

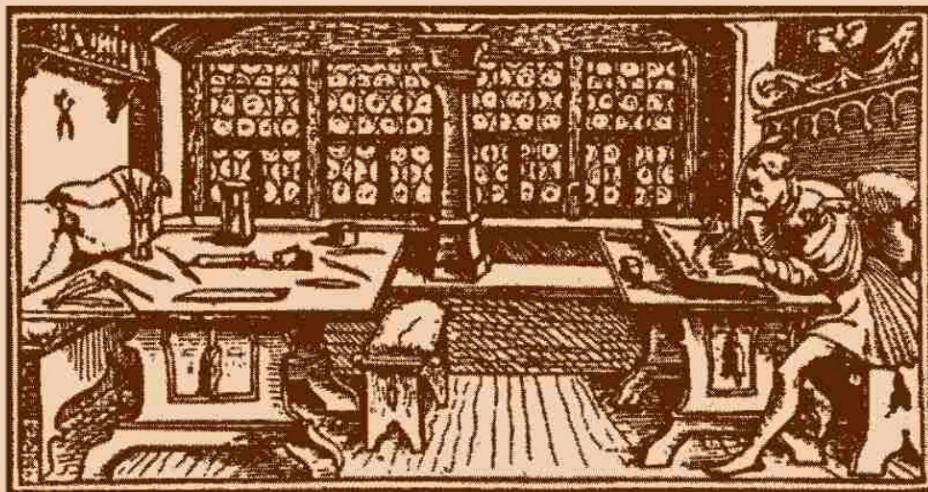
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THE CONSTRUCTIVIST QUALITATIVE RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

VASILE CHIS*, HAVATZELET RONEN**

ABSTRACT. This paper consists in a research project within study doctoral program of the Ph.D student at Babes-Bolyai University, Miss Havatzelet Ronen being supervised by Professor Vasile Chis.

The paper emphasizes the value of quantitative versus qualitative approaches in educational research. Quantitative and qualitative analyses are presented in a comparative way being supported by concrete examples and case analyses.

I. Introduction

1. A brief explanation about the doctorate studies in education at Babes-Bolyai University (BBU)

The rationale behind the doctorate studies program in education at BBU focuses on two directions: the first is exposure to and in-depth study of the theoretical literature relevant to the content area of the research. The second focus is exposure to a study of the paradigms in the area of the qualitative and quantitative research; awareness of the advantages and disadvantages of the qualitative method and quantitative method. Through this learning the target is to develop a language which will enable students to advance to the second and central step - to be capable of carrying out research.

The skill which the students must acquire and internalize is the skill of carrying out research as described in the literature. After due consideration, and after receiving an answer to the questions, the most efficient way for progress is to divide the work into two parts. The first part is reading, elucidation and understanding the significance of the narrative paradigm (hermeneutic research) as compared to the quantitative paradigm. The second part of the paper we constructed as experience of conducting a "research exercise".

In this paper we try to use in concrete way the steps described above.

Accordingly, in the first part we worked the writing into a summary which shows the ability to use the theoretical language. Instead of writing about a research structure from a theoretical point of view, in the second part we learnt the

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principles of research configuration and practiced them “on the field” which enables “to speak” and to combine the action research with analysis of the subject’s behavior (mostly students or pupils).

2. Interpretative constructivist approaches

The Constructivist Qualitative Research paradigm is based on several basic premises:

A. The social reality is not a given objective phenomenon which can be taken for granted; that which is taken for granted demands clarification as to its origins and justification. From this derives the rejection of positivism as a central method for explaining social phenomena.

The subjective interpretation of the research reality is regarded as a central methodology.

B. The social reality is dependent on a cultural, historical, local and specific context (relativism), and this is how it should be researched.

C. How a person understands the world is the outcome of daily reciprocal actions which people carry out among themselves.

D. The way in which we understand the world, (a person's knowledge), determines the social activity. Hence the emphasis on language and discourse as central means of creating the social world, of the action and of the process. Namely, the process as the focus of the investigation and not the social structure.

For years the research in education and social sciences was subject to the accepted scientific model of the quantitative positivist tradition, and so the researchers became used to searching for measuring tools or objective, empirical, surveying or testing observations, whose marks could be quantified, counted or reconstructed. That age passed in the last two decades, and paradigms of the interpretative qualitative research have become increasingly accepted in the fields of education, nursing care, anthropology and psychology, as being more appropriate tools for the questions which preoccupy these fields. "This is a satisfying and liberating experience which I have been a party to for thirty years already. It contains theory, method and criticism as in any worthy academic sphere." Lieblich et al (1998).

The hermeneutic approaches were mainly interested in the small educational activity units: school, the class, pupil-teacher relations, relations among the pupils etc. The characteristic research subjects are: strategies of teachers and pupils, negotiating processes in the classroom, disturbances in the classroom, the cultures of students and teachers coming from different backgrounds and so on.

This research approach starts from the assumption that phenomena can be understood only from the internal point of view of those who experience it. They want to understand the researched phenomena, just as they are understood by those

who take part in them. In their view, the significance of the human action and attraction can only be properly understood if the knowledge, the common sense and the interpretations of the participants are taken into account. (Shkedi 2003, p.13)

The criticism against these approaches argued that from a methodological standpoint there is no way in which one can arrive at social generalizations through them and certainly not at predictions since every work relates to a specific case and to its particular conditions.

Another methodological claim says that these approaches express subjective positions and therefore do not possess scientific validity. Another methodological claim relates to the significance of and value of the knowledge produced by small social units and is therefore not of much importance. (Abiram 1991; Arieli 1989)

In contrast with the rational scientific approach, this stresses the social order as deriving from a series of rules which can be characterized with the aid of objective rules. The social reality is perceived as a rather stable structure which can be revealed, and it is this structure which determines the individual's behavior.

These two approaches can be two paradigms which cancel one another out, but in the same time they can enrich social knowledge. Bruner (1985,1996) maintains that these two ways, the positivist (scientific logical) and the narrative way, are two basic ways of knowing and thinking through which people organize and carry on their general outlook on life. They both represent legitimate points of view about the world, and even though different cultures relate to them in different ways, there is no culture that does not use both of them.

"The choice of a scientific-experimental or qualitative research approach has to be determined according to the nature of the research and its goals. Therefore, in quite a few cases both of these approaches can be utilized whilst being aware of the difficulties that are liable to arise during comparison of data coming from different sources. (Tzabar 1999, p. 17).

The narrative constructivist way is based on the assumption that the phenomenon of the complexity and the richness of human experience is presented better in stories and narratives (Lieblich et al. 1998) Narrative is a form of knowledge which can present situations of ambiguity, tension and dilemmas characteristic of the acts and actions of human beings.

The use of case study and case description is widespread today in the training of educators (Laboskey 1991). A case study teaches educators how do they must act in a similar situation or context (Merriam 1991). Its strength does not derive from quantitative presentation, but from the ability, of the people, in the field, to apply some of the conclusions that arise from it in a situation with similar contexts.

In which situations does each approach have an advantage?

- When we wish to know what is happening inside small social units such as the group and the class, the narrative method has the edge. (The focus is on micro-social observation)

- When we wish to examine social institutions, or large social units such as social classes, then the quantitative research has the edge. (The focus is on the macro-social observation).
- When we wish to understand the significances which people ascribe to their actions, significances constructed from the culture in which they live, the narrative method has the edge.
- In situations in which the interpretation which people give to the action of their fellow determines to a large extent their actions, the narrative method has the edge.
- In situations in which situation definitions are created as result of constant negotiation between people with different roles within the social environment, different forces create different situation definitions, in this case the narrative method has the edge.
- "A researcher whose aim is to explain overt knowledge, finding correlations, formulating laws and validating theories, as required in the natural sciences, in this case the positivist approach will be found to be appropriate. The explanation belongs to the area of revealed knowledge as observed in objects, in phenomena and in events.
- A researcher whose aim is the exposure of experiences, and understanding them and enhancing the evidence- in this case the qualitative approach will be deemed appropriate.

As we know, the quantitative method does not permit such a way, since it relates to overt behavior which can be examined with quantitative tools and with different tests and until standard interviews. Moreover, the quantitative research controls the many factors characterizing the situation being researched, isolates and processes them.

Tzabar, as a pioneer researcher in the area of qualitative research in education, maintains that "the argument over how scientific qualitative research really still exists, but instead of patronizing on the part of the quantitative researchers and the self-justifying by the theoretical researchers, a fruitful dialogue has been initiated between the camps, and it seems that all have emerged with benefit from it" (Tzabar 1999, p. 21).

3. Advantages and disadvantages of the narrative approach

- The method for organizing social information and data enables the preservation of the distinctive character of the researched subjects.
- The method enables expression of great sensitivity, to diagnose and express complex situations from different points of view (Stenhouse, 1979).

Its content is mainly descriptive and concrete, and tends to develop through the interpretations of the reader, and thereby it stresses the subjective point of view, it enables seeing the complexity of the situation being investigated, but in this way

the research loses the objective elements which characterize the quantitative research. The researcher does not relate to all-embracing social arrangements, but to small social units, and therefore quantitative researchers can claim that this knowledge is not of great importance. But it is absolutely clear that when the aims of the research are the exposure of experiences, understanding them and enhancing the evidence- the qualitative research is found to be appropriate and effective for achieving the goals (Tzabar 1999, Shkedi, 2003, Lieblich 1998).

II. Research Questions and Shaping the Research

Identifying the focus of the research affects the choice of the type of research and the way of shaping the research. Researchers shape their research according to the research problem which they are relating to (Shkedi 2003).

Shaping the research includes: awareness of the significance of the appropriate research paradigm; presenting the problem; putting questions; data gathering; data analysis; answering questions. But the way in which the research progresses is very flexible and is not conducted in a one-directional way, all the stages of the research are connected with one another: each one depends on another, and changes in one stage will affect the others.

The role of the research questions in constructivist qualitative research is to guide the researchers and at the same time to provide them with the freedom and flexibility to learn about the phenomenon in depth. As a rule, researchers begin with broad initial questions, which in the course of the research become more focused. The initial questions are rearranged in an extended manner and are even liable to focus on new things in the course of the research process. (Shkedi, (2003) suggests there kinds of questions; exploratory questions, questions of the first order and second order questions.

Exploratory questions are appropriate for revealing important elements of the phenomenon being researched and for the clarification of possible research assumptions. Questions of this type are most appropriate for a situation in which there is little knowledge or understanding about the phenomenon being researched, at times the researcher don't have enough knowledge to decide what the focus of the research and the process of the research should be and what the research questions should be. In such a situation exploratory research can help the researchers to focus and plan their research. After deciding on the research questions and its shaping (with or without the aid of exploratory research) the researchers choose the research population, with a directed choice: the informants who are chosen have to be compatible with the aims of the research.

First order questions

Research questions the answers which are obtained directly from those being researched, questions which are focused on a description and explanation of the

investigated phenomenon. They can elicit the collection of simple descriptive information as well as more complex information: such as: interpersonal relations or special relations and even explanation of cause and effect, as the researched persons understand it. The focus is on information received from the researched persons on the phenomenon being researched. Information gathering which will enable the researcher to approach and draw close and understand his point of view about the phenomenon.

Second order questions

Questions concerning information which the researcher did not manage to gather directly from the informants, either because it is covert knowledge or because this knowledge did not emerge during the interviews or in the other stories told by the informants. In order to complete the knowledge which the researcher did not obtain with the aid of descriptions and explanations of the informants, the researcher looks for additional sources of knowledge, documents, observations etc.

3. Shaping of "case study" research combined with "action research".

"The first stage in the qualitative constructivist research focuses on the definition of the theoretical hypotheses of the research. These hypotheses supply the conceptual perspective which guides the researchers in shaping their research" (Shkedi, 2003, p. 37).

In order to apply the concepts, the principles and the outlook we described above, we shall analyze 'a case' of an educational intervention which combined students of education from the Hebrew University in Jerusalem with the junior high school pupils in Jerusalem.

In the first year of running a unique course for outstanding students in the Hebrew University in Jerusalem entitled "Involvement in the educational field: theory and practice" we introduced a special intervention program for the education lessons: "Education as a humanistic dialogue." In this program the students had two roles. The first: students learning special pedagogy together with pupils from the junior high school and home room teachers from the seventh grade level. The class served as a learning laboratory for the home room teachers, for the pupils and the students. The second role: the students taught together with the home room teachers the program to which they had been exposed to as "a laboratory lesson" in each of the seventh grade classes of the form.

Since the program was new and unknown to the home room teachers and the students, once a week we gave a sample lesson of the education lesson "Education as a humanistic dialogue" in the seventh grade first class. Consequently, in this activity we performed a triple function, demonstrating to the students a different pedagogy, instructing the home room teachers how to give education lessons (which shall we go into detail later) and actually giving the seventh graders an education lesson. The seventh graders considered us to be their education lesson teacher and of the students as well. At the same time they knew that we had initiated a

new education lesson program, and that they had been chosen to be the demonstration class from which we would all learn, and that on the basis of their conclusions we would preserve those things which were found to be of value and would improve what was deemed worthy of improving.

The home room teachers observed and afterwards, with the assistance of the students, they applied the program in their classes. At the end of three years of joint activity, towards the end of the first graduation course class, the students held a discussion on topics and the best way of learning the significance of the program for the pupils who had had experience of three years of the program "Education as a humanistic dialogue." One of the students suggested that we should ask the pupils to explain the program, and from the explanations we would identify topics for writing the final course paper. At this encounter a stormy argument took place regarding the pupils' ability to answer such a broad question.

Some of them suggested preparing questions through which we would understand the significance of the program, while other students argued that if we guided them with the help of questions, they would answer according to what we wished to hear. We suggested choosing one pupil who for the purpose of the exercise we shall call Cochavit.

We chose Cochavit because we knew that for her the program was significant; at the start of the seventh grade the school principal had introduced her as a pupil who was in danger of dropping out from the school, she was very communicative, had been involved in many of our activities during the three years of learning, she had won our trust, and at the same time the students didn't have an easy time with her because although every time she promised to improve, it was hard for her to keep her promises. Since she had undergone a process of change, we thought that any information we would obtain would enable us to identify junction points of value for learning for us and for the pupils we would be getting the following year.

In relation to this exercise, we see Cochavit as a *'case'* which was a pilot for us, for an investigation which would enable us to understand and obtain hidden knowledge through Cochavit's words. Words which would express the significance of the program "Education as a humanistic dialogue" through her point of view as a pupil. We approached her and we said to her: "Cochavit, now we are in the third year of the program, we want to learn through you about the significance of the program. Since the written dialogue is one of the ways through which we learnt together, you are asked to write whatever comes into your head from the two years you have been studying the 'Education as a humanistic dialogue' program."

We were interested in understanding Cochavit's point of view and how she saw the program, and what did she recall from it? We did not wish to focus on any one subject, and we wished to avoid orientated questions. Essentially, we wished to understand "Cochavit's Story" as a pupil in the junior high school which was collaborating in a new project. Since we knew Cochavit we knew that she was suited to be "the first case" since she was one of the pupils for whom we had set

ourselves the goal of preventing her dropping out from school. We knew that she had experienced many frustrating experiences. We felt that she had experienced a significant experience.

At that stage we were not engaging in action research or in interpretative research, we were a learning group looking for connections between theory and the educational field: a group searching for ways to improve education.

We received Cochavit's text to which as we mentioned earlier we gave the title "Cochavit's Story" and began to ask questions, to which we looked for answers through Cochavit's text, because we saw in it a text through which one could learn from a primary source about the significance of the program in question.

For the purposes of this research exercise we have chosen to practice the two kinds of questions suggested by Shkedi (2003) for shaping qualitative research:

- Questions of the first and second orders.
- Questions through which we could learn about the significance of the program "Education as a humanistic dialogue" in the eyes of students, pupils, teachers and home room teachers who had had experience as learners or teachers using the education lessons model.

Examples of first-order questions (including subsidiary questions) characterizing this group of questions, to all of which answers can be found from within the "written story". We shall search for answers to part of the questions from Cochavit's descriptions and explanations.

1. Do the pupils consider the program as significant? Do the pupils feel that they need the program?

1a: Is the program significant for the pupils beyond the lesson itself?

1b: Do the pupils feel that the program is helping them?

2. What are the characteristics which enable the pupils to identify "Education as a humanistic dialogue" as significant?

2a: What is meaningful education in the eyes of the pupils?

2b: Did the characteristics of "Education as a humanistic dialogue" influence specific social situations?

3. What is the image of the program mentor in the eyes of the pupils?

3a: Is the mentor seen by the pupils as one who understands the world of the pupils?

3b: Do the pupils believe that the mentor relates to them as to valuable human beings?

3c: Do the pupils believe that the mentor expects them to apply their instructions faithfully and without changing them ?

4. What are the pupils' attitudes to "Education as a humanistic dialogue"? and how do these attitudes find expression in their behavior patterns outside the lesson?

4a: Do the pupils tend to accept what the program suggests to them and also to be faithful to it at the time of application?

4b: Did the pupils internalize the principles of education as a humanistic dialogue?

4c. Do the pupils use the principles of the program, as feed-back for the learning of new social behaviors?

Second order questions are questions relating to information, which the researcher did not manage to gather directly from the informants. In order to complete the information which the researcher did not obtain with the aid of descriptions and explanations of the informants he is likely to look for it with the help of additional sources of knowledge.

Example of a second order question:

1. What are the pupils' positions regarding other strategies, which must be developed in order to make the program applicable for other classes?
2. How can one teach pupils to transfer principles from the education lessons to lessons in the area of knowledge?
3. What are the difficulties of pupils who are due to learn the program?
4. What is the contribution of the written dialogue as a tool for developing a humane relationship between teachers and pupils?

At the point, in time which we are in just now, we can learn how important for researchers in education is the combining of two research methods- on the one hand as a learner and researcher investigating the narrative approach, a learner and researcher who sees the significance and importance of the defining of roles by the pupils, the interpretations of the pupils as a point of departure for learning. At the same time we regard the action research as a valuable and significant method for the creation of a world of knowledge which we were part to at the start as lecturer, mentor and teacher running the program, and later as mentor for teachers and students to operate the program independently.

As we have written, in order to be able to learn to transmit theoretical principles for conducting research we see in the course "Research Methods" - under guidance of Professor Petru Ilut - an opportunity to practice a combination of theoretical concepts for constructing research writing. Accordingly, we shall relate to "Cochavit's Story" as a pilot from which we want to shape the research

III. THE METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

This research exercise is conducted as a case study – a mini pilot research – on the basis of the written text of a pupil who participated in the unique education lessons course.

For the purposes of this exercise we reviewed the study of all the documents in which we described the involvement as lecturer/mentor teaching the program. We came to the conclusion that the action research with the aid of the documentation has great significance for the development of skills to continue researching the development of the model.

Action research method was mentioned already in the 1940s by Kurt Levin as a unique research approach designed to improve the practice in different areas, but nevertheless, only in recent years have the institutions engaging in educational research come increasingly to recognize its' latent potential.

Central Aims:

1. To increase the cooperation of the researcher with colleagues in the school, colleagues in the research group, and mainly with academics, and thereby to strengthen the link between theory and practice.
2. To create opportunities for personal professional development.
3. To encourage trends for developing innovative methods inside and from within educational institutions, intended for improving ways of teaching and learning in all kinds of frameworks (regular or special)

Characteristics of Action research (according to Hacothen, 1996)

- a) Action research reflects the performance of change and its investigation, and is conducted in most cases by a person in the field assisted by a research person from academy.
- b) The research includes spiral performance of the planning of change, its application, evaluation of the change, reflectivity and application of the lessons and conclusions drawn from the previous spiral.
- c) In the course of the research a theory is constructed rooted in elements gathered in the field, practical knowledge accumulated by the researcher in the course of the years, and theoretical knowledge considered to be relevant.
- d) During the whole course of the research importance is ascribed to the significance of things as it is also reflected in the eyes of those being researched themselves.
- e) In action research the researcher himself is the one who initiates the action and the research, he is the main research instrument, who does not necessarily aspire to achieve "objective" conclusions.

Elliot (1995) mentions a few components of action research:

- The teachers use the research in order to be the initiators of actions and constantly check new ways of action in order to realize their objectives.
- The research and its outcomes enable them to reconstruct the theories according to which they will act in the future.
- Action research has a pedagogical objective which includes educational vision, and all who engage in it commit themselves to apply it in practice.

THE CONSTRUCTIVIST QUALITATIVE RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

- The research examines the process of change:
 - Pragmatic focus- to what extent does the research focus on change that occurs in the field, compatibility with the prior stated pedagogical objectives.
- (Hacohen, 1996, p. 2) describes the role of action research approach as follows:

"The attitude of many academics today who are leading the action research approach like John Elliot of the East Anglia University, who described the importance of the components of cooperation and introducing change into the research process, Kamis, Carr and others, is enshrined in the principle that educational research does not have to be or must remain an exclusively academic sphere. Also Lawrence Stenhouse who founded the Institute for Applied Research in Education (CARE) at East Anglia University in the 1970s, and conceived and promoted the notion: *<Research as a basis for teaching>* maintained that the contribution of the social sciences to improving educational practice is small, since the central aim of the theories that were developed are designed to serve mainly researchers and not the people who engage in education. According to this perception one can bridge theory and practice through the integration of people in the field, teachers, inspectors or principals in research practice that includes implementing change, reflectivity, analysis and evaluation of the change"

Action research is designed to perform an action of change, the action can be performed during the research by conclusions drawn in the course of the action (IN ACTION) or reflection on action after the action (ON ACTION) and to combine them.

The spiral notion is that after a plan of action had been determined action research must be carried out again and to check what has been achieved. This is a circular direction where the research becomes a kind of control mechanism that enables preservation of the aspects which were found to be suitable and improvement of the aspects which were found to require improvement. And this in contrast to the theoretical qualitative research where the researcher learns, understands, and draws conclusions which do not require application in the researched field of action. In action research the conclusions and the application are an integral part of the action research. Consequently, the combining of the narrative research with action research can be of value for research whose aim is the building of a pedagogical model for improving teaching, learning and evaluation processes.

Action research is appropriate for "Cochavit's Story" which we described as a pilot from whom teachers can learn about the process, via the personal story of the person being researched about the significance of her experience in the education lessons with the aid of the model "Education as a humanistic dialogue". For this kind of exercise statistical measurement has no meaning. Consequently, in not a few cases one may use the two approaches together, whilst being aware of the difficulties that are liable to arise when comparing data from different sources (Tzabar 1999, p. 17).

In any case, the doctoral research thesis will also be based on the hermeneutic paradigm, since, as the writers of this paper, not only do we not wish to be objective or distanced from the action. On the contrary we are starting out from the assumption that the analysis and interpretation as a learner and researcher of the reality includes the attitudes, the perceptions etc. All these will enable to progress on the way to establishing a world of knowledge required for developing a pedagogical model for improving learning, teaching and evaluation processes. A conception in line with that of Ben Peretz (1998) "systematic thinking and discussion in teaching are the absolute condition for improving education (in: Hacoen and Zimran 1999, p.30.).

This research exercise was written as a result of our interest as lecturer/home room teacher and mentor who feels uncomfortable with the attitude of pupils and home room teachers to the education lessons. The research focuses on the understanding of the model of the education lessons: "Education as a humanistic dialogue")

Accordingly, we see the exercise in the "Research Methods" course as an opportunity to begin to view the educational field through "teacher eyes" and those of a pupil as a "case" (one of hundreds of documented 'cases") from which one may learn and think how one may develop a future research.

As a learner researcher we understand several things very important for the educational practice:

- That there is a gap between the objectives that the education system sets to the education lessons and the performance in the field and it is important to find ways to reduce this gap.
- That the education lessons contain within themselves possibilities of introducing a different pedagogy to the teaching pattern in classrooms.
- That the education lessons contain within themselves the possibility of bringing about a change in the relationship between teacher and pupils, a change which will also have an impact on motivation as well as on learning achievements in the various areas of knowledge.
- That the program 'Education as a humanistic dialogue" can provide an answer to goals which the Ministry of Education outlined for "the home room lesson".
- That the model 'Education as a humanistic dialogue" can be developed into a pedagogical model for improving teaching, learning and evaluation processes.

As a learner we see the studies in the course "Research Methods" as an opportunity to practice the qualitative methodology together with action research, in order to learn and consolidate knowledge for understanding the research paradigm. This consolidation of knowledge will be on four levels:

1. Theoretical knowledge relevant to understanding the advantages and deficiencies of the qualitative methodology.

2. Identifying theoretical components relative to field of work as teacher and researcher.

3. Applying theoretical principles for practicing in research field.

4. Summary and conclusions for continuation of the learning.

Accordingly, the doctorate paper began with a theoretical presentation of the naturalistic-qualitative hermeneutic paradigm. This is continued by identifying principles for shaping research, and proceeded with practice – 'Shaping research according to the theoretical principles' In this practice is used the documentation of a 'case' which we relate to as a "pilot case," and on it apply the research structure as it appears in the research literature.

Aims of the research: "A scientific research approach- experimental or qualitative - must be determined according to the nature of the research and its objectives". (Tzabar, p.17). Identifying the focus of the research influences the choice of the type of research and the way of shaping the research.

On the basis of these insights our aims as learner researchers is to learn:

a) The significance of "case study" as a pilot for shaping the research;

b) To learn to combine two methods of the qualitative research: narrative research and action research.

c) To internalize theoretical principles this will begin to turn into our professional language as researchers.

The following are questions for a research exercise (exploratory questions):

1. For: Cochavit the pupil: Write what jumps into your head when you think about the education lessons: "Education as a humanistic dialogue".

2. For me as a learner; Is it possible through 'a case study' in which I was a partner and involved as initiator, as lecturer, as mentor and as teacher, to apply theoretical concepts and principles which will enhance the skills required for me for the purpose of writing up research in the doctoral thesis?

3. For me as a learner: Does 'analysis of one case study' enable me to identify principles and questions relevant to the investigation of the significance and meaning of the program "Education as a humanistic dialogue" through Cochavit's interpretative point of view?

IV. The Research Tools

We have used different types of dialogic research tools: questionnaires, the education notebooks in which the pupils wrote answers to questionnaires, observations, interviews and open conversations with principals, pupils and parents. The communication pattern was based on: free conversations which were held as part of the routine practice, initiated conversations, interviews with the pupils and the parents as an integral part of the educational process, structured conversations which were held by the pupils as part of the learning interactions - in each one of these dialogues the significances of the program were brought out.

With regard to the scope of this 'research exercise', a written dialogue, which was described as "written dialogue-dialogue of a different kind," was documented and given the title "Cochavit's Story" In the future stages of research a number of research tools will be used: interviews, observations and content analysis of different kinds of answers to open questionnaires (and perhaps statistical analysis as well) and this in order to enhance its validity.

The interviews constitute a research tool which makes it possible to learn from the open dialogue conducted throughout the year with the pupils and the parents.

The observations; one of the most significant ways of data collection in a qualitative research are the observations. They can be open observations in which the researcher records most of the factors which impress him. There can also be focused observations for describing only subjects which were decided on in advance. Observations help in identifying processes. They can, for example, examine the level of operation of a syllabus" (Yoloye, 1977). Observations also help to identify difficulties, to spot changes introduced by teachers and to discover typical teaching methods.

The extent of the action researcher's involvement emerges in the various kinds of observations. The observations are classified according to the degree of participation of the researcher in the event being researched. This may be seen on a continuum starting from an external non-participant observer through all the grades of the continuum until the observer becomes a participating observer.

Participating Observation

The researcher is among the research population; he takes part in its everyday activities and records them as close as possible to the time of their occurrence, in the spoken language of the participants in the event. The researcher records the whole system of interactions between the participants themselves and between the participants and the researcher himself, as well as what he himself says in different situations and at different times. An observation of this type enables the educator as an observer to concentrate on the observation and to develop sensitivity to the significance of what is being observed (Krathwohl, 1993). The observation enables better understanding of the case. It must focus on the relevant questions (Stake, 1995). In the same time there can be seen here a limitation in reliability and validity of the findings since the researcher's very presence might well influence the structure of the discourse.

Non-participatory observation

In this observation data are gathered almost without any contact with the participants. On the face of it, it is as if there is no system of interactions between the researcher observer and the research population. In fact, however, in social situations the very presence of the researcher creates relationships which are not necessarily only verbal. Hence, the action researcher must be qualified to conduct an

observation which is as accurate as possible. Tzabar Ben Yehoshua (1995) points out that it is worth recording observations in the same time as skilled observers for the sake of their validation. In conclusion, Tzabar Ben Yehoshua stresses: "that the qualitative research does not profess to prevent deviations in data gathering, as it is clear that they reflect the point of view of the observer-recorder. (p. 52)

The education notebook will serve as a research tool since in the education lessons "Education as a humanistic dialogue" literary writing has become something a little different: the pupils express their thoughts and opinions, in this way they show clearly the power of writing as a tool for developing reflection and meta-cognitive thinking. The answers to the questionnaires, were written in the education notebook, the form room teachers read and listened attentively to their views and responded with a written text. These texts were described as personal feedback to the pupil and as collective feedback to the class and were called "written dialogue- dialogue of a different kind."

The analysis will be made through the systematic cross-sectioning of the data obtained through these research tools, in order to assess such structured principles as: principles for perceiving the true nature of the teaching, learning and evaluation.

For the purposes of this research exercise we shall use "Cochavit's Story" in order to identify general categories for describing Cochavit's feelings about the education lessons as humanistic dialogue, and her attitudes regarding learning and evaluation. (And specific categories for describing learning norms and attitudes with regard to different subjects.) This research tool enables to relate to Cochavit's text in a new way, no longer as a learning card from which we taught the students about the significance of the pedagogy which assigns value and place to the pupil's voice, but "a research tool" from which everyone can begin to learn how one learns to conduct a research.

In this 'research exercise' we have tried to relate to the concept 'trustworthiness of the research' by documenting the attitudes of Cochavit as expressed in her answer to the 'exploratory question" to which she related very seriously. During Cochavit's writing we did not display any kind of involvement or guidance. The only instruction was to explain the question and its aim. Therefore, the content world of the case is "the world of knowledge and the interpretation" of Cochavit.

The content analysis focused on 'Cochavit's Story'. We began the program when Cochavit was in seventh grade- the first year of the junior high school in a Jerusalem high school. In the course of the two years Cochavit, like the other members of the class, were given tasks of various kinds, among them position questionnaires. The questionnaires were presented as a strategy for enabling joint structuring of subjects for the education lessons and as a means to enable all of us – program mentor, the students and the home room teachers learning together how to apply the program, to get to know their needs and attitudes. The pupils accepted the questionnaires as an integral part of their relationship with teacher, between them

and the students and the home room teachers, and they learnt to see that this way enabled the beginning of creating a different communication pattern.

The building of the dialogue was perceived by them as legitimate and important. Through the answers to the questionnaires they were exposed to a new kind of learning which we called "written dialogue, dialogue of a different kind." In the middle of the ninth grade Cochavit was asked to reflect back over the process which she had participated in and to write "What comes into your head after two-plus years of attending the lesson "Education as a humanistic dialogue"? The question was given to Cochavit as a means whereby we, the students and teacher, wished to learn about the significance of the program, not through focused questions but through an "exploratory question" which addressed the initial propositions of the research and created a learning text for us.

For the purposes of this research exercise the "written dialogue" is the central research tool since it represents the means for collecting the relevant data: collecting data relating to an initial mapping of the followings:

- 1) The needs and attitudes of Cochavit during two years of learning.
- 2) The needs and attitudes of Cochavit after having undergone a process during the entire two and a half years.
- 3) Initial mapping of didactic tools for making the teaching more efficient.
- 4) Mapping of principles which will enable us to examine the effectiveness of the program "Education as a humanistic dialogue".

V. Data collection

In educational research the method of data collection includes analysis of what is obtained from every research tool (written and verbal material, and observations). The data collection for "Cochavit's Story" served as an opportunity for us to practice turning the story into categories. We related to "Cochavit's Story" as a text to which we addressed first order questions:

1. What are the characteristics which enable Cochavit to identify "Education as a humanistic dialogue" as significant one?
2. Did the characteristics of "Education as a humanistic dialogue" influence specific social situations?
3. Does Cochavit see the lesson as a significant one? Does Cochavit feel that she needs the program?
4. What is the image of the program's mentor in Cochavit's eyes?
5. Does Cochavit believe that the mentor relates to her as a valuable human being?
6. Does Cochavit believe that the mentor expects her to apply the teaching faithfully and to the letter?

We organized around four categories:

- First category - relating to the normative dimension.

- Second category - the quality of the learning interactions.
- Third category - the hidden and overt symbolic messages.
- Fourth category - significance of the education lesson as a humanistic dialogue.

The normative dimension: it includes the group factors which shape the behavior of the individual. In the context of this research exercise they will include the sentences which bring out the processes connected to the culture of the group of equals which creates the value laden and learning climate in the group, the role models, the identification and legitimization which the group supplies.

The quality of the learning interactions: the expressions which express the level of discourse, the reflective ability to reflect Cochavit's awareness of the thinking processes about the true nature of the learning, about the definition of the role of the pupil, about the significance of motivation and understanding the significance of the interactions pattern between her and herself, between her and me as mentor of the process - and all of these as affecting the quality of the teaching and learning.

The symbolic hidden and overt messages: expressions and meanings which will bring out the significance of the perception of the value of the class, the feeling of Cochavit with regard to her place in the class, and to expectations and thoughts about the social makeup of the class. (Cochavit's class was categorized as a heterogeneous class with very great extremes - from gifted pupils to pupils who were in danger of dropping out of school.)

Awareness of the influence of the program 'Education as a humanistic dialogue' - when the program was suggested to the school it was asserted that the education lessons in the suggested form "Education as a humanistic dialogue" would influence the development of a situation of cooperation, would influence the pupil's understanding that the program *served his interest*, and that the structuring of learning norms, behaviors and skills would enable the pupil and the class to improve achievements.

The documented story will be presented in relation to the above categories on two levels, the first level: presentation of the findings according to the above categories. The second level: discussion of the findings and the connection between the aims of "Education as a humanistic dialogue" and the outcomes resulting from the above categories.

VI. Description of the findings

A description of insights regarding the hidden and overt symbolic messages of the perception of the role of the pupil: by insights are meant the expressions which Cochavit wrote and through which we can better understand

which messages have become valuable for Cochavit for defining roles relevant to the school. *Cochavit* used the expression 'heart to heart talk' as a symbolic expression for the dialogic system that developed between us, dialogues which influenced the improvement of learning habits.

Cochavit wrote: *"I can remember a profound conversation about the subject that I must make a separation between my girl friends and my studies, I remember how much I listened to you and concentrated on your words... and I always thought to myself even if not for myself I shall make an effort to improve and really make the separation between my girl friends and my learning, then I shall do it for you! Because you told me very true things, although some of the things, for example that I can also improve in English- which is a problematic subject for me, you told me that I can learn in the way that I learnt with you, and I thought to myself that in my life I shall not know and that you do not know that I cannot. But in the end you were right because through the way we learn education one can learn any subject"*.

"When we talked in conversations about the processes I was undergoing in correct and good learning, then we also talked about good manners, about behavior which influences no less than the mark of the exam or work in the subject, and about the rules – being late, absences, concentration, speaking in the lesson etc and so forth"

<The learning norms" influenced the development of motivation>."... after we learnt the whole process of the learning and the norms and all kinds of concepts, than I began to gain confidence...<in the notebook> as a means of communication between teacher and pupil", and then when we had a notebook and I and you would hold a written dialogue", "the notebook as a means of organizing learning.".."But in every conversation you would respect me and what I had (like friends) and you didn't want me to change what I am or that I should go with other friends, you only gave me advice for improving." "And after we learnt the whole process of the learning and the 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 nobody 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 said to me in a conversation we had during the long vacation before returning to school (with Liat) that you think that I am clever and that I have something to say, and that I should say, and not just in the notebook, for that is how one applies things."

A description of insights concerning the relationships which developed: the definition of roles depends on a system of situational and cultural factors which have to be revealed in order to understand the meaning of the behavior. Cochavit developed an insight into the significance of the "dialogic ritual": *" I shall begin by saying that I feel free with you, and in the conversation- in this letter I am writing to you all that I feel and think, and you should think that you are reading a letter from a girl friend because I think that I am writing to a friend, so that I am more open and free to say what comes in to my head." .." You gave me a task – to be a leader and to lead- of course in a good way, and I think that I only did so this year – with Sivan,*

Hili and Reut, and for a moment, when I spoke with them, I would think about you and that I was implementing the task, and suddenly I felt that I was as it were imitating you, or rather applying your words., and I am very happy that this is so."

"What mostly helped me in the conversations is that I knew that you wanted to help me, and that all that you did was only for me, because I saw how you fought for me -in those conversations you opened my head for me and gave me to understand that if I want to then I can, and if you made it clear to me that the matter of learning was very important, and the confidence you gave me helped- it is a part pf my development in the last two years, because when I arrived in seventh grade I was rather shy, I didn't speak in class and didn't apply what I had internalized."

Here we offer a description of the development of awareness of educational processes which led to the feeling of growth deriving from the development of the reflective ability of the participants in the process. Development of 'spectacles' to gaze into the mind:

"I know that what you taught me an invested in me and all our conversations will remain with me forever in my head... " Then you gave me ways to be an internal policeman - that I should think rationally and think about what teacher told me, where does this lead, what is worthwhile for me to do and that I must separate between the break when I will be with my friends and in the lesson I am another girl- a thinking pupil." "What very much really troubled me was that you really wanted me to try and make a separation between studies and girl friends. And I tried, but often I did not succeed, and I wanted to, but it was hard for me. I think that now I am already achieving this, and more that this- I have already turned this into a very important norm!" When we had a conversation during the long vacation, you gave me a task - to be a leader and to lead- of course in a good way, and I think that I did this only this year- with Sivan, Hili and Reut, and for a moment when I was speaking to them I would think about you and that I was fulfilling the task, and suddenly I felt that I was, as it were, imitating you, or more correctly transmitting your words, and I am very happy about that." "In every conversation which we had (almost) the conversation would begin with a speech in class and would also develop after the lesson and in the break we would speak and the we talked about me and what was happening to me and what was worthwhile for me to do and how I should do that, and sometimes you would give me a question to think about!" "And sometimes when I was really depressed, because I hadn't been good in studies, then these conversations helped me a lot, I cannot tell you how much. It was not simply some conversation which would help me in education, but it helped me in all the subjects. And this general help would give me a good feeling, that there really was someone who listened to me and not only paid attention, but was concentrating on what I was saying, and also trying to help me afterwards."

VII. Discussion and analysis of the findings

In the workshop where we decided to try through 'Cochavit's Story' to understand the significance of the education lessons through a broad and not a focused question, most of the students maintained that the question was too open and it would be hard for us to learn about the program that way. We were all surprised by the amount of information which we received about the significance of the program. We could learn about characteristics which Cochavit regarded as significant ones.

The dialogue in its different forms was perceived as having a major impact on the perception of education as a humanistic dialogue which was significant and valuable for Cochavit's educational and learning growth. The dialogue was perceived as an outlook of the mentor, as an educational method for improving teaching and learning processes, and as a means of changing attitudes and perceptions about social and learning situations. Cochavit feels that she has undergone a process of change from seventh grade to ninth grade. She feels that she has undergone a process which began with the developing of awareness of the significance of norms, continued with a process of internalization, a lengthy process, but which ended with the development of the ability to apply behaviors which at the beginning seemed to her to be impossible, and by the end of her studies in the junior high school she feels that she "is already applying them."

The discourse as a ritual with a fixed structure influenced the development of reflective ability and meta-cognitive thinking: " *I have reached a point where I know each time what you want to talk about and say about every period. For example, in the period before the certificates it was already clear that you would talk with us about the half term, about the certificates, about 'the criteria cake', about the parents' meeting and so forth.*"

The written dialogue in the notebook: "*I and you would hold a written dialogue,*" and in the course of time it became a means of developing a self-image of a learner in the eyes of others and thereby it had an influence of the development of her self esteem as "*a clever pupil who other teachers also began to notice.*"

The written and verbal discourse became a mean of influencing the relationship; from an uncertain, questioning, wavering and sometimes tormented relationship.

"*What really very much distresses me is that you very much wanted me to try to separate learning from my girl friends. And I tried but very often I didn't succeed, and I wanted to, but it was difficult for me..*" to a relationship of appreciation, respect and comradeship: "*I shall begin by saying that I feel free with you - in this letter I write to you everything that I feel and think, and think that you are reading a letter from a friend, since I think that I am writing to a friend, so that am more open and free to say what comes into my mind..*"

From the content analysis of Cochavit's words we can learn that the dialogue is perceived as a central characteristic since it contains contents of value and relevance to Cochavit's world, the dialogue is perceived as an objective and as a value, and it is also perceived as a mean for discourse on subject matter.

The relationship between the mentor and Cochavit influenced the development of motivation to improve as well as various definitions of social situations.

One can see that Cochavit has begun to develop awareness that this is the right and desirable way, and that one must also learn through understanding personal considerations and also by understanding the social messages. Motivation began to be created through the feeling that she was important to the mentor and that the mentor was prepared to help and to support her unconditionally: "*What most helped me in the conversations was that I knew that you wished to help me, and that all that you did was only for me... because I saw how you fought for me...*" Motivation developed ahead through cognitive behavioral treatment on the interpretation of the role of the pupil, on desirable values and norms in contrast to inhibiting values and norms: "*In those conversations you opened my mind and gave me to understand that if I want to then I can, and you showed me how very important is the matter of learning, and the confidence you gave me helped- it is a part of my development in the past two years.*"

Then subsequently, development of the ability of meta-cognitive thinking required for the internalization of the change: "*And after we had learnt all the process of the learning and the norms and all kinds of concepts, then I began to gain confidence and I knew that if I didn't speak and get out what I had then no one would know that I anything to say... but in the end you were right that the way we learn education one can learn any subject, simply one must have the desire and motivation for success.*"

The relationship between the pupils and the mentor had significance for the change because it was a supportive, affectionate, encouraging, trusting relationship together with setting normative and binding demands. A relationship which enabled Cochavit to see learning as a moratorium in which there was room for trial and error. The dialogue in this relationship reflected a relationship in which "what there is" is the starting point for the developing relations.

In the narrative research the word has significance. The word tells a story and therefore Cochavit chose to begin her story with: "*The first thing that came into my mind was all "the heart to heart talks,"* that is to say the "what there is" she calls heart to heart talks between friends, and through the content analysis of her words we can understand that the contents of the dialogue reflected the according of respect and value to her words in every situation, creating in her the feeling that perhaps she was earning appreciation which she was not entitled to, but the perseverance and the consistency, the tools which she had experienced (the notebook, "the evaluation cake") had also enabled her to see "what there was" in her and not only what was "lacking".

Cochavit, after two years of learning, has the feeling that she has internalized a model of behavior which fulfills the notion of leadership. She writes: "*You gave me a task- to be a leader and to lead- of course in a good way, and I think that I did it only this year – with Sivan, Heli and Reut, and for a moment, when I was speaking to them, I would think about you and that I was fulfilling the task and I suddenly felt that I, as it were, was imitating you, or rather transmitting your words, and I am very happy about that.*"

In order to understand what she means when she says that I have influenced... we must add a second order question and to be aided by other sources of knowledge.

As we have written before, for the purposes of this exercise we are only using "Cochavit's Story" for the purpose of future research, there is room to add interviews and analysis of additional documentation in order to draw conclusions regarding the significance of the program beyond this stage of the investigation.

This paper is very limited in its conclusions, containing within it as it does the characteristic limitations of the content analysis of a case study. It is very difficult to separate between the objective feelings which derive from personal involvement and undoubtedly influence the personal description of the process. There is no doubt that the analysis reflects our subjective interaction as a learner researcher and that of Cochavit as a pupil who has undergone a very meaningful experience.

Is this experience a one-time event? Are the characteristics identified in "Cochavit's Story" one-time only? Will the analysis of this action pattern as a lecturer, mentor, and teacher in other classes enable everyone to identify these characteristics also in other, different groups? Are they characterizations which identify a *teacher role pattern*, or can one identify them among other teachers who teach the model? Is it possible to identify characterizations which we can include? These are questions to which we shall seek answers in our doctoral research.

It seems to us that the hermeneutic method which combines narrative interpretative research with action research will contribute to the understanding of processes inside the classroom; it will contribute to understanding the change in role defining; it will contribute to the understanding of the 'spectacles' through which the pupils see the role definitions and the relationship enabling educational growth and development; it will contribute to expanding the dialogue about the range of the possible interpretation between teachers and pupils with regard to the significance of the social situations which are worth preserving and those which have to be improved. The ability to find categories and to process them statistically is liable to influence the ability to develop a valuable model for improving the teaching and learning processes, not only at the micro level but also at the macro level. For this reason we shall be happy to continue on learning and researching on the doctoral program in education.

Conclusions

- The program "Education as a humanistic dialogue" had an impact on three areas: the emotional area, the cognitive area, and the motivational area.
- The tools described for this action: evaluation cake, education notebook, written and verbal dialogue, have an impact on the creation of good feeling, on the internalization of learning norms, on the development of understanding the significance of the definition of the role of the pupil and the role of the teacher.
- The benefit of this educational structure categorized as humanistic dialogue finds expression in two planes: the first: the mentor was given the opportunity to ascribe significance to a humane action (in Keller, Geertz, 1973), significance which gave expression to the flexibility, the professionalism required in situations where one must choose between alternatives relevant to the developing needs. The second plane: the pupil has been given the opportunity to develop according to his needs and abilities.
- In order to realize these interactions one has to institutionalize arrangements in which the written and verbal dialogue will be ritually structured.
- Moratorium is an important element for every pupil, and for the pupil who is in danger of dropping out; the moratorium is the point of departure for learning which enables the development of self-image of a learning pupil, development of a self-image which will influence internalization of the self esteem required for educational growth.

In conclusion, it can be asserted that the "heart to heart talks," as Cochavit described them, created a situation in which the pupil, instead of being swept into "a culture of disturbance" or a "culture of silence," became an active participant in the creation of a rich world of knowledge for herself and for us.

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AN ANALYSIS OF THE DIDACTIC COMPETENCES PROFILE. ROMANIAN PERSPECTIVES AND AN ALTERNATIVE MODEL

ADINA GLAVA, CĂTĂLIN GLAVA

ABSTRACT. The present paper aims at offering a meta-analysis regarding the didactic competences profiles existing in the Romanian field literature. The term didactic competence is analysed in relation to the newly adopted field of quality assurance in education and the new model considers the complexity as well as the dynamicity that the professional profile for the didactic career must integrate. Consequently, an original integrative model organised around action and reflection, the two intrinsic aspects necessary in the effective teaching activity is described.

INHALTSANGABE. Der gegenwärtige Artikel bezweckt einen kurzen Überblick der Meinungen einiger Vertreter der psychoanalytischen Strömung, besonders die von Sigmund Freud und Jacques Lacan, weniger in Rumänien bekannt, betreffend die Möglichkeiten der Sprachentwicklung bei Kindern, zu sein. Später werden diese Erscheinungen im Falle des kindlichen Autismus vereinzelt und nur die Freudianerstrukturen der Sprache behalten, die im Rahmen dieses Syndromes fraglich sind. Hier im sprachwissenschaftlichen Bereich handelt es sich über die sogenannte Verbosität, Mutismus und Halluzination. In Hinblick der Veranschaulichung der behaupteten Sachen, haben wir auch zu einer kurzen Vorlegung eines Falles aus der Fachliteratur gegriffen. Ohne Anspruch einiger endgültigen Aufklärungen in diesem Bereich zu erheben, vertritt der Artikel eine andere Erscheinung betreffend die vorhandenen Sprachfragen im Falle des Autismus.

Schlüsselwörter: Sprache, Bedeutung, Verbosität, Mutismus, Halluzination, Symbolisch, Gestalt, Autismus.

Competence is today the main indicator for the validation of a profession, regardless the activity domain or the status-role achieved along the career (Chiş, V., 2001). *The competence paradigm*, valued especially in the professional training domain, is associated also with the development of the teachers, as in many countries there is a preoccupation for expressing a set of specific competences and, in the same time, for organizing and improving the preparation programs for the didactic career, meant to guarantee the development of those competences. The description of the didactic competence profile and the continuing development of the didactic career are considered key-activities for achieving efficiency in didactic activity and the educational programs, generally.

In fact, the competence paradigm evolves towards this new approach, where **competences represent integrated sets of capacities to obtain performances in a certain domain, by flexible and innovative usage of the cognitive, emotional, psycho-social acquisitions in order to solve problems and, generally, to function efficiently in a context or given role.**

The competences represent an integrated set of knowledge, abilities, attitudes and applying and transfer capacities that create the premises to successfully realize the activities and complex tasks and to function efficiently in a certain context or given role.

Frequently used for the curricular reform, competence was first used in the context of the professional training of teaching staff in America, in the '60s and the '70s, and then assumed in many European countries. It was first defined as the ability to complete a certain activity at the settled standards and then as a structured assembly of knowledge, cognitive, emotional and psycho-social abilities, necessary for the accomplishment of the tasks at the settled standards. The term of didactic competence evolved along with the evolution of the competence term in the manner described above. Thus, didactic competence, a general term for the professional competence profile of the teaching staff, preserves all the characteristics of the competence term mentioned and represents a complex acquisition of learning, with an operational and instrumental value, structured around cognitive and emotional accumulations, being the object of permanent evolution, generated by the integration of practical and theoretical experiences gathered along.

Didactic competence is, thus, a **complex** structure - created at the intersection of to know, to know how to do, to know how to be and to know how to become, along the didactic career (Chiş, V., 2005), including a potential performance in activity - and also a **dynamical** structure, its efficient manifestation being a function of the gathered experience.

The scheme below illustrates this affirmation and allows us to reflect on the fact that achieving professional competence is a result of the integration, in certain operational situations, of individual elements: the premises and personality characteristics, learning experiences and their products. The development of professional competences is a continuous process, due to the evolution of the knowledge sets and the individual abilities and, on the other hand, due to the individual capacity to reorganize the acquisitions in more complex integration sets, depending on the gathered experience. (see scheme 1.1).

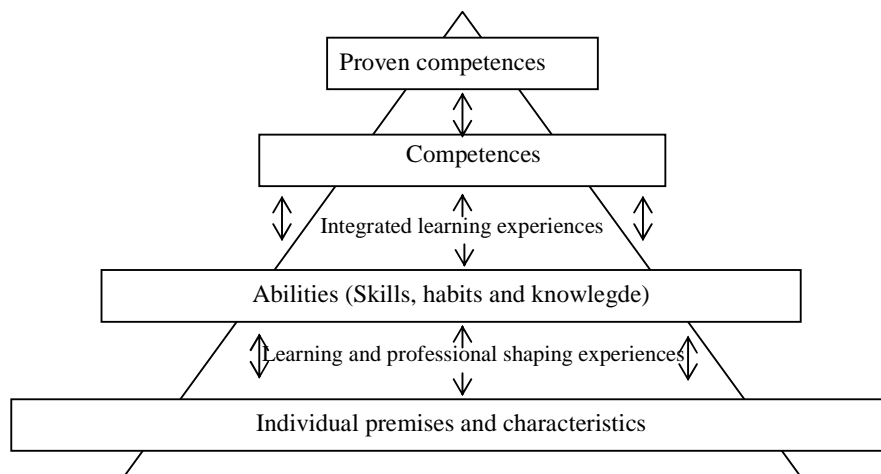


Figure 1. The pyramid of competences development

In its attempt to coherently propagate change, The National Council for the Teacher's Preparation proposed, starting from June 1998, a national programme for the continuous preparation of the teaching staff that aimed two main objectives:

- the preparation of a board of national, county and local trainers through successive phases of selection, professional development and validation;
- the improvement of the didactic activity of the entire professional teaching staff.

The first step for defining the future professional standards was done by the creation of the occupational standards for the educational field and of the domains and the competence units for teaching staff, by the Council of National Standards and Validation (COSA), in 1997, as a response to the Ministry request. The occupational standards were defined as "instruments for the design and development of professional training programs, based on competence" (Newsletter of the Education Ministry, *The use of occupational standards*, 1999, page 11).

The standardization process of professional competences for the didactic career was, as we already mentioned, a preoccupation in the context of defining occupational standards for different professions, in order to develop a useful instrument for the creation of professional training programs, evaluation and certification of didactic activity.

The interest to make a profession out of the didactic career became more coherent in 2000 when the National Council for Teachers' Preparation (CNPP) launched a programme based on the development and strategic implementation of the *National Professional Standards* for teachers. This project was an attempt to define different interests for the reform of the initial and continuous preparation system of the teaching staff, around quality references for the didactic activity, namely professional standards.

The didactic profession's standards were defined in this context as an “assembly of explicit expectations and demands related to the knowledge, abilities and mentalities that must be proven by a teacher in his activity with the students, in order to consider that the teacher is fulfilling his professional duty at a quality level that is accepted by the society” (Gliga, L, 2002, page 64).

Using almost exclusively the concept of professional competences, The National Center of Pre-university Staff Development (CNFP) proposed, in 2002, sets of general and specific competences for all the didactic staff categories. CNFP's activity of building the model of professional competences belongs to the larger context of the same interest shown by the General Department for Education, Continuous Development and Perfecting of the Didactic Staff, in 2001. The Department published the *Strategy for the development of the system for the initial and continuous development of the didactic staff and the managers from the pre-university education, 2001-2004*, for the development of the didactic profession and the strengthening of the didactic profession status.

A comparative analysis of the COSA, CNPP and CNFP models allows us to synthesize the proposal of those institutions, that were, at certain moments, responsible for the creation of the professional standards for the didactic career, in six **main competence fields**, that can be distinguished by the type of the activity:

- Curricular design and the organization of the teaching – learning – evaluation processes
- Class management
- The educational usage of the new technologies
- Students' performance evaluation
- Communication and cooperation
- Continuous professional development

On the other hand, in our vision, placing the interest for describing the domain of professional competence in the context of defining quality references in education allows us to understand the dynamical character of the didactic competence. The relation between the two concepts, quality and competence, is intrinsic.

The didactic competence is, generally, and together with other components, a quality indicator for the educational program. But we can not use a unitary concept for quality, thus, we can not talk about the quality of education as a single concept, but only in relation with:

- **the values** promoted at a certain moment in the society and at the level of the educational institution
- **educational policies and strategies** that exist at a national, regional and local level
- **the present situation**, defined by the contextual and situational factors
- **the evolution of the “quality” concept** (Institute of Educational Sciences, *The Quality Assurance*, 2005)

Thus, the change of the characteristics of any of those concepts implies changes in the way we understand the concept of quality in education and in defining its indicators, thus the change of the quality principles for the activity of the teaching staff.

The multiple perspectives distinguished above, through which the term of didactic competence can be understood, as each has practical and important implications, justifies, in our opinion, the necessity to identify a concept that can illustrate the dynamics and the complexity of the didactic competence term. Thus, the term we propose as a key-concept for the theoretical and experimental analysis, is “didactic competence profile”.

In order to define this concept, as well as its structure and functions, we considered a set of theoretical premises, extracted from the above analysis.

Further, we will present these premises, emphasizing the fact that they represent the basis for our action to build a model for the didactic competence profile:

- Didactic competence is a set of complex acquisitions of learning with an operational, instrumental value, structured around cognitive and emotional accumulations and being the object of re-crystallizations and permanent evolutions, generated by the integration of practical and theoretical experiences gathered along.
- This process of acquisitions, accumulations and continuous reorganizations represents, actually, the process through which the didactic career becomes a profession, action that begins in initial development and continues with the exertion of the profession, by the integration of the direct professional experience and, also, specific actions of continuous development.
- The complex character of the didactic competence is given by the different types of knowledge, abilities, attitudes and values that are integrated as components of an unitary profile
- Didactic activity must be understood as an action that is permanently demanding the teacher to make decisions, reflect, analyze and adapt to the particular context of teaching and learning, creative and flexible approach of the curricular demands, communication with the institutional frame and the community.
- Teaching is a mean to assure relevant learning for the student, a complex process of cognitive, social and personal development for the students, the development of assignable habits, like critical thinking, problem solving, an active context for facilitating active learning, intrinsic motivation, cooperation, knowledge building
- Quality indicators for the didactic activity refer to competence sets that the teaching staff must accomplish:
 - In relationship with themselves: professional development, the use of their own expertise;
 - In relationship with students: the design and the unrolling of didactic activities, the use of the new information technologies and innovative methodologies, the development of learning competences of students
 - In relationship with the colleagues: co-operation, co-elaboration of projects, inter-development;
 - In relationship with the community: co-operation with the community factors for the improvement of the educational program and the usage of community expertise.

- Competent teaching staff must accomplish a first set of demands regarding the professional abilities requested by official professional standards, and a second set of demands, related to the way standards are understood, selected and particularized in the institution, aiming to satisfy the direct and indirect beneficiaries of the educational program.
- Didactic competence has a dynamical character, generated by: the dependence of the way the professional competence profile is understood by 1. Values, policies and educational strategies, the situation at national level, the semantics of the concept of educational quality and the official principles for assuring the quality of education, 2. The dependence of the competences for the way the demands are understood at local level, of the institution that aims to satisfy the beneficiaries of the educational program and 3. The dependence of competence for the demand to face further evolutions of society and knowledge.
- Analyzing the needs and the directions of professional development in the didactic career, the need for building professional standards can be distinguished in the following domains of competence, differentiated by the activity type requested to the teaching staff:
 - Curricular design and organization of the teaching – learning – evaluation processes
 - Class management
 - The educational usage of the new technologies
 - Students’ performance evaluation
 - Communication and cooperation
 - Continuous professional development
- For the guarantee of an efficient insertion of the new technologies of information and communication into the educational program, it is necessary to describe the competences for the use of ICT in the context and in relationship with other components of the didactic competence profile: for example, in an intrinsic relationship with the design and learning management competences
- A specific competence domain is represented by the **reflexive capacity** of the teaching staff, capacity that has the force to assure the premises for the constant development of all the other professional competences. The reflexive teaching professional is engaged in an action cycle where observation and self-observation are followed by interpretation and diagnosis, design, action and evaluation. Such a process, practised by the teacher, represents an indicator of its interest for the professional and personal continuous development.

The synthesis of the premises above allows us to define the *concept of didactic competence profile*: an integrative and flexible assembly of knowledge, abilities, attitudes, values and capacities to apply and transfer them, that creates the premises for the successful accomplishment of roles and duties of the didactic profession, being the object of permanent evolutions, depending on the later practical and reflexive experiences.

Interested by the understanding of the manner in which the didactic competence profile is structured and its functions, we developed a scheme for the development of the professional competence profile, illustrated in the figure below. The references this model offers served as a support for the experimental approach of the didactic competence.

The model of building and developing the professional competence profile proposed by us is structured around two essential attributes of the didactic profession: action and reflection. Those two have as object components of the external environment, the context where the profession is practiced and internal environment too.

Thus, externally oriented action is the didactic activity that implies a certain set of professional competences and student interaction, knowledge domain and the larger context of professional and social community. This interaction implies, at the same time, the design of didactic activities, communication, organizing and leading the learning activity, class management and exceptional situations.

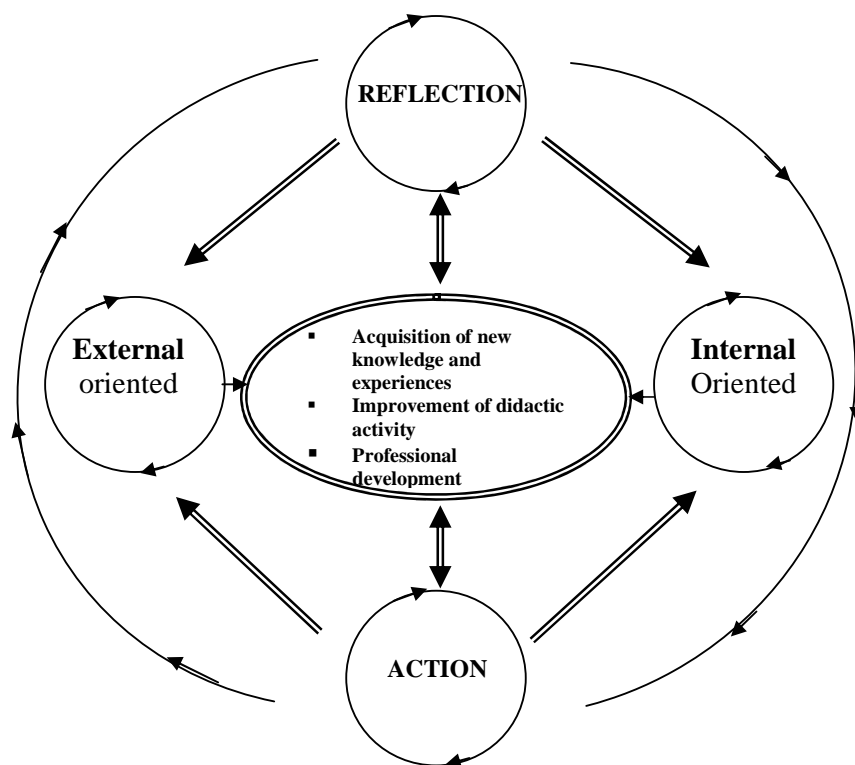


Figure 2. Graphic model of the professional competence profile development

Internally oriented action is, in fact, the action for professional and social development. This action is determined by the teacher's interest for his own professional evolution, by continuous accumulations and for the achievement of the quality indicators of the didactic activity, namely the official professional standards.

In a strong relationship with the action, reflection activity is a component that is present in all the models of describing competences that recognize the paradigms and present trends of educational action. Reflection is considered a key-link of the personal and professional development cycle and it is, presently, imperative, because of the variables that interfere in the defining of any professional process.

In the process of developing the didactic competence, the teaching staff's reflection is orientated external on one hand through the following competences: the efficiency of their own didactic performance, the context characteristics in which takes place the practice of didactic work, the specific and the development needs of the educational programme, the standards of practicing the profession and their explicit and implicit requests. On the other hand, objects of the teacher's reflections must also be the characteristics and the personal mobiles, internal, which are the base of the didactic actions: values, attitudes, the manner and the level of understanding the requests and the external imperatives, the level of professional and personal development and the development purposes for the future.

As we presented earlier, action and reflection are involved into a reciprocal interdependence process, the result of each reciprocal action and interaction determines three professional lines permanently opened:

- the acquisition of new knowledge and abilities;
- the improvement of the didactic services;
- the continuous professional development.

The internal and external orientation of action and reflection creates four domains - I, II, III, IV - of manifestation the didactic competence which imposes general and specific rules apart, and they form what we call the didactic competence profile. The table below illustrates these distributions of competence domains. (see table I.).

The profile of didactic competence developed by us integrates six general domains of competence, under different names, in models of didactic competence national and international, analysed in this chapter, but structured in others manners than the one proposed in this context.

Thus, we grouped the pedagogic competences set which assure the efficiency of the didactic interaction into four categories corresponding to the actional plans of pedagogic intervention that are closely available to the teaching staff: **didactic design, learning guidelines and class management, social interaction, management of his/her own pedagogic career.**

Table I.

The domains of didactic competence and the competences afferent to them

GENERAL DIDACTIC COMPETENCE	mainly Actional	mainly Reflexive				
external orientation	1. Curriculum design competences 2. Interpersonal competences 3. Learning and Classroom Management competences	5. Competences of pedagogic and didactic reflection				
		<table border="1"> <tr> <td>I</td> <td>II</td> </tr> <tr> <td>III</td> <td>IV</td> </tr> </table>	I	II	III	IV
I	II					
III	IV					
internal orientation	4. Carrier management competence	6. Reflection competences about professional and personal development				

We also gave a special attention to the **reflection** competences of the teaching staff, imposed by what we think about the presence in the panel of professional proficiencies for the didactic carrier of CNFP (the most recent official profile of didactic competence) of some underlined references, but without details, on the teacher's manifestation "*of some (self)reflexive behaviours on its own didactic/ pedagogic activities*" (*competences and categories of activities for teachers*, in the Magazine of the National Development of Didactic Staff Centre, no.3, p. 15-16, 2004).

Although the research realized by us is focusing on training the competences of educational utilization of the new information technologies and communication, we avoided the introduction in the model illustrated above referring to the competences of this domain in the general competence category, being convinced that this type of competences must be understood in relation with the others domains of didactic competence. As we will argue in the following chapters of this work, the ICT utilization in the educational contexts must not be a purpose itself, but an efficiency middle of the designing and unfolding the didactic activity. In consequence, the ICT utilisation competence must be analysed in relation with those didactic of design and management of the class.

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CONCERNS OF FACULTY – A SURVEY STUDY

DANA OPRE, MONICA ZAHARIE*

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Diese Arbeit forscht die Vorzüge im Bereich der Berufsentwicklung der Ausbilder für höhere Erziehung. Die Verfassung- und Anerkennungsmethodologie einer Vermessensarbeit wird zusammen mit den Ergebnissen der Analyse der Fakultätsberufsnotwendigkeiten vorgestellt. Unsere Arbeit erlaubt die Identifizierung der Hauptziele, die die Lehrenverbesserung und die Verfassung eines Informationsprofils für die von Ausbildern sehr geschätzten Verbesserungsstrategien leiten. Wir analysierten die Optionen der Personen, die die Fragebogen antworteten, laut vielen Kriterien: dem Disziplinärbereich (Wissenschaften – Sozialwissenschaften), dem didaktischen Grad, der Erfahrung in diesem Bereich, dem Geschlecht, etc. Wir beabsichtigten, die Diagnosedimension unserer Arbeit zu schätzen.

The studies concerning the ways to evaluate and develop the teaching competencies of instructors in higher education are widely discussed in the literature. On this matter, the researchers have elaborated and implemented various models of professional development in the universities and discussed multiple strategies for teaching improvement. It is worth mentioning in this area the studies of Centra (1993), Paulsen and Feldman (1995), Menges (1997), Martin and Lueckenhausen (2005). They all plead for creating a supportive teaching culture in universities. Such an institutional culture is characterized by: clear institutional strategies through which the teaching activity is capitalized, and the teaching performances are properly rewarded; proper procedures for evaluating the teaching activity; appropriate resources (for information and training) for professional improvement. In other words, any institution of higher education must develop coherent evaluation and staff development programs in order to ensure the quality of the teaching staff.

In Romania, the problem of the teaching activity in higher education is an area insufficiently explored. We therefore mention a couple of studies initiated by groups of professors from the university centers of Cluj Napoca, Iasi, Bucharest – “Academic Evaluation” (Miclea & Opre, 2002), “The New Higher Education Paradigm - Client Centered Paradigm” (coord. Bernat & Chis, 2003), “Higher Education” (Vintanu, 2001). Through their conclusions, all these studies firmly maintain the need for developing a Romanian culture for teaching in higher education, offering at the same

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time a solid theoretical substantiation in the area. Continuing this research line would certainly have a major impact on the development of postsecondary teaching practicum at both a national and international level.

Starting from this premise, we believe that the development of particular programs that are intended to form and develop the teaching competencies of the teaching staff in the Romanian universities and, implicitly, to increase the quality of the faculty, becomes a stringent need (Opre & Opre, 2005). We also consider that the proper understanding of professional development concerns and goals of faculty (Evans & Chauvin, 1993; Eleser & Chauvin, 1998) plays a very important part in the developing of efficient programs for enhancing teaching effectiveness. In this regard, for a better identification of the professional targets that are important to faculty and the specific activities they consider useful for the accomplish their goals, we developed a surveying study. A questionnaire for collecting the instructor's professional priorities was distributed in a Romanian university (Babes – Bolyai University in Cluj – Napoca). Similar methods are used in different American universities as a first step in establishing or refining campus-wide faculty development programs (see Eleser & Chauvin, 1998). This approach offers a guarantee that the institution's funds and resources are used efficiently and meet the needs and expectations of faculty.

Methodology

The questionnaire (appendix 1) is structured on three parts. In the first part (A) the questionnaire has a set of 17 items containing relevant purposes for the professional development of faculty; the answer scale is Likert type, and the subjects were asked to appreciate the importance of every of the presented purposes for their professional development. Afterwards the subjects were asked to classify the first five purposes according to their importance / relevance for the professional development. The second part (B) contains a series of activities that have been used for achieving the targets from the A category. The questionnaire contains 21 modalities of achieving the professional targets, from which the subjects were asked to choose maximum 10 of them, that is, the ones which they consider to be more relevant for the final purpose. So on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 means unnecessary and 5 means very necessary, the subjects have chosen a set of modalities useful for the improvement of the teaching activity. In the third part (C), the instructor was asked a series of socio – demographic data such as age, gender, didactic degree, teaching in higher education experience, specialization, involvement / detachment in administrative positions. These data can offer extremely important information for the interpretation and the analysis of results.

The content of the questionnaire (goals, the appropriate activities) was developed in several stages. Firstly, on the basis of an analysis of recent results in literature (Eleser & Chauvin, 1998; Koch, 2002; Pittas, 2000) a semi-structured

interview guide was elaborated. Subsequently 8 exploratory interviews were carried out with university teachers, situated in different moments of their professional development/teaching careers (from PhD students to university professors). The interview guide was structured on 6 themes that approached: (1) the aspects of their teaching activity that presently preoccupied the respondents most intensely; (2) the short- and long-term goals regarding their professional evolution; (3) the dimensions of their professional activity that can be improved; (4) the professional development strategies used by the teachers and (5) the professional development strategies considered to be desirable by the respondents; (6) difficulties encountered throughout the evolution of their teaching career. Consequently to the processing of the data obtained from the exploratory interviews, together with a team of experts (3 psychologists, a sociologist and an education expert), we elaborated the final form of the questionnaire.

Subjects

The questionnaire was distributed to a number of 900 instructors. a number of 311 questionnaires was filled, which represents a response rate of almost 31% . As to the socio – demographic features of the sample / subjects subjected to this research, we must say that this one contains a total of 311 members of the university instructors from whom we have 154 men and 157 women with an average of 40,29 years old. According to their didactic degree the sample contains 13 tutorials (4,6%); 81 assistants (28,5%); 80 lecturers (28,2%); 54 PhD. Lecturers (19%); 56 professors (19,7%), having an university didactic experience from 1 to 45 years. 15, 2% of all of them were in a leading position during the study.

Results and conclusions

Table 1.1. presents the priority assigned by faculty to each goal presented in the questionnaire.

Table 1.1.

Results of faculty responses ranking the importance of professional development goals

Professional development targets	Unim- portant	Less impor- tant	Medium impor- tant	Importa nt	Very impor- tant	Status / Grade
1. My participation to as many external scientific tours as possible	0,7%	1,1%	10,2%	38,2%	49,8%	VII (88 %)
2. My participation to as many external didactic tours as possible	1,8%	2,5%	21,2%	40,3%	34,3%	XII (74, 6 %)

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3. The improvement of my didactic abilities	0,4%	1,4%	8,6%	27,5%	62,1%	IV (89, 6 %)
4. The improvement of my abilities of publication / presentation of the scientific research results	0,4%	1,1%	7,1%	32%	59,4%	II (91, 4 %)
5. The stimulation and the maintenance of my enthusiasm for teaching	1,1%		11,3 %	30%	57,6%	VIII (87, 6 %)
6. The increase of my scientific productivity	0,7%	1,1%	9,6%	37,0%	51,6%	V (88, 6 %)
7. The improvement of my research abilities		1,1%	10,4 %	34,4%	54,1%	VI (88, 5 %)
8. The improvement of my abilities for the elaboration and the management of grants	0,7%	4,6%	20,3 %	41,6%	32,7%	XIII (74, 3 %)
9. The elaborated knowledge of my own discipline direction	0,4%	1,4%	4,2%	21,6%	72,4%	I (94 %)
10. The development of the expertise / analysis in my field expertise /	2,5%	2,5%	10,0 %	37,7%	47,3%	IX (85 %)
11. The development of my professional relations with practioners that are in my field	0,4%	1,8%	7,5%	41,3%	49,1%	III (90, 4 %)
12. The increase / augmentation of communication with colleagues (experience, results, problems, ideas) regarding the scientific research activity		0,4%	12,1 %	39,0%	48,6%	VIII (87, 6 %)
13. The augmentation of my communication with colleagues (ideas, experience, results, problems) regarding the didactic activity	0,7%	2,1%	13,8 %	43,3%	40,1%	X (84, 4 %)
14. The improvement of my management abilities	4,0%	9,0%	35,0 %	36,5%	15,5%	XV (52 %)
15. My professional promotion inside the university	2,9%	3,6%	18,3 %	42,4%	32,7%	XI (75, 1 %)
16. The acquirement of a superior didactic position inside the university	13,9%	4,2%	14,8 %	35,4%	31,6%	XIV (67, 1 %)
17. My promotion on a leading position	28,1%	24,4%	32,2 %	10,0%	5,2%	XVI (15, 2 %)

On the whole, the instructors that participated in the study consider that targets such as the elaborated knowledge of their own professional direction, the improvement of their presentation abilities of scientific research results, the improvement of their teaching abilities, the stimulation and the maintenance of their enthusiasm towards teaching, the development of their professional relations with practitioners from their field, the augmentation of their scientific productivity are the most important targets to achieve for them and for their own professional development.

Taking into account the different grouping demographic criteria of the subjects – the didactic degree, sex, didactic experience we could identify a set of differences between the subjects regarding their preference for a target or another. So according to the didactic experience of the subjects (university teaching years) we can observe an increase of the attention paid to the development of interaction abilities with colleagues and practitioners from their field and we also noticed a relative importance decrease for the development of the management abilities. These conclusions are based on the data obtained by use of the analysis of variance (ANOVA). So we can notice some differences between the subjects interested in targets such as the improvement of interaction abilities with colleagues and practitioners in the field ($F=1,57$, $p< 0,05$) and those interested in targets regarding the development of management abilities ($F= 1,81$, $p< 0,05$). The result is confirmed by the value and by the sign of the correlation coefficient that was established between the number of years of experience and the importance paid / given to the management targets - which is a negative one $r = - .15$ ($p< 0,05$).

According to the didactic degree, the variance analysis (ANOVA) shows us that there are no significant differences regarding the instructor preference for the 5 categories of identified targets (inside every differential dimension there are no significant differences among the categories of subjects having different didactic degrees). According to the sex of the subjects we notice differences between men and women regarding the targets connected to the research abilities ($F= 4.65$, $p< 0.05$) and the teaching abilities ($F= 6.1$, $p< 0.05$). So women consider the targets related to the research abilities as very important (average 4,50), but also those related to the teaching activities (average 4,53), compared to men who pay a medium attention of $m = 4,35$, $m = 4,37$ respectively for both categories.

In table 1. 2. we present the results of interviewing the faculty regarding the importance of the activities needing to be developed for teaching improvement.

As we can notice, the data in table 1. 2. show us that 73.8% of the subjects consider that the lectures regarding the efficient strategies of motivating students are necessary and very necessary; 70.6% of the subjects consider the lectures regarding the efficient teaching methods as being necessary and very necessary; 67.9% of the subjects appreciate in the same manner the lectures regarding the features of efficient teaching; and 68.4% consider the lectures regarding the improvement of communication abilities as being necessary and very necessary. In appreciating the importance of the modalities for teaching improvement there are no significant differences between subjects having different didactic degrees.

Table 1.2.**The teaching development preferred activities by faculty staff**

Types of activities	Unim- portant	Less impor- tant	Medi um impor tant	Impo rtant	Very impor tant	Status / Grade
1.Seminaries regarding the use of multimedia equipments in teaching	10,9 %	18,1 %	17,4 %	30,8 %	22,8 %	VII (53, 6 %)
2. Seminaries regarding lecture organization and design	5,2 %	14,2 %	23,9 %	38,4 %	18,3 %	VI (56, 7 %)
3. Seminaries regarding motivational strategies for learning	3,2 %	5,7 %	17,2 %	31,5 %	42,3 %	I (73, 8 %)
4. Seminaries regarding the features of efficient teaching (lecture organization and clarity)	5,8 %	8,0 %	18,2 %	34,3 %	33,6 %	III (67, 9 %)
5. Consulting regarding the interpretation and the use of the students' rating form results	5,5 %	10,2 %	33,6 %	35,8 %	15%	VIII (50, 8 %)
6. Seminaries regarding efficient methods of student learning	3,6 %	9,7 %	18,7 %	40,6 %	27,3 %	III (67, 9 %)
7. Seminaries regarding efficient teaching strategies (cooperation learning, problem solving, active learning methods)	5,7 %	5,7 %	17,9 %	30,5 %	40,1 %	II (70, 6 %)
8. Seminaries regarding the assessment of teaching progress	5,3 %	6,0 %	2,4 %	40,6 %	26,3 %	IV (66, 9 %)
9. Seminaries regarding the improvement of communication abilities	5,1 %	8,3 %	18,1 %	30,5 %	32,3 %	V (62, 8%)

General conclusions

Based on the data above we may certainly say that the interest towards his/her own teaching improvement represents a major priority for every surveyed instructor.

The data extracted from the analysis of the answers indicate that in the case of the surveyed instructors, the improvement of their own teaching activity is a very important purpose from their professional development. The results could look somewhat surprising considering that in Romanian universities, unlike the

ones from the Western states, the quality of the teaching performance is not a criterion that is employed in the procedure of promotion in the university hierarchy. Yet, in the context of the university studies becoming mass ones, the increase of the numbers of students in a series/group involves a more sustained effort of teaching/conducting seminars than in the elitist learning. Also, the teaching activity has become extremely diversified, comprising the preparation and teaching of the courses, evaluation of students, consultancy offered to them and, by no means lastly, as we have seen here, improvement activities. Practically, approximately 50 % of the total activities of a university teacher is occupied by teaching activities (Smith, 1991; Hiebert, Gallimore & Stigler, 2002). Also, studies in the field show that the satisfaction of university teachers depends much more on their relations with their students than on their own publications (Centra, 1993). Therefore, it is a clear fact that the preoccupation for the development of expertise in the teaching domain is stimulated and sustained for numerous and diverse reasons. The results are even more relevant, as it is a known fact that the effort put with the purpose of teaching improvement is not adequately rewarded on a financial side. On the basis of the data presented above, we can firmly state that the preoccupation for the personal improvement in the teaching field constitutes one of the main priorities at the level of all teaching categories. After identifying what these needs are exactly, we can elaborate focused programs, thus ensuring the active involvement of teachers in their own professional formation and development. Also, in this way, we can ensure an adequate and responsible distribution of the funds a university is disposed to invest in programs of teaching improvement and assurance of the quality of teaching.

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POSSIBILITIES OF IMPROVING STUDENT'S SELF-STUDY. PROJECTING EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATIONS

DANA JUCAN

ABSTRACT. This article show the optimisations possibilities of individual study for students. We have undergone a research action for determining the importance the students bestow on self-study, whether they have information about self-study planning, organizing, and how it carries on; the methods of realizing a self-study, the self-study strategies the students are using, the techniques for taking notes, identifying the way the students are studying individually. After this action we have noticed that students' successful results depend on an efficient self-study based on practicing the intellectual activity strategies. Among these intellectual activity strategies we would mention the importance of taking notes; a precise, serious and selective putting down of essential points, key words. All these factors facilitate student's self-study and it automatically leads to his successful results.

I. Preliminary considerations

In a contemporary society, a prospective intellectual style of work is considered to be extremely useful. It experiences modern, rapid and efficient intellectual activity methods and techniques, depending on the personality profile in order to successfully respond to the opportunities appeared within everyone's personal development.

In addition to that, in the contemporary society we are currently dealing with an information volume that is exponentially growing this is the reason why self-study is particularly important. Although this term and its meaning seem out-of-date, we strongly sustain its importance in everyone's personal development. Compared to the ideal everyone has in life, the importance of self-study is increasing. Accomplishing the goal or the objectives each person settles primarily depends on the seriousness of the self-study.

Self-study is knowledge (re)constructing activity of finding creative original solutions of practicing reflexive critical thought. There is a tendency nowadays towards turning self-study into a transverse ability that implies complex activities of storing and processing information as innovation and creativity sources. Self-study implies personal cognitive and metacognitive reflections, self-knowledge, self-directing and self-control.

We have undergone a research action for determining the importance the students bestow on self-study, whether they have information about self-study planning, organizing, and how it carries on; the methods of realizing a self-study,

the self-study strategies the students are using, the techniques for taking notes, identifying the way the students are studying individually. After this action we have noticed that students' successful results depend on an efficient self-study based on practicing the intellectual activity strategies. Among these intellectual activity strategies we would mention the importance of taking notes; a precise, serious and selective putting down of essential points, key words. All these factors facilitate student's self-study and it automatically leads to his successful results.

We judge that note-taking at courses considerably influences how self-study goes on. This is the reason why we consider that our intervention directions should focus on organizing and seriously planning activities for students' self-study and especially on knowing and practicing modern and efficient strategies of intellectual activity. In our opinion correct note-taking – by using modern techniques – leads to an efficient self-study and implicitly leads to students' performance increase.

The research on the specific possibilities of optimizing self-study is based on, as it is specified above, information and theories taken from the specialized literature and the data to be collected personally after the observation stage.

We would like to mention that those theoretical premises would be taken into account, which proves to be relevant in the framework of our country's educational reality and which will be confirmed by the data collected as result of the observation investigation.

Moreover, the whole experimental approach will be designed closely connected to the assumed theoretical premises, and the hypothesis was elaborated so that it reflects on one hand the content of these premises and on the other hand to allow the elaboration of an efficient and relevant experimental design.

We are accurately and briefly presenting further on the main theoretical premises representing the base of the experimental approach:

- The student, according to the principles of modern didactics, is not a simple object of education but its conscious subject, deeply involved in the evolving self changeament process by the means of school preparation;
- The staff has an ultimate contribution to the orientation of students' self-study;
- Within the educative process, the staff makes students familiar with the most accessible study and research methods, depending on their age characteristics, finds and applies these methods during courses and seminars;
- The assimilation of scientifically approved intellectual activity strategies is extremely relevant, due to the fact that once they have been assimilated and consolidated they become productive for the future development of the person;
- Nowadays it is essential that students develop a prospective (anticipating, predictive) intellectual activity style capable of experiencing modern, rapid and efficient intellectual activity methods and techniques, depending on the personality profile in order to successfully respond to the opportunities appeared within everyone's personal development;

- The intellectual activity particularly implies that students practice the information and knowledge analysis, arrangement, classification, combination, interpretation and development strategies, the permanent practice of creative strategies in solutionning learning responsibilities;
- Self-study as independent activity depending on the intellectual activity style, is playing a great part in elaborating operational strategies particularly focused on self-study organizing and planning activities;
- An efficient self-study implies different intellectual activity techniques: note-taking, explicative reading;
- Note-taking is a process that implies several stages, and the teaching staff part is to make students familiar with each stage importance using precise indications;
- The practical-applicative valencies that came from the use of modern techniques related to note-taking (the Cornell system and the Simple Plan method) have to be utilized.

II. Hypothesis and the research objectives

The experiment organization and progress will rely on the theoretical premises synthesis, which allowed us elaborating the general and specific work hypothesis and identifying the dependent and independent variables of the experimental approach. The main objective we are taking the responsibility for in the present paper is to establish in what way introducing some modern intellectual activity techniques and especially note-taking techniques can play a great part in improving self-study and consequently the school performances' increase.

In the synthesis, the general hypothesis (Ig) from which we will start our investigation is the following: **The students' school performance mainly relies on the quality of self-study, respectively on the intellectual activity techniques and on the note-taking techniques.**

The theoretical premises synthesis also allowed outlining some specific hypothesis:

- Is 1 – the efficiency of teaching some intellectual activity strategies depends on:
- The flexible formalization of note-taking approach during (oral, written) trainings
 - The introduction of note-taking modern techniques: the Cornell system and the Simple Plan method (Outlining)
- Is 2 – the creative and personalized utilization of trainings in note-taking determines positive effects in two ways:
- In making self-study efficient by time and effort decrease and by information retention increase
 - In performance (pupils' school efficiency increase)

Both approaches of the research we are making will be found in an unitary approach in the research project and will need, we think, a range of observations and different experimental approaches.

During the investigation we are starting from the following research objectives:

1. To seize the actual situation regarding the improvement concerns of students' self-study;
2. To identify the teaching-learning situations with potential of using the different approaches of new note-taking techniques by analysing the teaching behaviours of the teachers included in the experiment;
3. To analyse the students' and teachers' opinions regarding self-study and the improvement conditions of this process;
4. To design, develop and coordinate the teaching activities where the clear involvement of intellectual activity strategies and new ways of approaching note-taking techniques to represent a pre-established objective;
5. To use some adequate techniques and instruments in order to objectively establish students' progress in utilizing the note-taking techniques also in self-study in general;
6. To proportionally implement both the implicit and the explicit ways of acquiring note-taking techniques during seminars;
7. To analyse the relationship between the school results and self-study of students included in the project by studying activity products;
8. To analyse the relationship between the school results and the utilization of intellectual work strategies and implicitly of note-taking techniques by: quantitative and qualitative analysis of students' results at tests;
9. To structure a unitary formative programme capable of rendering the complexity of note-taking process and that can be applied in different study situations.

III. Research variables and sampling of content and subjects

As it results from the hypothesis synthesis, during the proposed investigative approach we will test the general and specific hypothesis working on the following independent variables (VI):

VI. 1. – The teacher flexibly formalizes the note-taking approach, respectively mentions the rules and steps;

VI. 2. – The pupils utilize the instruction manual and note-taking techniques such as Cornell system and Simple Plan method for structuring the information.

Dependent variables (DV) will certainly be:

- School performance (VD1);
- Time and effort needed for an efficient self-study as well as for the retention of the acquired information (VD 2).

Due to the complexity of the studied issue and the number of independent variables, we will have to bestow greater attention in order to organize and link, in a unitary and coherent experimental approach. This is the reason why we consider that a hierarchy of these variables is useful and even necessary, the criteria being the capacity of including the moments when each of those will be taken into consideration as well. Therefore, the general experimental frame will be assured by utilizing new note-taking techniques, especially Cornell system and Simple Plan method during seminars. We have chosen Cornell system because it facilitates the involvement of the person who is noting in the content, simultaneously with hearing and memorizing it, it organizes and structures the information with a view to further decodes and revise it. We have chosen the Simple Plan method because it can be successfully used in all subjects having the advantage of structuring the information and facilitating its revision. We consider that choosing these techniques that suppose mainly the information structuring, will lead to making self-study efficient and implicitly to school performance increase.

Therefore the other variables will be applied, each of them in different moments. The utilization of these techniques will represent a main activity. The other approaches, such as the applying the training-acquired knowledge, specifying and respecting the note-taking steps, will be initiated according to each learning situation demands.

The research we are carrying on is part of the selective investigation category, solution imposed on one hand because the complete investigation of school population is impossible and on the other hand because the unanimously shared finding according to which the selective research within social- human field are superior in the knowledge plan of researched phenomena (Rotaru, T.,1999). The results of any selective experimental approach can be extrapolated to the whole population involved in the research providing the population and the content sampling is a representative one meaning to precisely and accurately reproduce the structure and characteristics of the whole submitted to sampling operation.

3.1. Description of the content and subjects sample

The independent variables we suggested to work on being given, as well as the demands of the particular experimental frame we described above, we consider that it is necessary that the experimental approach we proposed to be carried on during seminars at the subject called Theory and methodology of training and evaluation, the 1st semester of the second university year of students registered at pedagogic module. Within the selected subject, the selection of units will be done so that the selected themes allow taking notes according to the proposed techniques.

One of the most important issues in designing an experimental research is that of sampling or selecting. Thus, sampling the investigated population follows the sequence of elaborating the hypothesis, which is the base of experiment design.

Consequently, special attention was bestowed to sampling, well-known being the fact that the success of any experimental approach mostly depends on the precision, strictness and accuracy of the sampling operation.

We are further on presenting the data concerning the way population sampling is done.

The investigated population sampling is based on the stratification procedure, the student group being the main stratification element. Carrying on the pedagogical experiment within the natural university environment, which is organized in normal-compound groups, was considered to be the optimum place.

Considering the fact that the group organization is based on aleatory factors, we think that the representativity of the student groups selected through study and implicitly the possibility of spreading the good results obtained will be assured in this way. Consequently, the whole experimental approach will be based on sampling work on independent groups (student groups), as they are constituted in the respective faculties.

The selection of experimental and controlling groups will be based on direct observation, conversation and interviews.

We will work with independent samples of subjects from the second year at the Faculty of Letters, Faculty of History, Faculty of Philosophy, and Faculty of Psychology. We consider important that all subjects involved in the research have the same age, because their learning experience and maturity, their cognitive and social-emotional development is similar.

IV. Stages and methods used in the research

The investigative approaches included in our research will be organized and structured in the four classical stages of a psycho-pedagogic experiment, shortly described in the table bellow:

Pre-test	Experiment	Post-test	Retest
Finding research, which indicates the starting data. Sampling, settling the experienced and control groups	The so-called formative experiment development at experienced groups.	The quantitative and qualitative comparative analysis of results between the experiment and control groups right after finalizing the experiment	The quantitative and qualitative comparative analysis of results between the experiment and control groups, not at the same time, in order to test the hypothesis at the distance.

4.1 The observation stage

The pre-test stage

In this stage we suggest to approach two different directions:

1. The actual situation analysis regarding both the concerns of improving self-study and being aware of the importance of self-study in elementary school performances' increase
2. Studying human samples in order to stratify them according to correlation criteria between school general results and the way self-study and note-taking are carried on at those subjects involved in the experiment

Consequently, we are suggesting the following **operational objectives** for this research stage:

- To analyse the current educational methods in order to identify teaching-learning situations where new techniques in note-taking could be used;
- To critically analyse the curricular offer at the subject involved in the research, by studying the curricular documents in order to identify the concerns for making self-study efficient;
- To identify both the students' and the teaching staff's opinions about the features of an efficient self-study;
- To settle the statistical comparative degree between the experimental and the control groups regarding next criteria: the elementary school performance level and the school discipline involved.

In order to carry out the above-mentioned objectives we will use the *questionnaire* and the *interview*, the *observation method*, the *research of curricular documents method* and of other school documents, the *analysis of students' activity related products*.

4.2 The formative experiment stage

The formative experiment stage will start by applying independent variables to experimental groups. During teaching-learning activities at the mentioned subjects teachers clearly present the rules of note-taking corresponding to a training. It is also necessary to specify the stages of note-taking process and the charges implied in every stage. New techniques in note-taking are presented: the Cornell system and the Simple Plan method. The reason we have chosen these two techniques was because they make this operation become an active and conscious process. Therefore, the active information reception and its structure lead to a higher comprehension level and consequently to the retention accuracy increase.

We are then passing on to experimenting the requests imposed by the training, to comply with the charges imposed by every stage by utilizing both note-taking techniques mentioned above.

The operational objectives, which are directing our investigation during this stage, are:

- To organize and coordinate the activities in progress that will support and will make the use of note-taking techniques easier;
- To mediate teaching activity of the staff involved in the experiment;
- To guaranty the teaching activities' internal cohesion and their compatibility to the general and specific requirements of the curriculum;
- To evaluate during the experiment the efficiency of the independent variables.

4.3. The post-test stage and the retest

The post-test stage consists in evaluating to what extent the note-taking techniques play a part in making self-study efficient by decreasing the time and the necessary effort and the extent it contributes to the students' school performance increase. Therefore, in order to find the school performance level at both the control and experimental groups we will analyse the school results taken at the subject involved in the experiment and then we will link the data to the utilization of note-taking techniques in an efficient self-study. The additional data for supporting this correlation will be obtained by analysing the students' activity related products.

Observing the students during their self-study, the moment they are accessing their notes taken from school by using the two above-mentioned techniques, this is the hypothesis distance testing. We are thus seeing to what extent the retained information is kept in time, whether it is transferable or it is keeping its efficiency.

Corroborating the data obtained during both the post-test and the retest stage will allow weather the pre-established hypothesis is valid or not confirmed. The theoretical investigation approach and the practical findings we have started with in organizing the experimental approach make us optimistic about the working hypothesis validation.

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L'IMPORTANCE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT DIFFERENCIE DANS LE PROCES ENSEIGNMENT- ETUDE DANS LE DOMAINE SCIENTIFIQUE

ADRIENNE KOZAN NAUMESCU, CONSTANTIN COSMA

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. In einem modernen didaktischen Prozess müssen die Kinder das Fachwissen unter der Leitung des Professors aufbauen.

Die Wichtigkeit die Besonderheiten jedes Schülers zu wissen wird vorgestellt. Das Gehalt des Unterrichts muss der geistigen Fähigkeiten des Schülers angepasst werden. Die Arbeit betont in diesem Zusammenhang die Wichtigkeit der Verarbeitung des Wissenschaftsinhaltes um mit den psychologischen Mitteln der Klasse während des Lehrprozesses jedes Faches einzustimmen.

Die Kriterien, an welche die Einstellungsarbeiten ausgeführt werden, sind sehr wichtig für das lehr -lern Prozess. Konkrete Beispiele aus dem Chemiefach werden aufgeben.

ABSTRACT. In an up-to-date didactic process, the pupils have to "build" the new knowledge, under the "baton" of teacher.

The importance of knowing the individual pupils' peculiarities are illustrated. The content to be taught has to be adapted to the intellectual possibilities of the subjects. In this context, the paper points out the importance of processing the content of science in accordance with the psychological resources of the classroom during the instructional process at the level of any discipline.

The criteria to elaborate the slips are very important for the teaching-learning process. Some concrete examples in chemistry domain are presented.

INTRODUCTION

«L'acte d'enseignement a cessé depuis longtemps d'être un discours tenu de l'hauteur de la chaire», affirme Louis Cros, parce qu'il est le plus souvent un dialogue, mais il s'agit d'un type spécial où le professeur ne doit pas prendre l'initiative, monopoliser le dialogue. Il faut que la question parte de l'élève vers le professeur, en reflétant une curiosité active et non pas une contrainte angoissée.

Il faut que le dialogue professeur – élève soit réalisé comme un échange entre le professeur et tous les élèves, chose qui s'accomplie assez difficilement, car pas tous les élèves ont la même capacité de mémorisation et de mise en pratique des idées, de résoudre correctement et rapidement les problèmes érigés; en conclusion, on ne pense le même ni de point de vue qualitatif, ni quantitatif.

«Là où l'enseignement ne connaît que la forme collective, les pires élèves que les meilleurs sont toujours sacrifiés à la masse d'élèves moyens». Au début on a essayé de résoudre ces différends par l'essai d'homogénéiser les classes, ce que représentait dans le passé la classe idéale, mais au cours des années on a prouvé que l'homogénéité était superficielle. (Naumescu, A 2006)

Les adeptes de l'introduction de l'enseignement différencié à la place de celui de masse montrent que l'organisation toute entière de l'enseignement en fonction de l'âge chronologique des élèves suppose l'existence de capacités intellectuelles semblables chez les élèves, ainsi que la similitude de leurs intérêts et de leurs dispositions, fait que la réalité ne confirme pas. Les classes sont constituées par le groupement accidentel des élèves ayant le même âge et caractérisées par une structure hétérogène en ce qui concerne les aptitudes des élèves. Les classes traditionnelles ne tiennent pas compte des possibilités de chacun. Les conséquences en sont inévitables, les élèves médiocres sont destinés à l'échec scolaire, et les élèves bons au plafonnage, car ils ne mobiliseront pas toutes les ressources psychologiques desquelles ils disposent. (Naumescu, A 2006)

L'IMPORTANCE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT DIFFERENCIE DANS LE PROCES ENSEIGNMENT

L'éducation traditionnelle peut être définie comme un système didactique qui ne permet pas que les aptitudes des élèves apparaissent dans la lumière réelle parce qu'il ne sait pas exploiter la spontanéité et l'initiative. L'enseignement traditionnel n'a pas été conçu pour prendre en considération ces différences entre les élèves, mais plus encore, après la remarque de Pachard: **«l'inhibition de ceux qui se montraient trop intelligents, la stimulation de ceux qui n'étaient trop développés pour la réalisation d'une norme unique».**

Dans la variété des modalités de distinction par des formes d'organisation d'activité didactique, on peut distinguer quelques orientations plus fréquentes:

1. Les classes de niveaux, par le groupement des élèves de même âge en fonction de leurs ressources psychologiques, de leurs aptitudes générales, en se constituant ainsi des collectives homogènes;
2. Les groupes de niveau – des matières dans le milieu des classes hétérogènes;
3. L'enseignement par groupes constitués temporairement;
4. Des certains domaines;
5. Les classes d'aide pour les élèves lents;

Les principes généraux de la pédagogie différencielle imposent l'organisation différenciée des collectives d'élèves comme unités de travail dans le déroulement de l'activité scolaire. Le déroulement des activités différenciées totalement où partiellement va conduire à l'élévation du rendement scolaire et à l'empêchement de l'échec scolaire. (Naumescu, A. 1997)

Lois Legrand considère qu'on puisse distinguer quatre types d'activités:

1. **le travail collectif**, l'accent étant mis sur la transmission des informations qui doivent être assimilées par les élèves, les sources principales d'informations étant le professeur et le manuel

2. **l'activité par groupes**, basée sur la formation de groupements plus restreints que les collectives de classe, plus souvent à caractère homogène; leur nécessité est motivée par l'existence des différences plus accentuées entre les élèves en ce qui concerne des disciplines comme les mathématiques, la physique, la chimie, les langues étrangères; ici s'impose l'organisation des quelques activités d'enseignement différenciées de point de vue de la quantité, de la qualité et du rythme de travail

3. **l'activité par équipes** diffère de l'activité par groupes parce que le critère de formation n'est plus le niveau intellectuel, ni les performances scolaires, mais les préférences des élèves pour un certain genre d'activité; par conséquence, le groupe peut être hétérogène de point de vue des compétences

4. **l'activité individuelle** est l'accomplissement de chaque élève, indépendamment de ses collègues, d'une tâche scolaire.

Chaque groupe vit et apprend en «communauté», en s'organisant en équipes de travail pour diverses activités. La vraie forme organisatorique est le «groupe» ou les «équipes» et non pas la classe dans le sens qu'elle a dans l'organisation de l'activité didactique.

Dans les classes hétérogènes, la différenciation par groupes de niveau part de diverses performances des élèves aux différentes disciplines, vu que pour le traitement différencié des élèves ne soit suffisant que ceux-ci soient groupés en fonction de leur aptitudes générales, qu'ils progressent dans le même rythme conformément à une mesure unique, mais qu'on prend en considération leurs aptitudes pour divers domaines et disciplines. Ainsi, Montaigne souligne-t-il la nécessité de «**déceler le comportement intellectuel en toutes ses manifestations et en toute sa variété et d'apprécier le niveau de maturité des élèves en chacun d'eux**» (Mih, M.,2001)

Vu que presque tous les professeurs travaillent avec des classes hétérogènes dans lesquelles il y a des différences sensibles entre les élèves de point de vue de la vitesse d'assimilation des connaissances, du pouvoir de compréhension, de la capacité de travail, ce que détermine dans la plupart des cas, le placement du procès enseignement – étude à un niveau moyen; on recommande la distribution des élèves d'une classe en groupes qui travaillent différenciellement.

Le modèle consiste dans la formation dans le milieu des classes hétérogènes des groupes d'élèves qui, à certaines disciplines, ont des aptitudes rapprochées et obtiennent des résultats rapprochés. Le principe après lequel les élèves sont groupés n'est pas leur moyenne générale, ni le coefficient d'intelligence, mais le comportement de chacun au milieu de la matière respective. Ainsi, l'un et le même élève peut être distribué pour diverses disciplines en groupes de niveau différent conformément à ses aptitudes.

La technique d'organisation des groupes de niveau présente certaines particularités:

- les niveaux, en nombre de deux ou trois, sont établis en fonction du nombre d'élèves et de différences de niveau d'entre eux;
- l'enseignement de la discipline se fait en même temps à toutes les groupes, en utilisant pour chacun des moyens didactiques et des rythmes différents;
- les activités d'enseignement ne se déroulent pas toutes différemment;
- l'appartenance des élèves aux divers groupes est doublée par la mobilité, ainsi qu'à la fin du semestre ou au début de l'année d'étude les élèves puissent passer à un groupe supérieure ou inférieure; le passage se fait à la demande de l'élève ou à la recommandation du professeur. (Chis, V.2001)

Les techniques de différenciation des activités d'enseignement répondent aux différences qui se manifestent dans la conduite scolaire des élèves. Après les observations de Goodlad, quelques situations où se manifestent les différences entre les élèves prennent naissance:

- les élèves de même âge biologique n'ont pas tous les mêmes aptitudes pour l'étude;
- le rythme d'étude diffère aux enfants de même âge, appartenant au même programme d'enseignement;
- le niveau de compréhension des phénomènes étudiés est différent: certains élèves ont la capacité de les approfondir, d'autres se limitent à une analyse superficielle;
- la capacité d'étude et, par conséquent, les résultats de chaque élève sont différents aux matières d'enseignement différentes: la pratique montre que certains élèves, surtout les filles, ont des inclinaisons pour le côté humaniste, en temps que d'autres, surtout les garçons, vers les sciences exactes (réels).

Le professeur de chimie adoptera les principes généraux qui sont à la base de la méthode d'enseignement différencié, mais il va les appliquer en concordance avec la personnalité et les ressources psychologiques de la classe. (Pacurar, D.C.2001),

L'utilisation de la méthode enseignement – étude différenciée avec la classe impose:

- la connaissance des particularités individuelles des élèves par la suite de leur comportement et de leur résultats à l'étude pendant une période de temps plus longue;
- la vérification des préreprésentations détenues par les élèves;
- la réflexion sur les types d'activités qui peuvent être organisées différemment et la familiarisation des élèves à ce style de travail;
- l'organisation de la classe pour l'application du système de travail différencié (la formation des groupes de niveau différent, permanentes, temporaires ou mobiles, en fonction de son évolution).

Le climat de l'activité différenciée s'assure par une motivation bien définie, basée sur:

- la présentation différenciée des tâches de travail permet à chaque élève de travailler après ses possibilités;
- en mettant l'accent sur l'étude des leçons en classe, on évite la surcharge des élèves avec des devoirs à la maison;
- les élèves vont être aidés pour obtenir des résultats conformément à leurs possibilités. (GIORDAN, André, 1996),

L'avantage de l'enseignement différencié réside en l'obtention de bonnes performances par tous les élèves, bien qu'aux niveaux différents. Par ce type d'enseignement on attribue des opportunités agrandies tant aux «sommets», les élèves avec des performances scolaires élevées, qui participent aux concours et aux olympiades scolaires, mais aussi aux ceux avec des déficiences d'étude, étant une modalité de réduction de l'échec scolaire et de l'incidence du redoublement de la classe. De plus, si le professeur fait preuve du tact pédagogique et n'offense pas la personnalité des élèves, cette activité peut être mobilisante pour promouvoir dans un groupe supérieur, l'activité différenciée ayant un rôle stimulant. (Naumescu A., Corpodean, C. 2001)

Pendant l'activité didactique le professeur de chimie doit tenir compte du fait qu'il y a plusieurs modalités de différenciation:

1. celle du contenu scientifique en fonction du niveau de complexité et de difficulté des connaissances;
2. celle des activités d'enseignement utilisées (méthodes d'enseignement);
3. celle des épreuves d'évaluation.

A. La différenciation du contenu scientifique est facilitée par l'existence des manuels alternatifs qui, pour la IX^e et la X^e classe contiennent des paragraphes marqués

(avec astérisque, extension, approfondissement, optionnel). Ce contenu peut être parcouru seulement par les élèves du groupe A ou partiellement par ceux du groupe B.

Exemple: IX^e classe

Groupe A	Groupe B
-les procès d'ionisation pour les éléments du groupement: s, p, d, f -les ions positifs. L'énergie d'ionisation. Le caractère électropositif -les ions négatifs. Affinité pour les électrons. Le caractère électronégatif	- les procès d'ionisation pour les éléments s, p - les ions positifs. Le caractère électropositif - les ions négatifs. Le caractère électronégatif

B. La différenciation des méthodes utilisées en fonction des ressources psycho-pédagogiques des groupes d'élèves. L'enseignement formatif met l'accent sur des méthodes activ-participatives, qui entraînent des procès comme la pensée, l'abstractisation, l'association des notions, la particularisation, la créativité, la déduction et moins la mémorisation et la reproduction du contenu. Pour le choix des méthodes on tient compte des objectifs / compétences dérivés mais aussi des ressources psycho-pédagogiques et matérielles. C'est pour cela qu'on recommande pour les élèves de la groupe A l'utilisation de méthodes comme la problématisation, l'investigation, l'algorithme, l'expériment à caractère de recherche, pendant que pour les élèves du groupe B on recommande de méthodes comme la découverte dirigée, l'expériment démonstratif, la méthodique de solutionner les problèmes. (Naumescu, A. & Bocos, M. 2004)

Aussi, la même méthode ayant la même finalité, peut-elle avoir d'implications différentes en fonction de groupe, comme par exemple: le modelage au niveau de la VIII e classe:

Groupe A: modélez la molécule d'acide sulfurique

Groupe B: lequel des modèles suivants rend correctement la molécule d'acide sulfurique

Il y a la possibilité que, dans le cadre de quelques thèmes, l'activité toute entière se déroule différenciellement (50minutes), le professeur concentrant son attention sur les élèves de la groupe B en «dirigeant» leurs activités. L'activité peut se dérouler différenciellement et en étapes plus courtes (10 minutes).

VIII e classe. SUJET: LES ACIDES (50 minutes)

Groupe A	Groupe B
<p>LA DECOUVERTE INDÉPENDANTE</p> <p>(Etude individuel) + modélage</p> <p>Vu les connaissances acquises antérieurement dans les activités d'enseignement (nemetaux, métaux), proposez un schéma qui reflète la réactivité des acides. Vérifiez-le expérimentalement!</p>	<p>LA DECOUVERTE DIRIGÉE</p> <p>Vu les matériels des tables de travail (métaux, HCl, H₂SO₄, HNO₃), des notes antérieures, complétez le schéma suivant:</p> <p>Al + HCl - Al + H₂SO₄ - Fe + HCl - Fe + H₂SO₄ (dil)- Cu + HCl - Cu + H₂SO₄ - Cu + HNO₃ -</p> <p>Pour chaque cas, vérifiez la nature du gaz résulté à l'aide d'une allumette ardente. Complétez le schéma:</p> <p>LA SERIE DES POTENTIELS METAUX H METAUX HYDRACIDES OXYACIDES</p>

VIII e classe. SUJET: ALUMINIUM – UTILISATIONS (10 minutes)

Groupe A	Groupe B
Vu les préreprésentations et les connaissances liées aux propriétés physiques et chimiques de l'aluminium, énumérez ses utilisations, en les motivant par le comportement physique et chimique de celui-ci.	Identifiez les utilisations de l'aluminium de l'image présentée.

Conclusion

Un cadre didactique compétent agit comme un «ressort» sur la classe, il lui est défendu de rejeter les particularités individuelles et de groupe des élèves. Les élèves plus «médiocres» ne tiendront le pas avec les «meilleurs», ainsi dans le meilleur cas ils copieront la solution d'un problème de la table, copieront les conclusions d'un expérience de chimie, etc. Dans le milieu de chaque séquence d'étude, pour développer la personnalité des élèves, chacun est obligé de «travailler», ce que peut être réalisé seulement par **une activité différenciée**. C'est ici qu'intervient «l'art» du professeur d'appliquer cette activité, conformément aux capacités des élèves.

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THE USAGE OF THE PORTFOLIO IN THE DIDACTICAL ACTIVITY AT UNIVERSITY

LILIANA CIASCAI, IOAN CIASCAI

ABSTRACT. The portfolio represents today a working method and an instrument used more and more in the educational practice in our country. Many universities use the portfolio for either for student's evaluation or for institutional decisions. The correct usage of the portfolio method allows the professor and the student to either evaluate or capitalization of the value of student' activity: the perception of the student about his own results, the feeling and the expectations based on his performance, the objectives and future plans etc.

RÉSUMÉ. Le portfolio représente aujourd'hui une méthode et aussi un instrument utilisé de plus en plus dans la pratique éducationnelle. Un grand nombre d'universités utilisent le portfolio pour l'évaluation des étudiants et pour adopter des décisions institutionnelles. L'utilisation correcte de la méthode conduisent les professeurs et les étudiantes á une évaluation plus efficace de l'activité des étudiantes et á une constatation de la valeur de leur résultats: la perception q'un étudiante peuvent avoir concernant ses propres résultats, les sentiments et les désires d'un étudiante, ses objectives et ses plans d'activité etc.

1. Conceptual analysis

For representing a useful instrument for student's activity, the portfolio should be more than a collection of materials/documents. It has to contain results/products selected by the student-author (with or without other people's help) together with the student's observations on those products/results. The products and the observations allow the obtaining of the full view of the research activity of the student. Therefor the portfolio method permits, the professor and the student, an evaluation of the student's activity made on the process and results level and the observation of the educational value of the activity: the perception of the student about his own results, the feelings and the expectations based on his performance, the objectives and future plans, etc.

This field literature shows that there are multiple types of portfolio. In the student's educational practice are used documentation portfolio, activity portfolio and evaluation portfolio. By getting used with the portfolio, the students will be capable of developing correct presentation portfolio after graduation.

2. The typology of the portfolios

Radu (2001, p. 222) considers that there are many portfolio categories: *celebration, development and ability*. On each category's level there are the following purposes: a) the creation of a personal collection of representative products; b) the demonstration of one or more competences development (during a time interval) and c) emphasizing an ability of reaching a competence level in specific field.

In the current didactical practice there are used two big categories of portfolios: learning portfolio and evaluation portfolio. The last category includes the development and competence portfolios mentioned above.

The learning portfolio is made referred to a given theme. It consists of an assembly of documents, materials (from different sources processed or not), templates/examples for good practice and also achievements/results/products of the author concerning the given theme.

There are two types of *learning portfolios*:

- documentation portfolio – made for the reason of bibliographical information-documentation;
- activity portfolio – done by the description of some concrete activities developed by the author and based on the obtained data following these activities.

The evaluation portfolio includes materials or documents accomplished by the author, considered by the author relevant for the evaluation of his improvement during a time interval, based on a given task. It involves the selection of the products evaluated by the student, with/without professor's assistance. Generally, the function of this instrument is the evaluation of a big objectives pattern or specific competence. The evaluation involves each product and the process that the product was obtained. Therefore, the evaluation based on the portfolio it is simultaneously formative, summative and improvement evaluation. The keeping in the portfolio's annexes of all the materials: materials, documentation and papers which reflect the tryout work, the successful and unsuccessful work of the author will show the difficulties and the solutions.

The traditional portfolio consists of a "folder" which contains written documents, photos, and graphics. What it contains samples, models, etc the folder is accompanied by boxes where the specific products are kept.

The electronic portfolio, unlike the traditional one, can include a collection of web documents, discussion forum of the student with other students on a given theme, images, and papers written by the student, spreadsheets in Excel, graphics, Paint/AutoCAD files, processed images, PowerPoint presentations, the description and analysis of some websites and simulation software, etc. done by the student based on the given theme. Also this type of portfolio may have the "boxes" which contains the student's work.

All the rules from above it have to be applied on the electronic portfolio regarding the preparation, elaboration and the presentation of the traditional portfolio.

3. Requirements regarding the portfolio's content

The portfolio method includes (Ciascai, 2006, p.248):

- the portfolio has to contain a limited number of pieces. The maximum number is 12; a too big number of components will make the relevant products selection process harder. When the number of the components is big a products classification may be done and this will be done by the student;
- the professor has to specify the purpose/objective to the student for this to be accomplished by the development of the portfolio and the professor has to be sure that the student understood them correctly;
- the student must assume the realization of the portfolio;
- the portfolio's components has to be accompanied by the student's observations.

A frequent mistake is to mix up the portfolio and an archive that contains all the accomplished products without any selection.

The conclusion from the above is that the portfolio's evaluation may be done in multiple ways, considering the goal of the portfolio: the obtaining of concrete products, the assimilation of some cognitive processes, methods and work techniques, the development of some given competences respective all the results. Therefore, an oriented evaluation may be done on:

- the portfolio's components, using the methods and the proper evaluation instruments;
- the ability level of the student, using the products and process report concerning the purposed goal;
- the improvement of the student during the activity of making the portfolio through referring on some abilities;
- appreciations and evaluations made by the students on their own materials.

The request of a portfolio has to be done by the professor through training for students. This training can start with a debate on the portfolio's subject. Then, the professor will present some already done portfolios by other students, professors or other persons. It is recommended for the students to have a folder, a box, etc where to save the materials that will be contained in the portfolio.

The professor has to inform the students regarding the used terminology in the portfolio's pedagogy: components, collection, selection, reflection, criticism, evaluation, autoevaluation, purpose etc. illustrating the concepts mentioned through the presentation of some representative materials from the portfolio's collection. This introduction will continue with the student's training for identifying and wording of some training goals with personalization. The professor will assist the students in the process of portfolio development – on the settlement of the components in correlation with the purposed objectives by each student. Also, will train them about the development, elaboration and reviewing processes of a portfolio's components. Also they will be assisted considering the development,

the elaboration, the review of a component material of the portfolio. The students will be asked to express in writing considering the following aspects: „If your propose is to improve your skills in finding reference material over the internet (for example, for the „The transistor as a driver circuit” theme) then what categories of materials will your portfolio include?”, „What criteria will you apply on the same category materials (for example, the schematic collection of some transistors used in driver circuits)?”, „How do you define a correctly elaboration of a material, considering your purpose and theme?”. The professor will use his collection of portfolios and will ask the students to analyze the materials to help them to make the difference between the components from the contents, design, etc. point of view and to establish the correct characteristics of a good quality product. At the end, the autoevaluation made by the student regarding the activity of building the portfolio will also include the answers to a set of questions that aims the procedures used by this: „Based on which criteria have you selected the materials regarding the transistors and their use in driver circuits?”, „How did you made the syntesize of the materials regarding the transistors?”, „How did you check the sources for your reference materials regarding on how to use the transistors in driver circuits?”, „How would you act if you’d be asked to do this portfolio again?”, „What are the new abilities you’ve got during the development of the portfolio?”, „What difficulties did you run into during the realization of the portfolio?”.

The students may also answer to the general questions that don’t refer to the portfolio’s subject: “What are the stages for transforming a draft into a final paper?”, “How can a given material to be improve?”, “How do you have to act for ensuring on the veracity of the reference material?”, “What kind of difficulties may you get into in developing the portfolio?”, etc.

The general kind of questions are for the students in the final years of college but the students from the first years can also answer the particularly questions (restatement regarding the existing materials of the portfolio).

4. The portfolio’s realization steps: the professor and student’s.

In the following paragraph there are discussed the student’s and professor’s actions on each step. For each step the professor has to indicate/remind the students about their objective, the requirement and the evaluation criteria. He will offer the necessary support (using questions that will solicit the anticipation of some actions or details regarding the achievement of the tasks and their evaluation).

- *the communication of the students wanted type of portfolio and its subject.* The professor’s role is to help the students to understand the reason for doing the portfolio and the basic criteria that the student’s evaluation will be based on. The student will note these informations and also all the suggestions from the professor, will ask for the informations he consider important and will establish the meetings

frequency with the professor and with his colleagues (if there is a team making the portfolio), meetings that are necessary for the monitoring of the portfolio process.

- *the collection of the component pieces of the portfolio.* The professor's role is to advise the students about the quality/utility of some components (on the student's request). The students will note the date when a reference material is included in the portfolio and its sources.
- *the selection of the collected materials.* The included materials of the portfolio will be reviewed. If the realization of the portfolio will be done in a team then each student will decide which are the materials that will be in be his task. The helping materials, used to make a synthesis, will be added to the portfolio. Even the materials selected as models and the students decides to drop out will be included in the annex with a short comment made by the student to justify the elimination of those materials. The professor will insist on these requirements and will explain the students about the importance of both: the final product and the process, so all the collected materials are needed. Also, the professor will encourage the students to review the materials in teams, will advice the students during this process reminding them about the evaluation criteria for the portfolio as a product and as a process, and also characteristics of a good quality product.
- *the evaluation of the portfolio assumes:*
 - the quality of the portfolio's components;
 - the gained abilities of the students through relation to the objective, requirements and the evaluation criteria;
 - assignable competences.
- the evaluation is done on three levels. The first level is the autoevaluation level of the portfolio done by the student. It permits the professor a sharper evaluation of the student's improvement. The second level is the one of collective evaluation, done in a group of students during some special sessions. The last one is the evaluation done by the professor which is on the whole process already described. This evaluation is the *internal evaluation*.
- *the dissemination of the results and learning experience.* This action can be done in a dedicated session for students. The portfolios can be exposed, portfolio's extracts can be read by their authors; it is possible to have a journal where the participants may write short suggestions and personal observations on the materials. This evaluation it is considered *external evaluation*.

5. Portfolio's structure. The portfolio's content has to indicate/include:

- portfolio's type/objective;
- the collection of the objectives/abilities and also the knowledges/atitudes gained by the author through the elaboration of the portfolio or considered relevant for the evaluation;
- the portfolio's content:
 - Title;
 - Motivation;
 - Contents/structure;
 - Content;
 - Annexes;
 - Bibliography;
 - Autoevaluations, evaluations and considerations.

The table bellow is explaining the documentation and activity portfolio's structure:

Table 1.

Portfolio's structure

Structure		Documentation portfolio	Activity portfolio
Title		Maximum 10 words.	Maximum 10 words.
Introductory note (Introduction/ foreword/motivation)		Presentation of the portfolio's objective and the theme selection. Presentation of the problem for which the documentation is done.	Presentation of the portfolio's objective and the theme selection. Presentation of the problem for which the activity mentioned in the portfolio is done.
Strategy		Strategic approach of the activity through fixing the steps and responsibilities (if teamwork) and used working procedures.	Strategic approach of the activity through fixing the steps and responsibilities (if teamwork) and used working procedures.
Timetable		The presentation of the time terms for the portfolio's realization.	The presentation of the time terms for the portfolio's realization.
Contents		Categories and subcategories documents structuring.	The results or products list expected and portfolio's content organization.
Portfolio's content	Materials/Products	The classified documentary materials, commented and/or synthesized, used procedures' descriptions and observations, results, conclusions, comments.	The classified documentary materials, commented and/or synthesized, used procedures' descriptions and observations, results, conclusions, comments.

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	Procedures	Examination/interpretation in detail and comparative of the documentation materials.	The elaboration of some good practice examples: working methods presentation, reasoning, procedures or applied techniques, etc.
	Observations	Stages and comparative commentaries done upon the documentary materials.	Explanation of the observations regarding the context of the made observation.
	Results/products	The presentation and distinguish of the relevant documentary materials obtained from the examination of the informations from the documentations.	The presentation of the products, of the results in a systematized form, selecting the pertinent results/products.
	Comments on the results	Criticism of the selected materials (notes)	Product's examination and comments.
	Conclusions	The results' generalize in a short conclusion and reported based on the iitial problem/theme/assumption.	The results' generalize in a short conclusion and reported based on the iitial problem/theme/assumption.
	Bibliografy	The presentation of all the bibliographical sources.	The presentation of all the bibliographical sources.
	Autoevaluation and evaluation(process and survey) Estimation	The autoevaluation materials, evaluations done by the colleagues and by the professor regarding the results included in the portfolio. Reader's opinions about the portfolio and an autoevaluation.	The autoevaluation materials, evaluations done by the colleagues and by the professor regarding the results included in the portfolio. Reader's opinions about the portfolio and an autoevaluaion.
	Annexes	Helping materials which sustain the portfoli's included materials.	Helping materials included int he portfolio: partial results, less relevant singular data, etc.

Besides the containt, the portfolio is appreciated for the presentation type: aspect, structure, coherence, clarity, correct elaboration.

For the illustration we'll show the categories of documents included in a learning portfolio done for the „Applied Electronics” class:

- elaborated documents done by the student during/for the accomplished activities (class/lab materials);
- indentified documents of the student from different bibliographical sources (even the internet);

- templates documents elaborated by the professor;
- documents accomplished by the student's colleagues during their activity (and through their originality or creativity can be considered as models).

Content elements:

- lab papers: „The transfer characteristic of the semiconductor diode”, „Rectifier using semiconductor diodes”, etc.
- essay: „Internal structure of electronical devices”; „Detailed explication of the electronical devices operation (diode, transistor, etc)”;
- synthesis of some documentary materials: ”New families of integrated circuits”;
- case study/analysis: The analysis of some operational amplifier's characteristics;
- evaluation papers: „The examination of some electronic schematics operation (fault finding and repairing methods”;
- bibliography used for classes and labs activities;
- datasheets;
- class notes;
- tests during the semester (including the norm and to refer to the students group results);
- improvement tests, for example, for the student's competence of desinging functional schematics for given applications, etc.
- the ilustration of given type problems solving methods: „Using the transistors as driving elements”;
- projects: „Event counter using digital circuits”, „Sensors conditioning schematics”;
- homeworks.

The portfolio will include an autoevaluation report for the class and seminar activity.

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STUDY ON DIDACTIC ANIMATION USE IN LEARNING GEOGRAPHY

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG – Bemerkungen über die Verwendung der Animationen im Geographieunterricht. Dieser Beitrag gründet sich auf der Bemerkung, dass die Anwendung der Animationen für das Geographiestudium hilfreich ist. Die Studierenden können damit die physich-geographischen Vorgänge und Erscheinungen besser verstehen. In diesem Beitrag werden die didaktischen Animationen analysiert und klassifiziert. Die Animationen, als *eLearning*-Werkzeug, weisen die folgenden Merkmale auf: Animationsinhalt (die graphische Darstellung, Ton, Text); Design; Programmsteuerung. Als Beispiel haben wir aus dem Programm *Journey Through Geology. Earthquakes and Volcanoes*, das von Smithsonian Institution entwickelt ist, den Kapitel *Caldera* ausgewählt. Dieser Kapitel hat eine gute didaktische Qualität und deckt einen grossen Teil der Kriterien, die Reichert Raimond im Jahre 2004 vorschlug. Wir haben mehreren Merkmale der Animationen berücksichtigt um eine Klassifizierung zu bilden: *die Funktion, die verwendete Methode, die Multimedia-Elemente*. Diesen Merkmalen nach, haben wir sechs Arten von Animationen festgestellt: die veranschauliche, die darstellende, die beschreibende, die erzählende, die erklärende und die interaktive Art.

*

Study Motivation and Purpose

Our study started from the hypothesis that animations used as electronic media in teaching and learning geography favoured students in understanding physical geographic phenomena and processes. Because during our didactic activity we noticed several didactic animations that differed from one another due to certain features, in this paper we focused on analysing several types of animations from an educational perspective, and on identifying ways and methods for increasing learning efficiency as a result of these animations. Starting from this analysis we identified and described a sum of didactic animation models.

Theoretical Coordinates

Elearning is a learning method including two components: the contents and the platform – a “tool”, a software that manages the respective contents and

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has a lot of functions (Dulamă, Gurscă, 2006). Through a didactic animation we create an electronic learning environment where reality and fiction are dynamically represented. The represented phenomena, processes, and events take place during several stages, in a certain chronological order and at a certain time. As *eLearning* tools didactic animations have the following significant components:

- *The contents of the animation (graphics, animation, sound, texts)*, as it ensures the quality of both learning and results;
- *The instructional design* as due to the way it has been conceived, the animation may ensure a pleasant, easy, and logical learning process;
- *The programme management* as the animation should be a tool for making a professor or a teacher's work easier as well as the student's one. The programme should give feed-back to the learner and to the professor or to the teacher who plans, organises, monitors, and assesses the learning process together with student's learning results.

Study on a Didactic Animation

Journey through Geology. Earthquakes and Volcanoes – a product realised by Smithsonian Institution having several contents elements: *Spreading Ridges, Changing Earth, Volcanoes, Transform Faults, Convergent Margins, Crystal Symmetry, Pegmatite Pocket, Rocks Deform, Stories in the Rocks, Rocks Melt, and Hot Spots*. According to Professor Richard S. Fisk's (from the National Museum of Natural History of Smithsonian Institution) presentation, one may choose one of the following possibilities: *Watch a volcano grow* or *Design your own volcano*. If one chooses *Watch a volcano grow*, after click, on the open window, an indication appears inside a communication box: "Choose a Volcano Type" and six arrows point to as many buttons. Each button has the name of a volcano type: *Caldera, Cinder Cone, Flood Basalt, Lava Dome, Shield, and Strato*.

Structure and Dynamics Description of the Animation

- If one clicks on *Caldera*, in the window covering the upper left quarter of the screen, a text on the "caldera" appears: *A caldera eruption commonly occurs where a large magma quantity accumulates beneath a volcanic area. The eruption is rapid and catastrophic, and the resulting crater or caldera can be huge.*
- In the lower left, the six buttons with the names of the six volcano types are still there and the communication box still "says": „Chose a Volcano Type", while the respective six arrows are still activated.
- In the upper part of the screen one can still see the menu bar where the following buttons are visible: *Menu, Contents, Glossary, Map, Audio, Help, WWWLink, Notebook, Credits, and Exit*.

- In the upper right window an image appears. Under this image, the following appear: a button having a left oriented arrow, with the *Play* option, then a button with a right oriented arrow, and a menu bar that allows moving to the left or to the right. When clicking on *Play* the animation starts playing and the *Play* button is replaced with a *Pause* one that allows one to stop the animation at a certain moment (and *Play* appears now on the button, instead of *Pause*). While the animation is playing, beneath one may see a bar that is moving to the right and one may use it for playing the animation back and forth at a certain moment and then one may use the *Pause* button.

The conception of this product offers several *advantages* to the user: during this animation sequence the product includes both text boxes and sound; one may stop the animation any time by clicking on *Pause*; one may play the animation back and forth; one may turn the sound off while the animation is playing. This product has two *disadvantages* as a result of the less complicated programmes incorporated: it does not cover the whole screen and there is no way of correcting this by using newer programmes because of incompatibility; therefore, the window where the animation is playing covers only a quarter of the screen of this product and only a tenth of the computer screen.

Animation Features

The sequence on the *Caldera* has the features of a quality educational electronic medium as: it is *nonlinear* and the user may decide what information to access, how and when; it is not compulsory for the user to follow a route established in advance; it is *adaptable* and *personalised* as one may use it in various didactic activities and one may complete or replace the message transmitted to learners; the user may *control/manage* it and thus he/she has the opportunity to reflect or come back to a certain sequence; one may *use it again* meaning that one may watch it several times; it is *not dependent on* LMS or on LCMS (Learning Content Management System) and does not require complex programmes in order to play it; it is *multi-channel* (mono-channel would be from teacher to student) as it allows information transfer to the user and from one user to another, from expert to user, from expert to contents, from expert to expert; it is *dynamic*; it is *mono-curricular*, not *plural-* and *interdisciplinary*; it is *informal* as one may use it outside schools; one divided it in learning sequences but both students and teacher may divide it into different sequences in order to observe a certain time limit. Still this animation is not an *exhaustive* one and one cannot improve it from time to time according to user's new needs (Dulamă, Gurscă, 2006).

The *Caldera* sequence observes only some of Reichert Raimond's criteria (2004):

1). *The animation contents and the process starts from a “fundamental idea”* that according to Schwill (apud Glava, 2005) is a scheme, a thinking, action, and explanation model to be used in any field;

2). It does not include *several cognition levels* according to Bloom’s taxonomy (knowledge, comprehension, use, analysis, synthesis, assessment) and does not have several complexity levels for use (e.g. beginners, medium, advanced);

3). The animation has *low man-computer interactivity levels*. As compared to the man-computer interactivity levels established by Schulmeister (apud Glava, 2005), this product has the following features: it is a level 1 product when there is no interaction and one watches information and representations on the screen; it is a level 2 product when the user surfs through information and representations; it is a level 3 product as it offers multiple representations of the same contents. We have also identified a level 5 simulation where the user can manipulate the information or the representation parameters. The user may change the volume, the volatile substance quantity and viscosity from a minimum to a medium or maximum level, and, according to the chosen parameters, different types of volcanoes appear;

4). The animation gives no *feed-back* or assistance to its user during this educational process;

5). One may *easily watch and use* this animation.

Didactic Animation Models

In this study we identified and described six didactic animation models: the illustrative, the expository, the descriptive, the narrative, the explanatory, and the interactive one. We did both the analysis and typology by starting from the *Caldera* animation. In addition, we also started from the analysis of the *animation message features* (informative, descriptive, narrative, expository, explanatory, or interactive), of its *function*, of the incorporated *method* (exposition, narration, description, explanation, conversation, simulation, modelling, and observation), and of *the integrated multimedia elements*.

1. The Illustrative Model

By means of an animation one may illustrate a process, a phenomenon, an event, an action, etc.

a. The title of the animation is specified (The Caldera). In order to represent the process of a caldera formation one uses forms and colours. For instance, one represents magma making use of red, orange, and yellow, red for lava, black for the rocks resulted from magma consolidation in the volcano throat, grey for ash and gas, green for vegetation, etc. We use a block diagram in order to represent a caldera, a graphical representation in three dimensions of a region both in perspective and in profile (a transversal profile through the Earth’s crust).

b. The animation uses words naming certain components. These appear on the screen while the animation is playing. For instance, one may point out making use of words and arrows the following: the continental crust, the magma chamber, the crust fissures, the volcano throat, the gas, the ash, the caldera. Due to these words one shows clearly the component elements, and the user understands what the authors wanted to represent.

c. The teacher presents a process and then an animation in order to illustrate it, in order to give an example.

2. *The Expositive Model*

a. The animation has a box with an informative text, as in the presented case. During the animation the contents of the text box may change. This informative text generally includes punctual pieces of information (proper names, numbers, and other data), examples, enumerations, definitions, classifications, principles, rules, conventions, laws, etc.

b. The animation has a sound with informative contents.

c. The animation has no sound or the teacher turns this function off and replaces that message with one of his/her own but having an informative contents. For instance: "The area where the caldera appears has about 100 km width. In the Earth's crust there is a magma chamber. Magma escapes to the surface through two fissures and then through five. This matter spreads over a large area. The crust collapses in the now empty magma chamber."

3. *The Descriptive Model*

a. The animation has a descriptive text in a text box. In *the scientific descriptive text* one presents a part of the Earth's surface in an exact, concise, comparative, chronological, analytical, synthetic way, according to reality and using scientific language. *The literary descriptive text* having as a purpose to impress the reader and not to inform him/her is a subjective one where author's interpretation is obvious. In the literary text one uses literary language with figures of style, while both significant and insignificant details are highlighted. In a literary description one does not explain the causes of a phenomenon or process and not all important data are presented.

b. The animation has a sound with descriptive contents.

c. The animation has no sound or the teacher turns this function off or replaces it with one of his/her own, having descriptive contents. The purpose of this didactic message is to help the users notice details and decode them. For instance: "Take a look at the uneven Earth's surface covered in dark green vegetation. You may notice a section through the Earth's crust. Inside the crust there is a chamber full of molten matter that we call magma. They coloured it in red, orange, and yellow. You may notice that this magma chamber receives matter from the Earth's interior through certain fissures. This matter escapes discontinuously.

In the upper part of this magma chamber you may see two continuous fissures. The magma goes up through the left one. This matter escapes to the surface through these two fissures and escapes in the atmosphere in the form of gas and grey ash columns. Look how this matter escapes to the surface through five spots, and, later on, the entire area is covered in ash. While this matter escapes to the surface, you may notice that the crust splits on different levels above the magma chamber and then the Earth's crust goes down. Thus, the magma chamber becomes smaller. You may see that a thick ash stratum has spread on the Earth's surface and that above the magma chamber a concavity appears."

During this description the teacher points out with the mouse the places he/she refers to.

4. *The Narrative Model*

a. The animation is associated with a narrative text in a text box. In this *narrative text*, they generally mention the place and time of the action, as well as certain characters' actions.

b. The animation has a sound with narrative contents.

c. The teacher completes or replaces the message in the animation with a narrative one that he/she creates. For instance, the teacher writes a script where the eruption has an impact on men and on animals from a possibly affected settlement: "Imagine that the settlement you are living in lies among the five spots where the eruption takes place. All people and animals leave the settlement so that they are not killed by hot gas and ash. The thick ash stratum covers the whole area of your settlement. Houses are destroyed when the crust collapses inside the magma chamber and forms the caldera."

5. *The Explanatory Model*

a. The animation has a text box with an explanatory text. In *explanatory texts* they present the circumstances under which the process or the phenomena takes place (Under what circumstances?), the elements involved (What?, Who?), the time, the space, and the modality (When?, Where?, How?), its causes (Why?), its impact on geographical components (What?).

b. The animation has a sound with an explanatory message.

c. The teacher replaces the message in the animation with an explanatory one that he/she creates. For instance: "Take a look at the vegetation covered uneven crust. This area is about 100 km. In the Earth's crust section you may notice a molten matter filled chamber, and this matter is called magma. The magma is red, orange, and yellow. It escapes discontinuously from the asthenosphere through crust fissures. The magma escapes to the surface from the respective spots as its temperature is very high and it also contains gas and that is why its pressure is also high and magma is quite fluid. When in the magma chamber pressure is considerable the above situated crust splits and the magma escapes to surface

through these new fissures. As magma is fluid and it is under great pressure, it is sprayed in the atmosphere at a considerable height and it becomes ash. This ash spreads over a large area and thus a thick stratum covers the Earth's surface. After a long time, when the magma chamber becomes empty, the Earth's crust collapses over this empty magma chamber. The resulting concavity is called caldera."

6. The Interactive Model

a. The animation has a dialogue box where a question pops up from time to time. The person watching the animation may place his/her answer in another text box. This answer may have various forms. For instance, after completing his/her answer in the text box, the programme gives feed-back. If the answer is wrong, the programme gives several hints leading to the correct answer and to the next animation sequence and question.

Item examples:

- What colour does the magma from the magma chamber have?
a. red; b. red and yellow; c. red, orange, and yellow (multiple discrimination item)
- Lava is the molten matter inside the crust. True/False (binary discrimination item)
- Magma is a molten silicate matter that contains volatile substances. Yes/No (binary discrimination item)
- Gas is less dangerous than lava during a volcanic eruption. Correct/Wrong (binary discrimination item)
- Minerals in the rocks melt at over ... °C. (Completion item/lacunal text)
- Put on the lines in the drawing the following: magma chamber, gas, ash, fissure, crust (Completion item)
- In the left hand column we enumerated several concepts. In the right hand column we gave their definitions. Match each concept with its definition.

Lava	the pipe through which the magma from the magma chamber escapes to the surface
Magma	viscous stratum at the upper part of the Earth's mantle
Atmosphere	molten silicate matter from the crust with gas and water vapours having over 700°C
Volcano throat	molten silicate matter that loses gas and water vapours that escape and arrive to the surface
	molten matter of volcanoes

One may use these items chronologically and solve them after watching the animation so that he/she is able to assess his/her answers.

b. The animation has the sound of a person that asks the user questions in order to make him/her give certain answers. These answers are later included in the sound of the animation. Both questions and answers may appear in boxes that one can access only after the animation stopped playing so that the person watching the animation is able to assess himself/herself.

c. The teacher asks the students the following questions and gives them feed-back after receiving their answers. Here are several examples:

- Why is the Earth's surface represented in green?
- What is the width of the represented space?
- What is the profile realised on?
- Why different parts of the Earth's interior are represented in red, orange, or yellow?
- Where does the magma in the magma chamber come from?
- Why does the Earth's crust split?
- Why does magma come to the surface through several spots?
- What happens to molten rock when it arrives at the Earth's surface?
- Why is lava sprayed in the atmosphere?
- What happens to the ash resulted from the eruption?
- Why does the Earth's crust collapse in the magma chamber?
- What landform appears as a result of the crust collapse in the magma chamber?, etc.

Conclusions

As a result of this research we have reached the following conclusions:

- As *eLearning* tools didactic animations have the following significant components: *the contents of the animation* (graphics, animation, sound, and texts), *the instructional design*, and *the programme management*;
- The sequence on the *Caldera* has the features of a quality educational electronic medium as it is a *nonlinear, adaptable, personalised, manageable*, and a *reusable one*; it is *not dependent* on LMS or on LCMS (Learning Content Management System) and does not require complex programmes in order to play it; it plays on *multiple channels* and it is *dynamic*; it is mono-curricular; it is *informal*; it is divided into learning sequences. Still this animation is not an *exhaustive* one and one cannot improve it from time to time according to user's new needs (Dulamă, Gurscă, 2006);
- The *Caldera* sequence observes only some of Reichert Raimond's criteria (2004): 1). *The animation contents and the process starts from a "fundamental idea"*; 2). It does not include *several cognition levels* and does not have several complexity levels for use; 3). It has *low man-computer interactivity degrees* (from level 1 to level 3); 4). It gives no *feed-back* or assistance to its user during this educational process; 5). One may *easily watch and use* the animation;

• In this study we identified and described six didactic animation models: the illustrative, the expository, the descriptive, the narrative, the explanatory, and the interactive one. We did both the analysis and typology by starting from the *Caldera* animation. In addition, we also started from the analysis of the *animation message features* (informative, descriptive, narrative, expository, explanatory, or interactive), of its *function*, of the incorporated *method* (exposition, narration, description, explanation, conversation, simulation, modelling, and observation), and of *the integrated multimedia elements*.

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PRELIMINARY TESTING OF “OIKOS” ONLINE EDUCATIONAL PORTAL

IULIANA MARCHIŞ

ABSTRACT. Virtual laboratories started to be widely used in education. There are subjects, where some phenomenon can't be studied in real, only with virtual simulations. If these virtual laboratories are on the Internet, they address a wide user group. The aim of this article is to present the results of the preliminary testing of the online OIKOS portal, which contains a virtual laboratory for studying natural hazards, and a risk management game.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Das Ziel des Artikels ist ein Vortest des OIKOS webs. Das OIKOS web enthält ein Risk-Management Spiel und auch eine Beschreibung über eine eventuelle Naturkatastrophe (wie zBp.: die Überschwemmung, das Erdbeben, der Erdbeben). Das web kann man erfolgreich im Erdkundeunterricht benutzen.

1. Introduction

Environmental issues, especially those involving environmental hazard, are very important in our days. There are natural hazards, as earthquakes, floods, cliff erosion, beach evolution, which affects the most part of the population of the world. Due to the high population concentration in some parts of the world, an environmental disaster could have catastrophic effects. So there is needed an environmental risk management: measures of prevention, methods of anticipation, action scenario in case of a disaster, etc. In this risk management is very important the active involvement of the population, thus it is a need for an education in this way. This education should start with young pupils, so school curricula should contain information about this.

Formal-descriptive teaching methods have been proven to be ineffective. It is more effective to engage the learner through a problem solving approach: the learner gets a problem, and solves it by using scientific investigative skills. For this he/she needs to observe the phenomena. In earth sciences this usually is not easy, for example pupils can't observe in real a volcano (there are only in some parts of the world, and it is dangerous to observe it, and also it is impossible to observe the mechanism) or cliff erosion (the evolution is very long), thus virtual laboratories and simulations started to be used widely in schools. These virtual laboratories

have many advantages: integration of different disciplines; possibility to experiment phenomena, which can't be studied otherwise; greater freedom of manipulation of the factors; low cost; high speed; without risk. Simulations are very important part of the investigation. In (Lunce, 2006) there are presented more type of simulations. The interactive simulation focuses on discovery learning, gives the opportunity to student to build and test hypothesis and observe the results. She/he learns how to conduct a scientific research.

In the framework of the Leonardo European project OIKOS it is realized a portal, which contains a description (with animations, movies, simulation) of some natural hazards, and an online risk management game. This portal helps pupils to understand these phenomena, and the way of mitigation.

The aim of this article is to present the results of a preliminary testing of the OIKOS portal, which was elaborated in the framework of the European Leonardo project OIKOS.

2. Description of the OIKOS portal

OIKOS (**O**riginating **I**nnovative methods to learn and teach **K**nowledge in the field of earth and natural sciences derived from an **O**riginal and combined use of applicative **S**oftware) is a Leonardo European project. The aims of it are to elaborate, develop and test new teaching methods and new resources in earth sciences. It is realized on an online portal. This portal contains a description of 6 natural risks, as flood, earthquakes, beach evolution, cliff erosion, landslides, volcanoes, and a risk management game. The description of these phenomena is as "educative laboratories". The game is a simulation game as Simcity, Simearth. Pupils like to play computer games, so a game, where they can learn and test their knowledge is very useful for the educational process. In case of each phenomenon there are four sections: impact (presents some examples), mechanism (presents the mechanism of the phenomena), mitigation (presents, how to prevent the disaster), simulation.

As the technical point of view, OIKOS is using GoogleMap in the simulations. The advantages of GoogleMap are: it is programmable, it is refreshed frequently and it transforms the static world of maps into a dynamic one. Thus the GoogleMap Mashups are an exciting, attractive and active way to teach and learn. There are many existing GoogleMap Mashups, which can be used in education, but in everyday life too, for example Gmaps Pedometer, Google Planimeter, YourGMap. Gmaps Pedometer can be used to visualize the map of a walking route, and calculate the length of this walk. The Google Planimeter measures areas. With YourGMap someone can identify his/her own choice of locations, create a map of them with comments, and put it on the Internet. On the OIKOS portal GoogleMap Mashups are used for simulations. For example in the earthquake module we can put the epicenter of the earthquake and the studied buildings on the map, and observe, what is happening if the phenomenon happens. In the floods simulation the flooded area of the chosen river is calculated from real data, obtained from GoogleMap.

3. Preliminary testing of the online educative laboratories

Testing was made on the “Computer assisted teaching” seminars with 6 students with Environment specialization, 2 students with Mathematics specialization, 13 students with Mathematics – Computer Science specialization, 4 students with Computer Science specialization. These students can be divided into three groups:

- those, who will teach Geography, so they can see, how this program can be used in school, and also they are more qualified to speak about the content of the portal;
- those, who know more about how to make a computer program (Computer Science students), so they are the more qualified to speak about the technical realization;
- Mathematics students, who can test, if someone, who doesn’t know the contents, can understand it.

But all of the students, who have tested the portal, learnt about how to evaluate educational software, how to design such a program and how to use in the classroom

Students tested three phenomena: earthquake, floods and cliff erosion. To get as many information as possible, they didn’t completed a questionnaire, they made a long written evaluation of the system. They were asked to write down every positive and negative aspects they observed regarding with usability, content and technical realization of the system. During testing the system, I discussed separately with every student. After they have written these reports, they also participated in a discussion about their opinion related with the system. In this way I have got a clear and deep imagine about their opinion.

Study first the usability of the program. They think, that it is not adequate for young pupils, only for high-school and university students. Some of the observations of the students are collected in Table1.

Table 1.
Positive and negative aspects observed by student related with the usability of the portal

Positive aspects observed	Negative aspects observed
- the structure is logic, so it is easy to follow - even if in the beginning seems to be difficult to use, using it for a longer time becomes easier	- in the case of the earthquake simulation it was hard for me to find out, that I can drag and drop the buildings on the map - it is hard for use without the help of the teacher - it is only in English, which makes it harder to understand

Most of the students have found difficult to use the simulations. In the simulation there is a “Help” link, where is described, how to use it. But most of them didn’t read these instructions, just started to use it. Maybe, the link is not so visible, or

students are impatient to see what happening in the simulation, so they skip to read the instructions. It is true, that without reading the help, it is hard to use the simulation. Maybe, it would be helpful to have some basic instructions on the main page too. In this stage the portal is only in English, and seems, that some of the students don't know enough English to understand the instructions.

Studying the opinions about the content, the most important appeared ideas are collected in the Table2.

Table 2.
Positive and negative aspects observed by student related with the content of the portal

Positive aspects observed	Negative aspects observed
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it contains a lot of information - it is good, that in the first page of each phenomenon are given some questions, and students can find the answers studying the contents - it contains the most important information related with the subject - it is good, that the most important keywords are links, and clicking on them we get more information - I like the impact sector, which presents some big earthquakes - the simulations works with real data - I liked most the animation for cliff erosion - it is interesting, that you can make experiments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it should have some reflection in the end - there are not enough information - there is needed more information, explanation about the simulations and the pictures - the phenomena are in connection, here they are presented separately - it is needed more explanations during the animations - there are not tests

We observe, that students' opinion about the quantity of the information is different: some of them found it enough, others not. It is interesting to observe, that Environment students considered, that there is enough information, and Computer science students, that no. A frequent opinion is that "there is needed more information, explanation about the simulations and the pictures". For simulations there is a help link, where it is described how to use it, so maybe students didn't observe this. But it is true, that there are pictures without explanations, so animations and pictures need more information. Students like the impact section, were are presented natural hazards, which happened in the world. Beside pictures and data, there are videos.

About the technical realization students didn't have many remarks (see Table 3).

Table 3.

Positive and negative aspects observed by student related with the technical realization of the portal

Positive aspects observed	Negative aspects observed
- it is a very good idea to use GoogleMap in the simulations - good design	- it is quite slow

Most of the students have used GoogleMap for the first time, so for them it was a big experience. They spent long time with exploring it, trying to find their city/town/village on the map, even their house, former school, etc. As a negative aspect, more students observed, that the simulations on the portal are slow.

4. Conclusions

In general, students liked testing the OIKOS portal. They found interesting the impact and mechanism section of the studied three phenomena, but difficult to use the simulation section. They consider a very good idea the GoogleMap Mashup used on the portal.

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PÉDAGOGIE DE LA MÉDIATION ET ÉDUCATION INCLUSIVE

VASILE PREDA

ABSTRACT. The study “**Mediation Pedagogy and Inclusive Education**” is focused on the psychological and pedagogical problems of the inclusion of children with disabilities in mainstream schools. Moreover, there are enumerated the modern theoretical direction and good practices in inclusive education: a) *socio-constructive theory* (L. Vygotsky, J. Bruner). Vygotsky recognized that children learn within a social context and the role of significant adult (parent, teacher, or other person) is a critical element in guiding the learning. Another important aspect of Vygotsky’s theories is known as the “*zone of proximal development (ZDP)*”. b) *Learning Potential Assessment Device, Instrumental Enrichment and Cognitive Modification* (R. Feuerstein). Cognitive learning strategies focus on *how* children learn rather than *what* they learn. In short, the teacher’s role is to help children learn how to learn.

Mediation theory is applied successfully in inclusive education. Learning is aided immeasurably by the use of internal mediators. Good teaching demands that the student with special needs be encouraged to explore learning alternatives and discover new relationships.

Key words: inclusive education, disabilities, mediation theory, learning potential, learning strategy, cognitive modification.

1. L’intégration ou l’inclusion?

En sciences sociales, malgré la diversité des approches selon les disciplines et même des divergences d’interprétation au sein d’une même discipline, *l’intégration* et *l’inclusion* sont tous les cas corrélée à l’idée d’interdépendance, d’ajustement réciproque entre les membres d’un groupe, entre les sous-systèmes d’un système socio-économique, entre des traits culturels etc. Depuis sa création, *l’enseignement spécial*, devenu *spécialisé*, a toujours centré son action sur la personne globale de l’enfant: les équipes éducatives ont pris le temps de se consacrer aussi bien à l’aspect affectif, qu’à l’aspect social, physique si nécessaire, et, bien sûr, le domaine des apprentissages cognitifs. Aussi, il est indispensable de mettre l’accent sur le développement de l’autonomie. L’opposition *intégration/inclusion* – *ségrégation* met en balance une vision moderniste de traitement des différences. Mais dans les divers pays, et aussi dans la Roumanie, l’intégration et l’inclusion scolaire des enfants avec “besoins éducatifs particuliers” sont encore

fondamentalement ambiguë. La définition des modalités différentes de l'intégration scolaire inclut même la scolarisation spéciale. L'intégration "individuelle" désigne la présence d'un enfant avec déficience dans une classe ordinaire. L'intégration "collective", celle d'un groupe d'enfants avec déficiences dans une classe spéciale d'une école ordinaire. Enfin, l'intégration "partielle" concerne généralement des enfants relevant d'un établissement ou d'un service spécialisé mais qui sont amenés à fréquenter un établissement scolaire ordinaire pour un temps limité.

L'intégration est une perspective d'action qui prolonge, certes en les améliorant, les politiques d'éducation spéciale mais qui peut se limiter à la présence physique d'un enfant "à problème" dans un contexte scolaire ordinaire (Daunt, 1991; Armstrong, 1995). Au contraire, ce qu'ils appellent *éducation inclusive* ("*inclusive education*") sera une réponse à la diversité des élèves et impliquerait non seulement qu'aucun élève ne soit dans une situation d'exclusion mais aussi que l'apprentissage essentiel soit celui de la vie avec les autres (Ainskow, 1999).

La souplesse des formules possibles est mise en valeur, de même les passages éventuels d'un mode d'intégration à un autre (intégration "fonctionnelle", intégration "sociale") et à l'inclusion. L'intégration scolaire et l'inclusion des enfants avec "besoins éducatifs particuliers" acquiert une signification plus forte si l'accent est mis sur les interdépendances et sur la fonctionnalité des relations réciproques entre les enfants valides et les enfants avec déficience, et non sur leur simple coprésence. Il s'agirait donc de mettre en valeur des processus psychosociaux en cours, plus que des états opposés (Castel, 1995). Une importante action de collaboration est menée avec la famille, qui intervient activement lors des différentes phases du processus d'intégration et que l'on soutient pour favoriser en son sein des attitudes adéquates et de continuité éducative.

La notion de "besoins éducatifs particuliers" provient du rapport Warnock, établi en Grande Bretagne en 1978. À la place de "handicap" ou de "déficience" il mettait l'accent sur les difficultés d'apprentissage de certains élèves et sur la nécessité de leur fournir une aide pédagogique et psychologique. Les orientations politiques des années 1990 ont orienté le système scolaire britannique vers le repérage des déficits individuels et des échecs personnels et, en fait, ont tendu à orienter les ressources financières des écoles en faveur des élèves qui sont à même de favoriser la réputation académique des établissements.

L'Italie a opté pour une politique d'intégration radicale, alors que des pays tels que Belgique, la France, l'Allemagne et les Pays-Bas, la Roumanie, la Bulgarie etc. restent encore marqués par la présence de filières séparées d'établissements spéciaux. La Roumanie, quant à elle, se situerait plutôt dans le cas des pays à "système mixte", mi-ségrégatif, mi-intégratif.

Les organismes d'administration publique et les écoles peuvent, d'elles-mêmes, réaliser une politique favorisant l'inclusion en fonction de l'interprétation qu'elles feront des politiques officielles et à travers leur culture et leurs pratiques propres. Les écoles devraient se transformer en communautés scolaires ouvertes à

tous, auxquelles tous les apprenants ont droit d'accéder sur une base égalitaire (Armstrong, 1998).

La notion d'intégration sociale et la notion d'éducation inclusive devient un nouveau "système de croyance", un "système de nouvelles attitudes, de valeurs et de manières de penser" (Vislie 1995, p. 50-52).

Les déficiences ne sont plus seulement conçues dans le cadre des sciences médicales et biologiques, en fonction d'éventuelles atteintes organiques, mais aussi dans le cadre des sciences humaines et sociales, en fonction de facteurs psychologiques, socioculturels, voire économiques (Daunt, 1991; Paour, 1991; CIF, 2001).

2. L'éducation inclusive et l'enseignement de soutien psycho-pédagogique et psycho-sociale

L'éducation inclusive porte attention à tous les élèves et soucie de ce que les différences entre eux soient reconnues et valorisées à l'intérieur de situations scolaires communes. Parallèlement, dans diverses écoles, on reconnaît que les élèves vivent fréquemment l'expérience de l'exclusion et de la discrimination à l'intérieur des écoles ordinaires. La construction de "l'école inclusive" requiert sept conditions (ducation inclusive implique que les écoles doivent changer leurs représentations sociales et leurs attitudes, leur curriculum et leurs pratiques pédagogiques. De tels changements impliquent l'élimination d'un modèle déficitaire qui étiquette les élèves avec besoins éducatifs particuliers et imaginer l'école inclusive comme un "laboratoire social").

La construction de "l'école inclusive" requiert sept conditions (Bonjour, Lapeyre, 200, p. 203):

- a) La postulat de l'éducabilité implique un tâtonnement et une remise en question constante.
- b) Le maître doit pouvoir maintenir des objectifs d'apprentissage.
- c) La variété des organisations, la classe, le petit groupe, offre des occasions diversifiées de rencontres, avec des distances relationnelles et des charges affectives différentes.
- d) La solidarité et la flexibilité du cadre éducatif est sécurisante pour tous.
- e) L'évaluation pluri-factorielle, qualitative autant que quantitative, rationalise la scolarisation.
- f) Selon les circonstances, un professionnel ou un élève tuteur apportent les remédiations nécessaires pour que l'enfant se sente vivre, travailler, évoluer.
- g) La contractualisation famille/école/institution soignante définit l'accord et l'éthique du projet.

Formalisée ou pas, les sept conditions garantissent le sens des actions intégratives.

“L’intégration de l’enfant atypique est un élément essentiel de la transformation de l’école, une chance qui lui est offerte pour abandonner ses pratiques archaïques; c’est une chance qui retentira inévitablement sur tous les enfants” (Canevaro, 1992, p. 88). L’inclusion entraîne une transformation de toute la pédagogie dans le sens d’une attention aux différences. L’inclusion scolaire d’enfants atypiques constitue un processus et une réalité psycho-socio-pédagogique à construire et à conduire. L’impératif éducatif qu’introduit l’insertion d’un enfant avec besoins particuliers dans une classe ordinaire, réveille la recherche de solutions pédagogiques nouvelles, d’une organisation plus harmonieuse des rapports et d’une meilleure compréhension.

Dans les “écoles inclusives”, le parcours pédagogiques que suit l’enseignement trace les lignes des dispositions normatives qui prévoient l’analyse de la situation initiale et la connaissance du élève, y compris à travers le diagnostic fonctionnel et l’évaluation dynamique du potentiel d’apprentissage, ainsi que la construction des axes de référence “cognitive-affective-relationnel”, qui est essentiellement pris en compte, pour mettre ensuite au point la programmation des activités personnalisée.

Les objectifs de la programmation se réfèrent à la sphère du soi, les modalités et les interventions pédagogiques concernant, en bref: a) la construction d’environnements éducatifs conformes aux nécessités de l’enfant; b) le développement des compétences sensori-motrices et proprioceptives; c) l’intensification des expériences émotives positives; d) activation des processus mentaux à travers des expériences pratiques pour accroître la prise de conscience personnelle; d) le développement et le renforcement des compétences communicatives, expressives et relationnelles.

L’école n’est pas le seul lieu de l’inclusion mais force est de reconnaître qu’elle constitue un cadre essentiel de développement des capacités cognitive, de socialisation et d’insertion sociale. Trois axes structurent les interventions intégratives: *l’axe psychologique, l’axe pédagogique et l’axe sociale* (Bonjour, Lapeyre, 2000, p. 189).

L’axe psychologique permet de nous intéresser à l’enfant intégré, à ses difficultés et à ses possibilités et nous invite à nous demander si l’intégration est positive pour cet enfant-là. *L’axe pédagogique* amène à nous interroger sur le curriculum et sur les méthodes d’enseignement. *L’axe sociale* nous fait étudier l’école et la classe, leur profil réel ou attendu, la modifiabilité possible de ces milieux.

Intégrer les élèves atypiques - c’est susciter la motivation scolaire des élèves; définir précisément les objectifs d’apprentissage; formuler précisément les consignes; susciter un conflit cognitif; utiliser les interactions du groupe; mettre en oeuvre la médiation et la remédiation; proposer des *programmes éducatifs personnalisés (PEP)*; susciter et accompagner les stratégies cognitives et métacognitives qui président aux apprentissages; évaluer régulièrement les acquis de l’élève. Les objectifs retenus dans les *programmes éducatifs personnalisés*

(PEP) devrait répondre à trois critères de qualité: a) l'objectifs doit correspondre à l'âge chronologique et mental de l'enfant; b) l'objectifs doit être fonctionnel; c) l'objectifs doit être generalisé dans plusieurs environnements (Paour, 1991).

Les objectifs individuels retenus dans les PEP répondent à des besoins identifiés dans au moins un des domaines suivantes: motricité, communication, cognition, socialisation, comportement interpersonnel. Pour réaliser l'activité éducative, l'enfant avec une déficience doit participer et collaborer avec un élève valide (activité interactive, tutorat). Le comportement-cible doit être enseigné en envisageant plusieurs situations et en utilisant du matériel différent, y compris dans les conditions naturelles, c'est-à-dire dans les conditions où il devrait réellement se produire.

3. L'apprentissage médiatisé, la modifiabilité cognitive et l'inclusion scolaire

Pour saisir le rôle de la médiation dans la dynamique développementale, les travaux de L. Vygotsky, de J. Bruner et de R. Feuerstein paraissent plus appropriés.

Etudiant l'incidence des pratiques éducatives sur le développement intellectuel, Vygotsky (1972) démontre l'importance de la relation d'enseignement pour le développement de la pensée. Le psychologue russe met en interaction le niveau de développement et les capacités potentielles d'apprentissage. Il distingue en fait deux niveaux de développement. Le premier correspond au degré atteint par les fonctions psychiques. Il est intra-personnel et révèle le développement actuel, saisi communément par la prise en considération de l'activité autonome, c'est-à-dire de ce qui peut être résolu seul et sans aide. Le second correspond à ce que l'enfant est en mesure de réaliser lorsqu'il est aidé. Il est interpersonnel et restitue le développement potentiel qui se définit sans l'activité interactive. Pour Vygotsky, la différence entre les capacités d'actions avec des aides et celles d'actions autonomes définit la *zone proximale de développement*. Donc, l'enfant pourra accomplir seul demain ce qu'il est en mesure de faire avec aide aujourd'hui. C'est l'alternance de situations pédagogiques d'étayage et de désétayage qui organise la progression vers des niveaux de maîtrise supérieurs. L'enseignement est un facteur important pour déterminer la "zone proximale de développement". Les apprentissages fondamentaux contribuent de façon décisive à l'évolution des fonctions psychiques supérieures. Selon Vygotsky, chaque fonction psychique dans le développement culturel de l'enfant apparaît en scène deux fois, sur deux plans: d'abord sur le plan social et ensuite sur le plan psychologique; d'abord entre des hommes, comme catégorie interpsychique, ensuite à l'intérieur de l'enfant comme catégorie intrapsychique. Donc, l'interaction sociale (interpsychique) apparaît comme forme extérieure d'un processus mental (intrapsychique). Le processus mental apparaît comme relation sociale, comme interaction sociale. Les échanges au sein du groupe créeront un conflit socio-cognitif qui aidera l'élève à résoudre ses propres interrogations. En général, nous trouvons des processus cognitifs réalisés non par un élève mais par

plusieurs. Le plus souvent, les enfants ne peuvent pas résoudre seuls les problèmes auxquels ils sont confrontés; il y a ici un élargissement de leurs capacités parce que chaque enfant prend à sa charge une partie du processus (Ivic, 1987).

C'est grâce aux interactions sociales générées dans l'acte éducatif que les apprentissages s'effectuent. Intégrer, c'est utiliser les interactions du groupe. Les interactions sociales se caractérisent par des médiations. Or, le manque d'expérience médiatisée provoque un syndrome de déprivation culturelle qui participe du déficit cognitif (Feuerstein, 1996; Bruner, 1997; Fuster, Jeanne, 2000).

La médiation est l'action de servir d'intermédiaire entre des personnes ou des réalités. Dans les écoles inclusives, l'espace pédagogique, celui dans lequel s'exerce ce "savoir organiser les circonstances", est alors, au sens strict, un espace de médiation. L'éducateur – médiateur, au service de l'émergence d'un développement positif, c'est-à-dire d'un individu doté de modèles de comportement de plus en plus "puissant" est: a) un accompagnateur, comme le fait comprendre le concept de régulation; b) un témoin privilégié pour en évaluer et en favoriser les progrès (l'évaluation "facilitatrice"); c) un personne qui instaure une relation d'aide (il est là, non pur sanctionner, mais pour aider, pour faciliter les apprentissages). La tâche essentielle est d'organiser le contexte pédagogique, en imaginant et en proposant les situations éducatives adéquates. L'éducateur, en organisant l'environnement pour le rendre éducatif, impose des rencontres, des situations, des exercices. Le médiateur va réguler les relations entre apprenants et les contenus de la formation. Dans cette régulation, il faut introduire la construction des savoir. Donc, le médiateur va être précisément celui qui non seulement va réguler entre l'élève et contenu de l'apprentissage mais aussi entre la transmission du savoir et la construction des savoirs.

La médiation spécialisée requiert un type et un intensité d'interaction différents. Selon Feuerstein (1996, p. 143), "la médiation, considérée comme responsable de la plasticité et de la modifiabilité de l'individu, peut ne pas se réaliser pour deux catégories de raisons: parce qu'on n'a pas médié à un moment donné à cause de facteurs exogènes (l'environnement) ou bien parce que, pour des raisons endogènes, l'enfant n'a pas pu utiliser la médiation qui lui a été donnée. On a pu aussi essayer de médier, mais d'une manière telle qu'il n'a pas été possible de pénétrer le système cognitivo-affectif atypique de l'enfant".

Plus les élèves sont perturbés, fragiles, en échec, plus la médiation doit être soutenue, ranimante et maintenue durablement dans le temps; ce sont là les conditions nécessaires et indispensables pour favoriser un changement et induire une "réanimation cognitive" (Gardou, C., 1996, p. 114).

Selon Debray (1989, p. 28-32) il existe dix critères concernant *l'expérience d'apprentissage médiatisé*: a) l'intentionnalité et la réciprocité; b) la transcendance; c) la médiation de la signification; d) la médiation du sentiment de compétence; e) la régulation et le contrôle médiatisé du comportement; f) la médiation des l'acte de partager ("sharing behavior"); g) la médiation des différences individuelles; h) la médiation dans l'établissement, le choix et l'atteinte d'objectifs vise à insérer l'enfant

dans des projets inscrits dans la durée; i) la médiation dans la confrontation aux défis: la recherche de la nouveauté et de la complexité est très liée au critère précédent qu'elle déborde et élargit; j) la médiation de la conscience de la modifiabilité humaine.

Accepter l'éducabilité cognitive c'est adhérer à l'idée que l'intelligence est éduicable, quels que le niveau de fonctionnement cognitif manifesté de l'enfant. Le schéma qui préside à cette conception donne une place prépondérante aux interactions sociales par médiation de l'enseignant ou par médiation des paires:

Médiation

Médiation

Situation/tâche d'apprentissage ↔ Élève ↔ Réponse

C'est au travers d'un processus d'étayage élaboré par l'adulte que l'enfant progresse. C'est grâce aux interactions sociales générées dans l'acte éducatif que les apprentissages s'effectuent. Les perspectives offertes par le concept d'éducabilité cognitive amènent l'enseignant à développer quelques pratiques pour une pédagogie de la médiation, corrective et constructiviste. Il faut que l'enfant avec besoins particuliers se trouve dans un environnement modifiant, interactif et stimulant. "Quand nous avons établi un diagnostic, nous cherchons à connaître la modifiabilité de l'individu, nous définissons les stratégies préférentielles pour chaque enfant et la cible de notre intervention" (Feuerstein, 1996, p.144). Feuerstein pense qu'il existe, en chaque apprenant, un potentiel d'évolution de ses structures opératoires. Il refuse les tests classiques qui "sanctionnent" l'échec et assimilent performance et compétence, état de l'individu à un moment donné et potentiel réel. Il met au point une série d'évaluations: le LPAD ("Learning Potential Assessment Device"), qui mesure le comportement du sujet, avant, puis après lui avoir donné des éléments de stratégie lui permettant de résoudre les problèmes auxquels il est confronté. Ce modèle renvoie au concept de "zone de proche développement" défini par Vygotsky. L'adulte – psychologue, pédagogue, parent – prend le statut de facilitateur, de médiateur. La médiation se situe dans une *approche constructiviste* du savoir. Feuerstein constate la réalité de la modifiabilité cognitive qui pronostique toute personne, quel que soit son âge ou son déficience, peut développer sa capacité d'apprendre à apprendre.

Potentiel d'éducabilité et médiation structurante sont les deux principes fondateurs du *programme d'enrichissement instrumental (PEI)*. L'idée qui prévaut dans la mise en place du PEI est que il convient de développer une approche pédagogique "active-modifiante". Apprendre, c'est mettre en oeuvre des activités mentales et des stratégies, négociées avec l'ensemble des variables de situations prise en compte par les élèves.

Les *méthodes cognitives* s'imposent comme une réponse plausible aux nombreux questions soulevées actuellement pour l'éducation inclusive. Rappelons, selon Perradeau 1996, p. 151), quelques-unes des fortes caractéristiques qu'elles portent:

- Elle donnent une réponse particulièrement pertinente aux disfonctionnements de la structuration opératoire;
- Elles valident la pratique du travail par groupe; celui-ci devient procédure préférentielle sous réserve d'adopter des conditions rigoureuses;
- Elles permettent de ne plus confondre compétence et performance. L'enseignant comprend que le potentiel susceptible d'évolution ne peut plus être figé en une image sommative. Il est plus libérateur pour l'élève de prendre conscience de son potentiel et des stratégies dont il dispose pour les faire émerger.

Selon Perradeau (1996, p.116), le pédagogue doit: a) corriger les fonctions cognitives déficientes à chacune des trois étapes de l'acte mental défini par la théorie de la communication (input ou tri des informations; le traitement de l'information; l'output ou mode de transmission du traitement); b) corriger les prérequis déficients: vocabulaire, procédures, opérations; c) développer la motivation, susciter l'intérêt en évitant le repli vers des réponses toutes faites, dont lui, le formateur, serait dépositaire; d) développer l'idée de projet: inscrire une action qui ne se satisfasse pas de l'immédiété, mais se définisse dans la durée et la possibilité de transfert vers d'autres champs disciplinaires; e) modifier l'image que l'individu en échec a de lui-même; valoriser et faire prendre conscience que la construction du savoir a des implications sur la construction de la me; valoriser et faire prendre conscience que la construction du savoir a des implications sur la construction de la personnalité.

Donc, en conclusion, dans le processus d'inclusion scolaire des enfants avec besoins particuliers, les sciences de l'éducation rationalisent l'acte éducatif, réduisent l'aléatoire, s'articulent à la pratique dans une dialectique étroite et livrent à nos questions quelques réponses nouvelles. Apprendre, c'est procéder à une synthèse indéfiniment renouvelée entre la continuité et la nouveauté. Les recherches psychologiques, psycho-pédagogiques et sociologiques apportent des regards circonstanciés sur cette aventure qu'engage l'inclusion scolaire.

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PERSONALIZING THE HEARING TRAINING OF THE CHILDREN WITH COCHLEAR IMPLANT BY SELECTING AND ADAPTING THE LINGUISTIC MATERIAL

MARIA ANCA*, CAROLINA HĂȚEGAN**

ABSTRACT. The article tries to underline the features of the hearing training for the children with cochlear implant, focusing on the need to adapt and to select the used linguistic material accordingly to the Romanian language features, to every child's need. We use an Italian linguistic material in order to emphasize the criteria we have to be aware while selecting a linguistic material and then we discuss several Romanian linguistic selected samples in order to be used in the hearing training of the children with cochlear implant underlying their utility.

Zusammenfassung: Individualisierung des Gehörtrainings für Kinder mit Kochlearimplantaten mit Hilfe der Auswahl und Anpassung des verwendeten Sprachmaterials Dieser Aufsatz möchte die Merkmale des Gehörtrainings für Kinder mit Kochlearimplantaten hervorheben, indem man sich auf die Notwendigkeit der Anpassung und Auswahl des verwendeten Sprachmaterials konzentriert, das sowohl den Eigenschaften der rumänischen Sprache als auch den Bedürfnissen jedes Kindes entsprechen soll. Die Autoren verwenden ein italienisches Sprachmaterial zum Zweck der Hervorhebung der Kriterien, die bei der Auswahl des Sprachmaterials in Betracht gezogen werden sollen. Danach werden mehrere ausgesuchte rumänische Sprachbeispiele diskutiert, die im Rahmen des Gehörtrainings für Kinder mit Kochlearimplantaten verwendet werden sollen und deren Wichtigkeit als grundlegend angesehen wird.

1. The cochlear implant- introductory aspects

The cochlear implant represents the latest successfully used procedure in the rehabilitating therapy of the children with severe and profound hearing impairments (the hearing loss being over 70-80 db),

By using this type of prosthesis the children can get access to the world of the sounds even in the cases when their hearing loss is very serious, cases in which a regular prosthesis, an analogical or a digital one can't offer a useful improvement of the situation. The cochlear implant seems to be the perfect solution in such cases, as long as the following criteria are fulfilled (Anca, M., 2000, Karasek, T., Dettman, D., Jhonson, D.L., 1991):

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- The child has to be physically healthy enough in order to be able to go through a medical surgery.
- The child's state of the nervous residual fibers has to fit in the minimal accepted level, allowing the apparition of the electrical activity potential.
- According to the logopedical, audiological, and psychological evaluation is established the fact that having such a prothesis the child will improve a lot his condition.
- The child has not other associated deficiencies such as: mental deficiencies or personality disorders.
- The family has real expectations concerning his state evolution and can offer him the necessary support through out the speech therapy which comes after the medical intervention, a therapy whose extension in time can't be foreseen (this aspect varying from case to case).

2. The criteria for the selection and adaptation of the linguistic material.

Having into consideration these criteria we can underline the fact that the necessity for personalizing the speech therapy has a very high level. Under such circumstances the Italian speech therapists have come, for the first time, to the conclusion that in order to personalize every intervention in the hearing and speech fields there have to be done several selections of the linguistic material they use. Thus they came up with several lists of linguistic material they used. These lists were improved by each firm that does business in this field and we can find several types of illustrated linguistic materials on the market. Of course that their usage can't offer the same success that is offered by the personalized type of intervention (the personalization process involves the linguistic material that is used) (Frasner, 1995).

Their first mistake is that they are just translated from one language into another without being taken into consideration the particularities of every language and of every culture. These particularities are extremely important as these make, in fact, what every language really is. Through the hearing and speech therapy we try to build and educate a communicative competence in a certain language, thus without a particularized intervention we are not able to fulfill this goal.

In order to adapt and select an efficient linguistic material the Italian therapists introduced as main criterion the phonological criteria (Floss, 1997). This criterion underlines the fact that the linguistic system of every language is double articulated- through segmental elements (vowels and consonants) and suprasegmental elements (intonation, stress, rhythm, juncture). Juncture is a suprasegmental element particular to English language, for instance, it has no correspondence in the Italian or Romanian language, thus it doesn't concern us at all. We took it into consideration only in order to bring another argument for underlying the necessity for adaptation and selection of the linguistic material that is used (Dorman, 1993).

By using the phonological criteria we can manipulate the following aspects directly concerning the linguistic material:

- the combination of the phonemes inside the words;
- the position of the sounds inside the words;
- is allowed the selection of those words which are not very difficult concerning their reception or their pronunciation;
- is allowed the selection of those words which can bring very many difficulties in reception and in pronunciation;
- the combination of the phonemes in such a way they can get different contextual distinctive particularities;
- the presence of the different type of stress or intonatory patterns.

All these enumerated aspects ensure the possibility to practice with the child the most appropriated linguistic material, having into consideration level he got to during the hearing and speech training. The phonological criteria also can offer the therapists the chance to better monitorize and organize the necessary adjustments as quickly as possible. Thus, through selecting the linguistic material all the time, the therapists can place his intervention in the area called by Vîgotsky “the area of the immediate development”.

This criterion forces us to reconsider the minimal unit of the hearing and of the speech therapy. Until now the therapists find the phoneme to be the minimal unit of their intervention. This perspective changed as the phonological criteria underlines the great importance of the neighbor phoneme and of the co-articulation. By co-articulating (pronouncing the phonemes together) the phonemes can influence one another, thus appearing the numerous variants of every phoneme, variants named allophones. There are several researchers who emphasize the fact that in linguistic act, during speaking, we use only allophones, the phoneme (with all his particular distinctive marks) being always altered (the phoneme receiving contextual marks).

The new minimal unit of the hearing and speech therapy is the syllable. The syllable is the unit which can be double defined- segmental and suprasegmental, but also analyzed as sample for the materialization of co-articulation and the problems it involves. *Abraham, Suzanne* and *Weiner, Frederick*, (1985) proved the great importance of training the syllables, they having the same role as words in well known communicative contexts.

The phonological principle allows us to practice all the four components of the communicative competence – *the speaking, listening, writing and reading competences*. These four components are a resulted after analyzing, from two main points of views, the communicative competence: from the point of view of the *ability to produce or to comprehend a text* and from the point of view of *the type of the text- oral text or written text* (Dull Hymes, 1966 in Pamfil, 2003).

In this way the child is being given a real chance of becoming a competent user of the language, of integrating among the valid ones, the community he comes from. Otherwise the technological revolution and innovation which can be

identified in what the cochlear implant is concerned can become unnecessary, just an economical loss and a time consuming activity.

In the following lines we shall emphasize, from a practical perspective, the need for putting into practice the phonological criterion while selecting or adapting the linguistic material used during the hearing and the speech therapy of the child with cochlear implant.

In several times, with several children with cochlear implant it could be observed the fact that they perceive and pronounce with great difficulty the word "elefant" (elephant). While being one of a series of other words the word "elefant" is replaced with the word "leu" (lion), (on the given lists these words appear often together among other words). Under such circumstances we are forced to find an explanation for such thing as the mentioned mistake turned to function as a rule. Analyzing the phonological structure of the word and the way the phonemes influence one another seems to be the only functional, accepted manner of interpreting the existent situation. Therefore, the children with cochlear implant seem to be unable to perceive the final group of phonemes "nt" of the word. This fact is explainable as both those phonemes are voiceless in the given context, the phoneme "n" is voiceless only as a result of co-articulation impact, while the phoneme "t", a naturally voiceless phoneme becomes even less perceivable. While being co-articulated a sonorant as "n" is desonorized when it is placed close to a voiceless phoneme, especially on the final position. The phoneme "f" being a fricative one can't be perceived by the children with cochlear implant. Its middle position facilitates the appearance of obstacles and difficulties in perceiving. As a result we can come to the conclusion that a child with cochlear implant can perceive from the word "elefant" only parts, thus he identifies the word "leu" from the list, this word being close enough to the perceivable phonemic structure "elea".

After analyzing this example we can underline the fact that by using the phonological principal in the special education field we can solve unexplainable problems similar with that mentioned above, at least while the children with cochlear implant are in a beginning stage of the rehabilitation therapy. We stress on this initial stage at this level the therapists' purpose and the goal of their therapy is to underline for the children and for his family the great advantages that are brought by this prothesis, instead of stressing on its limits. This aspect is of extreme importance in managing the impact of the motivational, attitudinal and emotional factors which are involved in any learning process. Of great importance is also the need to offer the child, being on an initial therapy stage, the opportunity to build the basement absolutely necessary in order to turn him into a competent speaker.

The materialization of the phonological criteria can act not only in the way of reducing the complexity of the linguistic material, but also in the way of creating the most complex and complicated linguistic structure in order to offer the child the best chance to integrate from a social and professional standpoint. Thus, this principle can be successfully used in order to particularize every intervention, the

word selection being, by far, reported to the concept of new opportunities. Interpreting the process of selection of the linguistic material according to the phonological principle, from a limitative point of view is a great mistake, this process being in the best way illustrated by the spiral symbol, going beyond the symbol of the circle. All these aspects are mentioned in order to establish a clear distance between the classical type of therapeutic intervention, the orthophonic one, and the changed one according to the needs of the child with cochlear implant. There are several studies that could show important differences in what the vowel and consonant perception and production is concerned in the hearing impaired child case (Robbins, A. M., Osberger, M.J., Miyamoto, R.T. Renshaw, J.J. and Carney, A.E., 1988, Kirk, K.I., Tye-Murray, N., 1993). In their cases, the orthophonic intervention, a type of intervention which stresses only on the phonemes, turns to be unsuccessful. The child with cochlear implant has different needs compared with the child with other language impairment or with the child who bears other types of prosthesis. This child even if he cannot pronounce a certain phoneme, they can hear it, can perceive it, aspect that can lead to a spontaneous acquisition of that specific phoneme. That is why we underline the great importance of giving the child with cochlear implant the chance to experience as many linguistic opportunities as possible.

3. The adaptation of the linguistic material

If the Italian specialists in this field obtained impressive results by putting into practice the phonological principle in selecting the linguistic material they used during the therapy sessions we can work by using their material? This is a very important question we have to find an answer. This wanted answer can't be but the one that we should appreciate their work adapting their linguistic material to our language particularities and to our children. The phonological systems of Romanian and Italian language are very different, although they have something in common, their Latin origins. But besides the linguistics differences we can also identify cultural ones, the language being in close relationship with the culture of the people it belongs. Those arguments underlines the great need to adapt the linguistic material the Italian used to our own linguistic system, to our own culture and to the children` needs.

In the following we will emphasize some samples of selected and adapted linguistic material that was successfully used with several children with cochlear implant during the speech and hearing therapy sessions.

The adaptation and selection of the linguistic material are designed on two main areas, segmentals and suprasegmentas. The role and the implications of the segmentals elements is often analyzed in the specialized books, the role of the suprasegmentals are rarely brought in discussion, as in the children with cochlear implant couldn` t access them or their implications in rehabilitations being minimal.

Higgins, M., Mc Cleary, E., Carney, A.E., Schulte, L. in (2003) by team work proved that in time the abilities of the child with cochlear implant improve also on the suprasegmentals level as long as those aspects are separately trained. Thus, this research along with the Italian one gives us enough reasons to articulate our intervention both on segmentals and on suprasegmentals.

3.1. The adapted and selected linguistic material, samples of Italian and Romanian words underlying the segmental level of the linguistic systems

As we have already mentioned the selected and the adapted Romanian linguistic material had as a model the Italian linguistic material.

Thus the Italian linguistic material is organized according to the following principles:

-first of all they use a linguistic material characterized from a segmental and a suprasegmental point of view.

-they stress on the importance of the syllable.

-they structure their linguistic material in order to be made the following distinctions: disyllabic-polysyllabic (words with three, four and five syllables).

Having structured all these aspects we can offer a sample from their material (Floss, 1997):

Tabel 1.

Two syllables words	Three syllables words	Four syllables words	Five syllables words
Pera (peach) (pară)	Tovolo (table) (masă)	Domenica (Sunday) (duminică)	Pettinatrice (hair stylist) (coafeză)
Topo (mouse) (șoarece)	Medico(doctor) (medic)	Patatima (fry pie) (cartof prăjit)	Impertinente (rude) (obraznic)
Mela (apple) (măr)	Vitelloo (beef) (vițel)	Domandare (asking) (solicitare)	Tredicesima (the thirteen) (a treisprezecea)

The Romanian variant of the Italian words prove again the fact that the linguistic material has to be adapted to the Romanian language particularities, the difference does not concern only the phonemic and the syllabic structure, but also the morphological and the lexematic structure of every word. For instance: if we take a close look to the Italian word “patatima” we can underline the fact that it is a simple word, while translating it into Romanian language the difference strikes us. In our language “patatima” means “ cartof prăjit” (fry pie), thus we are dealing with two words.

The Italian linguistic material has other particularities, such as: the presence of the double consonants (twins consonants), for instance, the double consonant “t”, from the word “vittelo”. The presence of those consonants is a feature inherited from the Latin language. In Romanian language this feature is not inherited, even if our language is still a Latin one. We mention this feature of the Italian language as it

has great importance for facilitating the reception and the pronunciation of the linguistic material as they are pronounced as sounds bearing stress, louder and longer. This contextual distinctive mark characterizing the twin consonants seems to be largely exploited by the Italian specialists.

The Italian selected linguistic material proves again the fact that in order to obtain successful results with the child with cochlear implant we have to select a linguistic material avoiding the complicated consonants or the diphthongs and the triphthongs groups, at least in the first stage of the hearing training.

Their selected linguistic material place a great interest on *stress*, the suprasegmental element which is extremely important in daily life speaking, thus exploiting it the hearing training comes to fulfill the most important goal of the this specific therapy, to ensure the child the socio and professional integration in the community he comes from.

The last important feature of the selected Italian linguistic material is that it establishes only the difference disyllabic – polysyllabic, letting behind the monosyllabic words as these monosyllabic words are extremely rare in the Italian vocabulary. In what the Romanian language is concern we have to underline the fact that the situation is not closely the same. Thus, a Romanian selected linguistic material has to establish this difference as monosyllabic- polysyllabic, the monosyllabic words from the Romanian vocabulary being in a grate number. If the Italian linguistic material has into account the word with five syllables, the Romanian linguistic material can't do the same as those words are rare and extremely difficult from all points of views (phonological, morphological, lexematic or sintagmatic), most of them being neologism that have a less complicated synonym in the vocabulary.

Going further we can conclude with to the fact that adapting and selecting the linguistic material in order to personalize the hearing and speech training of the child with cochlear implant we are forced to analyze it at every level: phonologic, morphologic, lexematic and sintagmatic. As an argument to support this approach we can underline the structural linguistic approach (Sassure in Coșeriu, 1999) according to which language is a system of integrating and integrated levels, going from the simplest one (the phonological level), to the most complex one (the sintagmatic level). This also contributes to a better understanding of the need to practice as many linguistic structures as possible going through all the language levels, otherwise stressing only on one level (for instance, as we have already mentioned the case of the ortophonetic intervention through which only the phonological level of the language is practiced) will create a purely artificialized communicative competence for the mentioned children (Tye-Murray, N., Spencer, L., Gilbert-Bedia, E., 1995).

After this detailed analyze of the Italian linguistic material we come to the conclusion that we have to adapt it, where it is possible, and to select our own linguistic samples, having in mind the children' needs following the Italian principles.

In the following we can present some samples from the Romanian selected linguistic material:

Table 2.

Words with one syllable	Words with two syllables	Words with three syllables	Words with four syllables
Cub (cub)	Zală (zeal)	Mămică (mummy)	Rândunică (swallow)
Măr (apple)	Masă (table)	Ramură (bow)	Păsărică (bird)
Păr (hair)	Fată (girl)	Bunică (grandmother)	Buburuză (lady bird)
Rac (cancer)	Vacă (cow)	Pisică (cat)	Duminică (Sunday)

As it can be observed there are several translated words from the Italian list of words that we can use in our children hearing training. These words are: “duminică” (Sunday), “masă” (table) but the list is longer.

In the Romanian linguistic material are avoided the words that have as components - diphthongs, triphthongs or hiatus as all these can interfere seriously in perceiving and pronouncing the words.

In order to diversify the children's linguistic experiences through Romanian selected material the stress is put on the syllables and on them being as diverse as possible. That is why we had selected words such as: “nara” (nostril) – “rana” (wound) where the difference between these words does not lay in their phonemic structure, but in the way those two syllables “na” and “ra” are combined. By using this type of words the children can get used to the language process as communication is not static, it being procesual.

Having in mind the need to exploit all the language levels we also selected words in order to train the morphological side of the language. For instance: “pătură” (blanket) - “păturică” (little blanket). The diminutival morpheme “ică” changes both the meaning and the phonemic structure of the word, lengthening it. This kind of linguistic material has as purpose the underlying of the means used by the speaker in order to reach his communicative aims, interests and needs.

Training the same morphological level of the language the Italian linguistic material brings about the problem of the article. In what those both languages are concerned on the article, they are very different. Thus, in Romania the definite article is enclitically realized, in Italian it is proclitically realized. For instance: the Italian “*il bambino*” (the child), in Romanian can be translated only as “*copilul*” (the child). This difference prove again the importance of the adaptation and selection process, otherwise we can get to the point of training the language at a surface level, without going deeper.

From the Romanian list of linguistic material we can exemplify the following words, all of them being definitely articulated: “masa” (the table) – “mesele” (the

tables); “fata” (girl) – “fetele” (the girls). Studying these type of grammatical forms of the words in comparison can offer the children a clearer image upon the grammatical level of the language leading to the construction of a whole grammatical paradigm, paradigm illustrated by the nouns: fată (girl), unarticulated noun -fata (the girl) singular, definitely articulated noun – fetele (the girls), plural, definitely articulated noun.

The last category of selected words is the paronym, the group of words being different only because of a certain phoneme. In this way the children with cochlear implant have the chance to enlarge their vocabulary and to practice their hearing abilities gained by using such a performant prothesis. The same category of words was also used by the Italians, for example: “mamo” (hand) – “memo” (less), “pizza” (pizza) – “pizzo” (mouth) with the same goals.

We can offer some samples from the Romanian selected material: oral (oral)- orar (timetable), bard (poet) – brad (tree), cal (horse) – lac (lake), puls (pulse)- plus (plus). We can use this kind of linguistic material in the last part of the hearing training as it can create great difficulties to the children, but it is also extremely useful in order to give the child the chance to practice the real language, the “street language”. By naming “the street language” we refer to the language used day by day in communication. Thus, this kind of words is usually used in order to make a difference, to underline something or just for fun. In fact using language in this way represents the real communicative competence.

3.2 The adapted and selected linguistic material, samples of Italian and Romanian words underlying the suprasegmental level of the linguistic systems

The homographes represent the last category of words selected in order to create a functional personalized hearing training for the children with cochlear implant. The Italian specialists also used this kind of words, but mentioning that these words are extremely difficult and they can be used only after the child went through a thoroughly hearing training period. Sometimes they can be perceived as a great novelty by the children and they can help them, very much, in changing their opinion about the language and its utility, but also about the utility of the hearing training.

In the following we can present some samples from both the Italian and the Romanian selected linguistic material:

- It. Pepe (without meaning) – pepé (piper)
- It. Como (without meaning) - comó (coffin)
- It. Petri (rat) - petrí (fairytale)
- Rom. álbi (white) – albí (to paint it white)
- Rom. Eléva (the pupil) – elevá (to raise)
- Rom. Vesélă (happy) – véselă (the dishes).

The way the italians put into practice this kind of words is extremely interesting and useful for the children with cochlear implant. Thus they brought into practice the two differently stress words by studying for the first time a certain form, word (frequently) used and by establishing oppositions the other correspondent word.

In the romanian hearing training the omophones can be used in the same way, having a greater importance over the enlarging of the children vocabulary, but also on practicing their language morphological level. As we can see in Romanian the stress has mostly a morphological function, it acts as a morpheme (Vasiliu, 1965, Stan, 1996). According to some romanian linguists it also acts as a phoneme (Săteanu, 1978), although this perspective is not officially accepted.

In the end the italian specialists put together the studied words and trained all the levels of the language in a functional way, in communicative context. In this way they brought into discussion the intonative patterns and their extreme importance in communication. The greater importance of intonation and of all the pulled together prosodic features is emphasized on English language, too, the researchers underlining the fact that training intonation the children are given new functional strategies to build meaning, to understand from a semantic point of view what they are being told (Ottalpin, 2001, Klive, S., Jeanes, R.C., 2006).

By introducing the intonative patterns they could establish a gradation in practicing language at this level, according to the degree of perceptibility of every intonative structure. Thus, the interrogative structures are better perceived by the children with cochlear implant, than the imperative ones, not to speak about the enuntiative ones.

After analysing the romanian intonative curves we can also establish the same gradation: interrogative, imperative and enuntiative. The interrogative sentences being the most perceivable, followed by the imperative and then the enuntiative ones.

Here are some samples of the selected both romanian and italian linguistic material:

It. Facciamon i compiti? (Do we have to do our homework?)

It. Facciamon i compiti! (Let's do our homework!)

It. Facciamon i compiti. (We do our homework.)

Rom. Mărul îți place? (Do you like the apple?)

Rom. Îți place mărul! (You really like apple!) – surprise

Rom. Să consumi mere! (You are supposed to eat apples!) - advice

Rom. Cum îți place mărul? (How do you like the apple?) (juice, baked)

Rom. Mărul este bun. (The apple is good.)

We have emphasized a larger variety of linguistic structure with different meanings given by the different intonative patterns attached in order to underline the language dynamism, its processual character. The hearing training has to use this aspect in order to give the child all the instruments for becoming a communicative speaker. It is important to valorize, at this training level, all the studied aspects (phonemes, words, morphological features, stress) adding new ones (intonation, syntax, pragmatic feature).

We would like to analyse the presented intonative patterns in order to be understood their particularities. Thus, the first interrogative sentence - Mărul îți place? (Do you like the apple?) – is the most easily perceivable as it has the most

spectacularous raising tone. The imperative sentence - *Îți place mărul!* (You really like apple!) - expressing surprise has a falling tone from the beginning till the end. The following sentence - *Să consumi mere!* (You are supposed to eat apples!)- expressing advice has a falling tone only in the beginning, in the end it being similar to that of the enuntiative sentence. The second type of interrogative structures, as it can be seen from the given example - *Cum îți place mărul?* (How do you like the apple?)- has a raising tone only on the first word, then the tone being neutral, similar to that of the enuntiative sentences. The enuntiative sentence - *Mărul este bun.* (The apple is good.)- has a neutral intonative pattern which does not facilitate the child's reception of the linguistic material. O'ttalpin, R., (2001) realized a research study on intonation proving its importance in ensuring the child a greater ability to perceive and to produce different linguistic structure.

All these aspects are reunited in communicative thematic sections allowing the child to practice language in context.

4. Conclusions

In the end we can emphasize the fact that by introducing the phonemic criterion in selecting and adapting the linguistic material for the children with cochlear implant we can offer them the chance to practice language at all its levels (phonemic, morphologic, semantic, pragmatic). As a result, they can be empowered with a *communicative competence*, defined as the ability of the children to use correctly language and adequate to the communicative context, avoiding the situation to obtain only *linguistic competence*, defined as the ability to formulate linguistic structure correctly from a grammatical point of view, having nothing to do with the contextual communication. Tye-Murray, N., Spencer, L., (1995) proved the fact that in time, benefiting from a complex hearing training the users of the cochlear implant have the chance to become competent speakers, the principle we mentioned proved to be encouraging in this direction.

In this way the child with cochlear implant can benefit to a greater degree from the prothesis contribution, having meaning all the financial, moral and psycho-pedagogical efforts both for the child and his own family.

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VERBOSITÉ, MUTISME, HALLUCINATION, OU LES STRUCTURES ANALYTIQUES DE LA PAROLE DANS L'AUTISME

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INHALTSANGABE. Der gegenwärtige Artikel bezweckt einen kurzen Überblick der Meinungen einiger Vertreter der psychoanalytischen Strömung, besonders die von Sigmund Freud und Jacques Lacan, weniger in Rumänien bekannt, betreffend die Möglichkeiten der Sprachentwicklung bei Kindern, zu sein. Später werden diese Erscheinungen im Falle des kindlichen Autismus vereinzelt und nur die Freudianerstrukturen der Sprache behalten, die im Rahmen dieses Syndromes fraglich sind. Hier im sprachwissenschaftlichen Bereich handelt es sich über die sogenannte Verbosität, Mutismus und Halluzination. In Hinblick der Veranschaulichung der behaupteten Sachen, haben wir auch zu einer kurzen Vorlegung eines Falles aus der Fachliteratur gegriffen. Ohne Anspruch einiger endgültigen Aufklärungen in diesem Bereich zu erheben, vertritt der Artikel eine andere Erscheinung betreffend die vorhandenen Sprachfragen im Falle des Autismus.

Schlüsselwörter: Sprache, Bedeutung, Verbosität, Mutismus, Halluzination, Symbolisch, Gestalt, Autismus.

ABSTRACT. The present article wishes to be a way of reviewing the opinions of some representatives of the psychoanalytic movement, specially Sigmund Freud and Jacques Lacan, less known in Romania, opinions concerning language development in children. These aspects will be then treated in relation to the infantile autism, with special reference to those particular language problems which are present in the cases of autism. We are talking about wordiness, stubborn silence and hallucination in the linguistic field. In order to show the reality of the exposed facts, we are also presenting a short case study from the literature. Without having any ideas of solving all the problems of language, the article presents another vision about language structures in autistic children.

Key-words: language, significant, wordiness, stubborn silence, hallucination, symbolisation, structure, autism.

Parler implique la sélection de certaines entités linguistiques et leur combinaison en unités linguistiques d'un plus haut degré de complexité. Cela apparaît tout de suite au niveau lexical: le locuteur choisit les mots et les combine en phrases conformément au système syntaxique de la langue qu'il utilise; les phrases à leur tour

sont combinées en énoncés. Mais le locuteur n'est d'aucune manière un agent complètement libre dans le choix des mots: la sélection doit se faire à partir du trésor lexical que lui-même et le destinataire du message possèdent en commun.

La conception lacanienne sur l'acquisition du langage suit une perspective structurale qui se constitue sur trois volets:

1) *Le rapport du sujet au langage: structure du langage et structure du sujet*

a) Antériorité du langage par rapport au sujet. Le sujet ne préexiste pas au langage. Le langage est premier par rapport au sujet. Le sujet n'a comme structure que celle qui lui vient du langage, puisque le sujet est un effet du langage. Il n'y aurait donc pas de «préverbal» chez l'être humain qui est d'emblée un être de langage. Lacan a formé à ce propos un néologisme: le terme de «parlêtre». L'homme fait sa croissance autant immergé dans un bain de langage que dans un milieu dit naturel.

b) Le «bain de langage». Il ne s'agit pas d'un bain de significations car il n'y a pas pour l'enfant de significations préexistantes. La signification est seconde (elle suppose un sujet) dans la mesure où les significations ne sont pas en tant que telles inscrites dans le langage. Le langage n'est pas un code, ce qui ramènerait à des significations toutes faites. Le «bain de langage» est un bain de signifiants, c'est à dire d'éléments sans signification aucune, mais non sans organisation. L'organisation en question peut se réduire à la binarité du signifiant (S1-S2). Pour que la signification puisse naître, il faut non pas un, mais deux signifiants. En effet, le signifiant du signe linguistique n'étant pas couplé à un signifié (ni objet, ni même concept, ce qui réduirait la langue à la nomenclature, erreur que F. De Saussure dénonçait déjà), il ne peut se rapporter qu'à un autre signifiant. Ceci est vrai dès le moment de la symbolisation primordiale dont une illustration, mais aussi un paradigme nous est livré dans l'observation du jeu du *fort-da* de Freud.

2) *Le jeu du fort-da et la symbolisation primordiale*

a) L'usage du signifiant est d'emblée l'usage d'une paire signifiante (*fort-da*), le *fort* n'a de signification que par rapport au *da* et inversement.

b) Langage et désir sont liés. Le désir peut se définir comme le manque du sujet et ceci du fait de la structure signifiante. Ce n'est pas seulement que le sujet parle parce qu'il désire mais surtout que le parlêtre désire parce qu'il parle. Le langage fait le lit du désir dans la mesure où le symbole est «le meutre de la chose».

c) Le jeu du *fort-da* met en évidence l'aliénation du sujet au signifiant, dans la mesure où le *fort-da*, le jeu d'occultation s'applique à l'enfant lui-même qui se fait aussi disparaître.

3) *Acquisition du langage et métaphore*

L'acquisition comme telle du langage n'est pas identifiable à l'apparition

des premiers mots. L'enfant qui est dans le langage avant de parler, peut parler (employer des mots) sans avoir véritablement la parole.

L'usage de la métaphore est le critère de l'entrée dans le symbolique en tant que système de signifiants.

La métaphore et la métonymie sont des figures de rhétorique dont Lacan emprunte la définition à R. Jakobson (1963). Dans le cas de la métonymie comme dans celui de la métaphore, il s'agit de substituer un signifiant à un autre signifiant lié au premier soit par rapport de continguité, soit par des rapports de similarité. Cet usage substitutif du langage, en particulier sous forme de la métaphore marque que l'enfant a désormais cette possibilité propre au langage humain de signifier toute autre chose que ce qu'il dit.

Lacan, enfin, a donné toute leur portée aux concepts de métonymie et de métaphore en les assimilant respectivement au déplacement et à la condensation, c'est à dire à des mécanismes fondamentaux de l'Inconscient en tant qu'il est structuré comme un langage.

Sous l'influence de Descartes, on a considéré que l'homme était un être pensant. Ce ne fut pas sans conséquence sur l'abord de la folie par les psychiatres qui l'étudièrent comme un phénomène de «dégradation de la pensée», comme le rappelle E. Minkowski dans son livre sur *La schizophrénie*. Lui-même d'ailleurs ne s'exclut pas de cette perspective. Voici ce qu'il écrit lorsqu'il commente la notion de l'autisme trouvée dans le *Traité* de Bleuler: «la pensée autiste ne cherche plus ni être communiquée aux autres d'une façon compréhensible, ni à diriger nos conduites conformément aux exigences de la réalité, et elle ne se sert plus du verbe de façon intelligible». La pensée autiste ainsi définie correspond à une dégradation du sens commun de la réalité. À la même époque, Freud découvrait l'inconscient. Si la folie comme le rêve lui ont paru être des formes particulières de la pensée inconsciente, il a montré que leur mode d'expression relevait des lois du langage. Ce faisant, Freud rompait avec la manière classique de concevoir le phénomène psychotique. À sa suite, J. Lacan nous a enseigné que l'homme est avant tout un être parlant.

C'est donc à partir de Lacan que nous nous proposons d'étudier l'autisme aux confins de la folie comme un phénomène de parole — nous démarquant de la thèse de Bleuler. Lacan, en effet, commentant «Les Mémoires de Schreber», étudie les structures freudiennes de la parole dans les psychoses. Pourquoi dès lors ne pas considérer les trois phénomènes de paroles que l'on peut recenser dans la *Conférence de Lacan à Genève (1975)* — la verbosité, le mutisme, l'hallucination — comme constituant les structures freudiennes de la parole dans l'autisme infantile? Ces phénomènes de paroles rendent compte d'une inertie propre, caractéristique, nous semble-t-il, du rapport du sujet au signifiant dans l'autisme infantile. Ce résultat a incité beaucoup d'auteurs à ranger cette entité clinique isolée par Kanner (1943), dans le champ des psychoses de l'enfant.

Pour soutenir ce point de vue, une analyse de ces trois phénomènes pris sous l'angle de la décomposition des lois de la parole serait utile. En plus, le témoignage

d'un garçon de onze ans qui a su nous faire remarquer la valeur signifiante de ses bruits, comme de son silence et nous a induit à interroger le difficile statut des hallucinations dans l'autisme infantile, serait d'un secours important.

La verbosité

Selon le *Littré* ce terme, fabriqué sur le mot latin *verbum* qui signifie parole, entre dans le dictionnaire de l'Académie seulement au XVIII^e-ème siècle et pour qualifier l'emploi d'une langue informe qui abonde en paroles sans beaucoup d'idées. Dans le *Robert*, il est noté que ce terme indique qu'il y a excès de mots chez celui qui parle. Il est un fait d'expérience que trop de mots fait perdre l'idée de ce qui se dit *a contrario* d'une pensée qui s'exprimerait de façon claire et concise. Si en termes freudiens le mot cerne la chose, alors il est concevable de considérer comme verbeux celui qui n'arrime pas les mots aux choses. Le terme de chose renverra ici à la série des objets en tant qu'ils ne condensent aucune valeur de jouissance. L'autiste ne pense ni avec les mots ni avec les choses dont il est séparé comme l'ont noté tous les auteurs du domaine. Il fait un usage si particulier du langage que Leo Kanner, en le remarquant, nous invite à nous y attarder. Avec Lacan (1975), nous ferons un pas de plus si nous admettons que le rapport du mot à la chose, c'est-à-dire à l'objet, fait intervenir une valeur de jouissance pour le sujet.

Dans les récits des cas que Kanner nous a transmis, il constatait que les enfants autistes étaient plutôt bruyants, et surtout qu'ils n'utilisaient pas le langage pour communiquer. Kanner avait remarqué que leurs paroles étaient réduites le plus souvent à des exercices de nominations mnémotechniques, à des reproductions écholaliques, ou à des phrases qui n'étaient plus que des combinaisons de mots entendus. Il est un fait d'évidence que l'ordre mémorisé d'énoncés fait perdre au langage sa valeur sémantique et du même coup, ce qui est dit perd toute valeur de résonance. Il reste des paroles desarrimées, inadaptées aux situations.

Prenons un exemple: «Mange le ou je ne te donnerai pas tes tomates, mais si tu ne le manges pas je te donnerai tes tomates». Cette phrase dite par un enfant de cinq ans revenait sans arrêt au moment des repas. Si on considère sa construction grammaticale: elle est correcte, mais sa logique incohérente produit un sens absurde (un ordre est suivi d'une menace, mais la contradictoire volontairement menaçante annule toute sanction). Quatre années plus tard, lorsqu'il était demandé à ce même enfant qui était scolarisé «de soustraire 4 de 10», il répondait étonnamment: «je déduis un hexagone». Sa mère pouvait écrire très raisonnablement à Kanner: «il fait des choses dans l'ordre mais sans sens». L'absurde ici cédait la place à un usage vrai de la langue. L. Kanner s'était étonné de ces répliques qu'il pensait «métaphoriques». Il considérait, en se fiant aux paroles énoncées par ces enfants, qu'ils étaient doués de bonnes possibilités intellectuelles, alors que tous avaient été tenus pour des «faibles d'esprit» à cause de leurs «rituels verbaux». Cette fine observation l'amena à isoler l'autisme infantile de la schizophrénie infantile.

En fait, l'enfant autiste ne fait aucun usage métaphorique de la langue. On ne pourra même pas dire qu'il fait un usage ironique du langage comme le montre l'exemple cité ou l'enfant appelle hexagone le chiffre 6. Cet enfant parle comme le lexique, comme s'il était ce lexique. Mais l'usage qu'il fait de la langue est plutôt «pédant» selon Kanner. La pédanterie affiche une prétention de savoir. Elle informe que quelqu'un sait. Tout en manquant fondamentalement de la fonction phallique qui maintient le contact avec les autres (d'après Freud (1985), l'enfant autiste parvient à faire un usage de cette affectation.

Quant au qualificatif de «verbeux» promu par Lacan, sensiblement plus juste, il a l'intérêt de faire valoir une évidence: sans le sens, aucune présence ni du sujet, ni de l'Autre ne peut résonner dans ce qui se dit. Il n'y a que le sens précisément qui puisse faire résonner une présence jouissante. Hors le sens, que devient la présence? Peut-elle échapper à la prise du langage? Un parler verbeux signifie-t-il qu'entendre fait partie de la parole, sans jamais renvoyer à aucune équivoque? S'il en est ainsi, les phrases verbeuses informent seulement qu'elles ne peuvent rendre compte d'aucune réalité, sexuelle ou autre.

Le mutisme

Leo Kanner ne trouvait pas de différences «fondamentales» entre les enfants autistes parlants ou muets. R., par exemple, a été considéré comme sourd jusque vers trois ans et demi. V., d'abord traitée au début de déficiente intellectuelle, fut placée un mois dans une école pour sourds à l'âge de cinq ans. Ces enfants dits «muets» par Kanner, du fait de leur indifférence aux voix humaines, ont tous été surpris à remuer les lèvres en silence, ou à obéir à des ordres qu'on n'entend pas.

Nous ne disons plus que les enfants sourds sont muets, nous ne disons pas non plus que les enfants autistes sont mutiques. Si c'était encore le cas, ce ne serait qu'en référence au *Mémoire* d' Itard sur le mutisme que commenta O. Mannoni aussitôt sa parution rééditée en 1964. Itard pensait que le mutisme de l'«idiot», comme on disait alors, était dû à une privation de contacts sociaux et de civilisation. Plus tard, B. Bettelheim (1967) pensa également que le mutisme de ces enfants résultait de l'action d'un environnement destructeur. Son contemporain Kanner placera cette cause dans le biologique. Cela revient pour tous à placer la cause dans un agent extérieur. Si aucun ne reprend l'idée d'une pensée autistique, la véritable rupture est opérée par l'enseignement de Lacan. Elle consiste à placer la cause dans le rapport du sujet au signifiant. Et 1964 est l'année où M. Mannoni fait dire à Lacan que sous cette déficience intellectuelle se cache la «dimension psychotique». O. Mannoni (1969) allait le faire valoir en montrant que Itard ne pouvait que méconnaître le registre du besoin comme celui de la demande. Il le prouve en isolant cette séquence: lorsque l'enfant d' Itard prononce le mot *lait* en présence de l'objet *verre de lait*, il déclare qu'il s'agit d'un dressage de la parole de la part d'Itard puisque lorsque l'objet n'est pas là sur la table, l'enfant ne le demande

pas. Pour Mannoni, l'échec d'Itard est d'avoir voulu ancrer le sujet de la parole dans la nomination du besoin, alors que celui-ci, sans s'étayer sur une demande, n'assure aucune fonction de communication. Si, en effet, la réponse de l'Autre, qui donne sens au cri, ne vient pas, l'appel au sens et à la signification meurt, et le cri se mue en excitation du corps propre et occasionnellement, en mots murmurés. Ou, si la réponse de l'Autre est de présenter un objet du besoin pour faire taire l'enfant qui crie, celui-ci répétera les ordres sans s'intéresser aux interlocuteurs.

En réalité, le phénomène de parole sous sa forme dégradée implique bien pour le sujet qui parle que l'autre n'est pas le seul qui nous entende. Le sujet s'entend lui-même ce qui signifie qu'il entend le son de ses propres paroles. Kanner, avec une grande finesse clinique, a décrit ces phénomènes que lui ont rapportés les parents de ces enfants. Certes, il n'en a pas tiré de conséquences. Mais nous pouvons convenir avec lui que les enfants autistes parlent et, comme le disait Lacan (1975) «ils articulent même beaucoup de choses». Tels les enfants dont nous avons parlé plus haut qui articulent en silence, énoncent furtivement des mots entendus, forment des phrases qu'ils répéteront comme des perroquets. Ont-ils des voix?

L'hallucination

Les enfants autistes, muets ou parlants, décrits par Leo Kanner n'utilisaient pas le langage pour communiquer. Précisément, d'un côté, ses observations d'enfants qui parlent témoignent essentiellement de leurs prouesses grammaticales «sans valeurs sémantiques», de leur «stupéfiant vocabulaire», de leur «phénoménale mémoire de routine». Par contre, de l'autre, il semble qu'il ait accordé moins d'attention aux enfants qu'il disait «muets» se référant comme dans le cas de R. à sa mère nourricière qui l'avait «aperçu à la cuisine bougeant ses lèvres en silence». Mais Kanner ne s'est pas vraiment attardé sur ces faits linguistiques qui l'ont pourtant tellement frappé. Il donne cependant l'idée qu'il avait une conception du langage plutôt développementaliste qui lui a fait envisager chez ces enfants muets un arrêt du «développement du langage comme instrument de réception et d'émission de messages». Evidemment, il était trop fasciné par l'état obsessionnalisé de leur langage non tourné vers la communication. Tous les enfants autistes que Kanner a décrits sont extrêmement «concentrés», «sérieusement préoccupés d'immutabilité» et d'invariance, mais acceptant un compromis langagier fait d'automatismes et de répétitions avec un monde qui leur a été depuis toujours étranger.

Cette idée d'un langage instrument n'est pas tout à fait celle de Lacan qui, dix ans plus tard, dans son premier rapport de Rome, met ses élèves sur la voie d'une structure de la communication: certes, signale Lacan, l'émetteur est toujours en même temps récepteur, mais quand le sujet parle comme émetteur, c'est qu'il a reçu son message de l'Autre. Il en a déduit un rapport du sujet au discours de l'Autre (S-A) et un rapport du sujet à sa propre parole (a-a') mais différent dans la névrose et dans la psychose. Cette structure de la communication suppose, au

préalable, un fait purement acoustique sur lequel Lacan est souvent revenu: on ne peut pas parler sans s'entendre, dit-il, le point crucial étant de savoir d'ou on s'entend. Dans la psychose, l'Autre réellement est l'émetteur et le sujet reçoit son propre message directement de l'Autre réel. Il rappelle à l'occasion que les cliniciens ont découvert «l'hallucination motrice verbale par détection des mouvements phonatoires ébauchés», ce qui vérifie que le sujet articule ce qu'il dit entendre de ses voix. Lacan, un peu plus loin, précise que «l'acte d'ouïr» intéresse des «subjectivités différentes» selon «qu'il vise la cohérence de la chaîne signifiante» au niveau du sens (surdétermination ou interruption); ou selon «qu'il s'accommode de la modulation sonore de la parole». Si donc Schreber entend des phrases interrompues qu'il complète, l'enfant autiste, pourrait bien n'avoir à restituer que ce qu'il a eu dans sa solitude à écouter, soit ses propres borborygmes.

Lacan (1966), dès l'ouverture des *Écrits*, rappelle que prendre au sérieux la découverte freudienne veut dire que «l'automatisme de répétition» comme phénomène n'est à rapporter qu'à «l'insistance de la chaîne signifiante». Or, cette insistance est celle de la pulsion de mort qui impose la chaîne signifiante comme voix; elle a une réalité observable à l'expérience; sa structure signifiante montre une répartition des voix entre le sujet et l'Autre. L'insistance de la chaîne signifiante comme lieu de la voix doit nous retenir. Ce lieu fait résonner cet autre propos de Lacan, dans sa *Conférence de Genève* en 1975, où il considère que les enfants autistes certes s'entendent comme tout le monde, certes ils articulent beaucoup de choses, mais de plus ils sont verbeux et pas mutiques, et même parfois cela débouche sur l'hallucination qui a toujours, dit-il, «un caractère plus ou moins vocal». L'enfant autiste, comme n'importe quel enfant, articulera les paroles entendues, à condition d'en avoir entendu, avec les débris du langage qui l'auront traversé.

Ce n'était pas la pente de Kanner de considérer selon la pure tradition psychiatrique de son temps que les enfants autistes ont des capacités idéiques limitées, sur ce point il rompt avec Bleuler; ni non plus d'anticiper sur son temps et d'imaginer qu'ils puissent être sujets à des hallucinations au sens de phénomènes élémentaires.

Ainsi, nous comprenons que dans certains cas d'autisme infantile la chaîne signifiante se manifeste comme voix. Mais pour définir comment une subjectivité est intéressée, il y a lieu de considérer ce que vise la parole et ce à quoi elle s'est accommodée dans ce qui a été entendu. Kanner le dit: les parlants utilisent des phrases grammaticalement correctes mais hors sens, les muets articulent silencieusement, crient, murmurent et même chantonnet. Le résultat montre que deux modalités du sujet sont intéressées dans ces phénomènes de parole: son rapport à l'autre fait valoir la parole verbeuse hors sens, son rapport à l'Autre interroge le réel de la voix. La parole verbeuse et l'hallucination pourraient constituer les deux destins de la parole des subjectivités autistes.

Le cas de J.

Pour illustrer ce développement, nous pouvons faire référence à un aspect d'une des questions qu'a pu poser J., enfant qui n'énonçait pas de phrases, et n'était ni verbeux, ni mutique. A-t-il réellement été accessible au pouvoir de la parole, comme nous pouvons le croire, au point de faire résonner en lui le lieu même de la voix?

J. avait dix ans. Il ne parlait pas, mais sa présence sonore était très fatigante pour son entourage. Il jacassait inlassablement avec ses doigts des choses incompréhensibles tour à tour modulées ou criées. Il restait des heures entières, tassé, collé par une épaule contre un mur près d'une porte fermée, comme pour la surveiller et conjurer l'espace qui s'ouvrait au-delà et qui semblait le terroriser. Au début, nous avons essayé de rester dans le couloir à côté de lui. Le but était de s'introduire dans son monde bruyant et de tenter d'y opérer une trouée silencieuse. Cette insistance ne fut pas vaine. Nous avons réussi à l'intriguer suffisamment pour qu'il passe dans le bureau.

Pour cet enfant autiste, trois séances furent cruciales où il témoigna d'où s'entendre. La première concerne le déménagement de tous les objets visibles et accessibles de la pièce et des placards, qu'il avait entassés sans ordre et furieusement. A la fin, étonné du chaos produit, il s'était réfugié contre un mur, en attente. Nous avons tenté de s'approcher de lui et il avait accepté, sans un regard, cette présence. J. était silencieux pour la première fois, et nous avons pu lui dire quelques mots cette première fois.

La séance suivante sera extraordinaire. J. entre dans le bureau pour un déménagement cette fois-ci ordonné: d'abord les gros objets, ensuite les corbeilles qu'il emplit d'objets plus petits. Le tour des livres arrive: un à un, il les tend pour qu'ils soient déposés sur une chaise. Sur l'autre chaise laissée libre, nous nous installons comme une chose. J. s'allonge au sol de nouveau en attente. Notre regard se tourne vers le bazar accumulé, les poupées et les livres. Nous lui racontons une histoire au sujet d'où viennent les enfants. Il écoute, regarde intensément vers nous, un sourire, le premier, passe sur son visage. L'instant d'après, J., suspendu comme s'il fixait quelque chose à l'intérieur de lui-même, est devenu inaccessible. C'est même difficile, à notre tour, de s'extraire de ce suspens. Nous lui rappelons ensuite: «je suis là». Comme revenant d'on ne sait où, il me regarde, me trouve là. Il se redresse calme, droit.

A la troisième séance, il reproduit le scénario d'empilage. Mais J. cette fois extrait un baigneur du tas et le place sur nos genoux. Assis auprès de nous, très près, nous lui racontons à lui et à la poupée, sa propre histoire. Son regard attentif passe de l'objet à notre visage. Lorsque c'est fini, il se relève silencieusement, nous sommes debout, et il se laisse entièrement envelopper par mon regard. Ce même jour, il reviendra exceptionnellement entrouvrir la porte du bureau voir que nous sommes là.

Ces trois séances présentées s'articulent autour d'un point de silence dont la structure sert d'appui à ce sujet, qui se déplace très mal dans le langage, pour s'y

retrouver avec un certain «s'entendre»: J. est d'abord ce silence sans regard, silence pur, en attente; ensuite il est ce sujet silencieux qui voit, qui émerge du bruit, du mouvement, du chaos de l'Autre, et qui accepte de donner un site à la jouissance de la voix; enfin il est regard à l'Autre. Il faudrait développer l'intimité qui semble exister entre la vision et l'audition. Il faudrait aussi se demander si dans le cas de J., ce n'est pas «l'ouïe» qui l'empêchait non pas de s'entendre mais d'entendre simplement. En réalité, J. n'a jamais cessé de s'entendre, mais entre le s'entendre soi-même comme sonorités et cris permanents, et le s'entendre comme silence et silence que l'autre entend, il y a peut-être un monde de voix. Qui le dira jamais?

Qu'est-ce que le silence? Un élément du langage qui autorise de voir? Une brèche signifiante ouverte dans l'Autre où le sujet s'introduit comme présence pour faire résonner ses voix? N'est-ce pas du silence que naissent les enfants en tant qu'ils sont des signifiants? Tout cela ouvre beaucoup de questions auxquelles il est difficile de répondre.

Quant à J., il a acquis une étonnante qualité de silence qui ne laisse pas son entourage insensible. Il prononce quelquefois des mots fugitivement, pas plus, car ces mots ne captent pas la chose jouissante qui anime et sonorise trop souvent ses doigts et son corps. Mais, il est possible de dire aussi qu'il s'entend lui-même comme silence et cela l'occupe désormais souvent. Ce que ce signifiant articule signifie-t-il que cet enfant sait qu'il y a un lieu de la voix? Cela débouchera-t-il pour lui sur une hallucination plus structurée?

En conclusion, disons que les enfants autistes parlent verbeusement ou de manière hallucinatoire, mais en tout cas cette étude de leurs paroles nous confirme dans l'idée que l'autisme infantile appartient au champ des psychoses de l'enfant dans le champ du langage.

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L'ETUDE DE LA PHILOSOPHIE A L'ECOLE ENTRE L'ACCEPTATION NON CRITIQUE DES IDEES ET LA LIBERTE DE LA PENSEE ET DU DISCOURS

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ABSTRACT. In modern school, education is not limited only to a passive receiving, assimilation and appropriation of knowledge transmit by teacher. On the contrary, on promote an active way of learning, which aimed to develop such a functionally competencies to obtain alone different information to divers sources, to organize, to work on and interpret them. Such an approach on learning is the subject of our article named: Philosophy studies in school between uncritically acceptance of ideas and thought, discourse, speech freedom. Our basic idea is learning philosophy must not be a simple receive some ideas, instead an active, critically reflexive process, which conducted to develop independence of thought, not a conformist thought. It is necessary to teacher to conceive a manner to determine the students selective and critically attitude beside quality of information, to meditate about problems and solutions, to appreciate according to his own information the new ideas, opinions, options of the great and representative authors in field of philosophically think. The learning process of philosophy should be a modern way to find significance of concepts, ideas value or arguments, the correlation between old and new ideas, information, opinions, beliefs etc. Only in this manner, our students can keep their valuable independence and freedom in thinking and expression.

1. Introduction

La philosophie est méditation libre, qui entraîne des options et des engagements intellectuels spéculatifs de la part d'une conscience toujours unique et relativement autonome. La démarche spécifique qu'elle promeut porte l'empreinte des besoins et de la structure spirituelle de la personnalité en question. C'est une démarche qui aboutit à des points de vue propres en ce qui concerne la problématique étudiée et qui offre donc une perspective individuelle de l'existence. La liberté de la conscience et de l'opinion est un aspect essentiel de la réflexion philosophique, ce qui explique la grande variété d'idées et de conceptions étalée par ce domaine culturel. Aussi l'enseignement de la philosophie en tant que discipline scolaire doit-il tenir compte de la nature de ce type de démarche, afin d'en valoriser les valences éducatives au sens d'un développement libre de la personnalité de l'élève.

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2. Valences formatives de l'étude de la philosophie à l'école

L'étude de la philosophie dans l'enseignement secondaire est censé assurer une formation intellectuelle humaniste, par l'apprentissage des principales dimensions conceptuelles et thématiques de la réflexion sur l'existence. Il ne suffit pas d'instruire les élèves en leur transmettant des connaissances. Il faut leur apprendre à penser librement et systématiquement, à analyser leur propre expérience existentielle, à formuler des points de vue personnels après en avoir connu d'autres. L'enseignement de la philosophie ne signifie pas assimilation dogmatique d'idées et d'expériences réflexives ou d'un code unique de conduite intellectuelle. Entraîner les élèves au travail de réflexion philosophique suppose en fait les inviter à penser, à émettre des raisonnements personnels. Il ne s'agit guère de leur imposer une autorité absolue, une conduite théorique conforme à un ordre préétabli, ou de standardiser leurs performances.

L'étude de la philosophie dans l'enseignement secondaire ne concerne pas uniquement l'assimilation d'un volume bien déterminé de connaissances. L'acquisition du savoir est, certes, importante, mais on doit la subordonner à la réflexion libre, vue comme effort d'élaborer des réponses personnelles aux problèmes soulevés. L'assimilation des concepts essentiels ou des modes d'argumentation s'impose afin de ne pas réduire l'expression à un jeu inconsistant des apparences. Les connaissances offertes aux élèves doivent leur permettre à la fois de venir en contact avec le patrimoine universel et de faire leur propre exercice de philosophie, tout en évitant de glisser dans un encyclopédisme stérile.

La réflexion personnelle des élèves ne rompt tout de même pas le lien avec la pensée philosophique préalable, puisque ce serait bavarder à un niveau extra- ou infra intellectuel. Le manuel, en tant que principale source d'information, est le plus souvent conçu et réalisé comme une anthologie de textes à divers thèmes. Il permet de connaître les interrogations de différents auteurs, de même que des interrogations personnelles, des solutions et des arguments élaborés en fonction de la structure spirituelle et affective de tout un chacun. Une telle approche sollicite de la part de l'élève analyse, commentaires, esprit interrogatif, réflexion indépendante et créative, tout en lui offrant la possibilité d'exercer ses capacités cognitives et interprétatives. Un manuel de ce genre constitue une grande variété de conceptions, que les élèves peuvent accepter ou rejeter, et évite d'imposer un standard de compréhension des questions concernées. Il propose de surcroît des travaux pratiques destinés à rapprocher la pensée abstraite de la vie, de l'expérience directe de l'élève.

3. Prévention du dogmatisme dans l'enseignement du philosophie

La démarche philosophique n'est pas compatible avec l'acceptation d'une autorité absolue ni avec le refus de la critique. La philosophie ne suppose pas que des affirmations, elle implique aussi des attitudes. Etudier la philosophie ne signifie pas seulement identifier différentes conceptions, mais aussi les mettre en question.

Les idées philosophiques ne doivent pas constituer un dogme, mais tout au plus l'indication d'une direction. On ne peut pas comprendre une doctrine au sens de dernier mot, de conclusion définitive du débat, puisque la réflexion philosophique est tout simplement une opinion parmi tant d'autres. Aussi ne doit-on pas l'imposer aux élèves sans prendre en compte leurs préoccupations et leurs propres questions. Enseigner la philosophie, ce n'est pas imposer des idées de manière arbitraire, idées que les élèves seraient «condamnés» à accepter, sans les soumettre à une réflexion critique.

La vérité philosophique est en cours de se former, de devenir, elle ne peut donc pas s'épuiser. La problématique demeure toujours ouverte, offrant une grande liberté de réflexion. On a maintes fois affirmé que seules les questions sont pérennes en philosophie, et non les réponses. L'histoire de la philosophie n'est qu'une présentation de problèmes constamment actuels et de solutions éternellement possibles (J. Russ, 1999). Un problème philosophique est conçu et tenu pour un «acte vivant», que l'élaboration d'une réponse ne fait jamais disparaître. Tout problème philosophique authentique renferme toujours une dimension universelle insurmontable. Aussi ne s'efface-t-il pas dans des solutions définitives, censées servir de manière dogmatique.

Pour devenir lui-même, pour développer sa propre personnalité, l'élève doit se rapporter au trésor culturel de l'humanité. En se rapprochant des grandes doctrines philosophiques, il va découvrir un travail de réflexion très élaboré. L'étude de la philosophie ne signifie cependant pas érudition pure. Ce qui est extrêmement important, c'est de faire la preuve de sa propre capacité de réflexion. La plupart des élèves se bornent à apprendre par cœur des phrases entières, sans tâcher de comprendre la conception d'un auteur, ni de penser par soi-même. Ils préfèrent souvent réciter des choses qu'ils ont apprises mécaniquement, des commentaires tout faits, stéréotypes. L'étude de la philosophie à l'école poursuit non seulement l'assimilation d'une configuration conceptuelle mais aussi le développement de la pensée et la formation d'une attitude souhaitable.

Toute réflexion sérieuse immanente au sujet est une réflexion sur soi. L'enseignement de la philosophie invite chaque élève à se poser des questions et à y trouver des solutions. Il suppose un engagement personnel qui entraîne autant les mises au point de certains philosophes que sa propre expérience de vie. C'est un enseignement qui incite à un détachement des autres, qui empêche les élèves à étudier dans une atmosphère de réception passive et uniforme des connaissances transmises. Ils ont ainsi la possibilité de chercher leur propre chemin, d'une manière qui leur soit la plus appropriée.

Pour éviter le dogmatisme, on doit accorder aux élèves la liberté de s'exprimer, de s'impliquer dans des débats, de trouver une réponse ou une solution personnelle aux problèmes soulevés. Le rôle du professeur, ce n'est pas d'usurper la liberté des élèves, en leur imposant ses propres idées ou celles des autres. Par contre, il doit créer une ambiance qui offre à l'élève la possibilité de s'exprimer,

d'interpréter et apprécier, de se sentir accepté et compris. Pour échapper aux tendances d'autoritarisme et de dogmatisme, le professeur doit tenir compte des opinions et de la personnalité de son partenaire de dialogue. Les élèves ont ainsi la possibilité de déployer une activité libre, orientée selon leurs propres intérêts et soumise au jeu complexe des affinités et des rejets. Chaque opinion peut devenir sujet de débat. La classe devient de la sorte un endroit de liberté de l'expression et de communication interhumaine.

Le professeur n'affirme et ne distribue pas une vérité incontestable. Il peut exposer des cas ou répondre à des questions, sans toutefois imposer des idées, ni chercher à déterminer les élèves à partager ses propres opinions et croyances. Il ne peut pas représenter l'étalon de toute vérité. Le professeur transmet aux élèves le savoir nécessaire, qu'ils n'auraient pas pu acquérir tout seuls. Il leur offre des données bibliographiques, les incite à penser par eux-mêmes, provoque des débats appuyés par des arguments. Il ouvre des perspectives d'approche et indique même des solutions viables, sans imposer son propre point de vue. Les élèves ont ainsi la possibilité de choisir la solution qui leur semble la meilleure. L'apprentissage se transforme de la sorte en acte qui repose sur le dialogue authentique, c'est une synthèse entre l'initiative et le conseil.

Lors des discussions, les élèves sont appelés à expliquer, démontrer, argumenter leurs opinions. Pour venir à la rencontre des contre arguments de leur interlocuteurs, ils doivent structurer leur message en sorte qu'ils parviennent à un accord – condition nécessaire de tout acte d'argumentation. On ne peut pas transmettre le savoir tout simplement par un mécanisme d'émission - réception. On doit donner lieu à des confrontations, à des mises en évidence de l'un ou de l'autre des points de vue affirmés. On partage à l'interlocuteur sa propre vision, dans une atmosphère d'intimité constructive – aspect facile à saisir, notamment dans le champ de la philosophie. L'opinion selon laquelle la philosophie ne résout pas les problèmes, mais pose des problèmes, devient déjà un lieu commun.

4. Référence critique réflexive aux textes philosophiques

Une fois entré dans le domaine de la philosophie, on renonce à chercher des réponses catégoriques, étant donné que seules les questions sont pérennes, dit-on, et non les réponses. Parcourant les textes du manuel, on peut aisément saisir le désaccord entre les philosophes, qui se distinguent par leurs options. Les solutions qu'ils offrent aux divers problèmes sont tout aussi diverses et ouvrent la voie à d'autres réponses possibles. Quelle sera la réaction des élèves face à cette diversité d'opinions? Comment se rapporteront-ils à cette situation, en tant que lecteurs et individus préoccupés par les problèmes philosophiques? Les types d'attitudes possibles face aux nombreuses et très différentes doctrines philosophiques – chacune ayant la prétention de détenir la vérité – sont les suivants:

- a) diminuer l'importance de tout le domaine, étant donné qu'aucun auteur n'offre de certitudes;
- b) relativiser la valeur des idées affirmées, chaque auteur offrant une perspective personnelle;
- c) opter pour une certaine perspective, qu'on estime la seule viable;
- d) chercher à configurer un point de vue personnel.

La subjectivité de chacun peut, certes, se plier sur les coordonnées d'une certaine philosophie, dont on assume les idées. Il est toutefois à souhaiter de se rapporter de manière critique à toutes les perspectives offertes et à forger un point de vue personnel.

La lecture critique réflexive des textes philosophiques concerne l'assimilation d'un savoir spécifique, l'initiation à des formules d'argumentation philosophique, le développement de la pensée à travers la confrontation avec des conceptions déjà constituées, susceptibles d'inciter les élèves à se poser eux-mêmes des problèmes. A part la réflexion pure et les commentaires offerts par les manuels ou les cours, l'interprétation des textes est «une voie royale d'initiation à la philosophie» (D. Folscheid, J. J. Wunenburger, 1992), puisqu'elle offre la possibilité de connaître les concepts essentiels, les problèmes déjà soulevés et les solutions proposées.

Transmettre aux élèves un savoir qui ne touche pas à l'essence, ce serait leur enseigner des réflexions qu'ils n'ont pas conçues par eux-mêmes et qu'ils ne feraient que répéter, sans s'impliquer et même sans en comprendre le sens. Ils ne réfléchiraient que par acquisition ou, autrement dit, ils ne réfléchiraient plus. Pour s'initier à la philosophie on doit parcourir un chemin long et difficile. Deux sont les aspects essentiels de cette entreprise: Comment connaître pour s'initier? Comment s'initier pour connaître mieux?

Tout savoir philosophique suppose une initiation philosophique. L'initiation n'est possible sans reprendre les réflexions déjà existantes, sans tenir compte de toute une tradition. La lecture du texte est la condition nécessaire d'une culture philosophique personnelle. Pour entreprendre une telle démarche, on doit se laisser guider par l'idée suivante: lire un texte signifie le repenser, ce qui revient en fait à penser.

5. Conclusions

L'étude de la philosophie n'est pas une observation rigide de contenus. C'est, par contre, un processus intellectuel organisé afin de développer la pensée des élèves à travers des confrontations avec d'autres pensées déjà constituées. Une personnalité autonome adopte une position propre face aux problèmes qu'elle doit surmonter, position reflétée dans les idées, opinions, impressions ou convictions personnelles. L'étude de la philosophie devient ainsi un processus actif, qui réclame de la part de l'élève un effort permanent de déchiffrer les signes et les significations, une attitude critique et une élaboration nouvelle, afin d'aboutir à une

meilleur compréhension des contenus étudiés. L'élève évolue ainsi du stade de simple «ramasseur» de vérités à celui de créateur de nouvelles idées, qui forme et exerce sa pensée en contact direct avec les grands textes philosophiques.

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RHETORIC AND THE TAUTOLOGICAL DISCOURSE

MIRCEA BREAZ

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Rhetorik und tautologische Rede. Die Rhetorik flößt kanonische Formen der Wissenslehre in privilegierte Redeformen ein: das ist auch der Fall der tautologischen Rede, die als Folge einer systematischen Zeichenreduktion, die Eingliederung der rhetorisch-diskursiven Wissenslehre in den tautologischen Formen des axiomatischen Wiederaufbaus erlaubt. Mehr als das, die tautologische Rede, wird selbst zu einer obligatorischen Basis einer solchen rhetorisch-diskursiven Wissenslehre, anders ausgedrückt, ist die Tautologie sowohl die kanonische Form der Wissenslehre, die als Basis, die rhetorisch-diskursive Konditionierung hat, als auch die Basis selbst, für das kanonischförmige Wissen. **Stichwörter:** *Rhetorik, omologierte Subjektivität, rhetorische Funktion, rhetorisch-diskursive Konditionierung, rhetorische Interdependenz, tautologische Rede, tautologische Reduktion, tautologische Prä-bildung, reflektierende, redundante, diskursive, positive Abstraktion, Wiederaufnahme in der Identität, komplimentäre Distribution, tautologische biuniwoche Komutation, Konzeptualism, funktionale Topik.*

Rhetoric has always aspired to the level of science of *confirmed subjectivity* structures and of conditioned relations. The first and last condition of the field is not – it has never been – that of pure objectivity, but of confirmed subjectivity, in an inter-subjective way. Supported by rhetoric strategies of positive politeness (the emphatic underlining of solidarity with the receptor, on the basis of a presumptive common ground) and by a series of audience flattering procedures and of a discursive ‘probing’ through speculative formulas of glossing the information, the call for trademarks (including the deictic ones) of discursive inscribing of subjectivity is an essential characteristic of the rhetoric structures of the *subjectivated objectivity*, respectively of the *confirmed subjectivity*, specific to the tautological discourse. In this respect, the Aristotelic rhetoric model was entitled to constantly provide new basis for fining the rejection of the tautological ‘reason’ from the stand of the so-called ‘vicious circle’ criticism or from the alleged redundancy due to the repetition in identity. As it is known, actually there is not any ‘natural’ identity, neutral, purely objective of the discursive objects; the recognition of such an identity always implies the interference of the (subjective) intentional factor.

The tautological type of cognitive-affective acquisition can also be understood and accepted as a continually progression of the subjective capacity to ‘obtain’ or recover certain peculiar – *confirmable* – forms of reality, from the flow of the discursive thought, as an augmentation of the cognitive-affective power to identify and

clarify the configuration of these forms, within the space of discursive unity, respectively of their rhetorical-discursive ‘capture’ through the repetitive exercise of their successive reinterpretation, through the step-by-step resummptions of apparently the same terms (false identical discursive accomplishments or actualizations). The compelling success of such a cognaffective type of approach also implies a complex process of persuading the intelligence, of convincing the ‘*thought through thought*’ (S. Kripke), which does not only redefine the character of ‘*reflexive abstraction*’ (J. Piaget)¹ of tautology, but it also puts it among those rhetorical ‘*cogitata species*’ and it establishes its statute of *discursive thought of thought figure*.

The argumentative efficiency ‘conditioning’ – as a discursive resonance *a posteriori* effect – by a whole and unified vision of the reference discursive object, has the result of establishing a nearly canonical form of rhetoric action, in which the components of the rhetorical-discursive object and the connections between these are emphasized without any doubt on the discursive surface – in this way, it is only the tautological ‘logic’ that creates its object, dominating it completely and directly through the game of identity and unity.

Rhetorical-discursive conditioning is meant to express the necessity, raised from argumentative efficiency reasons, of discursive ‘show off’ of those aspects of the rhetoric object whose proprieties can be noticed in the hypothetic-deductive manner, in the same time with the discursive presence itself of the given rhetorical object (tautological figure), as an assembly that aspires to become perceptible in both paradigmatic simultaneity and syntagmatic sequence, and that, as we shall see later, cannot reduce to anything but itself and it does not require any other reduction, besides the semiotic reduction.

The tautological axiomatic reconstruction and the fully clarified structural representation of the rhetoric object of tautology, both in the rhetorical-discursive ‘conditioning’ environment, become in this way the canonical form of rationality and intelligibility, similar to scientific knowledge. Therefore, rhetoric institutes rhetorical forms of knowledge that sometimes ensue privileged canonical methods and discursive forms: it is the case of tautological discourse, that itself allows the acquiring of knowledge in a quasi-ideal form given by a systematic reduction to sign. Moreover, the tautological discourse becomes in return, the mandatory

¹ Piaget (1972: 202; 1988: 489) understands by ‘*reflexive abstraction*’ a means of conceptual structure; it ‘constantly re-builds on upper levels what it extracts from actions or operations of the prior levels and which constitute the general natural way of structure forming’ (Piaget, 1972 : 202). According to Putnam, [Piaget] considers as given the «*reflexive abstraction*»; it does not exist «*prior to speech*» being the one which takes us from one level to another. However, «*reflexion*» and «*abstraction*», have *no literary meaning* beyond *speech*! (Piaget, apud Putnam, 1988: 498). Commenting upon the way Putnam discusses about the ideas expressed by Piaget, Chomsky (1988: 533) uses the syntagm ‘*reflective abstraction*’ to refer to the same psycholinguistic reality: ‘One thing though stands to be mentioned. Putnam considers that Piaget’s approach converges with my point of view, in the fact that the «*reflective abstraction*» notion is related o the usage of speech in inference’ (Chomsky, 1988: 531).

environment of such a rhetorical-discursive knowledge, the only one entitled to permit its completion in a canonical, ideal form, in other words, tautology is also a canonical form of knowledge in the rhetorical-discursive 'conditioning' environment and means of knowledge in canonical form.

As in other fields where it can act upon transforming any universe into a semiotic universe, within the rhetorical system, the operation of reduction, in any of its meanings in a broad interpretation (the rhetoric reduction to the rhetoric figures, and, moreover, to one in particular, that is to tautology) or in a limited interpretation (the tautological reduction itself), is indispensable to the rigorous, formal description of the structures, relations and the abstract existent mechanisms. Therefore, the tautological reduction of its discursive object, to the accessible observable aspect, directly and completely distinguishable on the discursive scene is, in return, similar to the operated reduction – still in a limited sense – upon any rhetorical-linguistic product 'reduced' to the accessible semiotic aspect (formal) through the axiomatic-structural method. The rhetorical-discursive reduction strategy (the reduction to sign, of semiotic origin) appears in this case not only as being useful, but also as inevitable for the intelligibility and discursive rationality desideratum assumed by tautology as figure of axiomatic reconstruction. As single reasonably accessible reality to the analytical rhetorical-discursive reason, the tautological reduction confers the corresponding sign the statute and persuasive force of an initial reality for the perspective of this type – and perfect – of intelligibility and rationality.

In rhetoric, tautology is the idiolectic expression of an ideal imperative of confidence in the existence of an unitary order and of an identity of the states of play conjoined as discursive objects, which impose that most of the theoretical approaches or the cognitive activities imply the existence of a forerunning stage: it is about the so-called tautological *pre-forming* of the main object classes in discussion. Therefore, any attempt – other than the pre-forming tautological nature – of establishing a conceptual identity by the introduction of another type of defining order is in a lesser extent able to contribute to the configuration of the particular nature of states of play conjoined as discursive objects.

In the Aristotelic-origin neorethoric, the epistemological function, as a rhetorical function of monitoring possible conceptual errors, points out that the dependency of a rhetorical-discursive model of subjective contingences, it is not itself an epistemological obstacle and it does not diminish its plausibility, because the contingences are only responsible for certain peculiarities, and not for the truth or untruth of tautological affirmations of the existence, or for the limits of the enunciation reality, respectively of the limits of the rhetorical-discursive knowledge possibilities; therefore, the unverified enunciations, directly, operatively and by intersubjective consent – for instance, tautological enunciations about the thing itself and for itself, about the existence as existence, about speech as speech or about thought as such – can never be rejected in the limited way as the

discursive units of logical sentence type, either empirical, either formally controllable through reference, either to direct reference, either to mediated reference can be rejected.

The distance between the terms of the tautological couple (biunivocal relation from *T1* to *T2*) is the path from the individual subject to the sp-called epistemic subject or epistemological subject, from the illusion of knowledge and understanding by means of particular representations to the necessity of verification, of validation and a certification through an intersubjective agreement with the origin, still within the activities (opinions) of the individual subject. From here it follows the particularity (and necessity) of the tautological difference in identity, which is based upon the same term, both as an individual subject (and grammatical: *T1*), as an epistemic subject (*T2*) (necessity of tautological repetition automatically implies the re-affirmation of its irredundant character). The entire history of tautological conventions formation is, actually, the ceaseless manifestation of a process of *internal recentering*, of counteracting or of minimally reducing the unbalances given by the nature of the individual subject, respectively of relative stabilization of these unbalances, through their gradual shifting into the sphere of the epistemic subject, of any rhetorical-discursive action coordinating the inherent co-variations of individual acquisitions.

The action of epistemological generalization of the secondary term of the tautological relation, a retroaction, the type of reversed connection, amplified by the value of semiotic instrument (enhancer) of this term, modifies the perception upon the definite object, in such a way, by instituting the validation for the specific case of 'mutual condition', so that the prime term becomes, as a result of this retroactive effect of progressive equilibration, a composite term, which comprises even its own matter and the 'added' matter through additional changes retroactively operated by the secondary term, through which it expresses and through which changes altogether; the prime term is also a resource for the changes of the meaning and beneficiary of changing addition, it is in a clear way both cause and effect, subject and object of the multiplicative meaning progress, that again emphasizes the specific of tautological circularity.

The terms of the tautological relation enter a dynamic co-variations system, involved correlations and self-regulations, that give the regularity of these functional shifting, the characteristics of an additive emergent structure: the figure's whole as such generates new reciprocity and exchange peculiarities that apply to each of the terms of the tautological interaction; the forming constriction acted upon them is similar to a conceptual relativism, that is common to both the logical law mechanisms of intellective development, and to linguistic structures corresponding to the translation of the abstract explanatory patterns in the field of rhetorical-discursive action.

Tautologies formalize operative structures whose circularity is not vicious in any way, but rather express the dialectics of both the individual and the epistemic subject in its most general form. In the case of tautology, the concern is

not that of establishing whether the epistemic subject mechanisms are reducible to those of the individual subject or, on the contrary, whether both the former and the latter are irreducible in their essence, but the question is whether there is an comprehensible relation between the two and what are the functional attributes of the manifestation of their rhetorical-discursive interaction.

The analysis of the rhetorical functions of tautology in discursive syntax can be undertaken at the crossroads between a semasiological type of approach (at the paradigmatic level) and a rhetorical-semiotic type of approach (at the syntagmatic level) and it can be continued, as it occurs in our intention as well, at the level of syntactic structure of the tautological systems, where, in the outline of the 'structural meanings'² of different rhetorical-discursive functions, may arise certain debates upon the incidental peculiarities (distributional, substitutional etc.) of the tautological structures. Therefore, from the eye of the formal substitution possibilities, along with tautology it is being reached a limit of formalization: the tautological terms can constitute each other in any enunciation, without changing or modifying it or bringing just few slight changes, in certain distributional conditions resulting from the given context. Because of the context, any substitution correlates with changes, multiplications or significant variations of different updated values, not only in different contexts, as it, generally occurs, but even in identical contexts, close in meaning or in zero contexts, as is occurs in the particular case of tautology, when the differential characteristics are neutralizes by one another, being relatively mutually identical.

As the formal equivalence is not automatically a lexical-semantic or morphosyntactic equivalence, neither are the formal substitutes automatically lexical-semantic or lexical-grammatical substitutes and the latter ones, going further, are not rhetorical-expressive either. In this way, the tautological terms also function as formal (distributional) substitutes at the synchronic level, but not as substitutes in the syntagmatic achievement of some lexical-grammatical or lexical-semantic values (values of language usage) and even less as substitutes of some rhetorical-expressive values.

The incidental aspects of the tautological structures are not at random, but they are intentional formations with deliberate disposition in accordance with some rhetorical-discursive patterns, whose persuasive effect is based on connotative superabundance created by the pressure of lexical-semantic accumulations, by the rhetorical-expressive variations or by stylistic multiplications. These cannot be neutralized neither by the distributional identity, nor by the contextual substitutions, because they do not aim at the differential characteristics of the tautological formations components – upon which they cannot act and which they cannot change – but the possibilities to achieve superabundance and the connotative covering, through which the efficiency of the rhetorical-expressive action and adaptation of stylistic records are constantly modified and intensified at each new incidence.

²Lyons, 1963: 341; 1995.

The relatively stable incidental variable of the tautological terms is in close correlation with the identification and qualification category. The rhetorical-syntactic functions tautology can be successfully observed starting from its term distribution. If from a formal point of view, the base or prime tautological term (**T1**) is usually distributed in *centipede position* towards the secondary term, fixing the tautological centre unit in formal relatively stable frames, being very predictable from the incidence point of view, however, from the lexical-semantic and expressive point of view, as well as from the perspective of the progression of meaning, that recorded with every new incidence, the tautological secondary term (**T2**) occupies, instead, a *centrifuge position* towards the prime term.

Therefore, in the tautological centre unit, the centipede position **T1**, opposes the centrifuge position **T2**. The contrastive picture of the couple of these positions is one of perfect oppositional symmetry: to the formal immutable or fixed order, respectively of formal fixing imposed from **T1** towards **T2**, characterized by both a low degree of mobility and efficiency of meaning and a high degree of formal stability, factors that actually, offer maximum cohesion for the tautological centre unit, mainly in nominal group, it is opposed, this time from **T2** towards **T1**, an absolutely free order of meaning, characterized by a high degree of mobility and efficiency of meaning; in other words, an absolute formal stability, stressed by a minimal meaning mobility, is opposed to a maximal meaning mobility, stressed by a relatively formal stability. Thus, the tautological congruence structure (rhetorical functionality in its syntactic, stylistic, semantic characteristics data etc.) expresses a special rapport between the common signified (in important transformation at every new repetition) and signifier represented by various discursive expressions that can be noticed in the synchronic plan, as structural elements with a high level of similitude, going as far as complete formal identity; in other words, to some distributions that are relatively artificially explicit in expression, it corresponds connections that are naturally implicit in content.

The special nature of this rapport resides in the fact that at the same time it is also very 'close' in the field of denotative explicit (at the level of the prime term – **T1** – of any tautological couple) and yet very 'far' in the area of connotative implicit (designated by the secondary term – **T2** – of tautologies), which also offers a particular type discursive reference (as a group of characteristics with distinctive function), revealing a proper symmetric type of the configurative identity rapport – nonidentity (opposition): *minimal difference* (in the content substance) – *maximal similarity* (at the expression level) in **T1**, respectively of *minimal similarity* (at the expression level) – *maximal difference* (in the content substance) in **T2**.

On the other hand, still in the particular condition of tautology, the declarative phrasing, respectively of direct phrasing, differs from the functional one, in other words, the declarative phrasing is the reverse of the functional phrasing, because direct phrasing express a order relation, whereas the functional phrasing is one of hierarchical order, the kind of the rapport between the proximal genre and the specific discrepancy. Although **T2** is placed on the second position in

the declarative act, however, in the functional order that is also a rhetorical-discursive order, **T2** is actually, the reference key; therefore, we state once more that, despite the order of the tautological terms in the direct phrasing, not only the first term of the direct phrasing is the function of the second one and it exists upon the latter one, but the other way around, the validity of the reciprocal proving itself, both through the evidence of relating each value from the group of meaning-dependable variables from **T1**, to a certain value from the group of relatively independent differentials variables from **T2**, as well as a result of the case specific interdependence revealed by tautology.

The particularity of nominal tautological structures is given by the fact that the operated identifications or assigning receive a durative specific aspect: although enunciation in declarative manner should spend the certain identifications or qualifications in the moment of speech, instead these become more intensely updated with every new utterance, so that their intended persuasive effects are manifesting both at the same moment with the enunciation, respectively of the moments in which the rhetorical-discursive updates take place, as well as (especially) after the enunciation took place. The category of actualization is here understood in its fundamental rhetorical-discursive acception, as a mechanism for the transition of potentiality (from the intellectual condition of abstraction) in the properly discursive manifestation condition or gliding discursive manifestation from a rhetorical-discursive level to another or from a rhetorical-discursive condition to another.

Consequently, the nominal tautological structure refers to the identification or the qualification that is granted to the subject through the predicative auxiliary, however it is a durative qualification that is firstly completed at the moment of speech, but which is durative determined, it intensifies, finalizes and persists, as an persuasive effect, long after that. The durative function of nominal tautological structures is generated and supported by the chain reaction process of this type of enunciation, a constantly actualizing process (yet incomplete) in the moment of speech, but intensified (and completed) afterwards, through the product of persuasive effects of the progresses of meaning recorded throughout the discursive duration.

The legitimacy of the analysis of the rhetorical tautology functions in the discursive syntax – which, in return, is observable depending on the legitimacy of the rhetorical grammar itself – is given by the structural-functional perspective upon the binding agreement between '*the rhetorical-morphological meaning*', structural meaning corresponding to the figures of speech functions, conceptually represented in the (categorical) language system and '*the rhetorical-syntactic meaning*', structural meaning also, but corresponding to the abstract sentence structure represented in the utterance, therefore, by the legitimacy of identification, deciphering and description of the rhetorical-discursive morphosyntactic meanings that correspond to the acknowledged functions as such. Usually, as long as the rhetoric of enunciation is liable to transform the language into a persuasive discourse, to each function it may correspond multiple rhetorical meanings.

The tautologically defined notions are expressed through nominal lexical-semantic units that grant into a congruent interdetermination connection, a category of interdependence rhetoric that is highly active and productive. The syntagmatic actualization – and integration – of the new interdeterminative characteristics (the new meaning or significance attributes) is therefore completed only within the area of morphofunctional interdependence, where the expression preservation in the sense of formal quasiidentity of the relation terms is intentioned and it also constitutes as a manifestation of this cyclic subscription, in the same time representing a deliberate formula of (auto)referential insistence. Given the fact that the essence of this cyclic subscription is supposed to be both of lexical-semantic order, as well as of expressive nature, one of the most controversial issues is whether if, in the case of the synchronic rapports that are contracted by the nominal secondary lexeme with lexeme – base, it is indeed produced, a differentiation which, by validating the redundancy as positive at the progress of meaning level, to permit the maintenance of tautology on the scene of rhetorical-discursive figures with expressive-stylistic values.

From the point of view of the qualitative characterization manner, tautological nominal syntagms semantics develops gradually, from the base-term towards the secondary term, through additions and implicit connotative differentiations, in agreement with the special discursive pattern of tautology, with its repetitive distributional dynamical. Therefore, these differentiations or implicit ulterior progressions in meaning, associative chains of supplementary semantic-expressive values, are only actualizing through correlation with repetitive progression of the tautological structure and directly proportional to the number of the resuming acts, thing which consolidates the statute of *figurative formant* of tautological repetition; this repetition is not redundant, but necessary to the aimed progress of meaning in rhetorical-discursive order. This makes that tautology to finally come to an understanding as a figure of semantic-expressive differentiation.

The instances where tautologies are means of expressing notional couples that illustrate relations of the type *species (T1) - genre (T2)*, through nominal lexical-semantic units, exemplify a particular case of updating of the non-determinate features inscribing them circularly. Thus, the combinative attributes of nominal tautological phrases are conditioned by the logical-notional content of the nominal theme belonging to both elements of the above-mentioned couple; also vice versa, the logical-notional content of the term *species* or *variety* (attributes with a particular, relative, finite, limited etc meaning) and the logical-notional content made up by the term *genre* (attributes with permanent and permanently different meaning) form a non-determinate couple determined by the combinative properties of the nominal tautological phrases. The complete nature of this circular inscribing is all the more obvious if we also note that such couples could not even exist as such outside the framework of rhetorical-discursive manifestation updated by tautological structures.

Tautology correlatively refreshes, within nominal structures both the representation of the species value, or of variety of the variant and the representation of the genre value of the invariant. Therefore, the terms of the tautological correlative couple express not merely a mutual relation with the same object, but also a description of the object regarding both the proximal genre (*T2*), pointing to typical, permanent features and the specific difference (species, variety etc.) (*T1*). We can note again that the self-evidence of correlative interdependence does not imply the possibility of reciprocal substitution, in absolute terms, because the relative lexical-semantic proximity (based only on morphological equivalence) of the terms doesn't stand for- and cannot stand for- a logical-notional equivalence proper, much less, then, a syntactic equivalence or a semantically expressed one (because of their different respective functions and values). The relation of (relative) structural- in terms of form-equivalence of tautology (its double tautological implication), as a singular total order relation, is in fact a binary unequivocal on both sides relation of 'pre-order', depicting through its general features (reflexivity, transience and relative symmetry – of universal equivalence relations) the concept stage of tautological 'pre-formation' through which the acquisitive processes of rhetorical-discursive thought must go through- in the sense given by Piaget.

One of the most important aspects of tautological interdependence is represented by the correlative possibilities of biunivocal (or plurivocal) alteration characteristic to complementary distribution. These possibilities are due to both the concentration and complexity of the correlations that characterize interdependence and issue, in their turn, another concentration and a complexity structural-functional in nature, and respectively in the form of the phrase and the *differential* content of the syntagms, which consequently become shorter, thus more concise, effective and convincing. This superior persuasive efficacy is, therefore, the combined effect of gradual strengthening of the mould of expression, of the tautological discursive framework, on the one hand, and on the other the result of the gradual concentration of the differential semantic nucleus with each new uttering of the same phrase, within a distributive relation, the complementarity of which generates chains of biunivocal (plurivocal respectively) tautological alterations of the terms. The syntactical-discursive functioning itself of tautology is based on both the existence of this distributional type of great discursive economy, as well as on the high level of abstractization of the resulting discursive formations; this is also the reason because of which its main syntactical-discursive function is not merely to characterize a discursive object referring it to itself (a common function to all circular, self-referential, 'mirror-type' discourses etc.), but mainly to aid the persuasive communication by a means more abstract and more concise. 'Language progress'² itself is also equivalent to this abstracting tendency characteristic to speculative discourses.

² Wald, 1962;1970: 148, 200.

The principle of economy, sometimes called the principle of simplicity, can reveal that by discursive economy one should not necessarily understand 'less instead of more', but rather 'less unproductive uses'³, which underlines the need to reconsider the discursive role of linguistic economy and to supersede the cliché represented by the so-called contradiction between information and redundancy⁴, on the one hand, and the speaking 'surplus' on the other.

In the rhetorical grammar, the lexical-semantic accumulations produced by the tautological manifestation of difference within identity seem to materialize according to the same rules, which in linguistic grammar, underline the interaction relation (in inverse ratio) between linguistic economy and the minimal effort, on the one hand and the lexical-semantic surplus, on the other. According to Halliday⁵, the locutive tendency to communicate no more than is necessary (maximum lexical-semantic 'concentration' conditioned by linguistic economy) permanently opposes the reaction to acquire with minimal effort a maximum of information, reaction which, in intentional terms, is the result of rhetorical conditioning, the effect of persuasive efficacy of the rhetorical-discursive action. This action can be revealed in semantic meaning and semantic-expressive differentiations recorded in the area of persuasive significance through lexical-semantic accumulations and, obviously, through connotative superabundance.

Using, approximately, *the same* rhetorical-discursive material (the tautological identity of the basis for nomination), which, through repetitive accumulation, gradually acquires constantly new rhetorical-syntactical functions and semantic-expressive attributes, the condition of the necessary redundancy, that defines the characteristics of the tautological occurrence, becomes the equivalent of the rhetorical-linguistic economy as a condition of productive, efficient and persuasive use.

Repeated in syntagmatic order, the same component (in paradigmatic terms) changes, because of the relations that the rhetorical grammar determines as, in the tautological relation, those between *essence* and *fact*, between *genre* and *species*, *variant* and *invariant* etc. The rhetorical nature of these rapports (dialectic, by philosophical contamination) adds to distinguishing between the terms of tautological identity, giving a specific solution to situation of biunivocal alteration, specific to complementary distribution.

The unveiling of the non-identity of the tautological relation terms gains in relevance should it come about through the correlation of the two reference points. Therefore, the two terms or generic opposites of tautology are not identical either in syntagmatic terms, that apply the evidence of the different rhetorical-discursive functions and values, or in paradigmatic terms, as not even morphological identity is absolute, but is coming about as a category only as an identity of the basis for nomination, so, just as identity of the common nominal essence of the two terms, both in nature and substance of the content.

³ Martinet, 1970: 227.

⁴ Marcus-Statî, 1967:175.

⁵ Cf. Halliday, 1961: 241-292; 1963: 5-15.

The more obvious the relativity of the identity of tautological terms appears, the less understandable the consensus in error of most rhetorical-linguistic taxonomies which place tautology either among the ‘errors’ of the language system (which is not even possible) or among the performative ‘mistakes’ (which is obviously not the case).

Thus, tautology is becoming a model for correlating *apparently identical* surface structure with deep structures *actually identical* from the point of view of their differential features. In other words, the terms of tautology have an identical transformational nucleus – the identity of the common nominal essence, both in the nature and in the substance of the content – within an identical deep structure, which determines, however, different ‘choices’, equivalent to different distributional selections thrust upon the surface structure plane. Therefore – as with homonyms – the elements of tautology are components with the same ‘translation’ in the terms of a system, having however different rhetorical-syntactic, lexical-stylistic and expressive functions and values when it comes to the surface structures. This is because to each difference in meaning (and/or signification) there is a correspondent difference of distribution and vice versa.

Making the rendering and defining of the content of a rhetorical-discursive object by reference to itself, the rhetorical-syntactic standard (super)determines the lexical-semantic standard and allows for the creation of super normative semantic values. It is precisely the area of such difference making that makes possible the rhetorical-expressive analysis of the semantic progress the characterization of that piling up of signification registered from the primary tautological terms towards the secondary terms of such constructions.

Within the rhetoric grammar tautology is, therefore, one of the chief means of discursive super-consistence which, thanks to the correlative possibilities of plurivocal commutation, specific to the established relations of complementary distribution with inclusion (or of equipollence), allows for the creation of super normative semantic values, according to the rhetorical finalities and the communicative conditions of enunciation; the multiplicative progression (or emergence) of meaning supported this way is a case of connotative super-abundance emerging from the pressure of lexical-semantic accumulations characteristic to tautological repetition as a biunivocal equivalence. The primary term of tautology attests for the designation of a meaning attribute in *only* one given circumstance and connected *only* to a particular discursive object, whereas the secondary term of tautology, defining the category value, attests the ascribing of a meaning attribute *not only* in a given circumstance and ascribed to *not just one* particular rhetorical-discursive object. A free flow of semantic-expressive indexes similar in nature to the equivalence proper of these, emerges between the primary and secondary terms; we are, of course, referring to semantic-expressive indexes, rhetorical-expressive (appreciative) in nature, context in particular providing supplementary hints of accurate defining, circumscribing and discursive emphasizing of the notions.

The elements of tautological syntagms are interdependent and interconditioned, but these, as we mentioned above, have a different (relational) nature within the paradigmatic plane of language as a system and within the syntagmatic plane of speech. Thus, within a system, the (inter)dependence and the (inter)conditioning perspective, could characterize the tautological formants from the semasiological point of view illustrated by the relation (proximal) genre – (specific) difference, genre – species or variant – invariant. Introducing to the plane of syntagmatic distribution elements of rhetorical-syntactic analysis (and, perhaps, semiotic) of the discursive disposition, we think that between the components of the tautological syntagm the relations show a certain reciprocal bilateral feature, be it only because these reflect the main functions of the linguistic sign, established, now, also as the main rhetorical functions of tautology within the discursive syntax: the ‘*identification*’ function, and the ‘*delimitation*’ function. One element only, always its first term (***T1***), corresponds to both functions, each time designating one particular object (the identification function) and no other (the delimitation function). Within the syntagm or the tautological formation these functions are taken over by its heterofunctional elements, that is its terms or generic opposites: the primary term (***T1***) generally assumes the identification function and the secondary one (***T2***), the delimitation function.

Thanks to the structural homogeneity (not contextual or location bound) of tautological constructions, the functional couple of identity-differentiation, emerging from rhetorical-stylistic variation discursive necessities, represents a dialectic unit where the principle of identification (absolute identity) and that of delineation (through differentiation) are not absolutely opposite poles, but rather unilateral poles representing truth values only during their interaction, assuming the existence, inclusion and revealing of difference within identity.

The rhetorical determination is essentially different from the logical-grammatical one, as it doesn’t possess the function to detach a phenomenon from a group of similar phenomena neither does it come up with new clues, absent in the realm of differential characteristics of any determined term. The rhetorical-tautological determination, for instance, *reiterates* the clue included in the very determined term and its purpose is the intentional or attentional emphasis of the given clue or the illustration of an unpredictable but expected attitude, of the discursive instance to the object of the rhetorical-discursive action, leading to the decrease or camouflaging of the logical accent and to the correct appropriation and underlining of a persuasive and argumentative accent. The emphasis of the difference in identity is, therefore, the more intense the more unexpected is the effect of enunciating an unpredictable attitude. The fact that the same unit is able to feature in a discursive sequence bearing two distinct meanings puts tautology close to that rhetorical-discursive category (belonging either to rhetorical stylistics or to expressive grammar) which includes, for instance, puns, quibbles and paradoxes, that is minimal or maximal syntagmatic units also bearing two meanings, relatively or apparently equally distributed semantically in a given context.

Confronting the rhetorical-discursive means of rendering different signifying contents, and of expressing lexical-semantic and expressive different values (of variations of these values, or nuances of value) through almost identical forms morphologically and syntactically, or very similar in their form, through the apparent tautological duplication of a discursive formant (of an alleged formal invariant), creates the possibility to ponder upon the complexity of the rhetorical-discursive facts, to perceive and outline their particularities of deep meaning, as well as some features of the significance of discursive events, beyond the apparent identity or the obvious formal non-identity of their expression.

There isn't by now a comprehensive research on the rhetorical-discursive of redundancy figures, there is no unified conception, not even at taxonomic level, regarding these items – much less regarding the place of tautology in the classification of the figures of redundancy –the distinctive rhetorical-discursive principles and criteria of such constructions have not been elaborated, and, of course, no research has been carried out on the general discursive functions of the constructions belonging to the rhetorical-discursive redundancy, much less on the rhetorical-discursive functions of tautology. Therefore, given that the study of the functional-expressive elements of the discursive means to make up the tautology belongs to rhetorical grammar, and rhetorical-discursive syntax respectively, one can assess that the research of the rhetoric functions of tautology in discursive syntax is of great theoretical importance, both generally and particularly.

Naturally, that due to the specific progress of meaning that tautology favours, it is classified along the major taxonomic units belonging to the rhetoric of redundancy, also proving to be a semantic-expressive study entity, for the particular way in which it allows the examination of the respective progress of meaning mechanism, from the pole of *updating* (**T1**) to the pole of *the updateable* (**T2**). Thus, in the tautological relation, the derivational, lexematic, meaning enrichment system, which actually works through lexematic updatings of some meaning elements explicitly substantiated or extensively substantiable, on denotative or explicitly connotative levels, is doubled by a derivational system, working on implicit connotative level, based on meaning elements intensively developed (through various contaminations, deducing from analogies or even integrated meaning borrowing).

This makes the recourse to tautological expression define an entire rhetorical-discursive register, evolved and systematic, having strong values and persuasive resources. The structural-functional dynamics of tautologies illustrates, therefore, as complex figure ordered by almost identical, interchangeable, interdependent means of expression and interconditioned through superior persuasive modes.

As I said earlier, tautologies make up a real micro system of evolved discursive structures, that of 'necessary' redundancy or 'positive' redundancy, part of an ensemble of rhetorical-linguistic subsystems (these too interdependent and interconditioned) from rhetoric table in the symmetric vicinity of superabundance (pleonasm and tautology) and figures of discontinuity (among which the anacoluthon), on the one hand, and figures of absence (such as ellipses), on the other.

The research of the place of tautology in the taxonomic table of the figures of redundancy, the analysis of the structure and the dynamic of its rhetoric functions, and generally emphasizing the role of the tautological function, go with the grain of conceptualist rhetorical-philosophical prospects. The whole of the observations on the resources of the correlative-contrastive approach of the figures of redundancy, on the possibilities provided by the adequate understanding of the nature and the rhetorical-discursive necessity of the positive or necessary redundancy, from the point of view of a syntagmatic of reciprocal transformations into identity and that of reconsidering this possibility as specific feature of rhetorical figures of redundancy, as particular syntactic-discursive events, reveal and support the analytical importance of theoretical research on the rhetoric of tautology.

Ever since the traditional rhetorical backgrounds, it has been noticed how even then when operating in identity, the selections (the Aristotelic ‘choice’ method) and different discursive distributions (‘topical’ methods) determine with necessity the creation of some meanings and significations in their turn, different; ‘not being identically displayed’, observed Aristotle, the same word does not mean the same thing, but signifies something different, either ‘on a different path’, either ‘more or less’, either ‘the same thing to a different extent’⁷. Therefore, the meaning of any term of the tautological relation as prime term (*T1*) will call for others as meanings of the secondary term (*T2*), according to a succession of progressively classified reflexive implications.

In other words, through repetition in identity, any tautology as implicative rapport implies a constantly new structure of values of meaning, with the help of action or available operations in accordance with a progressive succession of reflexive implications, classified in a double sense, from the particular towards the general (*T1* → *T2*) and, the other way around, from the proximal genre towards the specific differences (*T1* ← *T2*). To put it in another way, the series of implications could be explained like this: each meaning of the term from the left (the prime term) is, at the same time, both the application and the discursive origin of one or more meanings of the term from the right (secondary term), in this way bringing together both the necessary transitive explanation and the reflexive implication, just as much required.

Piaget⁸ considered that abstract patterns such as redundancy make the transition from the ‘probabilistic general patterns to those more specific ones, that were related to the theory of decision or information, that add to its probabilistic basis more and more structured levels, regarding the notions used and the means of systematize the subjects’ reactions’. By giving the example of tautology, Piaget was furthermore making the difference between tautologies with a different structural degree given by the relational meaning, respectively between tautologies

⁷ Aristotel, *Retorica*, III, 1-2, 1405b, în *idem, Retorica*, 2004: 305.

⁸ Piaget, 1972: 193-194.

with a higher structural level, whose symmetrical incidences lead to extra significance, and simple, unstructured tautologies, or with a lower structural level, respectively the simple repetitions, unclassified relationally and in consequence, unimportant: 'By applying, to perception for instance, an informational pattern, it must be stated the way in which it will be considered «redundancy» in the case of the «good forms», in which the reception of the same elements or of the same equivalence connections lead to significant symmetries and not to simple tautologies as those of a speaker that repeats the same thing over and over again'.⁹

Rhetorical figure of emphasizing discursive harmony, tautology is a remnant discursive structure, speaking about the old debate around gnoseology of the *mimesis*, in Aristotelic and Heraclitic lineage of the theories of imitation and harmony, as acts of intellectual knowledge, through the association of the mimetic function with the cognitive-affective function. Close to order, measure and proportionality, tautology ultimately proves itself, a *figure of conceptual concordance*, expressing the adherence of parts, inner and external coherence of discourse, and contributing to the unity and constructive cohesion of the discursive form of the expression.

Rhetorically recuperated on the scene of discursive redundant figures, tautology consists of, on one side, revealing the all-embracing meaning (and the effect) of the simultaneous recognition of some essential identities, and on the other side, it consists of their pure solved identification, as *reflexive abstraction* (Piaget), by means of what they reveal, from the perspective of the conceptual function, as *mutual belonging*, respectively of *inner connection* and as *unity of their coexistence*, in the Aristotelic sense of absolute harmony of interdependence of forms in identity.

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⁹ *Ibidem*: 194.

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**COMMUNICATION AND KNOWLEDGE THROUGH
DIALOGICAL METHOD IN THE PHILOSOPHY CLASS.
PSYCHO-PEDAGOGICAL RESEARCH.**

MONICA DIACONU

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Unsere Untersuchung hatte als ständiger Schwerpunkt die Problematik der Kommunikation in der dialogischer Praxis im bezüglich der Fähigkeit der Schüler, Philosophie-spezifischen Schritte zu unternehmen, d.h. die Fähigkeit, mit philosophischen Begriffen zu handeln, Philosophie-spezifische Probleme zu lösen, sowie in synthetisierenden Vorgehen teilzunehmen, welche teilweisen Lösungen darstellen, wodurch die Schlussfolgerungen des Dialoges entworfen werden. Der Vergleich der Ergebnissen der Erstermittlung mit der nachfolgender Zeitraum (nach der Verstärkung des dialogisches Verfahren im Bereich des problematologisches, historiologisches und hermeneutisches Dialog) ergibt eine erhöhte Produktivität der Gesamtdynamik der dialogischer Praxis, und als Folge, eine verbesserte Teilnahme der Schüler an die Konstruktion philosophischer Konzepten und ihre Benutzung, mit weniger Schwierigkeiten, in verschiedenen Phasen des Dialoges. Diese Erfindungen bestätigen unsere Annahme dass eine auf den philosophischen Kenntnis gezielte dialogische Praxis das Lehren der Philosophie in der Oberschule fördern kann, bzw. bessere Ergebnisse sicherstellt.

Preliminary statements

One of the most exciting issues that we constantly followed during our research is the one concerning the didactic communication developed by dialogical methods. It is known that the Dialogical Praxis, when manifested on the territory of the first experiences with philosophy can be the ground of a real exchange of ideas between the participants to the dialogue. This aspect is directly linked to the new vision on teaching philosophy in high school, which invites to getting to know and interpret the great philosophical problems not only from the history of philosophy's point of view, but also from the point of view of pupils' knowledge experience, their projects and life expectations.

In this new way of seeing the teaching of philosophy there are specific analytic and synthetic approaches, it is initiated and practiced the critical thinking and pupils' reflexivity, as well as their capacity to give resolutions temporary accepted, till their next revision. Ideas exchange means not only a re-examination of knowledge already acquired by pupils, its revaluation in a new perspective (the one required by the philosophical issue brought forth), but also interpretation and re-interpretation of real-life facts, standards and values.

We present here the results of the research structured on three correlated areas:

- didactic communication, centered on teachers' activity as well as on pupils';
- ways of structuring pupils' answers;
- the specific of the epistemological approaches operated during the research.

A. Structured communication in DP context

1. Communication considered from the question-answer point of view

1. The general findings on the question – answer relation impose, firstly, to consider this problem from the point of view of the **levels we took into account** which are:

- the one of the understanding of the problem and its debate;
- the one of the provocation of necessary connections and, accordingly, re-examination and re-interpretation of knowledge data and acquired experience the pupils have;
- the one of the various arguments' production in the area of the debated philosophical idea;
- the one of the understanding and interpretation of philosophical texts, as well as provoking the philosophical questioning concerning the given solutions from the texts;
- the one of the provoking of some “resolutions” of the discussed issues, personal to pupils, even if the taking of steps towards the resolution is guided by teachers.

2. Involving through interrogation in class activity.

Another general finding is directly linked to the preoccupation of all the chosen teachers to get involved actively in class activity. What varies is the form of implication, which is to be seen in the way of operating with interrogation and self – interrogation. The levels where this concern is manifested are:

- 2.1. searching, constantly, if possible, to relate the question to the philosophical issue etc. Of course, not all questions in DP are philosophical (some are related to the sequences of the lesson, others to drawing attention to stick to the theme etc.). ***The conclusion we can draw is that the questions addressed by teachers organize the dialogue, orient it, make it more vivid and diversify it to the benefit of ideas and participants;***
- 2.2. there is, beside the aspect mentioned above, a preoccupation of revaluative nature in addressing some questions: it is the case of those questions that at a first look seem out of context, but which have a role in provoking connections between levels fairly away from each other and bringing them closer with the intention of

making a new sense; these questions are little present during the first part of the research and remain relatively constant during the second part;

- 2.3. we cannot say that repetitive questions are lacking: we notice that their usage is more frequent in those situations when pupils do not understand what answer is expected from them or when its coagulation needs this repetition as an invitation to search for, to explore and formulate the idea.
- 2.4. There is another aspect we should underline, constant during the whole time of the research, namely that the questions contain knowledge elements varying as difficulty degree requiring different answers as complexity degree, considering the “area” in the class to whom they are addressed: pupils interested by philosophical issues (in different degrees and sometimes changing) are asked questions which presume complex answers, while the pupils who are usually spectators, are the beneficiaries of less complex questions; we did not encounter situations where the questions are used in punitive purposes;
- 2.5. the question – answer ratio does not always reevaluate the potential of all classes.

3. *Using closed and opened questions*

The sequence of closed/opened questions is a matter directly originated in the lesson’s structure which is the teachers’ option:

1. most of the lessons are mixed, which assumes operating with a set of closed questions, meant mostly to revise the last lesson; during the actual teaching part there is an alternation between closed and opened questions, directly linked to the method adopted;
2. out of the data we have gathered, the sequence of opened / closed questions is directly linked to the DP quality: when its constancy and consistency is proven, it involves and imposes a common way of work for teachers and pupils as well; the result of this practical construction is that the sequence of the questions types serves the ideas and does not need a special pre-meditation and somehow external to the DP content.

*The **conclusion** we draw concerning the way questions are operated, as main element in the causal complex that generates and shapes the didactic communication, is that there is a fundamental correlation between addressed questions and knowledge that is to be implemented, checked, restructured and reinterpreted. Also, there is a direct link and mutually intensified between the way of using questions and DP quality, directly related to the consistency and constancy of the dialogical approaches operated.*

4. *Assuring a circular feed-back*

The ways to assure a circular feed-back are composed by a few elements that we find in the communication relation of every DP. Thus, we can speak of the attention and punctuality in interpreting the signals sent by pupils through feed-back in all teaching experiments we took part to. What is different is the way certain signals circulate, the way questions are addressed, and accordingly, the forms of non-verbal communication are inserted in the communicational circuit. *There is, the possibility to draw the conclusion stating that beyond general common features, which indicate without a doubt that there is a constant revaluation of the sent signals and a big differentiation between teachers' communicational behaviors, inside the DP initiated.* These differentiations come from the communicational intention different (that differs) from teacher to teacher, from the need (or lack of it) to really build together with the pupils a DP of real communicational essence and last but not least, from the image the teachers built in time about their own capacity and communicational vocation, which do not have to be the same with the real ones.

5. *Pupils' ways of acting in the communicational relationship.*

We must say that the senior pupils have enough data about their philosophy teachers from previous years (learning other subjects among the humanities). They are familiar with the receiving (of) the message and interventional stereotypes of teachers (except for a debutant teacher whose perception has (been) built during the first semester of this year). In the account of gaining and reinforcements, these pupils have a different exercise and experience in formulating questions. We can notice at least the following elements, concerning addressing questions by pupils:

1. The existence of a natural way of interrogating (colleagues and teachers) through questions formulated as object (the need to structure, complete, the need to open a problem, the need of reflection – self-reflection etc.); in this way of understanding the question by pupils, not as a sign of ignorance, but as a need to know, we can see the consequences, at the communicational level, of a serious and consistent DP, directly linked to the ideas operated to knowledge benefit; *this way of interrogation was varying and was less certain at the beginning of the research, but as the philosophical themes became more familiar, along with its own way of teaching and learning – such as dialogue – it strengthened and became a way of being, part of an efficient and benefic DP for the production of ideas and knowledge;*
2. Borrowing the interrogative behaviors by certain pupils through approaches meant to better underline them, for instance imitation of the form used by teacher (short dry questions or long, wide questions with lots of auxiliary questions etc.) and borrowing even of the tone of the voice from the teachers, in order to support the value and the meaning of the question;

3. the existence, in a significant measure, at least during the initial research period, of a real difficulty on pupils' part in addressing questions, coming rather from the encounter with the philosophy and a new knowledge experience.

The conclusion we can draw as a result of the research is that the pupils get used to addressing questions if the way they are following in the DP context is one leading them from ignorance, to the need to know and further on to getting to know. The lack of need to know transforms the sequence of questions formulated by pupils in a mere formality, may them be addressed by teachers, or by fellow colleagues. We have now the opportunity to go back on a connection we have constantly followed, through the initial hypothesis: the quality and the authenticity of the DP determine implicitly the quality of its components, in our case, the quality of the interrogation between teachers and pupils and the quality of didactic communication structured fundamentally through questions-answer relation.

B. Conclusions concerning pupils' knowledge

1. Pupils' answers

- 1.1. Concerning **the frequency of answers**, the general finding would be that it depends on a few main factors:
 - the interest pupils have for philosophy;
 - the way the DP is built and developed in the context of each class;
 - teachers' conception on teaching philosophy in high school;
 - the quality of didactic communication;
 - the type of classes and high schools;
 - the need to "pass" exams etc.

Following the frequency of the answers, by classes, from the beginning till the end of our research, we also noticed that it suffered certain quantity transformations (those concerning the quality will be analyzed in a following section), marking a slight ascension during the second part of the year, after the intervention. *We must admit that this tendency of increasing the frequency of answers does not settle in equally in all classes, but as an average for the entire chosen ones.* There are classes whose pupils are active even from the beginning of the research and there are classes whose pupils are reticent, refuse to cooperate and are passive till the end of the year. Beyond these polar situations we have a more active and better involved behavior in answers for at least half of the chosen classes, by the end of the intervention. This situation's reasons are complex and depend mainly on the following causes:

- how familiar pupils are with the philosophical problems;

- the familiarity among pupils and their interested involvement in the dialogical relationship gradually built by DP;
- the interest (more or less) they have for philosophy;
- overcoming in DP (in different degrees) of the dichotomy between texts importance vs. free talk, operated by profitable and balanced cultivation of the historical dialogue and of the questioning one.

The conclusion we can draw is that the frequency of answers, beyond certain exceptions, increased, and that it is due, on the one hand to pupils getting familiar to philosophical issues, and on the other hand to dialogical strategies developed by teachers in the DP context.

1.2. The general expression of answers

What we found out during the research indicates the following conclusions:

- 1.2.1.** from the initial research period till the experiment period we could register a slight increase of the answers given, which combine elements of philosophical knowledge with elements coming from the study of different subjects; better results were registered at the philology type classes, but also certain classes of Mathematics/ IT type;
- 1.2.2.** deeper changes registered at the level of spontaneous answers, as well as at the answers built by personal motivation, given the fact that it was about statements which included personal opinions of the young ones, personal revaluations and choices;
- 1.2.3.** *the dialogical exercise and the experience of the ideas exchange determined common elaboration of answers, by combining partial answers and by continuing unfinished arguments or by structures based on diverging arguments;* these answers are not mainly characterized by fluency, most of them being short, tensed, changing direction while relating to questions, leaving arguments in suspension etc.; they are the consequence of involving not only at a cognitive level in dialogue, but also emotionally in the building dialogical experience;
- 1.2.4.** *there are differences in addressing the answers, in the fluency and in the argumentation way which varies from type to type, sometimes from class to class, when is the same teacher teaching;* beyond these general differentiations, the pupils from the humanistic and philology type of classes have a greater preoccupation concerning the shape of the answers and take better care about fluency, about the way they use words etc.; the pupils from the classes of Mathematics and IT type give shorter answers, better focused, shorter arguments combinations, with less care for shape.

The conclusion that is to be drawn concerning the general way of giving answers and their shape is that they are in tight connection with the knowledge experience, with the argumentative capacity and combining ideas, with the capacity to build together justificatory approaches and with a developing experience, dependent on the DP quality, of negotiating the viability of the ideas brought forth. Where the DP was limited by the stereotypes of teaching as lecturing, the general expression of the answers is mostly of reproductive nature, with few personal elements and without taking the risk of original combinations. This is the general answering tone in these experiences of teaching and learning: of course we can find among them elaborated answers, complex and fluent, as a result of constant preoccupation for philosophy of certain pupils.

C. Epistemological aspects

We will follow the structuring approaches of philosophical knowledge of pupils by synthesizing the data gathered out of their written papers (mid-term papers, tests, term papers and essays), as well as out of oral answers in a comparative manner that contains three moments: the one of the initial research, the one of the intervention and the one of the reference classes included among the chosen ones.

1.The analysis capacity of pupils reflected in answers. The findings indicate the following aspects:

1.1. if during the initial research, which coincides with the first semester of the school year and therefore, the period for the pupils to become more familiar with the philosophical exercise, 52% of the pupils in Mathematics/ IT type of classes proved their analytical capacity, and only 44% of those in philology type of classes; we should mention that these percentages refer to the answers given by pupils in written papers;

- after our intervention and, as a general rule, after the activation of the methodologies contained in the DP of classes, the pupils' papers indicate a growth up to 60% to the classes where philosophy is taught one hour a week and up to 86% to the philology classes; we should mention that these percentages do not include the reference classes for neither of the types;
- if we talk about the chosen classes during the second semester, the value of the percentage grows because of the big number of valid answers registered, up to 91% for the humanistic type of classes, and lowers a little till 58% for the Mathematics type of classes.

1.2. The findings above allow us to draw the following **conclusion**: *where philosophy was taught two hours a week the progress registered by pupils was*

obvious: basically, all the pupils from the humanistic type of classes acquired the practice of analysis, either in approaches using data of already acquired knowledge and experience, or in analyzing texts and ideas in them. The intensification of the dialogical approaches in classes DP can be an explanation but, for sure, the most significant cause of this progress we notice is due to its practice and to the frequency of the practice.

1.3. Comparing the results registered in pupils' tests with those from the term papers (humanistic type of classes) we can notice the following:

- the percentage indicating the managing of analytic practice at the term papers during the observational research is 60%, while during the second semester, after the intervention, we can notice a slight decrease, down to 58%;
- comparing to 44%, the valid answers in tests, the term papers indicate a 20% progress; it can be due to the importance pupils give to term papers and to the better training pupils practice for them, as well as to the fact the term papers are, the great majority, revision papers which bring back certain problems and approaches that are only to be repeated (reproduced) as close as possible to the model presented in class;
- we found 58% of valid answers in the term papers from the second semester; it is lower than tests results (86%), fact, we believe, which can be explained by correlated causes, out of which we remind: higher difficulty degree for the questions and problems contained in the term papers, a different kind of questions than during the first semester – which are more demanding for the pupils, some aspects without a character of repeatability and presume analytical approaches on a first sight and, let's not forget, a diminished attention due to the multiple solicitations implied by the end of the year.

*The general **conclusion** that we can draw, without overbidding, is that with regard to managing analytic approaches implied by the studying of philosophy we can notice a sure progress, marked by ups and downs, but which, overall, clearly settles in the operational experiences of pupils of all classes, its main cause being the frequency and the intensity of the philosophical exercise.*

2. The synthetic capacity reflected in pupils written answers.

2.1. During the initial research there were 28% of valid answers in the tests from the Mathematics/ IT types of classes, which grew up to 37% during the experimentation; this growth was caused by numerous factors, such as training pupils in partial resolutions, establishing a common meaning of discussions and certain dialogical involvements which demand operating with synthetic approaches; we tend to believe, out of the observation experience as well as out of the findings registered along the research and presented in our paper, that the most

important role in increasing the synthetic capacity was held by the dialogical exercise: it is in its context that come together elements of knowledge, more and more complex notions and concepts are structured, up to maximum generality concepts, specific to philosophy. We have to admit the difficulty, of this approach for the senior pupils, which we noticed while registering over and over again valid answers percentages way below the level of those showing the successes on the analytic level, and that are due to certain factors among which we remind:

- the difficulty to operate with judgments and arguments requiring the rising of thinking to a maximum generality level;
- the novelty of the exercise of this amplitude for pupils;
- the possibility to mix up different abstract levels as a follow up of the name identity of certain concepts with terms of common lexis.

2.2. To the philology type of classes, test results show a growth of correct synthetic approaches from 36 % during the initial research, up to 55% during the experimentation; if we add the fact that in the term papers the percentage of correct answers is of 58% during the second semester (given the 30% during the first one), the progress is obvious.

*The only **conclusion** that can be drawn from the comparison of the answers from the two types of classes is that the pupils' progress in the exercise of philosophical nature implies the progress in operating with specific synthetic approaches; the fact can have multiple causes, but for sure it is dependent in direct line by the quality of the dialogical exercise in the context of which concepts are built in common and solutions are formulated.*

3. The connections implied in answers

3.1. During the initial research interdisciplinary connections are the most common: their frequency is justified by the demands, in this aspect, more frequent, given the fact that getting pupils familiar with philosophy can be understood by teachers as relating to data already acquired by pupils and reevaluation of these from a philosophical point of view; on the other hand, the approach of building philosophical concepts can involve, in a certain measure, interdisciplinary whose importance at a gnoseologic level is double motivated: it facilitates later on generalizations from part(s) to whole and assures the gradual passing through higher and higher stages of abstraction. Out of the gathered data, we can see that during the first semester the frequency of interdisciplinary connections reached 56%; during the second semester the percentage drops to 40% leaving place for an increase percentage reflecting the presence of other types of connections.

- 3.2. Diversifying the operating methodology in the DP of classes determined implicitly a diversification of connections, thus during the second semester, after the intervention, in pupils' answers we can find a re-balance between inter and intra-disciplinary connections (30%) and the trans-disciplinary ones (28%). This state of facts can be seen in the DP of all classes, beyond certain variations coming mostly from differences between classes and types of classes.

The conclusion we can draw is that the diversity of connections implied in answers is determined by the steps that are taken in the study of philosophy, as well as by the diversity of the thinking approaches required by DP.

4. **The argumentative capacity** is reflected by 38% of the answers in the tests during the first semester at the Mathematics/ IT type of classes, and during the second semester the percentage grows up to 59%. In the tests from the philology type of classes, the percentage is of 54% during the first semester and 65% during the second one.

The inductive argumentative approaches dominate (59%), in comparison to the deductive ones (41%). The situation is characteristic for all the chosen classes, with insignificant fluctuations: *these remarks let us draw the conclusion that the quality on the philosophical exercise, as well as getting pupils familiar to its specific approaches are the main causes for this state of facts.*

5. **The capacity to solve problems**, as we stated before, is in our research about commenting and interpreting a text. In the first part of the research it is reflected by 25% of the answers given by pupils from Mathematics type of classes, and by 37% of the answers given by pupils from philology type of classes. It is an obvious growth of these percentages during the second semester; thus, 32% of the answers from the first type of classes and 52% of the answers from the latter one prove adequate comments and text interpretation.

It is an obvious growth of valid answers, which is explained by the consistent appeal to texts, to all types of classes and to all chosen classes; moreover, it is proven that a great number of pupils can manage commenting and text interpreting rules and can get the correct meaning of the analyzed ideas. There is a significant difference between successes at this level for the pupils in humanist type of classes, comparing to those in Mathematics type, which is due, certainly, to the different (quantity of) exercise, as well as to its purpose from one type of class to another (understanding and interpreting, naturally associated to any text comment, have greater importance to the philology classes, given the nature of the future contests and school exams).

6. *The capacity to operate with philosophical concepts.*

- 6.1. About half of the chosen pupils built up habits to operate with philosophical concepts by the end of the school year. Due to teachers' higher expectations, in the humanist type of classes we notice a higher percentage than for the other type of classes indicating management and usage of philosophical concepts. The aspect can be seen also when analyzing the tests, as well as applied tests. There are fluctuations from one class to another but they are little significant as presence.
- 6.2. If concepts can be assimilated (also) by reproductive learning, the correct framing of the common meaning and of the philosophical one can be realized rather by practice. *We can state that the data we have gathered indicate a progress from the beginning to the end of the research, in pupils understanding and operating with concepts specific to philosophy: about 44% of the pupils do this very well and about 43% prove, by the end of the school year, beyond errors and ambiguities, the fact that they could make progress by practice.*

7. ***The capacity of relating to classical solutions*** follows the trend: 22% of the pupils frequently manage to do this during the first part of the research, while 34% seldom do it, and 34% never do it. During the second part of the research, 41% frequently relates to classical solutions, 43% seldom do it while 16% never do it.

7.1. Beyond the percentage growth we signaled, we must also notice an important aspect, namely that according to which relating to classical solutions indicate, when it is not mere reproduction, the need of funding, comparing and getting support from the text's authority. The more frequent, the more can be said not only about pupils' knowledge of history of philosophy, but also about the way pupils use what they have learned out of it by the answers they give. Integration of classical solutions in personal explanatory structures is an approach that indicates not only their knowledge and, partially, their agreeing to the texts' ideas, but also the result of personal structuring and interpreting, the result of a serious and careful reflexive approach.

The language of the numbers indicates one fact that we consider to be natural for the road our pupils had to take during our research. It is obvious that, at the beginning, only a small number of pupils start seriously and systematically to study philosophy (the curious ones, the interested ones and those provoked by novelty). Beyond the fluctuations inherent to any process, learning is initially supported by prior knowledge accumulation of pupils, revaluated at the level of mostly inter-disciplinary connections, and they are supposed to gradually diversify and get to include the intra-disciplinary level, as well as the trans-disciplinary one. We can also see that in the DP context, while studying philosophy, both analytic approaches (preferred by pupils) and the synthetic one (in a smaller amount, but

somehow “natural” for the first stage of studying philosophy) are activated. Along the research we have assisted to a gradual increase, following all the approaches mentioned above, of the pupils’ capacity to understand and make comments upon philosophical texts, mandatory approach in initiation for anyone who wants to get familiar to philosophy; it is partially the same with the process of building certain autonomous reflexive behaviors, where personal explanatory structures are integrated in (grounded on) classical philosophical solutions.

7.2. The ascendant trend of this learning process is associated with a number of stagnations, reflected in the percentages that do not indicate a movement in a superior level from one step to another of the testing, as well as the refuse to learn, reflected in the descendant trend, but present, of the answers we found below the passing grades.

7.3. The most significant changes were registered by the step from poor grades to medium grades. *The conclusion we can draw given all these quantitative changes is that it was easier for pupils who showed initially no interest for philosophy to get familiar with it, comparing to those who climbed from a medium level to the superior one, even if among these the percentages indicate an ascendant trend.*

The general conclusion we can draw is that according to which, comparing to the initial research period, during the intervention, the results of the tests indicate a progress (with its inherent ups and downs) with regard to the structuring of specific philosophical knowledge. The process can be due to familiarizing with the study of philosophy and can be correlated with the specific methodology requested by teaching and learning philosophy, which motivated and (re-) oriented more or less stable the pupils towards this subject.

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TRUTH, GENRE AND THE HERMENEUTICS OF SUBJECTIVITY

ALINA PREDA

Mottos:

“Admirers of nailed-down definitions and tidy categories may not like to hear it, but all writers and readers are full time imaginers, all prose is imaginative, and fiction and nonfiction 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.” David James Duncan

“I write fiction to tell the truth.” Pam Houston

ABSTRACT. Genre is a framework able to facilitate a better understanding of literary works, a more clear perception of important details, a way of assessing credibility by tracking facts against assumptions when interpreting a particular work, of recognizing and responding to different literary techniques. Chosen unwisely, genre may turn out to be a limiting construct that impedes truth and understanding. On the other hand, appropriate classification of a literary text into the proper genre facilitates engagement in an informed reading process and may constitute a means of finding or constructing new meanings in the complex process of uncovering truth.

KEY-WORDS: *truth, subjectivity, memory, factual, fictional, fictitious, fiction, autofiction, autobiographical novel, autobiography, genre*

In his well-informed discussion on the concept of *genre*, Dan Clinton (2003) explains that *genre* is a French word “imported directly into the English language”, derived from the Latin “genus”, itself derived from the Greek “genos”¹. In *Anatomy of Criticism* (1957) Northrop Frye claims: “[w]e discover that the critical theory of genre is stuck precisely where Aristotle left it. The very word ‘genre’ sticks out in an English sentence as the unpronounceable and alien thing it is” (1957: 13). Tracy Helixon (1999) shows that Aristotle’s discussion of genre is

¹ Clinton, D. (2003). *Genre*. At: <http://www.chicagoschoolmediatheory.net/glossary2004/genre.htm>

based on three different criteria, “the medium, the objects, the manner of mode of imitation” (Butcher, 1951: 7), or, in the words of Paul Hernandi (1974: 45), on “a polycentric framework – a set of interrelated distinctions according to the means, object, and manner of mimesis”. Thus, adds Helixon (1999), the three factors to be taken into account when assessing genre are “the method used to communicate the information, its content, and the way in which the information is communicated.”² While Axelrod and Cooper (1997: 5) include the audience in their definition of genre – “Texts, then, can be categorized by their purposes and audiences. These categories are called writing genres”, Hirsch (1967: 110) gives it a historical turn: “The best way to define a genre [...] is to describe the common elements in a narrow group of texts which have direct historical relationships”, and Swales defines it as a functional construct, which presupposes a code between writer and reader: “[genre is] a more or less standardized communicative event with a goal or set of goals mutually understood by the participants in that event and occurring within a functional rather than a social or personal setting” (in Malmkjær, 1991: 166). Other factors mentioned by literary theorists as important for genre evaluation, adds Helixon, are “*dynamism, situatedness, and community ownership*” (Burkenkotter and Huckin, 1997: 291), social elements which are essential because, as O’Neill (1997: 3) argues, “genres are an interesting and important phenomenon because they embody the norms and values of the communities that produce and reproduce them”. Consequently, as Clinton (2003) concludes, “it is perhaps better to regard genre (or type) as a specification of the social practices, both authorial and spectatorial / interpretive, involved in any given medium.”

In the well-known *Poetics*, when discussing of the mode of imitation in poetry, Aristotle outlined the distinction between the three basic genres - epic, lyric and drama:

“the medium being the same, and the objects [of imitation] the same, the poet may imitate by narration - in which case he can either take another personality [...], or speak in his own person, unchanged, or he may present all his characters as living and moving before us” (1961: 53).

Narrative, or the epic genre, defined by Aristotle as combining a first person narrator with dialogue by characters, has come to be identified with fictional writings, and herein lies the difficulty in assigning some types of text, such as autobiographical writings, to a particular genre. The purpose of this paper is to examine the attempts made to identify and prescribe autobiography, and to establish why this is a genre so difficult to define, although it has been in existence for centuries.

In the foreword to *The Autobiographical Pact*, Philippe Lejeune (2000 [1996]: 5) points out that, although what we call autobiography can be given

² Helixon, T. (1999). *Genre*. Available: <http://course1.winona.edu/pjohnson/e511/genre.htm>

multiple interpretations, for instance it could be seen as a historical study, or as a psychological one, it is, first and foremost, a literary text. But ever since Aristotle's *Poetics*, which featured on its first page the terms *mimesis* and *muthos*, literature has been regarded as imitation or representation of human actions through language (*mimesis*), as a fictional story (*muthos*) to be distinguished from a factual one. Antoine Compagnon (1998: 40) recalls the term Aragon applied to literature, which he labelled as "mentir-vrai", "a true lie", or "lying truth"³. There are, however, literary works that advertise the veracity of their content, the accuracy of their representation, claiming to be factual, rather than fictional: *the autobiography, the memoir(s), the self-portrait, the personal essay and the personal diary* (or *journal*). These particular forms of writing seem to be in a class of their own, even when it comes to genre classification.

There are those who argue in favour of the factuality of autobiography, keeping with the definitions to be found in dictionaries and encyclopaedias, but they are ever fewer in numbers. More and more critics view autobiography as "a textual organization of diversified forms of personal life" and the autobiographer's "structural ambition" as the organisation "in the form and through the medium of a text" of the multiple "divergent selves and experiences into the unitary appearance of a harmonious whole that transcribes the lived-out personality" (Pütz, 1997: 179). Since most critics believe, just like Luis A. Renza⁴ that autobiography "transforms empirical facts into *artifacts*", it is not unexpected to witness claims that insist on the impossibility of autobiography. For instance Mary Evans (1999: 130-143) argues that despite the conventional view which claims that autobiography "is becoming in some sense more true to the person", the truth is that:

"In an age in which we assume that we can know and have access to all the secrets and motivations of existence, auto/biographers also insist on the struggle towards all-knowing information. The impossibility of this task suggests that we should view auto/biography as in urgent need of reclassification; that its place on the library shelves is not with non-fiction but very much closer to fiction. The „real“ person, whom the late twentieth century regards as a legitimate target for investigation, becomes less visible and less credible as we assume that all experience is individual rather than collective" (Evans, 1999: 143).

While some believe that "[u]ndeniably, autobiography is a fictional form – a realization that need not diminish its social, historical, or literary value, [...] [f]or autobiography and fiction together provide complementary strategies for the art of writing the self" (McKay, 1991: 45), others claim that even though we can never "tell the *whole* truth (for what is it, after all?)", we can, by reading "with an eye out

³ Compagnon, A. (1998). *Le Démon de la théorie. Littérature et sens commun*. Paris: Ed. du Seuil.

⁴ Quoted in Pütz (1997: 180).

for a text's performative status", arrive at "the recovery of "auto-graphical" truth", more exactly at "the truth about the writer *as she or he writes*" (Abbot, 2002: 135). However, shows Evans, the status of *the Author* is rather fuzzy, and therefore

"contemporary auto/biography cannot in any sense "reveal", because the author (and in equal measure the subject) has internalised the norms and conventions of the twentieth century. The search for the "real" person is doomed to disappointment, for the two very good reasons that no "real" person actually exists, and cannot be contained, let alone represented, in print. Nevertheless, the hope continues that somewhere, amidst more and more material, the "real" person can be found." (Evans, 1999: 138)

Similarly, Jenny (2003) notes that even Lejeune's autobiographical pact⁵ could in fact be questioned in light of the idea that there is no real author, but only the author constructed by the reader, a fictive entity. For how could this fictive entity shaped by the reader be identical to the supposedly real character of the autobiography? Moreover, even in the case of fiction, where the author and the narrator are, obviously, different entities, Lejeune himself (2000: 186) points out that, particularly when it comes to first-person narratives, "the reader will always try to pin the former to the latter" and, therefore, "deliberate interpretation", as well as "naïve reading", is a process of transformation that the text is bound to undergo (Lejeune, 2000: 7). Thus, given these circumstances, could we then still argue in favour of the existence of autobiography, or would this genre be doomed to always slip towards *autofiction*⁶?

In a paper entitled *L'autofiction*, Laurent Jenny⁷ (2003) outlines both the origin, and the various interpretation of the 1977 neologism introduced by Serge Doubrovsky. By coining this umbrella-term, Jenny argues, Doubrovsky not only cast a shadow of doubt over the factual claims of autobiography, but also proposed a blend between autobiography and fiction. However, as Jenny points out, "the exact nature of this synthesis is subject to interpretation"⁸. On the one hand, **the stylistic definition** of autofiction refers to the creation of a certain effect due to the language employed

⁵ In *The Autobiographical Pact*, Philippe Lejeune (2000: 22-23) argues that, for a book to be read as autobiography, there must be a reading contract between the writer and the reader, a "pact" marking the relationship of identity between the author, the narrator, and the protagonist in an autodiegetic narrative. This means that the text must be written in the first person and all three terms must be identical in name or signature.

⁶ "Si l'auteur, est toujours peu ou prou un être fictif, une construction du lecteur autant que de l'écrivain, cela remet en question un postulat de l'autobiographie selon Lejeune: l'identité entre auteur (toujours fictif) et personnage (supposé réel) de l'écrivain, c'est-à-dire la possibilité même d'écrire une autobiographie qui ne vire pas à l'autofiction" (Jenny, 2003 : Ch.III.3.1.3.).

⁷ Jenny, L. (2003). *L'autofiction*. Edition: Ambroise Barras, 2003 - 2004. Available: <http://www.unige.ch/lettres/framo/enseignements/methodes/autofiction/afintegr.html>

⁸ "On peut d'abord remarquer que c'est ce qu'on appelle un mot-valise, suggérant une synthèse de l'autobiographie et de la fiction. Mais la nature exacte de cette synthèse est sujette à des interprétations très diverses" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.I).

(*l'effet de fiction*), which results in the metamorphosis of autobiography into autofiction. This means that, “regardless of the truthfulness of the facts narrated, certain discursive features are enough to create *l'effet de fiction*”, and thus challenge autobiography’s claim to veracity⁹. On the other hand, **the referential definition** of autofiction states that this metamorphosis is function of the content, not the form, of the autobiographical discourse. If the events presented allow for speculation as to their veracity, the text counts as autofiction, rather than autobiography¹⁰. Jenny’s analysis of Alain Robbe-Grillet’s *Le miroir qui revient* (1984) points to the arguments used by this writer in order to discredit autobiography by presenting it as an instance of *falsification*. First of all, **autobiography implies an utter simplification of the author’s existence**, since it is bound to be selective. The selection of memories, enhanced by the selective character of memory in general, favours certain events at the expense of others, maybe equally if not even more important at the moment when they were experienced. But Jenny believes these faults to be insufficient for deeming autobiography fictitious. Otherwise, history and scientific discourse would have to be considered fictitious as well; therefore, one must differentiate between discourses which are deliberately fictitious and discourses that may be characterised as fictitious merely as a result of their incompleteness¹¹.

Secondly, says Robbe-Grillet, **the simplification is further aggravated as the chosen isolated facts are presented by means of linear discourse**, organised according to the principles of causal logic, although they were not experienced as such. Thus, the retrospective image is bound to be deformed, and the result is a *falsification*. Jenny, however, considers that this logical turn given to events may well be a way of perceiving and/or interpreting reality, so even if it could give the events a *fictitious* character, it does not make them *false*¹².

⁹ “La thèse générale défendue par les tenants de la première définition, c’est donc qu’indépendamment de la véracité des faits racontés certains caractères stylistiques du discours suffisent à créer ce qu’on pourrait appeler un *effet de fiction*” (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II).

¹⁰ “Dans tous les cas, l’autofiction apparaît comme un détournement fictif de l’autobiographie. Mais selon un premier type de définition, stylistique, la métamorphose de l’autobiographie en autofiction tient à certains effets découlant du type de langage employé. Selon un second type de définition, référentielle, l’autobiographie se transforme en autofiction en fonction de son contenu, et du rapport de ce contenu à la réalité” (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II).

¹¹ “Le caractère appauvri ou simplifié de tout discours référentiel par rapport au foisonnement du réel ne suffit pas à le rendre *fictif*. Ou alors, il faudrait aussi dire que le discours de l’Histoire, ou celui des sciences, qui sont nécessairement schématisant sont aussi *fictifs*, ce qui paraît abusif. Cela aurait surtout l’inconvénient de ne plus nous permettre de distinguer entre des discours fictifs délibérés et ce qu’il faudrait appeler des discours fictifs par *insuffisance*” (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II.1.1.).

¹² “Là encore, il faut mettre en doute l’idée selon laquelle la projection de relations causales dans des événements, qu’ils soient d’ailleurs autobiographiques ou non, suffit à les *falsifier*. Je vous renvoie d’ailleurs ici à la distinction que nous avons faite dans le cours sur La Fiction entre le *faux* et le *fictif*. D’une part la logification des événements n’est pas littéralement fautive (tout au plus peut-on dire qu’elle est une interprétation du réel, une façon de l’appréhender). D’autre part, sa fausseté n’entraînerait pas sa *fictivité*, si ce n’est dans un sens vague que nous avons décidé d’écartier” (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II.1.2.).

Thirdly, suggests Robbe-Grillet, **autobiography's narrative style betrays the lived moments, being unable to render the events as they were experienced**, but only in an *a posteriori* fashion, due to linguistic fallacy (the past tense in the verb, the inappropriate adjective, the noun used to name the feeling or emotion impossible to express in a simple word). Doubrovsky, shows Jenny, also complains about the 'beautiful style' (*la belle forme*) employed in autobiographical writing, as it turns a common life into a monumental existence, rendered in an aesthetic and even legendary fashion. Jenny, however, pertinently points out that the linguistic 'synthesis' and 'symbolism' do not turn autobiography into fiction; they only give the autobiographical narrative 'a more or less conventional form'¹³.

Based on the written word's power of invention, Doubrovsky felt the need to coin a more appropriate term for autobiographical works, and he thus called *autofiction* what he considered to be a fictionalised rendering, by way of free association, of otherwise true events. Jenny notices that the stylistic definitions of autofiction and autobiography cannot escape implications related to content: writing by free association prevents the author from presenting a well-ordered life, and a chronological account of a person's life story fails to truthfully express the real feeling of real existence with all its contradictions and torments¹⁴. Consequently, the notion of autofiction that has enjoyed success in recent years, Jenny explains, differs greatly from the one put forward by Serge Doubrovsky, since **the stylistic definition gave way to the referential one**. Vincent Colonna uses the term to denote "the fictionalisation of lived experience", completely ignoring Doubrovsky's stylistic concerns. Thus, **autofiction** "blurs the boundaries between fiction and reality", and **becomes a synonym for the autobiographical novel**, and for other first person narratives which do not advertise their fictionality, "presenting themselves as factual rather than imaginary stories"¹⁵. Autofiction is in breach of contract with respect to the "autobiographical pact" as a result of its content, marred by referential fallacies¹⁶. Even the autobiographical works in

¹³ "Mais pour autant, ce nom qui synthétise et symbolise mon vécu ne transforme pas mon autobiographie en fiction. Il lui donne seulement une forme verbale plus ou moins conventionnelle" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II.1.3.).

¹⁴ "Avec une écriture associative, perpétuellement bifurcante, on ne saurait construire un récit de vie bien ordonné. Et inversement, les imparfaits itératifs ou le passé défini, historisant l'existence, sont incapables de rendre compte du foisonnement de la vie psychique, de ses errements et de ses contradictions" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II.2.2.).

¹⁵ "L'autofiction joue de sa ressemblance avec le roman à la 1^{ère} personne, et d'autant mieux que le roman à la 1^{ère} personne, du type *L'Etranger* de Camus, n'assume jamais sa fictionnalité. Sa *feintise* consiste à toujours se présenter comme un récit factuel et non comme une histoire imaginaire. L'autofiction brouille donc aisément les pistes entre fiction et réalité" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.III).

¹⁶ "Plus précisément, l'autofiction serait un récit d'apparence autobiographique mais où le pacte autobiographique (qui rappelons-le affirme l'identité de la triade auteur-narrateur-personnage) est faussé par des inexactitudes référentielles. Celles-ci concernent les événements de la vie racontée, ce qui a inévitablement des conséquences sur le statut de réalité du personnage, du narrateur ou de l'auteur" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.III).

which the narrator's identity is fictionalised, as the narrator is not identical to the pair author-character, works that Genette termed "heterodiegetic autobiographies"¹⁷, adds Jenny, would come under the umbrella-term *autofiction*. An example in point is Gertrude Stein's *The Autobiography of Alice B. Toklas* (1933), where the status of autofiction does not derive from the falsity of the events narrated, which are all accurate, but from the fictionalisation of the narrator. Thus, Stein "fictionalised her point of view, but not her story"¹⁸. The position of the subject in the two Doubrovskian genres is antithetic as well: while the subject of autobiography "intends to place his/her words and history under strict supervision of his/her conscience", autofiction is "the autobiography of the subconscious", since the "I" abdicates its responsibilities in favour of free imaginative narrative¹⁹.

Consequently, believes Jenny, autofiction is based on spontaneity, and requires of its authors neither literary talent, nor an interesting or exemplary existence²⁰. Thus, autobiography undergoes a process of democratisation, and autofiction becomes "everybody's autobiography"²¹. As Genette mentions, in *Fiction et diction*, a fictional work is immediately granted literary status, just because it is fictional, and thus, shows Jenny, by admitting to its fictitious character, autofiction "gains, *de facto*, a literary status". This leads to an "artistic redemption" of all autobiographical works, which are given "an aesthetic value similar to that enjoyed by the novel", no matter how petty, trivial, minor, "narcissistic, insignificant, or even gratuitous" they may be²². Freed from autobiography's pompous style, but

¹⁷ "Genette a classé les autobiographies, où l'identité du narrateur est distincte de celle couple auteur-personnage, dans la catégorie des autobiographies hétérodiégétiques. Mais elles relèvent clairement de l'autofiction" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.III.3.2.).

¹⁸ "On le voit donc, ici l'autofiction ne manipule pas les événements rapportés, qui sont tous exacts. On peut également considérer qu'il y a identité réelle entre l'auteur (Gertrude Stein) et le personnage central du livre (Alice Toklas y a une place très effacée et figure principalement comme témoin). Mais Gertrude Stein a inventé une narratrice sous la figure de laquelle elle s'est dissimulée. Ce faisant elle a fictionnalisé son point de vue mais non son histoire..." (Jenny, 2003: Ch.III.3.2.1.).

¹⁹ "Le sujet de l'autobiographie entend placer sa parole et son histoire sous le contrôle de sa conscience. A l'inverse l'autofiction serait en somme une autobiographie de l'inconscient, où le moi abdique toute volonté de maîtrise et laisse parler le ça" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II.2.3.).

²⁰ "De cette absence de maîtrise, et donc d'*art*, il découle que l'autofiction doubrovskienne est présentée comme un genre *bas*, presque *infra-littéraire*, à la portée de tous les inconscients et de toutes les incompétences stylistiques. Pour écrire son autofiction, on n'aurait besoin ni d'avoir une vie intéressante, ni un talent littéraire. Un peu de spontanéité y suffirait" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II.2.4.).

²¹ "L'autofiction, en renonçant à mettre en valeur une historicité exemplaire de l'existence, arrache l'autobiographique à la légende des grands de ce monde et prononce sa démocratisation. L'autofiction, ce serait en quelque sorte l'autobiographie de tout le monde" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II.2.4.).

²² "Un autre avantage de l'autofiction, c'est qu'en se dénonçant presque explicitement comme fictif, le récit gagne *de facto* un statut littéraire. Souvenons-nous en effet, comme le rappelle Gérard Genette dans *Fiction et diction*, que la fiction est un critère suffisant de la littérarité d'un texte (alors que la qualité stylistique n'en est qu'un critère relatif et sujet à discussions): tout récit fictif est aussi un récit littéraire. La fiction, au prix de quelques transpositions, peut dès lors servir à hisser sur le plan de l'art un récit autobiographique toujours suspect de narcissisme, d'insignifiance ou de gratuité" (Jenny, 2003: Ch.III.3.4.2.).

also from “the artificial literary techniques”, autofiction, argues Doubrovsky, emerges as a new genre, to prove that since writing is the only possible way of rendering your existence, the result is an arbitrary account based on the few redeemable traces, an account both entirely fabricated and authentically accurate²³.

Jenny admits that many critics perceive autofiction as an “impure genre”; among them we may count Jacques Lecarme, who classifies *autofiction* as a cheap genre, Gérard Genette, who barely admits its existence, and Marie Darrieussecq, who thinks of it as a flippant genre (*un genre pas sérieux*), given that it involves a contradictory type of speech-act: while the autobiography contains an illocution that is, simultaneously, an assertion of facts and a demand that the readers believe it, autofiction claims to be recognised, at the same time, both as an assertion and as pretence²⁴. In other words, explains Jenny, the author of autofiction states that the events narrated are accurate, but discourages the readers from actually believing them, so that all the elements of the account seem to “vacillate between factual value and fictitious value”, which renders the audience unable to distinguish between them²⁵. In spite of all these protests, argues Jenny, and despite the general perception of autofiction as a flippant genre, it nevertheless “casts a serious shadow of doubt over autobiography’s naïve claim to truthfulness”. By claiming that it is difficult to indubitably assign definitive truth value to the account of a particular life, and that fidelity is perhaps better rendered by “fictional transposition”, or by means of “free associative writing”, than in the shape of “a strictly ordered and allegedly faithful account”²⁶, Jenny suggests that this indeterminacy can be said to ultimately result in the impossibility of autobiography.

Since the meaning of a text is the outcome of such various factors as a reader’s social and cultural background, a language’s tendency to generate meanings of its own over time, and given that the original intentions of an author

²³ “Doubrovsky peut ainsi écrire: “le mouvement et la forme même de la scription sont la seule inscription de soi possible. La vraie trace, indélébile et arbitraire, entièrement fabriquée et authentiquement fidèle (*Parcours critique*, 188)” (Jenny, 2003: Ch.II.3.).

²⁴ “Par pas sérieux, Marie Darrieussecq entend désigner le caractère particulier de l’acte de parole impliqué par l’autofiction, acte de parole qu’elle oppose à celui de l’autobiographie. Selon elle l’acte illocutoire propre à l’autobiographie est simultanément un acte d’assertion (j’affirme que ce que je raconte est vrai) et une demande de croyance et d’adhésion adressée au lecteur (non seulement je le dis mais il faut le croire). Dans le cas de l’autofiction, l’acte serait lui aussi double, mais contradictoire: l’autofiction est une assertion qui se dit feinte et qui *dans le même temps* se dit sérieuse (Darrieussecq, 377)” (in Jenny, 2003: Conclusions).

²⁵ “Autrement dit, l’auteur d’autofiction tout à la fois affirme que ce qu’il raconte est vrai et met en garde le lecteur contre une adhésion à cette croyance. Dès lors, tous les éléments du récit pivotent entre valeur factuelle et valeur fictive, sans que le lecteur puisse trancher entre les deux” (Jenny, 2003: Conclusions).

²⁶ “Ce non sérieux veut cependant sérieusement mettre en doute la vérité de l’autobiographie. Il plaide pour le caractère indécidable de la vérité d’une vie, qui se laisse peut-être mieux saisir dans les détours de la transposition fictionnelle ou dans les relâchements de l’écriture associative que dans la maîtrise d’un récit ordonné et prétendument fidèle” (Jenny, 2003: Conclusions).

can only be guessed at, any literary work, including the autobiography, is open to interpretation, its factuality is indeterminate, and any meanings that readers may draw from it are bound to only be partial and provisional, rather than definite and fixed. Hence, when faced with the choice: fact or fiction, factual or fictitious, an autobiography or an autobiographical novel, why shouldn't a writer skilfully avoid the burden brought about by the strict demands of autobiography, which tend to overwhelm most authors and force them into an unloading of experience *gratia* experience, and choose the latter rather than the former? In a novel, be it autobiographical, narration does not distort but gives shape to the content of the discourse, articulates meaning, instead of obscuring it. Thus, by choosing the autobiographical novel over the autobiography one may take advantage of the genre's elasticity and flexibility, preserving emphasis on the author's presence and voice, while avoiding restrictions on creativity. Writing fiction is an act of informed imagination, and consequently, in this case, no one should be tempted to judge the manner in which a writer's information was obtained. What one can judge is only the final product of the creative act of writing.

Autobiographical writing can be seen as a way to somehow cope with that element that matters most to post-modern consciousness, an element described by Habermas (1987: 53) as "the transitory aspect of the moment, pregnant with meaning, in which the problems of an onrushing future are tangled in knots". The string of events in most autobiographies begins at birth and progresses in a seemingly chronological order; the same order features in the autobiographical novel as well. But there are techniques traditionally used in what is called a chronological story: dramatic anticipation, explanatory flash-backs, and summarizing sequences and the widespread use of these techniques actually shows that when it comes to memory chronology is not natural at all²⁷. A dialogue between Ebenezer Cooke and Henry Burlingame, from John Barth's *The Sot-Weed Factor*, point to the unreliable nature of memory. While Ebenezer, the main character of the novel thinks that "Thy memory, my memory, the memory of the race" is "the house of Identity", "the constant from which we measure change" (Barth, 1960: 141), Ebenezer's tutor, Henry Burlingame, retorts by asking a relevant question: "suppose the thread [of memory] gets lost completely, as't sometimes doth. Suppose I'd had no recollection of my past at all?" (Barth, 1960: 142). Then, Burlingame insists on the incompleteness of memory, pointing out that people tend to remember mostly the things that they want, and sometimes not even as they really happened, but in the way they would have wished them to be. It is probably Gertrude Stein who can provide us with the most enchanting perspective on autobiography:

"And identity is funny being yourself is funny as you
are never yourself to yourself except as you remember

²⁷ See Lejeune (2000: 223).

yourself and then of course you do not believe yourself. That is really the trouble with an autobiography you do not of course you do not really believe yourself why should you, you know so well so very well that it is not yourself, it could not be yourself because you cannot remember right and if you do remember right it does not sound right and of course it does not sound right because it is not right. You are of course never yourself.”²⁸

Faced at virtually every turn with this kind of inaccuracy, ambiguity, paradoxically contrasting assertions, we must renounce the illusion that integral reconstruction is possible, since hanging on to it not only leaves us in ignorance of many things, but dooms us to an even deeper state of ignorance: we are ignorant of being ignorant. A crew of “literary detectives” might manage to gather enough evidence to confirm the accuracy of individual statements, but there still remains, unaccounted for, the hidden story of the subject's life, facts that have been left out, due to the writer's forgetfulness, blindness, or bias. Phyllis Rose (1985: 80) points out that “all good biography, like all good art depends upon a subversive effect: showing the truth which before would have seemed blank space, negative, trivial, something for the mind to skim rather than to dwell upon in detail”. Authors of autobiographical novels do, indeed, rely on imagination to re-create the substance of their own lives. Whatever details are tallied, they only work to add flesh and substance to the life in question, which may sometimes be too obscure. Given that memory is not a reliable ally, even the best autobiography is bound to be just an approximation of its author's life, dependent on the accuracy of the autobiographer's memory and the choice of events to be narrated, which, in turn, depend on the emotional effect each of them had on the author. Autobiography is not simply a chronology of personal facts. Form and design are as essential to its construction as they are to the novel. The skill and imagination of the autobiographer come into play to fulfil a necessary and inevitable evaluative, selective, and interpretive role. Consequently, autobiography is an instance of storytelling in its purest and most personal form.

On the opening page of *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, Mark Twain has his protagonist assure us that the preceding novel, *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, “is mostly a true book, with some stretchers.” And this assessment, whimsically given by a fictitious character to a work of fiction in which he himself features, is a *caveat lector* that one might also sensibly apply to much debated subgenres such as the autobiography, the journal, and the memoir. Since there are no means by which to solve a dispute about memory, a distinction between fictional and non-fictional autobiography has to be left in the hands of theorists like

²⁸ Stein, G. (1937). *Everybody's Autobiography*. Ch.2.

Philippe Lejeune, who rely on less philosophical criteria. Lejeune (2000: 168) disagrees with the idea that autobiography gives a distorted image of childhood, arguing that “the memory of our childhood does not lend itself to change so easily” because there is “an urgency of remembrance that imposes its will upon the narrator and sets off a series of uncontrollable emotions”. Thus, memory resists interpretation demanding to be rendered truthfully. However, due to the fact that incidents are usually reordered for the telling and thus do not constitute a mirror-like image of actual experience, especially since imagination plays an extensive role in the process of self-representation, no life account can be said to bestow objective truth, and no autobiography can allege to recount the factual truth and be discussed under the aspect of such criteria. Consequently, it has been suggested, by critics who insist on the impossibility of autobiography, that this type of literary work be considered as belonging to the particular subgenre called “autofiction”.

Genre is a framework able to facilitate a better understanding of literary works, a more clear perception of important details, a way of assessing credibility by tracking facts against assumptions when interpreting a particular work, of recognizing and responding to different literary techniques. Chosen unwisely, genre may turn out to be a limiting construct that impedes truth and understanding. On the other hand, appropriate classification of a literary text into the proper genre facilitates engagement in an informed reading process and may constitute a means of finding or constructing new meanings in the complex process of uncovering truth.

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APPROACHES OF THE TERROR MANAGEMENT AND SELF-DETERMINATION THEORIES ON DEFENSE MECHANISMS AGAINST DEATH

ENIKŐ, ŠKOLKA*

INHALTSANGABE. Aus der Aussicht der Lehre der Terrorüberwachung und der Selbstbestimmung, handelt der Artikel, Mechanisme wodurch der menschliche Seelenzustand seinem Bewusstsein der eigenen Bedingung des Sterblichen gewachsen ist. Weist dass die Leistungsart der Überwachung der bewussten und unbewussten Beklemmung gegenüber dem Tod einige Sozialerscheinungen, die offensichtlich keinen Zusammenhang mit der Erscheinung des Todes, wie z. B. das Verhalten der gesunden Personen gegenüber deren mit Mängeln vertreten, hin. Vertreten aus einer kritischen Aussicht das Muster des Dualverfahrens der Verteidigungsmechanismen, betonend die Rolle der proximalen und distalen Verteidigungsmechanismen in der Ausführung der Überwachung über die Beklemmung gegenüber dem Tod, die ständig den menschlichen Seelenzustand bedroht. Weist auch die Rolle anderer Faktoren, wie z. B. Befriedigung oder Unbefriedigung der menschlichen grundlegenden Notwendigkeiten, Defizitgründen, rechtsgültige kontingierende verteidigende eigene Achtung, Anhänglichkeitsart, Beitretungsart zu den von der Angehörigkeitskultur vorgeschlagenen Werte, die in der Leistung einer rechtsgültigen oder verteidigende Beziehung zum eigenen Tod und ihrer Lieben beherrschen, hin.

SCHLÜSSELWÖRTER: Lehre der Terrorüberwachung; Lehre der Selbstbestimmung; Lehre des Soziometers; proximale und distale Verteidigungsmechanismen; Defizitgründen, psychologische grundlegende Notwendigkeiten; rechtsgültige kontingierende verteidigende eigene Achtung, Mängel.

The Terror Management Theory (TMT) approaches the human behavior from evolutionist, existential, and psychodynamic, being literally a theory belonging to the social psychology area, studying the motivational substratum of the human behavior.

It is based on the anthropologist's Ernest Becker (1929-1974) work. He claims that man is not organically endowed to survive by his own. His capacity to be sociable and his intelligence complete his abilities (Solomon et al., 2003). Humans can communicate with symbols – the basis of language; can imagine themselves in future; can reflect upon themselves – can be the object of their own observations (self-awareness).

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The theory was elaborated in 1986 by Greenberg, Pyszczynski and Solomon (Pyszczynski, 2004) authors who assert that “the human need to deny death is the basis of many social behaviors and motivations” (Hirschberger, 2005, p. 246).

The TMT represents a comprising theory that proposes explanations referring to the manner the terror which could be experienced when thinking about one’s own death “affects cognition and behavior, and may account for individual differences in psychological reactions to this terror” (Ben-Ari et al., 2000, p. 2).

The TMT approaches the people’s response to a deep threat against their selves, a threat caused by being aware of the phenomenon and/or the process of death (Ryan and Deci, 2004).

The fundamental presumption of the theory consists in the fact that the mortality-salience “is emotionally manifested in anxiety and paralyzing terror” (Ben-Ari et al., 2000, p. 2). The terror, the horror that needs to be controlled is caused by the awareness of the one’s own vulnerability, of the fact that “death can occur at any time for reasons that often cannot be anticipated or controlled” (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 459).

Solomon et al. (Ben-Ari et al., 2000) sustained in 1991 that the fundamental drive laying on the basis of the terror management phenomenon (the defensive mechanisms and behaviors) is that of self-preservation. In other words, “the fear of death is rooted in an instinct for self preservation” (der Bos et al., 2005, p. 92). People share this instinct with other species, but only humans are aware that death is inevitable. “Only humans know what it is that they are afraid of” (Pyszczynski, 2004, p. 830). Humans realize the absolute certainty of death, and the fact that death “can come at any time for any number of reasons” (Pyszczynski, 2004, p. 829). “This combination of an instinctive drive for self-preservation with an awareness of the inevitability of death creates the potential for paralyzing terror” (der Bos et al. 2005, p. 92).

This horror is constituted in a mixture of terror which is even less improvable in the grounds that it is combined with the awareness of the fact that man is part of the animal regnum, claim Solomon et al. (2003).

Together with Otto Rank and Norman Brown, Ernest Becker considers that death’s awareness and the potentially debilitating terror that this awareness produces “is the most significant event in the evolutionary history of our species” (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 459).

The philosopher Françoise Dastur (2006) claims that „once there is thinking, thus representation, this end which is one’s own death, appears as a privileged theme for thinking, up to the point that we can say that humanity only accedes to the self consciousness by the confrontation with death” (p. 21). The same author shows that „there is culture only when there is a certain control on the irreversible flow of time, which involves the use of many techniques destined to cover the missing. (...) this is the reason why it is not illegitimate to believe that we can find in mourning, in the general sense of assuming what is missing, the origins of the culture itself” (Dastur, 2006, p. 24).

The dual process theory of defense mechanisms against existential anxiety

Pyszczynski et al. (1999) propose – by the dual process theory of defense mechanisms against death anxiety – the existence of two types of defensive mechanisms: proximal and distal.

In the view of the authors, these are two distinct manners of defense against the mortality-salience, localized at different “levels”: consciousness and unconsciousness. In other words, the authors postulate that these two types of defense target the conscious, respectively the unconscious aspects of death anxiety.

Against the conscious cognitions referring to death, there are launched proximal defensive mechanisms.

Against the unconscious cognitions referring to death, with highly accessibility degree toward the domain of consciousness (highly accessible unconscious thoughts), there are launched distal defense mechanisms.

Pyszczynski et al. (1999) made a comparison between the two defensive manners and the two memory systems, or information processing systems proposed by the cognitive psychology: one is responsible for the rational re-actualization and manipulation of the declarative knowledge about the world, the other, targets the acquisition of abilities, proceedings and behavioral patterns. The two information processing systems have different names: declarative vs. procedural memory; explicit vs. implicit memory; rational vs. experiential processing.

The authors consider that both systems contribute to ensuring the protection against the fundamental human fears, moreover, they can produce defensive mechanisms operating in very different ways.

Pyszczynski et al. (1999) use the “proximal” and “distal” terms to show the difference between the two types of mechanisms in terms of approaching the threatening material at different levels of abstraction, ultimately at conscious vs. unconscious levels respective to the (conscious-proximal) level at which physical death related thoughts are formed.

In this sense, the proximal mechanisms attack the conscious cognitions at the same (proximal) level where they are construed (at conscious level); the distal ones attack largely the abstract and remote cognitions (distal) from the level where the fear was built (that is operate at unconscious level). Concretely, in the case that the threatening material is in the field of focal attention (enters into consciousness), there are needed mechanisms acting at the same level where the threat was construed, that is conscious level. Conscious attention instigates to rational-logical information processing. The logical rules, in this case, are used to undermine the credibility of the danger of the possibility of dying.

Distal defenses try to neutralize the fear by attacking it on a different level (unconscious) from the level where the threat occurred (conscious). In this case, the person is not aware about the link between the material that produced the anxiety and the defensive maneuver, respectively the defensive motivation, laying at the basis of his behavior.

Pyszczynski et al. (1999) sustain that the unconscious fear of death determines a distal defense from two reasons:

1. the absence of the awareness leads to the lack of need to answer to this fear of death in a logical-rational manner;
2. when a fear is outside the awareness, it is outside the conscious control and consequently it is possible that the fear of death to launch a series of associated concerns which become conscious, but which do not present any longer at conscious level a link with the unconscious fear of death.

Proximal defensive mechanisms

Proximal defenses (rational or pseudo-rational – seemingly rational – efforts which exclude death related thoughts from the consciousness) are launched against the conscious death related cognitions, through *repression* (i.e. distracting attention – for instance, a person who passed by the scene of a horrible car accident can turn up the volume of the player, switch the topic of discussion, or can look at a certain moment of that day for a source of entertainment). These repressive strategies can be augmented by strategies of *rationalization* and *denial* (i.e. the person can remember having a healthy life style, low level of blood cholesterol, think about being young enough to hope having a long life ahead etc.) or by producing *cognitive distortions*, all these pushing the problem of death in a distant future, in such a way that appears rational and that facilitates denial of the person's current vulnerability in the face of death.

The authors show that, in fact, these cognitions are most of the time implausible because of the contrary empirical data. But people can use denial of risk that certain behaviors present and can focus on any proofs that are at their disposal to argument and sustain the confidence in a long life, in the fact that threat is not imminent.

These defense mechanisms are largely rational, because they presuppose a logical analysis, but are in fact an outcome of biasing the available information. Epstein (Pyszczynski et al., 1999) claims that under these circumstances data are operated on the bases of logics and proofs, yet we cannot speak of a logical process, in the sense of the rigorous, critical, disciplined thinking.

In order to make this type of defense mechanism (characterized by logically organized biases) efficient, the person needs to maintain confidence in the illusion of objectiveness by *controlling the access and process of information*, in order to make the inference referring to the application for a longer life appear to be derived in a completely rational manner, show Pyszczynski and Greenberg (Pyszczynski et al., 1999).

Distal defensive mechanisms

These activate against unconscious death anxiety. They consist in the defense mechanisms of the vision promoted by the culture of belonging (cultural worldview defense) and in self-esteem as defensive mechanism.

In the opinion of the authors, the human psyche developed a solution to the problem of death, calling for two cultural components, which are constituted in a "buffer" against the unconscious death anxiety:

1. *Cultural worldview defense (the vision upon the world promoted by the culture of belonging)* – consists in a humanly constructed symbolic conception of reality that imbues life with order, permanence and stability" (Pyszczynski et al., 1999, p. 836).

The culture – the sum of the beliefs built and shared by a certain group of people about the nature of reality "serves to assuage the terror engendered by the uniquely human awareness of death, and in so doing, to preserve consciousness (in its present form) as a viable form of mental organization" (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 459). But people are surrounded by a linguistically created symbolic universe about their own creation. The culture ensures people that they represent significant people in a world full of meaning, and are consequently "qualified for immortality" (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 460).

The cultural worldview contains standards for people to achieve a sense of the personal value and a certain hope in the literal or symbolic transcendence of death.

Solomon et al. (2003) show that *symbolic immortality* can be achieved on different ways: the accomplishment of heroic acts, of charity, the creation of artworks considered valuable, the foundation of numerous families, the accumulation of considerable fortunes, the exercise of professions leading to the hope that those who are the beneficiaries of the services (i.e. sanitary, cultural, education, etc.) shall not forget the people who ensures the respective services.

The *literal immortality* is promised in the conditions of respecting fundamental ethic rules and accomplishing religious practices (Solomon et al., 2003).

The primary function of the culture consists in ensuring conceptions about a reality full of meaning. Consequently, all the cultures present conceptions referring to the origin of the universe, prescriptions referring to the conduct rules accepted in the respective cultural context and explanations referring to what happen after death (Solomon et al. 2003).

Rosenblatt et al. (Kashima et al., 2004) show that this very sharing of values and cultural norms make possible the functioning of the worldview as a defensive mechanism.

The worldview proposed by the culture of belonging represents an essential component, yet not enough to bring its contribution to maintaining a balanced mental state.

Together with this, it is also necessary the conception that the person in cause, is a valuable one.

2. *The self-esteem* - "which is acquired by believing that one is living up to the standards of value inherent in one's cultural worldview" claims Pyszczynski et al. (1999, p. 836).

The feelings and the cognitions associated with the individual's self-appraisal as a worthwhile person, represent – according to the TMT – the self-esteem. We can conceptualize self-esteem as the *primary – if not the exclusive – source of the human's consolation* in face of finitude. According to this approach the self-esteem is seen as defensive, serving as a buffer against death anxiety.

The theory sustains that when at unconscious level increases the concern about death, people try to find a sense, a meaning by embracing one's cultural worldview.

In order to achieve this purpose, all the cultures prescribe social roles and adequate conducts from the perspective of accomplishing them, and their satisfaction allows the person to apprehend as a valuable person and this to acquire *self-esteem*. The self-esteem – in the view of this theory consists in the confidence that somebody is a valuable member of a universe full of meaning – "is thus the psychological mechanism by which culture performs its anxiety-reducing function" (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 460).

"The primary function of self-esteem is an anxiety-buffer, especially with respect to concerns about death (of which one need not be aware)" assert Solomon et al. (2003, p. 460). The need of self-esteem is universal; the way of acquisition it is relative depending on historical and cultural point of views.

"Human beings are thus cultural animals; and, the essence of culture is death-denial" (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 461). The TMT starts from the premise that cultural worldview "developed as an evolutionary adaptation to the uniquely human awareness of death, an awareness that was most likely, an unfortunate by-product of an otherwise very powerful and adaptive form of mental organization: self-awareness/consciousness" (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 460-461).

Yet there is a large cultural diversity. The beliefs shared about reality in a culture contain a series of fictional elements "that can only be sustained by social consensus" (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 461), by consensual validation (Pyszczynski, 2004). The two components of the anxiety-buffer (the worldview defense and the self-esteem) are arbitrary social constructions and are consequently fragile. They "require continual consensual validation to function effectively" (Pyszczynski et al., 1999, p. 836). "All cultures are fragile social constructions sustained by social consensus; consequently, the more people who adhere to a particular conception of reality, the easier it is for people to be confident that their vision of reality is true" (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 462-463).

By accepting cultural values without critical examination, people can feel themselves valuable and this fact can maintain the anxiety they confront with at a lower level. The proponents of the theory believe that this process operates at all the development levels, in all the cultures and historical ages (Ryan and Deci, 2004).

The distal defensive mechanisms „on surface, bear no rational or logical relationship to the problem of death but defend against death by enabling the individual to construe himself as a valuable participant in a meaningful universe” respectively a durable universe, show Pyszczynski et al. (1999, p. 835).

It starts to operate when the person is in deep activation – according to Wegner’s and Banaji’s terminology (Pyszczynski et al., 1999) – in the sense that thoughts referring to death are in an increased state of accessibility, but did not enter yet in the awareness, are not in the focus of attention, or in the working memory.

Greenberg et al. (Johnson et al., 2005) showed in 2000 that the worldview defense occurs after a certain delay to exposure to the mortality-salience.

„Attacking the problem of death at a level in the hierarchy that is distal and remote from the actual physical reality of death may well be the only way to deal with something that the individual knows is absolutely certain to happen”(p. 839).

No matter how effective the proximal defense strategies are, lately, it cannot be denied at the rational level, the inevitable nature of death.

Wegner’s, Smart’s researches (Pyszczynski et al., 1999) from 1977 confirm, if it would have been necessary, Freud’s idea that repressed thoughts have a high degree of accessibility and can continue to confront the person with serious difficulties. Consequently the quoted authors claim that there are necessary other defense mechanisms to reduce the accessibility of these thoughts, which is served by the distal defense mechanisms.

Pyszczynski et al. (1999) consider that the distal defensive mechanisms are rather experiential, than rational. ”The anxiety-buffering function of these defenses emerges from relatively primitive associations formed early in life between valued behavior and safety and protection provided by parents, deistic constructs, and other powerful cultural figures” (840).

We can conclude that the proximal defense mechanisms are activated only if death related cognitions enter the consciousness. The activation of the distal mechanisms increases with the accessibility of the cognitions about death towards conscious, until the moment where these really ”penetrate” the consciousness. In that moment are activated the proximal defenses, and when the thoughts are gone away from the field of the consciousness, start to operate, again, the distal mechanisms to reduce their accessibility, controlling the potential terror.

The distal defense mechanisms occur “when thoughts of death are on the fringes of consciousness” after being reminded of the problem of death and after a delay and a distraction of attention; or when death related words, symbols are presented subliminally (Pyszczynski, 2004).

The proximal ones appear immediately after the mortality-salience occurs, and remain in function as long as this is in the focalized attention. Death related cognitions provoke the activation of distal defense mechanisms in the conditions that these thoughts are at the border of conscience. The awareness of these thoughts leads to the alleviation even the inactivation of function of distal defensive mechanisms.

The subliminal death stimuli, but not the supraliminal ones, lead to the increase of the accessibility of death related cognitions, and consequently produce the immediate intensification of the activation of the distal defense mechanisms. The supraliminal stimuli lead immediately to the activation of the proximal defense mechanisms.

The accessibility of death related cognitions, rather than their delay and distraction, is the one which have the decisive role in initiating the worldview defense (Pyszczynski et al., 1999).

In the opinion of the authors of the TMT, the distal defense mechanisms (perspective brought by the worldview defense and the self-esteem) occur as a response to the unconscious death anxiety, because of the fact that the proximal mechanisms focalizing consciously on the fear of death have a limited utility in the process of coping with the deepest of all fears, which is the fear of annihilation. Pyszczynski et al. (1999) claim that "the ultimate fear of annihilation [is] that underlies the needs for self-esteem and faith in cultural worldview" (p. 838).

Table 1.

Proximal and distal modes of defense

(adaptation after Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, 1999, p. 837).

Proximal defense	Distal defense
Deals with conscious cognitions concerning death at the (conscious) level where the threat is construed	Deals with implicit cognitions of the inevitability of death at a level distal (unconscious) from the level where the threat was construed
Removes death related thoughts from consciousness and/or place the death into distant future	Embeds the individual as a valuable member of an eternal death transcending reality
Has a rational, pseudo-rational nature	Has experiential nature
Occurs immediately after mortality-salience	Occurs after the distraction of attention from mortality-salience
Occurs in response to supraliminal death stimuli, yet not in response to subliminal death stimuli	Occurs immediately in response to subliminal death stimuli

Activated defensive processes by conscious and unconscious thoughts related to death

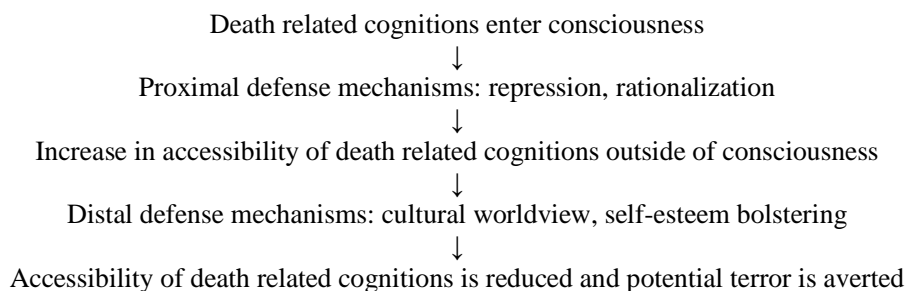


Fig. 1. Defense processes activated by conscious and unconscious death-related cognitions (adapted from Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, 1999, p. 840).

Along with the penetration of the deeper dimensions of the unconsciousness by threatening material (along with the exclusion of it from the field of the focal attention), we need take into account the person's predisposition to defend oneself against the threat by distal defense mechanisms and vice versa.

The terror management represents a process continuously put into practice by people in order to avoid paralyzing anxiety which could result from permanently maintaining in consciousness the idea of the inevitable nature of death (Pyszczynski et al., 1999).

Dastur (2006) shows that the awareness of one's mortality is a presence in our everyday life. The author stresses that this knowledge is "<disconnected> from the one who knows" in a way in which death of course remains an event which certainly will happen, but "still <not yet>". "Thus, what is covered in the everyday life is the imminence of death, the fact that it is possible in every moment and that the indetermination of the moment of death cannot be separated by its certitude" (p. 80-81).

The TMT relies on *two fundamental hypotheses* (Pyszczynski et al., 1999):

1. The anxiety-buffer hypothesis

This sustains that while the self-esteem ensures protection against anxiety, the strengthening of the self-esteem should lead to a reduced predisposal for anxiety and anxious behavior, and the weakening of the self-esteem, contrarily, should lead to a higher predisposal to anxiety and anxious behavior (Pyszczynski et al., 1999).

Many studies – Greenberg et al. in 1992, 1993; Harmon-Jones et al. in 1977, Arnd and Greenberg in 1999 (quoted by Ben-Ari et al., 2000); Simon et al.

(Kashima et al., 2004); Johnson et al. (2005) – showed that high levels of state self-esteem or its increasing through experiments "led to lower levels of self-reported anxiety in response to aversive death stimuli" (Ben-Ari et al., 2000, p. 2). People who have low self-esteem (who consider that do not meet the worldview standards) "are more vulnerable to existential threats" (Kashima et al., 2004, p. 385). The studies show that these appeal in a more intensive manner to defensive mechanisms in case of mortality-salience. Thus, Harmon-Jonnes et al. in 1997, Cozarelli and Karafa in 1998 (quoted by Johnson et al., 2005) claim that the low self-esteem predicts the reactivity to mortality-salience manipulation.

2. *The mortality-salience hypothesis*

It represents a complementary hypothesis claiming that while a certain psychological structure ensures protection against anxiety, humans' confrontation with the source of anxiety should lead to the increase of the need to accede to that structure (self-esteem, worldview defense) and consequently *to lead to positive reactions against things which are sustaining these, respectively to negative reactions against those that criticize them or put them in danger.*

Activation of the worldview defense should lead to positive evaluation of those people and ideas which supports that vision, respectively to negative evaluation of those people and ideas which are threatening the cultural worldview (Pyszczynski et al., 1999). In other words, being aware of the fact that people are mortals increases the one' need of self-esteem and of defense of their own perspectives on world, which can lead to intra- or intergroup biases, thus to a positive evaluation of the people who support their own vision about the world and to the devaluation, rejection, criticism of people who deviate from these norms and values. The empirical studies brought solid proofs referring to this hypothesis (see Rosenblatt's at. all's studies; Greenberg at. all; Florian and Mikulincer quoted by Ben-Ari et al., 2000).

Arndt and Greenberg in 1999, Ben-Ari in 2000 (Johnson et al. 2005) - show that, the increase of the self-esteem, after its experimental manipulation, lead to the reduction of reactivity in the circumstances of exposure to mortality-salience.

Heine et al. (Kashima et al., 2004) observed in Japan that mortality-salience exacerbated rejection against an essay criticizing the Japanese traditional culture.

Ben-Ari et al. (2000) show that people, who present a higher self-esteem or a strong confidence in the vision about the world proposed by the culture they belong to, shall manifest lower levels of feelings and anxious cognitions.

The fundamental idea of the TMT consists in the fact that people are motivated to maintain a positive self image and trust in their own cultural worldview "at least in part, to provide protection from deeply rooted fears of death and vulnerability" Pyszczynski et al., 1999, p. 836), [*italics a.n.*].

Kashima et al. (2004) stress a worth-mentioning fact, that there are studies – for instance those made by Rosenblatt et al. in 1989; Greenberg et al. in 1990 – that showed that the individual differences at the level of: authoritarianism, attachment style, personal attitudes can have a moderating effect on the defense mechanism proposed by the worldview defense.

The following four hypothesis of TMT are supported by a considerable amount of empirical evidences (more than 250 extremely well designed, highly controlled laboratory experiments and natural experiments put into practice in 13 countries, in American and European western cultures, in Australian aboriginal, Japanese, and Iraqi cultures):

1. “Increasing self-esteem or faith in one cultural worldview makes people less prone to anxiety, anxiety-related behavior, less likely to have death related thoughts come close to the consciousness” (Pyszczynski, 2004, p. 833).

2. “Reminding people of the inevitability of death leads to a board range of attempts to maintain faith in their worldview and self-esteem, and defend them against threats” (idem).

3. ”Increasing the strengths of one aspect of anxiety-buffer reduces the effect of reminders of death on clinging on to other aspect of the anxiety-buffer” (p. 834). Self-esteem and cultural worldviews combine in order to provide protection against death related fears (anxiety-buffer).

Midrange defense strategies

Pyszczynski et al. (1999) speak about midrange defensive strategies – for instance, the increase of the global self-esteem after a public failure – which does not target directly what threatens self-esteem (a specific failure, an inconsistency). These mechanisms are more distal than those focusing on what specifically threatens the self-esteem (“self-serving” and ”self-handicapping attributions”) but are more proximal than the distal mechanisms of the terror management.

The proximal and distal defense mechanisms can be conceived along a continuum, such as the conscious and unconscious awareness of the menacing material.

The relation between the terror management theory and some behaviors which do not present any apparent link with the death anxiety

Pyszczynski et al. (1999), the initiators of the TMT, showed that the man’s concern about his mortal condition affect a large palette of social behaviors, which are not directly related to death, such as: interpersonal evaluation, intra-group biases (judging people who doesn’t obey the moral norms, the attitude towards people with disabilities, minorities, etc.) stereotypes, aggression, conformism to the personal and social norms etc.

A substantial proportion of the human activities are directed to the preservation of trust of one’s worldview and of the conviction that if someone meets or even exceeds the value standards of the world is a valuable person.

Consequently, any manifestation which endangers the validity or the integrity of someone's worldview or his personal value, in the context of his own vision about the world, "undermines the strength of the death-denying psychological apparatus" (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 462).

The most pronounced and penetrating threat for any worldview is represented by the existence of other people who subscribe for different visions about the world – since the acceptance of the validity of an alternative construction, means at least implicitly, the undermining of trust that someone concedes to the vision about the world of his own culture – which exposes the individual to a potential anxiety, that the own vision about the world was intended to manage, and instigates to compensating reactions meant to restore the psychological balance. In the first line of the defensive mechanisms against other worldview is derogation of people who adhere to a different vision (Solomon et al., 2003).

In Solomon et al.'s opinions (2003) the last (but not the only) cause of the most long lasting military conflicts (perhaps of all of them), racism, nationalism, fanaticism, is a psychological one - the "humankind's fundamental inability to tolerate those with *different* death-denying visions of reality" (p. 463), [italics a.n.].

The worldview of different cultures has a *symbolic* nature – although have very concrete forms of manifestation: flags, monuments, etc. – while death has the most *concrete* (physical) nature.

This is the reason why not even single culturally built symbol is capable to eliminate completely the man's terror in face of death. Consequently, "a panic constantly lingers on the threshold of consciousness, one that can at any time burst into awareness and instigate a state of unmitigated terror" (Solomon et al., 2003, p. 463). Pyszczynski (2004) asserts that "if it were left unchecked" this potential of terror would greatly interfere with goal directed behavior (p. 830). Long researches in the domain of TMT emphasize that "fear can interfere with learning, complex thinking, and change" (Pyszczynski, 2004, p. 844).

Mortality-salience, the activation of the preoccupations towards death leads to the humans' effort to evaluate in a more positive way the people belonging to their own culture and the productions of their own culture, and to the devaluation even, hostility towards people who belong to different cultures or subcultures.

Hirschberger et al. (2005) show that this effect was obtained only in the conditions characterized by the increasing of preoccupations towards death (increases of the concern about death because of the exposure to this kind of stimuli) not in the conditions of exposure to other anxiety arousing stimuli, such as: teeth ache, sustaining a speech in front of an audience, etc.

This fear is repressed and later displaced to a person or a group of people, who become scapegoats, consider the authors. Solomon et al., (2003) sustain that people in the situations that there are not different ethnic people, or adhering to different religions, ideologies, menacing their illusions about the denial of death, even then they would designate guilty persons (scapegoats) upon the basis of subtle differences existing between them and the others, *in order to evacuate the residual*

fear of death that the vision about the world they adhere cannot eliminate completely. Emphasizing Seneca's idea, Solomon et al. (2003) show that this is the sad price paid to the fact that people present "*all the fears of mortals and all the desires of immortals*" (p. 464).

Solomon et al., (2003) analyzing the relationship between the two subtypes of distal defense mechanisms reach the conclusion that increased self-esteem (situational or dispositional) attenuated the appeal to worldview defense after the exposure of the person to mortality-salience. People with high self-esteem will be less predisposed to denigrate the people different from them, respectively to value those who are similar to them as a defensive answer to mortality-salience.

A particular phenomenon in this respect is the attitude of valid / healthy people toward people with disabilities.

The scientific literature shows that emotional answers related to the people with disabilities are both positive and negative. Valid people often face not only with aversion and disgust feelings, but also with the desire to behave with people with disabilities "as their equals", to treat them equitably, showed Katz in 1981; Jones, et al. 1984 (Hirschberger et al., 2005).

Lazarus (1991) affirmed that compassion, mercy feelings, are problematic feelings, because comprise both positive and negative feelings. Carver et al. in 1978; Katz, 1981; Wright, 1983 (idem) show that a person with a physical disability can simultaneously raise positive and negative emotional reactions in a valid person. Livnev (Hirschberger et al., 2005) in 1988 showed that people with disabilities represent "objectives of ambivalence, launching favorable and unfavorable, momentarily or fluctuant reactions of compassion and sympathy, yet simultaneously of aversion and disgust" (Hirschberger et al., 2005, p. 246).

The perceptual theories of stigma (Ford and Stangor in 1992, Zebrovitz, 1996, quoted by Hirschberger et al. 2005) explain how the perception of the certain groups is distorted and how the amplification of this distortion is produced.

Brewer in 1979; Fein and Spencer in 1997 (Hirschberger et al., 2005) show that from the perspective of the functional theories of the stigma, may occur an increase of the self-esteem, a reinforcement of the self identity in circumstances in which people compare themselves with devaluated social categories.

Stangor and Crandall (idem) in 2000 warns about the fact that these theories explain the manner that stigma is maintained yet do not explain the reasons of the initial beginning of stigma.

The scientific literature in the area of rehabilitation offered a series of possible explanations in terms of the reason of producing negative reactions against people with disabilities.

Wright (Hirschberger et al., 2005) in 1983 talked about the occurrence of a halo effect – often incorrectly, a series of personality traits are inferred as being specific to people with different disabilities. This could be a major reason that leads to negative attitude against persons with special needs.

Rozin, Haid and McCauley, 1999; Markwith and McCauley in 1994 (Hirschberger et al., 2005) suggested that the fear of contagiousness of valid people relies upon the basis of the negative attitudes.

Siller, Chipman, Ferguson and Vann in 1976 (*idem*) suggested that feelings of guilt in circumstances when one's possess a valid body, could lead to the occurrence of negative attitudes against persons with disabilities, because of defense mechanisms targeting the lowering of self-blaming.

Novak and Lerner, 1986; Roessler and Bolton, 1978; Siller et al. (quoted by Hirschberger et al., 2005) stressed that the physical disability represent a threat for those who have a valid body because of the fact that it reminds them about the vulnerability of their own body, of the possibility to have similar problems.

Jones et al. 1984; Livneh, 1985; Stangor and Crandall in 2000 (Hirschberger et al., 2005) consider that the exposure of a person to the perception of another's disability not only contribute to the apparition of the fear of a similar injury, but also to the intensification of the awareness of his own mortal condition. From this perspective, fear does not refer to a specific fear of getting the same disability, but to a more generalized fear of death, which is more prominent in the moment of exposure to others' physical disability.

In 1985 Livneh (Hirschberger et al., 2005) found statistically significant positive correlations between the fear of death and the negative attitudes against people with disabilities. But the study being a correlational one, could not be offered conclusions at the level of the relations cause-effect.

The meeting with a person with physical disabilities represents an experience inducing stress for many valid, healthy people, showed Livneh in 1998, Wright in 1983 (quoted by Hirschberger, Florian, Mikulincer, 2005). The feelings of compassion and care towards people with physical disabilities are often initiated by rejection feelings, aversion, showed in 1979 Snyder, Kleck, Strenta and Mentzer (*idem*). Recent research prove that people have the tendency to avoid persons with deficiencies because the disability reminds the vulnerable nature of the human body, in general, including the direct observer's body, which leads to a decrease of the compassion as "death-related thoughts are activated" (Hirschberger et al., 2005, p. 246).

A study made by Livneh (Hirschberger and et al., 2005) show that when meeting people with disabilities, valid, healthy people, experience discomfort feelings (the interaction tension) and aversion against the close contact (refuse of intimacy), respectively the feelings of personal vulnerability (distress produced by identification).

The theoretical-empirical framework of the TMT launched by Greenberg et al. in 1997 (Hirschberger et al., 2005) offers an explanation for the complex reaction the valid people can have related to the people with disabilities.

Occidental culture valorizes health, power, youth, beauty show Hirschberger et al. (2005).

Physical disability is perceived as a failure while conforming to these ideal standards comprised in the vision about the world, and consequently represents a

threat for it. Moreover, because of phenomena such as guilty, the contact with people with disabilities can have negative implications on the self-esteem. All these can contribute to avoiding people with disabilities by the valid people. The exposure to this stimulus can create an aversion, because of the threat of the efficient functioning of the two defense mechanisms. Valid people can less mobilize sympathy, compassion for people with disabilities in the circumstances that the contact with them produces an increase of their concern about death.

The TMT offer explanations for other phenomena – such as: *behaviors contravening the biological principle of self preservation* (for instance the irresponsible driving); *inefficiency of the fear arousing messages* targeting to the change of the undesired human attitudes and conducts (with preventive purpose) *in the case of certain people* (see Ben-Ari et al., 2000); *the relation between materialism and the fear of death* (see Johnson et al., 2005); *between death fear and the political, religious leaders manipulative actions* (Pyszczynski, 2004) – but these are not the subjects of this study.

Kashima et al. (2004) are among the authors who were interested in examining the possible intercultural validity of the TMT.

The mortality-salience hypothesis predicts that people try to defend their own worldview when they feel threatened by the exposure to the idea of their own mortality, a particularly valid phenomenon being illustrated by the case in which the person has a low self-esteem.

Proofs of the validity of the theory were brought in North America, Western Europe (by Castano et al. quoted by Kashima et al., 2004) in 2002; in Israel (Greenberg et al. in 1997, idem), in Japan (Heine et al. in 2002, quoted by Kashima et al., 2004) in Australia to the aborigines (Halloran in 2001);

Two patterns of values and visions referring to self differentiate the Occidental culture (i.e. Anglo-Saxon culture) from the Oriental culture (i.e. Japan): *individualism* (autonomy, targeting individual purposes) specific to Occident, respectively *collectivism*, specific to Orient. Hofstede (Kashima et al., 2004) show that there occurred an increase of individualism in the late decades in Japan too, which was followed by an economic increase, but Kashima et al. sustain that individualism is still considered a controversial phenomenon both in Japan and in other countries of East and South Asia.

In Japan the collective self (the quality of member of a group or collectivity) is an important construct, so Kashima et al. (2004) conceived studies testing the TMT taking into account both the individual self-esteem and the collective self-esteem. The authors started from the hypothesis that imagining personal death (individual) in the case of the occidentals, respectively collective death (the own death, but also the extinction of the whole or the majority of the belonging collectivity) in the case of Japanese (oriental cultures), should represent an important stimulus in testing the effect of the mortality-salience manipulation.

Kashima et al. (2004) showed that the anxiety buffer hypothesis of the worldview defense was verified both in the case of Australia and Japan, in both countries the effect being stronger for people with lower self-esteem. There was a difference between the two countries. In the case of Australia imagining personal death, in Japan the personal death together with the extinction of a whole collectivity produced the strongest impact.

In mortality-salience circumstances the individualist vision increased in Australia, but decreased in Japan (Kashima et al., 2004).

Kashima et al. (2004) warns about the fact that mortality-salience can motivate somebody to reject rather than to ignore a controversial visions about the world.

The relational mortality-salience (the image of the occurrence of beloved person's death) according to several studies from North America produced lower effects than imagining the own death (Greenberg et al. in 1994). Yet, this aspect should not be generalized, since in the case of the women the relational mortality-salience has a greater impact than in the case of men, which was proved to be true both in the case of Anglo-Americans, Australians and Eastern Asians, show Kashima et al. (2004) in 1995. It is possible that personal death, the beloved one's death, the collective death have a different impact from a culture to another, depending on the larger importance of the individual or collective self in the given culture, which is worth checking in the future studies.

Self-Determination Theory's Critique to the Terror Management and the Sociometer Theories

In Ryan and Deci's opinion (2004) searching the sense by people cannot be totally reduced to defensive processes – an idea emphasized by the TMT – because these represent „intrinsic developmental processes”.

The self-esteem can not be reduced to a defensive mechanism, not only to a measuring unit warning against social exclusion, as the Sociometer Theory (SMT) underline, a theory elaborated by Leary and Baumeister in 2000.

The Ryan's and Deci's Self-Determination Theory differentiates a form of *stable self-esteem* and a *contingent self-esteem* which is fragile, and also differentiates between *basic psychological needs* and *motives* (“the motives can be better or worse servants of needs”), moreover between *needs* and *their representation in conscious awareness* and self reports (between needing and wanting something – there are cultural differences in valuing different needs), (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 329).

Deci and Ryan (Ryan and Deci 2004) in 1995 stressed that the self-esteem resulted from the defensive mechanisms against anxiety (of death or of exclusion, solitude) is related to the contingent self-esteem, while the true self-esteem is based on the continuous satisfaction of the fundamental human needs (*competence* – see Baumeister and Leary in 1995; *autonomy* – White in 1963; and *relatedness* – deCharms in 1968, quoted by Ryan and Deci, 2004). The authors define autonomy through volition, integrated self regulation, self-determination, coherence within the self and the experience of freedom, and not through individualism, detachment and selfishness.

Ryan and Deci (2000) argue that all the humans have the three fundamental psychological needs “regardless how much consciously” value them, regardless they live in individualistic or collectivistic cultural settings (p. 329). Each need is independently necessary for well-being. La Guardia’s (idem) results shows that satisfaction of each three needs separately predicted security of attachment in certain relationships. There are also complex dynamic interactions between the three fundamental psychological needs.

These three needs and the obstacles that can occur in their satisfaction are in the center of the preoccupation of the Self Determination Theory. A need is “something that, when fulfilled, promotes integration and well-being and, when thwarted, fosters fragmentation and ill-being” (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 324).

Ryan and Deci (2004) realized a distinction between “basic psychological needs” that are “nonderivative, and growth promoting” (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 322) and “deficit motives”. A deficit motive “is an example of compensatory formation of the psyche in response to basic need deficits, so it is not a need in its own right but rather is a reaction to impoverished satisfaction of true needs” (idem, p. 325). When basic needs are not satisfied people often compensate “by developing need substitutes that can have immediate and long-term negative consequences” (p. 329). In their vision, the threat of satisfying the fundamental needs often causes deficit motives launching (including the compensatory defense mechanisms maintaining the sense of self).

Ryan and Deci (2000, 2001) distinguish between hedonic and eudaimonic views on well-being. The former view conceptualize well-being as happiness, positive mood, the last view – the Self-Determination Theory’s view – characterizes well-being in term of Rogers’s “fully functioning person”. Eudaimonia consist in a “fuller, more enduring and deeper sense of well-being” (2001, p. 323).

The accomplishment of the three fundamental needs, intrinsic to human nature, is essential from the point of view of the psychological growth (intrinsic motivation); integrity (integration and assimilation of cultural practices); well-being (life satisfaction, psychological health); experiencing vitality and congruency. According to this theory, the fundamental human needs are “nutriments essential for growth, integrity and well-being” (Ryan and Deci, 2004, p. 474). Well-being could be assessed in the author’s opinion through the “presence of vitality, and self-actualization and the absence of anxiety, depression and somatic symptoms” (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 323). Autonomy, competence and relatedness are critical antecedents of well-being, not its indicator (idem).

The intrinsic motivation is defined by Ryan and Deci (2004) as “the natural, innate tendency to explore, assimilate, and experience mastery within one’s surroundings” [italics n.a] (p. 474).

Sheldon and Elliot (Ryan and Deci, 2001) claim that reaching the purposes aimed has usually a benefic influence on the well-being, but the more significant positive effect occurs on the grounds that the purposes are concordant with the person’s needs. Only intrinsically motivated purposes are important from the point of view of the subjective well-being.

The three basic needs are not inherently contradictory, they could conflict, but they can be complementary (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

Social conditions and personal purposes supporting the satisfaction of these needs "catalyze human growth, vitality, and integrated functioning" while alienation, indolence, psychopathology occur in those circumstances in the social world which block the satisfaction of basic needs or produce conflicts between them in important dimension of life (Ryan and Deci, 2004, p. 474).

The need of relatedness explains the assimilation of those values, social and cultural norms toward which man has not an intrinsic motivation. Assor, Roth and Deci (Ryan and Deci, 2004) showed in 2004 that the need of relatedness is such a fundamental, psychological need that "people often forego or suppress needs for autonomy and competence to preserve relationships, with predictable negative effects on their integrated functioning and well-being" (p. 475).

Internalization refers to the process that „humans adopt ambient cultural practices and values" (Ryan and Deci, 2004, p. 475). The authors claim that "people can internalize just about anything under the right kind of pressures" but disagree with stressing that not all internalization is defensive and conformist (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 322).

Integration is that type of internalization that occurs in the presence of satisfying in a greater measure of the fundamental needs.

Opposite to that, *introjection* is the type of internalization where people take norms, values from significant people, repressing (sacrificing) their own needs (from the area of competence, autonomy) in order to ensure the satisfaction of their affiliation needs. Introjection consists in the non-autonomous behavioral self regulation determined by the contingencies of the self-esteem (the typical reward for introjection is the pride and the growth of the self-esteem).

Kernis (Ryan and Deci, 2004) in 2003 speaks about the defensive self-esteem (related to the contingent one) as opposed to the intrinsic self-esteem, „true", „stable". The last one "reflects a more authentic state of healthy self-functioning" (Ryan and Deci, 2004, p. 476). The contingent self-esteem presents deep links with the permanent involvement of people in positive evaluation and devaluation actions (negative evaluation) of their self. In the authors' opinion, this evaluative approach of the self is based on the depriving needs' accomplishment.

Assor et al. (Ryan and Deci, 2004) show the way the people' conditioned acceptance by significant persons how determine the dependency of the first ones' self-esteem (contingent) by the behaviors manifested by these significant people.

At its turn, contingent acceptance coming from others, shall lead to the tendency to doubt to the own intrinsic value, which lies upon the basis of the contingent acceptance of the self. In these conditions, the authors warn that introjective projects are predominant, increase.

In the individualist performance-contingent cultures, competitive evaluative cognitions of the self are really stressed, if not epidemical (Ryan and Deci, 2004).

The authors consider that "the motivation to gain self-esteem, and the cultural preoccupation with it, is a reflection of social sickness" (476). For this reason we should not be surprised that so much was written in the professional literature on this matter.

The Self Determination and Sociometer theories lie on different positions in terms of self-esteem. Ryan and Deci (2004) agree with Baumeister and Leary that self-esteem is related to the basic need to have relations with the others. But they disagree that relatedness is the only fundamental need reflected by the self-esteem. People need to be competent and capable of self-determination. The absence of any of these conditions shall lead to an impasse at the self-esteem. The acceptance without autonomy means alienation. The establishing of relationships in the absence of competence means lack of motivation and helplessness.

Only understanding the dynamics of the three fundamental needs can lead to distinguishing the stable, valid self esteem from the fragile, unreliable self-esteem.

Reis et al. (Ryan and Deci, 2004) show that when the needs of relatedness, competence and autonomy are satisfied, people report increased self-esteem, and the fluctuations in satisfying these needs explain the fluctuations occurred at global self-esteem.

The Self-Determination Theory launches the hypothesis that people that have intrinsic self-esteem, „a true one" (based on satisfying their own needs) are not concerned about their own self-esteem.

Both the TMT and the Sociometer Theory surprise a few well determined phenomena, but use generalizations and offer an incomplete chart of the self-esteem, warn Ryan and Deci (2004). Both theories have a limited sight on psychological needs laying at the basis of the self-esteem dynamics and both theories stress the defensive (introjected) forms of self-esteem.

Ryan and Deci (2004) underline through the Self Determination Theory a complementary perspective on this two visions, which deal not only with the defensive forms of the self-esteem, but also with the self-esteem which has intrinsic propensities targeting the development, leading people to aim competency, autonomy, relatedness and meaning.

The two authors share the opinion of the initiators of the TMT, referring to the fact that the death awareness is "a formidable challenge in human existence" and find interesting the idea and the experimental proofs of those who elaborated the theory that states that mortality-salience can determine the occurrence of defensive behaviors like introjection of convictions and of the alteration of the self and of other's evaluation (p. 473). There is "theoretical coherence and existential depth" in the idea that "people, when reminded of their impermanence, may cling to meanings and beliefs that promise symbolic immortality" say Ryan and Deci (idem).

They criticize yet the TMT because they consider that culture, the involvement in meaningful acts, cannot be reduced to defensive mechanisms against the awareness of death. People typically "seek challenges, connections,

authentic meaning, and significance – not because they are trying to avoid the scent of death, but because they are healthy and alive” (p. 473). Among the empirical studies it is solidly documented the fact that people present inherent propensity for development, for assimilating sense, for affiliating with the others by cultural constructions and introjections. Ryan and Deci (2004) accept the idea that “intrinsic and integrative processes flourish best” when anxiety is present, but anxiety *do not represent the solely source of these processes* [italics a.n.]. Even if there can occur defensive mechanisms targeting the self-esteem, “there are more primary non-defensive sources of interest, confidence, and integrity that can catalyze a healthy sense of self, and there are more authentic responses to death awareness” (p. 473).

The TMT, is a dynamic and well documented approach, but is insufficient to explain the more general processes of growth, of creating meaning, and affiliation “that are the essence of human nature, and whose workings support a more stable or authentic sense of self” (Ryan and Deci, 2004, p. 473). Opposite to the allegations of the TMT, mortality-salience is a circumstantial phenomenon that cannot explain the positive development, creativity, culture.

The fact that people, when facing defensively the idea of mortality try to preserve a sense of the self is true. Moreover, when the satisfaction of the fundamental needs is endangered, such as, for instance, the conditions of the death threat, then people are less disposed to present healthy motivations, full of interest and growth oriented. “When the self is threatened, people may be especially prone to introject cultural meanings. This does not make fear and insecurity prepotent in the promotion of growth or learning, but it does show how powerful a social force the thwarting of basic needs can be” (p. 475).

The personality approach from the perspective of dual motivations theory adopted by the proponents of the TMT in 2003, involves its authors’ recognition of the existence both of motivations targeting the development and of the defensive ones. Solomon, Greenberg and Pyszczynski in the dual motivation theory consider the defensive mechanisms as prepotent causes not only for the self-esteem, but also for the efforts realized for development, love, and cultural activity. Despite the fact that the dual motivation theory proposed by Pyszczynski et al. *admits the fact that development tendencies can independently explain creativity, growth and affiliation*, yet do not stress this fact enough, show Ryan and Deci (2004), professionals who want to emphasize the fact that *the motivational branch of growth is independent and not derived from the defensive branch* [italics a.n.].

In contrast with the TMT, the Sociometer Theory proposed by Leary and Baumeister, finds the self-esteem as a measure of individual belonging to his fellows. Like in the case of Pyszczynski et al.’s theory, the self-esteem is a derivative reason, the fundamental purpose according to the Sociometer Theory being the avoidance of the social exclusion. The behaviors minimizing exclusion and maximizing inclusion increase the self-esteem, so the self-esteem is the signal ruling the behavior related to the need of affiliation.

Ryan and Deci (2004) show that the TMT reduces the search for affiliation to a form of terror management, while the Sociometer Theory reduces anxiety in face of death to the fear of losing the connection with the others.

From the two authors perspective, the Sociometer Theory is an incomplete self-esteem theory because it presents a single need approach (the need to avoid exclusion, or formulated in the positive manner, the need to the relatedness).

“Curiosity, interest, assimilation, affiliation, integration are fundamental manifests of life. They are not simply flights from death awareness (or rejection anxieties)” (p. 475). These intrinsic propensities appear along the life much earlier than death anxiety, and along the evolution of life occurred much before the apparition of language, self awareness and organization of complex cultures.

”Death of course provokes insecurity, for it represents the loss of all need satisfaction”: affiliation, competence, autonomy and of all the sources of meaning. The mortality-salience can lead to defensive activities: distortions, introjections, but cannot represent the daily vital force, because people are more concerned, on one hand, with the contingencies of their vital needs than avoiding death, on the other hand, even if it were true the fact that at the basis of the non-satisfying of any fundamental human need hides the fear of death, this fact ”would not dispel the ample empirical evidence that positive engagement in the world (e.g. intrinsic motivation, integrated internalization, and authentic caring) is much more likely to occur in need-supportive conditions than anxiety provoking ones. If the activity of life were derivative from fear and defense mechanism, then it would be threatening, rather than nurturing, conditions in which people functioned most vitally” (Ryan and Deci, 2004, p. 475).

In life humans rather aim the accomplishment of their needs and the meeting of the challenges than reducing anxiety and searching for shelter. ”Low anxiety, highly supportive conditions are that allow learning, love, and significance to flourish” (Ryan and Deci, 2004, p. 475).

The differences between the TMT and the Self Determination Theory referring to the stressing of the central importance of growth vs. defensiveness is also reflected in the way these conceptualize the ”accommodation”, the human’s adaptation to the mortality-salience.

The TMT, assert that people react defensively at the idea of death, the Self-Determination Theory, in exchange, conceives in a more detailed manner this reaction. It admits the fact that death represent one of the saddest experiences occurring in life, but also shows that ”people can engage that challenge either in a relatively authentic and integrated way or, as is perhaps more common, in a relatively controlled and defensive way” (Ryan and Deci, 2004, p. 475). In other words, mortality-salience can raise authentic reactions or defensive reactions. ”Awareness of death can remind one of what is most authentic and valuable, or can drive one to hide from one’s impermanence under a cloak of introjected beliefs, values, and preoccupations” (p. 475). Depending on one’s satisfaction regarding of

autonomy, competence and relatedness a person can have a more or less reliable experience of significance, meaning. According to Self-Determination Theory, a person who reach satisfaction in all three fundamental needs shall less react defensively even if the own self is threatened. This idea is supported also by the authors of the TMT, which show that in those circumstances where the intrinsic self of the person is supported, the defensive reactivity is less probable to occur. Pyszczynski (2004) warns that humans must control anxiety in order to grow but they can do that preferring simple answers to complex questions, clinging on a sort of defense that “is antithetical to the kind of thinking necessary for growth, change, and improvement” or can do in an open minded way which facilitates freedom (p. 845). Ryan and Deci (2000) propose an additional means to diminish (not only defend against) existential anxiety – namely “the active and self-transforming process of organismic integration” (p. 320).

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LE DÉVELOPPEMENT DES ÉMOTIONS

ELENA BOULEANU*, MARIAN PADURE**

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die Entwicklung der Emotionen. Die vorliegende Arbeit behandelt die Problematik der Entwicklung von menschlichen Emotionen und sie bezieht sich auf die wichtigsten Forschungsmethoden in diesem Bereich: die evolutionistische (*Die differenzierte Theorie der Emotionen* von Izard und Malatesta) und die konstruktivistische (*Die Erregungszustände* – Bridges, *Die Theorie der dynamischen Systeme* - Camros, Fogel, Lewis und *Die psychoanalytische Perspektive* – Sroufe). Die Mehrheit der Wissenschaftler ist sich dessen einig, dass die Differenziertheit der Emotionen sowohl mit der Entwicklung der kognitiven Kompetenzen beim Kleinkind verbunden ist, als auch von der vorhergehenden Erfahrung abhängt. Das Interesse für die Regelung der Emotionen brachte die Entwicklung eines Forschungsfeldes mit sich, das die Regulationsstörungen und die Rolle der Emotionen in der psychopathologischen Ätiologie untersucht. Denham, Zeller und Couchoud (1994) bieten in ihren Modellen zum Verstehen der Emotionen einen Vorgänger der interpersönlichen Prediktoren in Bezug zu den intrapersönlichen. *Die kognitive Vulnerabilität* bezieht sich auf das kognitive Vorleben, auf den Glauben und auf die Pattern, die der Entwicklung und der Erhaltung der psychologischen Probleme Platz machen. Becks kognitive Theorie (1990) beschäftigt sich mit dem Einfluss der Umwelt auf das menschliche Verhalten. Youngs Auffassung (1990) basiert sich auf den Begriff des nicht anpassbaren kognitiven Schemas, das für die Kindheit typisch ist.

RESUME. L'article est axé sur le problème du développement des émotions humaines, faisant une révision de toutes les approches du domaine: évolutionniste (*la théorie différentielle des émotions* de Izard et Malatesta) et constructiviste (*les états d'excitation* – Bridges, *la théorie des systèmes dynamiques* – Camras, Fogel, Lewis et *la perspective psychanalytique* – Sroufe). La plupart des chercheurs sont d'accord que le fait de différencier les émotions est étroitement lié du développement des compétences cognitives chez le petit enfant et aussi de l'expérience antérieure. L'intérêt pour le réglage des émotions a entraîné le développement d'un champ de recherches axé spécifiquement sur les troubles de réglage et sur le rôle des émotions dans l'étiologie psychopathologique. Dans leur modèles sur la compréhension des émotions, Dehnam, Zeller et Couchoud (1994), accordent un ascendant au prédicteurs *interpersonnels* (les relations avec les parents et les frères) sur ceux qui sont *intrapersonnels* (langage, aptitudes cognitives). *La vulnérabilité cognitive* fait

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référence aux antécédents cognitifs, aux croyances et aux modèles qui cèdent la place au développement ou au maintien des problèmes psychologiques. La théorie cognitive de Beck et collab. (1990) fait référence à l'influence de l'environnement sur le comportement humain. La conception de Young (1990) est centrée sur le concept de schéma cognitif désadaptatif spécifique à la période de l'enfance.

1. Introduction

Les spécialistes du domaine de la psychologie ont offert, au cours des années, beaucoup de définitions de l'émotion, certaines contradictoires, mais on peut parler d'approches communes qui reconnaissent l'importance des émotions dans le réglage des interactions sociales et dans le réglage de l'activité cognitive pendant le développement humain (Rondal et Esperet, 1999).

Le processus émotionnel peut être reproduit de la manière suivante:

**Événement → Évaluation de l'événement → Expérience subjective,
réponse neurophysiologique et
expression motrique**

L'émotion a donc, plusieurs parties:

- cognitive
- comportementale
- neurophysiologique
- conscience, vécu subjectif
- méta-émotion

Pour que l'être humain puisse s'exprimer dans toute sa complexité, il a besoin d'un cerveau, d'un corps et d'un monde dans lequel celles-ci se développent.

Pour amorcer un processus émotionnel, il faut un événement qui le déclenche (une rencontre, un geste, un souvenir, une sensation, etc.). Celui-ci va faire l'objet d'une évaluation qui, d'après certains auteurs, est de nature cognitive (Rondal et Esperet, 1999 apud Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). D'autres soutiennent que l'intervention des processus cognitifs n'est pas nécessaire (Rondal et Esperet, 1999 apud Izard, 1993; Zajonc, 1984).

Nous pouvons parler de qualité et d'intensité par rapport à une émotion. Le contexte et les objectifs de l'individu à un certain moment peuvent provoquer des émotions très différentes. La plupart des chercheurs sont d'accord sur le fait que, concernant l'émotion, la composante essentielle est l'expérience subjective. Celle-ci peut être accompagnée d'expressions faciales, vocales, de gestes particuliers et de réponses physiologiques (accélération ou ralentissement du rythme cardiaque, contraction ou détente musculaire etc.). L'émotion est caractérisée aussi par des méthodes particulières d'action ou par une tendance vers l'action qui peut être, ou pas, manifestée (Rondal et Esperet, 1999).

L'émotion est un processus dynamique. Une émotion peut en provoquer une autre (ex. jalousie – culpabilité) pouvant agir comme un stimulus qui déclenche. L'expression d'une émotion produit généralement une réaction de la part de l'entourage qui, en revanche, peut entraîner une réévaluation du contexte de l'événement initial et le cycle peut se répéter.

2. Approches théoriques actuelles concernant le développement des émotions chez l'enfant

Les modèles théoriques qui concernent le développement des émotions sont consensuelles. Ils peuvent être regroupés dans deux grandes catégories:

- 1) l'approche évolutionniste
- 2) l'approche constructiviste

La théorie évolutionniste la plus connue et la plus influente est la théorie différentielle des émotions de Izard et Malatesta (1987), qui insiste sur les fonctions adaptatives des émotions et sur leur importance pour le développement humain. Le modèle de la genèse des émotions est axé sur les expressions faciales. En étant la composante la plus visible, les expressions faciales des émotions sont assignées en tant que signaux sociaux. Les auteurs soutiennent le fait l'on peut remarquer, chez les nouveaux-nés, toute la gamme d'expressions faciales associées aux enfants de plus grand âge et aux adultes, d'émotions primaires: surprise, joie, colère, tristesse, dégoût, mépris et honte (Rondal et Esperet, 1999).

L'apparition des émotions primaires dépend essentiellement de la maturation du système nerveux et spécialement, de certains neurotransmetteurs. Le système émotionnel est, par contre, complètement différent par rapport au système cognitif. Celui-ci permet au nouveau-né, malgré ses capacités cognitives limitées, d'expérimenter des émotions semblables à celles des enfants ou des adultes.

Même si les deux systèmes – cognitif et émotionnel – sont très distincts, la théorie soutient les liaisons des deux vont progressivement vers la naissance des structures affectives-cognitives. Ces structures sont formées de plusieurs émotions et schémas ou représentations mentales (l'amour, la haine, la jalousie, la fierté). La socialisation des émotions peut entraîner la dissociation entre les expressions faciales et l'expérience subjective de l'émotion.

La plupart des chercheurs intéressés par le développement des émotions adoptent un point de vue nettement différent de celui de Izard et de Malatesta. Ce point de vue qualifié de constructiviste, regroupe plusieurs théories. Certains se sont inspiré de la *théorie des systèmes dynamiques* (Camras, 1991, 1992; Fogel et collab., 1992; Lewis, 1995), d'autres s'inscrivent dans une *perspective psychanalytique* (Sroufe, 1996). Ils repoussent tous par contre, l'idée que, à la naissance ou dans les premiers mois après, il existerait un ensemble d'émotions que l'on appelle primaires, et que leur apparition est due exclusivement à la maturation du système nerveux. Ils s'opposent aussi à l'idée que le système émotionnel et cognitif sont indépendants et à l'importance que Izard et Malatesta ont accordé aux expressions faciales des nouveaux-nés dans l'interprétation qu'ils ont offert.

Le premier modèle constructiviste du développement des émotions a été proposé par Bridges (1932), qui soutenait que les nouveaux-nés ne peuvent pas manifester réellement des émotions, mais qu'ils connaissent des états d'excitation d'intensité variable. Ces états peuvent être rapidement divisés en positifs et négatifs, devenant petit à petit des émotions proprement dites.

Les modèles constructivistes récents sont inspirés par le principe de la différenciation proposé par Bridges dans sa tentative d'expliquer les mécanismes par lesquels celle-ci opère. Ainsi, tous les autres auteurs insistent sur l'importance du développement des processus cognitifs et sur le rôle de l'environnement social des petits enfants.

3. Les émotions primaires/émotions liées à la conscience de soi

Comme nous l'avons montré plus haut, la plupart des chercheurs sont d'accord sur le fait que le sentiment ou l'expérience subjective constitue la composante essentielle de l'émotion.

Nous rappelons les résultats de Ekman et Friesen (1971, 1975), comme ceux de Izard (1971, 1977) qui ont permis l'identification, chez les adultes, des modèles d'expressions faciales associées aux émotions primaires: surprise, joie, tristesse, colère, peur et dégoût. A celles-ci, Izard (1977, 1991) rajoute l'intérêt, le mépris, la culpabilité et la honte.

Certains auteurs ont tiré la conclusion que les expressions faciales ne constituent pas l'indice principal pour l'expérience émotionnelle chez les nouveaux-nés. Bridges (1932) soutenait que les premières émotions négatives des nouveaux-nés peuvent être non-différenciées (Camras, 1991, 1992). Nous allons utiliser le terme *détresse* pour désigner ces premières émotions négatives. La plupart des auteurs sont d'accord avec l'idée que le fait de différencier les émotions de colère, tristesse et peur a lieu, probablement, dans la deuxième moitié de la première année de vie et durant la deuxième. De cette façon, la différenciation des émotions est étroitement liée au développement des compétences cognitives chez le petit enfant et aussi, à l'expérience antérieure.

Récemment, une série d'émotions ont retenu l'attention des chercheurs: la fierté, le doute, la honte, la culpabilité, considérées des émotions secondaires, tenant compte de leur développement tardif (Tangney et Fischer, 1995). Elles apparaissent dans la deuxième année de vie, sont liées à l'acquisition du concept de soi et contribuent au développement de la capacité, même rudimentaire, de l'enfant d'évaluer ses propres actions (Lewis, 1993 ; Mascola et Fischer, 1995).

Les émotions liées à la conscience de soi ont été nommées *self-conscious emotions*. D'autres, plus «hautement qualifiées» ont été nommées *morales* ou *sociales*. D'après Sroufe (1996) l'enfant de 2 ans est incapable de démontrer sa culpabilité ou sa fierté. Celles-ci apparaîtraient dans la période préscolaire, quand l'enfant commence à intérioriser les règles de l'environnement et est en mesure d'évaluer les conséquences de ses actions sur les autres.

Malgré ces divergences, il est admis que pendant la période préscolaire, l'enfant a acquis l'essentiel de son répertoire émotionnel.

4. Le réglage des émotions

Le réglage des émotions fait partie du processus émotionnel et peut atteindre n'importe quelle étape composante: évaluation, expérience subjective, expérience motrice et réponses neurophysiologiques (Frijda, 1986).

Thompson (1994) définait les émotions comme un ensemble de processus intrinsèques et extrinsèques responsables du contrôle, de l'évaluation et de la modification des réactions émotionnelles et qui permettent à l'individu d'atteindre ses objectifs.

Les premières composantes de réglage sont réflexes. Le développement des habilités cognitives et psycho-motrices permettent au nouveau-né l'acquisition rapide du répertoire de composantes volontaires d'autorégulation, en allant des plus simples (le détour du regard pour éviter un stimulus déplaisant), jusqu'aux plus complexes: l'expression verbale de la frustration par des pleurs et par des coups (Kopp, 1989, 1992). Le réglage des émotions chez le nouveau-né dépend, en grande mesure, du milieu social. L'intervention des parents joue aussi un rôle important dans l'acquisition des composantes d'autorégulation. Même si, avec l'âge, l'enfant devient de plus en plus habile pour le réglage de ses propres émotions, le support de la part des proches reste crucial pendant toute la vie.

L'intérêt pour le réglage des émotions a entraîné le développement d'un champ de recherche axé spécifiquement sur les troubles et sur le rôle des émotions dans l'étiologie psychopathologique (Cole, Michel et O'Donnell Teti, 1994). Dans toutes les formes psychopathologiques il y a des troubles au niveau du réglage émotionnel. Mais la psychopathologie ne peut pas être réduite à des troubles de réglage des émotions et alors, pour une véritable compréhension de la genèse de ces troubles, nous devons tenir compte du développement cognitif et social de l'enfant, ainsi que de l'environnement dans lequel celui-ci évolue.

5. L'empathie

L'empathie est un phénomène marquant du développement social et affectif du petit enfant et précoce aussi. Certains auteurs (Zohn-Waxler et Robinson, 1995) l'incluent parmi les émotions liées à la conscience de soi, mais l'empathie est une émotion distincte. Elle peut être définie comme un acte de partage de l'expérience émotionnelle d'autrui. Son développement est en relation avec l'acquisition du concept de soi et de la capacité de comprendre l'état psychique d'un autre. Il y a deux formes d'empathie: orientée vers les autres et centrée sur soi ou la détresse personnelle, qui est, d'une certaine manière le précurseur de l'empathie véritable (Eisenberg et Miller, 1987; Hoffman, 1984; Zahn-Waxler et Robinson, 1995).

Les premières expériences empathiques prennent la forme de la détresse personnelle en tant que réaction à la détresse d'autrui. C'est une contagion émotionnelle qui peut être remarquée chez les nouveaux-nés. Un nouveau-né commence à pleurer comme réponse à un autre enfant qui pleure (Sagi et Hoffman, 1976). Même si cette réaction est maintenue toute la vie, généralement, elle s'aténue avec le temps, cédant la place à une réaction de sympathie pour un autre. Il s'agit d'une forme d'empathie associée aux comportements sociaux (Eisenberg et collab., 1989, 1990).

Les premiers signes apparaissent pendant la deuxième année de vie (l'enfant offre son jouet préféré à un autre enfant pour le consoler). Les chercheurs sont d'accord que, par contre, il y a des différences interindividuelles considérables en ce qui concerne l'expérimentation de l'empathie. Le milieu social de l'enfant joue, une fois de plus, un rôle déterminant (Rondal et Esperet, 1999).

6. La compréhension des émotions et la théorie de l'esprit

Étroitement liée à l'empathie, mais sans possibilité de confusion, l'aptitude de reconnaître et de comprendre ses propres émotions et celles d'autrui, est une dimension importante du développement affectif et, en mesure égale, cognitif de l'enfant (Harris, 1993; Saarni et Harris, 1989). Au début, l'identification des émotions d'autrui est basée sur des indices: les expressions faciales, la situation, le «scénario» dans lequel la personne est engagée. Cette conception purement objective de l'émotion cède facilement la place à une vision plus subjective (mentaliste) qui suppose le fait de tenir compte, pour la compréhension des émotions, des états mentaux de la personne (autour de 2-3 ans), de ses désirs et de ses buts (autour de 4-5 ans), de ses croyances et de ses attentes (Hadwin et Perner, 1991; Wellman et Banerjee, 1991). Ce développement fait appel directement à la théorie de l'esprit. Ainsi, on peut remarquer, chez les enfants de 3-5 ans (37-65 mois), une relation significative entre l'autorité des fausses croyances et la reconnaissance des émotions d'autrui (Astington et Jenkins, 1995).

La capacité d'identification et de compréhension des émotions est connectée à l'expérience sociale de l'enfant, c'est à dire aux interactions dans le cadre familial, avec la mère et les autres frères et en dehors de celui-ci, avec les grand-parents et d'autres adultes (Denham, 1997; Youngblade et Dunn, 1995). Dans leurs modèles sur la compréhension des émotions, Denham, Zeller et Couchoud (1994) accordent un ascendant aux prédicteurs interpersonnels (relations avec les parents et les frères), par rapport aux prédicteurs intrapersonnels (langage, aptitudes cognitives).

Nous pouvons affirmer qu'il existent trois nouvelles tendances qui promettent. La première concerne l'importance croissante que l'on accorde à la théorie de l'esprit, qui impose une manière différente de concevoir les phénomènes du point de vue affectif, social et cognitif.

La seconde tendance est celle qui accorde aux émotions un rôle central dans le développement de l'enfant, après celui de la cognition; tout se passe dans le sens où les émotions et les divers volets du développement émotionnel, plus ou moins négligés par la psychologie expérimentale, deviennent une voie d'accès privilégiée dans l'étude de l'enfant.

Enfin, la troisième tendance signalée concerne l'intérêt croissant suscité par les relations de l'enfant, spécialement par le petit enfant, avec la famille et l'entourage social et éducatif plus large; de cette façon, le développement socio-affectif n'apparaît plus lié uniquement à la diade mère-enfant, mais aussi à un réseau par l'intermédiaire duquel cette diade est, elle-même, influencée et prolongée.

7. La vulnérabilité cognitive dans les troubles émotionnels

La vulnérabilité cognitive fait référence aux antécédents cognitifs, aux croyances et aux modèles qui cèdent la place au développement ou au maintien des problèmes psychologiques. Un regard plus attentif sur la vulnérabilité cognitive peut déterminer une meilleure prévention, compréhension et traitement des maladies mentales (Riskind et Alloy, 2006).

Le paradigme du stress-diastrase examine les interactions entre les facteurs physiologiques et psychologiques qui génèrent et maintiennent les syndromes post-traumatiques. Les facteurs de motivation et les différentes stratégies de *coping* sont considérés capables d'expliquer pourquoi certaines personnes sont exposées au risque de développer un syndrome post-traumatique.

La plupart des théoriciens adoptent le paradigme de la stress-vulnérabilité qui reconnaît le fait que les troubles psychiques sont causés par la combinaison entre les facteurs prédisposants (constitutionnels et appris) et les facteurs précipitants (d'environnement).

Les événements précipitants (événements stressants de vie, trauma pendant la petite enfance, conflits maritaux) peuvent déterminer le développement des problèmes psychiques ou des troubles émotionnels chez certains individus (Alloy, Abramson, Ranieri & Dyller, 1999), mais le degré et la direction de la réponse peuvent être très différents d'une personne à l'autre. Comme ça, les événements précipitants de l'environnement sont capables de produire des problèmes psychiques, spécialement chez les personnes qui présentent une vulnérabilité cognitive préexistante aux troubles.

Une grande majorité des auteurs qui travaillent dans l'esprit du paradigme cognitif préfèrent, souvent, le terme de «vulnérabilité» à celui de «diastrase», parce qu'il comprend l'idée des prédispositions apprises et modifiables à la place des traits biologiques ou génétiques immuables (Just, Abramson & Alloy, 2001), propres au second terme.

8. Théories des troubles de personnalité

En parlant des troubles émotionnels et de comportement chez l'enfant et l'adolescent, nous ne pouvons pas éviter les théories des troubles de personnalité, comme celles-ci sont présentes dans la littérature de spécialité des dernières années.

La théorie cognitive de Beck et collab. (1990) concerne l'influence du milieu sur le comportement humain. Généralement, on accepte l'idée que des éléments innés existent, éléments qui agissent en tant que prédisposants pour les comportements futurs et qui peuvent être accentués ou diminués sous l'influence des expériences vécues. Les schémas qui ne fonctionnent pas proprement, élaborés par l'enfant à partir des interactions hérédité – milieu, peuvent se permanentiser ou se modifier sous l'influence des expériences vécues.

Les schémas cognitifs spécifiques aux troubles de personnalité sont difficilement modifiables (par comparaison à ceux des troubles émotionnels) à cause de leur rigidité, de leur généralité et du fait qu'ils sont formés très tôt, pendant l'enfance, à partir de l'interaction traumatisante avec les parents ou d'autres personnes adultes ; elles sont le reflet de l'image de soi du sujet, de l'opinion sur les autres et sur le monde en général.

La conception de Young (1990) est centrée sur le concept de schéma cognitif désadaptatif spécifique à l'enfance et différente de celle de Beck par les aspects suivants:

- accorde une importance spéciale aux schémas cognitifs désadaptatifs précoces ;
- souligne l'importance des processus qui contribuent à la maintenance de la rigidité des schémas ;
- ne tient pas compte du critère de diagnostique établi par le DSM III et DSM IV, examinant les schémas cognitifs désadaptatifs en quelque sorte indépendamment des troubles de personnalité qu'ils produisent.

9. Conclusions

Le thème dont nous avons parlé est extrêmement ample du point de vue des possibilités d'approches.

Les études fondamentales, ainsi que les recherches empiriques mettent en évidence quelques aspects essentiels du thème:

- l'existence des «racines» précoces (pendant la période de la très petite enfance) des troubles émotionnels, de comportement ou de personnalité ;
- l'importance des facteurs intrapersonnels ;
- le rôle crucial de l'environnement dans lequel l'enfant se développe, spécialement le milieu familial pour l'apparition des schémas désadaptatifs cognitifs, comme pour le développement des mécanismes d'autorégulation émotionnel ;
- la préoccupation croissante pour le développement du système affectif-cognitif chez le petit enfant et le fait d'offrir des solutions pour les spécialistes du domaine de la psychologie, de la santé, de l'éducation et pour les parents afin d'intervenir à temps et de manière efficace (là où le trouble est déjà installé).

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