pupils' behaviors and interest for philosophy.*

D. The way dialogue is used in DP by the purpose it has in the development of the lesson's sequences.

1. During the initial research we could notice a common pattern among the chosen teachers with regard to the using of introductory dialogue, in order to familiarize the pupils with the theme, as well as the exploring dialogue, with the intention of finding out elements of knowledge intra, inter and trans-disciplinary the pupils already have, in order to reevaluate them in the new DP context. These are the "anchors" supporting teacher's activity.

2. After the intervention and the theoretical training we practiced, we could notice the following:

- The introductory type of dialogue was better taken into account in all classes and was transformed in a moment to question the theme in order to frame the issue;
- The exploring dialogue was approached in a more specialized manner, directly linked to the dialogue form that was about to develop or was already in process;
- The insertive type of dialogue earned its place, meaning that it was used not only as plain instrument to pass from one idea to another, but also as instrument through which it is prepared a causal explanation of the insertion in the taught content of a new and radically distinct statement (maybe even antinomic) from the rest of the statements previously discussed in class. Its cognitive charge is doubled by a psychological one, exploited in various ways by teachers: as origin of wonder, as motivation to critical reflection, as need to reevaluate knowledge, as motivation of some explorations etc.

The conclusion we draw states that in this area, of ways to use the dialogue in different parts of the lesson, we noticed some of the most visible benefic changes for the DP functioning.

E. The way logical approaches through dialogue are operated in DP.

In both sequences of the research, to all the chosen teachers, the dialogue of inductive nature is the dominant one: it is used either as a preparing part for the statement (or questioning) of a problem, or as an opening part of a new problem, where questions and answers lead the approach.

The preference for the dialogue of inductive nature is justified by the gradual approach, step by step, in a coordinated manner in order to solve the problem: it is about an approach of conceptual nature that cannot be eluded in the process of lifting the thinking to philosophical concepts of maximum generality.

The alternation with the dialogue mostly deductive is determined by the themes' content and the need to reevaluate and reinterpret statements of general character and indicating "the value of use" of the human experience for philosophy.

F. Ways of using dialogue by its teaching function in DP.

During the whole research we made we noticed the use of dialogue in DP as:

1. Method of active teaching and learning by combining teachers' activity with the students'; the degree of reevaluation of pupils' activity varies from teacher to teacher, at least during the first part of our research; after the intervention we could notice a more careful involvement of pupils in class activities, and in some cases we could even notice the structuring of the lesson as a result of teachers and pupils activity in a whole co-operant and united;
2. As an evaluation method, dialogue was mainly based, during all the experiments, on the reevaluation (and grading) of the knowledge previously gained by pupils, as well as on those most recently acquired and on the judging of pupils' argumentative skills.

*From the data gathered we can draw the **conclusion** that in this hypostasis, the dialogue gave the DP a double meaning, namely, a gnoseological meaning and a reevaluating – training meaning, "translated" by pupils in involvement manifested to at least one third of the participants to the experiment.*

G. The general feeling that the DP is building is rather open to all the chosen classes

1. There are, of course, differentiations determined by the way the teacher projects himself in class activities: when he is the *magister*, the pupils have reservations in formulating personal opinions and expressing them. We meet this situation (in two cases) before as well as after the intervention: it is due to certain personal projections concerning the teacher's role, his relation to the class, to the idea of co-operating in building the DP and, let's not forget, to the way the purpose of teaching philosophy in high school is understood.

2. In most of the cases, the teachers wish and seldom succeed to act as leaders, moderators of dialogue. After the intervention, this position was increased by a wider access of life experience, significant from a philosophical point of view; descending the philosophy on solid ground produced a "democratization" of ideas and a genuine co-operative participation.

*The **conclusion** we can draw is that the general feeling during classes, caused by the DP is in tight connection with its quality, with the dynamic and the diversity of processes that take place in its context, as well as with the dialogical experience gained by participants.*

If this conclusion has a general value, the obligation to mention the exceptions shows the fact that among the classes we chose, there were classes which refused to participate, practicing the indifference or the rebelliousness faced with all the approaches we made in order to obtain a genuine dialogue between teachers and pupils. *Noticing the constancy of these experiences makes us state that the open feeling built by the DP structure depends also on pupils' projections on learning, as well as on certain stereotypes in receiving the teachers' message and on corrupting it in the name of some extra – curricular values.*

H. Practicing the thinking capacities through the activities made in the framework of classes' DP.

1. Practicing the divergent thinking in alternation with the convergent thinking is permanent, manifested through out the research period. It is called by the encounter of the philosophical issues with the diversity of knowledge the pupils have and by the necessity of their reevaluation in the context of the manual themes. On the other hand, concepts' building itself imposes this alternation.

2. In the DP context it is constantly practiced (but with different intensity degrees) the capacity of pupils to establish **connections**: till the end of the research we could notice that some of the teachers prefer to cultivate the intra-disciplinary connections as an approach to learning philosophy; not all the pupils prove themselves to be receptive enough facing the teachers' temptation to widen the connections field inside philosophy, and this is the reason why taking part to the dialogue is in those classes always the factor splitting the pupils into those who are active and those who need constant provocation.

Other teachers cultivate the inter-disciplinary connections, regardless the type of the class or the high school. In tight relation with these, intra-disciplinary connections are built, which makes pupils' activity in class to be more active and higher motivated by causes depending on knowledge and not by a certain kind of activism, rather demonstrative.

Trans – disciplinary connections are cultivated as well, during the first part of the research with higher reservations, given the conditions where the DP was dominated by the dialogue of historical nature. During the second period of the research we noticed, generally, a better balance between the inter, intra and trans – disciplinary connections cultivated by the DP, and this could be seen by pupils' answers, as well as by the repeated grading. *One of the causes of the re-adjustment lies in the nature of our intervention which was meant to balance the ratio between the questioning and the historical aspect.*

I. Reflexive thinking is cultivated explicitly and implicitly in the DP context, in various teaching and learning experiences, such as:

- The need to (re)examine the knowledge pupils already have, imposed by the philosophical issues;
- Maintaining the coherence of ideas as a follow up of partial re-formulation;
- Comments on and interpretation of the text;
- Examining the arguments displaced by the participants to the dialogue.

The specific of philosophical reflexivity calls for constant approaches such as critical examination of cognitive results, which was a new exercise for pupils, and which was not practiced prior to the encounter with the philosophy. Reflexivity is not just an exercise but also a habit consistently cultivated by teachers but with various depths and amplitudes from case to case, founded on the principle that no knowledge is sufficient, complete and final. *From the data given by our research it can be seen that the reflexivity exercise in order to build the capacity to consider in a reflexive manner the cognitive and the experience results by the pupils is, as we stated before, practiced in different authenticity degrees.* These depend not only on teachers' intentionality, but also on pupils' capacity to enter this cognitive experience: it varies from class to class and even from group to group of pupils, inside the same class. Beyond these significant variations we can notice the fact that the exercise of reflexive nature, as well as the habit to reflexively consider theories and cognition elements depends, in the first place, on how open the pupils proved themselves to be towards philosophy and the progress in that area is the progress they made towards philosophy. *So, the conclusion we can draw with regard to the reflexive thinking capacity, practiced by teachers by the DP developed inside each class indicates the fact that it is a process which starts with the study of philosophy and which develops by dialogical exchanges inside the philosophy lessons, as well as by personal openness, for each pupil, to the exercise it involves.*

J. To which extent do the activities included in DP support pupils' autonomy in argumentation and resolution? The general answer we can give is affirmative. This statement of general value, when lowered to the level of each class DP, underlines certain specific notes that depend, mainly, on dialogical approaches proposed by teachers, in tight connection with the type of classes. From the analysis of data we have a few particularities of the argumentative praxis which differentiates teachers' activity:

1. Thus, at certain types of classes (arts, IT but sometimes also philology can be included here) the teachers challenge the arguments in order to make pupils accumulate various data, necessary to building concepts and philosophical problems, as well as the required resolution; the accent falls on the argumentative diversity because usually these aspects are comprised in pupils' capacities and because they indicate, support and prove pupils' participation in a dialogue, as well as the capacity to think the dialogical sequences of DP in an involved and constructive manner.

2. For other types of classes (mostly philology), from teachers' point of view, it is very important not only the diversity of the contents involved in the argument, but also their punctuality related to the problem and their logical consistency, all these accompanied by the concern to mind certain necessary rules (logical and ethical) during the argumentative process. There is in these classes a favored category of pupils that are asked to learn these exercises and practice them consistently (the pupils systematically interested in philosophy); most of the colleagues take part in these demonstrations, taking part which is not left without benefic consequences for them because, sooner or later, they will be able to use some of these rules as a gained good, fact that was proved gradually, till the end of our intervention, mostly in the written papers, which allow better concentration;
3. Judging by the argumentative behavior of pupils there is another thing we should note: there are pupils outside any kind of interest for argumentation rules, perceiving the thinking independence cultivated by argumentative approaches as imposing in dialogue by force, lack of respect and patience towards teachers' and colleagues' arguments.

***The conclusion** we can draw at the end of the research period is that the improving approaches of different kinds of dialogues and the constant amending of the DP's quality of the classes contributed to the increase of the pupils' argumentative capacity and their thinking independence: the most significant growing was registered for the mediocre pupils, among which there are now more pupils with good and very good grades. As we can also see in the graphics indicating the changes registered at the level of the argumentation capacity and of the independence in thinking, the process considered during the whole school year has a slightly ascendant trend. This trend is but the resultant of certain behaviors and does not include each evolution considered for itself: personal behaviors are much more diverse than the resultant, being sometimes stagnant and even regressive when compared to it, fact illustrated by the graphics we submit for reading and interpretation in this paper.*

ELEMENTS POUR UNE RHETORIQUE DU PROGRES TAUTOLOGIQUE DE SENS

MIRCEA BREAZ

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Elemente zur Rhetorik des tautologischen Bedeutungsfortschrittes. Diese Forschung gründet auf einem, auf der Interferenzgrenze zwischen Neorhetorik und Psycholinguistik sich befindenden wissenschaftlichen Gebiet. Bei der Beitragleistung der Konfigurierung einer Rhetorik des tautologischen Bedeutungsfortschrittes wird das Studium des tautologischen Diskurses, als eine bedeutende rhetorische Praxis, von der Perspektive einer persuasiv dirigierten Intention aus gesehen. Dieses liegt auf der Linie der jetzigen theoretischen Orientierung auf dem Gebiet der Neorhetorik und der Diskursanalyse.

La création et le développement de la rhétorique comme science du général et comme art de l'action humaine, aussi bien son évolution ultérieure vers la philosophie du langage, lui ont imprimé un parcours qui va permettre la survie de la rhétorique et ouvrira l'horizon de sa résurrection à la fin du XX -e siècle, comme une théorie généralisée des formes et des actions discursives, respectivement comme science intégrée et généralisée du texte, sous le signe exhaustif de la rhétorique générale. Par sa nature analytique, la rhétorique n'a pas cessé, à travers le temps, de fournir non seulement un plan général du langage commun à tous les discours, mais aussi les moyens nécessaires à la découverte systématique des raisons et des motifs initiaux et finals de l'efficacité de l'action discursive.

En comprenant l'importance de la configuration et de l'application d'un plan général, relativement algorithmique, dans l'administration du discours, les rhétoriciens ont codifié les phases que l'on doit suivre dans un discours, tant dans le processus d'élaboration, que dans la dialectique de l'exploitation efficiente de ses ressources persuasives. La prescription de ces règles d'organisation des successions des parties constitutives du discours s'est retrouvée dans la structuration d'un plan général du discours, formulé par les rhétoriciens de l'antiquité.

Par tradition, la rhétorique a marié un art de la construction des discours avec des théories sur ces discours. Grâce à la modernité des systèmes élaborés et grâce aux propositions formulées, la rhétorique va constituer une première preuve dans le monde occidental d'une pensée sur le discours, en provoquant la résurrection de la rhétorique au XX -e siècle, comme le prouve l'intérêt dont elle jouit dans les théories de l'argumentation, dans les linguistiques énonciatives et pragmatiques, dans la théorie littéraire et, généralement, dans les sciences socio-humaines.

Jusqu'à la moitié du siècle passé, la majorité des approches théoriques générales dans le domaine sont restées dans une grande mesure tributaires à une position duplicitaire en ce qui concerne le statut ontologique et gnoséologique de la rhétorique.

Malgré cela, la rhétorique a réaffirmé, à chaque nouvelle résurrection, le statut relativement autonome de ses constructions linguistiques propres, comme l'expression d'une pensée émancipée, essayant de définir (d'où l'inflation des délimitations de son propre domaine) et de rendre normatif (d'où l'excès taxonomique) son propre système référentiel et sémantique- expressif. Elle a imposé à la fin du siècle passé l'idée que non seulement ses produits discursifs proprement-dits (la réduction de la rhétorique aux figures rhétoriques), mais aussi les théories sur son domaine propre (les produits méta-théoriques issus de la réduction de l'épistémologie générale à l'épistémologie rhétorique) sont des systèmes ou des micro-systèmes hypothético-déductifs d'énoncés, des entités linguistiques pures, des produits discursifs autonomes, tant au sens large, qu'au sens restreint, dont les finalités et les degrés différents d'élaboration d'ordre argumentatif et persuasif sont d'une manière inhérente déterminés aussi sur le plan référentiel, que sur le plan expressif.

La *nouvelle rhétorique* se présentera comme une théorie générale de toute argumentation et applicable à n'importe quel type d'audience; elle postule *l'efficacité du discours*, elle introduit *la qualité de l'auditeur* comme élément décisif pour la valeur de l'argumentation; dans sa dimension argumentative se révèle la préoccupation pour les problèmes de la raison pratique, *de la théorie de l'action* et, en même temps, pour les aspects de la persuasion et de l'adhésion.

Selon Booth (1967, 1974), „la renaissance de la rhétorique” de la fin du XX-e siècle aurait dû être comprise et elle aurait pu se produire surtout comme une remodelation de celle-ci conformément aux desiderata de l'époque contemporaine, respectivement par la réhabilitation de la rhétorique comme théorie compréhensive de la persuasion et de l'argumentation de l'opinion, subordonnée aux théories de la connaissance et de la communication.

Bien qu'il trouve son point de départ dans la constatation du renouvellement des études rhétoriques au milieu de la cinquième décennie du siècle passé, Booth soutient, pourtant, que, d'une manière (apparemment) paradoxale, bien que l'on ait été les témoins de la traversée de l'âge la plus rhétorique de tous les temps, la deuxième moitié du XX-e siècle s'est manifestée, malgré tout cela, comme une époque rhétorique sans une théorie rhétorique à sa mesure.

Par „une nouvelle rhétorique” Burke(1967) comprenait, à son tour, une rhétorique „restaurée” et étendue d'une manière pluri- disciplinaire, ce qui situe la rhétorique parmi *les sciences de la subjectivité homologuée et des relations conditionnées*.

Dans cette acception, le syntagme „la nouvelle rhétorique” désigne, d'une part, une rhétorique recréée pour restaurer les domaines rhétoriques „banis” par l'esthétisme, qui a exilé la vieille rhétorique en restreignant petit à petit son domaine parmi les soi-disantes „nouvelles sciences”, et d'autre part, une rhétorique étendue (sur des bases gnoséologiques) et révigoree surtout grâce à la contribution

analytique de ces „nouvelles sciences” qui se sont développées par la revendication de certains domaines appartenant à l’héritage historique de la vieille rhétorique. Cela a permis, ultérieurement, la reconsidération pluri-disciplinaire de la rhétorique comme art compréhensif de la communication verbale ou écrite et comme ensemble théorique et pratique capable d’influencer l’opinion du récepteur dans une triple perspective: philosophique, psychologique et linguistique.

En conclusion, on apprécie que le statut de la rhétorique à travers le temps, son déclin et sa renaissance périodique ont été jugés aussi constamment de l’angle des modalités dans lesquelles elle a été définie, soit par extension et extrapolée, comme genre proximal, soit par réduction, donc comme différence spécifique, selon la perspective de l’une ou de l’autre de ses parties. L’engagement et la consolidation de la propension exhaustive des néo- rhétoriques de la fin du XX -e siècle ont été donc possibles seulement grâce aux nombreuses tentatives de réunification du système de la rhétorique et de la reconstitution du champs de l’action de la rhétorique intégrale.

Même si le domaine de la rhétorique est arrivé d’être le terrain de ces extrêmes délimitations conceptuelles, opérées tantôt du point de vue de l’ensemble qu’elle circonscrit, comme art fondamental du trivium libéral, à côté de la *dialectique*(ou de la *logique*) et de la *grammaire*, par conséquent, du point de vue de la synthèse des domaines propres, tantôt du point de vue de l’un ou de plusieurs domaines parentés ou dans sa descendance historique (*la poétique, l’esthétique, la stylistique, la pragmatique* etc.), on accepte, généralement, le fait que même l’alternance de ces approches dans des ongles opposés a favorisé la survie ininterrompue de la rhétorique et la perpétuation de son héritage théorique et a permis de conserver son potentiel interdisciplinaire. A son tour, le discours tautologique, comme objet, sujet et instrument rhétorique, s’est ressenti longtemps, de tous les avatars de la crise de légitimité du domaine de la rhétorique.

En essayant de réaliser une contribution théorique et méta- théorique à la configuration d’une rhétorique du processus tautologique de création de sens, l’étude menée sur la tautologie comme pratique rhétorique significative, dans la perspective d’une intentionnalité fonctionnelle et dirigée, et en même temps, la recherche de la place de la tautologie dans le système de la répétition lexicale intégrée dans la syntaxe, appartiennent aux orientations théoriques actuelles de la néo-rhétorique et de la linguistique générale. L’enjeu scientifique relativement récent de ces nouvelles orientations est la mise en valeur de la nature des implications de nature expressive et intentionnelle qui en découlent pour le domaine général de la création de sens. Par conséquent, il est inévitable de ne pas reconnaître dans nos démarches un certain transfert interdisciplinaire, mais qui ne représente pas une manifestation de l’éclectisme méthodologique, bien au contraire, car ce transfert est dû à un certain homomorphisme inévitable des procédés, qui découle de la complémentarité entre *la grammaire linguistique et la grammaire rhétorique*.

Etant données les particularités relationnelles et fonctionnelles de la tautologie, on a essayé de souligner, au niveau de la syntaxe discursive, les principaux paramètres de la caractérisation de la tautologie et de l’analyse des fonctions identifiées de celle-ci

et l'importance de ces paramètres dans la perspective *de la signifiante* structurale - persuasive, en réunissant et en exploitant aussi bien des critères révélateurs du point de vue linguistique (la spécificité de la construction syntaxique et des valeurs sémantiques des structures tautologiques au niveau syntagmique minimal et maximal, respectivement au niveau phrastique), que les critères significatifs du point de vue rhétorique (la spécificité des valeurs expressives et de la dimension intentionnelle qui caractérise le discours tautologique).

Le modèle discursif qui se trouve à la base de l'analyse rhétorique des fonctions, des sens et des significations structurelles-persuasives de la tautologie, considère les structures tautologiques comme des séquences de positions (syntaxiques) qui peuvent être représentées par des termes ou des unités appartenants à différentes classes de constituants nucléaires et périphériques (latéraux) (des constituants syntagmiques intra et inter- propositionnels). Le premier terme de la relation tautologique (*T1*) peut être considéré un constituant primaire central, et l'autre (*T2*), un constituant second, mais non secondaire, du point de vue du contenu. A ce qu'on le sache, à la suite du phénomène d'interpénétration rhétorico- discursive entre le niveau segmental et sur- segmental, le contenu d'une construction tautologique est déterminé non seulement par le sens de ses composants (y compris le sens structural- persuasif), mais aussi par l'organisation interne de ses constituants primaires et secondaires, par le contexte linguistique et extra- linguistique.

Comme nous l'avons affirmé auparavant, la recherche théorique et méta-théorique (*persintologique*) entreprise du point de vue rhétorico- linguistique sur la tautologie a eu comme objectif principal d'établir la place de celle-ci dans le système des figures rhétoriques de la répétition lexicale intégrée dans la syntaxe (y compris sa place dans le tableau de la redondance positive) et de déterminer son statut fonctionnel à ce niveau taxonomique, tout d'abord par l'identification des fonctions spécifiques de la tautologie et, ensuite, par la description de son rôle dans la manifestation de l'action rhétorico- linguistique proprement- dite.

Dans cette perspective, nous avons essayé de contribuer à la réalisation d'un modèle rhétorico- linguistique de la tautologie, en précisant qu'indifféremment du niveau syntagmique (minimal ou maximal) de la construction rhétorico- linguistique des structures tautologiques, l'efficacité rhétorique du choix demande la relativisation des restrictions combinatoires en ce qui concerne la condition portant sur la position dans la chaîne des termes en rapport de substitution hypothétique (l'ordre de la succession des composants), parce que la relevance ou la non- relevance de la disposition rhétorico- linguistique, respectivement de la topique des composants, se réfère premièrement au critère du degré de persuasion suivi et deuxièmement, on pourrait parler de la présence d'autres critères, tel du niveau macrostructural ou microstructural où on opère des choix entre des expressions synonymes ou celui des modalités (des possibilités)- formelles non-sémantiques (surtout de substitution et transformationnelles: adition, suppression, permutation, combinaison etc.) ou sémantiques- de mise en évidence de ces choix. Cela se passe aussi pour la tautologie,

qui dans sa structure connaît une succession fixe et obligatoire des composants, mais qui est *irélevante* au niveau syntaxique, car elle est l'unique succession possible.

Malgré cela, ce n'est pas la description formelle proprement dite de la tautologie et de ses fonctions qui a été le but principal des démarches de notre analyse, mais la description rhétorico- sémantique (prépondérant sémantique, syntaxique-fonctionnelle et expressive) de la tautologie et l'investigation de celle-ci, selon une vision processuelle- sémantique et fonctionnelle- contextuelle, avec des éléments de grammaire rhétorique, de philosophie de la rhétorique (et de philosophie du langage), de rhétorique cognitive (psycho- rhétorique et logique modale), dans une perspective rhétorico- pragmatique et sémiotique.

En accord avec l'utilisation rhétorique et rhétorique- pragmatique du terme de *discours*, celui-ci a été employé dans l'acception de séquence linguistique écrite ou parlée (même si, dans cette approche théorique générale, nous nous sommes limité à l'analyse du *discours écrit*, respectivement *au texte comme produit d'un discours narré* (ou "*narrativisé*"), qui forme une unité processuelle- sémantique et fonctionnelle- contextuelle d'ordre communicatif, indifféremment si on l'envisage sa formation d'unités linguistiques (caractérisées par la fonction de prédication) plus au moins complexes, respectivement des énoncés de type syntagmique minimal ou maximal. La notion de *discours* (comme entité complexe de la communication constituée d'un ensemble d'énoncés, caractérisés par la fonction de prédication), pareille à celle de *texte*, considérée parfois comme synonyme ou complémentaire à celle de *discours*, ne se situe donc pas sur le même plan avec les notions désignant ses éléments composants, pas même dans la situation dans laquelle on envisage des unités syntagmiques maximales (phrastiques) ou des unités considérées supérieures à ce niveau, respectivement la séquence discursive ou le paragraphe discursif.

E. Coşeriu(1996) remarquait dans ce sens, non seulement la possibilité de « *construire* » le discours (au-delà de la possibilité que le discours soit co-extensif pareil à l'énoncé ou au texte), en comprenant *le texte comme le produit expressif d'un discours persuasif*, mais aussi les caractéristiques du discours « *comme activité* » (le discours est l'une des utilisations possibles de la langue en conformité à des intentions communicatives globales).

L'approche rhétorique de l'analyse du discours dans la perspective des références théoriques mentionnées envisage les fonctions persuasives du discours dans des situations de la communication orale ou écrite spécifiquement déterminées, qui caractérisent le discours rhétorique comme *activité ou comme sens en action* et qui le définissent – en alternance et en complémentarité avec la notion désignée par le terme de *texte – comme une unité de langage en usage*, respectivement comme disposition ou configuration rhétorico- linguistique formée d'une séquence d'unités (le plus souvent des propositions) cohérente du point de vue syntaxique et sémantique et actualisée par l'usage intentionnel ou persuasif dans le processus de la discursivité rhétorique.

Les principes de la discursivité tautologique découlent, dans la nouvelle rhétorique, des principes généraux concernant la discursivité rhétorique. Il s'agit tout d'abord du *principe de la locomotion discursive circulaire*, du *principe de la limite et*

du principe de la redondance positive nécessaire, d'où, par exemple, la fonction persuasive, la fonction péroratoire ou la fonction démonstrative de la tautologie.

Les principales fonctions rhétoriques dérivées des vertus aristotéliques du *style conceptuel* ou *intellectif* sont aussi les plus importantes fonctions historiques (constitutives) de la rhétorique même, fonctions qui dérivent des conventions rhétoriques, configurant l'idéal de l'efficacité persuasive absolue: *la clarté, la propriété, la correction, la simplicité et la prégnance persuasive.*

Une discussion sur la prégnance persuasive comme attribut intentionnel constitutif du *style tautologique*, dans son acception *de style de la pensée incorporée* dans le discours, pourrait acquérir ainsi, à l'aide de l'analyse de la *fonction conceptuelle* de la tautologie, la valeur d'une *conclusion générale sur la stratégie intentionnelle du discours tautologique comme pratique rhétorique significative.* La tautologie devient ainsi une figure gnoseologique de la délibération finaliste, ayant un haut degré de persuasion conféré par *la fonction de la connaissance discursive*, une fonction cognitive qui lui est propre, spécifique et naturelle.

Dans cet ordre d'idées, nous précisons que l'objet d'une recherche sur la progression tautologique de sens se constitue principalement de la description des caractéristiques sémantiques- syntaxiques propres à la tautologie comme figure de la répétition lexicale et aussi à certaines fonctions de celle-ci, tant que structure sémantique-syntaxique particulière de la répétition lexicale, que comme figure rhétorique du discours persuasif. L'investigation des fonctions respectives comme des fonctions rhétoriques- discursives découle de cette double compréhension du statut discursif de la tautologie, compréhension conférée par l'option de l'articulation des deux perspectives analytiques mentionnées, la perspective structurale- fonctionnelle et la perspective rhétorique.

Nous avons considéré que, d'une manière générale, le système des fonctions rhétoriques se présentent et se manifestent comme des ensembles de rapports et de relations entre des éléments ou des unités (rhétoriques- discursives) structurées et structurantes, simples ou complexes, liées par des règles fonctionnelles caractéristiques aux pratiques discursives intentionnelles.

On a employé, donc, l'expression *fonctions rhétoriques dans la syntaxe discursive* pour référer aussi aux entités du métalangage rhétorique- linguistique qui désignent la mesure même dans laquelle les propriétés des objets discursifs exercent un certain rôle dans l'engrenage du langage (au niveau des règles de combinaison et de différenciation des entités rhétoriques- linguistiques), en imposant elle aussi certaines restrictions combinatoires (sur le plan syntagmatique), respectivement des restrictions de sélection ou de différenciation des certaines unités rhétoriques- linguistiques (signes, figures, « traits distinctifs » etc.), sur le plan paradigmatique.

Les fonctions rhétoriques sont, en conséquence, des *facteurs virtuels* qui sont archivés – comme principes, paramètres ou ressorts activables contextuellement – à des niveaux sur- ordonnés du système rhétorique- discursif (des conventions constitutives, institutionnelles, typologiques, taxonomiques etc.) et qui, activés contextuellement, sont responsables de l'organisation effective et du fonctionnement rhétorique- discursif

proprement- dit du système respectif. Autrement dit, les fonctions et les sens rhétoriques sont toujours des valeurs discursives « ajoutées » contextuellement ou d'une manière intentionnelle.

La tâche de la syntaxe discursive est d'identifier et de clarifier les fonctions et les sens des unités ou des éléments linguistiques, tandis que celle de la rhétorique est d'explicitier et / ou d'exploiter dans des finalités persuasives les fonctions et les sens rhétoriques qui correspondent à ses unités rhétoriques- discursives spécifiques.

Cette triple raison discursive, intentionnelle, processuelle- sémantique et fonctionnelle- contextuelle, fait que l'implication du critère sémantique et expressif soit indispensable à toute analyse, de sorte que le sens structural- persuasif de l'ensemble résulte de la combinaison du sens structural- fonctionnel des parties avec une série de sens persuasifs ou intentionnels, généraux et particuliers, dans leur qualité de dimensions expressives- dynamiques de la structure comme totalité fonctionnelle.

Tout en réalisant des différentes rétrospectives « des reprises » que la tradition des grammaires linguistiques a opéré dans le corpus historique des grammaires rhétoriques (expressives), dans le sens de l'approche structurale- fonctionnelle des indices sémantiques- syntaxiques de la variété stylistique et de la différenciation expressive, les travaux théoriques les plus importants de la fin du siècle passé ont investigué aussi les principaux problèmes (1) de l'identité et de la redondance discursive, (2) de la congruence tautologique (le fonctionnement rhétorique dans les données de ses caractéristiques sémantiques- syntaxiques et expressives), (3) de l'interdépendance tautologique (relation lexicale- sémantique réciproquement déterminée), comme inter- détermination congruente, et aussi, (4) les propriétés de réflexibilité, symétrie et transitivité des termes répétés ($T1$ et $T2$) des tautologies, comme des paires ordonnées d'éléments associés par la relation binaire (les deux termes - $T1$ et $T2$ - de la tautologie, comme successeurs interdépendants et relativement interchangeables).

Le problème de l'identité discursive, respectivement de la relevance des différenciations dans l'identité, a conduit souvent à l'analyse de l'opposition entre la tautologie (comme figure de la concordance conceptuelle) et le pléonasma, comme phénomènes de la redondance discursive négative. Tant les stylistiques de la langue, que les stylistiques littéraires ont étudié la nature fonctionnelle des différences attentionnelles, respectivement intentionnelles, dans leurs acceptions de conditions structurales de la divergence sémantique et expressive, ce qui a remis constamment en discussion l'opposition entre la tautologie (cas de déviation de renforcement de la règle), et le pléonasma (cas de déviation d'écart de la règle), de la même perspective de la redondance discursive positive (la tautologie) ou négative (le pléonasma), et a établi la place particulière de la tautologie dans le tableau des intersections des métalogiques et des méta- sémèmes.

L'aire de l'investigation a visé, donc, tant l'analyse de la tautologie comme procédé syntaxique et lexical- sémantique à valeurs expressives, que l'étude des particularités rhétoriques- discursives de la tautologie comme figure de la syntaxe rhétorique- discursive.

Le point de départ de toutes ces discussions pourrait être le statut des définitions tautologiques, qui *ne sont pas* de définitions circulaires proprement dites. Nous avons essayé, à notre tour, de dénoncer le soit- disant « *consensus de l'erreur* » qui a entraîné constamment la distribution de la tautologie (les travaux lexicographiques y compris) parmi *les fautes* de langue et de style, par l'invariable assimilation non- différenciée à des phénomènes de la redondance négative, de la prolixité ou de la stéréotypie linguistique, tel que *le pléonasma (la périsologie), le truisme (la lapalissade), le cliché d'expression (« les expressions tout faites ») etc.*

Bien que la tautologie a été revendiquée, dans le cadre de l'action discursive proprement- dite, comme un procédé à la fois quantitatif (« *le pluriel de la correction* ») et qualitatif (construction répétitive structurellement nécessaire) de mise en relief syntaxique et de mise en évidence rhétorique- stylistique et expressive, un procédé décrit comme tel dans une série de recherches actuelles significatives, cela ne signifie pas que le phénomène de la tautologie a été épargné, à travers le temps, de la manifestation des points de vue théoriques et pratiques à effet de censure.

Dans cette perspective, il est à signaler le fait que l'erreur la plus fréquente consiste à placer la tautologie, selon le cas, parmi les nombreuses manifestations de la prolixité ou de la stéréotypie linguistique. Il y a, par conséquent, de nombreuses appréciations de la tautologie comme « *erreur sémantique* », « *accident sémantique* »; « *faute lexico- grammaticale* », « *faute d'expression* », « *vice d'expression* », « *écart d'expression* », « *surabondance de termes* » (*opposée à la brève éloquence*), « *surplus d'expression* », « *langage approximatif* », « *parler parasitaire* », « *combinaison phraséologique parasitaire* » (*superflue*), « *mots- valises* »; « *cliché d'expression* »; « *truisme* » etc. Mais plus nombreuses et plus surprenantes sont les positions théoriques qui considèrent la tautologie soit une faute d'ordre logique (« *équivoque logique* »), soit une erreur syntaxique ou un écart stylistique - ce dernier, créé par une prétendue surabondance de termes au niveau de l'expression. Malgré tout cela, tant certaines approches traditionnelles (GLR, 1966; Dragomirescu, 1975) du phénomène en discussion, que certains travaux modernes (Constantinescu- Dobridor, 1994; Diaconescu, 1995; Irimia, 1990 et d'autres) situent la tautologie, dans le cadre de la répétition lexicale, parmi les procédés syntaxiques à valeurs expressives.

Dans cet ordre d'idées, les plus connus tableaux taxonomiques de la tautologie se revendiquent tant des critères structuraux- fonctionnels de la grammaire linguistique (la répétition lexicale- grammaticale), que des critères de la grammaire rhétorique appartenant à la soit- disante syntaxe rhétorique- stylistique ou expressive du discours. La perspective taxonomique *des opérations discursives* fondamentales (*adjonction, réduction, mutation et substitution*) permet la détermination de la place de la tautologie au niveau des différentes démarches de systématisation et au niveau des différents modèles intégrateurs, respectivement le placement de la tautologie sur *l'axe de la redondance par adjonction répétitive*.

En dehors de certaines mentions collatérales, la plupart - des contributions à l'étude des manifestations linguistiques et stylistiques de la répétition (Byck, 1934; Jordan, 1944), chez nous, le phénomène de la tautologie n'a pas connu une recherche

systématique ni dans la première moitié du siècle passé, ni plus tard, car l'investigation de la tautologie ne s'est pas constituée dans un domaine d'étude spécifique; la tautologie n'a pas joui donc d'un intérêt particulier de la part des spécialistes roumains, probablement à cause de la tendance générale d'être cataloguée par les linguistes comme « *une faute élémentaire* » et, par conséquent, inintéressante.

Comme nous l'avons déjà précisé, les fausses définitions données à la tautologie dans la plupart des dictionnaires et dans d'autres instruments de travail du siècle passé, ont consacré et ont perpétué un vrai consensus de l'erreur, généré par la confusion avec le pléonasmе et, finalement, par l'assimilation abusive de la tautologie avec les phénomènes du domaine de la redondance négative. On omettait, pourtant, systématiquement, la reconnaissance de l'importance majeure que les manifestations de la redondance tautologique ont soulignée pour les impératives de la communication, dont les raisons rhétoriques- pragmatiques demandent sans cesse que la forme linguistique soit constamment redondante et sur tous les plans.

La critique de ce réductionnisme s'est produite chez nous surtout durant les trois dernières décennies du XX -e siècle (Wald et Graur, 1970; Dragomirescu, 1975; Irimia, 1986; Diaconescu, 1995; Avram, 1996 et d'autres), à partir surtout de la reconsidération des implications du phénomène de la redondance pour une série de délimitations conceptuelles et distinctions, parmi lesquelles celles entre le pléonasmе et la tautologie.

Ainsi, les premiers éléments pour un traitement linguistique du problème de la tautologie, et aussi les premiers essais de systématisation des différents types formels de tautologie et des divers emplois que ceux-ci reçoivent, ont les rencontre dans les recherches entreprises par Wald(1962) et Graur(1962)qui, sur les traces de Byck(1934), Iordan(1944) et Gutu- Romalo(1960), esquissent une classification grammaticale de la tautologie(du point de vue morphosyntaxique et lexical - sémantique) et de ses fonctions, en préfigurant, en même temps, les perspectives de ses nombreuses exploitations stylistiques et expressives possibles.

Dans cette série de positions théoriques significatives pour l'histoire de la recherche dans le domaine de la tautologie, on peut mentionner, aussi, les reconsidérations et les revalorisations ultérieures les plus significatives, devenues de vrais repères de la recherche du domaine tautologique, respectivement les contributions théoriques réalisées par Wald (1970); Graur (1970) Contrás (1966), Dragomirescu(1972, 1975), Mândrescu (1988), Irimia(1986, 1999), Diaconescu (1995) Constantinescu- Dobridor (1994, 1998), Avram (1996, 1996a) et Bidu-Vrânceanu (2001).

Ayant comme point de départ, dans l'ordre structural- fonctionnel, l'acception de la tautologie comme modalité d'expression de la répétition lexicale- grammaticale, respectivement comme phénomène syntaxique structurellement intégré, les recherches théoriques mentionnées auparavant ont analysé les rapports syntaxiques entre les termes de la tautologie, tant au niveau intra- propositionnel, qu'au niveau inter- propositionnel (soit par un rapport de coordination, soit par un rapport de subordination non- circonstancielle ou circonstancielle).

Vue que la différence sémantique (sémasiologique) du terme répété (la diversification de sens) est due à la disposition rhétorique- discursive particulière (« figurée ») des constructions tautologiques, il est tout à fait naturel qu'on remarque, dans l'analyse des structures tautologiques, tant le spécifique de la construction grammaticale, que la valeur ou la *signification rhétorique- stylistique*, respectivement *l'effet signifiant* qui double sémantiquement et grammaticalement la sémantique lexicale et grammaticale de l'énoncé. Dans la dynamique des manifestations de ce couple rhétorique- discursif, Dragomirescu (1975) prend en considération non seulement la réalité « *des structures de surface* », avec les fonctions syntaxiques proprement- dites, mais aussi celle représentée par les soi-disant structures rhétoriques- discursives « *de profondeur* », comme des « *endroits* » ou des « *sièges* » des certaines fonctions rhétoriques- syntaxiques, respectivement rhétoriques- stylistiques (*la fonction d'identification et de qualification, la fonction d'intensification, la fonction emphatique, la fonction poétique ou stylistique, la fonction réflexive, la fonction aperceptive, la fonction persuasive ou expressive, la fonction axiologique etc.*).

Dragomirescu (1975) accorde un espace relativement large au commentaire visant la détermination de la place de la tautologie dans le tableau des figures de la répétition lexicale diversifiée par la topique et par la fonction grammaticale et, dans une perspective plus large, dans le tableau général des figures de la répétition, ayant comme point de départ la prémisse de l'importance cruciale des structures discursive répétitives pour l'ensemble du domaine des figures rhétoriques- stylistiques.

On a analysé, dans ce sens, la confrontation permanente de ces deux phénomènes structuraux- fonctionnels spécifiques à la constitution, au développement (le dynamisme de la différenciation des sous-groupes) et à l'exploitation rhétorique- discursive des figures: il s'agit du phénomène de l'interférence des figures simples et du phénomène de l'implication génétique. D'ici, toute une série de provocations taxonomiques, une série de difficultés théoriques à surmonter. A la fin de l'analyse, on a argumenté aussi la distribution et l'encadrement de la tautologie, comme figure de la répétition lexicale, diversifiée par la topique et par la fonction grammaticale, d'une part, entre *les figures de la répétition et les figures de l'insistance*, et d'autre part, entre *les figures de la répétition et les figures de l'ambiguïté* et même entre *les figures de la répétition et les figures de la plasticité*.

Pareilles aux fonctions, les figures rhétoriques se constituent au niveau discursif, à la suite d'un engagement fonctionnel intentionnel et soutenu. La somme des propriétés caractéristiques de la tautologie comme figure rhétorique sont des qualités, à leur tour, virtuelles ou potentielles, des attributions projetées intentionnellement sur des actes énonciatifs dans un système complexe d'influences intra et extra- discursives.

Par conséquent, l'approche compréhensive de la tautologie sur ce plan a demandé une triple compétence analytique: linguistique (la compréhension de l'explicite, une compréhension appliquée, canonique), rhétorique (la compréhension de l'implicite, une compréhension générique, non- canonique) et idéologique (la compréhension axiologique).

Les fonctions rhétoriques sont reconnaissables toujours comme des facteurs principaux (et de principe) à valeur circonscrite aux contextes particuliers d'un certain acte, démarche ou domaine de l'action rhétorique, ce qui explique leur applicabilité persuasive et argumentative générale, leur productivité, leur relevance et leur légitimité discursive. C'est aussi la situation qui caractérise, par exemple, la fonction pré- suppositionnelle ou la fonction persuasive de la tautologie, analysée, dans la perspective des propriétés générales, intégratives et non- dérivatives des fonctions rhétoriques.

Les théories rhétoriques- discursives qui permettent une approche compréhensive du discours commun, où se situe, d' ailleurs, les perspectives de recherche ouvertes dans le domaine des fonctions rhétoriques de la tautologie, prouvent leur efficacité analytique, non seulement par l'introduction de la dimension pragmatique de l'intentionnalité, mais surtout par la reconsidération analytique, de source conceptuelle, du plan de la substance du contenu du discours dans l'action rhétorique.

En ce qui concerne *le progrès (et la progression) tautologique* de sens, nous avons considéré que la tautologie actualise un système de transformations inter- actionnelles des sens structuraux- persuasifs (de nature différente de celles des sous-structures constitutives), dont la structure est en même temps « *fermée* » du point de vue formel (la transformation inter- actionnelle qui ne fait appel aux éléments formels extérieurs au schéma tautologique) et « *ouverte* » ou en voie de formation, respectivement au cours de reconstruction permanente, dans la perspective du progrès de sens enregistré. Comme structure centripète d'ordre formel, la tautologie subordonne ses éléments à une relation des formes opérationnelles qui les enferme dans le régime de l'inhérence, de la solidarité et de la réversibilité structurales. D'autre part, comme structure émergente de l'ordre de sens, la prégnance du processus de la progression tautologique de sens est le produit de la force centrifuge des transformations inter- actionnelles spécifiques au couple tautologique.

Parmi les fonctions tautologiques débattues dans l'ordre du *progrès tautologique de sens*, comme phénomène d'expansion ou de multiplication sémantique- expressive (de divergence sémantique- expressive, de surabondance connotative etc.), on retrouve la *fonction réflexive* (la tautologie comme *abstraction réflexive*), la *fonction persuasive* et la *fonction sémiotique* (d'où, évidemment, *l'hyper- codification tautologique*).

Parmi les problèmes associés à l'analyse de ces fonctions, dans l'ordre du progrès tautologique de sens, on peut observer surtout les rapports entre les différentes formes de l'équilibre discursif (la complémentarité entre un équilibre des structures « *fermées* » et un équilibre des structures « *ouvertes* »), respectivement les rapports entre les différentes valeurs rhétoriques- discursives spécifiques à la problématique en discussion (les valeurs de finalité discursive et les valeurs de rendement discursif). Dans ce sens, on peut arriver à la conclusion selon laquelle l'ordre des termes de la relation tautologique ne doit pas être conçu comme une disposition hiérarchique rigide, mais comme une suite d'étapes corrélés, successivement nécessaires, du procès

tautologique d'expansion, de multiplication et de divergence sémantique- expressive. D'autre part, la distance tautologique de *T2* à *T1* est aussi l'intervalle dans lequel l'ordre conceptuel, comme ordre du devenir catégoriel, s'avère être l'inverse de l'ordre syntagmatique proprement- dit (de *T1* à *T2*).

L'investigation entreprise sur les fonctions rhétoriques générales de la tautologie dans le domaine de la signification persuasive a entraîné, selon notre opinion, la délimitation de certaines perspectives théoriques et la prospection des possibilités et des ressources d'analyse des événements rhétoriques- discursifs encore inexplorés et inexploités jusqu'à maintenant à ce niveau.

L'étude de la tautologie comme pratique rhétorique signifiante dans la perspective d'une conscience discursive unificatrice et d'une intentionnalité fonctionnellement dirigée, a eu comme but, principalement, l'identification des fonctions de l'exploitation explicite (directe) ou dissimulée de tout discours de type tautologique, en mettant l'accent sur l'aspect fonctionnel, dans le sens des orientations néo- rhétoriques actuelles dans l'étude de la discursivité. Comme nous l'avons déjà précisé, l'enjeu relativement récent de ces nouvelles tendances est la mise en valeur de la nature des implications de nature expressive et intentionnelle qui découlent, pour le domaine général de la signification, de l'analyse rhétorique de certains paramètres et des conditions discursives (particulières) de la persuasion tautologique.

L'analyse des fonctions rhétoriques discursives de la tautologie, y compris la fonction conceptuelle, a dépassé, pourtant, dans notre intention, l'approche traditionnelle des procédés stylistiques et des nuances lexicales, qui reflètent seulement les moyens de représentation de la discursivité, et non pas le caractère intentionnel du recours à celle-ci, respectivement le caractère persuasif de la stratification intentionnelle des registres « *de la signifiante* » rhétorique- discursive, ce qui a remis constamment en discussion les possibilités analytiques correspondant soit au niveau littéral (la tautologie comme métalogue), soit au niveau intentionnel ou implicite (la tautologie comme métasémème) des énoncés tautologiques, inclusivement sous la variante intentionnelle du discours tautologique comme pratique citationnelle déclarée ou non- déclarée.

L'isolement de certaines fonctions, respectivement de certaines caractéristiques fonctionnelles (comme indicateurs rhétoriques- discursifs universels), s'est produit, d'habitude, pour identifier, d'une manière inductive, les principes généraux de fonctionnement du discours tautologique, principes qui découlent de la conduite discursive globale par laquelle ce type de discours trouve sa légitimité et acquiert son efficacité rhétorique spécifique. Le phénomène de l'expansion, de multiplication et de divergence sémantique- expressive inscrit la tautologie, comme pratique significative intentionnelle, dans une rhétorique du progrès de sens, où on la définit, en sa qualité de figure de « *la traduction* » rhétorique- discursive, comme figure de l'autoreprésentation par référence médiate et dans le cadre de laquelle l'ordre du rapport de dérivation conceptuelle s'avère être l'inverse de l'ordre syntagmatique des termes du couple tautologique.

Notre contribution à la configuration d'une rhétorique du progrès tautologique de sens envisage l'étude du discours tautologique comme pratique rhétorique

significative, dans la perspective d'une intentionnalité dirigée d'une manière persuasive; elle s'inscrit ainsi dans les orientations théoriques actuelles du domaine de la néo- rhétorique et de la linguistique générale. En analysant les principales fonctions rhétoriques de la tautologie, la recherche a visé d'établir la place de la tautologie dans le système des figures rhétoriques de la répétition lexicale intégrée syntaxiquement et, en même temps, la caractérisation de son statut fonctionnel, par rapport au progrès tautologique de sens.

Etant donné que la majorité des conclusions ont été formulées au fur et à mesure, en guise de conclusion, il convient ici d'ajouter seulement l'observation que l'une des plus intéressantes délimitations opérables, dans l'ordre théorique de l'action rhétorique, est celle qui distingue entre les fonctions rhétoriques de la figure tautologique, d'une part, et la fonction tautologique ou le fonctionnement tautologique d'autres structures ou phénomènes linguistiques appartenants à des types différents de discoursivité, d'autre part.

Bien que l'analyse de cette problématique n'ait pas été l'objet de notre travail, nous considérons qu'elle pourrait représenter, à son tour, une nouvelle et spectaculaire direction de recherche théorique fondamentale.

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**AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORY AND THE POLITICS OF
REPRESENTATION:
JEANETTE WINTERSON'S AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL NARRATIVE
BETWEEN FEMINISM AND POSTMODERNISM**

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Motto: "This is a book about fiction rather than politics or history, but it is an aspect of being a contemporary that one takes the centrality of politics and history for granted even if one doesn't talk about them all the time. To be plain: I do not see politics and history as narrowly determining literature, but neither do I see literature as transcending them. The feeling I should like to leave with the reader is that literature is political even when it seems most removed from politics; and that it escapes politics even when it directly discusses them." Michael Wood¹, Children Of Silence

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die Repräsentierungen sind produktiv und mobil, keineswegs statisch und fest. Sie sind keine Wiedergabe der schon existierenden Situation, sondern es sind kodifizierte Nachrichten, die die Sprache dazu benützen, um das Bild des repräsentierten Gegenstandes darzustellen. Auch die so genannte Durchsichtigkeit der narrativen Repräsentierung und die angenommene Objektivität der Selbst-Repräsentierung werden in Frage gestellt als Resultat der Krise der charakteristischen Repräsentierung unserer postmodernen Kultur. So werden Kriterien wie Angemessenheit, Exaktheit und Wahrheit zur Gedächtnisforschung, besonders des autobiographischen Gedächtnisses, benutzt. So sind die Prozesse, womit wir lernen, uns an etwas erinnern und manches vergessen, noch weiter ein interessantes Studienthema in unterschiedlichen Forschungsbereichen, wie z.B. Neurobiologie, Biochemie, Physiologie, Medizin, Psychologie, Soziologie, Philosophie, Informationstechnologie, Epistemologie und Ontologie, Geschichte, Linguistik und Literatur.

Schlüsselwörter:

autobiographische Erzählung, autobiographisches Gedächtnis, Fiktion, Reflexivität, Subjektivität, Objektivität, Frauenbewegung, Postmoderne, Rolle des Gedächtnisses, Politik der Selbstrepräsentierung.

¹ Wood, M. (1998). Children of Silence. Studies in Contemporary Fiction. London: Pimlico.

ABSTRACT. Far from being static and fixed, representations are productive and mobile, not merely reproductions of pre-existent states of facts, but codified messages that use discourse to create the image of the object represented. Even the so-called transparency of narrative representation, and the objectivity presumed to characterise self-representation through narrative discourse are called into question as a result of the crisis of representation characteristic of our post-modern culture. Thus, the criteria of adequacy, accuracy, and truth inform most of the memory research in general, and the research on autobiographical memory in particular. Therefore, it comes as no surprise that the processes by which we learn, remember and forget have long been a fascinating research topic in fields as varied as neurobiology, biochemistry, physiology, medicine, psychology, sociology, information technology, philosophy, epistemology and ontology, history, linguistics and literature.

KEY-WORDS: autobiographical narrative, autobiographical memory, fiction, reflexivity, subjectivity, objectivity, feminism, postmodernism, the making of memory, the politics of self-representation

In her first cycle of novels Jeanette Winterson employs almost exclusively autodiegetic narration. While all of her books of fiction feature autobiographical instances in one way or another Winterson's cycle of novels is not conceived as a *representation* of its author, but as an *autonomous presentation* in the course of which the self becomes complex as a result of an accumulation process: the experiencing flows that can be witnessed in Winterson's novels, just like spiral-shaped streams, gather in the delta of each reader's consciousness to shape the author's image. This narrative technique extensively applied by Winterson calls for an exploration of the connections between autobiography and fiction, between actual and fictional lives. In developing my analysis I draw mainly on Linda Hutcheon's approach to the politics of postmodernism, on Bluck, Alea, Rubin and Tilmann Habermas's 2005 study of autobiographical memory and on Steven Rose's research on the making of memory, but I focus especially on reflexivity, subjectivity and the politics of self-representation.

The autobiography and the autobiographical novel are both works that have at their origin the idea of creating oneself anew by mentally rearranging the past. Consequently, *Oranges Are Not the Only Fruit*, Winterson's first novel, being largely autobiographical, has sometimes been mistakenly perceived as the author's autobiography. This was possible because, as those who insist on the impossibility of autobiography² have been trying to show, there is a fine line between autobiography and fiction, given that, as David James Duncan³ points out, although "[a]dmirers of nailed-down definitions and tidy categories may not like to hear it, "all writers and

² See M. Evans (1999). *Missing Persons. The Impossibility of Auto/Biography*. London and New York: Routledge.

³ Duncan, D. J. (1996). "Nonfiction = Fiction." *Orion* 53:3, Summer 1996. pp. 55-57. In Root, R. L. Jr. and M. Steinberg (2002).

readers are full time imaginers, all prose is imaginative, and fiction and non-fiction are just two anarchic shades of ink swirling around the same mysterious well. Those of us who would tell a story can only dip in our pens. We can never claim full certainty as to which shade of ink we're using."

Jeanette Winterson's narrative clearly shows that the author has come to the realisation – specific to postmodernism, that traditional systems of representation, and their elements do not so much *reflect* society, as *ensure* one's value in a given society and *regulate* one's acceptance as part of that society. *Oranges Are Not the Only Fruit* is concerned with the politics of representation, and, as such, is bound to be political. As Hutcheon (1997: 26-27) points out, representations, far from being static and fixed, are productive and mobile. Be they photographic or literary, representations are not merely reproductions of pre-existent states of facts, but codified messages that use discourse to create the image of the object represented, of a person's ethnicity, race, gender, or sexual orientation.

Even Winterson's choice of genre for *Oranges Are Not the Only Fruit* could be seen as a post-modern technique, since in the foreword of this book she states: "Is *Oranges* an autobiographical novel? No not at all and yes of course" (O xiv). It is as if the author acknowledged the problematic status of autobiography, of the representation of reality, and refused to embark upon the futile endeavour of attempting to represent her life through discourse. What she does, instead, is admit that her work is precisely that, *representation*, but in the sense of a creative, productive, interpretative text, rather than a discourse that constitutes itself as a direct way to reference in the actual world. Aware of the opacity of discourse and of the self-sufficiency characteristic of literary works, Winterson refuses to categorically place *Oranges Are Not the Only Fruit* in the autobiographical sphere only. But she does not obliterate the boundaries between fictional and factual literature, all she does is cross those boundaries, making the two types of discourse overlap. Her words mirror the ambivalent politics of the post-modern, and pave the way for the establishment of a new assessment theory, requiring a novel approach to the relationship between literature and life. The body of the text itself is permeated by metanarrative comments on truth and history, which point out how Winterson feels about the so-called transparency of narrative representation, about the nature of self-representation through narrative discourse:

"Time is a great deadener. People forget, get bored, grow old, go away. Of course that is not the whole story, but that is the way with stories; we make them what we will. It's a way of explaining the universe while leaving the universe unexplained, it's a way of keeping it all alive, not boxing it into time. [...] It's an all-purpose rainy day pursuit, this reducing of stories called history. People like to separate storytelling which is not fact from history which is fact. They do this so that they know what to believe and what not to believe. This is very curious." (O 91)

“Very often history is a means of denying the past. Denying the past is to refuse to recognise its integrity. To fit it, force it, function it, to suck out the spirit until it looks the way you think it should. We are all historians in our small way.

People have never had a problem disposing of the past when it gets too difficult. Flesh will burn, photos will burn, and memory, what is that? The imperfect rambling of fools who will not see the need to forget. And if we can't dispose of it we can alter it. The dead don't shout.” (O 92)

“So the past, because it is past, is only malleable where once it was flexible. Once it could change its mind, now it can only undergo change. The lens can be tinted, titled, smashed. What matters is that order is seen to prevail [...] There is an order and a balance to be found in stories.” (O 93)

Taking into consideration Hutcheon's discussion on “the nature and the status of ‘the fact’ ”, we can draw another analogy between autobiography and fiction, from the representational point of view: “All past ‘events’ are potential historical ‘facts’, but only those that have been chosen to be narrated really become facts. We have seen that distinguishing raw events from facts that have been given significance seems to be the obsession of postmodernist fiction” (1997: 80). As Linda Hutcheon points out, “The past really existed, regardless of our capacity to understand it [...]” but “the past exists *for us – now* – only in the shape of traces left upon the present, at present. The absent past can only be inferred by analysing circumstantial evidence.” Thus, “[k]nowing the past becomes a question of representation, namely of construction and interpretation, and not a question of objectively recording events as facts” (Hutcheon, 1997: 78-79). The question of objectivity, Hutcheon shows, is closely linked to what Jameson⁴ (1984) calls “the crisis of representation”, characteristic of our post-modern culture, a culture “that perceives representation as reproduction [...] and whose fundamental assessment criteria are adequacy, accuracy, and Truth itself.”

It is worth mentioning here that these three Jamesonian criteria are exactly the ones that inform most of the memory research in general, and the research on autobiographical memory (AM) in particular, as Bluck, Alea, Rubin and Tilmann Habermas (2005) point out. In their study, “A Tale of Three Functions: The Self-Reported Uses of Autobiographical Memory”, these psychologists show that most studies in AM have centred on how, how much, and how accurately people remember their past, indeed undeniably important aspects of remembering, but which fail short of providing full understanding of human memory. The processes by which we learn, remember and forget have long been a fascinating research topic in fields as varied as neurobiology, biochemistry, physiology, medicine, psychology, sociology, information technology, philosophy, epistemology and ontology, history, linguistics and literature.

⁴ Quoted in Hutcheon (1997: 79).

Steven Rose's *The Making of Memory. From Molecules to Mind* is a scientific treatise outlining the research on memory carried out in the field of neurosciences, research that must take into account the three "languages" able to provide us with "distinct dimensions of understanding": morphology, which "maps in space", biochemistry, which "describes composition" and physiology, which is "essentially dynamic, describing events occurring in time" (2003: 382). Rose (2003: 370) explains that in the process of learning changes in the properties of specific cells in the nervous system occur, changes that can be measured morphologically⁵, dynamically⁶, biochemically⁷ and physiologically⁸. All these cellular processes are *necessary* for memory, argues Rose (2003: 370), because "if they are prevented from occurring [...] experimental subjects cannot remember", and they are also *specific*, since "blocking them doesn't seem to affect any other aspect of behaviour except memory". These processes, concludes Rose (2003: 371) are the ones that "generate the engram, the memory trace within the brain", but it is, as yet, unknown how these biochemical changes differ either in the case of different learning strategies (verbal versus visual), or in each of the various types of memory identified by psychologists:

- declarative memory
- procedural memory⁹
- episodic memory
- semantic memory
- autobiographical memory

Moreover, retrieving memories does not always involve "the same region of the brain, or even the same set of cells, though presumably there must be some communication between them" (Rose, 2003: 374). However, Rose argues, understanding "the ordered world of molecular processes" can cast some light upon "the rich experiential world of memory", if memories are seen as "dynamic and dispersed, located in different ways in different parts of the brain" (2003: 372-373).

⁵ "in terms of persistent modifications to the structure of the neurons and their synaptic connections as observed in the light or electron microscope" (Rose, 2003: 370).

⁶ "in terms of localized, transient changes in blood flow and oxygen uptake by the neurons during the processes of learning or of recall" (Rose, 2003: 370).

⁷ "in terms of a cellular cascade of processes which begins with the opening of ion channels in the synaptic membranes and proceeds by way of complex intracellular signals to the synthesis of new proteins which, inserted into the synaptic and dendritic membranes, generate these morphological changes" (Rose, 2003: 370).

⁸ "in terms of the changed electrical properties of the neurons that also result from their altered membrane structures" (Rose, 2003: 370).

⁹ Declarative and procedural memories "do not seem to become forgotten in the same way" which might be due to the fact that memories involving procedural modes are "re-membered by a very different mechanism from declarative ones" (Rose, 2003: 378). Such findings would support Rose's claim that "the meaning of memory resides in the system" as a whole, rather than "in the loci of change" at neuronal level (Rose, 2003: 384).

This view of the brain departs from the unsatisfactory theory that the brain is merely a device for storing and processing information, and accepts the idea that “brains deal in meaning rather than information”, that “affect is as important as cognition” (Rose, 2003: 373). Living organisms “develop and change in time”, and inhabit “a world of meaning and not simply information” (2003: 383). Renouncing the computer information-processing metaphor, which equates the brain with a filing system, one should also avoid Gerald Edelman’s ‘neural Darwinism’ phrase, which explains the nervous system’s development and change by analogy with Darwin’s evolution by natural selection. The former model relies on “permanent changes in synaptic weights within a network”, and suppresses “the dynamic and developmental nature of biological processes” (Rose, 2003: 374-375). The latter model holds that experience, environmental challenges and constraints prompt “processes of continuous selection of pre-existing groups of neurons and their synaptic connections”. Nevertheless, since neuronal ensembles do not even replicate, the Darwinian analogy is inaccurate, writes Rose, who prefers Susan Oyama’s term ‘the ontogeny of information’, for its emphasis on meaning “as the antithesis of information”, and Walter Freeman’s theory that “memories are represented in terms of fluctuating dynamic patterns of electrical activity across the entire brain region, fluctuations from which the application of chaos theory can extract pattern and order” (Rose, 2003: 375). The problem with memory, adds Rose (2003: 376-377), concerns “the retrieval of memories”, because memory is not “a fixed and localised engram”, but rather “a dynamic system”, and the engram only comes into being when it is activated¹⁰, receiving meaning solely within the particular context of “present mood” and “past history” (Rose, 2003: 383). As Gayle Greene (1991: 297-298) explains, remembering implies assembling, connecting and bringing together things related to one another¹¹, it is a process involving much more than merely extracting a document from a computer file, a process described by Virginia Woolf in a spirited way, much more revealing than the information-processing metaphor: “Memory is the seamstress, and a capricious one at that. Memory runs her needle in and out, up and down, hither and thither.”¹² Because memories are “highly dynamic and unstable records”, remembering requires the “active re-making” of each memory, a process “described as reconsolidation” (Rose, 2003: 380). Consequently, whenever we “seem to be ‘remembering’ an event”, we are not really “re-membering the event itself”, but only “the last time [we] re-membered it” which means that historical ‘reality’ is not necessarily biological ‘reality’ (Rose, 2003: 380):

¹⁰ Or, in Endel Tulving’s words, when it is ‘ecphorised’ (see Rose, 2003: 377).

¹¹ Greene, G. (1991). ‘Feminist fiction and the uses of memory’. In *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, Nr.16. Quoted in Rose, S. (2003: 377).

¹² Woolf, V. (1995 [1928]). *Orlando. A Biography*. Hertfordshire: Wordsworth Editions Limited. P.37.

“My point here is that because of the dynamism of memory and the active nature of re-remembering, such apparent memories may be biologically real for the individual, in that they correspond to traces in the brain, even though those traces in the brain may have been induced not by a real event but by the later implanting of a false memory” (Rose, 2003: 380).

These findings have serious implications on the status of history and autobiography: if human memories, be they visual or verbal memories, are bound to be highly subjective, then, on the one hand, each and every one of us may “build their own private memory theatre” (Rose, 2003: 386) and, on the other hand, what we call ‘collective memories’ may be an artefact, ‘constructed’ and ‘implanted’ in order to impose any desired ‘shared’ understandings and ideologies that will end up dominating our lives. As Rose (2003: 361) points out,

“Memories are public records of past events, more or less transformed to meet current ideological needs, as when revisionist historians rewrite the past of Nazi Germany – or, in the reverse direction, of cultural revolutionary China. Memories are collective acts of recovery of lost experience, as when Black Americans re-discover (re-member, as Toni Morrison describes it, emphasising that it is an active, not a passive process) their roots in slavery, or when feminists restore the records of those women scholars whose names masculinist histories have systematically erased.”

But in a world in which each and every one of us inhabits “multiple personae”¹³ function of race, class, gender, sexual orientation and individual personal experience, a world divided by countless discourses of power, a world in which the fracturing of identity is perceived as natural and inevitable, as “for each persona there is a new twist to the world’s kaleidoscope, offering a different ‘reality’ ” (Rose, 2003: 367), memory “is particularly important to anyone who cares about change, for forgetting dooms us to repetition”¹⁴ (Greene, 1991: 290). Therefore, Bluck, Alea, Rubin and Habermas try to cover a relatively understudied area, namely **memory function**:

“The primary concern is not how well humans remember their personal past (though those features often play some role), but why humans remember both mundane and significant life events, often over long periods of time. Examining function provides a different and potentially complementary view of the remembering individual: the organism is not simply an information processor (emphasis is on memory capacity and veridicality) but rather an organism processing information in ecological context (emphasis is on memory utility)”. (2005: 92)

¹³ Rose, S. (2003: 366).

¹⁴ Greene, G. (1991). ‘Feminist fiction and the uses of memory’. In *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, Nr.16. Quoted in Rose, S. (2003: 364).

Questions such as “what do individuals use the memories of their life for?”, “what functions does it serve for people to remember, reflect on, and share the experiences of their lives?” prompted Bluck, Alea, Rubin and Habermas to develop the *Thinking About Life Experiences (TALE) Questionnaire*. The AM functions have been classified by the team of psychologists (Bluck et al., 2005, 95-99) as follows:

- *directive*
 - using the past to guide present and future thought and behaviour
 - serves as an aid to solving problems and to the development of opinions and attitudes (Cohen, 1989,1998)
 - allows us to ask new questions of old information in order both to solve problems in the present and to predict future events (Baddeley, 1987)
 - supports the attempt of meaning making (Bruner, 1990) or "integrative reminiscence" (Watt & Wong, 1991; Wong & Watt, 1991) that may be necessary to update one's view of self and life so that one has a "working model" (Lockhart, 1989) with which to direct behaviour
 - makes a dynamic emotional use of AM, a "psychodynamic function" (Pillemer's, 1992) with an emotion-regulation role (Pasupathi, 2003)
 - provides flexibility in the construction and updating of rules that allow individuals to comprehend the past and to predict future outcomes (Lockhart, 1989)
 - helps us to use our own past experience to construct models that allow us to understand the inner world of others and thereby to predict their future behaviour (Robinson and Swanson, 1990)
- *self*
 - allows individuals to have and maintain a biographical identity (e.g., McAdams, 2001) and to be able to maintain a coherent self-concept across an entire lifespan (Cohen, 1998), even in the face of developmental change and life events.
 - is especially important when the self is in adverse conditions that require self-change (Robinson, 1986)
 - facilitates self-concept preservation and enhancement (Wilson & Ross, 2003)

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- is able to support and promote continuity and development of the self (Conway, 1996)
- preserves a sense of being a coherent person over time (Barclay, 1996)
- uses knowledge of the self in the past and as projected into the future as a critical type of self-knowledge (Neisser, 1988)
- plays a developmental role in the emergence of the life story in adolescence (Habermas & Bluck, 2000; McAdams, 1985)
- *social*
 - developing, maintaining, and nurturing social bonds (Nelson, 1993; Pillemer, 1998)
 - providing others with information about one's self in order to initiate new social relationships (Cohen, 1998)
 - sharing personal memories makes one's contribution to conversations more believable and persuasive (Pillemer, 1992)
 - serves to provide material for conversation, thus facilitating social interaction (Cohen, 1998)
 - allows us to better understand and empathize with others (Cohen, 1998)
 - is tied to potential evolutionary adaptivity (Neisser, 1988)

Authors of literary works, whether fiction or non-fiction, may be said to employ all of these functions in their autobiographical writings. Autobiographers and novelists alike, acting out of an instinct of self-preservation, and aiming towards self-development and enhancement (the self function), use their autobiographical memory to inform others about their selves and lives (the direct function), explaining themselves to their readership, and sometimes trying to persuade the readers to endorse certain views, opinions, beliefs (the social function). As Greene states, “[a]ll writers are concerned with memory, since all writing is a remembrance of things past; all writers draw on the past, mine it as a quarry.”¹⁵ Rose’s notes on memory (2003: 363) in the final chapter of his scientific treatise emphasise the uses and abuses of memory in the literary field, as part of the writers’ struggle to re-create “the foreign country which is the past”¹⁶:

¹⁵ Greene, G. (1991). ‘Feminist fiction and the uses of memory’. In *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, Nr.16. Quoted in Rose, S. (2003: 364).

¹⁶ Rose, S. (2003: 389).

“Memories are the fictions of novelists for whom symbolic episodes provide keys to unlock the mystery of who and what one is, from Proust’s madeleine to Atwood’s cat’s eye. [...] Memories are the transmuted re-creations of our childhood and dead parents, our continued efforts to make coherence of our own lives, to synthesise past and present so as to face the future.”

It would be relevant to mention in this respect Nellie McKay’s quote from Albert E. Stone’s *Autobiographical Occasions and Original Acts* (1982), where autobiography is seen as a “literary as well as a historical activity which recreates psychic as well as social experience”, and especially McKay’s discussion of Couser’s *Altered Egos*:

“In his disputation of a fixed truth-value in autobiography, Couser takes issues with notions that “I” is first (prior), personal (private), or singular (unique), a position earlier and more conventional critics (primarily white males on white male autobiography) claimed. Couser’s view, buttressed by the scholarship of social psychologists, is that the self is not constructed in isolation but continually engages in complicity, negotiation, and collusion in its relationships with others. This point of view inscribes difference in *identity* and acknowledges a contextually variable self that, although integrated, need not embody harmonic unity. Furthermore, memory, which is unstable, plays such an important role in the construction of autobiography that it unsettles the ground on which the truth of a narrative rests.” (McKay, 1991: 29)

Psychological study may also shed some light on the veracity issue, through the results of empirical studies centred on the functions of autobiographical memory in social contexts. The conceptual model developed by Alea & Bluck (2003) provides a general outline of “the processes and variables involved when AMs are shared to serve social functions” (Bluck et al., 2005: 113). Here are some of the components:

- lifespan contextual influences
- the speaker's characteristics (age, gender, and personality)
- the qualitative and cognitive characteristics of memory (emotionality and level of detail recalled)
- the nature of the social relationship in which the memory-sharing occurs (valence and length of the relationship)
- the familiarity and similarity of the listener to the speaker
- the level of responsiveness during the memory-sharing process

Careful analysis of these factors points to “the ways in which social processes might both help and hinder the functions that memory serves”, and to “how the cognitive and phenomenological characteristics of memories affect their presentation in social contexts” (Bluck et al., 2005: 112). The conclusive remarks are best stated in Bluck et. al.’s discussion of Pasupathi’s research (2001) on the “interplay of social and memory

processes”: “how we talk about and retell memories, and who we have as listeners, may affect how memories are constructed, reconstructed and recalled over time”.

Memory, as a concept, informs a great variety of philosophical concerns as well, given that it embodies our knowledge of the world (procedural memory, episodic memory, semantic memory), and our self-knowledge (autobiographical memory, declarative memory, collective memory). In *formal semantics* verbs such as “know”, “remember” and “recall” are classified as *factive*, since they presuppose the truth of their arguments. Such verbs, which require that their complement be true, are termed, in philosophy, *epistemic* verbs. This implies that one cannot know, remember, and recall something that is not true. However, the fact that people **reconstruct**, rather than **recall** past events that they claim to **remember**, brought the issue of inaccurate or even false memories to the centre of psychological and neurological investigations, also leading to philosophical and literary inquiries into the possibilities of knowing and remembering the past.

Memoria, istoria, uitarea (2001 [2000]) mirrors Paul Ricoeur’s fascinating insight into the many layers of philosophical interest in the notion of memory. Starting with a phenomenology of remembrance focused on the ‘what?’, ‘how?’, and ‘who?’ of remembering (2001: 17-18, 39), Ricoeur points out that the problematic gap between past and present centres on

- the fundamental problem of *representation*, which implies an act of *replacement*, leading to the substitution of directly accessible facts with narrative frameworks (Ricoeur, 2001: 226, 276-285, 291-318, 320-337)
- the vast array of mnemonic devices developed in human culture, which can be abused and misused for political reasons (Ricoeur, 2001: 424-430, 535-549)
- the opposing concepts of individual versus collective memory, to which Ricoeur (2001, 152-162) adds the notion of “other-ascribable” forms of memory, an intermediary level between the former and the latter, a level assigned to some neighbouring privileged others¹⁷

Ricoeur’s analysis of the relationship between memory and imagination, the two cognitive processes having in common the ability to represent absent things, is grounded mainly on the works of Plato, Aristotle, Bergson and Husserl. Distinguishing between *eikōn* (the present inscription of something absent) and *phantasma* (the “eikastic” art of imaginative representation), Plato implies that the problematic issue of memory should be subsumed to that of imagination (Ricoeur, 2001: 21), by insisting that the workings of memory are marked by the imposition of imagination (Ricoeur, 2001: 26-27, 36). Aristotle, on the other hand, differentiating between *mnēmē* (the

¹⁷ For Ricoeur, who states: “I include among my neighbours those who disapprove of my actions, but not of my existence” (2001: 162), this particular middle level is of utmost importance, in that it constitutes the unique site for the approval of existence, as well as for identity confirmation of the remembering subject as a remembering agent.

mere presence of memory traces) and *anamnēsis* (the act of re-membering), claims that the lapse of time causes the mnemonic phenomenon of re-membering to bear the mark of similarity, rather than that of identity (Ricoeur, 2001: 35-36), and pleads for the inclusion of image-making/imagination in the problematic area of memory making (Ricoeur, 2001: 21). Ricoeur points out that the attempts to oppose memory to imagination, or at least to establish a clear-cut distinction between them is motivated by the fact that memory is seen as a representation of the past in the form of an image. This has led to an undervaluation of memory, now perceived by some philosophers as belonging exclusively to the field of imagination. Nevertheless, even though imagination may make memory unreliable, even memory itself can, at times, constitute a burden to the imagination, since, as Bergson points out in *Matière et Mémoire* (1896: 228), in order to have access to the image of the past, one must be able to “abstract from present action”, in other words to value dreaming, and “only the human being is capable of such an effort”. Ricoeur also examines the inextricable relationship between remembering and forgetting, showing that this symbiosis influences both the perception of historical experience and the production of historical narrative, and claims that the permanent search for truth requires a certain kind of oblivion as well, not necessarily the exact counterpart of the memorizing act, but rather an “oblivion of reserve”, as opposed both to amnesia and to the false oblivion of amnesty:

“If any form of oblivion may be evoked legitimately, it will not imply the task of silencing evil, but the task of speaking of evil in an appeased mode, without anger. This way of speaking will no longer be by way of commandment, of order, but by way of a vow, in an optative mode” (Ricoeur, 2001: 549).

It is this notion of an “oblivion of reserve” that prompts Ricoeur to a poetic closing statement of his book:

“Beneath history, memory and oblivion.
Beneath memory and oblivion: life.
But the writing of life is another story.
Incompleteness.”

Just like Plato’s *pharmakon*, of which it is difficult to establish whether it is a poison or a medicine (Ricoeur, 2001: 604), autobiography, “the writing of life”, can be turned, figuratively speaking, either into the former, or into the latter. Perceived as a necessarily distorted representation of one’s life by those for whom oblivion is utterly detrimental to the truthfulness of any account, autobiography is seen as a constructive endeavour by others who, along with Ricoeur, acknowledge the importance one should attach to the “oblivion of reserve”.

For Husserl, who opposes the notion of *presentation* to the act of *re-presentation* or “making-present again”, there are three steps in the process of remembering, **from** perception, **through** memory and **to** fiction (Ricoeur, 2001: 67). If its perception happened in the past, a fact is only “fantasy” but, rendered again, it

brings forth memory “as a *sui-generis* modification of perception”; since the perception was subsequently modified, “memory is left in suspension” and replaced by “fiction”.

Autobiographical writings, being the outcome of narrative acts which release a certain re-presentational force, can be accommodated under Ricoeur’s notion of *représentance*, ‘representation by replacement’, which implies that the simple notion of representation is replaced by a narrative construction with representational force. Such writings embody the notion of ‘identity as selfness’, where the self is constructed not only through time, but through narrative as well, rather than the concept of ‘identity as sameness’. Since autobiographical narrative, whether factual or fictional, can impose order on our existential chaos by allowing for the writers’ journey back in time to and through their memories, it facilitates the discovery, recovery and construction of the self on the basis of those particular memories. As Winterson points out,

“writing [...] explains you to yourself and it explains the world. [...] One of the things that writing can do – that literature can do, that all art can do – is to help you understand. It can put you in a position which is both inside and outside of yourself, so that what you get is a depth of knowledge otherwise not possible, about your own situation, and a *context* in which to put that situation, so you are no longer alone with feelings that you can’t manage. People’s powerlessness comes from feelings that they can’t manage, and especially those that they can’t articulate. Being able to write around the chaos of your own narrative allows you to see yourself as fiction, which is rather comforting because, of course, fictions can change.”¹⁸

All Winterson’s works, being partly autobiographical, are self-reflexive and, as such, inevitably imbued in some kind of ideology, strongly influenced by social relationships. What actually dilutes the political in Winterson’s fiction is her preoccupation with style and wording, characterized by a sort of narcissism. At times, Winterson’s literary writings seem to be art for art’s sake, writing for the sake of writing. Dilution does take place in Winterson’s work, but not total absorption of the political, since “Post-modern art can be nothing but political”, due to the fact that “its representations – images and stories – can be anything but neutral” (Hutcheon, 1997: 7). Although Winterson would probably agree with Eugene Goodheart’s idea that “the life of the mind depends upon its refusal to sacrifice itself to the cause of party or ideology” (1996: 458) her refusal to bypass aesthetics for politics does not prevent her readers from politicising her work, given that all literature has a political dimension. As Machann (1998: 312) points out,

“disinterested scholarship is impossible. All texts, literary and critical, can and should be studied primarily as documents in historical power negotiations. Any pretence to objectivity in a traditional humanist or “Arnoldian” sense is merely obfuscation meant to disguise a political agenda.”

¹⁸ In Reynolds, M. and J. Noakes (2003). *Jeanette Winterson: the essential guide*. London: Vintage. P.12.

According to Linda Hutcheon (1997: 6) the attempts to define postmodernism have been largely political, and this aspect of postmodernism has been embraced by some and refuted by others. Still, Winterson's refusal to declare her affiliation to postmodernism and her denial of such an association do not seem to rest on the fear, characteristic of some feminists, that her political agenda be deconstructed. Winterson's novels are not political, but they have, at least, the potential to become political, if interpreted as such. This is, after all, a feature of postmodernism that could be seen as positioning Winterson in this very trend, because:

“[T]he post-modern can propose art to be the arena of political struggle, by asking multiple deconstructive questions, but the post-modern itself seems unable to make the move towards political action. The post-modern asks questions that unveil art as the locus where values, norms, beliefs and actions are produced and deconstructs the processes of signification. But it can never free itself from its double codification: it is always conscious of its interdependence between the dominant and the contested.” (Hutcheon, 1997: 167, 178)

For Winterson, narrative representation is, in *Oranges Are Not the Only Fruit*, a means of self-assessment and self-discovery, of enjoying a sense of self-continuity. In writing *Oranges*, a personal herstory, Winterson makes a distinction characteristic of post-modern attempts to write history, the distinction between the raw events of her past and the facts she builds based on those events, facts being merely events granted certain significance by the writer (Hutcheon, 1997: 62). This process of transformation yielding facts by the interpretation of events comes after a careful sifting and detailed analysis of what the writer perceived as significant in her past and leads to a transfiguration of the very events that had taken place so that when they become facts and are related as such they are subjectively transfigured. Jeanette's stories gather together in a collage of myths, stories and events she herself selected and arranged according to her own interpreting techniques (Hutcheon, 1997: 62).

A distinctive feature of Winterson's writing, also characteristic of postmodernism, is the systematic detachment of her words from their meaning, as if each assertion should somehow be perceived as ironical, as placed between inverted commas. This playful, duplicatory style has a double impact on the reader: if, at first, it seems to undermine the would-be meaning of a phrase, it somehow, nevertheless, manages to support and strengthen the very meaning of that expression. Winterson employs a beautifully trimmed style, conscious, but not too neat, elaborate, but not artificial. It sometimes feels as if language were the writer's subject, and the power of art and language were the focus of the telling. Each chapter, each story, is an exercise in the renewal of language, a successful attempt to restore its subtlety and elegance, as if to provide an answer to Emerson's manifesto entitled “Nature” (1836), where writers are summoned “to pierce this rotten diction and fasten words again to visible things”. Winterson's writing style is

generally clear and engaging, due to her sureness of depiction, to the power of her insights. Each signifier splits into a network of shades of the signified, and the collage of word-puns permeates the discourse, braiding the numerous strands of thought into a coherent whole. Winterson's main concern while writing seems to be stylistic and semantic – she is trying to make words work in wonderful and mysterious ways, by creating unique combinations and thus turning language into a perfect tool, able to shape character and plot descriptively. Description and narration are, in her work, entwined, flowing into and from each other constantly, like a chameleonic flux, giving birth to a fascinating kind of poetic prose. Nevertheless, irony makes distancing possible, and thus it reduces subjectivity, intensifying objectivity. Winterson's use of irony in *Oranges Are Not the Only Fruit* reveals the author's critical attitude towards traditional institutions and practices that inflict unwarranted suffering upon innocent children. Winterson's work has a profoundly destabilising effect on the image of these institutions, criticised by means of irony and parody. And this is a post-modern trait as well. The artistic and the political cannot be separated in *Oranges Are Not the Only Fruit*, as long as the narrative constantly provokes the reader to wonder whether institutions such as the church and the family are always to be trusted, and whether they serve the interests of the many or of the privileged few.

As Sanda Berce (2002: 9) pertinently points out, “[f]iction conquers the real not only to offer another reality but to magically sustain and drive the actual one and render it meaningful for the individual.” The manifold functions of the novel, as outlined by Connor (2001: 4), make it essential to our lives, since it seems to have “some of the authority of the eye-witness account” in spite of its fictional character. This type of narrative “so abundantly and yet so economically concentrates together representations of how the world is, or seems to be, with the shaping force of fantasy and imagination; which balances, in other words, reality and desire” (Connor, 2001:1). Besides “psychological and cultural *enlargement*”, by prolonging memory and extending “forethought, in the elaboration of the past and extrapolation into possible futures”, narrative also performs a function of “*consolidation*”, by engaging the self into “different sorts of unfamiliar or otherwise unavailable experience”, which may result in strengthening the sense of identity in that particular individual. It is, above all, the life of the mind that sustains the novel's existence. But its role is social, as well as psychological, since the novel also constitutes “a meeting point between the individual and the general, bridging the isolated subjectivity and the peopled world, and giving an individual dimension to the otherwise abstract or disembodied nature of shared norms and values.” (Connor, 2001:1).

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QUELQUES REPERES POUR LA REALISATION DE L'EDUCATION POUR UNE CITOYENNETE DEMOCRATIQUE DANS L'ECOLE

ION ALBULESCU, MIRELA ALBULESCU

ABSTRACT. The social, political and economical changes happened in modern world who give a new perspective for education among the form of individuals for democratically citizenship is relevant.

The being of democratic institutions and the specific legal precepts form a necessary condition, but not an enough one to make democracy work. Beside this, it is necessarily even a democracy culture, competences and attitude waiting from citizens, which cannot be reach unless education. In this article named „Some references in accomplishment education for democratic citizenship in school”, we were looking to bring some elucidation about how to achieve education for democratic citizenship in school, about the goal to pursue and in this content how to attempt activities. The tasks that education assume for democratic citizenship are very complex and converge in forming a citizen knowledgeable about political institutions, about precepts and democratic values, about changes and social alternative, sensitive to global and community problems whom belongs, active and responsible. The vocation of education for democratic citizenship is to form individuals as much as in quality of state's citizens whom belongs or to some supranational structure, as European Union, as member of different social groups, as in a quality of unique and dignified human being who respect herself and other people.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Durch soziale, politische und Wirtschaftlichen Veraenderungen der modernen Gesellschaft, sind in dem demokratischen Erziehungsmassnahmen neue Wege entstanden. Vordergruendig ist die demokratische Erziehung des Individums. Fuer eine Wirkungsvolle Funktion einer Demokratie, sind demokratische Gesetze und Institutionen unerlasslich. Wichtiger aber sind demokratische Kultur, Einstellungen und Eingenscftfen der Menschen, die nur durch Erziehungsmassnahmen entstehen. In diesem Artikel, gennant „Anhaltspunkte fuer die demokratische Erziehung in der Schule” versuchen wir die wichtigsten Massnahmen zu ermitteln. Erziehung fuer eine Demokratie ist komplex und beinhaltet die Entwicklung eines gebildeten Menschens in politischen Sinne, fuer Werte und Normen einer Demokratie. Dazu kommen Offenheit, Flexibilitaet fuer Veraenderungen und soziale Alternativen, sowie Sensibilizierung des Menschens fuer lokalen und globalen Probleme der Gesselschaft. Der Mensch muss in jeder Demokratie aktiv und verantwortungsvoll handeln. Das Ziel der demokratischen Erziehung ist die Formierung des Menschens ala Teil der nationalen sowohl auch internationaler Gesellschaft in der Europaeische Union. Das Resultat der Erziehung zur Demokratie ist jedem Menschen als Individuum zu respektieren und zu schaeetzen!

1. La citoyenneté démocratique – une provocation pour l'éducation

Les objectifs majeurs de l'école sont déterminés par la nécessité à développer des ressources humaines, en tenant compte de la complexité en pleine évolution des conditions de vie et des aspirations humaines. Former les individus en concordance avec les exigences de la société dans laquelle ils vivent (idée trouvée dans la pédagogie moderne) signifie commencer à avoir des initiatives informatives et formatives, aptes à répondre aux exigences du moment, mais aussi aux celles à venir. Quel que soit le curriculum scolaire, il est nécessaire à préserver ces exigences par une réadaptation continue des objectifs, des contenus, des stratégies d'action, comme, par exemple, le dépassement ou le renouvellement des modèles ou des principes considérés vieillissants.

Se proposant d'assurer la formation des élèves pour accomplir les complexes et les différents rôles sociaux futurs, l'école établit ses objectifs tenant compte des qualités envisagées dont ceux-ci devront faire preuve dans certaines circonstances. L'impact formatif de ses actions se concrétisera dans le naturel des personnalités afin de mieux correspondre aux exigences sociales d'ordres culturel, scientifique, professionnel, moral et civique. Intégré dans un milieu socio-économique et culturel, le système d'enseignement est perçu en tant que service social qui doit accomplir des fonctions complexes.

Conditionné du milieu où il agit, celui-ci va chercher de former les élèves en fonction de diverses activités, pour développer le côté spirituel de la vie, pour les former en tant que citoyens. Il est souhaitable que, dans toutes les moments de la vie, le citoyen d'une société démocratique fasse preuve de tolérance et de respect vis-à-vis des opinions et des croyances qui est différent des siennes, d'intérêt pour les problèmes publics, de compétence à l'égard des interventions personnelles et de groupe.

L'initiation à la propre liberté, en tant que valeur fondamentale des démocraties libérales, n'exclut la formation et le développement des attitudes solidaires et coopératrices dans le cadre de la collectivité, de l'esprit communautaire qui s'appuie sur l'idée de solidarité, vue comme option pour la participation collective des individus dans le cadre des groupes et des communautés auxquels ils appartiennent.

Les droits de l'homme et la culture de la démocratie doivent être appris, et l'apprentissage exige de l'effort de la part des citoyens et des formateurs. Il existe des notions-clés qui illustrent le cadre de référence auquel se rapportent les efforts d'instruction: la liberté, l'égalité, la participation, la responsabilité, la solidarité (nous retrouvons toutes ces notions dans les pages des programmes curriculaires que nous exposerons dans l'un des chapitres suivants). En même temps, l'éducation pour citoyenneté dans une société démocratique se rapproche de l'éducation multiculturelle et interculturelle, en tant que moyen de valorisation positive des différences, d'enrichissement réciproque par la connaissance d'autrui, par l'intermédiaire des échanges et du travail collectif fondé sur le respect réciproque.

Le passé et la tradition sont restés une dimension insuffisante pour la légitimité de l'identité d'une personne, d'une institution ou d'un peuple. Les stéréotypes sont des croyances restées à la limite du cliché. Elles s'appuient sur des raisonnements aprioriques, vieillis, souvent arbitraires, sur un schéma simplifié de la pensée que l'individu utilise à cause d'un refus de connaître, d'observer et de comprendre ce qui se passe en fait. Toutes ces stéréotypes, formées durant le processus de la socialisation, se retrouvent dans la façon d'agir et dans les attitudes envers l'autrui.

Ces mentalités doivent être changées à l'aide d'un certain type d'éducation, ce qui signifie comprendre et vivre la citoyenneté chaque jour, conformément aux exigences du moment, mais aussi tenant compte du futur. La formation pour une citoyenneté démocratique représente une initiation de l'individu aux valeurs universelles: le bien, l'égalité, la liberté. A cela s'ajoute le fait que les droits de l'homme sont des valeurs et attitudes qui peuvent devenir des comportements effectifs seulement à travers l'éducation.

Les développements théoriques de cette question et les démarches pratiques demandés sont contenus dans le syntagme «*Education pour une citoyenneté démocratique*». En premier, il faut remarquer le changement de perspective: le passage de l'éducation civique à l'éducation pour une citoyenneté dans une société démocratique, bien que les matières destinées à sa réalisation permanents soient appelées *Education civique* ou *Culture civique*. Pourquoi a-t-on eu besoin de ce passage? La réponse se retrouve dans le documents curriculaires: «L'éducation pour citoyenneté dans une société démocratique représente un des objectifs les plus importants de n'importe quel système d'enseignement d'un pays qui a choisi cette forme de régime politique. Celle-ci ne peut pas et ne doit pas être confondue avec la simple éducation/ instruction civique, présente aussi, d'ailleurs, dans le contenu de l'activité des écoles appartenant aux systèmes totalitaires et reconnaissable dans la période communiste de l'histoire récente de la Roumanie, sous des diverses formes, à partir d'une discipline comme la *Constitution de la Roumanie*, jusqu'aux heures d'éducation civique/information politique et jusqu'aux messages idéologistes des autres disciplines.» (D. Georgescu, 1999, p. 189). Bien sûr, éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique ne se réalise pas dans l'école seulement à travers l'*Education civique* ou de la *Culture civique*, mais aussi en s'appuyant sur d'autres disciplines: *Philosophie, Sociologie, Histoire* etc.

2. L'identité de l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique

La faible information des gens, l'indifférence et la non implication dans la vie publique peut constituer à n'importe quel moment et n'importe quel endroit une menace pour la démocratie. C'est pour cela que l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique est devenue une priorité des politiques éducatives et un domaine d'intérêt général. Nous pouvons affirmer que la démocratie et la citoyenneté démocratique sont inhérentes à l'éducation, d'où il résulte que l'éducation pour la

citoyenneté démocratique constitue déjà un objectif commun des systèmes éducatifs de toute l'Europe. A part les démarches curriculaires entreprises dans l'enseignement, de nombreuses organisations, mais aussi des militants indépendants, essaient de faire bouger leurs propres initiatives, en proposant des solutions centrées autour de la responsabilisation, autonomie et l'activité des individus.

L'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique nous apparaît comme un ensemble de pratiques et d'activités dont le principal but est la formation des jeunes et des adultes en vue de participer activement à la vie démocratique, par l'acceptation et la mise en pratique des droits et des obligations (responsabilités) envers leur société. De toute façon, ce possible définition doit être complétée avec plus de spécifications importantes. L'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique n'est ni une discipline scolaire, ni une autre activité prévue dans le curriculum, ni un domaine de connaissances, ni une forme d'action sociale, ni un type d'éducation synonyme de l'éducation des droits de l'homme, de l'éducation politique ou de l'éducation des élites, mais un objectif majeur des politiques éducatives, conçu dans la perspective de l'apprentissage continu et qui subordonne toutes les dimensions antérieurement énoncées. Il est clair que l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique couvre et dépasse tous ces aspects particuliers (C. Bîrzea, 2000).

Celle-ci a sa propre identité et un contenu opérationnel qui résulte de l'intégration de trois termes génériques: éducation – citoyenneté – démocratie. En fait, il s'agit d'une triade spécifique aux plusieurs activités éducatives, à une grande variété d'expériences que les gens vivent indépendamment de leur âge, institution ou milieu d'apprentissage.

En comparaison avec d'autres termes analogues étroitement liés (éducation civique, éducation politique etc.), l'identité de l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique est consacré par le terme intégrateur de référence: «la citoyenneté». Autrement dit, en tant que résultat de cette identité, l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique signifie l'apprentissage du comportement démocratique à travers une diversité d'expériences et pratiques sociales. Il s'agit d'un système de pratiques éducatives et de situations d'apprentissage disponibles durant la vie de chacun, destinées à apprendre les individus, les groupes et les communautés, les moyens par lesquels ceux-ci peuvent participer activement à la vie sociale.

3. Le but de l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique

L'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique a comme but la formation et le développement chez l'individu des compétences afin de pouvoir participer d'une manière active à la vie publique. Celle-ci suppose non seulement savoir mais aussi apprendre à vivre à côté des autres, apprendre à exister, apprendre à agir et apprendre à faire. Chaque individu doit être son propre bénéficiaire, afin de pouvoir comprendre que la démocratie ne apparaît pas et ne se développe pas toute seule. Cette dernière dépend en grande mesure de l'apport de chacun. L'implication de tous les citoyens peut favoriser

l'apparition de bons résultats, en matière d'efficacité publique et personnelle, de prospérité économique, de droit social et de moralité.

En perspective éducative, la formation des individus pour une société démocratique signifie non seulement l'acquisition des connaissances sur les mécanismes de la démocratie, mais aussi la formation de nouvelles compétences et attitudes, qui transforment un certain comportement en processus de construction et reconstruction, ce qui n'est pas facile à réaliser, puisque on entre dans un domaine où la tradition joue un rôle important. L'éducation pour citoyenneté démocratique promut la culture de la démocratie, le répartition des responsabilités, l'intercompréhension, la tolérance et le achèvement pacifiste des conflits. Ses objectifs majeurs sont la transmission d'un système des valeurs (pluralisme, les droits de l'homme, coopération, participation, tolérance, respect), la formation d'une capacité à dialoguer, à changer et à prendre des décisions responsables, la formation des attitudes positives et aussi d'avoir des responsabilités au sein de la communauté, de faire preuve de solidarité et de confiance réciproque, de témoigner d'une certaine flexibilité en relation avec les autres, de respect envers la culture des autres, de trouver une solution non-violente aux situations problématiques etc.

Dans l'école, les enfants se familiarisent avec de différents moyens d'intégration dans la communauté, en se rapportant continuellement aux valeurs comme la tolérance, la solidarité et la responsabilité. La voie normale de la vie et de l'activité des écoles, en temps qu'institutions grâce auxquelles les élèves acquiert les normes fondamentales, devraient s'appuyer sur la valeur de la liberté individuelle, qui ne doit pas limiter la liberté des autres. Une prémisses essentielle pour la participation aux processus démocratiques est aussi constituée par le développement de l'esprit critique, du pouvoir de décision, et du jugement autonome. Indifféremment des niveaux d'étude, l'école est perçue comme l'endroit où se crée et se forme un publique démocratique.

Une éducation de qualité suppose que les élèves acquièrent des habilités de communication, de relation, d'action civique et, généralement, des habilités nécessaires à l'existence dans une société de type démocratique.

4. Les exigences pour le pratique éducative

Discuter de l'éducation pour une société démocratique signifie, en fait, trouver des justes réponses aux questions du type suivant: Comment influencent les valeurs, les significations et les principes associés à l'idée de citoyenneté démocratique l'orientation générale de l'éducation? Quel type de effets ont-elles sur le *Curriculum scolaire*? Comment s'adaptent-t-elles dans la pratique éducationnelle? Quels sont le contenu et la méthodologie qui doivent être présents dans les programmes curriculaire des matières scolaires? Quel est le potentiel d'instruction des activités complémentaires au curriculum? Comment sont développés les modèles de management scolaire, spécialement en ce qui concerne la participation

des enseignants, des parentes, des élèves et des autres membres de la communauté à la prise des décisions ayant trait à la réalisation de l'éducation? Comment se réalise-t-elle l'éducation pour la citoyenneté démocratique dans le cas des adultes?

Malgré le fait que l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique doit constituer une constante qui caractérise tous les citoyens et une grande partie des institutions de la société, l'école aura sans aucun doute le rôle essentiel. Son devoir est de contribuer par l'intermédiaire des moyens spécifiques à la promotion des valeurs et des pratiques démocratiques, dont la présence n'est pas assurée d'avance dans le milieu extrascolaire. Pour former les gens à tenir tête aux attentes et aux provocations complexes de la société contemporaine, les politiques éducatives devraient:

- a) développer le curriculum formel se rapportant à l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique par l'introduction des disciplines distinctes, des sujets interdisciplinaires ou des programmes intégrés;
- b) attirer toutes les institutions qui ont un rôle formatif afin de mieux atteindre les objectifs spécifiques à l'éducation pour une société démocratique;
- c) diriger le système d'enseignement tout entier vers certaines valeurs: les droits de l'homme, le pluralisme politique, l'ordre de droit etc.;
- d) développer chez les jeunes les capacités essentielles pour exercer la citoyenneté démocratique, spécialement les droits et les responsabilités, les aptitudes sociales, de communication, de participation à la vie publique;
- e) promouvoir l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique à l'aide de l'ethos scolaire, du curriculum informel ou caché, mais aussi à l'aide des liens avec le milieu social;
- f) faire de l'école un moyen de lutte contre la violence, contre la xénophobie, contre le racisme, contre le nationalisme agressif et contre l'intolérance.

La faible information des gens, l'indifférence et la non implication dans la vie publique peut constituer à n'importe quel moment et n'importe quel endroit une menace pour la démocratie. C'est pour cela que l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique est devenue une priorité des politiques éducatives et un domaine d'intérêt général. Nous pouvons affirmer que la démocratie et la citoyenneté démocratique sont inhérentes à l'éducation, d'où il résulte que l'éducation pour la citoyenneté démocratique constitue déjà un objectif commun des systèmes éducatifs de toute l'Europe. A part les démarches curriculaires entreprises dans l'enseignement, de nombreuses organisations, mais aussi des militants indépendants, essaient de faire bouger leurs propres initiatives, en proposant des solutions centrées autour de la responsabilisation, autonomie et l'activité des individus.

En tant que critère nécessaire à assurer la qualité dans l'enseignement, l'éducation pour citoyenneté démocratique introduit de nouveaux indicateurs, comme, par exemple, la diversité, la participation, le management orienté vers

certaines valeurs, les aptitudes sociales, le partenariat et les responsabilités partagés. Dans cette perspective, les institutions d'enseignement devraient:

- a) considérer la décision prise de façon démocratique comme une dimension majeure de chaque forme de management éducatif (encourager y compris la participation effective des élèves aux processus décisionnels);
- b) inclure les droits de l'homme comme une pratique courante dans toutes les activités scolaires;
- c) assurer un passage de l'enseignement réactif à l'enseignement dirigé vers soi-même, qui laisse la priorité aux responsabilités assumées, à la conscience de soi, à la créativité et à la motivation afin de continuer à apprendre;
- d) aborder de façon constructive l'enseignement, qui laisse priorité à l'expérience personnelle des élèves;
- e) tenir compte des résultats des activités d'éducation formelle et non-formelle;
- f) promouvoir un système de responsabilité multiple, visant les autorités locales, la société civile et la communauté;
- g) inclure l'éducation pour citoyenneté démocratique dans les programmes de formation initiale et continue des tous les enseignants.

Dans la perspective des comportements et des relations qui s'établissent entre les individus, dans une société démocratique, un grand nombre de disciplines attirent l'attention sur le développement des compétences qui rendent possible le dialogue, la participation et la responsabilité. Quant au contenu, les cinq dimensions: politique, juridique, sociale économique et culturelle occupent, bien sûr, la première place. La compréhension et l'habitude nous dirigent vers de nouvelles compétences pour lesquelles nous avons besoin d'éducation et de formation. Indifféremment de domaine ou de contenu, toutes les études récentes soulignent l'impacte formatif provoqué sur la personnalité des élèves ou de ceux qui apprennent tenant compte des méthodes actives (interactives), qui nécessitent, découverte, esprit de recherche, responsabilité et expérimentation rigoureusement structurée et réalisée.

Bien sûr, l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique ne se réalise seulement grâce à l'étude des disciplines contenues dans le *Curriculum formel*. La formation d'un citoyen apte à l'exercice de la démocratie est une exigence éducative fondamentale qui peut être réalisée dans une école organisée en fonction des principes démocratiques. Une école de telle sorte doit offrir un milieu propice au développement de la capacité des élèves de participer au processus démocratiques, et l'effort qu'il dépose dans ce sens-là ne se réduit pas à ce qui est prévu dans le *Curriculum formel*. Nous pouvons affirmer qu'il existe trois moyens de réalisation de l'éducation pour citoyenneté démocratique:

- a) les leçons proprement-dites, par lesquelles se réalisent l'enseignement et l'apprentissage des disciplines qui ont des objectifs caractéristiques à la société démocratique;
- b) les moments, les endroits et les occasions pour les initiatives des élèves, en dehors des activités d'enseignement proprement dites;
- c) la vie scolaire quotidienne et, plus précisément, toutes les situations créées par l'école en tant que milieu social, avec ses règles collectives, les conflits interpersonnels, les moments et les occasions de coopération etc.;

Par la multitude d'interrelations qu'elle crée et stimule, ce type d'éducation favorise un apprentissage qui s'étend au delà du cadre formel des activités curriculaires. Toute la structure organisationnelle de l'école est déterminée par son rôle essentiel, la réalisation du processus instructif-éducatif. Mais celle-ci exerce les influences éducatives sur les élèves tant par actions directes, intrinsèques au processus instructif-éducatif, que, par des actions indirectes, comme, par exemple, par l'intermédiaire du milieu scolaire, des activités extracurriculaires, l'organisation et la valorisation du partenariat avec d'autres facteurs éducatifs.

Autrement dit, l'école qui aura plus de réussites sera celle qui implique de façon permanente les élèves dans des activités efficaces non seulement au niveau individuel, mais aussi au niveau collectif. Elle doit être perçue comme une communauté où l'on peut apprendre le comportement démocratique, où les élèves se familiarisent avec de différentes façons d'intégration dans la communauté, en se rapportant continuellement aux valeurs comme la tolérance, la solidarité et la responsabilité. La voie normale de la vie et de l'activité des écoles, en temps qu'institutions par l'intermédiaire desquelles acquièrent les normes fondamentales de comportement, devrait s'appuyer sur la valeur de la liberté individuelle qui ne doit pas limiter la liberté des autres. Une condition fondamentale pour participer aux processus démocratiques est représentée par le développement de l'esprit critique, du pouvoir de décision et de la pensée autonome. Indifféremment des niveaux d'étude, l'école doit être perçue comme l'endroit où se forme un public démocratique.

5. Conclusions

L'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique peut être mise en pratique par diverses formes et modalités, celle-ci représentant, en fait, une action soutenue dont les origines doivent être cherchées en enfance et renforcées surtout à l'aide de l'école. La modalité implicite par laquelle les élèves sont formés en tant que citoyens actifs et responsables concerne tous les facteurs et tous les aspects de l'école, qui peuvent jouer un rôle formatif important, même si leur action est, parfois, diffuse ou sans aucune intention claire dans ce sens-là.

On pourrait dire que l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique se réalise par l'intermédiaire de la disciplines scolaires, par participation démocratique à

la prise des décisions dans la classe (école), par l'ethos scolaire ou par le discours involontaire de la communauté scolaire: l'atmosphère, le sous-conscient de groupe, les symboles dominants, les modalités de partager les connaissances etc. L'association des élèves en vue d'organiser l'activité scolaire et la récompense de leur initiative en ce qui concerne le déroulement des activités extrascolaires sont capables de créer un cadre scolaire favorable à un comportement de type démocratique. En fait, la réalisation de l'éducation pour une citoyenneté démocratique implique la coopération des tous les milieux d'enseignement qui forment le contexte scolaire. La dynamique interne de cette communauté d'apprentissage représente une prémisses, à travers les conditions offertes, de la responsabilité individuelle et collective.

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LEARNING HOW TO LEARN: ABOUT LEARNER AUTONOMY

BIANCA BRETAN

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die Autonomie innerhalb des Lernprozesses wurde ein Zentralthema der Ausbildung. Das Ziel dieser neuen Tendenz ist die Vorbereitung der jungen Leute zum Lernen während des ganzen Lebens, sogar nach dem Verlassen des Einrichtungsrahmens der Schule oder der Fakultät. Im Zusammenhang des Unterrichtes der Fremdsprachen bekommt das autonome Lernen eine besondere Bedeutung, weil die im Prozess hineingezogenen Personen sich zum Kommunizieren innerhalb einer weiten, internationalen Umwelt vorbereiten. Aus diesem Standpunkt wurde das autonome Lernen ein der Zentralziele der sprachlichen Politik, die vom Europäischen Rat gefördert wird. Die betreffenden Fähigkeiten beziehen sich auf die Gewandheiten des Lernenden seine Ziele zu bestimmen und zu erfüllen, seinen eigenen Fortschritt zu monitorisieren und bewerten.

Schlüsselwörter: autonomes Lernen, Lernart, Überlegung, Strategien, Planung, Bewertung.

The issue of learner autonomy is not something new in the area of foreign language learning (FLL). However, in our country the concept is making its first steps as many teachers have never experienced or made any attempts to implement it. The article tries to bring into discussion the meaning, the components and the goals of this particular trend in education.

Autonomous language learning projects have been piloted from the early 90's by schools in Derbyshire, Britain (T.Lamb&T.Smethan 1996) and by Helsinki University (Kjisik & Nordlund 1996) with successful results. In 1997 the European Center for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe took the initiative of organizing a workshop (*Language and Culture Awareness in Language Learning/ Teaching for the Development of Learner Autonomy*) with the aim of setting up an international network able to produce and test pre-service and in service teacher training modules implementing learner autonomy.

The event was a recognition of the importance that the Council of Europe gave to the whole concept of learner autonomy. According to European Union standards "learners are expected to carry the responsibility for their own learning, to negotiate and cooperate with each other and with the teacher in selecting objectives and ways of achieving them, sharing knowledge, experiences and feelings while respecting the individuality of others, and learning to monitor and evaluate their own progress."(Camilleri 1997:5).

Robert M. Smith in his book “Learning How to Learn” (1983:17) names the three components of the “learning how to learn” idea as follows:

1. learner’s needs (what they need to know and be able to do for success in learning);
2. learners’ learning styles (a person’s highly individualized preferences and tendencies that influence his/her learning);
3. learners’ training (organize activity or instruction to increase people’s competence in learning).

In present-day language education, learner’s needs are central. The learner centered curriculum provides opportunities for students to negotiate with their teacher the context of the learning becoming responsible for their own linguistic development. In this sense, the learner’s role is described as that of a person who is: (Camilleri 1997:26)

- interested in his/her learning process;
- eager to participate in discussions;
- happy to interact with other learners;
- respectful of other persons’ ideas;
- able to accept correction from the teacher and classmates;
- able to plan her/his learning;
- able to evaluate the learning process and the results.

The second component, learner’s learning styles is an evaluation of how different individuals in a class like to learn best. This is an important precondition for learner autonomy as teachers should be able to use a variety of strategies in order to meet their students’ needs. Nunan (Nunan 1989:51) categorizes learners into four groups:

1. Concrete learners: those who like games, pictures, films, video, using cassettes, working in pairs.
2. Analytical learners: those who like to study grammar, read books and newspapers in English, find their own mistakes, work on problems.
3. Communicative learners: learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English, using English out of class, and learning by conversation.
4. Authority oriented: prefer the teacher to explain everything, like to have their own textbook, write everything in their notebook, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them.

Many teachers don’t feel comfortable preparing materials for all four categories of learners but theory suggests that they should, giving students more opportunities for learning and demonstrating their knowledge.

In this sense, language teachers have a very important role as they prepare students to be able to continue learning after the end of the course. They need to use a variety of techniques to lead the learner in three directions (Dickinson & Carver 1995:2):

- To know how to continue learning a language (methodological preparation);
- To develop self confidence in their ability to work independently of the teacher (psychological preparation);
- To be given practice in taking responsibility for their own learning (practice in self-direction).

Dickinson and Carver also examine the three aspects mentioned above:

1. *Methodological preparation.* The goal of this kind of preparation is to raise learner's interest towards learning techniques and language description. In order to achieve it students are supposed to become familiar with the terminology used in grammar books and dictionaries, to be able to analyze structures, notions and functions, to become aware of the objectives of different units in their textbook and the objectives of the course. Consequently, they should develop planning and organization skills. They should be encouraged to select materials, to diagnose their learning problems and to take steps in order to improve the situation.
2. *Psychological preparation.* The goal here is to provide students with self-confidence. The first step a learner should take is to enlarge his perspective on the outcome of education, perceiving it as a long process for acquiring knowledge rather than a standard process based on the relationship learning-evaluation. Then, students should develop self-motivation and adopt strategies to direct their own learning. This way, they become aware of their own learning problems and will be able to monitor their own progress.
3. *Practice in self-direction.* This kind of practice could be provided during the language classes. Teachers can give pupils opportunities for making decisions about when and where they perform certain learning tasks. They could also give pupils opportunities to gain independence from the teacher. Practice in self direction could be done by integrating some techniques for promoting autonomy in the existing language teaching program. Some examples:
 - Self-correction. Could be done after a written assignment, peers exchanging notebooks and correcting each other's errors.
 - Variable pacing. Could be achieved when the teacher gives compulsory plus optional tasks in heterogeneous classes with students with different levels of abilities.
 - Group work.
 - Project work. A process by which students gather and organize information without teacher's intervention.

- Trouble shooting sessions. Sessions in which learners are encouraged to talk about their learning problems, things they find difficult, activities they enjoyed/disliked.
- Extensive reading and listening with choice of materials and activities.
- Use of pupil teachers where pupils are used to teach each other.
- Sharing objectives. Pupils are involved in ordering the objectives of a lesson.

The techniques suggested by Dickinson and Carver give learners different levels of autonomy, in the same time they bring a change in the relationship between teachers and learners: together they build a partnership in which they are assigned new roles. The teacher should use teaching strategies that promote interaction among students in order to encourage communication and create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.

Douglas H. Brown offers some suggestions of interactive techniques that could be used in the classroom in order to help students to develop their own learning styles and strategies (D.H. Brown's *Building Strategic Techniques* 1994: 201):

1. To lower inhibitions: play guessing games and communication games; do role plays and sing songs; use group work; have your students share their fears in small groups.
2. To encourage risk-taking: praise students for making sincere efforts to try out language; use fluency exercises where errors are not corrected at that time; give outside-the-class assignments to speak or write.
3. To build student's self-confidence: tell students explicitly that you believe in them; have them make lists of their strengths, of what they know or have accomplished so far in the course.
4. To help them develop intrinsic motivation: remind them explicitly about the rewards of learning English; describe jobs that require English; help students to see rewards for themselves beyond the final exam.
5. To promote cooperative learning: direct students to share their knowledge; play down competition among students; get your class to think of themselves as a team; do group work.
6. To encourage them to use right-brain processing: use movies and tapes in class; have them scan and skim passages; do oral fluency exercises where the object is to get students to talk a lot without being corrected.
7. To promote ambiguity tolerance: encourage students to ask you and each other, questions when they don't understand something; keep your theoretical explanations very simple and brief; deal with just a few rules at a time; occasionally you can use translation to clarify a word or meaning.
8. To help them use their intuition: praise students for good guesses; do not always give explanation of errors-a correction would be sufficient; correct only selected errors, preferably those that interfere with learning.

9. To get students to make their mistakes work for them: tape record student's oral production and get them to identify errors; let students catch and correct each other's errors, encourage students to make lists of their most common errors and to work on them on their own.
10. To get students to set their own goals: explicitly encourage or direct students to go beyond the classroom goals; have them make lists of what they will accomplish on their own in a particular week; get students to make specific time commitments at home to study the language; give "extra credit" work.

As a conclusion, autonomous language learning is not possible if it is not carefully prepared from school. The role of the teacher is very important as he/she is the one in charge with implementing techniques meant to guide pupils in this direction. In this sense, the teacher's role is described as that of a facilitator, co-participant, advisor, encourager, monitor, resource person and patient person (Camilleri 1997:26). Also, the teacher should be able to use a variety of strategies meant to guide pupils towards learning autonomously. At their turn, students should learn how to develop their own effective styles and strategies, investing time and effort in learning a foreign language. A central principle of the FLL theory is intrinsic/internal motivation. Last but not least, reflection is also an important part of the process. Learners should be taught to keep learning diaries that record observations and reflections connected to their learning experience. This way they gain greater confidence to develop their learning potential.

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LA STRUCTURE COMMUNICATIVE DU COURS DE RELIGION

NICOLETA MARȚIAN*

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Das Prinzip der Kommunikation im Religionsunterricht. Der Übergang von einer auf den Lehrer konzentrierter Pädagogik zu einer, die sich auf eine kommunikative Struktur stützt, ist wesentlich damit der Religionsunterricht in der gegenwärtigen Gesellschaft seine Ziele erreicht.

Mit der Pädagogik Jesu als Beispiel, einer kommunikativen Pädagogik schlechthin, muss der Religionslehrer seinen Unterricht vom Prinzip ausgehend unternehmen, laut dem der Lehrer und seine Kenntnisse im Dienste des Schülers stehen und nicht umgekehrt.

La prémisses

La société roumaine actuelle est une société en grande mutation tant au point de vue politique, culturel, économique, qu'en ce qui concerne les relations interhumaines. On constate chez les gens un désir de refaire un système nouveau de dialogue dans le cadre de leur société. Et cela parce qu'avant les relations et les paroles ont souffert des détournements de leurs réalités. Elle paraît marquée de manière déterminante par un ensemble de questionnements qui tournent autour du fonctionnement de la communication comme aspect de la parole mais bien aussi comme manière d'entrer en relation avec l'autre et d'être reconnu en tant que tel.

Le contexte et les conditions extérieures de l'éducation religieuse sont évidemment très importants pour comprendre les implications méthodologiques dans l'enseignement religieux. Car, il n'y a pas de méthode sans contexte, et chaque méthode exprime un type déterminé de relations humaines, de communications. Il vaut donc la peine de s'interroger plus en profondeur sur les implications de cette communication dans le cours de religion.

En général, la communication dans le cadre pédagogique du cours de religion gréco-catholique se résume à une communication institutionnalisée. Il manque l'aspect d'une rencontre entre l'enseignant et l'enseigné parce qu'il y a cet enfermement dans le monde écolier et le cours de religion est perçu comme les autres disciplines, toujours dans la même structure. Or, la communication dans le domaine religieux touche à la dimension intime, personnelle, cachée ou enfouie en chacun des participants, en chaque élève. Cela ne veut pas dire que l'enseignement religieux doit devenir un entretien spirituel. La pédagogie de communication dans le cours de religion doit demeurer compatible avec le cadre scolaire. Le cours de religion est un cours à part

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entière au sein de l'école; il lui faut donc recourir à des pédagogies qui sont celles de l'école. Il doit être compatible avec le régime scolaire, mais tout en gardant la spécificité d'un cours de religion.

Il y a certainement des rôles, des attentes et des relations humaines clairement définis. L'ensemble de ces rôles provoque des attentes extérieures et intérieures spécifiques, avec des activités particulières à chaque rôle. Le professeur de religion enseigne, les élèves apprennent. Mais, on ne peut pas vraiment dire que cette éducation religieuse se situe dans le cadre d'une structure communicative correspondante.

Une structure communicative présuppose une interaction, un feed-back, une certaine réciprocité plus générale et plus complexe que l'information ou un enseignement d'instruction¹. Le cours de religion doit être plus qu'une simple information ou instruction. Ainsi, une éducation religieuse doit s'appuyer sur des méthodes d'interaction et de communication dans un va-et-vient entre les professeurs de religion et les élèves.

A l'image de l'école, l'enseignement religieux y est essentiellement frontal: d'un côté le maître qui détient et dispense le savoir, de l'autre les élèves braqués sur lui afin d'écouter et d'enregistrer. Les rapports sont les mêmes qu'auparavant, dans un sens unique: le professeur occupe la position haute et l'élève la basse. On voit que le but de cet enseignement de haut en bas est la transmission d'un savoir religieux qui tient en une dogmatique et une éthique élémentaires où la foi est "un sac à dogmes"² que l'élève doit assimiler pour être dans le vrai.

C'est une transmission selon le principe déductif, le professeur s'efforçant de faire passer le message auprès des élèves par des moyens pédagogiques traditionnels. Les élèves, comme sujets principaux de l'enseignement, importent finalement peu. La révélation est elle-même pensée comme révélation verticale, et cela comme une conséquence de la méthode utilisée. Méthode qui ne prête aucune attention aux interactions réelles et inévitables qui se produisent dans toute communication.

Dans la société actuelle en profonde transformation ce modèle cesse d'être pertinent. Mais cette persistance est à mettre généralement sur le compte des angoisses des professeurs à la perspective d'un changement qui implique une tout autre responsabilité et une tout autre manière de percevoir les relations avec les élèves.

La structure communicative reste celle d'une communication de haut en bas qui veut transmettre purement et simplement les opinions de celui qui enseigne (semblable à l'opération de déverser des idées dans la tête d'un autre). Tout le fonctionnement du pédagogique s'insère dans une logique de pure transmission du savoir.

De son côté, le cours de religion est un cours ordinaire où l'élève n'a pas trop la possibilité de développer des attitudes et de grandir dans sa foi. Il reste un être qui s'adapte à la réalité bien plus qu'un sujet qui se transforme, sa capacité participative étant

¹ Voir C. CUCOS, *Pédagogie*, Ed. Polirom, Iasi, 1996, le chapitre concernant la communication didactique.

² P.L. DUBIED, *Apprendre Dieu à l'adolescence*, Genève, Labor et Fides, 1992, p. 59.

réduite au minimum et son sens critique presque absent³. Par la suite, il est nécessaire que le cours de religion passe d'une pédagogie d'instruction à une pédagogie communicative qui met au centre l'élève. Toute la pédagogie scolaire est concernée par ce changement.

C'est pour approfondir et mettre en oeuvre ces perspectives que nous allons nous arrêter maintenant à la pratique communicative de Jésus telle qu'elle se manifeste dans l'Évangile. On y verra, par divers biais, comment Jésus lui-même communique et comment, pédagogiquement, il fait passer ses interlocuteurs à l'ordre de la rencontre et de la reconnaissance.

La dynamique pédagogique de Jésus

A la fin de notre analyse, nous avons vu que l'enseignement religieux suit un schéma qui va de haut en bas et qui se réduit tout simplement à une transmission de contenu. Le projet pédagogique, c'est-à-dire la manière de faire affleurer le contenu, est, dans une même logique didactique, d'une moindre importance. L'accent est mis sur le savoir du professeur et c'est cela qui compte le plus.

A partir de ces constatations, notre réflexion théologique veut faire une approche de l'enseignement de Jésus dont l'apport pour la pédagogie d'aujourd'hui nous semble pertinent. Et puisque sa pédagogie n'est pas seulement une pédagogie de la révélation mais une pédagogie révélée⁴, aujourd'hui, on a tout intérêt à considérer, dans l'annonce de la foi, la pédagogie de Jésus comme une référence fondamentale.

Pour illustrer cela nous avons choisi le récit évangélique: "L'entretien avec la samaritaine" (Jn 4,1-42)⁵. On abordant ce récit, on va essayer de dégager des constantes qui peuvent nous montrer la manière dont Jésus a fait de cette rencontre un véritable moment pédagogique. Notre grille de travail pour ce moment n'est pas exégétique au sens historico-critique du terme. Pour mettre en évidence les caractéristiques de la pédagogie de Jésus, nous avons privilégié le texte lui-même. La rencontre avec la samaritaine, nous l'avons envisagés essentiellement comme des outils pédagogiques à l'usage d'un Messie pédagogue, mais en n'oubliant pas leurs visées théologiques.

Dans ce chapitre de Jean, nous rencontrons une femme de Samarie. Le texte opère un changement de la foi de cette femme et cela grâce à la rencontre et au dialogue avec Jésus. Ce qui étonne dans ce dialogue, c'est la gradation de celui-ci, à travers quoi la samaritaine va passer de l'étonnement au désir, puis du désir à l'adoration puis à la reconnaissance du Messie, et de celle-ci au témoignage devant les gens de Sychar (v.5)⁶.

³ Cf. B. WIAME, *Pour une inculturation de l'enseignement religieux* (coll. *Théologies pratiques*), Bruxelles, Lumen Vitae, 1997, p.141.

⁴ Cf. B. SESBOUE, *Pédagogie du Christ*, Paris, Cerf, 1994, p. 7.

⁵ Nous utilisons le texte selon la version TOB.

⁶ Cf. P. MOURLON BEERNAERT, *Marthe, Marie et les autres. Les visages féminins de l'Évangile* (coll. *Écritures*), Bruxelles, Lumen Vitae, 1992, p.145.

La samaritaine vient avec son expérience et son histoire. Elle vient avec sa foi qui surgit au fil du dialogue. Une foi qui subit une transformation. Car Jésus se révèle à elle d'une manière profonde et personnelle. C'est à elle que Jésus dit "Je suis" (v.26) avec tout ce que cela suppose. On voit que c'est l'expérience de cette femme, son dynamisme intérieur qui permet de sortir le message qui révèle le Nom.

Si Jésus assis au bord du puits prend l'initiative⁷ de demander à boire à une femme qui vient puiser de l'eau en plein midi, c'est qu'il a vraiment soif. Il a soif d'entendre cette femme, d'écouter son expérience, d'entrer dans l'expérience de celle-ci pour vivre avec elle une transformation. C'est bien la pédagogie de Jésus. Assumer et entrer dans l'expérience de l'autre pour mieux faire affleurer le message du salut. Et il se laisse toucher par la vérité de cette femme (v.18) afin de l'accompagner dans son changement et de l'aider femme à progresser dans son cheminement, dans l'accueil du "don de Dieu" (v.10). Alors, l'eau qu'elle cherchait dans le puits se changera en source de vie pour elle-même. C'est là qu'on commence à comprendre que *"l'enseignement de Jésus est si excellent que ce qu'il annonce devient, en qui l'accueille, la source du breuvage de vie qui jaillira en lui, afin de lui faire trouver tout ce qu'il cherche"*⁸.

Tout ce dialogue, que Jésus mène avec la femme samaritaine, est en effet un récit de révélation dans la lumière de midi et dans la lumière du salut proche que Jésus lui annonce (v.21.23). Ce dialogue très riche indique une progression de ré-vélation et de dé-voilement. Le Seigneur le lui manifeste et elle va le découvrir progressivement.

Ainsi, le dynamisme de cette femme, si extraordinaire dans sa recherche de Dieu, permet à Jésus de lui signaler le don (v.10) et son identité (v.26). On voit que, du côté de la femme, son image de Dieu s'ajuste petit à petit. Car, si au commencement elle se questionne au sujet du "juif" (v.9), face à elle qui est samaritaine, elle parle ensuite du titre de Seigneur (v.11), de la relation au père Jacob (v.12), de nouveau du Seigneur (v.15) et du prophète (v.19); on voit que subitement elle se questionne sur le Messie (v.25) et sur le Christ (v.29)⁹. Mais le Seigneur va lui confier son identité la plus profonde "Je suis" (v.26) et la femme court enthousiasmée pour partager sa découverte afin que ceux de son peuple puissent déclarer: "il est vraiment le Sauveur du monde" (v.42).

Le désir et l'attente de cette femme ainsi vont être la pierre d'attente qui permet à Jésus de l'accompagner dans sa progression qui la conduit, pas à pas, dans la confiance et dans la foi. *"Le désir profond de cette femme, désir accompagné d'un certain doute qui la suit comme son ombre, conduit pas à pas son élan, dans la confiance et enfin dans la foi; elle sera vraiment "témoin" (v.39) auprès des gens de sa ville et trouvera les mots qu'il faut pour les amener sans tarder au "Christ" qui lui a dit tout ce qu'elle avait fait"*¹⁰.

⁷ *Ibidem*.

⁸ Sources chrétiennes, *Origène. Commentaire sur Saint Jean*, tome III, Livre XIII, Paris, Cerf, 1975, p.43.

⁹ Cf.P. MOURLON BEERNAERT, *op. cit.*, p.152.

¹⁰ *Ibidem*, p.145.

Jésus donc, exauce son attente et comble son désir. Car entre le Seigneur et cette femme il y a eu un mystère *de communication et de communion*, une rencontre profonde de personnes (profondeur qui n'a pas été comprise par les disciples qui en restent au niveau de l'apparence socio-culturelle). Ainsi, ce n'est pas seulement la femme - celle qui a vécu cette expérience - qui lui apporte la diaconie (le service) et la qualité de témoin libérateur de son peuple.

C'est aussi Jésus qui se laisse toucher par elle pour vivre avec elle l'expérience du dévoilement de son identité à un être humain, et de proclamation des temps à venir (v.35-38). La rencontre permet à Jésus et à cette femme d'expérimenter le don de Dieu. Pour la femme, ce don est la révélation du Messie; pour Jésus <<c'est faire la volonté de celui qui l'a envoyé et accomplir son oeuvre>> (v.34).

On sent bien la démarche qui permet à Jésus de transmettre son enseignement. C'est toujours dans les trois dimensions qui lui permettent de ne pas se limiter à dire un savoir fait mais bien de prendre en compte l'expérience de son interlocuteur, expérience qui va lui permettre de prononcer le message et à partir de cela, une autre manière de vivre l'expérience. Ainsi, pour la samaritaine cette rencontre va transformer sa vie.

Cette rencontre est une expérience qui est vécue à la fois par elle et par Jésus. Cette expérience va permettre à la femme d'ajuster son image de Dieu Père et du Messie, car c'est à elle que le Verbe se révèle. Car Jésus lui-même, se laisse toucher, remuer aux entrailles par la vérité de cette femme. Et elle, de son côté, de marginalisée qu'elle était devient l'évangéliste de son village, témoin de la joyeuse annonce. *"Ainsi va le cheminement de la foi, d'humbles débuts à un élargissement insoupçonné, d'une rencontre fortuite à une grande page d'Évangile, d'une possibilité interrogative à une vraie profession de foi. Ceci est possible dès qu'une "bonne terre" accueille le grain du Semeur (v.36) et sa peine (v.38); certes Jésus est celui qui sème, mais la Samaritaine aussi a semé..."¹¹.*

Du point de vue de l'enseignement de Jésus, la dynamique pédagogique de ce cheminement fait affleurer une démarche qui est à la fois une expérience, un savoir et une autre manière de vivre cette expérience dans l'esprit du nouveau savoir. Dans ce passage et à travers le dialogue avec la samaritaine Jésus va plus loin dans son message et, à la fin d'une progression, il se fait connaître "Je le suis, (Messie) moi qui te parle. " (Jn 4,26). Sa parole coule de source; il est lui-même cette source qui se révèle à la femme à travers un enseignement nouveau. Son savoir dépasse les habitudes et les idées reçues (il est un Juif qui parle avec une samaritaine; il a une autre eau; il est plus grand que Jacob). Et l'expérience que la femme vit à travers ce savoir lui permet de sortir d'elle-même et d'aller témoigner ce que la rencontre avec Jésus lui avait appris. Mais ce n'est pas seulement la femme qui vit une expérience nouvelle, c'est aussi Jésus. Car lui se laisse toucher par la samaritaine, par la dynamique intérieure et le désir de celle-ci, afin de lui dévoiler son identité.

¹¹*Ibidem*, p.155.

En suivant cette démarche pédagogique nous pouvons percevoir que, pour Jésus, l'enseignement ne se limite pas à une simple transmission de contenu. Pour lui, l'initiation est à la fois une expérience, un savoir - le message à travers lequel quelque chose se dit de Dieu, du salut, de la foi - et une manière de vivre l'expérience pour faire affleurer le contenu. Et ceux qui reçoivent ce message doivent se resituer par rapport à lui et doivent faire un choix. Ils changent leur manière de vivre. Car, si avant de rencontrer Jésus elle était dans la solitude la samaritaine venait chercher l'eau à midi, c'est-à-dire quand personne ne vient au puits), l'expérience vécue avec Jésus et son message lui redonne l'intégration, et apporte de nouveau le principe vital de la socialisation. Elle fait le choix d'une autre manière de croire en lui. Cet exemple de la pédagogie du désir montre à l'enseignant de religion que le désir naît et grandit par une présence-absence, une proximité-distance, une union-séparation. Ainsi, de même que Jésus est là pour expliquer les Ecritures aux disciples et puis qu'il disparaît pour laisser les disciples devenir acteurs, l'enseignant roumain va comprendre qu'il est là pour accompagner, mais le sujet principal, c'est l'élève. Il doit faire désirer par l'élève son savoir et désirer venir à la rencontre de ce désir. Une telle relation pédagogique peut devenir ainsi, une relation qui permet à chacun d'exister avec son désir et de grandir dans ses rapports avec les autres.

Par nature, toute pédagogie est relationnelle. *"Toute pédagogie met en relation au moins deux personnes: l'enseignant et l'enseigné. Elle est donc relationnelle. Pourtant, l'objectif pédagogique n'est pas, généralement, cette relation mais, à travers elle, la transmission d'un savoir"*¹². La pédagogie pratiquée par Jésus a été par excellence relationnelle. Il tient toujours compte de celui avec lequel il établit la relation. Il le considère comme un autre, comme quelqu'un qui a une autonomie, qui a une expérience.

Au premier degré, la question du Christ permet d'ouvrir une communication. L'usage de ce questionnement est essentiellement relationnel. Plus profondément, à travers cette phrase interrogative, Jésus indique à son interlocuteur que la présence authentique de chacun des partenaires est un préalable indispensable pour que s'établisse une relation porteuse de nouveauté (de guérison ou bien de compréhension). Pour le professeur de religion la manière de faire de Jésus est signifiante. Au lieu de parler des "dogmes", Jésus est entré en relation avec les hommes, il leur a donné sa parole, il a considéré leur expérience. De plus, il n'a pas choisi comme chemin pédagogique de disserter sur le Royaume de Dieu ou à son propos. Car une instruction frontale à propos des éléments essentiels de la foi, signifierait pour l'auditoire que la foi est un "sac à dogmes" qu'il suffit d'ingurgiter pour être dans le vrai.

Mais la pédagogie de Jésus a une autre dynamique. Et cette pédagogie peut aider l'enseignant de religion à faire le déplacement du "langage à propos de la foi" au "langage de la foi". Langage qui doit être articulé à l'autre et qui, à travers le nouveau savoir, ouvre à une nouvelle expérience. *"Car tout indique, dans l'évangile, que c'est à*

¹² B. CHEVALLEY, *La pédagogie de Jésus*, Paris, Desclée, 1992, p.140.

*ce niveau de parole responsable, de parole réciproquement engagée et risquée, qu'une rencontre est possible, et une communion, et une perspective, un avenir et un amour*¹³.

Mais le verbe permet au Christ de donner figures, formes, contours, couleurs et passions à ce qu'il entend représenter de l'évangile. Et Jésus ne se contente pas de communiquer, comme tout un chacun, avec ses proches. Ainsi, au niveau didactique, il emploie des termes simples qui introduisent une relation simple avec l'être avec qui il parle mais qui n'est pas simpliste. C'est une parole qui permet à Jésus de modeler une révélation de Dieu qui nous le rend souhaitable et proche.

Ce langage du Christ qui recèle l'attente infinie de Dieu est un langage qui opère à travers une parole responsable qui fait croître et qui libère, à travers une parole donnée et qui appelle. Sa pédagogie distille un vocable porteur de puissance liberatrice dans le creuset de situations concrètes. Car sa parole trouve en l'autre, en l'expérience concrète de l'autre, sa force vitale. Elle vient s'adosser à un autre, à la parole de l'autre. Elle oblige à être soi-même dans une relation avec l'autre. *"Sa parole a un double accent de vérité: elle est le fruit de l'expérience même que Jésus fait de Dieu, des autres et du monde, et elle fait faire à celui qui l'accueille une expérience de vérité sur lui-même"*¹⁴.

C'est la logique par laquelle on découvre une corrélation inédite entre croire, devenir quelqu'un, donner sa parole, libérer, communier. La parole du Christ n'est pas seulement "langage qui communique", mais parole qui communit, met ensemble, partage. Car la samaritaine à la suite de la parole de Jésus veut aller chercher l'autre. Elle devient témoin et entretient dans la communion et le partage avec ceux de qui jusque-là elle se sont cachés. Pour eux le message devient aussi un changement d'attitude maintenant rendu possible.

Dans cette partie nous avons essayé de faire une approche de la démarche pédagogique de Jésus, dont l'apport pour l'enseignement religieux d'aujourd'hui dans le milieu roumain nous semble pertinente. Car par sa pédagogie Jésus invite les enseignants à observer quels procédés sont les meilleurs pour enseigner Dieu dans notre temps.

Le récit que nous avons choisis nous montrent bien que pour Jésus l'initiation est à la fois une expérience, un contenu et une autre manière de vivre l'expérience, manière qui fait affleurer le nouveau savoir.

Vers un modèle d'apprentissage

A partir de ces considérations, ce que nous proposons ne vise pas seulement sur la méthode, (nous tomberions ainsi dans un autre extrême), mais nous voulons proposer un modèle pédagogique où tant la méthode que le contenu ont leur place d'une manière équilibrée. Et cela, car le cours de religion - en tant que communication

¹³J.F. GREGOIRE, *Parler pour le meilleur et pour le pire*, dans Crefot-Recherches (Bulletin du Centre de recherche et de formation théologique), n°42, Charleroi, 1991, p.21.

¹⁴B. SESBOUE, *op.cit.*, p.26.

et interprétation de l'expérience chrétienne transmise à telle personne et à telle communauté concrète pour soutenir la croissance de sa foi - peut être défini comme une action de communication. Dans ce cas, la perspective pédagogique par laquelle le contenu est organisé et actualisé en vue d'une pleine efficacité est essentielle. Il s'agit du modèle d'apprentissage. Cette pédagogie est essentiellement une pédagogie de l'expression¹⁵ où la parole est le moyen par lequel le savoir, en s'exprimant, s'élabore et se structure. Ce modèle pédagogique rencontre des valeurs auxquelles les élèves de chez nous (particulièrement maintenant après un modèle centré fort sur le savoir du maître) se disent très attachés: l'échange et l'autonomie. Ce qui importe ici, ce sont les motivations de l'élève à prendre en charge sa propre formation et les opérations qu'il est amené à effectuer, pour s'approprier des connaissances et les mobiliser de manière créative. Car le modèle d'apprentissage est une "démarche d'appropriation active du savoir (ou de savoir-faire) du sujet en formation"¹⁶.

Ainsi, pour l'enseignant de religion comprendre cet enjeu facilite son changement. En même temps, il peut se rendre compte que tout contenu est toujours exprimé dans une méthode et conditionné par elle, en participant à ses richesses et à ses limites. Car, de même qu'il y a une différence qualitative entre une parole écrite et une parole parlée, il y a une différence qualitative entre un cours de religion du genre "conférence" (discours) et un cours de religion où la parole est dialoguée et où les élèves sont mis en activité.

Pour l'enseignement religieux le déplacement d'une pédagogie magistrale à une pédagogie d'apprentissage centrée sur l'élève est le défi que nous voulons relever. Et comprendre la nécessité du passage à cette logique éducative nous semble le premier pas pour une mise en oeuvre du modèle d'apprentissage. De même, il est important de comprendre que son savoir (le contenu) et lui-même en tant qu'éducateur, sont au service de l'élève et pas l'inverse. A partir de cela, il peut voir l'élève comme un autre capable lui aussi de donner, d'être partenaire dans une dynamique de communication, et non seulement comme celui qui reçoit (selon le modèle actuel de transmission). Il s'agit donc de ce déplacement d'une pédagogie magistrale à une pédagogie d'apprentissage, de communication. Et le premier pas à faire est de comprendre la nécessité du passage d'une logique éducative à une autre logique éducative, celle de communication, c'est-à-dire de "transmettre la foi à l'élève" à traverser les questions que posent la foi afin d'établir les conditions d'une adhésion libre et personnelle.

A partir de cela notre proposition porte sur le modèle d'apprentissage, car cette pédagogie est celle qui permet le mieux d'englober les dimensions de la pédagogie de Jésus: désir, relation, découverte, liberté, communication. Une pédagogie dont le but

¹⁵ M. LESNE, *Travail pédagogique et formation d'adultes*, cité par A. FOSSION, *La catéchèse dans le champ de la communication. Ses enjeux pour une inculturation de la foi* (coll. *Cogitatio Fidei*), Paris, Cerf, 1990, p.430.

¹⁶ *Ibidem*, p.436.

est de donner envie de connaître. Car Dieu est entré en dialogue avec son peuple pour se faire connaître et non pour donner des définitions que nous aurions à apprendre par coeur pour savoir qui il est. La connaissance déborde largement l'ordre du savoir. Et le cours de religion, à travers le modèle d'apprentissage, peut être "une «manifestation», une mise en présence (médiante) de Dieu ou du désir de «voir» Dieu"¹⁷.

Plus le cours est actif, plus il atteint sa finalité. Plus il est passif plus la médiation se réduit au professeur plus la communication est réduite. Ainsi pour qu'il y a une véritable communication dans la classe et pas simplement une communication à la classe (par le professeur) il faut que celle-ci devienne elle-même active par la médiation d'une recherche, d'un objet du désir de la classe.

Cette médiation peut être au niveau de l'intérêt d'un sujet suscitant la curiosité du groupe ou bien au niveau de la recherche de Dieu, la recherche du Christ et la recherche du prochain. *"A ce niveau, on vit un véritable apprentissage de la foi puisque la médiation est chrétienne: ce que nous cherchons, c'est l'univers chrétien. L'objet du désir, c'est le manque. Le manque, c'est le manque de l'autre: Dieu nous manque, par son absence"*¹⁸.

Le sujet du processus d'apprentissage - l'élève

L'apprentissage est centré sur l'élève. L'élève est le sujet principal de ce modèle. Le mot clé de ce modèle est, donc, "l'élève" non seulement avec son rôle mais avec son expérience, son autonomie et son désir de percevoir l'utilité du processus d'enseignement (pour notre cas le cours de religion). Le professeur de religion va prendre en charge et va respecter ces caractéristiques de la condition d'élève.

Pour l'élève, son rôle est d'être élève, d'écouter, d'apprendre. Cela ne signifie pas qu'on peut le traiter n'importe comment. Car chaque élève est un être différent des autres, avec sa vie extérieure et son univers intérieur bien personnel.

A partir de cela, le professeur va essayer d'être attentif aux questions, aux aspirations et aux besoins de chaque élève. Car, quelle que soit la classe fréquentée, qu'il s'agisse d'élèves en difficulté ou ayant des problèmes de comportement, qu'ils viennent d'une famille éclatée ou d'un foyer uni, le souhait du professeur de religion demeure que tous apprennent.

Autonomie de l'élève: quoiqu'il ne soit qu'un élève il a son autonomie et il est capable de participer activement au processus d'apprentissage. Il est aussi capable d'une pensée critique. Le professeur va aider les élèves à se donner des objectifs personnels, à participer à la formulation des objectifs, en prévoyant, dans le parcours, des moments pour l'expression de la pensée critique, en facilitant l'appropriation de l'objet de l'apprentissage. Les dimensions d'autonomie et de responsabilité des élèves sont essentielles à la liberté de l'acte de foi et à la responsabilité chrétienne d'assumer sa vie pour pouvoir la remettre à Dieu.

¹⁷ A. KNOCKAERT, CH. VAN DER PLANCKE, *Cours de religion. Comment s'y prendre?*, Bruxelles, Lumen Vitae, 1985, p.8.

¹⁸ *Ibidem*, p.8.

L'expérience de l'élève peut constituer à la fois une richesse et un frein pour l'apprentissage. Voilà pourquoi une exploration du "savoir d'expérience" fait partie de la pédagogie de l'apprentissage. Inviter les élèves à partager leurs expériences, à comparer les expériences et à en tirer des conclusions, solliciter des exemples concrets ou des applications pratiques de ce qu'on découvre, est une façon parmi d'autres de faire appel à l'expérience de chacun et de l'exploiter. Car faire appel à l'expérience des élèves, c'est valoriser l'histoire de chacun comme histoire sainte où Dieu s'est donné à rencontrer et en même temps comme lieu où se déploient les charismes et les dons que chacun peut mettre au service de tous. Et *pour que la parole soit vivante et significative, il faut veiller à ce que tous les partenaires de l'acte éducatif participent à l'élaboration d'un discours actif qui soit, nécessairement interactif*¹⁹.

Prendre en compte ces aspects demande de la part du professeur beaucoup de souplesse, de sens de l'adaptation, d'assurance intérieure pour préparer une situation éducative. Ainsi il est nécessaire que le professeur fasse confiance à ses élèves et à leurs capacités. Il va aménager les activités pour un apprentissage et non seulement pour transmettre un contenu. Il va connaître l'élève et s'adapter aux circonstances de la vie (une certaine forme de souplesse) et pouvoir aménager son travail avec les élèves pour que les trois moments du processus d'apprentissage soit présents (et pas comme l'enseignement actuel où tout est centré sur le deuxième moment, c'est-à-dire l'exposition du savoir théorique).

Conclusion: Répondre au désir d'une communication authentique

Pour le contexte du cours de religion, il nous paraît dès lors décisif de promouvoir une communication authentique où le désir de l'autre, différent et complémentaire, conduit à la rencontre et à la reconnaissance mutuelle. Le problème qui se pose est d'accéder à une communication authentique. On pourrait dire, en d'autres termes, que l'enjeu est de passer de l'imaginaire au symbolique; le symbolique étant entendu ici comme l'espace d'échange et de communication qui rend possible la reconnaissance mutuelle.

Accéder au symbolique, c'est dépasser le registre des leurres et des peurs du passé. C'est remettre du jeu dans les idées toute faites sur le monde et sur autrui. C'est prendre un recul critique par rapport aux représentations spontanées ou aux habitudes héritées. C'est, en acceptant son propre manque, se porter à la reconnaissance de l'autre dans sa différence. "Le désir est l'appel à la communication interhumaine" (Françoise Dolto). Ce désir de communication qui nous porte vers l'autre est ce qui en retour nous permet de découvrir notre propre identité.

Ce dont nous avons besoin pour le cours de religion, c'est d'une culture -d'un culte- de la communication où les uns et les autres se rencontrent, entrent en alliance, se reconnaissent, adviennent librement à eux-mêmes dans la différence et dans la liberté.

¹⁹ P. LEBUIS cité par H. MAKHOUR, *Développer chez l'élève l'habileté à dialoguer*, dans *Vie pédagogique*, Québec, n°106, 1998, p.10.

L'école est le lieu privilégié où peut s'apprendre et s'exercer cette communication authentique. Les élèves rêvent d'une réelle communication. Ils aspirent à être reconnus dans leur statut d'élèves. Ils ressentent douloureusement un écart entre leurs aspirations et la situation qui leur est imposée. Un changement s'impose donc à l'intérieur de l'école pour le bien de toute la société. Ce dont on a besoin, c'est d'une pédagogie communicative, d'une pédagogie du dialogue, de l'échange et non pas seulement d'une pédagogie d'"instruction". Dans cette pédagogie de la communication, l'élève sera reconnu comme sujet dans sa force d'être, de penser et d'agir et non comme un objet. L'élève sera invité à accéder à sa propre parole, à son propre désir et devenir.

Dans cet effort global de rénovation pédagogique, le cours de religion nous semble devoir tenir un rôle privilégié. Ne doit-il pas, en effet, se mettre au service de cette culture de communication au nom même de l'Evangile? L'interrogation sur Dieu n'aurait-elle pas justement à être le lieu et le moment par excellence de l'exercice de la communication où le "je" advient grâce à la rencontre de l'autre? La dynamique d'échange réciproque où chacun donne à l'autre d'exister est, en effet, d'essence religieuse. Il revient au cours de religion, dans le contexte scolaire, de faire éprouver cette dynamique par les élèves et de leur ouvrir ainsi un espace nouveau de libre reconnaissance de Dieu, un Dieu d'Alliance dont l'Esprit est à l'oeuvre dans le champ même de la communication humaine.

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**METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING
UNIVERSITY TEACHING. ANALYZING A UNIVERSITY COURSE
EXAMPLE: "CHEMISTRY CONTENT SYSTEMIC ANALYZING, AS
STUDY OBJECT IN MIDDLE SCHOOL AND HIGH SCHOOL"**

ADRIENNE NAUMESCU-KOZAN, MUŞATA BOCOŞ

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. In dieser Arbeit wird ein interaktiver Kurs, mit einem wichtigen didaktischen Thema - „Die systemische Analyse des Chemieinhaltes – für Gymnasium und Lyzeum“, dargestellt.

Das Hauptziel dieser Arbeit ist die systemische Analyse des Kapitels: KOHLENWASSERSTOFFE.

Der Zweck dieser Arbeit war die Kreativität der Studenten zu entwickeln. Die Zielgruppe war aus Studenten im dritten Jahr an der Babeş- Bolyai Universität gebildet. Die folgenden Abteilungen wurden ausgewählt: die Chemie, Chemie – Physik Abteilungen der Chemie und Chemieingenieur Fakultät, und die Biologie – Chemie Abteilung der Biologie und Geologie Fakultät. Die Ergebnisse dieser Forschung zeigen ein Interesse der Studenten für dieses Thema an, aber leider gibt es auch eine Serie von Mängeln. Bei vielen Prüfungen in der Hochschule werden die Studenten bewertet, nach wie viel sie auswendig lernen können und nicht nach ihren Denkweise und Wissen.

Methodological atomized paradigm

The presented didactic activity is based on a modern methodological trend inside university didactic field, respectively it is based on the authentic involvement of students into didactic steps, and also on the increased promotion of the heuristic training form and discovering method. As a matter of fact, the very messages received from students converge towards this idea and necessity to innovate didactic activity forms from superior education, and the working methodology too (increasing heuristic debates frequency, interactive, heuristic and individual studies, problem asking and problem solving approaches), but also the need of reconsidering the relationships between university teacher and student and of changing the balance between informative and formative, in the favor of formative.

The didactic activity to which we would like to refer here is a course, where the basic method used had been the lecture, valued not only as an enouncement method, but predominantly as an argumentation one, so that the pieces of information presented being able to favor the emphasizing of the knowledge's processing. Because Chemistry – our subject – is definitely an

experimental discipline, in general the lecture is used in such a manner to offer to the student different perspectives towards knowledge of the reality not only in a theoretical way, but especially in a practical and experimental one, with the connected certainties and uncertainties, and trials and solving processes.

A problem-raising lecture, in which the student really becomes an active participant to the knowledge process, has an enhanced formative character; it has the advantage to transmit the knowledge products, respectively the knowledge, making it procedurally transparent, assimilating their acquiring methodology. Practically, only in this way, the student will be able to form and to develop capacities and competencies specific to the subject in which he will be trained (Chemistry), but also by a transversal nature. That's why, during the future teacher's whole initiation process, we must take into consideration that, indifferently is the teaching content, the way of transmitting knowledge is very important (Naumescu A., Pirson P., 1993).

For the formation of the future chemistry teacher, a role of maximum importance has the pedagogic module, which allows him to acquire general competencies and specific competencies for chemistry and for natural sciences, generally speaking. Alongside the "baggage" of knowledge and specialty-related skills, we can add the acquisitions (knowledge, abilities, skills, cognitive, psychomotor, affective-behavioral competencies) that are characteristic to specialty didactics, to pedagogy and to educational psychology.

Theme of the presented course: "SYSTEMIC ANALYSIS OF CHEMISTRY CONTENT, AS EDUCATIONAL OBJECT IN MIDDLE SCHOOL AND IN HIGH SCHOOL"

Target Group: The students of the Faculty of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, field "Chemistry" and "Chemistry-Physics"; the students from the Faculty of Biology and Geology, field "Biology-Chemistry". All the students were in the 3rd year.

Duration: 2 hours

The methodological system used: lecture, problems asking, heuristic approach, heuristic conversation, brainstorming, modeling.

General didactic objective: Capitalization of the systemic analysis of notions' context of learning unit studied towards the manifestation of didactic creativity in designing learning units.

Students' products (which prove the reaching of final objective): didactic activity projects based on modern didactics principles, activities and learning situations that

are appropriate, flexible, efficient and accessible to the pupils' cognitive level and affective-motivational characteristics (Fourez G., 1992; Giordan A., Vechi G., 1987; Astolfi J.P., Develay M., 1989).

Competencies* system targeted at students:

* The competencies are defined as integrated ensembles of knowledge, skills and abilities, which guarantee teacher reflections' quality, his decisions and his actions, respectively which allow the projecting, organizing, developing, evaluating and efficient adjustment of class activities inside chemistry teaching-learning process. (Perrenoud, Ph., 1997; Naumescu A., Bocoş M., 2004).

Systemic analysis, as good practice applied inside the chemistry didactic course and seminary starting with 1997 (Naumescu A., 1997), will allow the future teachers:

C₁ - to elaborate systemic approach diagrams of notional content of education units from alternative manuals;

C₂ - to elaborate systemic approach diagram for "Hydrocarbon" system, and to establish specific objectives and the characteristics of subsystems components for the analyzed system;

C₃ - to emphasize and to explain the interrelations between the different subsystems of the system;

C₄ - to analyze the connections between the different notions in an intra-, inter- and trans-disciplinary manner;

C₅ - to elaborate the finality of a system and to verify the efficiency of its functioning;

C₆ - to formulate instructive-educational objectives for that specific learning unit;

C₇ - to express value judgments regarding the content quality of alternative manuals, by approaching these contents as integrated systems;

C₈ - to explicate the relevance of systemic approach from a methodological perspective and regarding the knowledge of whole reality.

The presented didactic activity has favored the formation and the development of the following categories of competencies at the students:

- *General subject-related competencies*: regarding learning knowledge from subject Chemistry, but also realizing interdisciplinary connections - chemistry-physics, chemistry-biology - by assuring the scientific correctness of the approaches;
- *Subject-related competencies, specific to the theme*: these concern the contents of theme "Hydrocarbons";
- *General psycho-pedagogical competencies*: regarding the didactic step quality, correct projecting of learning unit, didactic

transpositions, structuring scientific content, continuous evaluation during the instruction sequences (C₁);

- *Psycho-pedagogic competencies specific to the theme*: regarding concrete didactic steps afferent to the operational theme (C₂, C₃, C₄, C₅, C₆);
- *Transversal competencies*: regarding critical analysis of chemistry manuals (and also manuals of other subjects) and perceiving and explaining scientifically the reality, based on the systemic conception (C₇, C₈).

The competencies aimed by ourselves fall into the last three categories enumerated previously, regarding the linking to psycho-pedagogy or transversal competencies. The competencies that are specific to the subject Chemistry are not represented here, since they were already included in didactic activities organized in studying the subject "Organic chemistry".

Subject-related/ specialty competencies cannot be structured on three branches: theoretical, operational and creative (Naumescu A., Bocoş M., 2004).

Systemic analysis allows for developing theoretical competencies (more specifically, assimilating a scientific content, focusing on the intra-disciplinary, inter-disciplinary and trans-disciplinary correlations), operational competencies (structuring a learning unit, such that to allow the subjects to develop a logic, systemic way of thinking), and on the creative plan to select, structure and adjust the scientific content, so that to stimulate the maximum development of each pupil's potential by using an interactive-creative learning.

Presenting content elements

Systemic conception, being the very foundation of systemic analysis, is based on the modern structured functionalism, which adopts the system, and not the isolated element (the phenomenon itself), as general orientation in analysis and explanation of the phenomena.

The system represents an ensemble of elements between which reciprocal connections are established and which forms a whole. The system's structure is configured by its sub-systems and by their interrelations. Any system must be functional and the functionality efficiency is given by the measure in which we reach the SYSTEM FINALITY (Naumescu A., 1997).

We can briefly underline the following *advantages of the systemic analysis*:

- From the methodological point of view, it replaces the simplifying, one-sided, vision (of an isolated phenomenon) with a functional, dynamic vision, which considers the essential interaction, and offering in this manner a new way to think reality, much more efficient from the knowledge and modeling points of view.

- It facilitates shaping an ensemble vision on reality, due to the articulation of transmitted and assimilated knowledge in a whole, in a system.
- From systemic analysis as an intermediate, one differentiates both the interdisciplinary links, formed inside the conceptual structure of a discipline, and also the interdisciplinary links, that appear between the concepts and methodologies of two or more disciplines.

We have to mention that system finality mirrors the functionality efficiency of every subsystem, materialized by the measure in which the pupil will assimilate, will understand and will succeed to apply the concepts assimilated during lessons enclosed within learning unit.

Systemic analysis of the learning unit "HYDROCARBONS"

In the systemic analysis of a chemistry learning unit, the student passes through the following steps (Naumescu A., 1997):

- The analysis of scientific content of the learning unit, by emphasizing the fundamental knowledge and their interrelations;
- Detaching the system, made in close connection with the notions and principles from that specific learning unit;
- Establishing the system finality of the chosen system: here, the efficiency of the system is given by the measure in which pupils will understand the system finality, at the end of the chapter;
- Framing the system inside a supra-system, to which it subordinates and contributes to realize its finality;
- Choosing the subsystems, establishing the specific objectives for each subsystem and their interrelations; this step is important because :
 - the system finality is realized through its subsystems;
 - generally, the lessons' projects elaborated inside the studied learning unit are centered upon the component subsystems of each system.
- Establishing the instructive-educational objectives of the respective learning unit, objectives which will direct the operational objectives of the lessons enclosed in that learning unit.

We exemplify the previous elements by a systemic approach of learning unit "Hydrocarbon" (see Figure 1).

We have chosen as system "Hydrocarbon" which is enclosed in the macro system "Organic Compounds".

The system finality supposes that pupils understand the determinant role of hydrocarbon structure in their chemical behavior and, consequently, in obtaining new classes of organic compounds. The finality of this system opens the perspective of studying the other classes of organic compounds from the 11th class

manual, and also understanding the organic compounds reactivity and the reaction mechanisms presented in the 12th class (high school last year).

According to the saturation degree, three subsystems appear: "Saturated hydrocarbon", "Unsaturated hydrocarbon" and "Aromatic hydrocarbon". So, the subsystems "Cycloalkanes", "Isoalkanes", "Alkanes", "Alkenes", "Alkines" and "Arynes" are subsystems of the system "Hydrocarbon" because enclose in their composition C and H, but are also governed by proper objectives represented by the report between the C and H atoms, as indicated by formulas:

C_nH_{2n+2} (for alkanes and isoalkanes)

C_nH_{2n} (for cycloalkanes and alkenes)

C_nH_{2n-2} (for alkines)

C_nH_{2n-6} (for arynes).

"The structure" is the basic subsystem and it has as essential objective to explain the saturated, unsaturated and aromatic characters, which implies noticing the structure particularities for each class of hydrocarbon, according to the hybridization of the C atoms, as it follows:

- For cycloalkanes, isoalkanes, alkanes, carbon atoms have a sp^3 hybridization, with the formation of sigma (σ) bonds that determine the saturated character;
- For alkenes, the C atoms present the hybridization sp^2 and sp^3 , forming the compounds with pi (π) bonds, that determine the unsaturated character;
- For alkines, the atoms of carbon present the hybridization sp and sp^3 , with the formation of triple bonds C-C, determining their strong unsaturated character.
- For arynes, the C atoms present the hybridization sp^2 , with the formation of an extended orbital and with appearance of aromatic character.

The subsystem "Isomer Science" is closely correlated with the subsystem "Structure", and has the following specific objectives:

- Explaining the catena isomerism;
- Understanding position and geometric isomerism.

The subsystem "Nomenclature", correlated with the base system "Structure", presents the following specific objectives:

- Knowing the trivial names of the hydrocarbons;
- Assimilating the algorithm of allocating scientific names for hydrocarbon.

"Preparing methods", as a subsystem, aims to reach the following specific objectives:

- Knowing the natural sources for obtaining the hydrocarbons;
- Assimilating the synthesis methods of hydrocarbons;
- Writing the chemical equations, indicating the conditions of reactions' unfolding.

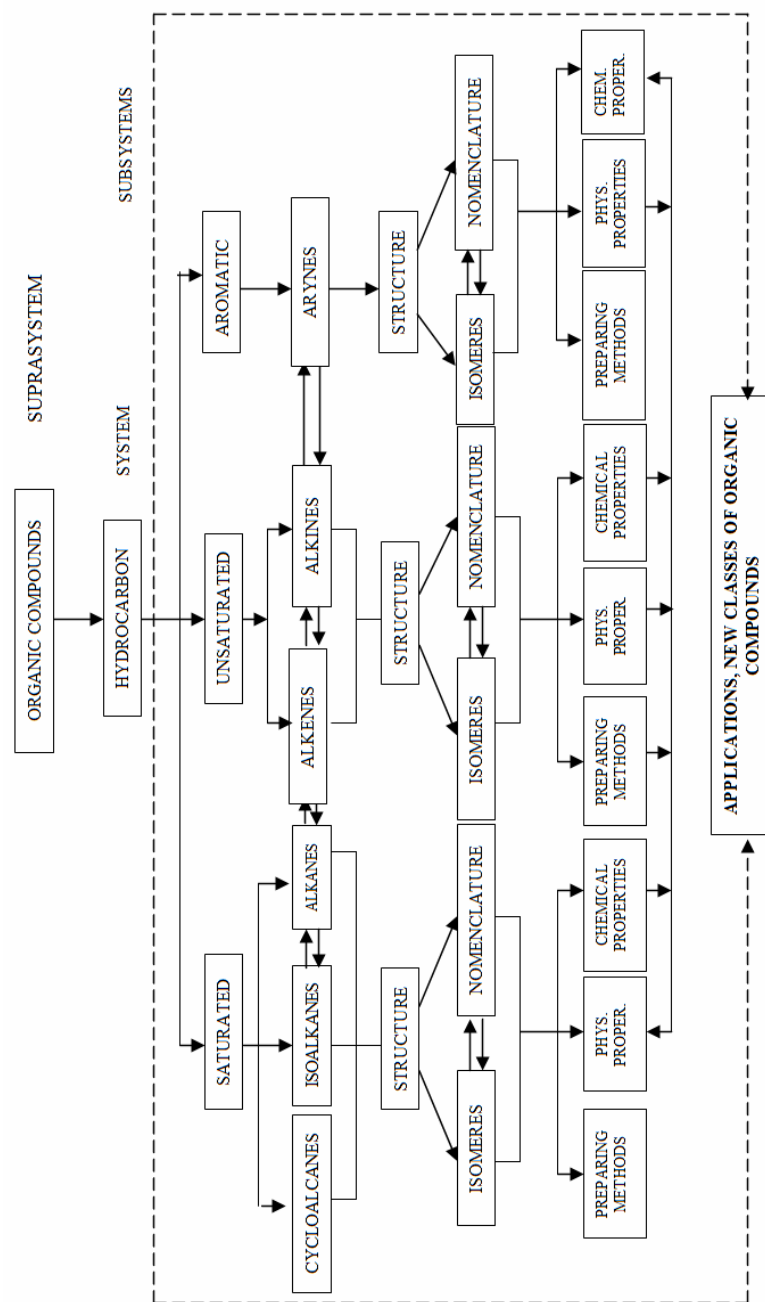


FIG. 1.

Specific objectives for the subsystem "Physical properties", which is directly correlated with the subsystem "Structure", will follow:

- The dependence of aggregation state function on carbon atoms number;
- The dependence of boiling/melting points on ramification of the hydrocarbon catenae;
- The dependence of solubility on the hydrocarbon type.

The subsystem "Chemical properties" – an important subsystem inside "Hydrocarbon" system –, is closely correlated with the subsystem "Structure" and presents the following own objectives:

- Assimilation by the pupils of specific reactions for the saturated, unsaturated and aromatic character (substitution, addition, dimerization, trimerization, elimination, oxidation, cracking, burning reactions);
- Writing the equations for chemical reactions and the intuitive explanation of the mode in which conditions of reaction influence the formation of different compounds.

In the step of establishing the instructive-educational objectives of the chapter, one will have in mind the scientific content of the chapter, and also the chemistry instructive-educational objectives.

A possible formulation of these instructive-educational objectives can be the following one:

- Knowing the composition, the structure and the nomenclature of hydrocarbon;
- Forming the intellectual skills and abilities linked to the writing of isomers for the studied hydrocarbon classes;
- Knowing the natural sources and consequently the preparing methods of the hydrocarbons;
- Understanding the interdependence between the structure and the saturated, unsaturated, aromatic character of hydrocarbon;
- Knowing physical properties of hydrocarbon;
- Evidencing the possibilities to obtain new classes of organic compounds, depending on the substrate nature, on reactant and on working conditions (assimilating chemical properties);
- Forming the practical work skills and abilities, by experimentally realizing chemical reactions specific for the different types of studied hydrocarbon;
- Developing intellectual abilities to work, through specific problem solving.

This systemic approach will allow to the student to project interactive lessons, to acquire new knowledge on the base of the previous assimilated knowledge.

Didactic explanations:

During the whole course THE STUDENTS WILL COLLABORATE, and, first of all, the systemic conception basic principles will be presented; after that, the students will give examples from day to day life, answering to questions, such as: WHAT IS A SYSTEM?, WHAT ARE THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE COMPONENT SUBSYSTEMS OF A SYSTEM?, HOW CAN BE VERIFIED A SYSTEM FINALITY? and so on, offering concrete examples. This is a very important step, because we can not proceed to the analysis of chemistry scientific content until the SYSTEMIC CONCEPTION is fully understood.

In order to involve more students in reflection activities, they will answer in writing to the questions mentioned before, and the answers will be debated, the answers will be argued and analyzed.

The most frequent answers, received from our students at the Chemistry section, were:

SYSTEM = the "Babeş-Bolyai" University of Cluj-Napoca;
SUBSYSTEMS = FACULTIES components of this university; FINALITY = TO "CREATE BETTER SPECIALISTS".

The course, which always awakes the students' interest, continues by to descending to a concrete analysis of a learning unit taken from school curricula. Here students are the ACTIVE FACTOR, having the opportunity to "expose" the knowledge achieved at GENERAL CHEMISTRY courses, ORGANIC CHEMISTRY, PHYSIC CHEMISTRY courses and so on etc. Therefore, the whole characteristics of the component subsystems, related to the "Hydrocarbon" system, are deduced with the 3rd year students (they have been presented already).

We must remark however, with honesty, that sometimes we found out some lack in the specialty preparation of future chemistry teachers. A reason for this fact could be the elimination of the ADMISSION EXAM at faculty enlisting. Another reason is linked to the students' examination and evaluation forms, valued sometimes in a traditional manner, testing only students' memorizing abilities and not their flexible, logical, creative thinking abilities.

Reflection problems and tasks for independent activity - at the end of the course (time: 8 minutes, organizing form: on groups of students):

1. You must formulate the general finality of educational system through the prism of systemic conception.
2. What happens when we modify one subsystem, component of a system? Examples.
3. In the situation previously mentioned, in what measure can we modify the finality of the analyzed system? Please give reasons.
4. Indicate the objective need to systemically process the chemistry content to realize an interactive education.

5. Identify the advantages of applying the systemic conception in planning activity of learning units from chemistry school curricula.

Applications (applicative exercises) – to realize the seminary on the presented theme:

1. Elaborate a systemic approach diagram centered on a specific theme from school curricula.
2. Present the characteristics of the subsystems, their interrelations, and the finality of the chosen system. You must realize intra-disciplinary and inter-disciplinary connections for the theme you have chosen.
3. Indicate the functionality efficiency for the chosen system.
4. Identify at least two macro systems for the chosen system.
5. Enumerate several competencies acquired at the end of this course.
6. Indicate the course strong points and weak points.

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COURANTS DE LA DIDACTIQUE DES MATHÉMATIQUES DANS L'ESPACE FRANCOPHONE DU XX SIÈCLE

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Durch diese Aspekten zeigt die Fähigkeiten, welche die Lehrern sich entwickeln sollen. Das ist nötig, weil sie so im Unterricht feststehen können. Es öffnet zwei Wegen für die Forschungen. Erstens ist die Stabilisierung zwischen die matematischen Strukturen und die intellektuellen Struktur. Die Zweite ist die Bearbeitung eines Gedänknissen Models im matematischen Unterrichten.

L'institution scolaire devient aujourd'hui, dans le monde civilisé, un fournisseur des services éducationnels pour la communauté, dans une société du marché libre. En conséquence on enregistre (aujourd'hui) un phénomène typique dans la postmodernité, de reconstruction du système valorisant de l'institution éducationnelle. D'autre part, la compréhension de la complexité du monde matériel à laquelle la vie humaine est indissolublement liée a représenté le siècle passé, et représente même aujourd'hui, le point du départ dans l'abord de la problématique de l'enseignement mathématique au niveau mondial. Dans ce contexte cette problématique a été amplement débattu le siècle passé sur le plan européen aussi.

Ainsi on a observé dans la didactique des mathématiques trois directions qui se superposent et s'influencent réciproquement:

1. *Problèmes de contenu: programmes et objectifs;*
2. *Manière de présentation des contenus;*
3. *Méthodes de travail.*

Nous allons détailler par la suite les trois aspects de la perspective des courants de l'espace francophone. Nous précisons dès le début, que dans l'espace de la francophonie la projection du curriculum a été réalisée en partant des nouvelles orientations / conquêtes de la psychologie cognitive: les théories gestaltistes (parues en Allemagne, étendues puis aux Etats-Unis et confirmés par les expériences récents: PALMER, S.E., 1977, POMERATZ, SAGER et STOEVEY, 1977, SPELKE, 1990), la théorie des actes mentaux de GALPERIN, P.I. (qui représente des développements de certains orientations de l'école russe de psychologie, représentées par VAGOTSKI, L.S., RUBINSTEIN, R.S., LEONTIEV, A.N.), les théories *évolutives-cognitives* de Jean PIAGET, la théorie des intelligences multiples de Howard GARDNER (1993) et les théories de Robert GLASER (1988).

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Par exemple, pour PIAGET, *l'intelligence est une adaptation*; il est préoccupé par le développement de la connaissance, en considérant, dans ce sens, comme principale source l'action, dans sa double hypostase: d'acte objectal / matériel et d'acte mental.

Dans l'école contemporaine la compétition des offres éducationnelles, soit des programmes élargis soit des programmes ponctuels, est de plus en plus évidente. Ainsi concernant les programmes il y a une tendance de modernisation de ceux-ci. En partant de la prémise que le programme scolaire décrit l'offre éducationnelle d'une certaine discipline pour un parcours scolaire déterminé et de la thèse que les mathématiques signifient des structures et une méthode axiomatique, on a tiré la conclusion que celui-ci doit signifier mathématiques scolaires aussi et, donc, les programmes de maths doivent être projetés dans ce contexte. Mais les mathématiques ne sont pas réductibles à l'axiomatique. Il y a une évolution historique de celle-ci qui ne peut pas être négligé, ainsi que des thèses moins radicales affirment que les mathématiques scolaires doivent transmettre aussi une série de résultats anciens, mais qui sont valables et utiles, même si dans les mathématiques modernes ils ont été transformés du point de vue de la structure. Les nuances vont en décroissant jusqu'à la thèse que l'aspect essentiel des mathématiques modernes ne réside pas dans l'axiomatisation parfaite, mais dans la manière déductive de penser, d'explorer des choses connues, même si elles ne sont pas impeccablement définies, pour en déduire des choses nouvelles.

Le III-ième siècle av. J. C. le mathématicien grec EUCLID a donné une définition complète des mathématiques, contenant toutes les mathématiques connues à cette époque-là dans un livre intitulé *Eléments*. Une réplique incomplète à cette réalisation nous trouvons en France, en 1935, quand un groupe de jeunes mathématiciens français (CARTAN, H., CHEVALLEY, C., DELSARTE, J., DIEUDONNE, J., WEIL, A.) groupe autointitulé *Nicolas BOURBAKI*, se sont proposé de contenir, d'une manière unitaire, les mathématiques pures dans un livre, intitulé *Eléments de mathématiques*. On peut remarquer que ce groupe s'est préoccupé aussi des trois problèmes de didactique, présentés auparavant. Ainsi en regardant la transformation profonde du programme DIEUDONNE, l'auteur de la surprenante affirmation:

„A bas Euclide et sa géométrie“, PAPY et BREARD, qui sont les auteurs de quelques manuels d'avant-garde dans la ligne de la modernisation du processus d'enseignement-apprentissage des mathématiques à l'école, se situe sur des positions radicales. PAPY décrit son expérience pédagogique dans cette direction au Colloque International UNESCO, qui a eu lieu à Bucarest en 1968, et Henri CARTAN considère qu'il faut dès le début préciser les objectifs mathématiques qu'on se propose d'atteindre et, une fois le programme établi, l'enseignement sera échelonné en déterminant graduellement les degrés antérieurs que l'élève devra parcourir.

Situé sur une position diamétralement opposée, Louis COUFFINGAL dans l'article *L'utilisation des mathématiques* fait une critique virulente à la didactique bourbakiste en disant:

„On propose de nos jours une manière de présenter les mathématiques, nommé *moderne, ensembliste, axiomatique* ou, d'après le pseudonyme des auteurs, qui les premiers en France se sont chargés de construire cet édifice, *bourbakist*. Premièrement il ne faut pas se laisser trompés par la confusion autour du terme *mathématiques modernes*. Celui-ci contient des théories-matrices, des fonctions de variables complexes, du calcul opérationnel, l'algèbre du BOOLE, etc. - qui ne sont pas modernes que par le fait qu'on a pu les mettre en pratique dans la dernière moitié du siècle, mais ils ont été créés un siècle avant. En cause c'est la manière de présentation des mathématiques comme un album des opérations qu'on peut imaginer concernant les éléments d'un ensemble et qui caractérise le bourbakisme”,

et continue:

”J'ai demandé plusieurs fois et encore aujourd'hui, de nous montrer un problème posé par l'étude de la nature ou l'art de l'ingénieur, problème qui laissé inachevé par les mathématiques *naïves*, a été résolu par BOURBAKI ou un problème dont la solution a été facilitée par celui-ci”.

André Revuz, professeur à la Faculté des Sciences de Paris, a été un militant modéré de la modernisation de l'enseignement mathématique. En partant du fait que les mathématiques sont une composante de la culture générale, on lui attribue la célèbre affirmation:

„S'il est regrettable de ne pas être mathématicien, il est tout aussi regrettable de n'être que mathématicien”,

et le rôle des mathématiques dans ce cadre est très bien exprimé par l'affirmation:

„Le problème n'est pas de transmettre une science toute faite, mais de faire acquérir une manière de penser”.

En ce qui concerne les programmes scolaires REVUZ, A. propose que ceux-ci doivent être réduits à un noyau obligatoire combiné aux questions facultatives, ainsi que chaque diplômé du lycée, de chaque section, doit comprendre l'essence de l'acte mental constitué par la mathématisation d'une situation concrète, l'élaboration d'un modèle mathématique correspondant, l'application des techniques sur ce modèle le développement mathématique de la théorie correspondante et son application à la situation concrète d'où on a commencé.

Le lecteur attentif et intéressé va observer que les mathématiciens français, situés sur des positions diverses, ont abordé le problème des programmes scolaires de mathématiques en essayant de répondre d'une manière pertinente à la question: *Qu'est-ce qu'on peut mieux faire à l'école: un enseignement moderne des mathématiques classiques, ou un enseignement classique des mathématiques modernes?*

Dans notre pays, Grigore MOISIL a été l'adepte de la modernisation des programmes scolaires, en introduisant des cours sur le calcul des probabilités et la statistique mathématique ainsi que sur les éléments de logique mathématique (avec la réserve que pour ce chapitre à ce moment, 1968, MOISIL n'avait pas trouvé *la forme la plus adéquate*, en sachant que son opinion était d'expérimenter tout ce qu'on voulait introduire à l'école). Il affirme:

„Le but de la modernisation est de faire tous ceux qui finissent les études du lycée être capables de participer au mouvement de mathématisation dans la profession qu'ils choisissent”.

Dans la ligne de modernisation des programmes, en 1964, la Société des Sciences Mathématiques de Roumanie a organisé à Bucarest un colloque, qui a réuni des professeurs des lycées et des universités, dans le but de discuter sur l'opportunité de l'introduction des études de mécanique sur des bases mathématiques dans le lycée. La conclusion à laquelle on est arrivé a été de recommander au Ministère de l'Enseignement l'introduction dans la classe terminale du lycée de certains éléments de mécanique, contenant la théorie des corps solides, éléments de cinématique et éléments de dynamique du point, mais grâce au nombre réduit d'heures allouées (20 heures) on a groupé ensemble les leçons d'analyse mathématique et de mécanique. Les leçons d'analyse mathématique contenaient la théorie de l'intégrale et des équations différentielles simples qui ont des applications en mécanique. HAIMOVICI, M. salue l'introduction de cette discipline, même avec un poids trop petit, à son avis, et donne quelques indications méthodiques dans son exposé *La mécanique dans l'école moyenne* soutenu à l'occasion du Colloque International UNESCO, à Bucarest en 1968. Mais ultérieurement ces aspects ont été éliminés du programme scolaire.

De plus, toujours ici il faut mentionner les essais du ministère du ressort, des années 1986-1987, d'introduire des éléments d'analyse mathématique à la X^{ième} classe. Etant donné l'idée d'expérimentation de MOISIL, mais aussi les résultats négatifs de l'introduction à l'école, les années 1978-1980, des manuels de géométrie de TELEMĂN, C. (où l'auteur présente les concepts mathématiques en partant de l'axiomatique de David HILBERT) les résultats des expériences faites ont conduit à la conclusion que:

„L'analyse mathématique ne doit pas être enseignée avant la XI^{ième} classe”.

Les points 2 et 3 sont distinctifs. Au point 2 on se réfère à la succession des idées. Ainsi en concernant les manières de présentation se confrontent particulièrement la méthode *historique* - faire l'élève parcourir avec des abréviations, les étapes de la connaissance par lesquelles l'humanité même a passé, ce qui implique des manières archaïques d'aborder certains problèmes leur réorganisation, jusqu'à l'assimilation de la forme actuelle de présentation - et d'autre part, la méthode *logique* - présenter à l'élève d'une manière directe et économique de la forme cristallisée, actuelle des connaissances mathématiques.

Au point 3, on considère la manière de présentation fixée et on se réfère à la manière d'aborder et de déployer l'étude en ce qui concerne son essence: expositif?, mettre l'élève à apprendre?, on stimulant l'élève à chercher? Dans cette direction il semble établir un consensus du moins concernant le fond. Pour faire des mathématiques essentielles il y a l'activité personnelle.

Henri POINCARÉ (1854-1912) est considéré le dernier mathématicien universel, car ainsi que disait Elie CARTAN, en se référant à POINCARÉ, qui a été l'un de ses professeurs:

„Il était le géant de mathématiciens et il n'y avait aucune des mathématiques modernes qui ne connaisse son empreinte”.

On lui attribue la célèbre affirmation:

„La géométrie est l'art de raisonner correctement sur des figures incorrectes”.

Préoccupé par les fondements des mathématiques, POINCARÉ, H. est l'adepte de l'intuitionnisme, lui même ayant une intuition géniale qui s'est manifestée dans la bien connue controverse d'entre lui et David HILBERT à l'égard de la formalisation de l'arithmétique. Dans son article *Les définitions mathématiques et l'enseignement* (1904) POINCARÉ, H. montre que toute définition doit être justifiée et préparée. Le procédé, utilisé même dans les manuels pour commencer l'exposé avec "Soit x..." sans aucune justification est pas seulement antididactique, mais aussi antimathématique, car dit POINCARÉ:

”Par la logique on démontre, par l'intuition on invente”.

„Le but principal de l'enseignement mathématique est de développer certaines facultés psychiques et, parmi elles, l'intuition n'est pas la moins précieuse”,

dit Poincaré et continue:

„Savoir crutiquer c'est bien, savoir créer est encore mieux. La logique nous enseigne que sur un chemin ou sur un autre, nous sommes sûres de ne pas rencontrer des obstacles; elle ne nous dit quel est le chemin qui nous conduit à la cible. Pour cela, il faut remarquer de loin la cible et faculté qui nous fait la voir est l'intuition. Sans elle le mathématicien serait comme un écrivain bourré de grammaire, mais qui n'a pas d'idées. Mais comment est-ce qu'on pourrait développer cette faculté si, dès qu'elle se monte, on la chasse, on l'exile, c'est-à-dire on apprend à s'en protéger avant de savoir ce qu'on peut en profiter”.

LIARD, L. à son tour, insiste sur le fait que les abstractions mathématiques ne doivent pas créer à l'élève le sentiment que les mathématiques supposent l'interruption de tout contact avec la réalité. Il dit:

“En général l'élève comprend mal les définitions et les formules abstraites. Très accessible pour lui, en laissant de côté les

exceptions, c'est la présentation concrète. Voilà pourquoi le plus grand service qu'on peut faire ce n'est pas de jeter, tout de suite, dans l'abstraction mais de diriger son travail et son effort ainsi qu'il y arrive lui-même."

REVUZ, A. considère que:

„Le professeur de mathématiques ne doit pas se contenter d'être professeur de mathématique, mais le plutôt chercher d'être professeur de mathématisation. Reprocher aux mathématiques d'être abstraites c'est une bêtise,"

il continue:

“elles sont abstraites par leur nature, mais reprocher à un enseignement mathématique, qu'il ne montre d'une manière claire d'où et comment les mathématiques ont été abstraites c'est une chose juste”.

DELLESSERT parle sur la nécessité de créer dans la classe, du moins dans certaines périodes, un climat de recherche, ce qui nécessite diverses *essais et choix dans l'esprit critique*. Ainsi, par exemple la mise au point d'une question théorique, sa présentation axiomatique, peut très bien constituer une situation de recherche, considère-t-il. DELLESSERT (est quand même pauvre) ne donne pas assez d'exemples.

Ion STOIAN et Ion RADU dans le cadre de la filiale de l'Institut de sciences pédagogiques de Cluj, ont expérimenté entre 1964-1968 l'enseignement des mathématiques à l'aide de l'instruction programmée. A la plupart des leçons on a utilisé des programmes linéaires, avec des ramifications latérales aux points clés, mais on a eu des leçons où on a utilisé des programmes ramifiés. Les conclusions ont été les suivantes:

- „L'enseignement par la méthode de l'instruction, programmé des leçons quotidiennes de mathématique peut donner des résultats meilleurs que par les méthodes traditionnelles;
- La méthode de l'instruction programmée vaut être introduite à côté d'autres moyens connus pour donner une plus grande variété d'activités scolaires et pour l'élargir le répertoire des méthodes didactiques;
- Elle va constituer un aide efficace pour les élèves médiocres aux mathématiques, en leur offrant du matériel pour le travail indépendant;
- L'utilisation du matériel programmé aux leçons, crée des conditions de concentration de l'attention des élèves d'activité indépendante”.

D'ailleurs, de tels expériences ont été faites en France et en Belgique, où ils ont été reçus avec une certaine gêne, d'après l'opinion de REVUZ, A. Quand même ces expériences l'ont déterminé à soutenir avec force la nécessité du changement des rapports traditionnels du professeur avec ses élèves dans le sens que le professeur devient une sorte de conseiller des élèves. D'autre part, tous les mathématiciens ont été d'accord que l'enseignement programmé peut apporter un aide précieux au professeur, mais ne peut pas le remplacer.

Un fin observateur du phénomène mathématique a été Eugen RUSU, qui dans ses livres s'est préoccupé de tous les trois aspects discutés ici. Sans s'aventurer à donner des solutions catégoriques, il affirme:

”Quelques tendances novatrices concernant le programme et les moyens interprétés d'une manière injuste - conduisent à des insistances sur quelques aspects adjacents, qui ne constituent pas le noyau du problème, conduisent comme on dit à forcer des portes, qui sont déjà ouvertes. Tant d'études et d'efforts pour l'introduction de la notion de nombre naturel; mais je ne m'en soucie pas du fait que l'élève n'arrive pas à savoir compter ou comprendre ce que signifie 3 ou 4. Des films qui montrent comment apparaissent graduellement, dans le dessin confus de l'image projetée, la perpendiculaire sur une ligne droite, mais je m'en soucie pas que l'élève n'arrive pas à savoir tracer une perpendiculaire. En échange, l'élève devant un problème, son effort à chercher la solution, ce qui se passe dans sa tête, qui a à sa disposition toutes les connaissances nécessaires et, peut-être, toutes les indications et quand même elles ne le conduisent pas à découvrir la solution - ce problème essentiel de psychologie, échappe à l'attention des psychologues préoccupés par l'étude de certains aspects qui ne sont pas de premier ordre”.

Ainsi ses préoccupations se dirigent vers la problématisation des mobiles des activités mathématiques des élèves, les observations sur l'enseignement déduites du développement historique et de l'analyse des aspects psychologiques. En ce qui concerne le contenu des programmes scolaires, il donne la structure suivante:

A. Les mathématiques appliquées:

- dans la vie courante (calcul numérique et approximatif, mesures, etc),
- dans l'étude de la physique (le calcul algébrique, vecteurs, dérivées, certains types d'équations différentielles),
- dans d'études techniques ultérieures, dans les ordinateurs, les programmes, l'optimisation, etc.;

B. Les Mathématiques vues comme objet de culture générale:

- qu'est-ce que c'est un système logiquement déductif (la géométrie dans la deuxième étape d'étude),
- qu'est-ce que c'est une science physique-mathématique (la mécanique rationnelle; objet: la réalité physique; méthode; raisonnement déductif),
- ce que c'est un système axiomatique (éléments d'algèbre abstraite, éléments d'axiomatique de la géométrie),
- ce que c'est la mathématique (comme phénomène d'ensemble, complexe).

Dans le contexte actuel, de l'assurance d'une réforme compréhensive, vaste de l'enseignement roumain, la réforme du curriculum et rendre compatible le curriculum national avec les standards européens constitue une composante d'une

importance majeure. La préoccupation pour le développement du curriculum et pour l'adaptation dans le sens de la diversification de l'offre éducationnelle et des manières de propositions des situations d'enseignement doit devenir pour tous les enseignants une constante de leurs démarches d'instruction et de formation. D'autre part, l'explosion informationnelle et technologique dans le domaine de la transmission de l'information engendre: la complexité du quotidien; la vision interdisciplinaire et transdisciplinaire sur le phénomène éducationnel, appuyée sur: apprendre à connaître, apprendre à faire, apprendre à vivre à côté des autres; ce qui constitue le nouveau paradigme éducationnel – alternative au paradigme éducationnel classique.

Sur ces directions s'inscrivent aussi les efforts des professeurs d'utiliser dans le processus d'enseignement - apprentissage des mathématiques méthodes et stratégies qui visent:

- la lecture et l'écriture pour le développement de la pensée critique (L.S.D.G.C.) et
- l'apprentissage par coopération.

Ayant à sa base l'une des plus récentes théories de l'apprentissage (le socio-constructivisme), par le changement de la relation professeur – élève, la transformation du professeur d'un autoritaire dans un dirigeant des variantes des activités individuelles et de groupe au cours desquelles les idées s'écoulent activement, s'analyse d'une manière critique, on forme des opinions exprimées d'une manière libre soutenues ou revues sur des arguments, dans lesquelles on réalise des conditions d'un enseignement très motivé, assurant tout le temps l'évaluation et l'autoévaluation de la réalisation des objectifs d'apprentissage, mais aussi rendre conscient ce processus (par métacognition) la stratégie L.S.D.G.C. offre dans le processus d'instruction une participation responsable, mais aussi pleine de satisfactions pour les élèves et pour les professeurs aussi. Ainsi les méthodes L.S.D.G.C. s'inscrivent dans la direction de l'idéal instructif - éducatif par mathématique, en ce qui concerne la connaissance et la compréhension de différents concepts, phénomènes, le développement de la capacité d'exploration, l'investigation de la réalité, la résolution des problèmes spécifiques de différents sous - domaines mathématiques, le développement de la capacité de la communication et de l'argumentation, la formation de certaines convictions et attitudes qui se réfèrent à l'impact des Mathématiques sur la nature et la société, en utilisant des méthodes actives, métacognitives d'apprentissage, en formant des compétences de pensée critique, de créativité et une attitude responsable, préissamment motivante, en général, vis-à-vis de l'apprentissage.

L'apprentissage par coopération accentue la dimension sociale de l'apprentissage, par le déclenchement de certains processus cognitifs et socio-affectifs interpersonnels et de groupe. L'utilisation conséquente des stratégies d'apprentissage par coopération par le professeur conduit aux: performances supérieures et mémorisation plus grande de la part des élèves; la motivation

accentuée pour la performance et la motivation intrinsèque pour l'apprentissage des relations meilleures, plus tolérantes avec les collègues; confiance en soi-même basée sur l'acceptation de soi-même; des compétences sociales augmentées; une concentration efficace et une conduite indisciplinée réduite.

Étant donné les nécessités actuelles de la situation de l'enseignement dans l'espace francophone (dans celui roumain aussi), la réalisation des objectifs de celui-ci demande des enseignants préparés d'une manière adéquate. Ainsi tant dans la préparation initiale, que dans celle continue aussi, à côté des objectifs classiques de l'activité de formation on vise aussi des nouveautés destinées à adapter les professeurs de mathématiques aux nouvelles nécessités de l'enseignement mathématique, comme par exemple:

- La culture de la réflexivité des enseignants;
- L'innovation didactique et méthodologique;
- La flexibilité du discours didactique en fonction de la situation concrète;
- La fluidification du discours didactique en fonction de la situation de la classe;
- L'adaptation du discours didactique à la situation concrète.

D'ici il y a la nécessité du développement des compétences des professeurs de mathématiques de présenter d'une manière convaincante les services éducationnels offerts par l'école et d'organiser d'une manière stratégique l'offre du curriculum. Dans les IREM de France et aussi dans les DPPD de nous on met l'accent sur la promotion de certains standards supérieurs institutionnels et pour la fonction didactique, qui représente une condition de l'assurance du succès dans le processus de l'enseignement. Les compétences professionnelles, sur lesquelles on développe chaque standard, sont structurées dans des capacités d'applications, combinaison et transfert des connaissances et des habilités utiles à la réalisation des activités spécifiques, elles combinent harmonieusement les connaissances, les habilités, les aptitudes qui se constituent dans des structures psycho-comportemental, avec le rôle de conduire à l'obtention des résultats voulus, et le développement assure à l'enseignant la préparation nécessaire pour bien tenir tête au succès de l'interaction établie avec ses élèves dans le cadre des activités didactiques déployées.

L'exercice des fonctions didactiques suppose le développement d'une série de compétences générales et spécifiques, inhérentes à toute activité. Celle-ci se manifestent au niveau cognitif et au niveau applicable et comportemental. Dans une large acception, la compétence didactique peut être définie comme la capacité d'un enseignant de s'engager dans l'abordation d'un problème pédagogique ayant à la base la connaissance solide des légalités et des déterminations des phénomènes et des processus éducatifs. Dans un sens restreint, elle se réfère à la capacité de réaliser à un niveau supérieur de performance, les tâches spécifiques à cette profession. La notion de *compétence didactique* est d'habitude, utilisée avec le sens de standard professionnel minimum auquel doit arriver une personne dans l'accomplissement des

tâches de travail de la profession didactique. Les catégories de compétences nécessaires pour être développées aux professeurs pour tenir tête aux *provocations* de l'enseignement mathématique sont les suivantes:

1. Compétences méthodologiques, qui visent:

- Etablir avec clarté les objectifs que les élèves doivent réaliser;
- L'analyse pédagogique des contenus qui vont être enseignés;
- La conception / la projection / l'organisation / la coordination de certaines activités capables à assurer la réalisation des objectifs proposés;
- Adapter l'enseignement à la diversité des élèves en choisissant des stratégies d'action actives-participatives et des moyens adéquats;
- Stimuler le développement intellectuel des élèves par des tâches de travail provocatrices, intéressantes;
- La réalisation d'un monitoring de progrès des élèves.

2. Compétences de communication et de relation, qui supposent:

- Des habilités d'organiser et de conduire des discussions en groupe;
- La réalisation efficace du feed-back au parcours du processus didactique;
- La capacité de dialoguer avec les élèves dans les conditions du pluralisme et de la valorification positive des différences;
- La capacité d'informer d'une manière objective et de communiquer avec aisance;
- L'attitude critique et non-dogmatique;
- On offre aux élèves la possibilité d'exprimer leurs propres avis, convictions, sentiments.

3. Les compétences d'évaluation des élèves qui visent:

- La sélection / la projection / la réalisation des instruments adéquats d'évaluation;
- La collection et la transformation des informations obtenues par l'application des instruments d'évaluation;
- Le diagnostic des habilités et des difficultés des élèves dans l'activité d'apprentissage;
- La synthèse et l'interprétation des informations sur ces habilités ou difficultés;
- L'implication des élèves dans l'auto-évaluation;
- Le diagnostic des caractéristiques affectives des élèves;
- Etablir les besoins réels d'instruction / de formation des élèves.

4. Compétences psycho-sociales, qui supposent la réalisation d'une série d'habilités / de capacités / d'attitudes nécessaires au professeur pour initier des actions instructives-éducatives aptes à développer harmonieusement la personnalité de l'élève, développer l'interaction sociale de celui-ci et créer un climat psychosocial favorable à l'enseignement et au développement.

5. Compétences techniques et technologiques qui visent:

- La possession des nouvelles techniques qui peuvent être utilisées en classe;
- La capacité d'inventer de nouvelles modalités d'utilisation de ces techniques;
- La capacité de proposer les améliorations nécessaires dans l'utilisation de ces techniques, surtout à celles informationnelles.

Bien sûr que cet ouvrage veut être une succincte description d'une partie de la problématique de l'enseignement mathématique dans l'espace francophone. D'autre part, le développement, aux professeurs de mathématiques, des compétences décrites auparavant, ne va pas résoudre tout les problèmes de cet enseignement, mais on croit qu'ainsi ou va crier des conditions pour donner des réponses favorables à plusieurs questions sans réponse et pour la solution des problèmes ouverts:

P1: *Etablir exactement les relations entre les structures mathématiques et les structures opératoires de l'intelligence,*

P2: *L'élaboration des modèles de développement intellectuel dans l'apprentissage des mathématiques.*

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NEW TECHNOLOGIES IN THE CONTEXT OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR THE DIDACTIC CAREER

ADINA GLAVA, CĂTĂLIN GLAVA

ABSTRACT. The present paper analyses the information and communication technologies in connection with the general didactic competence, having as a point of start the highlighting the present trends in education which favours the implementation of new technologies in the didactic activity. We have anchored the new technologies in pedagogical theories that sustain their pedagogic implementation, in order to legitimate their utility and didactic efficiency. Further on, we made the necessary conceptual delimitations, taking into account the fact that information and communication technology has been recently associated to the educational context and the new linguistic structures belonging to the technologic dominion are not completely lexically integrated to the area of educational sciences. We used these concepts (the ones that should name the new technologies) as a proposal, having as a basis their circulation within international specialized literature.

The paper will end with the analysis of the standards of implementation of the new technologies within the initial and continual development of teaching staff, as a premise of their subsequent didactic use and by means of reviewing the profile of technological competence a teaching staff should have.

The main challenge of ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) is the development of an effective environment for learning, opened to the learning; the new technologies implicitly play an important role in the transition from a learning environment that has the teacher in the centre, into a learning environment that has the student in the centre.

The greatest challenge of pedagogy, is emphasized by George Vaideanu in his volume "Education at the bridge between the millenniums" (Văideanu, G., 1988) and by Miron Ionescu in the work "Creative processes in teaching and learning" (Ionescu, M., 2000) namely the turning of attention from teaching to learning, from informative to formative, from training to education, it implicit becomes the main target of electronic learning environments. The teacher's purpose is changed from that of being the primary source in transmitting knowledge and information for students, in becoming a collaborator of the student, an involved colleague in the cognition process that links itself with the gradual passing of the students from simple passive receptors of certain information and knowledge, into active constructors of their development.

The computer, the Internet and the electronic mail represents realities which students experience every day. The teaching staff is in the situation to choose preferring to continue the traditional way of teaching not paying attention to the radical changes of paradigm shift that are going on or they accept the challenge implementing to their teaching modes the new technologies. But to face up with success the actual challenge of educational use of technologies, efforts of professional development are necessary, not only from the teaching staff, but also from their initiators, in initial and continuous periods of professional training.

Starting with this premises, we analysed more systematically some actual trends in education, which support the integration importance of the new technologies of information and communication in school and for individual and professional development, but more for the professional competence profile of didactic staff. Information and communication technologies offer a good environment for the reorganization of the whole competence complex necessary for the didactic staff and the next tendencies sustain this premise:

1. *Education tridimensionality : Rational education, practice, Interpersonal education and Transpersonal education*
2. *Give up the fake dichotomy: General Education - Technology Education – separate parts of professional education*
3. *Making a integral education , where the informative supports the formative*
4. *Admitting the importance of the permanent education*
5. *The new "electronic" alphabet*
6. *Globalization.*
7. *The new information and communication technologies reorganize the cognitive structures involved in learning.*
8. *Learning is similar to information processing.*

The tendencies in education presented above are on the one hand determined by ICT, and on the other hand, they make up in a favourable frame for the new technologies implementation in the learning process. Yet, the first step is to take the direction of improvement teaching staff-development programmes, to offer the teaching staff the chance of development some didactic competences permeable to ICT.

The educational implementation of the new technologies is grounded epistemological on psycho-pedagogic recognized theories. Next, we will present some of the most relevant pedagogic theories that favours the usage of the new technologies in teaching and learning and that sustain the infusion of the continuous and initial development programmes of the teaching staff with information technologies.

The cognitive perspective on learning. The cognitive theories of learning sustain that the student precedes actively the information and that learning takes place through his efforts to organise, to stock and to find relations between information, to tie the new knowledge with the old ones, to make cognitive

schemes and studying scenarios. Cognitive approaches are centred on pointing out the specific intelligent behaviour and specify the way in which the information is analysed. The cognitive theories underline the active process importance of information process. But, the knowledge is seen as given and absolute, in the same manner as in the behaviour theories.

The constructivist perspective on learning. Preoccupied by the learning process explanation and by defining some efficient learning principles, the constructivist theories are centred, in contrast with the cognitive ones, on human theme involved in the learning process, sustaining that learning represents an individual, personal event. The person actively builds, deconstructs and reconstructs his own comprehension and knowledge upon the world through the experience and reflection upon it. To reach this stadium, he has to formulate questions, explore and permanently evaluate the level of knowledge.

Learning through cooperation and socio-constructivist perspective upon learning. Associated with Lev Vygotsky's name, the socio-constructivist perspective upon learning brings a contribution with an obvious educational impact in explaining the knowledge construction process: learning is influenced by social interaction. A pedagogic emergency of this belief is the *strategy of learning through cooperation*. In the cases of learning through cooperation, students work together to accomplish a learning task. Cooperation happens through distributing the tasks among participants to construct a common product of knowledge.

Premises of the educational implementation of information and communication technologies

The new technologies produced changes of all levels of society and it was normal to affect also the education, forcing it to adapt at the new needs and expectations. The students will have to learn to administrate a huge number of information, analyse them and take decisions, to develop their knowledge to be able to cope with the challenges of present reality. The "lifelong learning" concept, to learn all your life, becomes from desideratum, a necessity. Changing the focus from teaching to learning is an imminent fact. The students will develop mechanisms and learning strategies to assure their success in the interaction with the challenges that will follow. Will analyse below some theoretic premises about the educational paradigms changing, which we go through as on one hand, they make possible the didactic implementation of the new technologies, and on the other hand, they are favoured by it.

We mention the fact that the theoretic premises formulated in this context will be the base in selecting the usage model for the new technologies in education and in the structure of some competence standards ICT:

- The efficient didactic activity is centred on interactive learning, and it is based on the student's interaction with the information through diverse applications.

- The teacher's role is modified by the meaning of his development into a collaborator, team colleague, manager of learning situations, and designer of learning experience, tutor. The teacher's role is changed from a simple transmitter of knowledge, from a basic source of information for the students and for all the answers of their questions as an expert in the teaching subject, into a learning simplifier, trainer, mentor, co-participant in the students' learning activity.

- The student's role is modified equally from a passive receiver of information who must memorize and reproduce knowledge in a solitary way, into an active participant in the learning process itself. The student produces and classifies knowledge, participates also as a novice and also as an expert, depending of the situation, at the learning activity on class and cooperates with his colleagues to achieve the learning task

- The educational process is focused more and more on interrelation, investigation and research, becoming interactive and motivating.

- The knowledge perspective is modified. The knowledge supposes the data and information development, stressing their processing quality.

- The success criterion is represented by the quality of understanding the learned things, the processing manner and the structure of data, the presentations quality, the result reference, beyond of achieving the objectives settled. The portfolio, the products activities analysis that denotes a concrete performance becomes the main evaluation procedures of the student's achievements.

- The usage of the new technologies supposes collaboration, communication, varied ways to express, access to knowledge and relevant information, respecting everybody's rhythm and the style of learning, real learning contexts.

- The new learning environment (context) offers sensorial stimulation (there are also implied others perception forms, the presentation are multimedia, audio – video) assure the development of the hole personality of the student.

Conceptual clarifications of ICT and other correlative terms.

Information and Communication technologies (ICT). This concept comes from the English translation of “Information and Communication Technology” (ICT), and is used in Romanian in connection with the expression „new technologies”. In specialized literature that we consulted, we did not find substantial arguments to do a trenchant difference between „new technologies” and “information and communication technologies” that is why they will be presented alternatively, with synonym titles. The term has developed from the base concept **Information Technology (IT)**, which refers to the computer technology key elements, hardware and software components and about the required skill for the efficient uses of the computer, for example the producing of documents with the help of a text processor. The new concept of „the information and communication technology” brings a new dimension in the context already described that of communication, seen as a developing mean. In this sense, ICT

refers to the technology use for the purpose of communication, a key aspect to accomplish the didactic learning type considered efficient today.

The importance of using technologies for the personal and institutional development was more distinguished through the introduction of the term: **Information and Learning Technology (ILT)**, term used especially in the continuous education programs, to refer to the IT and ICT applications in an efficient unfolding of the teaching and learning process.

An adjacent concept of the new technologies is the „*technology-based society*”. The education is placed at the junction of some extremely powerful and quick forces of technologic, politic and cultural kind, which models the structure of the educational system not just at a circular, level but at the educational offers also, in order to keep up with the current changes.

Correlatively with the implementation of the new technologies in the initial and continuous development of the teaching staff and directly in their didactic activity, a new concept is vehicled in the educational politics domain. That is „*knowledge-based society*” assimilated to the XXIst century.

The concept of *information society* synchronizes with nowadays concepts such as postmodernist society, post-industrial society, consuming society, the generalised communication society, the global society, the planetary village etc. and in an equal measure with the ones presented above.

Internet has developed as a new way of communication, novel, odd, a way that constructs a parallel reality. The Internet and the new technologies have brought a new concept, a XX century invention, the *Virtual Reality*. The virtual reality is from the linguistics point of view, nonsense, reality cannot be anything but „real”, taking into consideration that it places us outside of it, that is we „virtualised” it; it is not a reality anymore. Still, „the virtual reality” imposed itself in the antinomy with the „real reality”, another linguistics structure that bothers the fastidious persons. The virtual reality designates still an artificially built world, artificially maintained, that stocks fundamental information and knowledge for the nowadays well-being of the real reality. This way, the real reality has developed this virtual reality as an experiment that now became its addiction. This reality that works only sustained by machines, has become a so-called drug of our days, an instrument we cannot manage.

e-Learning. Although it seems hazardous, the central idea of the technologically based education is that the student doesn't have to constantly come to school to be educated, but the school comes to the student, with its entire curricular offer, through the computer and Internet. The student „enters”, by accessing the Internet browser, in a „virtual class”, participating at didactic activities, interacting with schoolmates and the teacher, solves learning tasks, reads the bibliography, participates at the discussions, all this without leaving his home. Actually, electronic learning has been the solution that numerous West-European states picked-up for the weakly populated areas, with big distances between cities and with harsh climacteric conditions. (Glava, C., 2005).

In many ways, e-learning overlaps to **distance learning**. The differences are though essential; distance learning doesn't necessarily mean electronic learning, the electronic computer's presence in the learning activity. Frequently the distance learning uses the electronic computer and the Internet to communicate objective data, to publish information and not for learning. Learning is in its essence classic, the courses materials are sent through internet, or digitally and then printed, becoming simple didactic handbooks. It is true that e-learning also implies distance learning, but this is not its main attributes.

On-line learning is a recent type of computer-assisted learning, coming closer as a temporal bench-mark to e-learning. Online learning started developing since the 1990s and until present. Online learning means sustaining didactic activities at distance, through the Internet. The teacher, as a tutor, and the students, develop a didactic activity interacting at distance, the interaction being mediated by computer and internet. The big difference between e-learning and this is that in the on-line learning case the internet and the computer are being used just as means, as interfaces, cancelling the distances. **The virtual class** is a software application category called **Virtual Learning Environment (VLE)** specially projected to facilitate the management of the learning and didactic activities of the students. The system monitors the students' activities, as users of the virtual platform, through the settings that the teacher introduces, in his job as a platform administrator. The platform rolls from a server, and the students' access it from any terminal connected to the Internet, through a browser (a programme that permits navigation and visualisation of internet sites) like Internet Explorer. Generally, such software for the virtual class offers opportunities to post documents, courses, data, bibliographic resources, learning tasks for students, forums and discussion groups, chats, instant messages, and other instruments of audio or video communication and management and command instruments.

A possible model of the virtual class will be presented in the figure number 1.

The above model structures the component elements of a „virtual class”. Mainly, the virtual class represents a form of management of a group of students; the fundamental difference between the classic situations of class management is the virtualisation of the interactions, in their placement in the virtual reality, on the Internet.

The structure of the **virtual class** is organised between three defining elements: *the student, the teacher and the curricular constrains*, the didactic interaction between these being sustained by “teaching mediators” offered by the work platform and being influenced by other elements of the virtual community: classmates, members of the class group, other persons involved in development. As it can be concluded, the teacher keeps the essential role of teaching situation manager in the context of the virtual class, the role of responsible of accomplishing the curriculum requirements, this role being apportioned with similar roles attributed to specific factors of the virtual environments, such as the virtual community of the ICT resources users or the community of other authorities in the

domain of knowledge taught by the teacher that students can interact with in the virtual space. However, the virtual class interaction and the extended „knowledge” through the information instruments like Internet and the enlarged virtual community enriches the formative challenges of the virtual learning context.

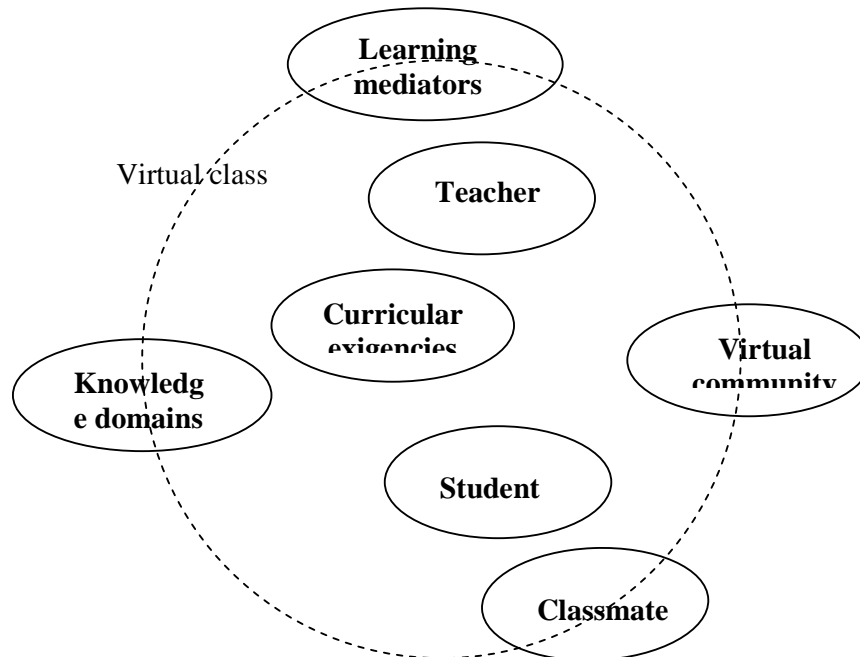


Figure 1. Virtual class model

Development stages in utilisation of ICT

In this stage of research, we have identified four stages of the utilisation of new technologies in education development. These are:

Minimal –Emergent. In this initial phase the educational programmes coordinators and teachers begin to explore the possibilities and consequences of ICT usage for the school management and the introduction of the ICT school curriculum.

Instrumental - Applicable. The school adapts the curriculum to enlarge the possibility the ITC implementing in teaching- learning the different school disciplines through the usage of specific instruments and software. Teachers still rule the education environment.

Innovator - Infused. Involves ICT integration in the whole curriculum and it is seen in those schools that offer technologies based on computer in different laboratories, classrooms and offices. Teachers explore the way in which ICT modifies their own activity and efficiency of work.

Implemented – Reformer. Schools use ICT for re-thinking and re-newing the school organisation in a creative way. ICT becomes an integral part of the daily professional activity, although invisible. Centring the curriculum means now centring the student and the integration of the school disciplines in authentic applications, in the real life. ICT is taught as a separate subject at the level of becoming professional and it is embodied in all professional development domains. This way, schools become learning centres for the community.

The new technologies have been presented in the speeches concerning the teaching staff development from the beginning, their educational applicability in the management and information processing being obvious. These days, we can talk about **two stages of evolution and understanding of the ICT** phenomenon concerning their implementation in the initial and continuous development of the teaching staff.

A first stage, common to the East-European states and similarly economically developed countries, is **the teachers training in ICT, (in the domain of information and communication technologies usage)**. It is the most spread approach of the ITC phenomenon in what is concerned about the implementation of the new technologies study in the initial and continuous development of the teaching staff. This development supposes the assurance of ICT courses that are concerned with the development of some basic knowledge in the usage of new technologies, expert assured courses in the domain, usually centralised, in national or regional centres of initial or continuous development. This stage supposes going through the so called *information alphabetisation*, of the similar ECDL courses (European Computer Driving Licence), that is the classical 7 modules of development: The information technology concept, The general usage of the computer and files management, Text processing, Table calculus, Data bases, Presentation realization and Information and communication (Internet and E-mail).

A secondary stage, principally reached by West-European states, is **the teachers' development through ICT (the new technologies become a basis for support and pedagogic development)**. It is a natural stage from the development of teaching staff for the new technologies usage, to their effective use in development. (Glava, C., Glava, A., 2006). The two development stages for the usage of the new technologies, suppose, each, different levels of involvement from the society, the institutions that offer development programmes, the trainers, the students. These stages always coexist in the development programmes of the teaching staff, but the accent must stay on the second stage, where the exercise of the new technologies usage is contextualized in this way, more relevant for the students.

The essential premises for implementing the new technologies in the development of the teachers are: *Vision and proactive management, the policies of*

sustaining the use of new technologies, community involvement, ensuring the development of professional opportunities, competitive initiators, the ability of accessing new technologies, technical assistance, curriculum offerings and content standards, teaching focused on the student, permanent monitoring, highlighting their importance in creating an environment that is open to the ICT implementation.

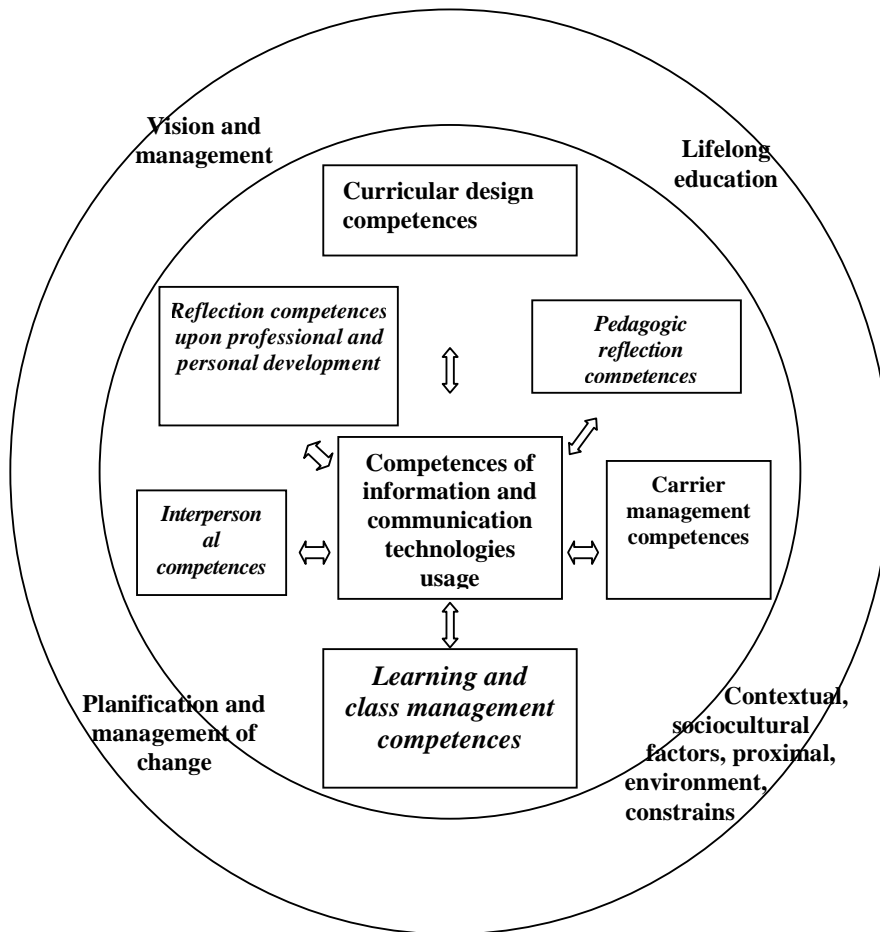


Figure 2. Contextual domains and the necessary competencies in efficient educational implementation of the new technologies

Figure 2 presents the structure model of the teaching staff development curriculum through the ICT and through the educational usage of ICT, a model that

integrated six categories of aimed competences, whose development is sustained by four categories of contextual factors that assure the efficiency of such a professional development programme.

The model of structure of the curriculum for the teaching staff development through ITC presented here can be directly correlated with a possible teachers' competences profile, in our view the educational use of ICT imposing the development of this profile. On the other hand, we consider that training the whole system of professional competences of the teaching staff for the assimilation of the new trends and accumulations in the theory and practice of education, contribute to the efficient inclusion of the new technologies in the school programmes.

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DEVELOPING STUDENTS' CREATIVITY AND AESTHETICAL BENT ON ICT LESSONS

IULIANA MARCHIŞ

ABSTRACT. The Computer Science classes give the possibility to develop students' creativity and aesthetical bent. This article shows, how to teach utilitarian programs, and how to develop students' creativity and aesthetical bent during these activities. An analysis the students' work helps to identify the typical mistakes, which they commit. The teacher should pay attention to these typical mistakes, and correct them.

Im Computer Stunde bekommen die Kinder die Möglichkeit, dass sie ihre estetische Gefühle und Kreativität zu entwickeln können. Der Artikel spiegelt diese Möglichkeiten.

1. Introduction

In our days it is very important to know how to use the most important computer applications, as a text editor, a table processor, a presentation editor, etc. The most important aim of teaching ICT in school is to develop modern computer user skills. This doesn't refer only to the ability to use some specified programs. These skills include also the ability to use programs from a program family (text editor, table processing, presentation editor, web design, etc.); to use the new version of a previously learnt program; to learn how to use a new program using the help of it and user guides. Also it is very important to follow some typographical rules and aesthetical aspects, when creating some product with these programs.

2. Analyze of students' work

I analyzed 76 essays (55 from first year "Psychology" students, 21 from first year "Kinder garden and primary school pedagogy" students) during the I. semester of the academic year 2006/2007, and the homework of 17 postgraduate students from the retraining program in ICT specialization (homework for one subject in the I. semester of the academic year 2005/2006, homework for two subject in the II. semester of the academic year 2005/2006, homework for two subject in the I. semester of the academic year 2006/2007).

The most usual mistakes from the aesthetical point of view in these works are the following:

- students don't use the special characters of the language they write in;

- they don't obey the rules of the correct typewriting, they don't put space in the right place;
- they have grammatical mistakes;
- they have too wide or too narrow margins, or they don't set the margins, and put the text outside the margins;
- they use too big or too small font size;
- they don't use the justify alignment for long texts;
- they underline the titles.

The above mistakes are related to typographical rules. These aesthetical aspects are very important, thus they become rules. There are rules about margin size, font size related with the paper size. Also, in text edited by computer we don't use underlining, this is an old technique of the typewritten text, on the computer we have other methods of emphasizing something. In long text, as an essay, usually we use the justify alignment.

Other mistakes observed:

- students point out too many ideas or notions, so the essay is full of bold or italic pieces. In this way everything is important, so nothing is emphasized;
- they use too many colors, or the colors don't fit each other.

I analyzed also 76 PowerPoint presentations (55 from first year "Psychology" students, 21 from first year "Kinder garden and primary school pedagogy" students) during the I. semester of the academic year 2006/2007. Here are some typical mistakes observed in these works:

- they don't obey the rules of the correct typewriting, they don't put space in the right place;
- students don't use the special characters of the language they write in;
- they have grammatical mistakes;
- the font size is too small, it is difficult to read from distance;
- students write too much or too less text on a slide;
- the color of the background is not adequate for the color of the text, so it is very difficult to read it;
- they use too many animation or inadequate animations (for example a long text is coming in character by character);
- every slide has different style, color scheme.

The animation in a presentation is for emphasizing something, or for attracting the audience attention. So we shouldn't use too much animation, and we have to think carefully, which animation to use. For example, it is boring when a text coming in character-by-character; and when this is used frequently in a presentation, starting to be annoying. Also, the animation should fit the talk given based of the computer presentation. For example, if we use a enumeration, the items of it should come in separately, only if we speak a while about each item. Otherwise this animation is useless. It is important how to choose the colors in a presentation. If the background is light, the font color should be dark (for example black

characters on white background, dark blue characters on white background); if the background is dark, the characters should be light (for example white characters on dark blue background). We should avoid those color schemes, which are difficult to read (for example black characters on dark blue background, red characters on green background). We should avoid using an image as a background, because the image has different colors, and maybe some part of the text will be difficult to read. It is recommended, that each slide of a presentation has the same design, this gives a uniform character to the presentation. It is difficult to find the balance about how much information should be on a slide. At the beginning it is strange for students that they don't need to write everything on a slide, as in an essay. They have to think carefully how to select the information, which is written on a slide.

3. Developing students' creativity and aesthetical bent during teaching the usage of a text editor

The most efficient way to teach the usage of a text editor is through exercises. Usually, during practicing the usage of a text editor, we do the following type of exercises:

- "Photocopy": there is given a formatted text in printed version, students should introduce it in the computer. The document should be formatted exactly the same way, as on the printed form. This method can be used for practicing a certain type of formatting. Also, the printed version gives an example to students, how a certain type of document should be edited. So it is very important how the teacher design this kind of exercise, because this could be a model for students. Thus this exercise contributes to the development of students' aesthetical bent, but doesn't improve their creativity.

- Tasks list: It is given an unformatted text in electronic form, and a list of tasks, which students should do with that text. Usually we use this method, when students are quite quick in typewriting, so they don't need exercise on it. Using this method, they can exercise more formatting issues in shorter time. This exercise is a bit harder than the previous one but is the same type. Students should do exactly the same formatting, as given in the task list.

- Free editing: Students have to design some product (for example invitation letter, business card, poster, etc). Now they have to decide what to write, how to format it. This type of exercise is very good for developing students' creativity. How teacher can contribute to the development of the aesthetical feeling of students? During the students' work, the teacher can give some suggestions, as "maybe is better this way...", "do you have some other ideas for this part?", "maybe you should design more carefully this ...". Also, it is very good, if other students evaluate the work of each student, so the teacher should give the opportunity for each student to present his/her work to his/her class, and to get feedback from their colleagues. It is very important to give the opportunity to each student to tell their remarks about the others work. The easiest way to realize this is

to put a piece of paper in front of each computer, and students go around the classroom, and write their observations about a document on the paper in front of it. Then every student reads the observations written for him/her. Teachers usually think, that this is a waste of time, but this is not true. Students learn a lot from their colleagues' remarks. Usually young people are more open to suggestions, which are coming from their colleague, than those of the teacher.

There are event in the life of a class, when they get some tasks, which should be done by computer. For example the class should organize some event in the school. Then they need to edit invitation letters, tickets, the poster of the event, etc. It is very good, if students get the possibility to make all these on ICT class. For example, every student makes a poster of the event, then each poster is evaluated by everybody from the class, then they choose one. Or maybe they decide to combine two or more posters. It is a very good opportunity to practice what they learnt, to see, how useful is that knowledge.

In Table 1 we see some advantages and disadvantages of the above exercise types.

Table 1.

Advantages and disadvantages of exercise types used for practicing the usage of a text editor

Type of exercise	Advantages	Disadvantages
“Photocopy”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - good for practicing a certain formatting - helps in learning the typographical rules - can develop students' aesthetical bent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - doesn't develop students creativity
Tasks list	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - good for practicing a certain formatting - practicing more formatting in short time - can develop students' aesthetical bent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - doesn't develop students creativity
Free editing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - gives freedom for students to create - can develop students' aesthetical bent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - as students select freely what formatting they use, is not good for practicing a certain formatting

It is very important, that the teacher “observes” the grammatical mistakes of students. Many times the teacher is ashamed to correct students' orthographical and grammatical mistakes. Also, students should learn how to use the “Spelling and grammar” tool of the text editor. Students should always finalize their work. Thus it is important that the teacher plan the activity in that way, that pupils have enough time to finish their work.

4. Developing students' creativity and aesthetical bent during teaching the usage of a presentation editor

Usually we teach the usage of a presentation maker after we have taught the usage of a text editor. So students already know, how to introduce text, images, tables, diagrams, etc, how to make different formatting. Beside these, as a technical point of view, students have to learn how to make animations and links. But the most important is to learn how to construct a presentation, how to design the slides. This is new for students: thinking in slides. They have to understand that before starting to make the slides in the computer application, they have to design the presentation: what is the topic of it; which are the main parts; which text, images going in it; how many slides it has; what is going to each slide. They have to design the style of the presentation. This is the point when they need to consider aesthetical aspects very carefully: how to use the colors, how to give a uniform aspect to the presentation. Also, it is very important how they design the content, it should have three main parts: introduction, main and summary. The introduction is not only telling, what the presentation is about, but also arousing the audience interest. It is very important to design carefully each slide. Each slide should have a connected content, and usually we give a title to each slide.

During practicing, how to make a presentation, we can use the following two type of exercises:

- Short, fixed presentation: Students has to design short presentations, which should content the given technical elements. This method is very good for practicing a certain formatting or technical element. Also, during the work on these short presentations the teachers should be careful about aesthetical aspects, so correct students mistakes. This exercise is not so fixed, as in the case of a text editor; students still have some freedom to choose some formatting, so their creativity is important.

- Free editing: Each student chooses a topic, collect information about it, make a presentation and give a short talk based on it in front of his/her class. Using the presentation in a short talk in front of the class is very important: students learn how to use a presentation, how to give a talk, and get feedback about their work. It is important that each presentation is discussed from aesthetical point of view, too. Also, to make a good presentation, students should be creative.

In Table 2 we see some advantages and disadvantages of the above exercise types.

So, making presentations is a very good opportunity to develop students' creativity and aesthetical feeling.

If students learn how to make a good presentation, and how to give a short talk, they can use these abilities on other classes, too. In a modern learning environment "students presenting their own ideas" is a usual scene.

Table 2.

Advantages and disadvantages of exercise types used for practicing the usage of a presentation maker

Type of exercise	Advantages	Disadvantages
Short, fixed presentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - good for practicing a certain formatting or technical element - can develop students' aesthetical bent - contribute to the development of students' creativity 	- students can't choose freely the technical elements they use
Free editing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - gives freedom for students to create - can develop students' aesthetical bent 	- as students select freely what formatting they use, is not good for practicing a certain formatting

5. Conclusions

It is very important that on ICT lessons lay stress on developing students' creativity and aesthetical bent, not only teach how to use a certain utilitarian program. Students should get used with the idea, that everything they create on ICT lessons, is a product, so it should have the characteristics of a product. Thus it is important, that they always finalize their work, and the product satisfies some criteria as regards content and design.

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CONSIDERATIONS ON A VIRTUAL ASYNCHRONOUS SEMINAR IN THE DIDACTICS OF GEOGRAPHY

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG – Bemerkungen auf einem virtuellen ungleichzeitigen Seminar bei der Didaktik der Geografie. In diesem Beitrag wird ein virtuelles ungleichzeitigen Seminar der Didaktik der Geografie vorgestellt. Bei diesem Seminar ist die gleichzeitige Teilnahme der Studenten oder der Lehrkraft nicht notwendig. Dieses Seminar wurde experimentell durchgeführt, weil die Studenten und die Lehrkraft keinen Seminarraum besetzen. Sie brauchen keine Zeit um auf einem bestimmten Ort und zu einer bestimmten Zeit zu gelangen. Die Studenten bestimmen wo und wann sie üben und wählen sich dafür den passenden Rhythmus. Man kann die Aufgaben wiederholen, dann die Antworten prüfen und man kriegt ein Feed-back vom Computerprogramm. Die Lehrkraft wird die Arbeit einer Studentengruppe nicht, beantwortet nicht gleich die gestellten Fragen. Die Planung und die Durchführung eines virtuellen ungleichzeitigen Seminar dauert lange und man braucht dafür gute Kenntnisse im Umgang mit dem Computer. Man hat es festgestellt das die Anwendung, die von Activ Design hergestellt wurde, hat viele Vorteile wie: die Lehrkraft kann Word-Dateien auf die Internet-Seite hochladen; die Studenten können der Lehrkraft sehr einfach Fragen stellen; man kann mehrere Dateien auf einmal öffnen. Der Lernvorgang wird von der Lehrkraft durch die Aufgaben, die man für jede Seminarveranstaltung vorbereitet, bestimmt. Die Aufgaben können auf mehreren Stufen strukturiert werden. Jede Aufgabe unterliegt einem Lernziel.

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Study Motivation and Purpose

We started our study as a result of students' difficulties in formulating the appropriate operational objectives for a learning activity or lesson. The students made the following mistakes when projecting operational objectives: they did not differentiate between methodological operation objectives and the cognitive ones; they frequently used general verbs in enunciating objectives; they wrote too many operational objectives for one lesson; they usually wrote only cognitive operational objectives; they wrote several operational objectives where they used the same

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verb. In this study we analysed the efficiency of an instrument that helped the students learn individually, interacting with a computer programme. We used this instrument besides the face to face activities during the seminars and we approached several other contents elements than the ones in the syllabus as we were interested in students' efficient learning.

Theoretical Coordinates

Systems for distance learning. In conformity to the interaction that technology promotes, there are two categories of systems for distance learning: synchronous and asynchronous ones. **Synchronous instruction** supposes students and professors'/teachers' simultaneous participation, while interaction takes place in "real time". This system is used in interactive television, audio media, computer network conferences, IRC (Internet Relay Chat), and in MOD. **Asynchronous instruction** does not suppose students and instructors' simultaneous participation, meaning to be together in the same place and at the same time. Students organise their activity, collect their learning materials in conformity to an individual programme. Asynchronous instruction supposes the use of e-mail, of list servers, of audio/video cassettes for courses, of mail courses and of the ones on the www. This system has the following advantages: the subject may choose the place and time of instruction; interaction opportunities for all students; more flexibility than in the case of synchronous instruction. A disadvantage is the large volume of transmitted written information that may really inhibit the students (Mazilu, 2007).

Significant Components of a Seminar. We considered the following human resources to be important for conceiving this asynchronous virtual seminar:

- **The students** with their previous motivation, knowledge and capacity;
- **The professor** that has to know the students' features and needs, to formulate clear objectives, to choose the most appropriate contents, to put himself/herself in the student's place in order to offer him/her a useful learning instrument, to make a project for a website, and to know how to use technology in order to post and collect data;
- **An informatician** who realises the structure for the virtual seminar, according to the professor's design.

E-Learning is a learning method consisting of two components: the contents and the platform – an "instrument", a software that manages the contents and has plenty of functions (Dulamă, Gurscă, 2006). The following components, as *e-learning* instruments, are important in an asynchronous seminar:

- **Programme contents**, as it ensures quality of learning and of results;
- **Instructional design**, as, due to its conception, it may ensure a pleasant, easy, and logical learning process;
- **Programme management**, as the programme should be an instrument that makes the professor and student's work easier; the programme should offer

feed-back both to the learning student and to the professor that projects, organises, monitors, and assesses the learning process, and, in the end, he/she assesses the student's result of learning.

We take into account the criteria that Reichert Raimond (2004) considered for analysing educational software and apply them to the electronic learning environment that we proposed:

1). *Contents and process should be based on "a fundamental idea"*, that, according to Schwill (apud Glava, 2005), is a scheme, a thinking act, an action, and an explanation that may be applied in any field.

2). *The electronic product should consist of different cognition levels* either according to Bloom's theory (knowledge, comprehension, use, analysis, synthesis, and assessment) or one should set these levels (e.g. beginners, average, proficient).

3). *High man-computer interactivity degree*. Schulmeister (apud Glava, 2005) identifies six such levels. Level 1 means no interaction as the user only watches data and representations on the computer screen. Level 2 means that the user "surfs" through data and representations. Level 3 offers multiple representations with the same contents. At level 4 the user may modify the parameters of the electronic representation. At level 5 the user may manipulate both the displayed data and the parameters of the representation. At level 6 the user may create and manipulate objects of the electronic environment representations and the system reacts explicitly.

4). *Feed-back*. An electronic learning environment should offer the user feed-back as well as assist him/her along the whole educational process.

5). *Visualisation and easy use*.

Didactic Activity Planning

In order to give an example, we choose the seminar "Results of the educational process in geography". The main objective of our seminar is to make the students learn establish educational objectives for geography. The students should be able to define the following concepts: a general objective, a referential objective, an operational objective, etc.; to characterise the components of an operational objective; to classify these operational objectives. The student should know all these from the *Pedagogy* course and seminar. The students should also know the following concepts from the *Psychology* course and seminar: attitude, ability, performance, capacity, behaviour, knowledge, as well as the mechanism of a learning process. At the end of this seminar the students should have the competence to formulate operational objectives for a lesson in conformity to the referential objectives, to the contents, and to the proposed competences for the students to realise.

We projected the virtual asynchronous seminars for the *Didactics of Geography* as a website or a multimedia product. On the *Home page* we put a list of subjects for the seminar and the following buttons: *Lexicon*, *Bibliography*, *Lesson plans*, *Annual plans*, *Learning units plans*, and *Contact*. On the first page of

each seminar we put a title, target competences, learning situations/activities, and a test. On the page of each learning activity we put the operational objective, the multi-level structured task, and the solution to the task. We planned the text of the task as a hypertext that allowed opening several files for term explanation (Lexicon) or offered the necessary data in order to solve the task.

We present two learning activities in order to exemplify.

Learning activity no. 1

Operational objective: the student will be able to formulate the cognitive operational objectives for the lesson “France” (the 6th grade)

Task: Study the table in *Annexe no. 2*. Analyse the referential objective² 3.1. derived from the general objective¹ no. 3. Analyse the components of enunciation of an operational objective in *Annexe no. 3* and analyse the examples of operational objectives in *Annexe no. 4*.

Level 1: Analyse the operational objectives below and say if they are correctly formulated or not. Identify the mistake.

O 1 – The student will be able specify the names of the neighbouring ocean and sea of France. Correct/Wrong

O 2 – The student will be able to explain the names of the neighbouring ocean and sea of France, without any map or text. Correct/Wrong

O 3 – The student will know the names of the neighbouring ocean and sea of France, without any map or text. Correct/Wrong

O 4 – The student will know the location of France. Correct/Wrong

O 5 – The student will be able to name the neighbouring ocean and sea of France, without any map or text. Correct/Wrong

Solution: O 1 is formulated wrong as the conditions for realising the objective are not specified. O 2 is formulated wrong as the verb is not correct, the names cannot be explained. O 3 is formulated wrong as the verb is general. O 4 is formulated wrong as the verb is general, the location of France is not explicit, clear (on the globe, on the continent, in relation to its neighbours, and the conditions are not mentioned. O 5 is formulated correctly.

Level 2: Complete the enunciation of the cognitive operational objectives (*Annexe no. 5*) in conformity to referential objective 3.1., using the following text and the verbs in the list below.

“France lies in the west of Europe, neighbouring the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea. To the 0° Meridian, it is situated in the western and in the eastern hemisphere. As it is crossed by the 45° north latitude parallel, France lies at half distance from the Equator and from the North Pole. Corsica Island in the Mediterranean Sea belongs to France” (Prunici, Roșcovanu, Țapeș, 2006, p. 72).

Verb list: to define, to enunciate, to recognise, to identify, to describe, to name, to specify, to present, to enumerate, to redefine, to transcribe, to replace, to detail, to complete, to detect, to choose, etc.

O 1 – The student will be able to the names of the neighbouring ocean and sea of France, no map or text offered.

O 2 - The student will be able to names of the hemisphere where France is located, no map or text offered.

O 3 - The student will be able to the name of the isle belonging to France, no map or text offered.

Solution: The appropriate verb is *to specify*.

Level III: Formulate 3 cognitive operational objectives (*Annexe no. 5*) in conformity to referential objective 3.1., using the following text and the verbs in table in *Annexe no. 6*. Write the operational objectives in the respective table.

Solution:

Subject	Behaviour	Performance description	Conditions	Minimum performance level
The student	will be able to specify	the names of the neighbouring ocean and sea of France	no map or text offered	correct names
The student	will be able to specify	the names of the hemisphere where France is located	no map or text offered	the exact names of the hemispheres
The student	will be able to specify	the name of the isle belonging to France	no map or text offered	situated in the Mediterranean Sea

Learning activity no. 2

Operational objective: the student will be able to formulate the methodological operational objectives for the lesson “France”.

Task: Study table in *Annexe no. 2*. Analyse *the referential objective*² 2.1. derived from *general objective*¹ no. 2. Analyse the components of the enunciation of an operational objective in *Annexe no. 3* and the operational objective examples *Annexe no. 4*.

Level I: Analyse the operational objectives below and say if they are correctly formulated or not. Identify the mistake.

O 1 – The student will know the most important meridian and parallel of France. Correct/Wrong

O 2 – The student will be able to name the most important meridian and parallel of France, on a map, no text offered. Correct/Wrong

O 3 – The student will be able to localise the most important meridian and parallel that cross France, on the map, no text offered, indicating the value of the meridian and of the parallel in degrees. Correct/Wrong

Solution: O 1 is formulated wrong as the verb is a general one and no conditions are mentioned. O 2 is formulated wrong as the verb does not refer to procedure, but to the name of the meridian and of the parallel, so it is a cognitive objective and not all the conditions are mentioned. O 3 is correctly formulated.

Level II: Complete the enunciation of the methodological operational objectives (*Annexe no. 5*) appropriate to the operational objective 2.1. using the previous text and the verbs in the list below.

Verb list: to estimate, to measure, to calculate, to realise, to elaborate, to orient, to use, to apply, to comment, to solve, to combine, to characterise, to indicate, to model, to experiment, to represent, to give arguments, to interpret, to analyse, to synthesise, to deduce, to conclude, to establish, to decide, to put in order, to extract (ideas), to compare, to differentiate, to extrapolate, to interpolate, to classify, to build, etc.

O 1 – The student will be able to the most important meridian and parallel of France, on a map, no text is offered, indicating the value of the meridian and of the parallel in degrees.

O 2 – The student will be capable to locate on the map, no text is offered.

Solution: For O 1 the appropriate verb is to indicate. For O 2 the performance may be: a. the position of France in Europe; b. the mathematical position of France towards the Equator and the North Pole; c. the geographical position of France on the globe, on the continent, the names of the neighbouring ocean and sea.

Level II: Formulate 4 methodological operational objectives that are appropriate to the referential objective 2.1. using to the previous text, the physical map of France and the verbs in the table in *Annexe no. 6*. Write the operational objectives in the respective table.

Solution:

Subject	Behaviour	Performance description	Conditions	Minimum performance level
The student	will be able to indicate	the most important meridian and parallel of France	on a map, no text is offered	indicating the value of the meridian and o the parallel in degrees
The student	will be able to indicate	the position of France in Europe	on a map, no text is offered	correct position
The student	will be able to indicate	the mathematical position of France towards the Equator and the North Pole	on a map, no text is offered	correct position

The student	will be able to indicate	the geographical position of France on the globe, on the continent, the neighbouring ocean and sea	on a map, no text is offered	indicating the value of the meridian and of the parallel in degrees, the names of the ocean and of the sea
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Considerations on the Learning Process and on Its Results

Considerations on the Contents Used for Learning. During this seminar we focused on the students' acquiring the competence to formulate operational objectives for learning activities. In order to acquire this competence the students had to use correctly concepts such as operational objective, referential objective, ability, declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, etc., they learned during the previous courses on *Pedagogy* and on *Psychology*. We noticed that they had difficulties using these concepts. In order to make sure that they were able to use them, we conceived a *Lexicon*. We planned the contents so that the students were able to understand it immediately. As a result of their feed-back we replaced or rewrote the texts and tasks where information was not clear enough.

Considerations on the Software Used for Learning. When we conceived the seminar structure we wanted that the students learned as easy as possible and the professor had also no difficulties in information processing and posting on the website. The platform that Activ Design created and we used for our virtual asynchronous seminar offered plenty of advantages: the professor could easily post the information in word and not in HTML format on the website; anyone could learn to post data on a website in less than 30 minutes without any having high competence in using the respective programmes. The platform allows the students to access easily the dictionary and the annexes with the necessary data for task solving. It also allowed the students to open simultaneously more files, and the windows could be minimized or maximized so that only the necessary information was displayed. Although an asynchronous seminar, where the main interaction was student-computer, the platform had an option that allowed the transmitting of questions to the professor.

Considerations on the Students' Learning Process. As in the *Didactics of Geography* we focus on the students' achievement of procedural knowledge and specialised competences, we proposed tasks that we created by taking this purpose into account. Students learned actively as each task supposed a clear purpose, action, and result (Bernat, 2003). Each task was a multi-level structured one so that students learned progressively, from the simple to the complex and to the difficult.

Conclusions

In our paper we presented a virtual asynchronous seminar on the *Didactics of Geography*. This seminar did not require the students and the professor to participate simultaneously to the educational activity, to be together in the same place and at the same time. We preferred this form of seminar to the virtual synchronous seminar as the students were allowed to learn when they had the time, and the professor did not have to manage the activity of a group of students, to answer immediately to their questions or to offer feed-back at once or in a very short time. As compared to the traditional seminar, the virtual asynchronous seminar had the following advantages: the students and the professor did not need a seminar room, they did not spend time for going to a certain place, the students could learn whenever they wanted, where they wanted and in their own rhythm, they could return to the previous steps, they could assess themselves, and receive feed-back by interacting with the computer. The virtual asynchronous seminar had the disadvantage that the professor was not able to offer her students an immediate feed-back and thus she was not able to support her students in identifying and correcting their mistakes and in filling in their gaps. Projecting and organising a virtual asynchronous seminar took more time than for a traditional seminar and required competence in computer use both for the professor and for the students.

The platform that Activ Design created and we used for our virtual asynchronous seminar offered plenty of advantages: the professor could easily post the information in word and not in HTML format on the website; anyone could learn to post data on a website in less than 30 minutes without any requirement for high competence in using the respective programmes; although the main interaction was between the student and the computer, the platform had an option that allowed the transmitting of questions to the professor; in order to solve a task, the students could open simultaneously more files, and the windows could be minimized or maximized.

The professor guided the learning process due to the tasks she conceived for each seminar. These were also structured on several levels. The students learned actively as each task supposed a clear objective and purpose, an action and a result.

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Annexe no. 1: Lexicon

¹ **General-objectives** of geography – capacities and attitudes characteristic of geography, that are highly general and complex, to be realised in a progressive and compulsory way, during geography lessons, in different grades (e.g. in secondary school or in high-school).

² **Referential objectives** for geography focus on the expected results of learning for each year of study or grade. In the curriculum for geography they specified the referential objectives deriving from each general objective.

³ **Operational objectives** – purposes on a short term – “the target” of each didactic activity – to be realised by students during one lesson. The operational objective is included in an enunciation where the student’s behaviour and performance is described after a learning activity. The operational objectives are formulated according to the objectives mentioned in the previous stages.

⁴ **Behaviour** is manifested through a capacity, ability, and attitude.

⁵ **Capacity** (skill; the ability to feel, understand or do something; aptitude) – a person’s neuro-psycho attribute (the power and quality) that allows her to do operations, activities, to have certain social relationships and a certain type of behaviour.

⁶ **Intellectual or movement ability** – a learned way of answering appropriately to a sum or category of tasks belonging to a certain field.

⁷ **Attitude** – a person’s quite stable mental state, disposition, or predisposition to action or behave favourable or unfavourable, univocal, towards a person, situation, or towards an object.

⁸ **Performance** – a sum of noticeable and measured features of the *target* behaviour in a certain situation.

Annexe no. 2: General objectives and referential objectives in the *School curriculum for Geography in the 6th grade*

General objectives	Compulsory referential objectives
1. Correct spatial and temporal context identifying	1.1. to recognise the main elements of a cartographic representation 1.2. to use ways and tools for orienting
2. Knowing and interpreting the graphic and cartographic support	2.1. to use correctly the elements of a map 2.2. to tell the elements of a map
3. Understanding and correctly using specialised vocabulary	3.1. to use correctly read or heard proper names 3.3. to use in writing the common and proper names
4. Investigating and interpreting the phenomena of the geographical space	4.1. to identify the natural and human elements of the observed reality 4.4. to notice the objective reality by using a plan
5. Achieving a constructive and responsible attitude towards the environment	5.1. to show interest for environmental knowledge

Annexe no. 3: Components of an operational objective

A correctly formulated operational objective consists of five elements:

1. Subject (Who?) – this will prove the achievement of the objective:
Students will be able to...

2. Noticeable and measurable behaviour⁴ (“target”) (What?) – the student will acquire it after a learning activity/situation. It is expressed by a univocal action verb. The verb expresses only one *logical operation, one activated mental or physical ability⁶, one attitude⁷*, that is visible and its result is a quantitatively and qualitatively measurable product. Behaviour will be precisely expressed so that any student may represent the expected product similarly. We shall not use the following verbs in order to enunciate operational objectives as they are too general, determining assessment ambiguity: to understand, to know, to read, to appreciate, to tell, to notice, to get familiar, to assimilate, to achieve.

3. Performance description (What?). Performance is a result, a product, memorised, understood, used, analysed, synthesised data that are assessed as a visible measurable or immeasurable manifestation (this may be psychic-movement, attitudinal, and affective). By activating *competences, behaviour and performance take place*.

4. Context for proving behaviour and obtaining performance (How?) points to the instrument and document that the student should use (*text-book, map, photo, sketch*), to the necessary restrictions and facilities (*using the map, with the help of a sketch/of a text, with teacher’s help, no map is offered, using the plan, in writing/orally, after reading, at first sight, etc.*).

5. Performance criterion or performance level is a qualitative or quantitative index of performance features. Miron Ionescu considers that the following parameters make clear the changes supposed through an operational objective: absence or presence of a capacity or of a feature; the necessary time for realising the task; the features of the acceptable errors; their conformity or lack of conformity to a certain level; number of admissible tries; features of a material product as a result of a practical activity (M. Ionescu, 2000, p. 54).

Performance level is a referential point for performance assessment and for making a decision or judging the accomplishment of a task. One currently uses three categories of standard performance: superior level (excellent), average level (good), and a minimum one (sufficient). Minimal standard performance is the level to which one compares students' results in order to assess their success in learning. The teacher decides which is the minimum learning level for a student so that his/her future progress will not suffer. We always establish an inferior performance limit, not the superior one. Using the expression *at least*, each student should top unlimitedly the inferior level mentioned in the curriculum.

Annexe no. 4: Operational objectives examples

Subject	Behaviour	Performance description	Conditions	Minimum performance level
The student	will be able to enumerate	the subdivisions of the Apuseni Mountains	without a map	at least 12 mountain groups and 4 depressions
The student	will be able to locate	components of Holland	on a map	at least the neighbours, the capital city, two main cities, and three rivers
The student	will be capable to show	the Dutch's attitude towards the environment	in an essay	of about 1000 words, giving at least three arguments

Annexe no. 5: Operational objective types

1. Cognitive (informative) objectives focus on declarative knowledge (*“savoir”*), meaning *what the student will know* after a learning activity.

2. Methodological (procedural) objectives focus on procedural knowledge (*“savoir-faire”*), meaning *what the student will be able to do* after a learning activity.

3. Psychic-movement objectives focus on the movement skills (*“savoir-faire”*), meaning *what the student will be able to do* after the teacher's demonstrative sequence and after exercising (to walk on slopes, to climb a slope, etc.).

4. Attitudinal objectives focus on a feeling, an attitude, a kind of behaviour, meaning *what the student will know to be* (*“savoir-être”*) after an educational situation

(to work in an orderly manner, to be polite, to be punctual, to observe rules, etc.). These objectives are accomplished after a series of lessons for more subject matters. The student's complex behaviour and most of the objectives for the affective aspect cannot be put into operational terms and do not permit performance measurement after one learning activity (e.g. to protect plants and animals, to respect nature and people, etc.).

Cognitive objectives are considered *informative objectives*, and the methodological ones, the psychic-movement, and the attitudinal are named *formative objectives*.

Annexe no. 6: Operational objectives, wanted results and the verbs

Objectives	Results	Verbs used in order to formulate operational objectives
Cognitive (What will the student know?)	- factual declarative knowledge (particular facts); conceptual declarative knowledge (concepts/notions, classifications); punctual declarative knowledge (data - altitude, surface, density, etc., formulas, names); conventions, laws, principles	to define, to enunciate, to recognise, to identify, to describe, to name, to specify, to present, to enumerate, to redefine, to transcribe, to replace to detail, to complete, to detect, to choose, etc.
Methodological (procedural) (What will the student know to do?)	- procedural knowledge: to use a method, a procedure, a technique, an instrument, a device	to estimate, to measure, to calculate, to realise, to elaborate, to orient, to use, to apply, to comment, to solve, to combine, to characterise, to indicate, to model, to experiment, to represent, to give arguments, to interpret, to analyse, to synthesise, to deduce, to conclude, to establish, to decide, to put in order, to extract (ideas), to compare, to differentiate, to extrapolate, to interpolate, to classify, to build, etc.
Movement (What will the student know to do?)	movement skills	to demonstrate, to present, to escalate, etc.
Attitudinal (behavioural) (What will the student know to be?)	feelings, attitudes, behaviour	to prove, to demonstrate, to show, etc.

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