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1

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CUPRINS – CONTENT – SOMMAIRE – INHALT

HAVATZELET RONEN, VASILE CHIS, Motivation Theories and Applications for Improving Teaching and Learning	3
BIANCA BRETAN, Learner Motivation: Some Standpoints	27
LINDA TAYLOR, STEVE HARLOW, Pedagogical Techniques with the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.....	35
ALAIN BAUDRIT, RAY COOKE, Cooperative Learning/Collaborative Learning: from a Conventional to a Critical Comparison	45
ION ALBULESCU, The Social Determination of the University Curriculum	61
GABRIELA KELEMEN, Toward a New Psychology of Education Concerning Gifted Children	75
LILIANA CIASCAI, IULIANA MARCHIŞ, L'opinion des enseignants Roumains sur l'education interculturelle.....	87
VASILE PREDA, Les fondament de la stimulation et de l'intervention précoce pour les enfants avec des besoins éducatifs particuliers.....	95
MARIA ANCA, The Impact of Co-Articulation on the Hearing Impaired Children's Pronunciation Intelligibility.....	109
CAROLINA HAŢEGAN, The Discourse and Conversational Analyzes-Methods for Underlining the Functions of the Suprasegmental Elements	121
ANDREA HATHAZI, Strategies of Optimizing Communication at Children with Multi-Sensory Impairment.....	131
MARIETTA BANKÓ, Career Monitoring of English Teacher Graduates	139

ALINA PREDA, MANUELA TRIFAN, On Text Production and Translation.....	155
MARIA ELIZA DULAMĂ, OANA-RAMONA ILOVAN, Study Upon the Achievement of a Class Management Competence During a University Seminar * <i>Die Erreichung einer Kompetenz im Bereich des Klassenmanagements während eines didaktischen Seminars.</i>	171
NINA VOLONTIR, DIANA ALEXANDRU, Situations of Learning Geography Through Active Methods and Techniques * <i>Der Unterricht der Physischen Geographie mithilfe der Schülerorientierten Methoden.</i>	183
CLAUDIA DASCĂL CRIȘAN, Les styles d'apprentissage et leurs implications dans le processus d'acquisition des connaissances dans le domaine géographique.....	191
FLORENTINA CIOMOS, Etude sur les possibilités de la chimie de developper le pensee critique des eleves	199
SORINA PAULA BOLOVAN, Le statut de l'histoire à l'école au XXI ^e siècle * <i>Die Stellung der Geschichte in der Schule des 21. Jahrhunderts.</i>	209
MONICA DIACONU, The Dialogical Method in the Study of Philosophy	217

MOTIVATION THEORIES AND APPLICATIONS FOR IMPROVING TEACHING AND LEARNING

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ABSTRACT. Educationalists and researchers are emphasized that in the last decades debates are focused on the increasing acknowledgment of the central role of motivation processes in the success of pupils in learning and other adaptation processes such as: feelings towards the teacher and the school, disturbance in the classroom, coping with difficulty, failure and success (Harpaz, Y, and Carmon. A. (2001).

According to our need and target research, the debate here is starting from the question: *What is the appropriate motivation orientation on which to construct a solid base for the increasing of learning efficiency in the school?*

The theoretical bases for the field application are given from a variety of motivation theories: Skinner's reinforcement theory; Need-gratification theory; Cognitive theories; Self-determination theory etc.

The seventh grade students filled a questionnaire, which show an evidence lack of belonging of the students to the class and the school. In accordance with the findings we began to implement an intervention program specifically geared to the education lessons.

INTRODUCTION

Many teachers come to teaching imbued with motivation to teach and to influence the development of the younger generation. Already in their first year they encounter a barrier, which prevents them from realizing the aspiration with which they came to teaching: *the pupils lack motivation*. Based on our experience we can argue that the pupils' lack of motivation is a *primary cause of erosion for both the teacher and the learner*.

Butler (1996) points out that many tend to ascribe learning and behavioral problems to a lack of motivation. Research findings clearly indicate that the learning environment has a decisive influence on the kind of motivation for learning. Consequently, the most appropriate arena for effecting a change in motivation is the school as a whole and the classroom in particular.

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Theories in the realm of motivation are supposed to be a *kind of academic knowledge which explains, interprets, analyses* the educational reality within which the teaching and learning is taking place, and thus they can be *a means for developing a teaching and learning growth-enabling culture for both the learner and the teacher.*

The experience of educators in the field of education as both learners and teachers enables the accumulation of personal knowledge, which develops through the encounter of theory and practice, and can be a valuable source for effectively dealing with the question of motivation.

Documentation of pedagogical meetings and interviews with teachers highlights a categorical and superficial division stressed by teachers with regard to the question of pupils' motivation. "They are pupils with motivation" and "those are pupils lacking motivation". A division made only judgmental, only labeling and leading to helplessness on the part of both teacher and pupil.

In their despair the teachers search for 'patents', recipes for transforming the pupils from the category of lacking motivation to possessing motivation.

The need to deal effectively with motivation exists – *can the theories dealing with this area of motivation provide an answer to this need?* From this question derive such questions as: *How do the theories contribute to understanding the forces, which drive the practice in the fields of teaching and learning? Is it possible to interpret the learning behavior of the pupils with the aid of concepts and principles from the field of motivation? Will this knowledge and understanding enable the teaching staff to find "preventive "drugs" for the sickness, as well as those that will cure the sickness?*

This paper will focus on two types of knowledge: *Theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge: and will stress the affinity and relationship between them*, when the point of departure will be to see in these two types of knowledge a driving force for professionalism which begins with *the ability to understand* the educational field, continues with *the ability to identify principles* and concepts of value for interpreting and analyzing and drawing operative conclusions.

What is the appropriate motivation orientation on which to base the learning in the school? In order to answer this question we shall survey motivational perspectives through which the theoretical research presents the motives underlying the learning action.

SKINNER'S REINFORCEMENT THEORY

In the course of the first half of the twentieth century the behaviorist approach dominated. This approach sees man as activated by external factors, environmental factors. Characterizing this theorizing group is that the driving force is external to man. This approach focused on the influence of the environment on human behavior. The pupil is motivated by the anticipated benefit – in the short and long term – of achieving a high mark. *These theories see the goal of behavior as being the need to avoid pain and as an aspiration to pleasure.*

According to Skinner we are motivated to behavior, one that in the past earned reinforcement, and to avoid behavior for which we were punished or did not receive reinforcement. In order to develop motivation in the pupil to perform desirable behaviors, one must identify his dominant needs, clearly define the desired behaviors, and to build a system of reinforcements which answer the needs, and which will be granted only if the specific behaviors are executed.

The motivation to adopt a given behavior will be reinforced the greater and clearer the connection between it and the reinforcement, and also when the reinforcements gradually become partial.

Punishment, on the other hand, can arouse motivation to avoid undesirable behavior. This approach led to the creation of behavior-shaping programs whose aim was to direct the behavior of the pupils in the classroom in the direction desired by the teachers.

The defect of the approach is that it develops a low quality of behavior since it is performed in order to accept the reinforcement. The motivation is dependent on a system of reinforcements external to the person, after the disappearance of the reinforcement the strength and frequency of the behavior is greatly weakened.

These approaches aroused criticism on the part of those favoring the humanistic view. This approach sees human behavior as being driven by internal motives. The humanistic approach sees man as being motivated by internal force sources. Internal needs and desires induce him to act.

THE NEED-GRATIFICATION THEORY

This theory presents the aim of behavior as a need to satisfy needs and to diminish the impulse. Basic to the subject of motivation is the need of each individual to satisfy his needs. There are needs that require satisfaction in order to ensure basic for existence, other needs demand satisfaction in order that the individual should feel good. Needs which are not satisfied arouse urges, an internal psychological force which stimulates activity. The aim of the activity is to satisfy the need and when it is satisfied the urge is decreased.

The most known approach to the examination of needs is Maslow's original theory (1954), a theory capable to take into account the complexity of human behavior (Robbins 1998, Kast & Rosenzweig, 1985).

Maslow defined five hierarchical needs, some of them basic needs satisfied by the environment (such as physiological and security needs), and some needs of a high level satisfied by the individual himself (such as social, self-esteem and self-fulfillment). Once satisfied a given need stops driving and the next need after it becomes the dominant one.

In order to develop motivation in the pupil one must identify his position in the hierarchy of needs, and indicate clearly the connection between the performance of a defined behavior and satisfaction of the dominant need.

The argument between those who favor reinforcement and those who reject it and stress inner motivation has continued also in recent years. *It soon became apparent that inner motivation and external motivation are not sufficient to describe the diversity of the motives that drive motivation to action.*

COGNITIVE THEORIES

At the start of the 1980s a new theoretical approach appeared, one defined under the umbrella "*Cognitive approach*" with the aim to explain the way a man acts (Nicholls, 1989, Deci & Ryan, 1985; Weiner, 1985). At the base of the cognitive approaches lies the concept that man seeks to bring order and meaning to his experiences, he acts out of a desire to understand himself and his place in the world. These understandings he tries to organize systematically.

The cognitive approaches regard the motives as being a certain type of thoughts, which have a very strong influence on behavior. The cognitive approaches lay stress on a person's *consciousness of his own pattern of action*, on the need of the person to set goals for himself in order to act and achieve them.

The belief and perception of the pupils affect their choice of how to act, affect their readiness to invest efforts, to persist and to be involved and committed to the task. The cognitive concepts see motivation as being connected to the pupils' quality of thinking. Nisan (2001, p. 124,) writes that the mind suggests a new direction to motivation. In his view *thinking and belief are liable to significantly change a person's behavioral tendencies*. Most of the cognitive theories focus not only on internal personal processes but also on inter-personal processes and therefore they are called "socio-cognitive theories".

THE SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

This theory sees the source of energy of behavior as directed to satisfying three basic innate needs: *the need for autonomy or self-determination; the need for relatedness; the need for efficacy*. At the root of the theory lies the premise that satisfaction of autonomy, the contact of belonging and efficacy is an essential condition for the optimal socio-cultural cognitive development of children in the school.

Autonomy deals with a person's self-initiative and self-regulation. The energy to act, to do and to persist in doing depends on fulfillment of a person's need to feel that he has freedom of choice and that his behavior is the result of choice and not of compulsion. A person must feel that the behavior supplies an answer to his authentic needs.

Ryan (1981/89) maintained that *autonomy* develops most effectively in situations in which children and adolescents feel a connection and closeness to significant adults. When significant adults – principally teachers and parents – are involved in the activity of the pupils in a way that supports autonomy, there will be an increased chance that the pupils' natural curiosity (The inner motivation to

learn) will be preserved and that they will develop autonomous forms of self-regulation through a process of internalization and integration. The realization of the need for autonomy depends on the ability of the teachers to plan teaching units which include suggestions of choice, supplying the information required for making decisions, understanding of the strategies required for learning.

Involving the pupils in goals, aims, in questions concerning their practice, in questions connected with the development of motivation, will enable the pupils to make the connections between their approaches and learning, between the learning strategies and success.

Efficacy is considered important as a precondition for learning (Bandura, 1986, 1989, 1994). Efficacy is viewed as related to ability but it is more exclusive to a situation, that is to say, a pupil is likely to esteem himself as talented (I generally read well, understand the material), but when he is confronted with a certain task, for example writing answers to questions in a test, he is liable to feel that he lacks the required efficacy in order to meet the demands of the task.

Efficacy *is connected* with the confidence of the pupils in their ability to organize the way of action required in order to solve the task. Efficacy includes the belief of the pupil that he can indeed perform the task. This *includes* knowing and understanding the strategies required in order to perform the task. Efficacy is affected by past performances (a pupil who experienced success will know how to use the strategies which proved themselves and develops belief and a feeling of capability.)

The system of relationships a person experiences affects the development of self-efficacy. A person learns to regulate and direct his behavior according to analysis of his experiences, according to observation of the behaviors of his fellow group members, and on the basis of the goals he sets himself.

Experience of social relationships enables a person to develop social judgment ability - the society as a learning model- and also to set himself goals *to which he directs and regulates his behavior*. The outcomes of these comparisons will affect his feelings (satisfaction or disappointment) and orientate his behavior in the future.

High self efficacy entails high investment of efforts for the sake of achieving the goals. Conversely, *low self-efficacy* diminishes motivation and causes thoughts of failure. Successful experience raises the sense of efficacy and failures lower the sense of efficacy. When others perform any activity successfully our sense of efficacy rises. And this on condition that the others to whom we compare ourselves – resemble us Verbal persuasion affects the sense of self-efficacy on condition that the persuader is regarded as significant and knowledgeable in the field.

The *self-determination theory* (Deci Ryan 1991) distinguishes between two types of regulation; self-determination and controlled behavioral activity. *Self determination* is manifested in activities in which a person's engagement in an action is completely voluntary, the action is performed from within the person's self. The two types can be placed on two extremities of a continuum. At the extremity of the first continuum can be placed all the behaviors where the focus of the behavior is the

outcome of self-determination. In this case the person sees the reason for his action within himself. The motivation is internal. At the extremity of the second continuum can place action arising from control, that is to say that his behavior is perceived as obliging him to comply or to resist. In this case the person perceives the reason for the action as being external to himself. The motivation is external.

Consequently, the theory of self-determination presents the internal and external motivations not as a dichotomy, but as two poles of a continuum

It can be argued that efficacy is a situation-dependent self-concept. Personal efficacy is the expectation and the belief of a person that he is capable of organizing and executing the behaviors required in a given situation, in a given task. Personal efficacy is a decisive factor in a decision to choose, to experience, to invest and to persist in varied activities.

THE CONCEPT OF EFFICACY AND THE PUPIL'S SELF-ESTEEM

Pupils' self-esteem is closely allied to their self-perception as to their ability in the school environment. The self-concept of ability or of efficacy has significant implications for the pupils' achievement behavior. A person's self-esteem is at issue when the task is important and when he feels threatened from the standpoint of his ability (Lawrence A. Cremin, 1961.)

Small children interpret investment of effort in a task as being connected with ability. They tend to identify effort with ability. Self-efficacy will be viewed as connected with the investment of effort; it leads to the creation of a perception that pupils who make an effort are wise and that wise pupils make an effort. Hence, teachers wishing to develop self-efficacy in young pupils will find it worthwhile to being very praising of their efforts since they do not distinguish clearly between ability and effort. Praise of their efforts is liable to increase their self-confidence, is liable to affect self-esteem. The development of awareness of the significance of the concept and the approach will be of significance for the development of the orientation of motivation, which I shall refer to further on.

Older children develop a *more discerning* outlook between effort and ability. Invest effort is considered by them as being in contrast to ability. This is to say, in contrast to the perception that investment of effort is liable to increase the chances of success. The effort becomes a sign of lack of ability. (A frequently heard saying of pupils – I am clever and I don't need to make an effort.)

A pupil who fears failure will prefer to show that this failure derives from a lack of effort and not as the result of lack of ability. Effort and failure on his part threaten his self-concept with regard to ability. When the pupils' ability is threatened they display motivation for avoiding failure. They activate failure-avoiding tactics such as lack of effort, time-dragging, false effort and even denial of effort. Therefore it is important that teachers understand what the reasons for the pupils' avoidance are and should think how they can develop the pupil's awareness of the reasons and the motives underlying the learning practice.

In conclusion, support of the three basic needs, *autonomy, relatedness and efficacy* will lead the pupil to internalize the performance of behaviors which at first he does completely from external motivation, but when all the subsequent needs are satisfied he will learn to internalize the performance of behaviors deriving from understanding the importance of the engagement in learning.

Defining the source of the motivation in terms of searching for ways to provide an answer to three definite needs enables the educational staff to focus on *the environmental conditions* which will help to develop a learning environment encouraging and fostering motivation.

Defining the motivation as focusing on three needs opens the way for *conscious reflection* on the significance of each of the needs and its impact on the ability to bring about a change in the school learning and teaching culture. It enables the examination of the complexity of applying the concept in schools characterized by a bureaucratic organizational structure.

The ability to situate the motivation on a continuum and not on dichotomy opens the way for change which is likely to enable growth and development for both teachers and pupils

MOTIVATION: FROM THEORY TO APPLIED FIELD

In the context of our work in the Department of Educational Psychology in Hebrew University in Jerusalem, we ran and taught the course "Involvement in the Educational Field - Theory and Practice. " The aim of the course was to enable outstanding students to gain experience in learning encounters combining theory and practice in one course. A special program was developed for the students.

The case study, which we are referring concerns an activity we conducted in the seventh grade class in a school made up of a very heterogeneous pupil population.

In this class there were pupils described as gifted, and pupils who were on the verge of dropping out. The common characteristic of the whole class was lack of motivation. The strong pupils saw the class as a framework obliging them to learn in order to get to the high school, and the weak pupils felt that the lessons didn't interest them. They had to get through the junior high school because there was no other way and the social aspect was the focus of interest. In fact neither of the two groups felt that it belonged to the learning framework.

We began by asking the seventh-graders to fill out a questionnaire (1). Analysis of the questionnaire taught us about *a sense of lack of belonging* of the strong and weaker pupils to the class and the school. The strong pupils saw achievement as the main source of motivation. They knew that in order to achieve very good results they would not have to work hard, so that obtaining high marks did not contribute to the feeling of esteem and satisfaction. They did not feel that the school could offer them the learning challenges they needed.

The pupils with learning difficulties felt that they didn't have any chance of succeeding in a class in which there were gifted pupils. The sense of lack of efficacy was expressed in their answers. The sense that the class had been forced on them accompanied both the strong and weaker pupils.

In accordance with the findings of the questionnaire *we began to implement an intervention program specifically geared to the education lessons.*

In the context of the course the students learned the significance of the questionnaire, its importance as a means of dialogue, on ways to analyze and interpret the findings. The seventh-grade pupils learned to know a tool for dialogue of a different kind with the teachers. In this way the questionnaire became a learning tool for both students and seventh graders.

The intervention program referred to the education lessons taking place in the seventh grade curriculum. In order to separate the program from the regular system we called the lesson.

"Education as a humanistic dialogue." For the educational intervention program were planned modular teaching units, action strategies, certificate for evaluation etc.

We chose the education lesson as a joint lesson for the pupils and the students, so that we could look for and find the common ground among the pupils, and connect with what was relevant to the pupils. The lesson was planned so as to enable the pupils to develop mature discourse on the significance of growth-enabling education, on the significance of motivation, on the meaning of the understanding and development of thinking as a subject of discussion and as a stated goal which were striving to attain. The subject matter which the pupils of the form were studying was incorporated into the above-mentioned discourse structure. This subject matter interested the students as graduates of the education system and the pupils who were in a stage of transition from the elementary to the junior high school.

At the end of the school year, after experiencing a whole year of lessons of "Education as a humanistic dialogue" the pupils were asked to answer a summarizing questionnaire. From the answers to the questionnaire we sought to understand the effect of the program on the feelings, attitudes and motivation after one year of learning in the junior high school. All the pupils in the class answered the questionnaire. For the purposes of this paper I chose answers to two of the questionnaires. The answers of a gifted pupil and a pupil with difficulties will be the "cases" for an interpretative analysis of the reality with the help of the theory. (For the purposes of the analysis we shall call the gifted pupil "A" and the pupil with difficulties "B").

THEORY AS A MEANS OF INTERPRETING REALITY

Deci and Ryan, 1985, 1987, maintain that when the theory of self-determination is applied to the field of education it refers mainly *to advancing*

interest in learning and fostering the consciousness of the value of education, and confidence in ability among the pupils.

From the pupils' answers we can learn that interest in learning and the sense of the value of the education lesson were manifested.

At the end of the seventh grade A wrote: *" Since the beginning of the year "I have grown" very much from the standpoint of thinking, I can describe myself as a thinking and interested pupil, from a social, thinking and learning standpoint...It is also clear to me that we shall have to continue with this stage . . ., truly until the end of the school. . "* B wrote: *"I learnt a lot, not only in such lessons as English, history and maths and the like, but also from the education lessons I learnt to write better to each other, I learnt to express myself better, with better use of words so that I feel quite pleased with this year. . "*

The feeling is good because *the strong pupil* is able to define himself in terms which express growth from the thinking standpoint. The pupil with difficulties is able to define himself in terms which express learning growth, and fulfilling *the need to feel like a person who "thinks and takes an interest" and as a "learning and progressing" person* influenced the development of motivation to continue with the education lessons, the motive being an inner motive. The continuation of fulfilling *the needs* of developing efficacy and ability.

An educational program geared to providing an answer to the needs of the gifted children in the class as well as to those with learning difficulties, succeeded in influencing *the quality of the learning in the class.*

In answer to the question relating to the aims of the education lesson, A wrote: *"In the education lesson we try to think, and therefore thinking is the aim of the lesson, sometimes we take thinking as something for granted, but it isn't so, The meaning of "being a thinking pupil" is actually not to ever grow tired of thinking, to ask questions, and not to let anyone think for us or to give us obscure but "satisfactory" answers, the situation of not thinking is a very dangerous situation and the lesson tries to take us out of this situation. . "*

B wrote: *"I loved the education lessons because we learnt new words and terms, words which helped me. . I want to continue with the whole subject of education we learnt and with all the words and expressions we learnt. . . . "*

The research shows that when the pupils are given the opportunity to choose activities they try and persist more in these activities even where there are other distractions.

A wrote: *"In the course of the school year I enjoyed the education lesson very much and I am looking forward to next year. . I enjoyed it because we pupils to a certain extent created the structure of the lesson without them dictating to us the subjects to be learnt. . next year I want to learn. . more than anything the terrific importance of thinking and what we would have done without it. . "*

B wrote: *"I could express myself as I wished and also explain to people who wish to know about the education lesson. . they were nice people who listened*

and sometimes there was also a bit of humor and this gave me a good feeling. . " Involving the pupils in the aims, in the goals, in the questions connected with their learning practice, in the questions connected with the development of motivation, enables the pupils to form the associations between their attitudes to learning, between the learning strategies and success. Informed involvement affects the fulfillment of the need for autonomy and of the need for realizing the connection required for the development of meaningful learning...To the question relating to reconstruction of an event which influenced motivation A wrote: *"In the education lesson the thing which caused me to want to continue to progress and succeed was actually the classroom dialogue, the very humane and human atmosphere, and those special activities such as.... . "*

B wrote: *"When I first entered the seventh grade I was rather afraid since I didn't know what was going to happen and whether it would be hard for me and if they would treat me nicely, but during the year I got to know that they treated me extremely well and this gave me a good feeling. . "*

The sense of belonging, which derives from respectful and involving dialogue, created a framework which enabled the pupils to display behavior whose focus derived from self-determination.

We chose to illustrate the relationship between theory and fieldwork through analysis of two out of the many "cases" who participated in the program. Content analysis of the answers enables us to see the field through the lenses of the theory and the theory through the lenses of the field.

To sum up, researchers investigating this direction of motivation found that fostering "self-determination" affected the attainment of outcomes like creativity, cognitive flexibility and self-esteem. The conclusion which Deci and his colleagues reached was that fostering motivation through self-determination of the pupils has to earn high priority among the educational efforts.

The development of motivation, according to this approach, depends on the ability of the educational staff to develop an educational environment in which the pupils will feel *they belong* and are of value in the classroom. The development of motivation depends on belief, expectations, and *efficacy* of the pupil to perform a process of judgment and evaluation with regard to the knowledge and strategies required in order to perform tasks over a long period.

The fact that the two above-mentioned needs depend on the fulfillment of the need for autonomy stresses the importance of the professionalism of the teachers in planning teaching units which will enable the pupils to gain experience of learning in which they have freedom of choice to choose assignments and tasks, together with the understanding that the realizing of future needs obliges them to understand that it is not always possible to realize engage in activities allowing for free choice.

The planning of teaching units which include mature discourse with the aid of the subject matter being learnt, will lead to the development of awareness by the pupils of their attitudes regarding the fulfilling of the needs required for the

development of motivation, and will enable the pupils and the teachers to create the close relations required in order to produce a learning relationship.

The understanding of the learning tasks, of the assignments and the arrangements required in order to lead them to success, influenced the development of efficacy. The fulfilling of these two needs will enable the pupils to cope with the difficulty and complexity in realizing the need for autonomy in a learning system characterized by bureaucratic arrangements.

With regard to the teachers, each of the needs can serve as a control mechanism for examining the connection between the planning of the teaching and the development of the learning. Each of the needs can serve as a control mechanism for the atmosphere developing in the classroom.

WEINER'S CAUSAL ATTRIBUTION THEORY

The assumption that thoughts are the motive of behavior leads Weiner to argue that in order to create change in the patterns of motivation change has to be effected in the ways of thinking themselves. The way in which a person explains to himself success and failure are a major factor affecting his motivation. The distinction between the concepts "ability" and "effort" has a marked influence on the quality of the motivation.

His approach assumes that a person can explain to himself the causes of the outcomes of the performance, and the attribution of the reason is what determines the continuation of the behavior and the motivation even more than the outcome itself, Weiner divides the reasons for success or failure into three dimensions: the first is *the dimension of location*, that is to say whether the reason for failure or success is perceived as being located inside the pupil (internal reason such as: ability, effort, volition) or as located outside him (external cause like: problems with the teacher, difficulty of the job or task or lack of sufficient help.) When the cause is perceived as located internally, the value of the outcome will be greater, both in the event of success or failure.

Where the cause is located externally the value of the outcome will be lower and the emotional feelings accordingly.

The second dimension is *the dimension of control*, whether the cause is perceived as being controllable or uncontrollable by the person.

And the third dimension is that of *consistency*: whether the cause is perceived as a constant factor (such a difficulty of the function or ability) or if it is perceived as a variable factor (such as luck, mood, effort).

The attribution to an internal and constant factor will ensure subsequent high motivation since the success will be perceived as a source of pride and also the effort, perceived as an internal factor and controllable but not constant will lead to similar feelings. However, attributing success to a variable, external and uncontrollable factor such as luck will not lead to assuming personal responsibility

for the outcomes and hence will not have a positive effect on the motivation in the future. (Kaplan, Assor 2001, pp. 23. 24).

Previous outcomes is an additional element which has a decisive effect on the attribution of the cause. There is a tendency to attribute repeated outcomes to constant factors, and extreme and onetime outcomes to variable factors.

Attributing the reason for success or failure, gives a hint to the pupil and affects his self-concept. Teachers tend to give help to the pupils who are seen as lacking ability more than to pupils considered as having difficulty because of lack of effort, therefore pupils tend to interpret the giving of assistance as hinting at low ability. Furthermore, teachers tend to treat a pupil they consider as lacking ability leniently, and the pupil considered as having difficulty because of lack of effort with anger or disappointment. And again, pupils tend to translate this treatment to attributions of ability or effort.

Carole Dweck and her colleagues (in Kaplan, Assor 2001, p. 25) checked why certain pupils exhibit patterns of helplessness, including despair, in the event of difficulty or failure, and other pupils with the same level of ability adapt and persist in the effort to cope with the difficulty. The assumption is that the difference lies in how these pupils perceive intelligence. Pupils who think that intelligence or wisdom are things that can be developed, will not display patterns of despair in relation to failure, whereas pupils who regard intelligence as a fixed and static thing will be helpless in the event of experiencing failure. Pupils who regard intelligence as something that can be developed will look for tasks which contribute to the improvement of their ability, and will enjoy the challenges of hard and complex assignments. Whereas pupils who consider intelligence as a fixed thing, to the extent that they see themselves as having a high ability, will try to display their high ability by obtaining good marks or performing better than their classmates, but to the extent that they regard themselves as possessing a low ability they will try to avoid displaying a low ability.

Ames's argument about the attribution of characteristics to success and failure on the part of the pupils as affecting their behavior, their achievement, reinforces the connection between the various motivational theories and the need for pupils to develop meta-cognitive thinking about the meaning of their approaches, attitudes and expectations as well as about the knowledge and control of a variety of strategies for action.

As we have said, *attributions* are related to expectations concerning the likelihood of success, to estimations with regard to personal ability, to emotional reactions of pride or helplessness, and to readiness to engage in tasks which demand investment of efforts needed for learning together with self-regulation. In the course of time, children who believe that failure derives from lack of abilities are liable to exhibit a sense of helplessness. These children are characterized by low expectations, negative feelings, and *ineffective strategies*. There is a lower likelihood that children with dysfunctional attribution patterns like these will develop or activate those same metacognitive skills which enable them to cope with a wide range of learning assignments. On the other hand, it is reasonable to assume that children who see a

connection between their efforts and success will respond to failure or to problematic situations with hope and will engage in strategic behavior directed to the task.

ACHIEVEMENT GOALS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE FOR THE QUALITY OF THE MOTIVATION

Nicholls, Ames and Butler refer to two types of achievement motives. In their view it is important to understand which type of goals enable success for pupils in school. The question which they raise for discussion is why do pupils engage in learning and choose to engage in learning assignments? Do pupils do so in order to earn external rewards? Do they do so engage in a learning activity to develop skill and ability? Do they engage in learning activity in order to display a higher level of ability than their classmates? Answers to these questions will enable us to focus on the orientation of the motivation.

Nicholls (1989, 1984), suggested looking at the two types of goals as stimulating and influencing the pupil's behavior. One motivational orientation is called by him "*role involvement*". This orientation presents the learning goals as an aspiration to develop *efficacy and ability*. The pupil aspires to develop and to improve understanding and skills, he is driven by interest in the task. Success will be gauged in relation to previous personal tasks, and the pupil improves in relation to himself. The motivation is –internal.

The pupil will feel successful when he gets to know that investing the effort leads to increasingly improved coping the more effort he invests in the tasks. That is to say, efficacy is a cumulative trait which can be changed through learning, through exercise, through the investment of time and effort. A pupil who acts according to "*role involvement*" will interpret the learning, the experience and the exercise as worthy goals enabling change and progress.

These pupils do not see ability as being differentiated from effort. And they will try to find the best ways to carry out their assignment, and will not be troubled with regard to the way others see them. (Kaplan, Assor, 2001, p. 26.)

The second type of motivation he terms "*ego involvement*". This orientation presents the learning goals as an aspiration to prove high ability or disguising low ability. Pupils impelled by *ego involvement* will tend to choose tasks in which they can prove high ability whilst investing minimal effort.

Whereas in *role involvement* the criterion for improvement is the comparison with oneself or relative to the task, in the *ego involvement* orientation, the success is gauged by comparison with others. In order for the pupil to feel that he has achieved his goals, he is dependent on an external achievement indicator.

In a learning environment which lays stress on *role involvement* the stress will be oriented towards improving skills and performance- the strategy is to try, the application is greater, the daring is greater, if one strategy doesn't work they try another way.

In a learning environment in which the *ego goals* are the dominant ones the pupils and the teacher are focused on their outcomes, and on the extent to which the outcomes reflect a higher or lesser ability. In a learning environment where the

dominant goals are *role involvement*, the pupils and the teacher focus on what they learn and on the extent to which they learn.

Different goals call for different interpretations regarding the significance of difficulty. If the motive is *role involvement* the difficulty is perceived as a challenge, the difficulty is regarded as a need to know more, and additional strategies must be looked for in order to add knowledge that is lacking in order to carry out the task.

And in fact research shows that pupils having a motivational orientation of *role involvement* achieve at better performance and learning in every task that demands strategic thinking.

When the dominant orientation in the class is based on *ego goals* the significance of the difficulty is interpreted as lack of ability, the ability is not good enough. When the pupils encounter difficulty they are afraid of losing prestige and merit. The difficulty is perceived as weakness, as lack of talent.

It can be argued that the price of the *ego goals* is especially high for pupils with a history of failure, low self-image and low academic ability. A problem also exists with regard to talented pupils –when a talented pupil is faced with a difficulty he tends to behave like the weak pupil who has met a difficulty- he doesn't search for other strategies, but tries to draw the correct answers from memory – if he doesn't succeed he gives up. The strong pupil want to get good marks. When he gets a good mark it's enough for him. He has no reason to make additional efforts, he sees no reason to carry on working. The result is that in this way he only realizes *part* of his potential.

The choice of the type of motivation is not confined to the province of school learning. It also occurs in a wider social context – what kind of person do we want to see? A person focused on the outcome? A person focused on competitive comparison? Or a person focused on his development and his readiness to offer help, to request help, to see in difficulty the opportunity for growth? The result is that the motivational orientation has implications for this aspect too.

According to Butler the "ego goals" will be prominent in an environment which stresses interpersonal competition, achievement-oriented and marks whereas role goals will be prominent in an environment which lays stress on personal development and evaluation in relation to the task and previous personal achievements.

According to the research from many standpoints a *role involvement* orientation role is preferable to an orientation based on external motivation or "ego involvement". Like the preference of inner motivation over external, when people don't receive an external reward for their task they tend to ascribe the interest in the task to internal factors, such as interest.

Butler emphasizes that under conditions of "ego involvement" only outstanding pupils can experience feelings of success and meet their goals, whilst under conditions of "role involvement" pupils at different levels can experience success- in the sense of improvement in coping and understanding (ibid. p. 57).

Carole Ames, like Nicholls, refers to two types of goals which direct the learning action. The first describes pupils who are interested in learning new things and to develop their skills and ability. They are described by Ames as pupils who are mastery oriented. These pupils see in investment of effort the way to achieve improvement and learning, and so they are prepared to devote the requisite effort to learning new things and to coping with challenging assignments. This orientation of motivation is likely to lead to independent learning and to continued involvement in achievement activities. These pupils possess motivation to learn. The learning is the source of the motivation. (analogous to role involvement in Nicholls).

The second type, pupils who carry out the task out of interest in displaying a high ability or to prevent displaying a low ability, are described by Ames as performance oriented pupils. They tend to devote much more thought to their ability than to the question "how to perform the task?" Their strategies, such as learning facts by heart, reading or learning only for a test, tend to serve their performances in the short term only. These pupils are oriented by external motivation. The aspiration for self-esteem is the source of the motivation (analogous to ego involvement in Nicholls.)

Ames maintains that the choice to adopt mastery goals or goals displaying ability is partially dependent on the experiences of the pupils in the class framework, and especially on their impression of the way in which the teacher builds the learning in the classroom.

Many children arrive at school with mastery or learning goals, but many of them undergo socialization which orientates them to ability displaying goals. Internalizing this orientation of motivation impacts on the desire to engage in learning, impacts on the desire to invest effort and explains why it is so hard for teachers to deal with "the motivation sickness".

The complexity of the subject leads to the conclusion about the need for the education staff to plan the teaching in such a way that the question of motivation will become part of the entire teaching environment planning.

In conclusion, it can be argued that the more the orientation is towards "role involvement" and "task mastery," the classroom teaching culture will stress the significance of development of the learning, will stress the investment of effort as a value and a norm, will stress the involvement, the support and personal progress, all of these as enabling the development of efficacy and ability.

The more the orientation is towards "ego involvement" and "mastery goals" the classroom teaching culture will stress the significance of progress and of self-esteem, will stress the scale of normative marks as value and norm, that are likely to foster the development of efficacy and ability.

CONNECTION BETWEEN VALUES AND MOTIVATION

Nissan (2001) points out the internal contradiction that exists between structure, between the book and the aspiration to develop internal motivation internal

among the pupils. In his view the school as an institution cannot be driven by internal motives of curiosity and the desire for self control as internal needs, and this is because the curriculum in the education system is based on other motivational foundations.

By contrast to this, he suggests the "concept of the desirable" as a kind of motivation that works in learning in school, and which is in line with the considerations governing the syllabus.

In order to explain his argument Nissan uses key terms from the sphere of motivation, terms with the help of which he explains why he rejects the accepted motivations both the internal and external ones.

First order motivation – includes satisfying of two types of needs. The first - the force driving the action of a person who acts out of motivation of the first order can be connected to the desire to satisfy needs of thirst, sense of security, the sense of belonging, reward, receiving a prize etc). : - the force driving the action of a person who acts from impulses connected with the need to satisfy needs dependent on his personal and cultural experience, they are "secondary" needs (sense of control, interest and curiosity).

Second order motivation: - The driving force of the action of a person who acts out of motivation of the second order- these are the criteria that a person sets himself as being worthy, the action is the result of the deliberation which the person makes in order to perform the action. The person who acts in accordance with this pattern of action, provides an answer to the needs, desires, and goals which he perceives as worthy to be fulfilled, if they are not realized he will feel that something in his identity has been harmed. He will feel at ease with himself. Even if he doesn't desire activity, he can feel obligated to accepted social norms and the action is part of his identity as a more complete person. That is to say, this is activity perceived as worthy by virtue of mandatory values, by virtue of ethical commitment, and therefore he will make an effort to obtain them even if he doesn't desire them. On the other hand, needs and desires which are not worthy to be realized will be repressed and suppressed by him.

Nissan rejects the possibility that the school will motivate the pupils in such a way that it will provide an answer to needs of the first order. He maintains that the set curriculum cannot interest all the pupils. The internal motivation can be a source of motivation only for part of the curriculum and not for all of it. In his view, in open schools also where the curiosity and ability for choice are high, have minimum demands which do not have to interest the pupils.

Nissan came to the conclusion that the motivation for a person's behavior lies in understanding and acknowledging that this is how one should behave. When the behavior is directed towards a goal which the person has understood, a goal considered as worthy, the person will strive to achieve it.

Nissan proposes a new type of motivation, motivation which he calls "desirable". Belief as a motivating force for changing behavior. The concept of desirable is a cognitive concept based on the ability for ethical judgment which derives from thinking ability. Consciousness and understanding as basic elements for developing the ability to judge what is considered desirable. Not satisfaction of

enjoyment or benefit but human wholeness and his flowering according to the image he has of the good and whole situation. That is to say, the school can provide an answer to satisfying the need of the second order.

Nissan sees the school curriculum as being oriented to the development of motivation of the desirable kind. When the pupil recognizes the value of the studies in the school for his blossoming and wholeness as a person, and in particular their strong connection with the building of his identity, there is a high probability that this awareness will find expression in the pupil's behavior.

Therefore, Nissan asserts, in every subject that the teacher teaches, he must keep in mind not only the learning goal of imparting knowledge and understanding but also the goal of reinforcing the perception of the desirability of the studies and its connection with the pupil's identity.

In Nissan's view the curriculum enables us to become conscious of the varied and contradictory components in every person's identity. In fact any action can cause a clash between different components of a person's identity. For example, "a writer" writes in order to satisfy the wishes of the readers because this will bring him financial reward (the motive being benefit from the action), but he feels that his writing is "like a fire burning in his bones", the saying is part of his identity as a writer and human being. These two forces act and motivate his choice. What he will choose depends on what he perceives as being desirable.

The curriculum enables us to become aware of the distinction between what is perceived as desirable? and in whose eyes is it perceived as desirable? Does perceiving an action as desirable amount to justification for the action or as a recommendation for action?

Seeing that the curriculum has the pupils meet with worlds of knowledge from the distant past and the near present, we may analyze situations in which what is desirable points up the distinctions between the demand for worthy behavior and justification for an action. In this way the dialogue about the subject matter is likely to enable the pupils to develop awareness of desirable values, to internalize values and to make them into a part of their behavior., and to criticize behaviors perceived as undesirable.

The subject matter may also to serve as a means of improving thinking, the pupils are asked to think deeply with regard to the subject matter being studied, and at the same time general rules of principles of thinking as a whole are highlighted and discussed. The subject matter can be a means of structuring the reality of the learners. The dialogue is an encounter between people who are connected by the word in order to call the "world by its name" (Freire, 1981, p. 78)

Calling "the world by its name" means to debate the significance of reality and to look for its characteristics. In the course of debating the characteristics of reality we learn to know afresh different points of view and also learn to change reality.

Teaching planning which is directed towards the development of desirable motivation is based on the ability to make a change in pedagogy (10) pedagogy

designed to enable the holding of the dialogue through which one can investigate truth, whilst searching for a way and finding a profound explanation for concepts. Translating things into cognitive concepts means to impart rational thinking and developing abstraction capabilities (Gover, 1969). The pedagogy which underlies teaching of this type aims at enabling the joint and new learning both for the teacher and the pupil).

A desirable perception of this kind is complex and difficult. Can the school enable to the pupils to undergo a learning process in which the subject matter becomes both the goal and the means? And if so, what needs to be done in order to enable the school to develop the requisite thinking and motivation in order to achieve the declared goals and aims of the educational system?

In order to progress towards the realization of a quality learning process as deriving from the theoretical survey, the change should begin with the development and application of a pedagogical model which enables seeing the *subject matter* as a means for structuring the reality of the learners. *The subject matter* as a means for critical dialogue about the complexity of human reality; about the meaning of the development of a person's identity as influenced and influencing the formation of reality; the *subject matter* as a means of improving thinking; *the subject matter* as a means for asking questions. In the course of debating and asking questions and presenting different attitudes and approaches for contemplating the characteristics of reality, we learn to know afresh different points of view and even learn to transform reality by examining values etc. *The subject matter* as enriching a person's world and thought. *The subject matter* as means of discussing general principles of thinking.

In this way, the tests are not the goal in itself, but a means to teach the pupils to "think anew". The testing on the subject matter is liable to lead to deep thinking regarding the subject matter. There is here a rejection of the pedagogy which transmits ready and digested material which the pupil must learn by heart and return the deposit on the deposit day which is that of the exam (Freire, 1981).

REFLECTING ON THE THEORY THROUGH THE PRACTICAL PERSPECTIVE.

Knowledge and understanding of the issue of motivation, the point of departure for effectively dealing with the "motivation sickness". Theoretical knowledge and understanding translated into action strategies are likely to enable the teaching staff to plan teaching which will focus on strategies for developing the motivation required and appropriate for different learning groups.

Feedback - a strategic tool for dealing effectively with changing motivation patterns

For the feedback to be of value in dealing with the "motivation sickness" it must focus the pupils on the assignment, on their progress in developing self-efficacy.

10. On the need for the pedagogical change I shall expand in the third paper.

Case study- lack of motivation and feedback

In the tenth grade, the form teacher was supposed to deal with the problem of discipline deriving from lack of motivation. The subject teacher maintained that the pupils had no motivation whatever to learn, they did not succeed in their tests, they disturbed although they said that it was important for them to succeed in the Bagrut exams. The form teacher decided to hold an education lesson in which the focus of the discourse would be on two concepts: *"the thinking brain"*, the *"feeling brain"* from the broad subject- *emotional intelligence*. The form teacher explained to them that with the help of these two concepts they would analyze their practice in Hebrew language lessons and together would look for ways to overcome their frustration and that of the Hebrew language teacher. After having discussed the concepts, the form teacher wrote a text, which concentrated in it information about the event, about the significance of emotional intelligence as a way of learning to cope with the problem of discipline. The form teacher called this text *collective feedback*. After the discussion and reading of the collective feedback the pupils had to answer *two questions*: What did you understand from the whole lesson? What do you think about the way in which I chose to treat the subject (the problem of discipline in the Hebrew language lesson by discussion of the subject- emotional intelligence.

In answer to the first question a pupil wrote: *"From the lesson I understood that in every action that I do, or is done, there develop in my mind two feelings and each of them has a different significance. I understood that I must always activate them so that it can help me to make decisions. The thinking brain – when I encounter a problem in which emotions are involved I must gain control over my thoughts which burst out of my heart sometimes uncontrollably, and always before I do something after which something bad happens to me, I must think sensibly and choose a way which will make the situation far simpler.*

For example when I got failed in a subject which I worked for very hard and for a long time, in those moments in which I look at the mark my emotional mind begins to work and there come to me all kinds of thoughts to do like to shout at the teacher uncontrollably, to get angry, to curse, to throw things.

But what I learnt from this lesson is that before I begin to give vent to my anger, is to activate the thinking brain which will tell me to control myself and not to do something which I shall probably regret in the future. And this is what will help me to retreat backwards and sit quietly until the end of the lesson, and to go up to the teacher at the end of the lesson and to ask politely why I got such a mark? And this applies to everything else. . "

In answer to the second question the same pupil wrote: *"The way in which you chose to relate to the subject was wise and successful. The moment when a child reads from a page lying in front of him and knows that his form teacher wrote the words only with the aim of helping and to give more points to think about, this*

is more interesting to understand and enters the brain in an orderly manner. The collective feedback is an interesting way of teaching things, because we also have a text which we can read quietly whenever we wish and also an explanation from you about every sentence that is written. . "

The form teacher understood that the problem of discipline and lack of motivation were an opportunity to develop in the pupils insights regarding their behavior pattern in terms of change of motivation. The written feedback explained to the pupil that the teacher's intention was to help and not to punish. The written discourse made clear to the pupil that she belonged and was involved despite the anger of the Hebrew language teacher. This gave the opening to be ready to listen to new concepts. Thus the feedback became a text which could be turned to and be read in order to learn from it. The concepts became signposts through which one could observe the thinking processes accompanying irrational behavior.

Consequently, with the help of dialogue, spoken and written, supportive, the form teacher clarified for the pupils their situation as a behavioral problem which was affecting their motivation to learn and that of the teacher to teach. Clarifying with the help of feedback helped to shape the subsequent written and spoken discourse.

In this way the feedback influenced the case study that had occurred, and influenced the setting of goals in the short and longer term.

From the interview with the form teacher it emerged out that this dialogue opened up a different communication pattern with the Hebrew language teacher. The Hebrew language teacher understood that through the subject of language he could talk about attitudes and approaches not by way of conflict in the relationship but through discourse which was understood, structured, and developing in accordance with the ongoing events in the class.

In this way, the feedback, as one of the tools which the form teacher was using also had an influence on the change of motivation and also on the improvement in achievements of the pupils in the Bagrut.

From the discussion on the goals theory, it may be concluded that *the setting of goals*, discussion with the pupils about the goals, tasks relating consciously to different kinds of goals, can be a strategy both at the level of development of thinking as well as the developing of the pupils' efficacy. The setting of goals is considered an important cognitive process which affects motivation and the sense of self-efficacy. (Bandura, Latham?? 1900, Locke & Schunk, 1989a??; Schunk 1991.

Schunk (1991) found that the pupils who set their goals for themselves, displayed higher motivation in relation to performing the goal than those who were given a set goal in advance. Pupils who feel commitment in relation to the choice of the goal will also display responsibility and motivation regarding the performance process.

Consequently, teaching planning which sees the setting of goals, dialogue about the goals, as part of the tasks of the teaching and evaluation, will affect the development of consciousness and internalization of different types of goals. Different types which will enable the pupils to know and to learn to cope with

different kinds of motivation as demanded of a pupil studying to live in a complex achievement-oriented society with a variety of demands.

The teaching planning of the educational staff aware of the connection between the setting of goals and the development of self-efficacy and motivation will enable the pupils to cope with the short term goals since the research (Schunk 2001) and the reality show that the setting of short term goals enables the pupils to judge the progress towards them more easily.

The setting of graded goals is likely to reinforce the motivation and the self- efficacy in initial stages of the acquisition of skill. The setting of harder goals as an integral part of the teaching and learning planning is seen as effective and ability developing .

The importance of the discussion on goals, the importance of understanding the goals, the importance of the discourse on the goals is linked with the need to plan teaching in which the development of metacognition - *the teaching of strategies for advancing towards the goals*- will become an integral part of teaching, learning and evaluation. "When the pupils understand how to achieve a goal and advance by strategy and not by result, there is a greater likelihood that they will feel "owners" of their success. (Schunk, in Ames 1990, p. 157).

It can be argued that *the setting of goals and teaching the strategies* for advancing towards the goals, with the accompaniment of control mechanisms for checking the progress of the pupil in the transition from developing the awareness of strategies till their application are strategic tools in the hands of the educational staff for changing the motivation patterns and for increasing the effectiveness of the teaching and learning processes,

In conclusion: the dialogue as a strategic tool for dealing with the attribution patterns of success and failure

The cognitive theories stress the importance of the interpretation which a person gives to his actions as a point of departure for the development of motivation. Hence the cognitive theories carry within them the message of change. The change is located in the person, in the relationship between all the partners in the educational practice. Beliefs, perceptions, attributions, goals can be changed first of all with the help of dialogue.

The dialogue with the pupil about the reasons for success and failure. The development of a communication model that will enable the educational staff and the pupils to hold a mature and supportive dialogue, comprehensive and behavior-shaping can be a valuable strategic tool for dealing effectively for changing attribution patterns.

Butler contends (Butler, 1996) that when a pupil doesn't understand the factors behind the outcomes of his performance, he also doesn't know what he has to do in order to improve them. She suggests developing the pupils' awareness about the reasons for success and failure.

The first stage to be adopted in order to change the attribution patterns is to clarify the pupils' ability to explain success and failure to themselves. In ***the***

second stage they have to be helped to make a specific distinction and to direct them to make accurate attributions. So that a pupil by himself will be able to make the distinction when any difficulty arises, whether from lack of effort, whether from the difficulty of the task or from the type of teaching or an explanation that is not sufficiently clear for him, or deriving from low ability in a specific area.

If a pupil succeeds to know the reasons which have led to his success or failure, and after understanding will learn to attribute them to the correct factors, he will acquire strategies that will enable him to see the connection between the strategies and success, he will learn what he must do in order to improve his achievements. In this way it will be possible to influence his sense of control and thus to reinforce his self efficacy.

In order to enable effective and efficient treatment in change of attributions the educational staff has to develop a teaching and learning and evaluation oriented towards motivation of the "*mastery of the task*" type.

In order to develop a teaching culture in which *mastery of the task* is the orientation which directs the practice, it is important and necessary to develop a climate in which there exists legitimacy to ask questions, to discuss and to debate as an integral part of the learning discourse. The ability to hold a learning process in which the teacher permits asking any question, together with the development of a learning environment in which the teacher's authority as instructor showing the way and enabling the creation of trust on the one hand and limits on the other, will enable the pupils to climb up the motivational ladder. In this way the "the mastery of the task" will be a stage before the climbing to the stage of motivation which Nissan described as motivation "of the desirable kind".

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LEARNER MOTIVATION: SOME STANDPOINTS

BIANCA BRETAN*

INHALTSVERZEICHNIS. Dieser Artikel behandelt ein zentrales Thema in der Methodik des Fremdsprachenunterrichts, nelmlich die Wichtigkeit der Motivation im Prozess des Lernens und auch dessen Modalitäten zum Stimulieren. Im ersten Teil enthält der Artikel einen kurzen Zusammenfassung verschiedener Theorien, die Art markieren, wie die Motivation im Lernen aufgefasst wird. Es wird auf die Benehmungspsychologie, Kognitivismus und Konstruktivismus hingewiesen. Weiterhin betrachtet der Artikel die Motivationsauffassung aus einen dreiseitigen Perspektive welche vom klassischen Auffassung sich entfernt, nach dem sich die Motivation der Schüler auf einer, die Interesse aufwachende Aufgabe konzentriert. Aus diesem Sicht ist die Motivation als ein dynamisches Prozess angesehen, das der Interesse zu ergreifen, die Wille um einen Ziel zu erreichen und das in diese Aktion investierte Kraft voraussetzt. Am Ende sind sowohl die Charakteristiken des motivierten Lernens als auch die verschiedene Modalitäten des Lehrers, die er hat um ein höheres Grad der Motivation zu erreichen.

Schlüsselbegriffe: Motivation, Fremdsprachen lernen, kognitive Perspektive, konstruktiviste Perspektive, Ziel, dreiseitiges Model.

Learner motivation has always been a topic of interest for teachers as motivation is an important aspect of successful learning. However, to many teachers motivation only means engaging students in an activity, which is an incomplete perspective.

Various studies have found that there is a close link between motivation and achievement in language learning (Gardner and Lambert: 1972; Gardner: 1980). Consequently, a teacher's job is to encourage the development of language abilities and enhance motivation, on the presumption that each will contribute to the other (Ur: 1996).

1. Theoretical background

Over the years a vast literature on motivation has been developed. Most early theories were based on a *behaviorist approach* to psychology. According to it, motivation was explained in terms of rewards and punishment, namely, we are

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motivated to do something in order to gain recompense or to avoid penalty. To put it differently, the behaviorist approach considers motivation only as an extrinsic factor.

Freudian theory saw motivation as something unconscious based on basic needs, whether physical or psychological. From this perspective, people are driven in their actions by forces they may not recognize or understand.

Another perspective on motivation was provided by *humanistic theories*. One of the most influential writers that should be mentioned in this area is Abraham Maslow (1954). He attempted to synthesize a large body of research related to human motivation by establishing a hierarchy of human needs based on two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. Within the deficiency needs, each lower need must be met before moving to the next higher level. Once each of these needs has been satisfied, if at some future time a deficiency is detected, the individual will act to remove the deficiency. The first four levels are:

- 1) Physiological: hunger, thirst, bodily comforts, etc;
- 2) Safety/security: out of danger;
- 3) Belongings and love: affiliate with others, be accepted;
- 4) Esteem: to achieve, be competent, gain approval and recognition.

According to Maslow, an individual is ready to act upon the growth needs only if the deficiency needs are met. The next levels are:

- 5) Cognitive: to know, to understand, and explore;
- 6) Aesthetic: symmetry, order, and beauty;
- 7) Self-actualization: to find self-fulfillment and realize one's potential;
- 8) Self-transcendence: to connect to something beyond the ego or to help others find self-fulfillment and realize their potential.

Another viewpoint was developed by Gardner (1985), who defines motivation as consisting of effort, plus desire to achieve the goal of learning, plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language. He also introduces the concepts of *integrative* and *instrumental* motivation (Gardner and Lambert: 1978). The former represents the desire to identify with and integrate into the target language culture, while the later occurs when motivation arises from external goals, such as passing exams or furthering a career.

More recently, a need was felt to broaden Gardner's theoretical perspective by incorporating views from the field of psychology, in particular *cognitive approaches* to motivation. Cognitive psychologists are concerned with the way in which people use their minds to learn things. From a cognitive perspective, one factor that is of central importance to any human action is choice. In order to make an informed choice, we need to be aware of a number of things, including the probable outcomes of what we decide to do, how important these outcomes are to us and whether we are likely able to achieve them (Williams: 1999).

Thus, from a cognitive perspective, motivation is concerned with the following issues:

- the factors that influence people's choices;

- the reasons for taking certain decisions;
- the amount of effort people are prepared to spend for achieving their aims.

Part of the cognitive school of thought is the *constructivist approach*. According to it, learners are seen as individuals who bring different knowledge and experiences to the learning process, each student making sense of the world in a unique way. Learning therefore, is concerned with learners constructing their own knowledge and understanding in their own way, so what they learn is personally significant to them.

2. Motivation and the teacher

As a result of the large amount of research on the field of motivation there are over 102 statements defining the concept (Kleinginna and Kleinginna: 2005). From this vast field, teachers should focus on those definitions linked to educational surroundings. Thus, a definition that could improve the way teachers guide their students' efforts is provided by Williams and Burden (1997): "We see motivation as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)."

According to this definition motivation goes beyond arousing students' interest; it involves the decision to do a task and to invest sustained effort in order to achieve it. If we take into account all the three factors, we have then a tripartite model of motivation as shown in the figure:

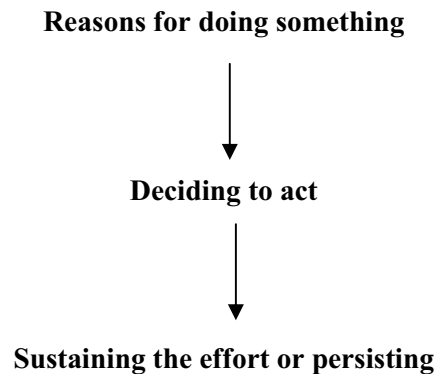


Fig. 1. A tripartite model of motivation (Williams and Burden)

The consequence of this model is a shift in emphasis regarding students' motivation during the teaching process. Instead of focusing mainly on arousing student's interest in a task, teachers should think of finding ways to

involve the learners, to support their decision of doing the task and to sustain their efforts in a positive way.

Teachers should compare the success of using motivation strategies with the degree of involvement that their students display. Motivated learners have some typical characteristics that indicate their high degree of participation in activities (Ur: 1996):

1. Positive task orientation. The learner is willing to engage in tasks and activities, and has confidence in his/her success.
2. Ego-involvement. The student finds it important to succeed in learning in order to maintain his/her own positive image.
3. Need for achievement. The learner has a need to achieve and succeed in what he or she sets out to do.
4. High aspirations. The learner is determined, enjoys demanding challenges, high proficiency and top grades.
5. Goal orientation. The student is aware of the goals of learning, or of specific learning activities, and directs his/her efforts towards achieving them.
6. Determination. The learner consistently invests a high level of effort in learning, and is not discouraged by apparent lack of progress.
7. Tolerance of ambiguity. The learner is not disturbed by situations involving a temporary lack of understanding; he/she is confident that understanding will come later.

The issue that might come into our minds when thinking of the differences in the degree of involvement that students display within the learning process is concerned with the factors that could influence the level of motivation. Why are some children more interested in learning than others? The answer is connected to early childhood when the home environment shapes the initial attitudes they develop toward learning. When parents foster their children's natural curiosity about the world by welcoming their questions, encouraging exploration, and familiarizing them with resources that can enlarge their world, they are giving their children the message that learning is worthwhile and frequently fun and satisfying.

When children are raised in a home that nurtures a sense of self-worth, competence, autonomy, and self-efficacy, they will be more apt to accept the risks inherent in learning. Equally, when children do not view themselves as basically competent and able, their freedom to engage in academically challenging pursuits and capacity to tolerate and cope with failure are greatly diminished.

Once children start school, they begin forming beliefs about their school-related successes and failures. The sources to which children attribute their successes (commonly effort, ability, luck, or level of task difficulty) and failures (often lack of ability or lack of effort) have important implications for how they approach and cope with learning situations.

Classrooms are heterogeneous environments that bring together people with different levels of motivation. What is the teacher's role in this situation and what can be done in order to equilibrate the balance? Theories on motivation say that a challenge could provide an optimal level of arousal; though, teachers need to be careful because a low level of challenge can result in apathy, but a too high level can lead to anxiety and stress (Williams:1999). An important role of teachers is to shape learning experiences to help learners see intrinsic value in the activities presented to them, so that they become interested in performing them for their own sake.

3. Suggestions for arousing students' interest in tasks

There are two aspects involved in arousing students' interest: one is concerned with the general learning process (in this case students should be guided to set personal goals and develop personal strategies to achieve them; they should also be encouraged to pursue long-term learning goals) and the other refers to involvement in tasks during various classroom activities.

They should be discussed separately but not seen as distinctive topics as they influence each other. The following are suggested as practical ways of enhancing motivation (Williams and Burden: 1997):

1. *Be aware of both initiating and sustaining motivation.* Although literature has tended not to differentiate clearly between what initiates motivation and what sustains the involvement in the activity both need to be recognized.

2. *Discuss with learners why they are carrying out activities.* This includes discussing why they are learning the language, and how each task helps them towards the goal.

3. *Involve learners in making decisions related to learning the language.* This could include decisions about what activities to perform and how much effort to spend.

4. *Involve learners in setting language learning goals.* This helps individuals develop internal feelings of control.

5. *Recognize people as individuals.* Individuals need to be allowed to learn in ways that are personal and significant to them.

6. *Build up individuals' beliefs in themselves.* An important element in motivating learners is improving their self-image as language learners.

7. *Develop internal beliefs.* These are feelings that one is the cause of one's own actions as well as being in control of the outcomes of one's actions.

8. *Help to move towards mastery-oriented style.* Help them to find ways to improve their performance and success in an activity.

9. *Enhance intrinsic motivation.* It is important to help learners see value in performing tasks for their own sake rather than doing things only for external reasons.

10. *Build up a supportive learning environment.* In a supportive atmosphere individuals are encouraged to express themselves and develop their full potential.

11. *Give feedback that is informational.* In this way learners know why they did well or wrong, and what they can do to improve.

The suggestions provided above are all concerned with the general aspects of motivation that are intended to arouse students' interest throughout the learning process. Another facet regards the kind of motivation a teacher should provide each class in order to make the tasks and lessons interesting. Such interest could be aroused by careful planning of stimulating topics and activities but also by teacher's involvement and enthusiasm. Next, we are going to have a look at a few ways in which learners could be motivated during classes (Ur:1996):

Clear goals. Learners should be aware of the objectives of the task (both language-learning and content).

Varied topics and tasks. They should be selected carefully to be as interesting as possible; but few single types can interest everyone, so there should be a wide range of different ones over time.

Visuals. It is important for learners to have something to look at that is eye-catching and relevant to the task in hand.

Use of game-like activities. They provide enjoyment and challenge through the process of achieving a goal. The introduction of some rules can add spice to any goal-oriented task.

Entertainment. It always produces enjoyment, which adds motivation. Entertainment could be teacher produced (jokes, stories) or recorded (movies, television documentaries).

Play-acting. Role play and simulations are excellent, though some learners might feel inhibited at first.

Information gap. One of the most involving task is that in which communication is used in order to find out information. A variation on this is the opinion gap where participants exchange views on a given issue.

Personalization. Learners are more likely to be interested in tasks that have to do with themselves: their own opinion, taste, experience, suggestions.

Open-ended cues. A cue which invites a number of possible responses is usually much more stimulating than one with only one right answer because participants' contributions are unpredictable and more likely to be interesting.

Although the ways in which motivation could be enhanced are unsophisticated, many teachers put in practice only a few of them. During an in-service training course I asked the teachers in my class how many of the strategies mentioned above did they employ in their classes. Unfortunately, the number was far from satisfactory: four out of eight (including varied topics and tasks, use of visuals, information gap and personalization).

4. Conclusions

The article tried to underline the important role that teachers have in arousing students' interest in learning. It reviewed the most significant standpoints on motivation, recommending the tripartite model of motivation suggested by Williams and Burden. The model offers a dynamic perspective that distinguishes among three aspects: switching learners' interest, the decision to act and persistence in the effort. The advantage provided by this model concerns an extension in the perspective teachers had on the issue. It was too simplistic to assume that providing a reward would maintain motivation or that motivation could be reduced to involving learners in an activity that is fun.

Motivation is a complex area that also includes the feedback process. Without information on how they performed and without constructive suggestions on how to improve their level, learners are likely to lose any interest in learning.

There have been suggested a few ways in which teachers can enhance motivation, underlining that it would be a mistake not to use them.

The conclusion is that teachers need to be careful with this issue and to take a positive approach in helping the student on his learning route.

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PEDAGOGICAL TECHNIQUES WITH THE MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR

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ABSTRACT. This essay will reflect upon Jungian theory as it relates to the development of the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and will attempt to identify how the MBTI can be used to promote effective pedagogical techniques. First, it will identify Jung's theory of personality type. Then it will identify the MBTI personality types as they pertain to Jungian theory. Finally, it will examine how type theory and the MBTI can be used to enhance teaching and learning.

The essence of Jungian theory of personality type is that seemingly random variations in behavior are actually orderly and consistent. This order is due to basic human differences in the way people prefer to use their perceptions and judgments. Here, perception and judgment are conceived as mental functions. Jung (1971) defined perception as the awareness of things, people, happenings, and ideas. Judgments are defined as ways of coping with conclusions based on perceptions. He contended that different ways of perceiving and judging in combination with basic attitudes, would describe different types of people. Attitudes refer to orientation of energy and orientation to the outer world. Jung further noted that if people differ systematically in what they perceive and how they reach conclusions, then it is only reasonable for them to differ correspondingly in their interests, reactions, values, motivations, and even skills. Thus, for Jung, a generalized way of responding to events and situations signal a personality type. This is a model of typology that continues throughout the lifespan (Jung, 1971). Type preferences are less clear and consistent in younger children.

Type theory states that one is born with a predisposition towards a certain type (Jung, 1971). "Hence the new-born brain is an immensely old instrument fitted out for quite specific purposes, which does not only apperceive passively but actively arranges the experiences of its own accord and enforces certain conclusions and judgments." (Jung, 1971, p. 304).

From a great number of existing or possible attitudes I have singled out four; those namely, that are primarily oriented by the four basic psychological functions: thinking, feeling, sensation, intuition. When any of these attitudes is habitual, thus setting a definite stamp on the character of an individual, I speak of a psychological type (Jung, 1971, p. 482).

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Jung proposed three pairs of opposite types to categorize ways individuals deal with the world around them and their experiences: introversion-extraversion, thinking-feeling, and sensing-perceiving. Type motivates one to exercise their dominant function and gain greater command over other functions. As one matures, lesser functions will be utilized more, but not enough to change one's original type. However, type may vary due to different stages in life and life circumstances (Jung, 1971; Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998).

Isabel Briggs Myers and her mother Katharine Myers developed the MBTI in 1942. There have been eleven revisions of the MBTI during its 65 year history. The most recent revision of the MBTI form M in 1998 no longer has a male/female difference on the Thinking/Feeling scale. The MBTI is the most widely used personality instrument in the world (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998, p. 9).

The purpose of the MBTI was to make Jung's (1964, 1971) theory of psychological typology useful in people's lives (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998). The goal of the MBTI was to make insights of type theory accessible to individuals and groups. The instrument was a means of identifying basic preferences on four bipolar scales, resulting in the identification and description of sixteen different types (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998). Each of the sixteen types are uniquely different in respects to where they get their energy, how they perceive the world, and their reaction to the world around them based on their perceptions.

The MBTI is constructed of dichotomous constructs of opposite ways people use their mind. It allows for an interplay of dominant, auxiliary, tertiary and inferior functions as specified by Jung (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998). This personality system is greater than the sum of its parts. The MBTI yields a profile based on four bipolar scales. The assumptions underlying type theory is that each pole of a dichotomy is valuable. It is reflective of a vigorous way of dealing with experiences. Therefore each type has its value, and each type affects the phenomenal world quite differently. All types deal effectively with life in general and are necessary in our complex world. Each type has its own special gifts, talents, strengths, and vulnerabilities. All types are equally valuable.

Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer (1998) emphasize that preferences are not competencies. Personality types result from interactions among the four MBTI dichotomies (bipolar scales). The dichotomies encompass four opposite ways of judging, opposite attitudes in which preferred perception and judgment are typically used, and opposite ways of relating to the world. Each type is greater than the sum of its parts because of different interactions among the four scales that make up the type.

The MBTI is different from other personality instruments because the theory is based on dichotomies which reflect innate psychological/mental dispositions. It is a forced choice multifaceted domain of psychological functioning which results

in four bipolar scales. This is different from trait theory which defines dimensions of a single trait. The MBTI does not measure the degree of a single trait but sorts and identifies the degree of accuracy of the sorting into the bipolar scales. The four bipolar scales describe basic attitudes and mental functions that affect behaviors. Therefore it has broad practical applications.

Respondents are viewed as experts on their own lives and are the best qualified to judge accurately the type descriptions of their results. It is this MBTI certified tester's experience that when respondents disagree with their type result, it is usually because they answered the questions about "how they wish they were, were trying to be, or thought society valued more" instead of what their natural instinct was.

The first bipolar scale of the MBTI reflects Jung definition of one's orientation of energy through the dichotomy of Introversion (I) and Extraversion (E). Jung defines one's orientation of energy as Extraverts who receive their energy from the outside world (other people around them), and Introverts who primarily generate their energy from their inner world (inside themselves). This is the first observed attitude Jung identified. He noticed that people reacted in certain ways due to their attitude. Jung (1964) stated that "Extraversion and introversion are just two among many peculiarities of human behavior" (p. 48).

Later Jung (1971) identified two other functions (perceiving function and the judging function). To know a person more deeply one must look to other functions. Jung (1964) went on to describe four other functional types as means by which consciousness obtains its orientation to experience sensation (i. e. sense perceptions) tells you that something exists and thinking tells you what it is; feeling tells you whether it is agreeable or not; and intuition tells you whence it comes and where it is going (p. 49). Jung concluded that he could distinguish these two functions because they cannot be related or reduced to one another (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998).

The perceiving function is the foundation for the second dichotomous scale which identifies a person's function/process of perception. That is, does one perceive things through their five senses (Sensing; S) or through their intuition (Intuitive: N)? Sensing (S) types want the fullest experience of what is real while Intuitive (N) types desire the furthest reaches of the possible and imaginable. This function identifies ways to be aware of things, people, and events. It is how one gathers information, seeks sensation and inspiration.

The judging function of Jung's theory of personality type became the foundation for the third bipolar scale which relates to one's process of decision making (judging). Does one make their judgments through their feelings or logical thinking? Thinking (T) types want rational order with non-personal logic of cause and effect while Feeling (F) types prefer rational order to create and maintain harmony among subjective values. The T-F function identifies how one comes to a conclusion about what has been perceived. How one evaluates, makes choices/decision making and selects a response from a stimulus. These four functions (S, N, T, F)

direct conscious mental activity towards different goals. These four functions have different areas of specialization and therefore pull one in different directions toward different domains of mental activity.

The last dichotomy is not directly specified in Jung's theory. Myers & Briggs (1942) added the last scale based on Jung's statements about how functions interacted. It was built on Jung's descriptions of auxiliary functions that support and complement dominant functions (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998). This bipolar scale refers to how one deals with the outside world. Does one try to organize and plan their world (Judging: J) or go with the flow and live for each moment (Perceiving: P)?

All of these functions are used to one degree or another by everyone at the same time. Jungian theory describes ways one is likely to develop over the lifespan. However, the environment does influence development and expression of type, while type will tilt the personality to the experience. Every individual is unique. Humans are a product of their heredity and environment.

Classroom: Teaching and learning

Type can be used to enhance teaching and learning. In the classroom, Extraverts (E) prefer an active and engaging environment. They therefore value experience with verbal and nonverbal interaction. They often like to talk a lesson over with a partner, like to see what other students are doing, and see visible results from a project. This translates into a preference for seminar style classes, class discussions, class reports, and team competitions. Conversely, Introverts (I) prefer the opportunity to process and reflect on the content materials. They need time to construct meaning and therefore prefer to have advance notice of assignments. Introverted students prefer reading materials before an ensuing discussion, think before participating, and prefer to work alone. They are often seen by teachers as shy and reluctant. Introverts appreciate teachers who give study guides and take home exams. An example of encouraging the Introverted student to participate in discussions, is when an eighth grade social studies teacher asked each student to put a green card on their desk when they were ready to discuss the topic. This teacher was surprised that some students took up to ten minutes for some students to process the information. As a result though, everyone participated in the discussion (Kise & Russell, 2007).

The second dichotomous scale reflects students learning style (global vs. concrete). Sensing (S) learners process information going from the concrete to the abstract. They process information inductively. Sensing students enjoy practical examples and steps that lead to a solution of a problem. They do not care for discussions that revolve around ideas or theories. Learning involving any of the five senses is preferable. Therefore, Sensors tend to like lab classes. They like well defined goals and have a need to understand why they are doing something. They need clear directions, practical tests, and objective exams.

Conversely, Intuitive (N) students are global learners and prefer to learn the theory or the main idea before learning details. They process information deductively. Intuitive types are quick to see alternatives and missing details. They like “what if” questions and value being innovative, original and theoretical. They prefer independence and autonomy in completing a task. Intuitive types like to use their own initiative, and find ‘drill and kill’ practice boring. Often Intuitive types start many projects but have a hard time finishing projects. It’s as if seeing a solution were satisfying enough. Repetition is usually unnecessary for Intuitives. Intuitive types do better on exams that focus on ideas not facts. They prefer open ended instruction and essay types of exams.

Contrast is seen in education between Sensors and Intuitive learners. Sensors will ask questions before starting a project because they want to get as much detail as possible before they begin. However, Intuitives often miss part of the directions because they started creating ideas after hearing the first part of an assignment. Providing written instructions or checklists can save frustration for the teacher. Because of the creative nature and global focus of the Intuitive type, Intuitive teachers often struggle to give concise instructions. However, they have many creative classroom assignments and methods of teaching.

The third dichotomous MBTI scale of Thinking (T) and Feeling (F) describes how we make decisions. This translates into the classroom as Thinking types preferring clarity, precision, truth and logic. Thinkers like information logically organized, outlines that state the objective first, logical criteria for assignments, and rapid feedback. Conversely, Feeling types prefer reduced competition. They enjoy topics focused on helping others, feedback showing care and appreciation. They value harmonious group projects and make good tutors and learn by helping others.

The last letter of the MBTI type refers to how people naturally approach life. Judging (J) types prefer structured plans, a precise and detailed syllabus, orderly instruction and adherence to a time line. However, Perceiving (P) types want to demonstrate their originality in their coursework and like autonomy. They are spontaneous and prefer to move and to be physically active. They crave new experiences.

Perceiving types often need artificial benchmarks before a real deadline, and need help with organizing. They prefer teachers who negotiate options. Schools tend to operate on a “Judging (J)” preference (e. g. schedules, due dates, grades, agendas, etc). It must be noted that J’s and P’s need different time management tools (Kise & Russell, 2007).

Kise and Russel (2007) developed a program incorporating typology into teaching styles for 6th grade language arts classes. Their research identified that students who were taught using MBTI type theory had 36% of the students with a grade of 95% or better and only 8% receiving F’s. Students not taught using type theory only had 9% of students with a grade of 95% or greater and 26% failed.

In reviewing the MBTI in respect to instruction using technology it was found that students who had success or satisfaction using technology based instruction were more often ISTJ. Students with higher goal oriented behavior (i. e. ENTJ) were more successful at distance learning courses (Rude-Parkins, Baugh, & Petrosko, 1993). INTJ high school teachers were more likely to be the first to learn to adapt technology into the classroom. However, they were not likely to promote others to use technology in the classroom (Rude-Parkins, Baugh, & Petrosko, 1993).

MBTI analysis in higher education reveals that while Judging types have higher grade point averages at the high school (Provost, 1985; Schurr & Ruble, 1986) and university level (Anchors, Robbins, & Gershman, 1989; Provost, 1985; Schurr & Ruble, 1986), Perceiving types will do as good (Provost, 1985) or better (Anchors, Robbins, & Gershman, 1989) on the Verbal and Quantitative SAT college entrance exams.

While in liberal arts colleges, Introverts and Judging types had the highest grade point average, the most likely to persist until graduation were ESTP and ESFP types (Anchors, Robbins, & Gershman, 1989), even though their grades were not the best. Extravert and Judging types were also found to persist in college and graduate (Provost, 1985). The reason these people persist in college is because their personality type lends them to being more active in organizations (E) and be more organized (J). Research indicates that students involved on campus are more likely to persist (Tinto, 1987; Astin, (1984).

The results on the type least likely to persist in college to graduation are mixed. ENFP's were found to be underrepresented in the graduating population (Anchors, Robbins, & Gershman, 1989). In another study the least likely to graduate were ISTP (1), ISFP (2), and ISFP (3). These personality types tend to be characterized as less organized (P) and passive (Provost, 1985).

MBTI and Educators

All sixteen types are represented among teachers but in different proportions at various levels and content areas. Extraverts and Introverts are equally represented at all levels of teaching (Lawrence, 1993: Rude-Parkins, Baugh, & Petrosko, 1993). Sensing and Judging types are predominant at all levels (Lawrence, 1993: Rude-Parkins, Baugh, & Petrosko, 1993). Feeling types are more predominant in teachers through high school with Thinking types the majority of educators at the college level (Lawrence, 1993: Rude-Parkins, Baugh, & Petrosko, 1993). The research suggests that the majority of teachers K-12 are Sensing-Feeling and Judging (SFJ) while the majority of university professors are ISTJ (introvert, sensing, thinking, judging).

In conclusion, knowledge of type can enable students to learn how to study most effectively, understand their weaknesses, and problem solve. Teachers can also use knowledge of type to develop lessons with a variety of approaches that will encompass all preferred learning styles to facilitate learning. For example, increasing the use of teaching techniques that engage the Extraverted and Sensing student could increase retention rates at universities.

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MBTI & Teaching & Learning Preferences

<p>Thinking</p> <p>Teacher's logical organization Objective material to study Depth and accuracy of content</p> <p><u>Need:</u> Truth Logic Principle Clarity Precision Unemotional</p> <p><u>Teaching:</u> Logically organized Outlines that state objective first Logical criteria Rapid feedback Smooth flow of material Feedback Show objective results & achievements Appreciates logically structured, efficient materials (IT)</p>	<p>Feeling</p> <p>Personal rapport with teacher Learning through personal relationships Personal connection to content</p> <p><u>Need:</u> Value judgments concerning people Relationship focused Reduced competition Respond personally Identify most important values</p> <p><u>Teaching:</u> Use F's as tutors – they learn by helping others Have topics focused on helping others Offer feedback showing care and appreciation Values harmonious group projects Likes listening Needs sensitive instructor (IF)</p>
<p>Judging</p> <p>Work in steady orderly way Formalized instruction Prescribed tasks Drive towards closure, completion</p> <p><u>Need:</u> Structured plans Objectives Closure: decisions made quickly Serious Accountable for actions Routine</p>	<p>Perceiving</p> <p>Work in flexible way Follow impulses Informal problem solving Discovery tasks Managing emerging problems</p> <p><u>Need:</u> Flexible: open to new experiences Many ideas and options Demonstrate originality Move and be physically active Spontaneity</p>

PEDAGOGICAL TECHNIQUES WITH THE MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR

<p><u>Teaching:</u> Precise & detailed syllabus Orderly instruction Follow time lines Reliable: Do and mean what you say Global or linear learner (NJ)</p>	<p><u>Teaching:</u> Negotiable options Need artificial benchmarks before real deadlines Likes autonomy May need help with organizing Global learner</p>
<p>J's need Milestones Completion Traditions Have persistence Ceremonies that have successful persistence Clear accountability Have standards judged</p>	<p>P's need Variety Novelty Change Structured classroom makes P's feel imprisoned Flexible classrooms Autonomy Real choice (NP especially) Choose own tasks May accept structure if have choices within the structure Spontaneous/free Follow curiosity</p>

Adapted from: Lawrence, G. (1993). *People types and tiger stripes* (3rd ed.). Gainesville, Florida: Center for Application of Psychological Type.

COOPERATIVE LEARNING/COLLABORATIVE LEARNING: FROM A CONVENTIONAL TO A CRITICAL COMPARISON

ALAIN BAUDRIT^{*}, RAY COOKE^{}**

ABSTRACT. Likened to group pedagogies and to collective activity in class, cooperative and collaborative learning are distinct entities in several respects: roles played by pupils, interactions and exchanges between them; control of groups by teacher; intended learning; how learners are made to feel responsible. This classical view gained by initial analysis of the two approaches requires some mitigation since deeper investigation reveals different scientific and socio-cultural bases for them. Both methods would seem complementary on the basis of new Israeli-American scientific collaboration. However, closer scrutiny is required to make a detailed comparison of their similarities and differences.

Key Words: Cooperative learning, collaborative learning, comparative analysis, scientific basis, socio-cultural origins

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Vergleich die Gruppe Lehrmethoden und der kollektiven Tätigkeit in der Klasse, kooperativen und kollaborativen Lernens sind unterteilt in mehrfacher Hinsicht: Rollen von Schülern, Interaktionen und der Austausch zwischen ihnen; Kontrolle der Gruppen durch den Lehrer, die das Lernen, wie die Lernenden zu spüren verantwortlich. Diese klassischen Blick durch das erste Analyse der beiden Ansätze erfordert einige Milderung seit tiefergehende Untersuchung zeigt verschiedene wissenschaftliche und soziokulturelle Grundlagen für sie. Beide Methoden ergänzen würde scheinen auf der Grundlage der neuen israelischen amerikanischen wissenschaftlichen Forschung. Allerdings engere Kontrolle erforderlich ist, um einen ausführlichen Vergleich ihrer Gemeinsamkeiten und Unterschiede.

Schlüsselwörter: Kooperatives Lernen, kollaboratives Lernen, vergleichende Analyse, wissenschaftliche Grundlage, soziale und kulturelle Herkunft

Cooperative learning and collaborative learning both require a particular structure: the group. Getting learners to work together, to discuss a particular point in the school curriculum, to develop social skills: none of this is especially innovative or original in the area of education. However, there is a common denominator which leads to some confusion and blurs the distinction between the two, especially since the terms ‘collaboration’ and ‘cooperation’ are close semantic partners referring frequently to a cooperative activity involving two or

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more people. For this reason, it is of interest to examine what these terms really mean, whether they are close or not, and whether they can be dissociated. Do they suppose the existence of similar or different types of interaction within the group? Can they be used indifferently by teachers? Do they provide the same level of benefit for learners? In fact, an in-depth analysis is required to clarify these issues and to better grasp two apparently similar learning modalities. This article therefore first analyzes what is understood in the literature by the terms “cooperative learning” (COOP) and “collaborative learning” (COLL).

Common understanding of definitions

COOP can be taken to be “a set of processes which help people interact together in order to accomplish a specific goal” (Panitz, 1999, p. 5). Two salient aspects emerge from this definition. First, using appropriate means, the aim is to get members of a group to work together and exchange points of view. Second, it is fairly clear what the orientation of the collective activity is. The group members are involved in a task or common project on which they work together. Other authors have underlined this aspect. For example, Johnson & Johnson (1990) consider COOP to be work undertaken within the framework of small groups where the participants share a common goal, so that the learning of each member is optimized. Briefly, the collective activity is supposed to lead to personal benefits, especially in terms of learning. The aim of COOP is to get learners to progress and improve their level at school.

Dillenbourg (1999) considers COLL in terms of the notions of *situation* and *interaction*. A situation may be considered collaborative from the moment participants of the same cognitive level and of equivalent status are capable of working together towards a common goal. The situation becomes interactive if the participants communicate in a regular manner, discuss issues, contrast their opinions, but without ever imposing their point of view. The emphasis is therefore on exchange between equals, on the justification of ideas put forward by the group members. Some authors have considered COLL to be more than just a simple technique among others to get collective activity on the move. Panitz (1999) holds it to be “a way of dealing with people which respects and highlights individual group members’ abilities and contributions” (*ibid.*, p. 3-4). In these conditions, COLL brings people together, makes them collectively responsible, thus contributing to the emergence of a community spirit. It is as if living together seems more important than working together. This idea was developed by Dewey (1938/1963) when he noted that there is in education a form of social enterprise in which everybody can participate and feel responsible. How may these opinions be judged today?

There would seem to be some points of convergence and divergence. Regarding the convergences, both COOP and COLL refer to situations of work where several individuals are involved in group activity. In both cases, the group

members have common goals and aim at collective production. However, there are divergences and the first concerns collective activity. In COOP, it appears more spontaneous than in COLL: the participants interact as they see fit. A form of equity is essential here since the participants see themselves as equal. Herein lies the secret of the dynamic of interaction. Moreover, the notion of *learning* is evoked within COOP.

Apparently, therefore, COLL and COOP resemble each other since they suppose activity undertaken by several people towards a common goal. In fact, the groups do not act in the same way in both. Pupils seem to have distinct roles and functions and their exchanges seem to take on different forms. Before studying these issues, a brief historical survey is required since this will enlighten a number of the questions raised until now. While there would seem to be two distinct orientations, they both have their scientific foundations rooted in schools of thought or supported by names famous for their work in the educational sciences. So where do COOP and COLL come from?

Origins

For Panitz (1999, p. 5), COOP is rooted in American research conducted by Lewin (1944) on the dynamics of group interaction and by Dewey (1927) in his work on learning of a social kind where reflection is collective. COLL can be placed in the British tradition where teachers get learners to take an active role in their learning. These points of view require some substantiation and a critical examination.

The American origin of COOP cannot be contested and is not limited to the two above-mentioned authors. Several American socio-psychologists were responsible for the incorporation of this methodology into educational practice. Johnson & Johnson (1974, 1975) and Slavin (1977) refer widely to the theory of social interdependence invented by Deutsch (1949, 1962). The latter demonstrated the differential effects of cooperation and competition on the relations between individuals. In general, cooperation intensifies exchange and is propitious to mutual aid, while competition promotes interindividual opposition. The theory also takes as a premise that social relations naturally involve conflict. However, cooperation may promote the constructive resolution of disagreement between two or more individuals, something that competition cannot do (Deutsch, 1969, 1973). Slavin (1977) called upon the competitive cooperation model of Deutsch (1949) to identify the combined consequences of cooperation and competition: "Mixtures of cooperative and competitive structures (...) appear to be the most promising avenue for producing positive effects both on academic achievement and on social connectedness" (Slavin, 1977, p. 647). So while cooperation promotes social relations between pupils, competition makes them achieve more highly since they are competing with each other. The latter point is far from resolved within the American scientific community and is discussed further in a publication devoted to COOP (Baudrit, 2005).

In the USA other socio-psychologists have had more or less of an impact on promoting COOP at school. Allport (1920) already spoke of social facilitation to designate the positive effect of the group on the people comprising it when they are faced with tasks involving word associations. Progress was improved within the group than by working alone. Later, the work of Sherif *et al.* (1961) on the construction of cabins went far beyond the realm of the social psychologists. They first asked a group of adolescents to build cabins separately. The groups were placed in a competitive situation, a setting supposed to stimulate their creativity and efficacy since the groups were rewarded according to the quality of their constructions. The outcome was that hostility was triggered between the groups and that within-group solidarity was created. The adolescents were critical of members of other groups and laudatory of those in their own group. Next, the same groups were called upon to undertake humanitarian action in which there was no spirit of competition. The aim was to provide assistance to underprivileged people. Bonds of friendship were created between group members, irrespective of the group to which they belonged. Cooperation reduced the social distance between the groups and also minimized the scope for possible conflicts between them (Sherif, 1967). It would seem, therefore, that the origins of COOP lie with these American social psychologists who were so well-known in the 20th century.

Where did COLL originate? The British origins to which Panitz points (1999, p. 5) require some discussion. According to Panitz, it is the proponents of the British educational system who really made COLL evolve since they were so attached to a form of education in which pupils were made to be active and to be collectively committed to their school work. Another interpretation comes from the American thinkers who were interested by this issue (Damon, 1984; Damon & Phelps, 1989). They saw COLL as originating from scientific experimentation in which collective work situations were analyzed in a specific manner. First, there was the Piagetian approach in the sense that Piaget considered such situations as encouraging “peers forced to “decentre” by taking the perspective of the other” (Damon, 1984, p. 333). They held that being confronted by a point of view that differs from one’s own leads to “a clash of ideas that triggers a need to reexamine, rework, and justify one’s understanding of the world” (Damon & Phelps, 1989, p. 143). This confrontation of ideas was especially studied by the social psychologists of Geneva under the term socio-cognitive conflict (SCC) (Perret-Clermont, 1980; Doise & Mugny, 1984). SCC was considered to play a disturbing role leading thereafter to intellectual reconstruction. In this way, individuals are led to reconsider their way of thinking and seeing things. However, in Piagetian terms, these cognitive benefits provided by group work were not the only ones to be gained from such a setting. Other social benefits such as social communication skills were also to be gained in this way (Damon, 1984, p. 333). In the USA several authors explored this pathway by conducting studies on reasoning activities and on the acquisition of notions of conservation in children (Silverman & Geiringer, 1973; Murray, 1974; Botvin & Murray, 1975; Miller & Brownell, 1975; Bearison, Magzamen & Filardo, 1986).

On the other hand, the Vygotskian perspective (Vygotski, 1962, 1978) also has an impact here. COLL takes some of its inspiration from Soviet psychology and from Americans who continued the Vygotskian tradition such as Wertsch (1981) and Rogoff & Wertsch (1984). This school of thought adopts the premise that “children can learn from peer encounters (...). In other words, children are introduced to new patterns of thought when they engage in dialogues with peers” (Damon, 1984, p. 333). Compared to individual activity, collective activity is extolled for its virtues. However, according to these thinkers, the situation is less one of a confrontation of ideas rather than a situation of exchange in which ideas are given and received. The underlying principle here is co-construction in that the pupils within the groups pool their respective knowledge. This notion of co-construction again comes to the fore in a third school of thought centred on the American psychiatrist Sullivan (1953) and thereafter by Youniss (1980). They believed that children “learn from one another not by copying or adopting the other’s competence (...), but by mutually devising plans together in a collaborative effort” (Damon, 1984, p. 334). Here the notions of mutuality and equity are closely related. Providing children see themselves as equals, reciprocal relationships between them become possible. Piaget was indeed a pioneer on this issue (1932/1965) since he clearly demonstrated the importance of mutual respect in the way moral judgment is shaped in children. These then are the tenets on which COLL is based.

While COOP originates from the very precise scientific domain of American social psychology where the focus is intra- and inter-group phenomena, the same is not true for COLL. The latter would seem to have sprung from European psychology, Soviet psychology and an American current of psychiatry. The first two are divergent on the basis of comparative studies performed on the work of Piaget and Vygotsky (Tudge & Rogoff, 1989; Garnier, Bednarz et Ulanovskaya, 1991; Brossard et Fijalkow, 1998). These authors would seem to be in opposition on several points: the relationship between thought and language, the question of egocentricity in children, and the role of intra- and inter-individual processes. This is testimony to the multiple and divergent origins of COLL. Seen in these terms, it is of little surprise that COOP and COLL would seem to have more differences than common points, as underlined by some of the abovementioned definitions and details. Let us look more closely at these aspects.

Similarities and differences

An initial point in common was identified by Matthews, Cooper, Davidson & Hawkes (1995). They held that both COOP and COLL differ from traditional pedagogy as is widely practiced in higher education in the sense that both promote the transfer of authority to the group, i.e. the collective structure that a group of students represents. However, this transfer is not apparent to the same degree in both. COOP offers the teacher the chance to “move from team to team, observe

interactions, listen to the conversations, and intervene when he feels it is appropriate” (*ibid.*, p. 36), while COLL does not promote this practice. In COLL, the teacher “does not actively monitor the groups and refers all substantive questions back to them to resolve” (*ibid.*, p. 36). In other words, authority is relatively fully delegated in the latter but this is only partial in the former.

This is not surprising in view of another issue to which Bruffee (1995) draws attention. This author defends the notion that the aim of primary school is to teach fundamental knowledge and inculcate socially accepted skills. This fundamental knowledge comprises grammar, math, historical facts and geography. Within this view, the teacher’s role cannot be neglected since he/she is the depository of skills and knowledge. In this setting, the functioning of the group and collective activity lies within his/her control, an apparent characteristic of COOP. On the other hand, higher education is an area where the focus is the development of a critical approach, not the search for fundamental knowledge. The aim here is “to address questions with dubious or ambiguous answers” (*ibid.*, p. 15). The need for memorization gives way here to reasoning and personal judgment, which implies that the teacher is not the centre of the learning process. COLL is more appropriate in such circumstances since it is more capable of getting groups to work autonomously and to promote free judgment. In this way, “collaborative learning is designed to pick up where cooperative learning leaves off” (*ibid.*, p. 16). In fact, Bruffee’s motto would seem to be the following: use COOP to inculcate fundamental knowledge at primary school, then progressively move towards forms of COLL to teach the non-fundamental skills as learners move towards university level.

The same idea is propounded in in-service education and training (ISET). ISET is thought of as “a coherent set of activities intended to deepen and broaden knowledge, attitudes, and skills which are directly connected with the profession of teaching in order to improve teachers’ professionalism and the effectiveness of their schools” (Van Tulder, Veenman & Sieben, 1988, p. 209). To achieve this goal, teachers are invited to compare their day-to-day practice in regular small group meetings in schools. This is a chance for them to find common solutions to problems and difficulties that they all may encounter. Here, cooperation is generally held to be helpful for effective group work, but it is only a “prerequisite to collaboration between professionals” (Henderson, 1992, p. 8). It is perceived as necessary but not sufficient ISET, since it is simply a means to an end, allowing teachers thereafter to exchange their points of view about their profession more extensively with a view to improving their practice. This viewpoint is to be found in Cooper & Boyd (1998) for whom ISET should not be limited only to workshops but should aim to structure the school around the notion of “collaborative learning communities” (*ibid.*, p. 61). Here again, COLL would seem to be an extension of COOP.

Another point deserving discussion is something that differentiates COOP and COLL. On the one hand, COOP “tends to be more structured in its approach to small-group instruction (...), and to advocate more training of students to function in groups” (Matthews *et al.*, 1995, p. 40). On the other, COLL is not subject to this requirement: “Students receive less instruction in group skills and roles and perform less structured reflection on group interaction” (*ibid.*, p. 40). What seems to characterize COOP is the fact that learners are encouraged to work collectively and activity is undertaken by several participants at the same time, whereas in COLL the learners organize themselves and are not particularly prepared for collective activity.

The notion of the structured group is well to the fore in the literature devoted to COOP and has two meanings. The first concerns preparatory activity or anything that helps to awaken “the senses of others” (Gillies & Ashman, 1996). Pupils are encouraged to help each other, to work together, and if necessary, to exchange information or explanations concerning the task in hand. Sometimes they share out roles and functions within the groups in order to carry out collective activity. Fuchs, Fuchs, Kazdan, Karns, Beth Calhoon, Hamlett & Hewlett (2000) observed that groups of pupils were structured when they performed third and fourth grade math exercises. They were seen to take the role of reader, monitor, controller and writer and to permute regularly within these four functions. The reader would read out the problem and the questions that had to be solved, and would help the group to find pertinent information for problem-solving. The monitor made sure the group was functioning correctly and checked whether certain colleagues needed help. The controller helped the group get past certain stages that led to solutions and checked on what the group members had written. Finally, the writer’s job was to write down the solutions worked out by the group and eventually to provide explanations for the solution.

The second structural aspect of COOP concerns the internal organization of the group. Each member has a precise role to play and occupies a specific place, even if individuals may change place on a roster basis. On the other hand, COLL does not have the same underpinnings and seems to involve a form of non-structuring of the group, in that the pupils are not in any way initiated in collective activity, nor is any form of organization either suggested or imposed.

The group structuring particular to COOP includes another feature: interdependence. In this regard, the efficacy of the group is taken to depend on various individual contributions and especially on their coordination, in the event of a common project being undertaken. This leads to close reciprocal links within the group. A typical COOP technique illustrates this: the jigsaw technique (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes & Snapp, 1978), which functions like a puzzle. A learning unit is divided into as many parts as there are learners. Each member then must learn his/her part so as to teach it to the others. In this way, the respective input of all the learners allows the unit to be studied exhaustively.

However, interdependence necessarily involves making individuals responsible here because each member has a share of the work to do. Any individual failing will automatically have consequences at the collective level (Johnson & Johnson, 1980). Such then are the roots of COOP.

COLL is based on other principles and indeed on opposing concepts. It is much less grounded in the structuring process inherent in COOP and “allow students more say in forming friendship and interest groups. Student talk is stressed as a means for working things out” (Panitz, 1999, p. 6). It is the very fact of being together with others and interacting with them, more than just the group structure, which is important here. COLL can be considered as an invitation to “create knowledge together” (Damon, 1984, p. 334). Exploration, exchange, the sharing of ideas, establishing a consensus: these are the attributes characterizing group activity within COLL, providing a certain form of equity exists within the group. In this regard, the group members must be considered as equals. Any ascendancy of one or some members in relation to the others will generate a leader/follower situation. COLL does not allow for any dissymmetry within the group, a condition which Dillenbourg (1999) considers as a prerequisite. Whether this is always the case is a matter requiring closer scrutiny.

Yet this issue is perhaps an even more pertinent one in COOP. In fact, another guiding principle at the heart of COOP is heterogeneity. Johnson & Johnson (1980) state the case for getting boys and girls of varying ability, social and cultural origin to work together. The argument is that this type of group will promote exchange and interaction between pupils. However, a bias may occur here in that this may represent the chance for the higher-level learners to establish a form of supremacy over the others. Furthermore, pupils from underprivileged backgrounds or belonging to ethnic minorities may find themselves marginalized in such a setting (Cohen, 1986, 1994), something which is clearly intolerable.

It may therefore be seen that both COOP and COLL are not without their drawbacks. In fact, it is probably by weighing up their pros and cons that one or the other may be chosen for group work in schools.

Pros and cons

Bruffee (1995) clearly throws light on the question of where the pros and cons of both methods lie. He states that “the major disadvantage of collaborative learning is that in nurturing the educational rewards to be gained from self-governed student peer relations, it sacrifices guaranteed accountability” (*ibid.*, p. 18). In other words, COLL makes groups independent but pupils are not made to feel responsible to the same degree and their level of involvement is certainly not the same. Moreover, since teachers have relatively little control of what is happening within COLL, they are largely unable to intervene in order to offset imbalances and reestablish equilibrium. COLL groups, therefore, would seem to run the risk of serious disequilibrium in terms of the investment of their members

in collective activity. Some pupils have the opportunity of making considerable investment in the work undertaken while for others the contrary is the case. Hence, there is little chance that all pupils will be equal in such a setting.

On the other hand, “the major disadvantage of cooperative learning is that in guaranteeing accountability, it risks maintaining authority relations within each small working group (...) that replicate the authority relations of traditional education” (Bruffee, 1995, p. 18). As we have already seen, COOP fosters responsibility within pupils thanks to the group structuring process. The teacher makes sure that a certain level of interdependence is respected by ensuring that the pupils share the task in hand and coordinate their efforts so as to achieve a common goal. In this way, they are made to feel responsible and in fact find it almost impossible not to get involved in the cooperative group. Yet groups tend to be heterogeneous, pupils coming from different backgrounds, ethnic or cultural minorities and especially from different performance levels. This may lead to relations of authority setting in within the group, one of the major drawbacks of COOP (Baudrit, 2005). How then can pupils of lesser ability keep up with the high-flyers? How can the latter be stopped from gaining ascendancy over the others? While equality of status is to be sought after, the issue is not to be seen in the same terms between COOP and COLL.

On one hand, the fuzziness of the autonomy inherent in COLL may lead pupils to assuming responsibilities disproportionately and to an unequal investment in group work, which goes against the principle of equity. On the other, the rigor associated with the heterogeneity in COOP leads them to adopt distinct social postures that may prove as detrimental to the group. The internal organization of groups seems in fact to preclude *de facto* any form of equity: in COLL achieving any equity seems improbable whereas in COOP it is impossible to achieve.

Even so, these shortcomings should not cloud the strong points of both approaches. Both get individuals working together with a view to achieving a common goal or project. Both place the emphasis on interaction and relationships between peers in the group, even though their forms of social coordination differ. The spontaneous and initially unstructured exchanges in COLL are reminiscent of types of social coordination where sharing is to the fore. Each group member provides his/her input or knowledge and therefore receives that of the others, with the result that this pooling helps the collective objective to progress. The organized and even preconceived relations inherent in COOP reflect a more “assembled” type of social coordination. Each member has his/her precise role to play, part to contribute, and the final achievement of the task or activity in hand depends on the joining up of the various individual contributions. For all these reasons, COOP and COLL would not seem appropriate for the same objectives or types of learning. While COLL is apparently suited to the reorganization of knowledge, the deepening of reasoning, the discovery of new ideas and to problem-solving where

several individuals contribute to a whole (Damon & Phelps, 1989, p. 152-153), COOP requires “computational skills and accurate model-copying abilities” (*ibid.*, p. 152). McCarthy & McMahon (1992, p. 26-27) give the example of four pupils who, after a visit to a natural history museum, are given the assignment of making a chart about animals’ habitats and how they adapt to their environment. The first gets the information together, the second finds the illustrations, the third writes the text and the fourth coordinates the whole process. What may happen in such a case is that the learners become specialized for various functions. Roles are assigned to the members of the cooperative group and they stick to them, a drawback that COLL does not have in view of its flexibility. The real issue here, however, is that the roles may undergo some dilution or concentration since the pupils organize themselves as they wish. Who therefore is participating and to what extent? Who is helping whom? The following table synthesizes the debate.

Distinct criteria	Cooperative learning (COOP)	Collaborative learning (COLL)
Exchange Interaction	Structured (Principle of interdependence)	Not structured (Sharing, pooling of knowledge)
Teacher control	High (Observation of groups)	Low (Autonomy of pupils)
Responsibility of pupils	Guaranteed by interdependence	Uncertain (Dependent on each pupil’s contribution)
Equity between pupils	Impossible (Group heterogeneity)	Improbable (Free organization of groups)
Roles played by pupils	Risk of specialization	Risk of dilution
Learning goals	Fundamental knowledge based on various school activities	Non-fundamental knowledge: critical spirit, reasoning, collective discovery.

Table 1: Cooperative learning and collaborative learning: a comparison

The table highlights aspects that a cursory glance at the two strategies fails to reveal. While there are apparent similarities between COLL and COOP, appearances may be deceiving. Pupils are grouped together in both of them around common projects, yet the interaction and organization is quite different. In fact, there are deeper issues that such a comparison reveals, especially cultural issues that have much significance in the debate.

...and the cultural dimension?

It should be remembered that COOP is grounded in American social psychology. Anglo-American notions of education are at present gaining much ground throughout the world, a tendency denounced by several authors as “Anglo-centrism” (Stromquist, 2000; Grüber, 2001; Laderrière, 2003; Nóvoa et Yariv-Mashal, 2003). In this view, the risk is that Anglo-centrism may begin to hold sway in regions of the world where traditions are quite different and where school populations are unaccustomed to working in this way. For example, it has made considerable headway in Israel over recent decades (Baudrit, 2005). What view may we take of this phenomenon?

At first sight it is suspect. For example, when competitive cooperation was applied in Mexican children, they adapted poorly to it and found it difficult to get their bearings (Kagan & Madsen, 1971; Kagan, 1980). This is understandable since their non-Western culture predisposes them more to mutual assistance than to competition (Whiting & Whiting, 1975). Yet the case of Israel is different since the manner in which COOP is implemented there allows children to interact autonomously, to organize themselves in a loosely structured way in the beginning. Furthermore, direct teacher intervention is rare and themes studied are of the exploratory type, i.e. history and culture of a country, ecological issues, etc. Such are the main characteristics of the group investigation method propounded by Sharan & Hertz-Lazarowitz (1980) and Sharan & Sharan (1992). In fact, this version of COOP is very similar to COLL and far removed from the American version.

Its promoters owe much to Dewey (1927) for a number of the ideas it contains: the classroom as a living space, the sharing of experience and collective thought. Yet there is more to it in that tradition is present in the form of the Zionist movement, which underpins the State of Israel. This movement, with its socio-Marxist foundations, symbolizes a new way of life, no more so than in the kibbutzim, i.e. agricultural communities where “kibbutz members were considered equal in the sense that individuals contributed to the collective all they could in terms of their work, and received from the collective all they needed” (Hertz-Lazarowitz & Zelniker, 1995, p. 269). The Israeli educational system is impregnated by this system in which the group is considered as a community of pupils whose vocation is to be a place of discussion and debate (Elboim-Dror, 1986). This is far removed from the American conceptions of COOP in which the group is a structured entity more or less controlled by the teacher, with specific roles assigned to the pupils. In addition, groups are sometimes placed in a competitive situation by the attribution of rewards.

In the case of Israel, therefore, the American methodology has not been borrowed directly without modifications, so much so that the term “collaborative learning” seems much more appropriate for the way groups of pupils function in Israel. In fact, several American and Israeli teams conduct combined research into COOP. For example, the Success For All (SFA) program aims to avoid relegating

pupils considered 'high-risk' to classes where special educational needs are catered for (Slavin, Madden, Dolan & Wasik, 1996; Hertz-Lazarowitz, Schaedel & Tov-Lee, 1999). In the USA, the program concerns Hispanic children faced with the hurdle of learning English, whereas in Israel it centres on both Jewish and Arab children learning English. Beyond the main aim of improving language skills in English, the objective is to bring together communities and ethnic groups in these countries. Slavin (1995) summarizes this aim as follows: "When students work in ethnically mixed cooperative-learning groups, they gain in cross-ethnic friendships" (*ibid.*, p. 633). As can be seen, the fundamental differences between the American and Israeli schools of thought in no way hinder their collaboration in the name of a higher cause.

Conclusion

Both COOP and COLL have different scientific foundations for the way they envisage group work and collective activity. They may be identified by a classical comparative approach, and examined point by point, as shown in the table. However, caution is required when attributing meaning to them, as is clear in the cultural and traditional influences that they undergo. For example, the American and Israeli forms of COOP are distinct entities. Furthermore, cultural differences between them are in no way a hurdle to collaboration between their major proponents. In fact, extensive analysis of both systems shows that this collaboration has led to improvements in how COOP is implemented in them (Baudrit, 2005). This is testimony to the complementarity between COOP and COLL, since the latter is very similar to the Israeli version of COOP. Classical comparison of COOP and COLL cannot reveal all their complexities, a tendency that is likely to increase in the future as the objects under study become more complex (Schriewer, 2003, p. 47). For this reason, we may speak of the existence of a critical comparatism from the moment the research world goes beyond an analysis of the mere characteristics of COOP and COLL. The historical and cultural underpinnings of both methods therefore cannot be excluded from this analysis.

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COOPERATIVE LEARNING/COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

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COOPERATIVE LEARNING/COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

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THE SOCIAL DETERMINATION OF THE UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM

ION ALBULESCU*

ABSTRACT. Any valid university curriculum proposes educational goals proper for the evolution of the society. The university education system is not separated from the real world but it is a kind of sub-system of the universal social system and is continuously under the pressure of the changes at the level of the macro-system. In the present paper we aimed at approaching the main coordinates of undertaking such a role, in the context of the evolution of the society at national or universal level. We also aimed at emphasizing the consequences of the principle of connecting the university education to the social, in the context created by applying the Strategy of Lisabona and the Bologna Process. The changes that have taken place during the last years in the Romanian society, together with the process of integration in supra-national structures generated the necessity for a profound reform of the university education system. Analyzing the general directions of reforming the Romanian University Curriculum we emphasized that such a reform does not imply only changes of structure, content, purpose, methods and means but also the change of the organizational culture at the level of which there are to be found the representations related to education.

1. University and Society

Having as an object the preparation of the students for accomplishing the different complex future social roles, the university re-defines its objectives depending on the desirable qualities which they will have to prove. The results of their educational efforts become real through personalities formed in such a way that they could meet the social exigencies of cultural, scientific, professional, moral-civic nature. Any valid university curriculum meets such forming exigencies, proposing educational objectives proper to the evolution of the society.

The profound changes of the contemporary society require new exigencies for the university educational system. Assuming the specific responsibilities of the youth generation, the university finds itself obliged to be forever adapting to the fast economic and social changes through curricular innovative projects. These changes have a great influence upon the role of the superior education system. Its main objectives are determined by the necessity of developing the human resources according to the increase of the conditions of life and of the expectancies. Thus, the Curriculum represents a collection of experiences and activities which can be seen as a means of adapting the students to the requirements of the adult life. The idea of preparing the students in accordance to the requirements of the society they live in, extremely important in the modern pedagogy, leads to initiating certain instructing-educative steps able to meet the present and future formative exigencies.

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The curricular projection in the perspective of an education that efficiently fulfills a social function implies a continuous re-adaptation of the objectives, of the contents and of the action strategies, as a surpassing or renewal of certain models or principles considered obsolete. Only this way a forming profile adapted to a world which is in a fast change may be promoted. Bringing into accord the education with the new requirements and, on the other hand, with the data offered by the new research in the sciences of education implies some much more exigent tasks than the ones of the past.

There is an interdependence relation between education and society: on one hand, education is seen as a process of socializing the students and on the other hand it is led by finalities and norms of social nature. The educational system does not work isolated from the real world; it is a subsystem of the social global system and is continuously under the pressure of changes of the macro-system. From society, seen as a supra-system, the education gets the input (the starting data): the purpose, the human, material and financial resources, sending afterwards the output (the final data) to the supra-system. The output represents the graduates prepared in accordance with the exigencies of the society.

For many of the problems that the society faces the universities expect viable solutions that can generate thinking and action models that may be extended in their general structure to numerous areas of the social activities. This way, the active role of these education institutions in the development of the society is emphasized. We may talk about three major coordinates of undertaking such a role:

- a. transmitting the cultural society inheritance to the new generation and forming the necessary capacities for its further enrichment;
- b. the professional forming of the specialists of different domains of activity;
- c. ensuring the scientific research which may lead to providing solutions to the problems that the society faces.

Any society has specific requirements towards the educational system, requirements which are related to important social functions: socializing the new generation and its preparation for future responsibilities in a concrete organization of work and of the social roles. That is why education is on the service of certain social finalities and not only of individual's finalities. One's proper development implies the difference and also the integration. A "differentiated" person is a competent one, has a strong character and personality. An integrated person is someone who belongs to a branch of relations, someone who accepts a place within a reciprocal responsibility-system and common senses. It is desirable for a person to develop to the maximum both the differentiation and the integrity (H. Gardner, M. Csikszentmihalyi, W. Damon, 2005). There is a tight correlation between the finalities of individual development and the ones of the social and professional integration. That is why the university curriculum must ensure an equilibrium between the individual forming interests and the social-economical ones.

During the university studies, the student interacts with the study field but he also relates to society through his aspirations and motivation that give him certain integration options. The interaction with the social determines a specific course of the respective aspirations and motivations, up to the orientation towards certain fields of the top of labor market. At the same time, the social factor is being influenced by the individual one, by stimulating the competition on the labor market and by bringing personal contribution to the application of the assessed information. Through the labor market, the social restructures the knowledge fields so that it influences the epistemologic area. In their turn, the fields of knowledge, and first of all the applied research, act upon the social by creating new professions and restructuring the others. All these interactions and influences must be taken into account in a proper projection of the university Curriculum.

The Curriculum expresses instructive intentions which reflect the requirements of the society towards the education system in a specific moment in time. The issue of setting the general objectives of the university education must be approached in the context of the evolutions registered at the level of society at the national or universal level. In this sense we may speak about:

- a. the evolution of the science: new scientific discoveries, scientific revolutions, methodological and interdisciplinary transfers, the appearance of certain new border-disciplines etc;
- b. the evolution of technology and especially the impact of computer science on the production activities, on urbanization, on family life, on life style, education and research;
- c. the evolution of the labor market: increasing the specialization, the role of the computer science, the development of the field of service, the migration of the work force;
- d. the evolution of culture and art: new tendencies and trends in the field of literature, philosophy, art etc;
- e. the increasing importance of the mass information means: the advantages of the fast and easy access to information, globalization of communication and also the dangers related to the control and manipulation of information or the problem of an education about mass-media;
- f. the universal problems of the contemporary world: the energetic resources, pollution, environment protection, economic gaps, democratization etc;
- g. the results of pedagogic research: contemporary society, affected by dynamism, interdependence and globalization requires high standards in regards to the selection and organization of the contents, interdisciplinary and trans-disciplinary learning, performance indicators, permanent learning, initial and in-service training etc.

Each university belongs to a specific society and it forms the students according to its specific. It transmits the students the general values and principles and the results of the scientific research, it develops specific competencies and desirable behaviors. The Curriculum is a kind of “translation” in the pedagogic language of the educational politics in regards to such a development.

More than any other component of the educational process, the Curriculum is on the area of meeting of certain complex socio-economic, politic, technologic and cultural factors. The transformations in the field of education are always the result of the social transformations and must be explained taking into account its factors. In this sense, the education is expected to answer coherently to the “challenges” of the social and economic structures.

2. Guid marks in elaborating the university Curriculum

The tendencies and the courses set by the curriculum reform the university education in Romania was implied in illustrate the efforts of renewal meant to provide a superior quality in students’ preparation. The innovative steps carry on under the idea of preparing the student for the needs of the society and in direct relation with them.

The process of elaboration of the university Curriculum must focus especially on the following main reference points:

- a. the report to nowadays dynamics and necessities and to the future finalities of the Romanian university education system, generated by the evolution of the society and included in all types of documents of educational policy (for example the Education Law);
- b. the report to nowadays tendencies and to international criteria accepted in the specific field of interest;

Receptive to requests, the university aims to assure the students a socially relevant preparation. The efforts of adaptation to the new situations due to the change of social environment led to deep alterations in the field of university education. If we are to define education as “the process of training for facing new situations in a positive way” (I. Neacșu, 1990, p.16), then a curriculum restructure is necessary as it should meet the complex economic-social transformations. In this sense, restructuring the educational process in all its spheres is focused on emphasizing the forming aspect so that the students should be prepared to prove functional competencies, adaptability, responsibility, initiative and creativity, characteristics that are considered essential in the development of their personality.

In time, understanding the aim of university suffered significant transformations which, generally speaking, enabled the passing from a mostly contemplative orientation of the educational step to one characterized by action. Thus the controversies related to this issue have not vanished, and the idea that university is only the place where the science and culture are broadcasted is still in discussion. From the beginning and to the contemporary world the university education was seen as serving especially values as truth, good, beautiful, what was happening at the level of society being ignored, in the name of the noble aim of promoting the science and the values of culture. In the contemporary world though, the idea of “University for Science” is being replaced by the idea of “University for Society”, in other words by the idea

that university education must be organized for social development. (N. Vințanu, 2001). Science, technique, economy, culture belong to society and the university education system can not prove its usefulness but by contributing to the spiritual and material development of the society. Everything that is favorable to this development must be part of its sphere of concerns. If the aim of University is stated only reported to the progress of knowledge and of science, it will remain isolated.

University became, from an institution of intellectual development, an "industry" capable of producing individuals able of being inserted immediately and efficiently in the social life. So, the projection of the Curriculum should begin from identifying the activities necessary for the society and from analyzing the competencies necessary for their efficient accomplishment. Consequently, the dominant tendency nowadays in the university pedagogical theory and practice is the orientation towards getting the education more pragmatic.

There are different theories related to the social reference points of the university curriculum which we may divide into the following categories:

- a. theories that aim at the process of change at the level of curriculum and describe the role of the different decisive factors, on sequences or stages;
- b. theories that analyze the influences on the curriculum, without being very preoccupied by its structural transformation.

The first class of theories may be met in many sociologic approaches of the curriculum. For example, L. D' Hainaut (1981) considers that its projection must begin from identifying the needs and the requests for education towards the university education. There are several types of education needs: the individual's needs in his private life and needs which refer to the realization of the economic and social issues. The needs directed to the realization of the purposes of the society suit the individual needs (becoming professional, integration in the society, access to the cultural inheritance). In D' Hainaut's opinion, at the base of the curriculum elaboration there are the beliefs in regards to what really exists and what is only desired. The deepest springs of education are the values and beliefs that are not isolated, but belong to cultural, moral, existential systems and their nature determines the nature of the individual and social necessities. So establishing the educational purposes is a major step in the curriculum projection which realizes depending on: the characteristics of the population (habits, traditions, interests, aspirations, civism, culture etc.), on the social results expected by the population from the education, on the values, ways of thinking, ways of living, on the characteristics of the social environment etc.

N. Postlethwaite (1973) speaks about the second class of theories. He identifies five sources of the curriculum:

- a. the individual who learns (wishes, expectancies, aspirations, motivation etc.);
- b. life outside the education institution (economic and social conditions);
- c. the results obtained in different fields of scientific research;
- d. advanced theories of the sciences of education;

- e. the philosophy of the education realized within the superior education institutions.

N. Postlethwaite emphasizes the importance of identifying the demands of modern life, the changes on the labor market even on social international level, transferring them to the level of achieving the knowledge and competencies necessary for practicing a job and for the adaptation of the individual to the social life. In this context, the Curriculum may be approached through decisions taken depending on the following parameters:

- a. the transfer of values from society to the individual;
- b. training for a profession;
- c. ensuring the personal satisfaction (social success).

The main source in the evaluation of the theory of Curriculum projection is the cultural inheritance, in its wide meaning, gained as a social experience. It assures the theoretical basis of the desirable curriculum model, which must be, by its structure, analogical to the structure of the social universal experience.

The principle of connecting the university Curriculum to the social supposes to provide a study program conceived in such a way that it should assure a proper social-professional insertion of the graduates. The application of this principle supposes a series of consequences (M. Singer, L. Sarivan, 2006):

- a. the projection of the Curriculum depending on the needs of the labor market: correlating the specializations to these needs, emphasizing the specialization on the fundamental elements of the respective field of knowledge, developing the competencies corresponding to the requests of the society;
- b. the projection of the Curriculum from a trans-disciplinary perspective necessary for a social-professional role in the contemporary world (relating the training to the reality as a whole);
- c. the organization of the Curriculum in a pragmatic way by valuing especially the elements of the field of knowledge corresponding to the actual social-professional requests and bringing up to date the Curriculum by introducing certain disciplines based on the social-professional feedback.

From the perspective of connecting to the social, the Curriculum development supposes cognitive and habitual inputs structured according to the requests of the social, the opening to the social functioning as an organizational criterion. It is about including in the Curriculum everything that is necessary for the student irrespective on his/her specialization: the technology of information and communication, disciplines that develop communication and relation competencies or the values management. On the other hand, the acquisition of the specialty competencies must go hand in hand with attitudes and values promoted in the respective field also at the social level.

The development of the Romanian university education is encouraged by the context of applying the Strategy of Lisabona and the Bologna Process. The Lisabona Strategy is an agreement of the European Governments signed on the occasion of the

European Council that met at Lisbon, in 2000, meant for harmonizing the economic and social politics at European level. As an answer to the challenge of globalization and of the information society, the European Union settled as a strategy aim that until 2010 it should become the most competitive and dynamic economy in the world, an economy based on knowledge, able of a lasting growth, generating new jobs and characterized by a greater social cohesion. Based on the proposals of the Committee, The European Board adopted in 2001 a *Report Regarding the Common Actual Future Aims of the National Systems of Education*, act which realized a coherent global approach of the national education politics, which have three main aims:

- a. of improving the systems of education and professional training;
- b. of making accessible to all the desirous the process of learning along the whole life;
- c. of making the education and professional training systems more accessible.

In two years after the Declaration of Lisbon, the European Council emphasized that the education represents the basis of the European social model and that the education systems in Europe must become, until 2010, international models of quality.

Within the discussions at European level (the Strategy of Lisbon, 2000) regarding the politics of social and economic unity they got to the conclusion that the role of Universities, as institutions of education that connect the professional preparation of the youth and the demands of the labor market becomes more and more important. The Bologna process emphasized the importance of accepting this role of Universities, proposing the creation of new European contexts for creating the criteria and standards for the academic and professional training to which all the European universities could report to. The elaboration of the programs pro-Bologna realized in accordance with the social-economic necessities, which is a guarantee for ensuring the quality of the superior education and for the intense cooperation of the universities with society. The measures foreseen by the process of Bologna regarding the creation of the European Field of Superior Education impose to Romania structural changes of profundity meant to make the superior national education compatible with the European one. The Declaration regarding the creation of the *European Field of Superior Education*, known especially by the name of *Declaration of Bologna* was signed on June 19, 1999, by the ministers responsible with education from 29 European countries and is adopted today by 40 states of the European area. The Process of Bologna, after *The Declaration* and determined by it has as a dead line for reaching the settled purposes, the year 2010. The next conference of the ministers of education took place at Prague, in May 2001 and on this occasion the number of purposes increased and the signer states re-affirmed the year 2010 as a dead line for creating the European Space of the Superior Education. In September 2003 the ministers responsible for superior education from 33 European states met at Berlin for analyzing the progress and for establishing the priorities for the new purposes.

The Bologna Process should not be understood as a solitary one or as an isolated approach of the ministers of education or of the rectors of the European universities. It is included in the new European ideology of pragmatic structure where the economic-social European inter-connected subsystems (including the education) respond to one-another to the specific needs. The European Committee made the challenge of a common European reference context (*European Qualifications Framework*, document meant for public debate in July 2005), which describe the levels of qualification reached both in the formal and in the non-formal, informal field of continuous training. Following this idea, each country will put together its qualifications with the levels recommended by the European context. If a university Curriculum offers a cognitive perspective upon the intended route of learning, a context of qualifications represents a social reference which place landmarks in the study with its specific restrictions. The former especially refers to a process with desirable exits, the latter takes into account the product expressed through learning results and it needs the identification of some certifications equivalent and acknowledged in a variety of systems integrated in a global economy, in order to be validated on the labor market. The Bologna process which aims to increase the efficiency of the national education systems is an opportunity for coherent developments in this respect.

The development of the European Field of Superior Education and of the one of Research is often justified through arguments from the worthiness field. (E. Cohen, 2005). Actually, the increase of the professional competence and of the qualifications, the consolidation of the innovation capacity and of the one of developing new activities, the improvement of the productivity and of the percentage of industry competition are only some of the purposes the achievement of which is possible through the development of a superior education more efficient. The development of the competencies necessary for a proper employment, for personal achievements of the highest possible level of qualification represents in a final analysis one of the essential missions of the superior education in the perspective of professional and social integration of the students.

At European level there are continual efforts for building an area of a functional university education within a society of knowledge and performance action. As concerns the Romanian team enabled to make decisions related to educational politics, the step is wholly undertaken with significant consequences on the system. S. Cristea (2005) identifies two types of major consequences of the Bologna Process:

- a. consequences of structure level, in other words, organizing the university studies on the three levels: license, master, doctorate;
- b. consequences which refer to what represents “the structure of a curriculum level”: purposes, contents, methodology, evaluation.

The purpose of the first university cycle (the license level) is the wide specialization of the students, the purpose of the second (the master level) is the

study thoroughly of academic type and of professional type and of the third one (the doctorate) is the peak specialization, which determine significant changes in the Curriculum. But for these change to achieve their goal there is necessary a coherent educational politics, structured depending on a series of factors which, inevitably, influence the university Curriculum.

The reform of university education is realized through politic mechanisms, at European and national level, but also through educational mechanisms. The directions of the reform set at European level have been established through the Bologna Process, as a result of the common decisions of the participant countries. At national level, the decision factors assumed these directions, which have been included in the educational politics. Reforms including the Curriculum field have been initiated in all the countries that took part in the Bologna Process, by organizing more flexible study programs, by implementing new technologies, by re-organizing the initial training programs, by organizing the students' study activities in such a way to emphasize the competencies development due to which the graduate will be easier integrated in the labor market. The opinion unanimously accepted is that the Bologna Process will reach its goal if it will be able to develop in accordance with the social, cultural and economic requests of the participant countries. (M. Singer, L. Sarivan, coord., 2006).

3. The educational policy and the university Curriculum

Any approach of the university Curriculum begins with the explanation of the relation between the individual, the education institution and society, which call for one or another educational curriculum. J. Dewey (1992) speaks about the harmonization of the education with the goals and values of society, sustaining a curriculum projection which may enable the forming of certain personalities who can bring their contribution to the development of the valuable social relations and not only integrate with some "niches" prepared and assessed by others.

An efficient educational policy as far as the university Curriculum is concerned is configured depending on:

- a. The conception about the actual and future development of society, respectively the strategy goals of the social-economic development and the prevailing system of values, interests or social and cultural needs.
- b. The conception about the scientific research and its development, the necessity of concordance between the contents transmitted on the school way and the new results of the scientific research, the presentation of knowledge both as a process and as a product.
- c. The prevailing pedagogic conception which nowadays foresees a university forming university education, mobile and flexible, with multiple availability for change, functional setting and adaptation to change. Such a model supposes a new and flexible ensemble of objectives and standards of performance which determine, in their turn, a new vision upon the projection

of the university education curriculum. In this context, the innovations hint especially at the achievement of the fundamental knowledge and of the professional competencies. Also, the superior education institutions will have to offer the students models of thinking and acting, techniques of intellectual work and of social insertion, adaptation models, option and decision capacities etc.

The process of planning, elaborating, implementing, developing, innovating the university curriculum is the result of the concerned people' representations, ideas, faith of any kind etc. For this, it suffers a series of influences, which give it a distinctive form and content from one country to another or from one academic community to another.

- a. The political influences. The political culture of one country surely influences the university curriculum. For example, the authoritative forms of government aim to a strong centralization of the educational policies, while the democratic ones tend to their decentralization.
- b. The economic influences. The mission of the universities is to prepare the youth for the economic demands. The structure and the necessities of an economic national system but not only of it, influence the curriculum even if not always these influences are easy to identify.
- c. The social and cultural influences. The values and standards that the social system promotes have a great contribution to the university Curriculum.
- d. The influences due to the ideas and educational current methods. In the organization of the system of education and in the structure of its content the involved people are being oriented by certain conjectures related to education. The outlook and habits developed in time create types of mental representations, paradigms that create psychological and institutional impediments in the way of innovation which are very difficult to remove. For example the idea that university education must be centralized or the conception that learning means assimilating information which leads to a form of curriculum as a logic assimilation of systematized information.

The curriculum always appears as a product of a choice. One conception about the curriculum or another are based on an image about a fair society and about the wellness of the individuals. That means that beyond the arguments that are being brought for sustaining a certain specific curriculum there is something more than the intention of developing certain intellectual, moral or civic qualities. Every curriculum project which is proposed carries a distinct social result: a conception about the knowledge, habits, attitudes and values that the students should assume in order to integrate in a specific social order.

The issue of the curriculum of university education is placed in the wide scheme of the educational policy. The educational policy represents that aggregate of theoretical and practical preoccupations which, beginning with the real data and resources of a specific community synthesizes the fundamental options of the society aiming the efficient forming of its members. Thus, three levels of projection and implementation of the curriculum can be identified:

THE SOCIAL DETERMINATION OF THE UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM

- a. level 1, having as correspondents the decisions of educational policy which are related to the options and priorities of the academic formation field and also to the available resources;
- b. level 2, where the great operational purposes are determined, purposes corresponding to the options and priorities of the educational policy;
- c. level 3, which regards the setting of the curriculum, the elaboration of certain programs which should include specific purposes, contents, methods and pedagogic means.

The projection of the university curriculum begins with looking for answers to a series of fundamental questions of the type: what, when, how and why we learn? These answers are being elaborated starting from basis of different nature:

- a. The philosophic basis which refers to the necessity that the exigencies towards education in accordance with culture, science, art, aspirations and social ideals should be reflected in the curriculum. It should include the finalities and the social functions of education, so that the students could become active and responsible members of the society they belong to.
- b. The psychological basis, which refers to the process of students' instruction and development, to their cognitive experience, to the possibilities and learning strategies, motivation and forming interests etc;
- c. The pedagogic basis which refers to the operation of selection and methodological processing of the contents taken over from different fields of science, the specification of the forming valences it must accomplish, the emphasize of the possibilities of applicability, the assurance of the flexibility of the contents, of their openness to whatever is new, their adaptation to the needs, interests and expectancies of the students, the assurance of a functional analogy between the didactic logics and the logics of the science that is being taught;
- d. The scientific basis which aims to the scientific knowledge included in the corresponding fields or disciplines. The methodology, the internal structure and the actual level of knowledge in different scientific disciplines and the interdisciplinary relations between them also bring a significant contribution to the configuration of the content of the curriculum.

These kinds of basis play a special role in all the phases of the elaboration and realization of the university curriculum.

The elaboration of the university curriculum should start from consistent and coherent ideas of educational policy which welcomes the major options and orientations as far as the economic, social and cultural orientation is concerned and where the general purposes of the superior education are concluded from. The main task of the pedagogues and of the teachers is to acknowledge and understand the intentions and will of the communities related to education policy, in order to stay faithful to the mission they had accepted. The identification of the needs and aspirations represents a starting point in the elaboration of the curriculum.

4. Conclusions

In order to determine the needs that the university education system faces, we should take into account both the individual and the social-economic system. Their diagnose allows the determination of the demand for education, of the functions that the education system should take on, which allows the making of the decisions of educational policy, especially in regards to the purposes, the content and the didactic technologies.

The social changes impose the systematic reevaluation of certain aspect regarding the curriculum, in its conceptual meaning and also in its essential process manifestations. No curriculum is impervious to change, on the contrary, "its natural state" is exactly the procesuality and the dynamics, the capacity of regeneration, as a result of detecting and finding a solution to its own disfunctions. The changes that the Romanian society faced lately together with the process of integration to supra-national structures generated the necessity of a profound reform of the university education system. The curriculum reform does not imply only change of structures, contents, purposes, methods and means, but also the change of the organization culture where the representations related to education are to be found. The organization culture represents a system of shared values and standards which interact with university structures, with the systems of evaluation and control. It may be defined as the specific ideologies, values, suppositions, faith, expectancies and attitudes which connect an academic community. The organizational culture specific to the university system of education stands for a set of solutions to the internal and external issues which it faces. While it develops, this culture gets ever more profound significance.

Due to the adhesion to the Declaration of Bologna, an ample process of reformation of the system of university education started in Romania in 2005. Through a series of legislative, administrative and managerial regulations, major changes of structural kind took place, having important consequences upon the Curriculum. For a proper curriculum development there should exist a coherent reference framework which could assure its stability and harmony. This reference framework is nothing else than a projection through which the principles and mechanisms of generating the curriculum are set, in the circumstances of a variety of interests, needs and constraints. In order to have success, the Bologna process needs a coherent legislative framework and a clear implementation methodology, in the lack of which there may appear interpretations which do not respect the initial intentions.

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TOWARD A NEW PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION CONCERNING GIFTED CHILDREN

GABRIELA KELEMEN*

Motto: *Human intellect has very little to do as to discoveries. A development of knowledge occurs called intuition or whatever you may choose to call it and the solution arises by itself and you do not know how and why discoveries were made this way.*

A. Einstein

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Immer mehr Spezialisten zeigen Interesse für die Problematik hochbegabten Kinder um sie zu identifizieren, die richtige Methode zu finden, um sie zu fördern und eine fachliche Basis zu schaffen. Hochbegabte Kinder benötigen eine differenzierte Herangehensweise wegen der Asynchronie in der persönlichen Entwicklung. Wir empfehlen spezielle Methoden und Verfahren angemessen zum pädagogischen Profil. Wir stellen fest, dass die postmoderne Gesellschaft eine solche Lernmethode unterschiedlich zu den traditionellen Methoden. Man spricht von einem permanenten Lernkonzept, ein Leben lang, wo die Information eine zentrale Rolle einnimmt.

Key words: Education, Competences, Excellence

1.1. Pedagogy of the gifted children

It has been necessary to note that more and more specialists are focusing their preoccupations upon the children with high potentialities, on their identification, on finding the most adequate methods for their development and the building of the legislative site in the field. This aspect is marked by the necessity of acknowledging individual differences and of respecting them, based on human rights: the gifted children need adequate educational opportunities so as to develop their vocational potential. Educational intervention for gifted schoolchildren finds its way among the preoccupation of official bodies accredited to deal with education and it has been noticed that an opinion has been built and special space has been allotted to excellence. Implemented at the level of educational policy, the

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regulations, well specified by the law¹, as concerns the problematic of high-potential children, are admirable. The development of special curricula, are an acute need of gifted schoolchildren, of the support curricula as well as for the devising of the methodological material for educators. The training for educators for the instructional/educational process with gifted schoolchildren is another essential necessity, they needing besides vocation, other competence. Changes should be brought about in the initial and continuing formation of teachers, such as the introduction of specialized courses of lectures for formation in this domain.² Applicative research is necessary, especially in the domain of identification and education of talents.

1.2. Human individuality

Ever since the beginnings of human civilization, schools have been concerned with factors which might influence man's formation as a personality, to the essential that he/she could develop his/her natural, biological potentialities. Aristotle, in his words "On memory and Remembrance", "On Feting and Sensitive Matters", "On dreams" takes the stand of an observer. John Locke³ in his book "Essays on the human intellect" states that human ideas originate in experience, and that complex ideas would result from the combination of the simple ones, being concerned with the way thought functions and describing the main operations of thought. Any individual, no matter who, represents a particular individuality consisting of a mixture of features bearing the mark of the genotypes and phenotype; alongside of the genetic inheritance, the socio-cultural milieu in which that individuality was formed represents a defining factor. The individual blends in a unique way, these features, which give him/her identity, defining him/her as an abstract and original person, as Allport stressed: "The organization of individual life is, first and last, and all the time, a chief factor of human nature".⁴ We can place people in typologies, but we should not forget that the uniqueness of the individual, of each person. Each person differs from the others. First we are different as to...them, each of us is unique, acquiring a certain originality by the fact that we were born on some particular social milieu and we have pursued some particular way in life, marked by, various influences. Within creation we identify the species, and within the species there is a vast diversity fact which individualities spring; a person is a unique and unrepeatable being. G.W.Allport noted that: "No door should be closed in the study of personality. Theoretically a part of what is hereditarily transmitted comes from the mother and a part comes from the father. So no two identical human being can exist

¹ The law concerning the education of gifted and high- performance capable young people was adopted on December 13, 2006.

² The first program Gifted Education in Romania, *EDUGATE*, The Romanian Consortium for the Education of Gifted and Talented Children and young people is welcome.

³ Lowe, E.J., (1995) *Lock on Human Understanding*, London, Rutledge Publishing Co.

⁴ Allport, (1991), *Personality structure and Development*, Editura Didactică și Pedagogică, București, p. 57.

or, more exactly, have the same potential for development, exception are the monozygotic twins, but even here some argumentation may exist. In order to understand the uniqueness of human personality we must consider that a man is:

- identical to the other as a species (human);
- like some others (socio-cultural group);
- unique as an unrepeatable and original individuality.

Each person is identical with the others by his /her mere belonging to the human race, has similar characteristics to the people in his/her social cultural group, for instance (she speaks some particular language (mother tongue) and yet he/she is unique, different from all others. He /she is different from the others by physical, psychical and moral features< some are tall, others are short, some are industrious, others are lazy, some are lovely, others are apathetic, sensitive and insensitive, geniuses and idiots. But all shall never be able to say that two children are identical because surely one differs from the other by specific features. In the some way children with high intellectual abilities differs from one others; one is preoccupied with physics, another one with mathematics, another one with the arts, and the examples could go on much more by ever subtle differentiations between groups and types of people. In this great diversity of the human species, we remark human excellence, those individuals who stand out from the large mass by talent, special abilities, high intellectual giftedness which is above the average and which requires particular attention from the community, the school, the deciding factors, so that there gifts coming from biological nature and heredity⁵ should find the most propitious founds for development at maximum capacity. The influence that society exerts upon individual is extremely great. Human personality is considered by some researches to recusant the socialized individual.⁶ The researches carried out by Malinovski and Margaret Mead⁷ have demonstrated that a most of the human conduct, described as categorical expression of the permanent human nature, is nothing but a product of culture. Sociological and anthropological literature distinguishes in personality formation two sets of variable besides the heredity factor: culture and society. Commonly the term of culture, relates to an object reality which includes values, beliefs, and views on the world, knowledge, laws, customs, the art and language. The term of society refers, rather, to institutions and the social relations implied by the activity within them. It is hard to separate culture from society as they underlie each other and act together upon the individual. Individuals adopt themselves to the society and culture each époque

⁵ Sir Fr. Galton, 1869, *Heredity genius* (in his study, Galton analyses the correlation between genealogical ancestry and actual performances of some eminent personalities in 20th century England).

⁶ Antonesei, Livia, *Paideia, Cultural foundations of education*. Ed. Polirom, Iasi, 1996.

⁷ Bronislaw Malinowski; *Malinowski Collected Works*, Volume I: *Malinowski Among the Magi. The Natives of Mailu!* Edited and with an Introduction by Michael W. Young; Margaret Mead, *Primitive Heritage: An Anthropological Anthology*, ed. with Nicholas Calas (1953), *The Scientific Theory of Culture* (1922).

develops. Durkheim⁸ has noted that the very physical environment of an individual is wholly cultured with relation to the society it belongs to. The individual interacts within a socially cultured spatial field. There are cultural models taken over by each historical period which mark the behavior of individuals. Following these cultural models somehow imposed on by society adaptation, the individuals standardize their behavior. Those who disobey these modals and social regulations, more out of normality are considered to be antisocial. This requires that society and its pertinent mechanisms should devise a coherent program for the education of gifted children, a system of education aimed at developing their exceptional capacities, with an impact on the acute needs for natural development and for the solution of social and cultural priority problems. The necessity for such initiatives is obvious these modern educational system being already implemented successfully in developed countries, their results being relevant in the contribution to the economic, technological and cultural development of the respective countries.

By education mainly, man passes from the state of purely biological existence to that of social existence. The basic function of education is that of conveying, selecting, being up and tuning to account social experience with a view to an efficient and rapid integration of the individual within society, and, thoroughly this to creating the premises for the self- determination of the individual as a social progress factor.⁹ If man were from birth endowed through heredity, with the potentialities of the adult, there would be no education; this would be the strong argument for education as an essential aspect in the shaping of human personality on towards the area of maximum potentiality.¹⁰ As concern the process of man's evolution as a social being, there is no difference between the child in a big metropolis and that born in a primitive tribe, as both of them have to learn everything starting from the genetic endorsement and going through the stages of epigenetic development¹¹. The result of man's formation is a predominantly social being is the result of man's spontaneous contact with various aspects of social life, but the most substantial part of knowledge is obtained by instruction in organized and systematic forms. The illustrious educator Jean Piaget has made important specification¹² as concern the relationship between instruction and formation. The role of education is not the result of more training; the school has to be conceived as a centre of real, practical, shared activities, such that the logical intelligence should shape up function of social action and change. Education as action is a finalist action, and the essential subject of the action are the educator and the learning individual, both involved in a system including many factors from the external

⁸ Durkheim, Emile, (1858-1917), is considered to be the father of sociology. One of his best known works is *Division of Labors*.

⁹ See M.Ionescu, *Education and Instruction*. Ed. University Press, Arad, 2005.

¹⁰ Vigotski, L. S. *Introduction of the paradigm proximal development zone, upholding that learning and developing represents social cooperative activities* (in *Social Constructivism, Selected Psychology Wholes EDP*, Bucuresti).

¹¹ Piaget, Jean, Inhelder, Babel, *Child Psychology*, Cartier, Chisineu, 2005.

¹² Jean Piaget, *Ou va l'education*, Daniel/Ghauter, Paris, 1978.

milieu.¹³ Within psychic development and adult personality formation, learning holds a central part because by learning the individual acquires new behavior. The abilities and skills up to knowledge and intellectual operators all are acquired through learning. Learning is the process of obtaining behavioral intellectual experience¹⁴ this means assimilation of information and, even more, the formation of thought, of the affective sphere, of will, that is, the formation of personality system. Given the importance of learning, the other psychic processes and activities are involved in the process on one hand, and, on the other hand, they themselves are built and structured through the act of learning. So, one can say that learning enrolls the entire psychic system and has a generative, formative and constructive role towards it, being especially socially oriented by a precise goal- the educational ideal. Education of gifted children implies the concept of differential instruction, a concept relating to the educational ideal. As a finality of education the educational ideal expresses the requirements and aspirations of a society in a given historical stage under the form of a desirable model of human personality, but, the educational ideal is a credo. Authentic man enrolling personality does not act before understanding and believing in something. Belief directed towards a goal now he/she spirit organizes the forces, lead in front of unforeseen. Pedagogical literature¹⁵ mentioned that there have been two orientations in the history of pedagogical thought:

a) the one according to which man must be somebody, known as “Socratic tradition” upheld by Comenius¹⁶ and his followers, which underlines the fact that the formation of personality is the essence of education, the quality of man being precious in itself and influencing everything he does;

b) An opposing orientation known as the “Platonist tradition” oriented towards preparation for life, the individual's life being nothing else but the totality of effects coming for good training. The ideal solution, as many authors opinion, is that a pedagogy which should combine the social imperative with the individual's needs. Education and development are synonyms and experience is the foundation of educational proposes.¹⁷

The main principle of education is to make people continue their education by themselves; the objectives pursued represent the expression of the need of the social group of reference. Dewey draws attention to the necessity distinction between goal (foresight of people finalization) and result (any manifestation of energy resulting in a spatial redistribution of the elements of precious reality; he establishes the criteria for defining the positive goals (overcoming existing condition, foundation of the resources and difficulties of the situation, flexibility function of circumstances) and he insists on matching the goals and the explicit and latent needs of the individual and the reference social group.

¹³ Ionescu, M., Chis, V., *Teaching and learning strategies*, Ed. Stiintifica, Bucuresti, 1992

¹⁴ Norton, W.W., (1997, August). *The life cycle completed* (www document).

¹⁵ Suchodonski, B., (NO YEAR), *Pedagogical and the great philosophical currents*, EDP, Bucuresti.

¹⁶ Comenius (Komensky), A., 1921. *Didactica Magna*. Ed. Romania noua. Bucuresti.

¹⁷ Dewey, J., *Democracy and education*, EDP, Bucuresti, 1972.

1.4. *The postmodern school*

One of the challenges already launched in contemporary society is the necessity of rethinking school formal education, together with the non-formal and informal ones, and their various forms of articulation.¹⁸ As a subsystem of the macro system of education, the school system, through its educational offer, contributes to the structuring of the courses of (self) formation and (self) development of the gifted individual's personality, preparing him/her to be a precious beneficiary of continuing education. Emil Paun¹⁹ made an extremely pertinent observation concerning the fact that contemporary school is still in the age of modernism, and that the postmodernist influences are still very slight in education practice, even if more and more often theoretical indications are felt to be interested in postmodernist orientations. The term modern is used in education mainly to reveal the advanced situation of the present with relation to the past, which has been overcome by development, and modernity is opposed to the traditional practices and is characterized by changes, innovation and dynamism. In 1987, S., Lash²⁰ launched the proposal to understand the term "modern" not as modernity but in the semantic context of modernism. Modernity has presented mainly been inaugurated in the 16th -17th centuries, modernism is conceptualized as "something new" as a change of paradigm first in the arts, beginning with the end of the 19th century. The term "postmodernism" first appeared in 1870 in an artistic context when the English painter John Ruskin used the phrase "postmodernist painting" to denote the European plastic phenomenon after impressionist painting. Towards the middle of the 20th century the term acquired a spectacular evolution spreading to various domains, establishing a new stage of history. Postmodernism is not only a philosophical movement, it can be also found in architecture, in graphics, in the art of dancing, in music, in literary art and theory. As a philosophical trend it has its roots in the words of precursors: Frederick Nietzsche, Martin Heidegger and Georg Simmel, to be conserved in the 20th century in the words of Jean-Francois Lyotard²¹, Jacques Derride, Michel Foucault, Jean Beauchillard and Richard Rorty²². Postmodernism criticizes the foundations of traditional philosophy, the renunciation of foundations. It shows skepticism concerning traditional values.²³ For postmodernism knowledge is no longer eternal and universal, it is the product of an interaction of our

¹⁸ Chis, Vasile, *Contemporary pedagogy, pedagogy for competences*, Ed. Casa Cartii de Stiinta, Cluj-Napoca, 2005.

¹⁹ Paun, Emil, *A reading of education through the postmodernist grid*, in E., Paun, D., Potolea, (Coord.), *Pedagogy Theoretical foundations and applicative*, Ed. Polirom, Iasi, 2002.

²⁰ S., Lash, *Reflexive modernization. Politics tradition and aesthetic in the modern arias*, Polity Press, Cambridge, 1994, p.25-44.

²¹ Jean-Francois Lyotard, *The Postmodern Condition*, trans. Geoff Bennington, Brian Massumi (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1984/1979).

²² Richard Rorty, *Postmodernist Bourgeois Liberalism*, in *Hermeneutics and Praxis*, ed. Robert Hollinger (Notre Dame, Indiana: University of Notre Dame Press, 1985).

²³ G., Vattimo, *The end of Modernity*, Ed. Pontica, Constanta, 1993.

concepts, ideas, and experiences of the world and life. Postmodernism rejects rigid forms, valorizing reflexivity, spontaneity and decentralization; it is concerned with organizing knowledge. In modern society knowledge it was the only way people could be called educated. In postmodernism society knowledge becomes pragmatic, functional, and useful, people learn not only to “know” and accumulate most information in most varied domain. Competences become necessary to apply the knowledge accumulated in everyday life: theoretical knowledge must be used productively; you must know how “to be”.²⁴ The desiderata of postmodernism education aim at stimulating genetic inheritance through the influence to the social milieu and have we underline the importance of school as a constructive factor of the social milieu for the optimum continue development of children. In a postmodern society a postmodern pedagogy is also necessary with multicultural valences in a context of social globalization. A science of postmodern education will establish the agents of knowledge and the beneficiaries in democratic positions, of full mutual respect. The process of education should aim at educational progress by differentiation and not by standardization, so that by education and instruction each individuality, each human excellence, should enjoy a differentiated treatment, which should lead to the development of the person’s own personality on towards optimum performances.²⁵

1.5. Continuing education

Another concept used by the new philosophy of education is that of continuing education²⁶, a concept identified some centuries before and visited by many specialists and addressed by projects up to UNESCO level. According to the Institute of Continuing Education of the above mentioned body, education represents an aggregate of means placed at the disposal of people of any age, sex and social and professional condition so that should never stop forming themselves all along their lives, for the full development of their faculties and efficient participation in the progress of the society.²⁷ Visions authors have contributed ideas which underline the dimension of implication the continuing education phenomena; insertion into the real not just a training for active and responsible existence²⁸ probability for the individual to become “as much as possible” his/her own subject and instrument of his/her development through the various forms of self instruction projects in the field of education²⁹.

²⁴ E.,Fauve, *Learning to be*, EDP, Bucuresti,1971.

²⁵ Radu, I, T., *Differentiated Education. Concepts and Strategies*.Ed. Academica. Bucuresti, 1978.

²⁶ Jinga,I.,*Continuing education*, Ed. Enciclopedica, Bucuresti, 1979.

²⁷ www.irdo.ro

²⁸ Rene, Maheu, www.biblioteca.ase.ro/downres.php?tc=1267

²⁹ Jacque Delors, *The inner treasure*. Raport for UNESCO of the Instrumenta Commision for Education in the 21th Century. Ed. Polirom, Iasi, 2000.

In the new information technologies play an ever more important part in the information projects in the field of education. Considering that the individual will be able to continue his/her development all life long, the purpose of continuing education is to cultivate the attitude towards change, the desire to be continually open and to accept change. The concept of continue education also draws attention to the fact the educational influences must concern the wholeness of the human person. Integrated continuing education is there for invoked the term “integrated” designating on the one hand integration of all instances and forms of education at various level (preschool education, school education, adult education), and on the other hand “integration” is a unitary system of all social forms of education (formal, non-formal, informal). Continuing education thus means an integrating process including all educational influences into a coherent and convergent system, upon the individual in varied and specific forms-throughout his/her life. So, continuing education must be understood rather as a principle for organizing education, having a paradigmatic character for organizing contemporary education. The computers have come to the service of continuing educations program. Besides the notion of continuing education more and more frequently there appear the notion of knowledge based society and e-learning. In concept of learning-based society is the present motto for the endeavor of limitless learning. Classical education is costly, had to line up with the rhythm of practical life as to level of approach, getting absolvent more and more quickly alternatives being welcome and educators by correct guiding can facilitate programs for accumulating instruction for high performance capacity children, indicating opportunities offered by the e-learning phenomenon.

1.6. Making learning permanent

The last two centuries have witnessed the assertion of a perennial human desideration witch has turned into a life principle: everything for man, orientation towards the client, quality management. In learning relations where each of the partners in the learning process is a client with relation to the others, one of the way of improving the quality of the learning act is e-learning, which fully needs the requirements of adaptive, the learning process to the client, in our case the client being the high potentiality person. The eternal philosophical dispute concerning the role of the individual and the goal of life finds its representation in present consumer society, a new orientation which relates to hedonism, as against the previous generations, which related to aspects strictly linked to duty. The share of those who are primarily interested in comfort, aesthetics pleasure, as buyers/consumers has been increasing over the last decades and has been very apparent in present adolescents. Pedagogy has always upheld that learning requires sustained effort, sacrifice, elements now paradoxically outdated if we observe behavior and attitude of the younger generation. The e-learning phenomenon proposes formulas which are quite comfortable for those interested in learning. The absence of contact with

the teacher/instructor, the absence of the group activities and generally the virtual character of the many satiations considered by the classical pedagogy as being basic for the development of the learning person, and there for subject to criticism, are key points for e-learning. For persons with exceptional intellectual gifts, on-line tutorials are an alternative differentiated education, perfectly adapted to the person's own interests. Equal opportunity as an expression of the right to learning, invoked in every social space, presupposes not only providing a formal framework for access to learning, but also of conditions for real learning chances granted to each individual. The e-learning formula is unanimously considered to be a solution to this desideratum.

1.7. Integration and competence

An important trend in contemporary pedagogical thought and resulting practice is founded upon the basic concept of integration and competence.

-a first aspect can be revealed by the paradigm of educational competences reflected in the following objective to ensure genuine demarcation of school, to offer to each school child equal opportunities to be educated, instructed, formed, according to his/her own psychological potential, to aspire besides the equal opportunities offered, towards equal success opportunities, to direct each child towards the optimum development of his/her inborn potential;

-an integrative education can pursue new pedagogical orientations. A new education program is needed which should approach knowledge inter; intra; multi; pluri- disciplinarily, without dissipating it, aiming at globalizing teaching. Knowledge must be integrated by means of pedagogy of competence in which functional and structural activities are entertaining³⁰. Pedagogy based on objectives had its own role in the sense of distributing them towards a concrete finality. The child was supposed to know something at the end of an acting, a unit of learning, a school year, or an educational cycle. We must highly emphasize an important aspect: the risk arises of coming into possession of a number of "savoir-faire" (abilities) all very important, but isolated, not constituting an integrated aggregate which should allow the educatee to cope with a real situation efficiently.

The concept of competence has been defined as the capacity of a person to meet the requirement in a particular domain.³¹ So, a competence exists only in the presence of a determining situation, by integration of various capacities, consisting in their term of knowledge and abilities (savoir-faire). An efficient learning manifests itself through cognitive productivity and creativity only if based on the potential qualities of the pupils.

³⁰ Chis, V., *Contemporary pedagogy. Pedagogy of competence*, Ed. Casa Cartii de Stiinta, Cluj-Napoca, 2005.

³¹ Horst Schaub, Karl, Z., Zene. Dictionary of Pedagogy, Ed. Polirom, Iasi, 2001, p.42.

1.8. Special education for gifted children

High ability children, owing to the configuration of their personality (asynchronous development), form a category which should be protected by specific educational measures, a fact reflected by the European legislation in the domain³²; they require the increases attention of the pedagogical society for their integration in a coherent educational system. The absence of an adequate framework for their outstanding endowment may lead, on one hand, to the loss of their high creative potential and, on the other hand, the risk exists for alienation to act in, the risk of failure and school abandon as well as the adequate study condition, which should allow them to turn to account their capacities, for their own interest, and for that of the society. Wasting away talents means wasting away human resources by failure to identify, in time, intellectual potentialities. Current legislation³³ considers nevertheless this category of children with special needs and at least at the level of expression, promotes and supports human excellence and talent in various domain of manifestation: science, the art, management, leadership. A critical component of this program is the formation of specialists in gifted education. In the context of accession to the European Union, the development of the educational system has become a natural priority, and within this program, each competence, value, and talent will be encouraged to the economic and social progress. In the tradition before now the training of young people capable of performances did not have, generally, an organized character, being stimulated as a rule, during school contests by disciplines. The need for the functioning of an organism which should offer those children qualified assistance, better focused on the children's abilities and instruction needs, and promoting methodological instruments for detecting genuine values and for stimulating specific creativity has become an imperative of the field order³⁴.

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³² Recommendation of European Council for High Ability – ECHA, Olanda 1991.

³³ *European Council, Answer of the Committee of Minister, December, 2004.*

³⁴ The law concerning the education of gifted and performance capable young pupils was adopted on December, 13, 2007.

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L'OPINION DES ENSEIGNANTS ROUMAINS SUR L'EDUCATION INTERCULTURELLE

LILIANA CIASCAI, IULIANA MARCHIȘ

ABSTRACT. The critics addressed to the traditional education, which is considered mono-cultural, are from ethical, psychological and pedagogical point of view. On the other hand, the intercultural education is considered to be a good one. In spite of these conclusions made by professionals, in a survey Romanian teachers admit, that their intercultural knowledge, competencies and experiences are very limited and with low quality. Moreover, most of the questioned teachers think, that only few subjects, as foreign languages, History and Geography, are important for intercultural education. In conclusion, this survey has stressed out, that Romanian teachers have a limited perspective on intercultural education; and this has to be changed.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die traditionelle, als monokulturell betrachtete, Erziehung, wurde aus ethischen, psychologischen und pädagogischen Gründen kritisiert. Im Gegenteil, die interkulturelle Edukation, ist als richtige erkannt. Trotz der Meinungen der Sachverständigen, die meisten rumänische Lehrer haben zugegeben, dass ihre interkulturelle Erfahrungen und Kompetenz eingeschränkt und schlechter Qualität sind. Dazu kommt noch, dass die meisten ausgefragten Pädagogen glauben dass nur bestimmten Unterrichtsbereiche für die interkulturelle Ausbildung wichtig wären, wie zum Beispiel: Fremdsprachen, Geschichte und Geographie. Die Mehrheit der Lehrer finden Internet wichtig für die Vermittlung der interkulturellen Edukation. Zum Schluss kann man feststellen, dass die rumänische Lehrer eine begrenzte Raumsicht über die interkulturelle Erziehung haben und dass diese falsche Perspektive geändert werden soll.

1. Argument

La préoccupation pour l'éducation interculturelle occupe une place importante dans les politiques européennes (et pas seulement) des dernières années. Membre de la Communauté Européenne, la Roumanie doit faire des efforts pour respecter les politiques éducatives des organismes européennes et mondiaux. En conséquence, l'éducation des groupes minoritaires est considérée une priorité de la politique éducative. Au même temps, des thèmes et des contenus riches en valeurs interculturelles ont été introduits dans tous les programmes de formation et dans les manuels scolaires et font l'objet d'étude à tous les niveaux scolaires non universitaires.

Etant donnée la composition ethnique de la population, l'éducation interculturelle représente une nécessité pour l'enseignement roumain à cause de la demande sociale, de l'inégalité des chances des groupes ethniques en ce qui concerne l'accès à l'éducation et la participation à la vie sociale.

Une condition éducative importante pour réaliser avec succès l'éducation interculturelle est la qualité de la formation des enseignants. Malheureusement, dans la majorité des universités roumaines le curriculum de formation ne propose aucun cours obligatoire sur l'éducation interculturelle. Les futurs éducateurs n'ont pas la chance de bénéficier d'une telle préparation.

Dans cet article nous nous proposons de présenter les opinions d'un échantillon des enseignants roumains sur l'éducation interculturelle. L'article est structuré dans trois parties: le cadre théorique, la description de la recherche et les résultats concernant les opinions des enseignants sur la pratique dans le domaine de l'éducation interculturelle.

2. Cadre théorique

Selon Dorner, Pillet & Rojas (Barry & Lechner, 1995) le concept de l'éducation interculturelle a évolué pendant la dernière vingtaine d'années. Au départ, l'accent était mis sur les droits et les besoins spéciaux des minorités. Jusqu'à aujourd'hui le concept a évolué et sa sphère de préoccupation inclue la diversité culturelle, l'égalité des chances et l'interdépendance. On peut exemplifier ces affirmations en citant des opinions des autres chercheurs:

«... On peut appeler interculturelle l'éducation qui vise à former des personnes capables d'apprécier les diverses cultures qui se côtoient dans une société multiculturelle, et donc d'accepter d'évoluer au contact de ces cultures pour que cette diversité devienne un élément positif, enrichissant de la vie culturelle, sociale et économique du milieu.»
Comité sur l'école québécoise et les communautés culturelles (1985),

«L'éducation interculturelle désigne tout effort systématique visant à développer chez les membres des groupes majoritaires comme chez ceux des groupes minoritaires:

- a) une meilleure connaissance de la situation de la culture dans les sociétés modernes;
- b) une plus grande capacité de communiquer entre personnes de différentes cultures;
- c) des attitudes mieux adaptées au contexte de la diversité des cultures et des groupes dans une société donnée, grâce en particulier à une meilleure compréhension des mécanismes psychosociaux et des facteurs sociopolitiques susceptibles d'engendrer l'hétérophobie et le racisme;
- d) une meilleure capacité de participer à l'interaction sociale, créatrice d'identités et de commune humanité.» Ouellet (1991, p. 29-30).

Batelaan présente sa vision sur l'éducation interculturelle. Après Batelaan l'expression «éducation interculturelle» recouvre deux caractéristiques de l'éducation: a) l'inclusion et la participation; b) apprendre à vivre ensemble.

Moldoveanu & Dumitriu (2005) définirent l'éducation interculturelle comme «une ouverture nécessaire vers l'autre, surtout dans le nouveau contexte de mondialisation et, spécifiquement pour le contexte européen ... Le concept d'éducation interculturelle recouvre:

- l'ouverture vers le dialogue culturel entre les différents groupes ethniques;
- le principe d'équité et de justice sociale au sens de l'égalité des chances en éducation et dans la participation à la vie de la société;
- le principe d'harmonie et de cohésion sociale au sens qu'un dialogue compréhensif engendra certainement une détente des relations interethniques la ou il y a encore des conflits apparents ou latents.»

Etant données les considérations présentées, quelles sont les directions d'action dans le domaine de la formation des enseignants?

Barry & Lechner (1995) considèrent que «les enseignants doivent avoir les connaissances adéquates sur les diverses cultures et sur les manières d'interagir avec les élèves et les parents qui ne possèdent pas le même background culturel».

Ouellet distingue cinq grands axes dans les thématiques théoriques dont les enseignants doivent avoir une compréhension minimale pour être en mesure d'actionner efficacement:

- culture, ethnicité et identité dans le contexte de la modernité et de la «postmodernité»; le relativisme culturel et la nécessité de le dépasser;
- les obstacles aux relations interculturelles: préjugés, discrimination, hétérophobie, racisme; l'antiracisme et ses problèmes;
- l'égalité des chances, la dynamique de l'exclusion et de la marginalisation, le cercle vicieux de la culpabilisation - victimisation, les mesures d'accès à l'égalité et les effets pervers de ces mesures;
- nation, communauté, État; nationalisme, libéralisme, démocratie pluraliste, citoyenneté ; éducation civique, éducation à la démocratie;
- modèles d'insertion des immigrants dans une société pluriethnique moderne: assimilation, multiculturalisme, intégration pluraliste; politiques concernant l'immigration et l'intégration des immigrants dans quelques pays occidentaux et au Québec.

3. La description de la recherche et des résultats

La recherche, réalisée entre février et mars 2007, s'est proposé d'analyser les opinions des enseignants sur l'éducation interculturelle. La structure de l'échantillon a été la suivante:

- Le sexe: 57 femmes / 12 hommes;

- L'âge: la distribution des enseignants en prenant en considération leur âge est présentée dans la figure no. 1:

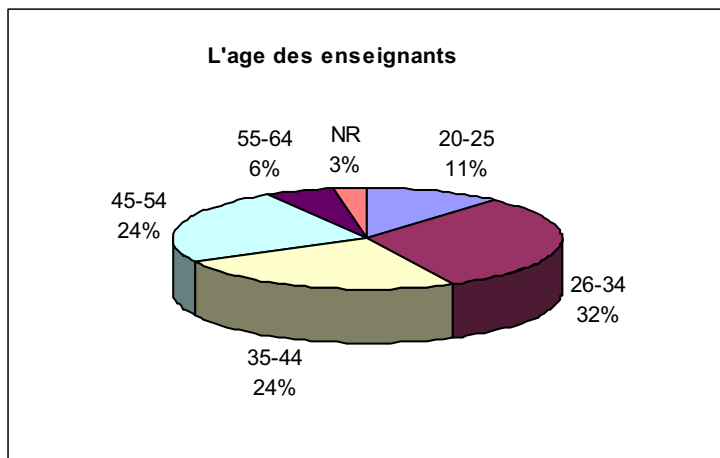


Figure 1. La structure de l'échantillon des enseignants en considérant les groupes de leur âge

- La nationalité: 42 roumains, 26 hongrois;
- L'expérience professionnelle:

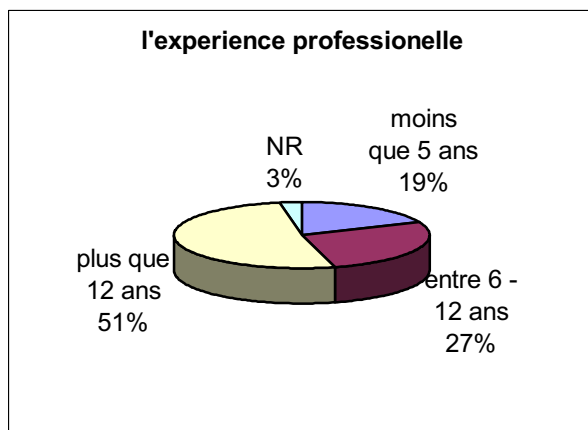


Figure 2. L'expérience professionnelle des enseignants

- La discipline enseignée ou le niveau d'enseignement:
 - La langue maternelle (le roumain ou l'hongrois) – 24 enseignants;
 - La physique – 15 enseignants;
 - L'école maternelle – 9 enseignants;
 - Le niveau primaire – 6 enseignants;
 - L'histoire – 5 enseignants;
 - La géographie – 2 enseignants;

La science - 1 enseignants;
Autres réponses – 3 enseignants;
Non répondu - 5 enseignants.

Le niveau d'enseignement est détaillé dans la figure 3:

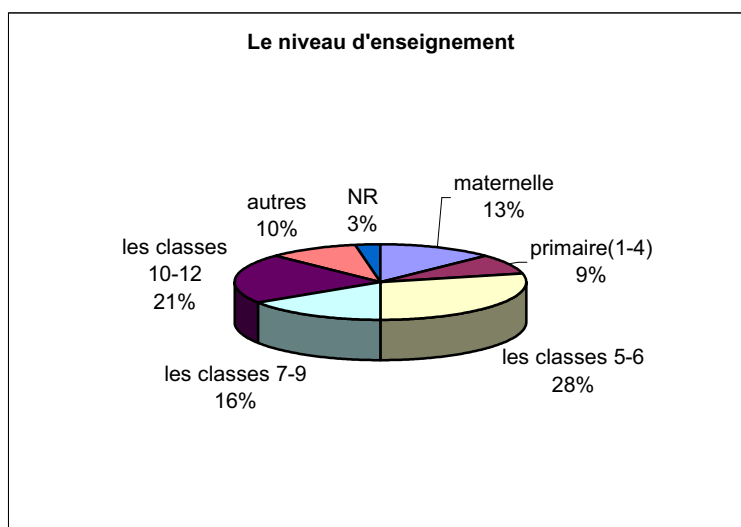


Figure 3. Le niveau d'enseignement

Le lieu de l'école où travaillent les enseignants: 48 (68.6 %) urbain, 20 (28.6 %) rural, 2 personnes n'ont pas répondu;

Le statut de l'école: 67 (95.7 %) école publique, 3 personnes n'ont pas répondu.

Le questionnaire appliqué a été composé de 22 items. Nous avons sélectionné pour cet article 6 items référant directement à l'éducation interculturelle. Les réponses consistent dans la sélection des mots-clés décrivant les différentes variantes des réponses.

Les enseignants ont présentés les réponses suivantes:

L'item no. 1. Interrogés sur la signification de l'éducation interculturelle pour eux les enseignants ont sélectionné comme les plus importants mots-clés:

- Apprendre à vivre ensemble (58.6);
- La tolérance des différences (50 %),
- Les faits et la connaissance des traditions, l'histoire, le mode de vivre (48.6 %), l'ouverture a la diversité (48.6 %).

En analysant les réponses on peut constater les différences dans les opinions des enseignants concernant le contenu de l'éducation interculturelle: les roumains ont considéré comme très importante: apprendre a vivre ensemble (56.4 %), la tolérance de la diversité (48.7 %), l'ouverture a la diversité (46.2 %), les faits et la connaissance concernant les traditions, l'histoire, le mode de vivre (43.6 %).

Dans l'opinion des enseignants hongrois les plus importantes dans l'éducation interculturelle sont: apprendre a vivre ensemble (65.4 %), apprendre a collaborer (61.5 %), la tolérance de la différence (57.7 %), l'ouverture pour la diversité (46.2 %), les faits et la connaissance concernant les traditions, l'histoire, le mode de vivre (53.8 %).

	Les enseignants roumains	Les enseignants hongrois
Les faits et la connaissance concernant les traditions, l'histoire, le mode de vivre	43.6	50
Les faits et la connaissance concernant la géographie et la nature	7.7	11.5
La tolérance pour la diversité	48.7	57.5
L'ouverture pour la diversité	46.2	53.8
La curiosité d' apprendre sur les différences	41	23.1
La conscience et le dépassement des stéréotypes	17.9	30.8
La distribution des différentes valeurs	35.9	26.9
Apprendre à collaborer	15.4	61.5
Apprendre à vivre ensemble	56.4	65.4
Une attitude positive vers la diversité	33.3	42.3
L'environnement propice pour l'éducation inclusive	33.3	19.2
L'aide a chaque personne	20.5	15.4

Tableau 1. Le pourcentage des enseignants qui ont sélectionné „Oui, je suis parfaitement d'accord!” concernant les mots-clés présentés

L'item no. 2. Concernant les tâches adressées aux enseignants pour implémenter l'éducation interculturelle la structure des réponses «Oui, je suis parfaitement d'accord!» a été la suivante:

- la création d'un environnement éducatif dans lequel chaque enfant se sent accepté et en sécurité – 80% réponses;
- encourager les attitudes positives, tolérantes et ouvertes vers les autres – 67.1% réponses;
- faciliter la construction de sa propre identité pour tous les enfants – 50% réponses;
- modéliser des attitudes positives concernant des autres différentes cultures - 47.1% réponses;
- assurer des attitudes égales, des droits égaux et l'accès à l'éducation – 45.7% réponses;
- fournir aux élèves la connaissance relative aux langues, traditions et habitudes appartenant aux cultures des élèves présentes dans la classe – 45.7% réponses;

- encourager les enfants à comprendre chacun sa culture (dans le contexte des autres culture) – 45.7% réponses.

L'item no. 3. En ce qui concerne les disciplines scolaires qui peuvent contribuer à l'éducation culturelle l'accord total des opinions des enseignant se distribue ainsi:

- les Sciences humaines – 81.4% réponses;
- l'Art, la music, la littérature, le théâtre, le cinéma, la danse – 62.9% réponses;
- les disciplines ayant un contenu très rapproché à l'éducation interculturelle – 51.4% réponses.

C'est très intéressant le fait que 37.1% des enseignants considèrent que l'éducation interculturelle doit faire partie de chaque discipline. Au même temps le rôle des Sciences exacte est très réduit – 17.1% réponses. Seulement 1.4% des enseignants considèrent que l'éducation interculturelle représente une affaire personnelle.

L'item no. 4. L'opinions des enseignants sur l'age la plus approprié pour l'éducation interculturelle est présenté sans la figure 4:

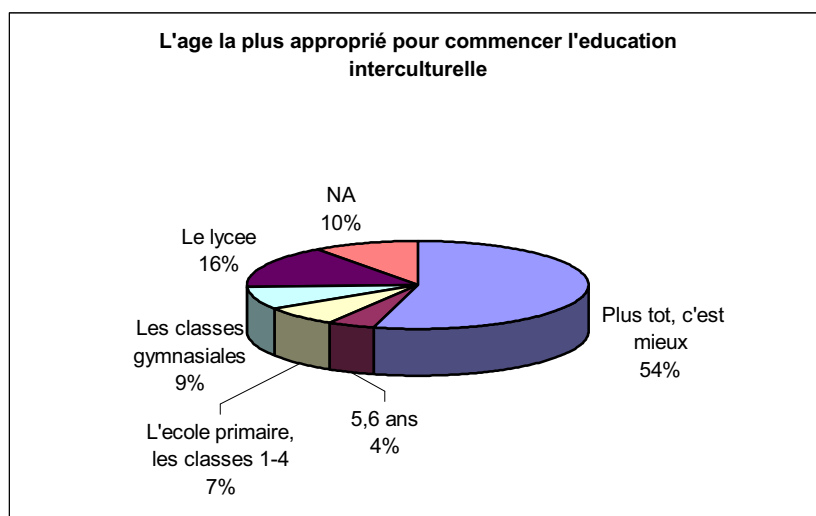


Figure 4. L'age approprié pour commencer l'éducation interculturelle

L'item no. 5. Les enseignants contribuent au développement des attitudes et des compétences interculturelles chez enfants (dans le contexte des activités éducatives développées):

- Conscientieux et persévèrent – 44.3% réponses;
- Pas conscientieux – 35.7% réponses;
- Parfois – 11.4% réponses.

Aucune personne ne reconnaît qu'elle ne se préoccupe pas de l'éducation interculturelle de ses étudiants.

L'item no. 6. Questionnés sur la modalité par laquelle le système d'enseignement roumain soutient le développement des attitudes et compétences interculturelles des étudiants, les enseignants expliquent:

- L'éducation interculturelle est soutenue par la législation actuelle – 8.6% réponses;
- Les institutions scolaires ne soutiennent pas les enseignants dans leur effort d'implémenter l'éducation interculturelle – 34.3% réponses;
- Les institutions scolaires font des efforts mais ce sont les enseignants qui ont un rôle décisif – 32.9% réponses;
- Les institutions scolaires ne contribuent pas au développement des attitudes et compétences interculturelles des élèves – 11.4 réponses.

On peut constater que, conformément aux opinions des enseignants, les institutions scolaires font des efforts minimaux pour l'éducation interculturelle et n'offrent pas le soutien nécessaire aux enseignants.

4. Conclusions

Des changements importants s'imposent pour implanter l'éducation interculturelle dans le système éducatif et dans les institutions scolaires roumaines. Il faut changer les programmes scolaires, réviser les matériaux didactiques, développer d'autres matériaux. Mais la préparation (initiale et continue) des enseignants reste la plus importante. Pour développer la compétence interculturelle des enseignants les universités doivent proposer des programmes d'étude dédiés.

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LES FONDAMENTS DE LA STIMULATION ET DE L'INTERVENTION PRÉCOCE POUR LES ENFANTS AVEC DES BESOINS ÉDUCATIFS PARTICULIERS

VASILE PREDA

ABSTRACT. Fundamentals of Early Stimulation and Early Intervention in the Case of Children with Special Needs. The author of this study starts from the assumption that the programmes and techniques of early stimulation and education are mainly based on research that emphasises the relation between nature and nurture, between the inborn tendencies and the things learned in early childhood. The following essential aspects are analysed: a) the early diagnosis of disabilities; b) the characteristics of early stimulation; c) the proper techniques of assessing disabilities and specificities of the early intervention techniques; d) the characteristics of some programmes of early stimulation and education for children with special needs and their effectiveness.

L'intervention précoce auprès des enfants ayant des déficiences, des retards de développement ou qui sont simplement vulnérables, ainsi que le partenariat avec leur famille, constitue aujourd'hui un important domaine d'action et de recherche interdisciplinaire. Elle est considérée, en raison de son aspect préventif, comme l'un des facteurs les plus importants de l'intégration scolaire et sociale de ces enfants.

1. Stimulation précoce et intervention précoce

Tout d'abord, il est essentiel de clarifier la différence entre la *stimulation précoce* et l'*intervention précoce*.

La *stimulation précoce* est principalement centré sur l'enfant et l'objectif est d'actualiser au maximum **son potentiel**.

Les programmes de stimulation précoce ont été développés pour trois types de population:

- a) enfants vulnérables, appartenant à un milieu socio-économique défavorisé et peu stimulant sur le plan éducatif;
- b) enfants atteints d'une pathologie connue entraînant un retard de développement;
- c) enfants à risque d'origine prénatale et périnatale (prématurés, enfants de faible poids de naissance).

Il existe différents programmes de stimulation précoce pour les enfants avec des besoins spéciaux: le programme piagétien de Stephen Lehané (1976), le Projet Portage (Hillard et Shearer, 1976), le programme de Heren et Heren (1980), les

programmes élaborées de Barraga et Morris (1980), de Blanksby (1992) ou de Bambring (1992) pour les enfants avec déficiences visuelles, le programme de Lovaas et le programme TEACCH pour les enfants avec des troubles autistiques etc.

En ce qui concerne **l'intervention précoce**, ses objectifs sont plus larges.

Bien entendu, l'intervention précoce vise le développement de l'enfant, mais vise et s'intéresse à son entourage. L'intervention précoce cherche à intégrer tant l'enfant que les autres membres de sa famille dans une approche de type écologique en tenant compte des ressources de chacun. L'intervention précoce inclut la stimulation précoce et agit sur l'ensemble des sphères de la réalité de l'enfant, de sa famille et de son environnement (Bouchard, 1990; Jourdan-Ionescu, 2003). Les théories actuelles sur l'intervention précoce mettent de plus en plus l'accent sur l'individu pris dans sa totalité, s'intéressent autant aux forces qu'aux besoins de l'enfant et tiennent compte de l'ensemble du système écologique (famille, amis, environnement).

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

L'intervention précoce peut s'inscrire dans une perspective de prévention primaire. Par conséquent, elle s'intéresse aux populations d'enfants à risque comme, par exemple, les enfants avec des déficiences, les enfants provenant de milieux socio-économiquement défavorisés, les enfants prématurés, les enfants de mères adolescentes ou de familles issues de l'immigration. Les programmes appliqués auprès de ces enfants sont effectivement conçus dans une perspective de prévention et visent à ce que ceux-ci aient un développement et les acquis qui leur permettent de fonctionner dans le milieu scolaire et dans le milieu de la communauté. Parmi ces programmes, on retrouve *CARE* (Gallagher, et al. 1982, 2004), *The Carolina Abecedarian Project* (Cambell et Rameu, 1989), *Head Start* (Marcon, 1996) etc.

La clientèle visée par les programmes de stimulation et de l'intervention précoce est celle d'enfants ayant déjà été identifiés comme ayant un retard global et significatif du développement. Pour cela, l'intervention précoce visera à maximiser le potentiel de l'enfant, à minimiser les incapacités et à prévenir les situations d'handicap.

L'évolution de l'intervention précoce a été favorisée par la "philosophie de la normalisation" et par le mouvement en faveur de l'intégration ou de l'inclusion des enfants avec besoins éducatifs spéciaux. La philosophie et le principe de normalisation suppose des services spécialisés, une formation et un soutien nécessaires pour créer des conditions de vie similaires à celles offertes aux autres individus.

2. L'impact de la neuropsychologie, de sciences de l'éducation et de la psychologie du développement dans l'intervention précoce

À l'origine de l'intervention précoce, la neuropsychologie, les sciences de l'éducation et la psychologie du développement ont été très contributives (Boutin et Terisse 1990; Jourdan-Ionescu, 2003, Noël, 2007).

2.1. Neuropsychologie a connu un essor considérable ces trente dernières années.

Chez l'enfant, cette approche théorique et pratique a montré tout son sens dans l'étude des troubles cognitifs liés à des atteintes cérébrales acquises (lésion avant ou après la naissance) mais également dans certains troubles génétiques (par exemple, le syndrom de Williams), métaboliques (par exemple, phénylcétonurie) ou dans les troubles développementaux avec une origine cérébrale moins clairement identifiée, en ce compris les troubles d'apprentissage (Noël, 2007, p. 5).

Au cours dernières années, sont parus un nombre important d'outils d'évaluation neuropsychologique des fonctions cognitives chez l'enfant (par exemple, *Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children* – second édition (*KABC-II*); *la NEPSY* (Korkman, Kirk & Kemp, 1998, 2003), avec un important impact sur les programmes de l'intervention précoce.

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

Selon Jakobson (1978), Changeaux et Danchin (1976), au cours du développement normal, l'évolution de la densité des connexions synaptiques se caractérise par une hyperproduction initiale de connexions suivie d'une diminution des connexions redondantes. Il existerait ainsi une "révision synaptique" associée à une réduction progressive de synapses par neurone. La révision synaptique, qui a été appelée "validation fonctionnelle" par Jakobson ou "stabilisation sélective" par Changeaux et Danchin, serait un processus développemental qui favoriserait le maintien des connexions nerveuses activées par les stimulus extérieurs, et éliminerait des connexions surnuméraires moins activées par les mêmes stimulus, pour aboutir progressivement enfin à l'organisation corticale de l'adulte. Ce processus constituerait la base de la plasticité cérébrale (Gentaz, Badan, 2000, p. 45).

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

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

Selon Rapport d'Inserm (2004, p.156), l'influence de l'environnement sur les problèmes développementaux d'origine pré- ou périnatale peut schématiquement se situer à trois niveaux différents: a) les facteurs d'environnement représentent par eux-mêmes un facteur de risque (exemple: le syndrome d'alcoolisation foetale); b) ils peuvent être un frein à l'accès à des techniques d'aide ou de réadaptation; c) facteurs environnementaux peuvent combiner leurs effets aux autres types d'agression ayant entraîné des difficultés de développement ou des lésions cérébrales, créant un effet de "double danger". Ces deux derniers aspects sous-tendent le désir de faire bénéficier le plus rapidement possible les enfants cérébro-lésés ou à risque de toutes les possibilités de "compensation maximale".

À partir des connaissances sur l'organisation cérébrale de l'apprentissage moteur et cognitif, Ohrt (1999, p. 95-109) situe la contribution de la neurologie développementale et de la neuropsychologie dans les approches thérapeutiques interdisciplinaires. Ohrt insiste sur l'importance d'évaluation neuropsychologique et sur le rôle du thérapeute afin d'aider les parents à accompagner leur enfant dans l'actualisation de son potentiel.

Donc, la neuropsychologie a contribué à reconnaître l'importance de créer et d'organiser un milieu stimulant autour de l'enfant en bas âge étant donné la très grande plasticité de son cerveau. En effet, c'est au cours des premières années de vie que la stimulation provenant de l'environnement peut avoir le plus grand impact sur le développement de l'enfant. Les expériences vécues lors de la petite enfance serviront de fondement aux compétences intellectuelles, émotionnelles et sociales (Jourdan Ionescu, 2003; Noël, 2007).

2.2. La contribution des sciences de l'éducation s'est fait remarquer par la promotion de l'égalité des chances et par la mise en place de programmes d'intervention précoce, de programmes d'éducation compensatoire, de projets individuels et de programmes éducatifs personnalisés (P.E.P.) auprès des populations jugées à risque. L'intervention précoce visant les rééducations (par exemple, *la rééducation orthophonique, la rééducation psychomotrice et la rééducation psychopédagogique*), et développement des enfants présentant un retard de développement, par la mise en place de ces programmes.

Les nouvelles technologies prennent de plus en plus d'importance dans le domaine de l'intervention précoce, en particulier par l'utilisation de systèmes d'analyse, de l'apprentissage et de diagnostic réalisés à l'aide d'ordinateurs. L'objectif est de soutenir dans la pratique, grâce à ces moyens perfectionnés, la professionnalisation du travail en intervention précoce ainsi que de mettre à la disposition des parents les informations importantes qu'ils souhaitent avoir sur les différentes possibilités d'orientation et d'intégration de leurs enfants (Peterander, 1999).

La collaboration des parents, du thérapeute et de l'enfant doit amener celui-ci à atteindre, selon ses capacités individuelles, le statut de "personne autonome" dans le plus grand nombre de situations. Les qualités de disponibilité et de flexibilité sont indispensables pour les thérapeutes et pour les rééducateurs en psychopédagogie, afin d'assister les parents et leurs enfants dans leur processus mutuel d'adaptation, de respect et d'acceptation.

Les expériences indiquent qu'il est indispensable de préciser davantage les exigences du diagnostic, d'améliorer l'intégration et les statuts dans l'équipe interdisciplinaire ainsi que de définir le type et le mode de consultation des parents ou des éducateurs.

Le rééducateur en psychopédagogie va apporter sa compétence aux enfants présentant aussi bien des difficultés globales que spécifiques (du type dyslexie, dysgraphie, dysortographe, dyscalculie).

Face à un enfant angoissé ou "bloqué", a-t-on coutume de dire dans un langage courant, le rééducateur en psychopédagogie va orienter son action rééducative en utilisant des objets mobilisant l'activité imaginaire de l'enfant (David et Jérémie, 1999, p. 291-292).

2.2.1. Les travaux de Vygotsky (1929), de Piaget et Inhelder (1969), de Bruner (1996, 1997), de Feuerstein, Rand et Hoffman (1979), de Gardner (1993) etc. ont contribué de façon significative à la *psychologie du développement, avec des implications dans le domaine de l'intervention précoce.*

Pour Vygotsky (1929), la vie mentale se traduit d'abord dans l'interaction avec autrui. Le résultat des interactions est ensuite intériorisé et intégré au flux de la pensée. Puisque l'interaction sociale est principalement organisée et médiatisée par langage, ce qui est intériorisé dans le flux de la pensée de l'enfant, ce sont les significations et les formes produites au cours de l'échange verbal, elles-mêmes produits du système socio-culturel. Dans la théorie de Vygotsky, la question centrale est celle de la *Zone proximale de développement (ZDP).*

Schématiquement, disons que la ZDP est constituée par la distance qui sépare ce qu'un individu peut faire de lui-même, sans l'aide de personne, et ce qu'il parvient à faire grâce aux indications et aux aides que peut lui apporter un autre individu informé.

Si Vygotsky se demandait comment autrui fournit le cadre culturel qui rend possible le processus de développement, Piaget était préoccupé par la genèse de l'intelligence, par l'ordre invariant de l'évolution intellectuelle, donc par les stades de développement cognitifs.

Le modèle d'*assimilation-accomodation*, par lequel Piaget a décrit le développement cognitif, met l'accent, avec raison, sur la nature active et constructive de l'enfant. Ce modèle nous permet de concevoir le développement cognitif comme un processus graduel d'acquisition structurale et de changement dans lequel toute structure mentale nouvelle naît de celle qui précède au moyen de l'opération continue d'assimilation et d'adaptation.

On peut dire que le rôle tenu par Piaget dans l'étude du développement cognitif est comparable à celui qu'a joué Chomsky dans l'étude du développement linguistique: il a créé et formé un nouveau domaine d'investigation (Flavell, 2000, p. 213). Ginsburg et Opper (1988) décrivent six catégories d'implications de la théorie de Piaget pour le domaine de l'éducation: l'approche centrée sur l'enfant, l'activité, la réinvention, l'apprentissage individualisée, l'interaction sociale et le programme d'étude.

Mais comment la pédagogie est-elle efficace? Selon **Feuerstein** (1979) et selon **Bruner** (2000, p. 245) – attirant l'attention de l'élève, en faisant ressortir pour lui les caractéristiques essentielles, décisives d'un problème, en sériant les étapes de compréhension, bref, en décortiquant pour lui la tâche pas à pas, en favorisant la négociation, la médiation pédagogique,

La médiation est l'action de servir d'intermédiaire entre des personnes ou des réalités. 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. *La médiation spécialisée* requiert un type et une 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 enfants sont perturbés, fragiles, en échec, plus la médiation doit être soutenue, réanimante et maintenue durablement dans le temps; ce sont là les conditions nécessaires et indispensables pour favoriser un changement et induire une "réanimation cognitive" (Gardou, 1996, p. 114).

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.

Les perspectives offertes par le concept d'éducabilité cognitive amènent l'enseignant à développer quelques pratiques pour une pédagogie de la médiation, correctrice 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. 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”.

Psychologue cognitiviste américain Gardner (1993) montre que le test du Q.I., largement utilisé pour déterminer les aptitudes des individus, n’explore en fait qu’un seul type d’intelligence. Gardner explique qu’il existe en réalité sept formes d’intelligence qui recouvrent dans leurs nuances l’ensemble des capacités humaines: l’intelligence verbale, logico-mathématique, spatiale, musicale, corporelle et kinesthésique, interpersonnelle et intrapersonnelle.

L’approche de Gardner permet de comprendre un grand nombre des difficultés que rencontrent aujourd’hui le système éducatif et, plus largement, nos sociétés tout entières. Cette approche annonce aussi la nécessaire mutation de l’école qui doit repenser ses modèles d’apprentissage pour permettre à chacun de développer son potentiel d’intelligence selon une large gamme d’aptitudes, par la prise en compte des différentes formes d’intelligence.

Nous estimons, comme les autres chercheurs (Guidetti, Tourette, 1999), que les enfants ayant des déficiences sont des êtres en développement dont les conduites se construisent à partir de leur déficience.

Les concepts de la **psychologie du développement** quant à eux, soutiennent que plus le retard est diagnostiqué tôt, moins il sera prononcé si ce diagnostic est suivi d’une intervention adéquate (Barrera, 1991). Dans certains cas, l’absence d’un environnement stimulant au cours des cinq ou six premières années de la vie peut entraîner une réduction des capacités sensorielles ou cognitives et, conséquemment, un déficit au plan du développement (Pépin, G. et al., 2006). La découverte de la complexité des causes engendrant des besoins éducatifs particuliers chez les jeunes enfants constitue l’un des plus grands progrès dans la réflexion sur l’intervention précoce. Les difficultés de l’enfant sont le résultat de différents facteurs qui doivent être recherchés non seulement chez l’enfant mais également dans son environnement. La famille peut aussi avoir des besoins qui sont le résultat des difficultés de l’enfant et de leurs répercussions dans le contexte social.

L'interaction compensatoire permet de mieux cerner la vulnérabilité non prévisible et la résistance des enfants à des conditions défavorables de leur environnement.

Aussi, les travaux de **Bronfenbrenner** (1979) ont contribué à la psychologie du développement et à l'intervention précoce en proposant un modèle basé sur l'écologie de l'enfant. Le modèle écologique de Bronfenbrenner permet de comprendre l'enfant en prenant en considération le système écologique (environnement) dans lequel il évolue. Selon Bronfenbrenner, l'environnement de l'enfant se compose d'un système à quatre niveaux qui gravitent autour de celui-ci: a) l'environnement immédiat de l'enfant (famille, amis, garderie, école); b) les réseaux de relations (relations entre les éléments du premier niveau); c) les contextes sociaux (décisions de la commission scolaire, les mesures sociales décidées par le gouvernement); d) culture globale (coutumes, croyances, idéologies).

Implication de la famille et l'intervention en milieu naturel sont deux éléments de l'approche écologique qui suscitent d'intérêt dans le monde de la recherche et dans le monde de praticiens.

La recherche scientifique indique que le soutien social génère des effets positifs sur le bien-être parental et que ce bien-être a pour effet une grande sensibilité des parents face aux besoins de l'enfant. Enfin, le niveau de sensibilité et de réceptivité des parents à l'égard des besoins de l'enfant est directement associé au développement de l'enfant. La participation active de la famille dans les programmes d'intervention est considérée comme étant un facteur déterminant de son succès. La participation familiale exige un partenariat au sein de l'équipe d'intervention qui soit basé sur l'égalité, la confiance et le respect mutuel. Les échanges entre les parents et les intervenants sont considérés aussi importants, sinon plus, que le travail fait avec l'enfant directement (Peterander, Speck, Pithon, Terrisse, 1999; Pépine et al., 2006). L'intervenant se voit attribuer le rôle de formateur auprès du parent et non plus le rôle du leader.

McWilliams et Scott (2001) mettent en évidence l'importance de bien comprendre la dynamique familiale ainsi que l'entourage global de l'enfant afin d'offrir le soutien parental approprié. Ils suggèrent un modèle de référence pour la pratique d'intervention précoce qui met l'accent sur le soutien (*informatif, matériel et émotionnel*) que peuvent offrir les professionnels plutôt que les services.

Lahaye et al. (1999), Pithon et al. (1999), Schlienger et al. (1999) ajoutent qu'il est primordial de *former les parents* pour qu'ils puissent poursuivre le plan et le programme d'intervention auprès de l'enfant en appliquant les stratégies éducatives et correctives appropriées. Les auteurs soulignent que *la formation des parents* ne se résume pas qu'au simple soutien offert par des professionnels, mais à un véritable transfert des connaissances et à l'apprentissage d'habiletés reconnues efficaces ce qui contribue à renforcer son rôle et sa place dans le programme d'intervention de l'enfant. Cette vision des choses a des conséquences sur le développement des enfants chez qui il faut identifier et satisfaire des besoins éducatifs particuliers.

Les formations en éducation parentale ont pour but de favoriser le développement des compétences parentales dans une perspective de prévention primaire en suscitant les processus d'appropriation et de responsabilisation des parents et s'inscrivent sur un plan axiologique. Par exemple, le *Centre de développement par l'éducation familiale* de l'Université de l'État à Mons offre un support à tous les parents et intervenants impliqués dans les activités de formation en éducation parentale se déroulant dans les cellules d'éducation familiale implantées en particulier en milieu socio-économiquement faibles.

Dans notre Département de Psychopédagogie spéciale, de l'Université Babes-Bolyai, le *Centre d'intervention précoce* et les centres qui sont dans les garderies spécialisées offre un support psychologique et pédagogique à tous les parents et les enfants avec des déficiences. Un modèle de formation fondé sur des contrats pédagogiques individualisés, puis sur une évaluation formative systématique des apprentissages et, enfin, sur des séances de formations collective, a été réalisé en vue d'actualiser le potentiel éducatif des parents.

3. Objectifs de l'intervention précoce et les courants théoriques sous-jacents aux programmes d'intervention

Les principaux objectifs de l'intervention précoce sont:

- a) de stimuler le développement du jeune enfant (acquisition de compétences motrices, langagiers, cognitives, sociales etc.);
- b) de renforcer le lien parent-enfant qui peut être favorisé par le jeu, la communication, le partage de moments riches et stimulants;
- c) d'aider le développement de compétences parentales, notamment, en favorisant chez les parents l'adoption d'une saine attitude vis-à-vis leur enfant (encouragement, valorisation, adaptation des attentes du parent aux capacités de son enfant), en leur procurant des outils pour aider leur enfant à se former une identité positive; en développant leur confiance en soi; en mettant à contribution les différentes ressources de leur milieu; en prévenant leur isolement social, par exemple, offrir des rencontres de groupe non structurées (Jourdan-Ionescu, 2003).

Les méthodes utilisées pour atteindre ces objectifs varient selon les connaissances, les cadres conceptuels et les modèles des programmes d'intervention et selon les croyances des intervenants et des membres de l'entourage habituel de l'enfant.

Ellis, Cross et Goin (1977) proposent une classification selon quatre courants théoriques sous-jacents aux programmes d'intervention:

- a) le *modèle maturationaliste* de Gesell, qui met l'accent sur le développement naturel des capacités de l'enfant et pour lequel le jeu occupe un rôle déterminant;

b) le *modèle béhavioriste (comportemental)* qui met accent sur le processus d'apprentissage considéré comme un changement observable et mesurable et où le professionnel établit des objectifs précis et des activités très structurées (par exemple, «Portage» de Hillard et Shearer);

c) le *modèle affectif interactif* dans lequel sont préconisées les attitudes positives, les valeurs et l'autonomie (par exemple, «Bank Street Program» de Jourdan-Ionescu);

d) le *modèle cognitif interactif* où l'enfant apprend de façon active en s'adaptant à son milieu et en le modifiant (par exemple, «Perry Preschool Project» de Wiekart).

À cette liste, s'ajoutent les *modèles piagetienes* (Uzgiris et Hunt, 1975; Dunst, 1980), le *modèle socio-communicatif* (Bruner, 1983), le *modèle socio-langagier* (Bricker et Bricker, 1976) et *modèle écologique*.

Les programmes d'intervention précoce de type écologique sont plus représentatifs de ce qui est aujourd'hui pratiqué. Elles mettent l'accent sur l'interaction entre les individus – les enfants, les intervenants, les parents – et leurs environnements. Les programmes de type écologique reconnaissent que les facteurs de risque associés au retard interagissent aux niveaux individuel, familial et communautaire. Donc, est essentiel d'établir des stratégies d'intervention précoce qui tiennent compte des différents systèmes, afin d'offrir des services qui considèrent l'apport des interactions entre les enfants, les parents et leurs environnements.

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THE IMPACT OF CO-ARTICULATION ON THE HEARING IMPAIRED CHILDREN' S PRONUNCIATION INTELLIGIBILITY

MARIA ANCA*

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die visuellen und taktilen Perzeptionen aufgrund deren die Kinder mit Hörschwierigkeiten, bei denen die auditiven Informationen nicht verwertet sind, zu sprechen lernen, informieren nicht über all die artikulatorischen Einzelheiten. In der individuellen Sprache können sie nur auf die Darstellungen der eigenen artikulatorischen Bewegungen stützen. So stellen sie fest, dass die eigenen kinästhetischen Perzeptionen, bzw. die umgekehrte Afferentation während dem Sprechen müssen mit den Darstellungen, die sie vorher hatten, übereinstimmen. Die Perzeptionen und die kinästhetischen Darstellungen generieren aber schwächere, unsicherer, verbläftere Töne als diejenigen Auditiven. Diese spiegeln sich auch in der Qualität der Aussprache, quantifiziert mit dem Variable: die Verständlichkeit der Aussprache, wider. Weil dieser Parameter defizitär an mehreren Kinder mit Hypoakusie ist, müssen sie allmählich lernen, wie sie in der flüssigen Rede koartikulieren sollen. *Die Verständlichkeit der Aussprache* kann mit mehreren Methoden bewertet werden. Eine aus dieser Methode, die in diesem Studium detailliert ist, ist der Aufruf an zwei Hörerkategorien: Sachverständige (gewöhnnt mit der Aussprache der Schüler mit Hypoakusie) und Neulinge (ungewöhnt mit der Aussprache der Schüler mit Hypoakusie). In diesem Studium ist analysiert wie die Verständlichkeit der Aussprache von der Natur des Sprachmaterials beeinflusst ist: Wörter oder Sätze und die spezifische Art, wie die Phänomene der Koartikulation sich bekunden: Assimilation, Gewöhnung und Elision.

It is well known the fact that the hearing impaired children face serious difficulties in blending the words in the speech process, in their co-articulation. The co-articulation process in the hearing child is spontaneously acquired, on the basis of the auditory feed-back. The hearing impaired not having this type of self control, faces serious difficulties in the co-articulation approach, thus, the formation of the co-articulation abilities represents one of the very important phases of the methodical process organized for developing the verbal language, process put into practice through those activities of the disciplines from the curricular area "Language and communication" (the syllabus). Researches on this subject are made by researchers such as: Celce-Murcia, M. (1987), Anca (2004), Higgins, M.B, Carney, A.E., McCleary, E., (1996).

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The hearing impaired children tend to inter-position a parasite vowel between two consonants which follow one another. (Anca, 2007; Stănică, 1983). Very frequent, in the case of the hearing impaired children that were demutised, those three phases of the sound articulation are produced all the time completely or almost completely, thus, their speech organs, especially, the tongue, come back almost after every phoneme in the neutral position. While between two consonants the tongue is in a neutral position, the phonation current doesn't stop and the person articulates a parasite sound, "ă" or "â" (in English those two phonemes does not exist), that establish a connection between those two consonants, ensuring in this way the speech continuous.

The apparition of the parasite vowel is also allowed by the demutising technique used by some psycho-pedagogy teachers who insists too much on the isolated pronunciation of the phonemes and don't look after putting them quickly into syllables and words.

The visual and tactile perceptions on which the hearing impaired children to whom, there are not valorized the auditory information, learn to talk, don't inform them on all the articulator details. In the independent speech, they are based only on their own articulator movements. Thus, they come to the conclusion that their own kinesthetic movements, thus the feed-back from the speech must coincide with the representations they already have. The perceptions and the kinesthetic representations generate weaker sounds, even more reduced, pale than those auditory ones. Thus, these children must be thought step by step to co-articulate in the current speech, underlines the researchers organized by Clark, J., Yallop, C. & Fletcher, J. (2007).

The main aim of the research is the investigation of the way co-articulation influences the hearing impaired children's speech intelligibility as well as the identification of the co-articulating difficulties and their nature analyze. These approaches lead to the identification of the most frequent errors category as well as to the intervention methods aimed to modulate the pronunciation and to train the co-articulation mechanism.

The participants in this study are 10 pupils with easy and moderate hearing impairments, with adequate bilateral prosthesis, without associated deficiencies, with the age between 11-16 years old.

The pronunciation intelligibility can be evaluated through different methods. One of these, on which we settle on this material, is to use two category of auditors: experts (familiar with the hearing impaired children's speech) and beginners (unfamiliar with the hearing impaired children's speech).

The used verbal material for evaluating the pronunciation intelligibility in this research, is verbal material with sense well known by the participants. Also, in order to follow the effect of the complexity material on intelligibility, there were put two complexity levels: words and sentences (Stan, 1996; Chițoran, 2002).

1. The interpretation of the marked results in the papers for evaluating the hearing impaired children`s pronunciation and for establishing the level of the global intelligibility

In order to establish hearing impaired children's intelligibility level of pronunciation (words and sentences in the words and sentences co-articulation), the auditors` notations were devised in two groups: correctly identified words and incorrectly identified ones. In the last group there were included the words whose phonemic structure is change comparable with the given model structure.

After analyzing the correctly identified words and of those incorrectly identified ones, it was calculated the pronunciation intelligibility percentage. There were taken into account all the words put in the test material, after the following calculus formula for the words pronunciation intelligibility:

$p.i.p = c \times 100 / C$, where:

- p.i.p represents the pronunciation intelligibility percentage;
- "c" represents the entire number of the correctly identified words;
- "C" represents the entire number of the analyzed words.

The obtained results are put in the table I.

Table I

The words pronunciation intelligibility, those words from sentences and those words pronounced isolated

Subjects` Nr.	Auditors` Nr.	The whole number of the heard words	Nr. of the correct words de cuvinte corecte	Intelligibility pronunciation percentage(p.i.p.) %
10	20	21600	11818	68.71%

From the table it can be seen the words pronunciation intelligibility level is relatively good in the hearing impaired children participants in this study, reaching the global value 68,71%. This means that more than half from the words pronounced by the hearing impaired have an acceptable intelligibility level.

Despite this, in common conditions, in ordinary contexts, the hearing impaired children face difficulties in establishing normal verbal relationships with the hearing ones, the last ones often understanding only devised their speech. The greater part from the hearing impaired children is conscientious by the low efficiency of their own speech.

As the participants in this study live in hostelling conditions with other hearing impaired children, they prefer as a way of communication the sign language, aspects that may be a possible explanation for the manifested preference for the sign language. The frequent utilization of the sign language in comparison

with the verbal one lead to the fact that the oral speaking abilities build during the classes for speech development to be forgotten, instead to be developed. Thus, the environment has a great influence and it is reflected by those students' speech.

1. Emphasizing the variation in the intelligibility percentage according to the used verbal test material

In order to catch the variation in the pronunciation intelligibility level in accord to the used linguistic material it was calculated the pronunciation intelligibility percentage for words and sentences. The obtained results can be followed in the table II.

Table II
The variation of the pronunciation intelligibility according to the used verbal material test

Subjects` Nr.	Auditors` Nr.	Intelligibility percentage (p.i.p.)	
		Isolated words	Sentences
		%	%
10	20	41,6	27,11

From the obtained results it can be observed the fact that, there are variations between these children pronunciation intelligibility level, by using different types of used verbal-test material.

The value of the intelligibility percentage, in which it was used as verbal material the list of isolated words is higher (41,6%), than the value of the intelligibility percentage in which were used as verbal test sentences (27,11%).

The co-articulation of a certain phoneme in different phonetic contexts, in order to pronounce a word or a sentence is a complex process, which needs a series of adaptations of the phono-articulatory organs, adaptations which influence the sonority level, the articulation manner and also the articulation place. The hearing impaired children face a series of difficulties in co-articulating. Well known is also the fact that the co-articulation process of the words in a sentence is very influenced by a series of deficient factors in those children speech (the stress fall, intonation and the rhythm). All these difficulties are reflected and lower in a great extent the intelligibility percentage (p.i.p).

2. The evaluation of the pronunciation intelligibility variations between the hearing impaired children and hearing ones

In what the hearing children are concerned, the practice shows that there are differences between the teachers from the school for hearing impaired children, who are familiar with those children speech features (experts auditors) and those who are not familiar, don` t know the hearing impaired children` s speech.

In order to evaluate the hearing impaired children pronunciation intelligibility variation in co-articulation, according to the auditory groups, it was calculated the intelligibility percentage both for expert auditors and for unfamiliar persons with the hearing impaired children`s speech.

From the table can be seen the fact that the value of the intelligibility varies in a great extent, according to the features of the auditors group, being registered a difference of 16%.

Table III

Pronunciation intelligibility variation according to the auditors groups

Inteligibility percentage (p.i.p.) calculated using			
Auditors familiar with the hearing impaired children`s speech (F)		Auditors unfamiliar with the hearing impaired children`s speech (N)	
Auditors` Nr.	p.i.p.	Auditors` Nr.	p.i.p.
10	47,96%	10	31,75%

3. The evaluation of the co-articulating errors in the case of every co-articulation manner and according to the co-articulation types

In order to establish the co-articulation errors identified in the hearing impaired children, the auditors` notations were devised in three groups: correctly identified words, incorrectly identified words and omitted words.

In order to emphasize the co-articulation errors identified in the hearing impaired children after analyzing the results marked on the evaluation lists of the words and sentences pronunciation the obtained results were written down in the following tables: IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX.

Table IV

The frequency and the percentage of the correctly, incorrectly pronounced words and of the omitted ones in the assimilation case in the words

Sonority						Articulation manner			Articulation place			Reciprocal assimilation			
<i>desonorizare</i>			<i>sonorizare</i>												
C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o	
33%	52%	15%	16%	68%	16%	19%	30%	51%	41%	52%	7%	17%	30%	53%	
132	208	60	64	272	64	76	120	204	164	208	28	68	120	212	

Table V

The frequency and the percentage of the correctly, incorrectly pronounced words and of the omitted ones in the accommodation case in the words

Simple			Two Identical consonants			Articulation place			Articulation manner					
									<i>Lateral</i>			<i>Velar</i>		
C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o
10%	66%	34%	21%	32%	47%	32%	33%	35%	40	36%	24%	20%	24%	56%
40	264	136	84	128	188	128	132	140	16	144	96	80	96	224

Table VI

The frequency and the percentage of the correctly, incorrectly pronounced words and of the omitted ones in the elusion case in the words

Elision		
C	G	O
5%	30%	65%
20	120	260

Table VII

The frequency and the percentage of the correctly, incorrectly pronounced words and of the omitted ones in the assimilation case in the sentences

Sonority						Articulation manner			Articulation place			Reciprocal assimilation		
<i>devoicing</i>			<i>voicing</i>											
C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o
20%	27%	53%	30%	14%	46%	12%	67%	21%	17%	24%	59%	11%	61%	28%
180	108	212	120	56	184	48	268	84	68	96	236	44	244	112

Table VIII

The frequency and the percentage of the correctly, incorrectly pronounced words and of the omitted ones in the accommodation case in the sentences

n%	35%	54%	30%	17%	53%	33%	35%	32%	19%	51%	30%	21%	44%	35%
44	140	216	120	68	212	132	140	128	76	204	120	84	176	140
			Identical consonants			place			<i>Lateral</i>			<i>Velar</i>		
C	G	o	C G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o	C	G	o	

Table IX
The frequency and the percentage of the correctly, incorrectly pronounced words and of the omitted ones in the elision case in the sentences

Elision		
C	G	O
0%	47%	53%
0	188	212

For an intuitive and detailed analyze of the obtained and transcribed results in the above tables we used several types of graphical representations with the help of the structure diagrams as follows:

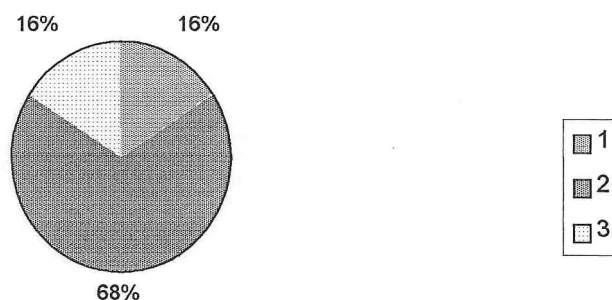


Fig. 1. The frequency of words co-articulation in the case of assimilation according to sonority

Content:

1. Correctly pronounced words.
2. Incorrectly pronounced words.
3. Omitted words

From the above presented diagram it comes up the fact that the incorrectly pronounced words percentage is about 68%, it being very high, in comparison with the one of the correctly pronounced words or with the ones omitted which registries equal percentages. Among the mistakes present in the case of this type of co-articulation it can be mentioned the elision (disaffected or snows, mistake given by the expire pause as well as by elision).

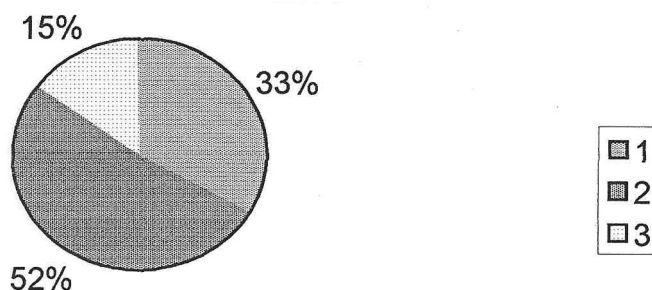


Fig. 2. The frequency of words co-articulation in the case of assimilation according to devoicing

Content:

1. Correctly pronounced words.
2. Incorrectly pronounced words.
3. Omitted words

From the above diagram it comes up the fact that the percentage of the mistakes in words co-articulation in the case of assimilation according to devoicing is high. Among the often mistakes in this type of co-articulation it can be mentioned the inter-positioning of a vowel between consonants (subișire), the replacing of the consonant group "bț" with the "p" consonant (supire) or the replacing of the "b" consonant with the "c" consonant (sucțire). It can also be observed the good percentage of correctly pronounced words.

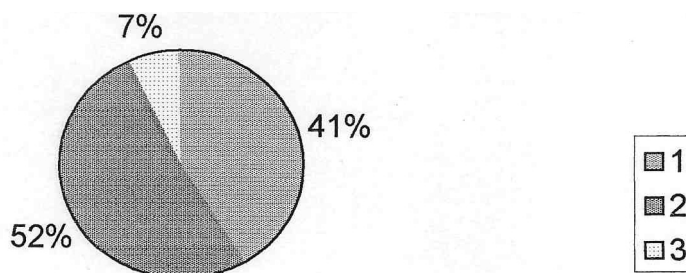


Fig. 3. The frequency of words co-articulation in the case of assimilation according to the articulation place

Content:

1. Correctly pronounced words.
2. Incorrectly pronounced words.
3. Omitted words

The diagram indicates the high level of percentage of the incorrectly pronounced and omitted words. From the analyse of the frequently met errors, in the case of this type of co-articulation it can be mentioned the substitution of the "j" consonant with "ș" (in English there is no this type of consonant) (cârșe, toggle) and of the "z" consonant with the "d" consonant (pândă, ambush).

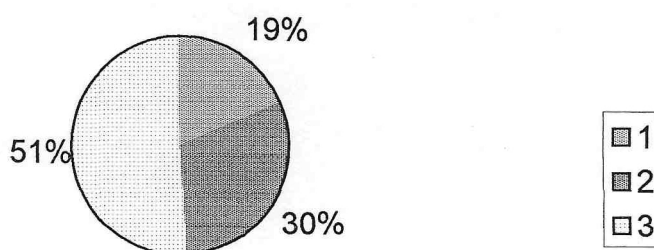


Fig. 4. The frequency of the words co-articulation in the assimilation case according to the articulation manner

Content:

1. Correctly pronounced words.
2. Incorrectly pronounced words.
3. Omitted words

From the above presented diagram it appears the fact that the greater proportion in the words co-articulation, in the assimilation case according to the articulation place, is taken by the correctly pronounced words. The explanation of this fact can be the one of using as test verbal material, the word "informatics", a word correctly pronounced students by the majority, because of their high interest for computers.

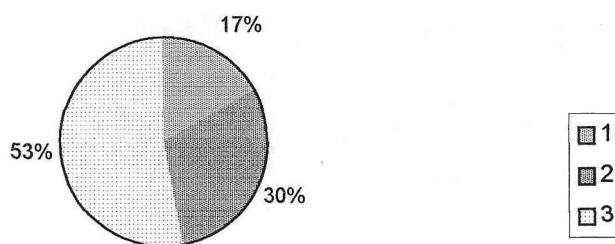


Fig. 5. The frequency of the words co-articulation in the reciprocal assimilation case

Content:

1. Correctly pronounced words.
2. Incorrectly pronounced words.
3. Omitted words

In the diagram referring to the words co-articulation, in the reciprocal case assimilation, it is observed the fact that the percentage of the omitted words is high. This fact is explained by the difficulty of co-articulating the consonants “p” and “r”, which are hardly articulated even in the phase of their emission as sounds.

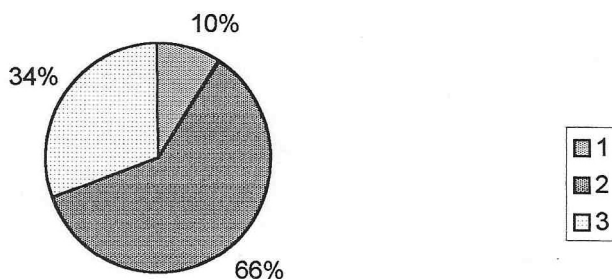


Fig. 6. The frequency of the words co-articulation in the simple accommodation case

Content:

1. Correctly pronounced words.
2. Incorrectly pronounced words.
3. Omitted words.

From the frequencies of the words co/articulation in the case of the simple accommodation it can be identified a high incorrect words percentage. The frequently observed errors are: the elision of the “ș” consonant (potă, instead of poștă – mail) or the elision of the “p” consonant and the substitution of the “o” vowel with the vowel “ă” (ăștă, instead of oștă).

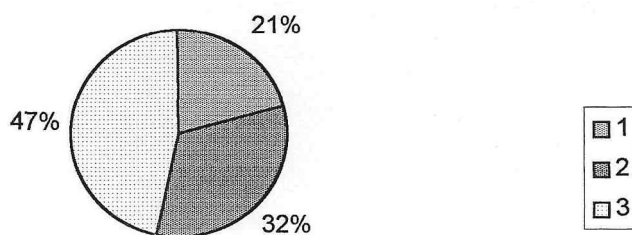


Fig. 7. The frequency of the words co-articulation in the case of two identical consonants accommodation

Content:

1. Correctly pronounced words.
2. Incorrectly pronounced words.
3. Omitted words.

Observing the data presented in the diagram from figure number 7 it can be identified the high percentage of omitted words as well as incorrect ones. From the frequently met errors in the case of this type of co-articulation it can be mentioned the pronunciation of a short "i", given by the lack of prolonging of the articulation phase.

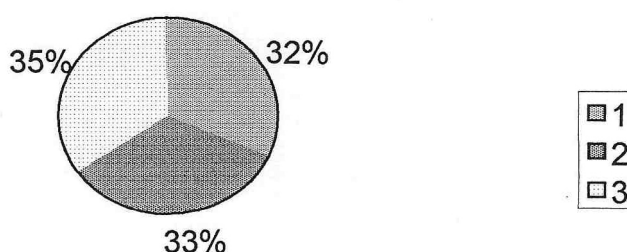


Fig. 8. The frequency of the words co-articulation in the case of accommodation according to the articulation place

Content:

1. Correctly pronounced words.
2. Incorrectly pronounced words.
3. Omitted words.

Observing the data presented in the figure 8 it can be identified the relatively high frequency of the omitted words, the correct words being approximately equal with the mistaken ones. From the mistakes more often it can be observed the substitution of the consonant "c" with "g", as it follows "cârd - flock" instead of "gard-fence" and the elision of the consonant "c" ("arte - arts" instead of "carte -book").

4. Final considerations

The research made in order to underline the speech intelligibility level in the co-articulation of the words and propositions, indicates, in general, a relatively good level of the words pronunciation of the hearing impaired studied children.

Despite all these, there is a percentage of incorrectly pronounced words which could not be identified by auditors, aspect that denotes the hearing impaired children's difficulty to co-articulate some sounds positioned in different phonetic combinations. These difficulties influence the establishing of the verbal relationships with the hearing people who understand only fragmentized the hearing impaired children speech.

According to the results obtained in the calculation of the intelligibility percentage of the hearing impaired children according to the verbal material used in evaluation, its value decrease in the case of using as verbal material sentences instead of words. This fact is due to the more complicated process to co-articulate words in

sentences, process influenced by a series of factors involved in the sentences correct pronunciation, among which it can be mentioned: the stress positioning, intonation and rhythm (Tătaru, 1997; Dascălu-Jinga, 2001; Stănică, 1983).

All these difficulties reflect and lower significantly those children pronunciation intelligibility level.

In what the auditors are concerned, the practice shows that there are differences between the teachers from the school for hearing impaired children, who are familiar with the general features of those children`s speech and those who are not familiar.

After analyzing the obtained results through calculating the intelligibility percentage value according to the groups of familiar auditors with the hearing impaired children`s speech is higher than the one of the unfamiliar auditors with the hearing impaired children`s, the difference value being 16%.

After analyzing and interpreting the obtained results and on the basis of calculating the exact percentage it can be observed a high percentage of co-articulation in the case of assimilation and accommodation despite that of elision both in the case of words sentences co-articulation.

The analyze and the interpretation of the obtained results according to the type of verbal test material demonstrates the large variability of the correct, mistaken and omitted words frequencies in the case of different forms and subtypes of co-articulation.

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THE DISCOURSE AND CONVERSATIONAL ANALYZES- METHODS FOR UNDERLINING THE FUNCTIONS OF THE SUPRASEGMENTAL ELEMENTS

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Dieses Studium hebt die hauptsächlichen Funktionen des übersegmentierten extensiven Elementes – der Intonation hervor, betonend den phonematischen und semantischen Wert dieser. Die Redeanalyse ist die hauptsächliche Untersuchungsmethode dieser Problematik, sie erlaubt die Erlangung sowohl der qualitativen als auch der quantitativen Daten. Die Teilnehmer an diesem Studium sind 21 Studenten, die theoretische und praktische Informationen haben und die diese in Hör- und Sprachrehabilitationstätigkeiten für die Konfiguration der Kommunikationsfähigkeit bei Kindern mit Hörschwierigkeiten verwenden können. Der Artikel detailliert einige aus der Redeanalysemethode ergebene Tätigkeiten für die Antreibung der übersegmentierten Elemente, bzw. die von den Studenten erhaltenen Ergebnisse mit den dazugehörigen Interpretierungshypothesen.

Schlüsselwörter: Redeanalyse, Person mit Hörschwierigkeiten, die Funktionen der Intonation, übersegmentierte Elemente, Intonation, Intonationskonturen.

ABSTRACT. Through this study are underlined the main functions of the extensive suprasegmental element –intonation, stressing on its phonemic and semantic value. The discourse analyze is the main investigation method of this aspect, it allowing to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data. The participants on this research are a group of 21 students who are prepared with both theoretical and practical knowledge to put them in practice in rehabilitating activities of the hearing and of the language, in order to build for the hearing impaired children the communicative competence. This article details several activities derived from the discourse analyze method, as the results obtained by the students offering interpreting adequate hypothesis.

Key words: discourse analyze, hearing impaired person, the intonation functions, suprasegmental elements, intonation, and intonation pattern.

1. The suprasegmental elements functions

Although intonation and stress are based on physiological basis common to all human beings, they are different, in an essential way from one language to another, engaging different rules for acting, rules which are dependent on and fit in the every language system. Under these circumstances it can be explained why the

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importance of studying the suprasegmental elements is brought to light in the “contact” between two different linguistic systems. Thus, the use of the suprasegmental elements characteristic for the mother language, when it is spoken a foreign language lead to the situation identified as being the “foreign accent”, and a similar phenomenon can be identified also when it is established a contact between the standard language and different dialects of that specific language. This type of signaled differences, underlines a significant aspect, that in the category of the “conditioned reflex” is not inscribed the suprasegmental characterizing of the auditory pattern, as it has a conventional character, it being organized by the acquisition and learning laws. Even the expressive functions of the suprasegmental elements are conventionalized, as they can be delivered by actors (in this situation being made the distinction between “spontaneous emotional language” and “recreated emotional language”, through the actors’ dramatic art and gift).

A major difficulty in studying the suprasegmental elements consists in that one and the same associated melodically curve, with one and the same lexical-grammatical structure can have in the same time more than one function. Thus, the suprasegmental organization of a statement such as “Mother comes” (Mama vine), can express, in the same time, the following:

- a question;
- an emphasis (for instance, on the word mother);
- a pleasant surprise.

There can be distinguished four distinct functions of the intonation and of the stress in Romanian language, underlines Dascalu-Jinga (2001). These functions are:

- the logical function;
- the modal function;
- the contrastive function;
- the syntactical function.

In the situation when there were identified several intonation variants through the commutation method, a method used especially in the linguistic research space, method which consists in studying intonation by using minimal pairs, homonym statements (with an identical segmental structure, but with a different suprasegmental structure, they not being homophones). The linguistic researches made by Dascălu-Jinga (2001) underlined the fact that when the intonation differentiation between those statements correspond to some functional and/or semantically, there were considered distinct types of intonations, named by the researcher intonation patterns or melodically patterns. Dascălu-Jinga (2001) includes in the identification of the intonation patterns the stress analyzes, too, considering those two aspects tightly connected. Thus, it was made this observation; in order to avoid the misunderstanding that the intonation pattern focuses exclusively the extensive suprasegmental element –intonation, eliminating the role and the importance of the other important suprasegmental element, the intensive one- the stress.

1.1 The materialization of the intonation functions

The same researcher emphasized some concrete aspects, realized in the standard language area, but also in that of the dialectal varieties of language, of the suprasegmental element. Their inventory can be organized by underlining the concrete manifestations of the above mentioned functions. The manifestations of the logical function are:

- the finality intonation;
- the continuity intonation;
- the end intonation.

Every type of intonation is named in such a way that the linguistic label facilitates the explanation and, in the same time, the understanding of the named intonation pattern. Thus, the linguists observed that the sequence articulated with a rising pitch shows that the message is not over yet, and the falling one mark the ending part, fact that explain the terms “continuity intonation” and “finality intonation”. The third term, “ending intonation” marks the possibility of ending the speaking before that certain communication is over.

The manifestations of the model function are:

- declarative intonation;
- interrogative intonation,
- imperative intonation
- exclamatory intonation.

In what the concretizations of the contrastive function are concerned there can be mentioned only two different intonation patterns:

- emphatic intonation;
- neutral intonation.

The concretizations of the syntactical function are:

- the role of the suprasegmentals in order to establish the distinction between subject and nominal predicate, between parataxis (juxtaposition) and hypotaxis (junction) or between direct speech and indirect speech, between the complete statements and the incomplete ones.

The role of the suprasegmentals, at a syntactical level, is the one to avoid and to eliminate the ambiguities. To the enumerated intonation patterns there can be underlined the numerous semantic values (the suprasegmentals being the ones that make sense and are significant), which can be explained and be distinguished with the help of some specific intonation patterns: *the asking pattern, the enumerative pattern, the parenthetic pattern, the rhetorical interrogative pattern, different to the simply interrogative one, the pattern of the complete questions, to those partial, alternative, the echo, remembering and complementary elliptical ones.*

Once the suprasegmentals functions are discussed there can be also brought into discussion the relationship between the speech prosody and punctuation. Goga (2001) emphasizes some important aspects, aspects that underline the relationship

between intonation, stress and punctuation. The researcher claims that the punctuation signs are fewer, most of them being multifunctional, not uni-functional, and when they are having a single function they are not mono-semantic, but they are poli-semantic, through the different aspects they can express. Many of these signs function as being synonymous, fact that explain the use of more punctuation signs in order to characterize the same prosody reality. The imprecise character and with lack of certainty of the punctuation signs can be considered abnormal, as the prosody richness of the speech and the situational complexity in which it is realized can't be expressed in writing with the help of rigid punctuation system and with strictly one road to go, values.

The majority of the linguists are disappointed by the low number of punctuation signs, the disappointment appearing from the need to express in written form, not only intonation, but also the effects and or the implied attitudes in the communication process. Hervé Bazin (apud Dascălu-Jinga, 2001), a well known writer came up with several inventions in the punctuation system of the French among which: the irony sign, the uncertainty sign, the acclamation sign, the authority sign and the love sign.

At this level, it is extremely important to be mentioned the distinction between: **linguistic competence and communicative competence**. While the linguistic competence proposes those abilities to produce correctly structures with grammatical valences, the communicative competence refers to those abilities to use contextually language. Thus, by introducing the suprasegmental elements in the corrective-compensatory process is focused on building this competence, the communicative competence, the only one which can ensure the user of a linguistic code the chance to become a competent speaker in his mother language.

In order to emphasize the intonation functions, all of them having serious implications in the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic level of the language, there can be used as main methods the method of the discourse analyze and the conversation analyze.

2. The discourse and the conversational analyze

2.1 The discourse analyze

This method becomes one of the strategies for qualitative research which is characterized by an important development in the last decade. Among those who contributed, in a significant way to the development of the discourse analyze method are: Michael Billing, Ian Parker, Ron Harre, Erica Burman (Băban, 2002). The method can be used, in a generic way, for every research focused on language and on its social functions (Potter and Wetherell, 1987), they studying the way language structures in a certain manner, thus it produces meaning and discourses that operate independent by the speaker's intentions or by the intentions of the one

who writes a certain text (Parker, 1992 apud Băban, 2002). Rotariu (1994) includes the discourse analyze in the largest category of the documents analyze (documents described as being of many types).

In the following there are going to be presented the stages of the discourse analyze proposed by Potter and Wetherell, 1987, apud Băban, 2002. These stages are: the formulation of the research questions, the selection of the sample, the data collection, the interview realization, the interviews transcription, the coding, analyze, the validation, the writing of the research report, the application. These stages are distinct from didactical reasons and from the reason to increase the research quality and value.

This method is constantly put on the relativity sign, its limits being considered pretty high, in what the real problem is beyond the words. The semiotic perspective invoked by a series of researchers (Băban, 2002, Iluț, 1997, Rotariu, 1994) is even more plausible in order to use this method in a research which aims to be placed in an **interdisciplinary area, the psycho-linguistic one.**

2.2 The conversational analyze

From this method, the discourse analyze, it was depicted a new method for data analyze, the conversational method. The conversational method is a method for interpreting speech in the social interaction developed in the discursive tradition, between those two, the boundaries being unclearly established. The conversational analyze describes means through which the ordinary people establishes usually verbal social interactions, by sequential structuring of the speech. The discourses analyze studies the discourse as text produced in the social practices and it is focused mainly on the rhetorical and argumentative dimensions of communication. This distinction is established by Băban, 2002.

In the following research those two research methods: the discourses analyze and the conversational analyze are used in a complementary way. The various linguistic samples analyze will focus on all the language levels: phonetic-phonological level, morphological and syntactical level, semantic, syntagmatic and pragmatic levels (Vasiliu, 1965). The special stress will be put on the linguistic mechanism of communication, aspect that can be easily described and investigated by using the conversational analyze method.

3. The applications of the discourse and conversational analyzes

3.1 The intonation modal, contrastive and syntactic functions-applications

This organized study is focused on underlining the phonematic value of the intonation and its sementic value, too.

The research objectives are:

1. To teach the students the necessary informations about the intonations functions, in particular, and about the suprasegmental functions, in general.

2. To abilitate them with the capacity to select adequated linguistic material which valoriy the predicative, syntactical and semantic (contrastive) functions of intonation, for the hearing training of the hearing impaired childre.

The research procedure:

Primarily the students were offered theoretical informations about the segmental and suprasegmental structure of the Romanian linguistic system, stressing on the psycho-pedagogical values of their recived linguistic nature knowledge.

A group of students were asked to go deeper in the bibliografical references, they were being given, thus they were being given the chance to find more about the extensive suprasrgmental element – intonation and to select linguistic structures which can also be used during the hearing training of the hearing impaired children. Those structures were also used and analysed, from a psycho-pedagogical point of view, with the whole group of students who attend the seminars of the discipline "The psychopedagogy of the hearing impaired children", their number was 21.

It was chosen this tutoring method in order to offer the students the chance to realize that only by a deeper studying and a serious refection on the theoretical aspects, can they be able to succesfully work with and for the hearing impaired children.

The obtained resultas:

The students were presented some recordings of several conversations which valories the intonation functions, especially the predicative and semantic ones. They were being given the task to diferenciate between the speakers, how many they are and which is their relationship, emotioanally speaking. In the fallowing there is presented a single recording of the type that were listened by the students:

- Are you ready?
- Ready?
- Yes.
- No!
- Why?
- Problems.
- Problems?
- Yes!

There was found that the students could differentiate between the speakers, their number, facing greater problems in establishing the type pf intonation pattern adequate to every linguistic structure, fact that lead to difficulties in establishing the relationship between those two speakers. The students could easily differentiate between the speakers as they were only two, a she and a he, their different tonality of the voices being an important indicator.

For the hearing impaired children this type of exercise is very useful in the hearing training sessions, from the point of view of differentiating between voices starting from their tonality.

Despite the fact that, from a theoretical point of view, the students know the intonation patterns, their handling, with psycho-pedagogical value is deficient. The explanation can be identified as being convergent with the one from the specialized literature, the one that the native speaker of a certain historical language uses the suprasegmental component all the time he elaborates an orally verbal communication sequence, thus the speaker is not conscious about its value in communication anymore (Dascălu-Jinga, 2001; Celce-Murcia, 1987; Kobatake, 1999; Anca, 2007). From this point of view there can be identified deficits in the meta-cognitive level, not in the cognitive one. This aspect has to be used as a compensation method, in the case of the hearing impaired children, thus the meta-cognitive aspects are as important as those cognitive and no cognitive ones.

In order to facilitate the acquiring of the abilities to mark the intonation patterns and to make adequate associations between the additive patterns and the correspondent intonation patterns, the text was written on the blackboard and it was accompanied by the marked intonation patterns through rising arrows and falling arrows. The main marking support of the intonation patterns were the punctuation signs, for the students. And this aspect is very important to be remember for the hearing impaired children`s training.

The next task the students were asked to solve was the one to order several words so that they were supposed to build conversational scenarios which valorize the predicative and semantic functions of intonation.

The task was considered as being very difficult; the students were organized in seven groups composed by three members. None of the groups succeeded to finish the task without help. They underlined the fact that without being attached a corresponding intonation pattern, the words are meaningless, their combination following some morphological and syntactical rules being irrelevant, from a semantic point of view. Just like in order to solve the previous task, the discourse analyze and the conversational analyzes were those two methods which help finding and attaching the correspondent intonation pattern and the adequate combination of the linguistic structure in order to build a meaningful text.

The impact of this type of tasks practiced previously was evaluated by asking to build some texts aimed to catch the semantic function of intonation. Everyone from those seven groups succeeded in building such texts, the help quantity being different from case to case. By taking into consideration these results there can be underlined the need to train the students who are being prepared to work this component of language, not only from a theoretical point of view, as the evidence is the one that consist an obstacle for their theoretical knowledge materialization. The discourse analyze method is the only one that offers the adequate strategies in exploring the text, facilitating the building of the semantic level of the language, but also the pragmatic one.

These observations complete Slama-Cazacu's observations from 1961, the discursive value of the language, especially, the predicative value of the intonation, facilitates the child's defocus his attention from the monologue, in order to give him the chance to valorize the dialogue. Thus, the use of such types of tasks in the hearing impaired children's education doesn't have implication only on the stimulation of the verbal-hearing analyzer, but also on his social competence, the dialogue facilitating the openness towards the other. Through the dialogue and conversation it is made the step from the egocentric language, to the socialized one.

This aspect was also aimed during this research study, being noticed the fact that in order to solve the second task, five from those seven groups, in percentage expressed 71,43% from the students preferred to solve the task by assigning roles, every student interpreting his own role, as authentic as possible, their cultural and communication experience allowing them this aspect, it even being a facilitator factor in solving the given task. This study can underline the need to train the language in real life and communication contexts, the training of the pragmatic level of the language, allowing, in fact, the training of all the other language levels: the phonetically-phonological one, the morphological-syntactical one and the semantic one, the linguistic system being an integrated and integrating structure, the simplest unit being the phoneme (being focused in this way the phonetically-phonological level of the language) and the most complex unit is the text connected to the context (being focused in this way the pragmatic level of the language).

3.2 Intonation and the rhythmical pauses- the logical function and its applications

The intonation pattern is highly dependent on the pauses that appear in the communication process. These pauses appear in a natural way, they being the concretization of the logical function of intonation. These pauses and the combination word-pause, word - pause constitutes the rhythmical chain of a certain utterance. At this level, we can underline the close relationship between those two suprasegmental elements, the intonation and the stress. In the communication process they can't be distinguished as they are both present. In other words, it can't be emphasized the intonation functions, its importance and its role in communication without having into consideration the stress.

Objective:

This sequence objective is to emphasize the way the logical function of intonation works in the communication process, as well as the way it can be thought to the students.

The working procedure:

The students were being dictating several texts build from logatomes. It was chosen this type of linguistic structures in order to eliminate the contribution of the semantic level, of the meaning, fact that allows the real investigation of the logical function of intonation.

The students' second task was to write by diction some mathematical formulas, they being forced to pay attention to pauses in order to be able to put, in the correct place the parenthesis .

Obtained results:

The students seem to face real difficulties in writing the texts built from logatomes, difficulties that underline the fact that they are not familiar with this type of activities, just like in the previous tasks. They even underline the fact that they weren't paying attention to this aspect, in this manner.

They even faced bigger difficulties when the logatomes were changed with mathematical structures. The students were being given the several structures:

1. $(1 + 7) \times 8 = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$
2. $13 + (9 \times 9) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$
3. $41 + (20 \times 4) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$
4. $(6 + 2) \times (2 + 4) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$
5. $(7 + 9) \times 3 = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$
6. $(3 \times 3) + (4 \times 5) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

The students' task was to write the mathematical structures, placing the parenthesis according to the heard intonation pauses, respecting the speaking rhythm. They were asked to individually solve the task, and then in group to compare the results by confronting them. There was no group in which the members had a unanimous opinion. They had to discuss their opinions and they all come to the conclusion that up to now, the training of the suprasegmental component of language seemed incompatible with the mathematical language.

By having such types of activities with the hearing impaired children, even in the math, they can have the chance to get constantly a hearing training, in as natural contexts as possible. Thus, the natural approach of conversation is the most recommended way to train the hearing impaired children in order to offer them the chance to become competent speakers in their mother language.

Conclusions

In the end the students received the task to analyze the proposed activities and to decide which are the appropriate ones for the hearing impaired children's training. Applying these types of activities will lead to the increase of the intelligibility level in receiving and producing speech. They will also facilitate the configuration of the complete phonological representations, representations which valorized both the segmental phonemic component, and the suprasegmental one. Through this type of exercises with which are familiarized the students enrich their knowledge about the way language works and about the implications of its all components in the communication process. The difficulties those 21 students faced are similar to those of the English students (Kobatake,1999), their difficulties being nuanced by the linguistic features of Romanian language. It is extremely important

to mention the fact that in English the intonation patterns are different from those from Romanian language, and so is the rhythmical structure, in this case a simple translation of the linguistic material used in the described activities weren't enough. Thus, by having access to a foreign bibliography, the students realized that no matter the children category, when it is about language and communication, and about organizing activities in order to rehabilitate them, the teacher is forced to select a linguistic material that valorizes the features of the Romanian linguistic system, otherwise the trained students are not given a real chance to become competent speakers.

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STRATEGIES OF OPTIMIZING COMMUNICATION AT CHILDREN WITH MULTI-SENSORY IMPAIRMENT

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ABSTRACT. The development of communication represents an aspect of great importance in the education and intervention at children with multi-sensory impairment, deafblindness included. Creating opportunities, developing sequential learning, implementing routines, increasing sensitivity, using natural contexts and creating an adequate learning environment are some of the aspects that the professionals must take into account when developing communication programmes. The strategies that are used for optimizing communication have to refer to the person as a whole, using this way the holistic approach of the person, and it must be individualized taking into consideration all the factors that can contribute to the functioning of the person. Promoting the interactions and creating an environment that encourages initiatives in communication are essential so that the child does not become isolated and he is getting information and knowledge about the world that he is experiencing. Service providers and parents must take into consideration that communication may progress from easy to complex, from few ways to many, with few people to many, from few reasons to many. It is the role of the care and education provider to enhance quality relationships with children and thus enabling him to become an active communication partner.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die Entwicklung der Kommunikation bildet einen wichtigen Aspekt in die Bildung und Intervention an die Kinder mit vielfachen Sinnesfehlbildungen, incl. die Kinder mit Taubblindheit. Das Schaffen der günstigen Gelegenheiten, die Entwicklung des aufeinanderfolgenden Lernens, die Implementation der Gewohnheiten, die Erhöhung der Empfindlichkeit, die Benutzung der natürlichen Zusammenhänge und das Schaffen einer Lernensumwelt bilden einige von Aspekten, welche von Fachleute für die Entwicklung der Kommunikationsprogramme in Betracht genommen sollten. Die Strategien, welche für die Optimierung der Kommunikation verwendet sind, sollen sich auf die vollständige Person beziehen, indem eine holistische Behandlung verwendet wird und die Intervention individualisiert ist, indem alle Faktoren, welche zur Funktionierung der Person beitragen können, in Betracht genommen sind. Die Förderung der Wechselwirkung und das Schaffen einer Umwelt, wodurch die Kommunikationsinitiativen unterstützt sind, sind wesentlich für die Vorbeugung der Kindesisolierung und zur Erleichterung des Zuganges zur Information und die Kenntnis betreffs der experimentierten Welt. Die Anstalten, welche Leistungen anbieten, aber auch die Eltern, werden die Tatsache in Betracht nehmen, dass die

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Entwicklung des Kommunikationsprozesses vom Einfachen zum Komplexen, von wenigen zu vielen Arten, von einigen zu mehreren Gründen erfolgt. Es ist die Rolle der Person, welche Unterstützung und Bildung anbietet, interpersonelle wirksame Beziehungen zu den Kindern zu entwickeln, indem das Kind einen aktiven Kommunikationspartner wird.

The spontaneous characteristics of communication is necessary and has a fundamental importance because it allows the development of interpersonal relationships, being in the same time an efficient modality to express needs and interests. Most of the children with deafblindness present difficulties in communication, the adults using approaches in which children learn how to respond to the communication of those around them, not being able to acquire skills that facilitate the initiation of communication. In this matter the communication environment is extremely important to create the context that determines the acquisition of functional communication competences, identifying in the same time the factors that can affect the development of communication skills. For example the way in which adults communicate, the level of noise in the room and the environment structuring.

The communicative behaviour is interpreted with difficulty if the individuals don't know the stages and the early development process at children and the particularities of the communication in these stages. The practice of observation and enrichment of experiences are needed to become more receptive to the behaviors of children: sensory reactions, social interactions, sounds.

Some of the efficient strategies used by practitioners to facilitate the development of communication are:

- the reduced use of speech,
- the maximum use of the proximal communication approach (Whittaker, 1996, Whittaker and Reynolds, 2000). This is structured in non-verbal interactions that imply play, imitation and alternating pauses with interactive activities.
- the use of alternative communication systems;
- the decrease of verbal prompters;
- the development of communication opportunities.

In the case of children with deafblindness even the simple words that name familiar objects can create difficulties in comprehension if they are associated with pictures, photos or symbol, used as visual cues. When adults use more words that are not relevant and concrete, children tend to withdraw from interactions. The essential characteristics of this approach (Whittaker, Potter, 1999, 2000) are: the consistent use of a limited number of concrete words that are relevant and context based, the accent on words that refer exactly to the relevant aspects of a situation that the child participates to (for example, when the child is offered an apple, the adult says "apple" in the moment when the child is being attentive and looks at him), speech being empathic and clear.

Proximal communication allows the development of efficient interpersonal relationships with children. The characteristics of this approach is related somehow with the approach of intensive interaction (Nind, Hewett, 1994), with the approach of expressing options, though it is different in some aspects (Potter, Whitakker, 2000).

Some elements of proximal communication are:

- the use of interactive movements, falling, tickling, rough movements, adequate to the motor development of the child;
- the use of minimum verbal input;
- the use of exaggerate facial expressions and physical reactions in the moment when the adult is the one who leads in the interaction;
- to alternate the active movements with pasive moments in which the adult is watching, waiting and respons to the communication initiatives of the child;
- to establish visual contact;
- to imitate the sounds that are produced by the child;
- to use delayed echolalia concerning the vocal productions of the child to encourage imitation;
- to focus initially on personal interactions and not on presenting objects;
- to imitate the child's movements to realise dialogue and to diversify interactions.

Most of the time the prompters that are used by adults in the attempt to encorage communication are questions and instructions. These approaches are inefficient in offering the child's communication an intentional value, the child waiting most of the times to be encouraged to communicate, becoming dependent on verbal prompters. Hale (1987) suggests that the goal of the intervention is to encourage the child to communicate as a response to what is happening in the environment and not as an answer to these prompters, becoming more independent. An efficient modality to determin spontaneous communication consists in using long pauses, when children are more attentive to the events that take place in their immediate environment.

An efficient approach that it is used in the development of communication is intensive interaction proposed by Nind and Hewett in 1994. The two authors suggest that intensive interaction is a curricular approach that involves one to one play activities which determins the stimulation and development of sensory, motor, cognitive, emotional and social domains. The games start from a daily activitiy, and then become pleasant experiences, where facial expressions, voice tonality, sounds from the environment, the colours and scents offer the child opportunities of stimulation and development.

The intensive interaction facilitates learning, develops communication and offers opportunities to relate and develop the sense of trust and emotional bonding, in a secure and reactional environment. The approach is used especialy with children who present difficulties in communication, most of them at a pre-verbal level, children who have reduced social skills, present self-aggressive behaviours,

don't have friendships. Intensive interaction is an approach that respects the individual, valuing the person as a social and communicative person; it is about negotiation, according to the abilities and difficulties that the child has, avoiding imposing a certain style of learning. The central idea of this approach is the active participation of the child, using the learning through action principle.

In the conditions of impaired communication, the ability of the child to transmit information is reduced and severely limited. The interactions with family members, friends, interveners or members of the community can become frustrating for everybody involved.

Augmentative communication refers to the use of systems and techniques that supplement the existing skills of verbal and vocal communication. Alternative communication refers to the communication methods used by a person who lacks vocal abilities (Vanderheiden, Yoder, 1986), but also types of symbols, methods of displaying the symbols (electronic and non-electronic devices), techniques to indicate the selected symbols (direct access, scanning and encoding), but also particular aspects of the electronic systems of communication.

Vanderheiden and Lloyd (1986) sustain the importance of a collection of techniques and modes, symbols and strategies that the child can use alternatively, at his choice (p.52). Within the graphic modality, the individuals who used initially an electronic device of communication can use a non-electronic mode (for example in an environment that is not secure for using the device). Lloyd și Fuller (1986) but also Vanderheiden and Lloyd (1986) refer to symbols as entities that vary from static to dynamic. Dynamic symbols have meanings that are expressed through change, transition and movement, so that they cannot be considered permanent and lasting. Static symbols include graphic symbols and objects that are permanent and they don't need a change or a movement to be expressed. Taking into consideration this definition the differentiation between static and dynamic is easily made, so that static symbols tend to be associated with communication boards and graphic systems/ modes, and dynamic symbols tend to be associated with gestural systems and modes (Reichle, J., York, J., Sigafos, J. 1991). The symbols are learned by the association of these with objects that are already known or concrete situations. It is important to represent the symbol. PECS is a method that it is used in this stage with great efficiency, because it allows the association of the word with the picture, and throughout intervention the child does not use anymore pictures, using only the word. PECS was created initially for children with autism in order to develop functional communication skills. The method can be used with children who have difficulties in developing language or when the child presents sensory impairments that affects the efficiency of communication. In the case of deafblind children, one of the main advantages is the inclusion of theoretical with practical approaches according to the behavioural analysis as a teaching- learning strategy. This way before starting to use this method behaviours must be identified, behaviours through which the child is motivated to communicate.

The method shows the importance of a relationship between the child with the adult, more than a simple attitude of waiting some signals that he can react to. The advantages refer to:

- ❖ the exchange of information is intentional, clear and easy to understand;
- ❖ the child initiates the interaction;
- ❖ communication has a meaning, it is according to the child's interest and it is extremely motivating.

Using this method, the child is taught to initiate communication using pictures, different items, in order to have a tangible outcome in social context. The type of symbols that are going to be represented must be individualised to meet the specific needs and children's abilities. Generally, children use drawings, pictures cut out of magazines, photos, outlined figures for those who don't have residual sight or objects of reference; these must be attached to cards adapted to the communication boards and they are used in individual activities.

The following recommendations are based on the work of Siegel-Causey (1989) cited by Aitken and Buultjens in 2000:

- a) creating opportunities,
- b) sequential experience
- c) increasing sensitivity
- d) increasing input
- e) using natural context
- f) adapting the environment.

In order to develop communication, the intervener becomes a communication partner that can be trusted, who motivates the child, creating a reacting and stimulatory environment, facilitating the development of receptive communication, implementing the strategies that allow understanding, facilitates the development of expressive communication by encouraging intentional communication, offering opportunities of taking turns, request, refusal, decision. In this approach the following are recommended:

- Development of a reactive environment
- Use of routines, cues and gestures
- Opportunities to take decisions, to interact, to communicate
- Offering support
- Identifying the steps of a action
- Continuous stimulation of residual sight and hearing.

It is very important to make an assessment of the communication profile of the child but also an assessment of the communication environment (profile of the partner and profile of the environment). This way information about the characteristics of the systems of communication of the child, the particularities of the communication interactions, but also the actual environment and learning contexts.

There is a significant difference between a stimulative environment and a reactive environment. Reactive environment develop by assuring a relationship of attachment and depend on the ability of the child to process a variety of sensory information, the temperament of the child, previous experiences and communication competences of the adult whom he interacts with (Chen, D., Schachter, P.H.,1997).

The strategies that facilitate the development of the attachment in an educational setting include:

- Establishing a consistent and predictable contact to facilitate anticipation and control, for example offering information in the periods of transition between activities, identification of individuals by using a personal bracelet or symbol.
- Respecting the need of the child to feel secure, especially with traumatised children or with those who present a pronounced need to control environment where activities are developed.
- To react adequately and immediately to any communication initiative of the child in order to develop the cause and effect concept, the child being aware that he can control the environment and produce a change in the attitude, behaviour, communication and information in the environment and the actors who are involved
- To engage and to orientate the attention of the child in reciprocal activities that involve movement, gestures, vocal and verbal dialogues
- To apply the techniques of resonance which was elaborated by Jan van Dijk in initiating the behaviour of early attachment through tactile contact that offer a strong feeling of support and safety or or by movement patterns that are used then to create conversations or interactions that imply turn-taking. As long as the child is getting accomodating with close contact and reciprocal movements start to indicate by the use of signals the desire to continue the movement, the adult offering positive feed-back to the initiated behavior.
- The use of co-active communication, for example movements can be combined to create sequences of different movements, sequences that can have different degrees of difficulty, according to the child's motor and cognitive abilities, so that the activities can be carried out through reciprocal action, the input of the adult being reduced gradually in order to increase the child's independence. The hands of children with deafblindness are valuable tools of knowledge and communication, in establishing relationships, development of concepts like object permanence, knowing the characteristics of objects, orientation in familiar and unfamiliar environments. In most of the cases children have residual sight or hearing if they are stimulated and trained sustain the activity of hands in finding out information, coordination, structuring and organising the space. The expressivity of hands represent the necessary pre-acquisition to achieve self-esteem, independent mobility and development of language. Hands must be taught to become curious, to search, to explore, but also to express a variety of ideas, needs, emotions.

- The use of hand on hand technique to initiate and maintain dialogue and to offer meaning to communication and learning context.
- To form and to develop routines through which the experiences of the child are organised.

For the development of daily activities can offer patterns for familiar interactions for the children and it allows the play of an active role in this exchange. It is important to establish the routine, to assure opportunities to participate, to encourage participation. Games and routine activities have a component of my turn, your turn, and help the children to get aware that they can express. Routine activities like freetime, transition between the activities and environments are getting redundant and these events that take place in different environments can be structured to encourage anticipation. Routine and scenarios can be established to assure consistency to activities that are developed to achieve the objectives. Routines are developed around any activity that is carried out regularly between the adult and the child (Aitken, S., Buultjens, M., 2000). Within the routines it is very important to observe how the child approaches the task, his expressive and receptive communication skills.

Significant delays in development, severe motor disabilities, frequent medical affections and the lack of training the residual sight and hearing affects the initiation of social interactions and communication opportunities. The development of communication at children with multi-sensory impairment takes into consideration the following principles: to identify the communication system and modality in which the child initiates and maintain vocal, tactile and verbal dialogues. Routines, games, creating opportunities, attention given to learning and communication environment, but also the implementing strategies and specific techniques develop communication skills at the child with multi-sensory impairment.

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CAREER MONITORING OF ENGLISH TEACHER GRADUATES

MARIETTA BANKÓ*

ABSTRACT. The paper deals with the question of researching on English teacher graduates in relation to their professional careers and to the institute from which they graduated. On the one hand, it discusses some of the major relevant aspects of career monitoring, English language teacher training and teacher research. On the other hand, it presents such a research, carried out among English teachers who graduated from the University of Pannonia, Hungary in June 2001.

The main results are partly methodological-procedural in that we developed a research concept and design that can easily be adapted and further improved to suit the aim of similar researches. And they are partly empirical in that the data, facts and relations characterising the population in the areas investigated have been first described within research.

Keywords: career monitoring; English teachers; the University of Pannonia

1. Introduction

As a specific overlap of higher educational research, foreign language pedagogy, foreign language teacher training and teacher research, the paper deals with the question of researching on English teacher graduates in relation to their professional careers and the institute from which they graduated from two perspectives.

On the one hand, it discusses some of the major relevant aspects of career monitoring, English language teacher training and pedeutology. On the other hand, it partly presents the major elements of such a research, carried out among English teachers who graduated from the University of Pannonia, Hungary in June 2001.

2. Rationale for research

If the question is why it is of any significance to research – regardless of the institution and the programme – as to how graduates perform in the profession and the labour market, and how they assess the training that prepared them for professional life and the labour market they have to fit in, the answer should mention quality assurance, accountability, expansion and labour market accommodation. With reference to English teacher graduates, the answer should touch upon the status of English language pedagogy and the characteristics of English language

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teacher training. With further reference to the university whose graduates are researched on it should also outline the history and the characteristics of its English language teacher training.

In the following career monitoring of graduates, English teacher training and pedeutology will be discussed inasmuch as they constitute the rationale for research in the Hungarian context.

2.1. Career monitoring of graduates

Career monitoring of graduates and labour market feedback are old-new questions in higher education and educational policy in Hungary.

On the one hand, it is to be considered old-established in the sense that it is not without antecedents. The triangular interrelationship of needs, training and labour market in the past was treated according to Fábri (2001) intuitively, which, however, seemed to work. Reports of the time worded commonplace proposals such as “it is more profitable to be trained to become a lawyer, an economist or an IT engineer than a nursery teacher, a metallurgical engineer or a classical scholar – both for the individual and the economy” (Fábri 2001: 33).

On the other hand, it is rather to be looked at as a new endeavour, or as an old one in a new garment, on at least five grounds. Firstly, it was first in a 1992 conference that the idea of the importance of labour market needs had been officially discussed (Fábri 2001). Secondly, Hungary signed The Bologna Declaration in 1999, which may have contributed to the need to see and to make it seen how well the university-colleges and the universities perform. Thirdly, quality assurance, which is one of the three priorities of the Bologna process and which also postulates a regular contact of the institution with its partners including its students, graduates and the labour market, has become a responsibility of educational institutions. Fourthly, as opposed to the 1993 act on higher education, the new one, which came into effect in 2006, provides that it is a task of higher educational institutions to survey their graduates on their labour market position. Fifthly, recently it has become a much-discussed topic that the financial and the immaterial-social value of degrees is fading away primarily due to higher educational expansion. However, there is no unanimity whether this is the case.

Despite – and/or due to – the above, career monitoring is not yet a common practice in Hungary (Csapóné 2004), and surveying graduates of faculties of law and arts is the rarest of all (Országos Felsőoktatási Információs Központ [National Higher Education Information Centre] 2005).

2.2. English teacher training

From a historical perspective the change of regime, the shift from socialism to democracy in 1989 induced and facilitated changes that affected English teacher training, as well. First, 1989 saw the end of Russian being the compulsory foreign language to be taught at school. The new needs were primarily towards English and

German. Thus, on the one hand, many Russian teachers were no longer needed, and, on the other hand, there was a lack of teachers of the new languages, especially English and German as mentioned above. Two major projects were started to ease the problems, one to re-train teachers of Russian to become teachers of the new foreign languages, the other to train practice-oriented teachers of the new foreign languages in an undergraduate programme two years shorter than the traditional five years. Altogether 4900 teachers graduated from the re-training programmes until its end in 1998 (Földes 2002). The three-year programmes ended in 2002, reflecting the general opinion four years earlier (Enyedi and Medgyes 1998) that they would be needed as long as the lack of foreign language teachers pertains.

However, even in the ascending line there were some concerns worded. First, the three-year programmes were single majors, which was a feature different from the Hungarian tradition of five-year double major teacher training, and this contributed to an increase in five-year single majors and a decrease in five-year double majors (Bárdos 2006). Second, the popularity of the new foreign language programmes could only partly be attributed to the applicants wanting to become teachers, the motive for application very often was to achieve proficiency in the language and thus find a well-paid job (Enyedi and Medgyes 1998).

2.3. Teacher research (pedeutology)

The term teacher research in the context of the paper means research on teachers that is pedeutology and not by teachers as for instance in the case of Freeman (1998). Classroom research by teachers is not uncommon, nor is research on teachers as to how they motivate, interact with, or teach students. Research on teachers in relation to their professional development, career profiles, circumstances, mobility, reflection on the training, burn-out, or coping-strategies has intensively attracted systematic scientific attention recently, contributing to the crystallisation of pedeutology about a decade ago.

3. Research characteristics

The context described above given we proposed a research conception and plan to monitor the careers of English teacher graduates. In the following the aim, the methods, the instrument and the subjects of the survey part of the research conducted will be discussed.

3.1. Aim of research

The central aim of the questionnaire-research was to describe patterns of professional life of English teachers who graduated from the full-time five-year English programme of the University of Pannonia, Hungary in June, 2001.

In accordance with the central aim above, three preliminary aims were defined. These were the following:

(a) The primary aim was to describe the data, facts and relationships characterising the population of the research in relation to the areas investigated.

(b) On the basis of this primary research, we also aimed to facilitate the formulation of research hypotheses which could serve as the bases for working hypotheses for further research.

(c) A further aim was to develop a questionnaire (see Appendix 1) as the instrument of the research which could serve as the primary basis for developing a similar instrument or instruments for researches into the area.

3.2. Research methods, instrument and subjects

The research methods we applied were both (a) deductive and (b) inductive. (a) Deductive methods were used to investigate the relevant literature and context, including the relevant history of the English-American Institute of the University of Pannonia, Hungary. (b) At the empirical stage a questionnaire was applied as its instrument.

The questionnaire data was processed manually and with the help of software. A spread sheet programme was used to present the results in figures and tables, and a data-miner application was used especially to do classification.

The instrument of the empirical stage of the research was a questionnaire developed by the researcher. The questionnaire consisted of 71 main questions containing further sub-questions. Thematically the questions can be classified into eight groups. These are: (a) basic data (personal data such as sex, marital status, place of residence, secondary school studies, the time period between graduation from secondary school and admission to one of the English programmes at the University of Pannonia); (b) qualifications; (c) choosing the profession of an English teacher; (d) labour market position; (e) professional questions; (f) professional-teacherly aspirations; (g) assessment of the English teacher training at the university, and finally; (h) reflection on the questionnaire itself.

The subjects asked to answer our questionnaire were the group of English teachers who graduated from the full-time five-year English teacher training programme of the University of Pannonia, Hungary in June, 2001. The response rate was 98%.

4. Findings

Considering that even a brief list of the results of the complete data processing would be longer than the paper itself, some of the most important ones will be highlighted below. It has to be borne in mind that the results only apply to the population investigated, and this, by no means, implies that they can or are to be generalised to characterise any other group, groups or sample of graduates. In this respect, the results lend themselves to comparison with the results of similar or larger-scale surveys and researches.

4.1. Social and geographical mobility

It is a fact proven and not merely a commonplace that the medical and legal professions are closed in the sense that the profession is a family tradition and outsiders are rare arrivals at the social class. The tendency, however, has altered recently, the legal, but not the medical, class seems to get diluted since there is an increase in the number of law students who come from different family backgrounds (Fábri 2004). As regards the teacherly profession, it is “the most frequented way of social ascent [trans. by me – M.B.]” (Nagy 1998, 529) for children of non–white-collar families.

In the population investigated, almost every third respondent (31%) comes from a family with at least one parent being or once having been a teacher, and 27% of them (8% of the whole population) thought they had been influenced in choosing the teacherly profession by the parental example (see Table 1 later).

As regards the geographical mobility of the respondents, the tendency is towards places of higher ranks (Figure 1). More respondents lived in the capital (12%) and in county towns (55%) at the time of the data collection than prior to starting university studies (8% and 43% respectively). In line with this, fewer live in other towns (24%) and villages (8%) than before starting university studies (37% and 12% respectively). Likewise, in the case of temporary address the preference is similar, nobody moved to a village, and the most popular is the capital city.

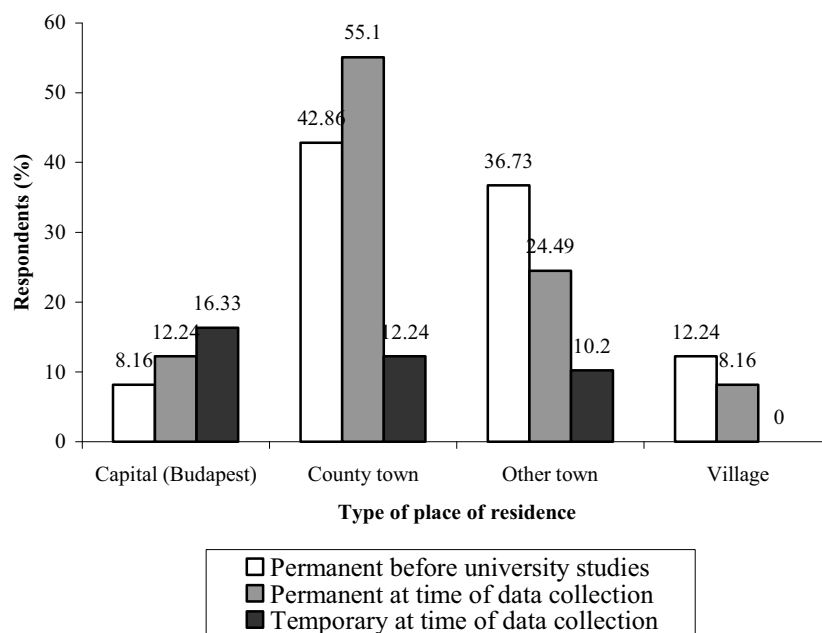


Fig. 1. Geographical mobility

4.2. Career profiles

To describe career profiles of the population, we investigated the circumstances of choosing the teacherly profession, and the undertaking of work as English teachers during university studies and after graduation.

A recent representative survey amongst Hungarian undergraduates (Fábri 2004) found that 11.1% of them had chosen the profession they were studying for at the time of the data collection in childhood, 44.9% at secondary school, 30.8% at the very end of secondary school studies, 8.7% later, 0.4% did not know, and for 4.2% the field they were majoring in was not the one they had wanted to be accepted for. In this respect, the figures characterising our population rather coincide with what Enyedi and Medgyes (1998) say about the popularity of English majors (see Section 2.2). Almost every fourth of them said they never had the aim to become English teachers (Figure 2). More than a third of the population said they had decided to become teachers only while at university, which, in a positive interpretation, throws light on the role the university played in orientating unwilling or hesitant students towards the teacherly profession.

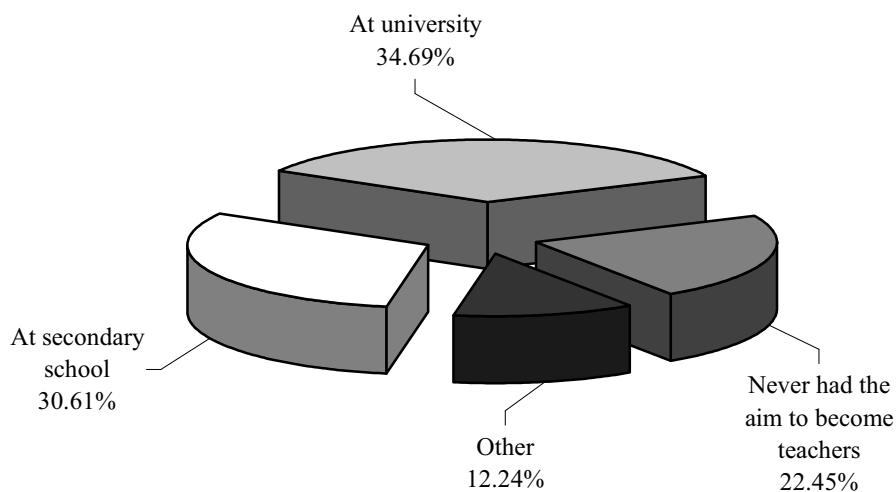


Fig. 2. Time of decision to become a teacher

We observed differences between men and women in regard to the time of decision to become a teacher. Proportionally more men (45%) than women (16%) said they had never had the aim to become teachers, and also more women (37%) than men (27%) claimed they made their decision during university years (Figure 3).

CAREER MONITORING OF ENGLISH TEACHER GRADUATES

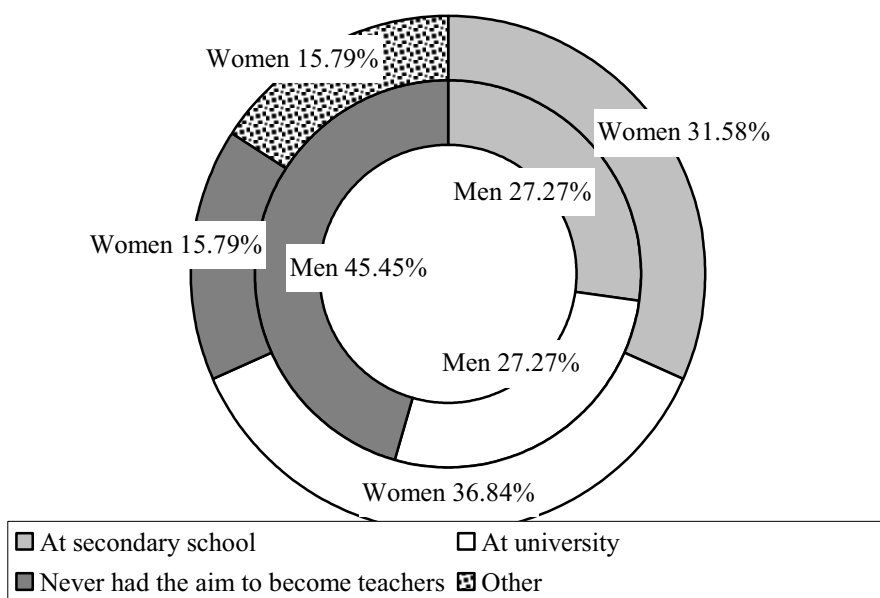


Fig. 3. Time of decision to become a teacher in the class of men and that of women

The primary motives for application were also diverse (Table 1). The most frequent one (41%) was that the respondent was only interested in English as a language, but not in English as a language to be taught. A further 10% of the respondents wanted to play safe when applying to university since English was the major they had a good chance to be accepted for.

Table 1.

Motives for application

Motives for application	Respondents (%)
Wanted to become teachers, and both parents are teachers	2.04
Wanted to become teachers, and mother is a teacher	6.12
Wanted to become teachers, and father is a teacher	-
Wanted to become teachers, but neither of the parents is a teacher	12.24
When applying did not want to become teachers but at university changed their minds	20.41
Were only interested in English and did not want to work as teachers	40.82
English was the major they had a chance to be accepted for	10.20
Other	8.16
Total:	100.00

It is not uncommon that undergraduates seek employment. For a teacher trainee there are several opportunities for practising the profession before graduation besides the compulsory teaching practice. One fifth of the population (20%) did not work at all during their university studies, which is more than expected (Table 2). 67 percent worked at least for a while as English teachers, the others did not work as English teachers but did other jobs. From those who worked as English teachers, 55% (also) gave private lessons mainly at home, 42% (also) worked in the state sector and 36% (also) worked in private language schools.

Table 2.

Employment during university studies

Type of employment during university studies		Respondents (% in relation to the class; % in relation to the population)	
1 Did not work		20.41	
2 Worked		79.59	
2.1 Not as English teachers		15.38; 12.24	
2.2 As English teachers		84.62; 67.35	
2.2.1 In the public (state) sector		42.42; 28.57	
2.2.2 In (private) language schools		36.36; 24.49	
2.2.3 As private teachers		54.55; 36.73	

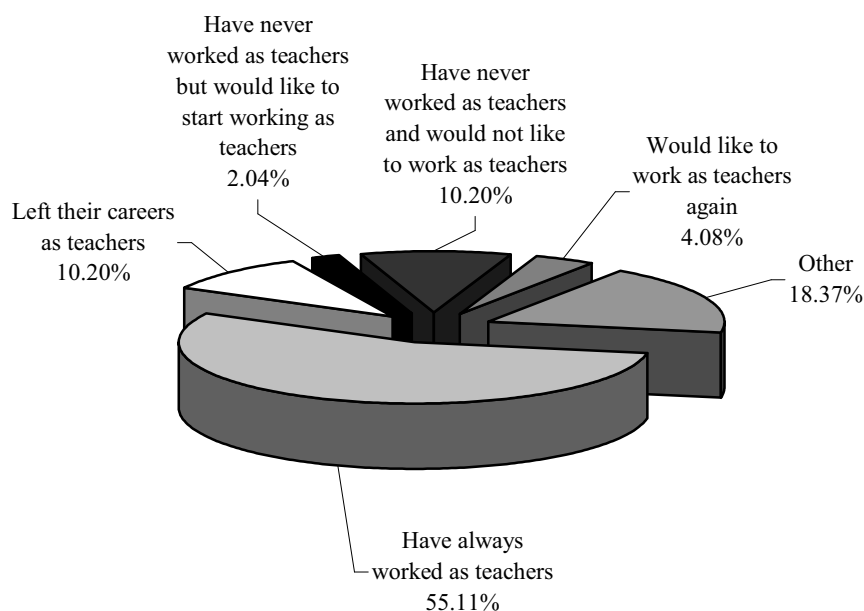


Fig. 4. Career profiles after graduation

Career profiles after graduation show that more than half of the subjects (55%) have stuck to the profession, they have always worked as teachers, and most of them say they love to teach (Figure 4). There are only 10% who say they have never worked as teachers and do not even plan to take up careers as teachers. Most of them mentioned financial considerations as the reason for this. Altogether 6% say they would like to either take up or return to the teacherly profession. The latter, those who would like to start working as teachers again (4%) say they miss teaching very much.

Only 8% of the respondents plan to give up their work as teachers, but 24%, that is more than one third of those who say they work as teachers are considering leaving the profession. Those who plan to give up their work as teachers argue that the salary is low, or that they would like to try other areas, and there is one respondent who feels that being a teacher is humiliating. The hesitant say that although they love the profession, they have to take financial considerations into account.

4.3. Labour market position

41 percent of the population said they had started looking for a full-time job before graduation. However, more than two thirds of the population (69%) found a full-time job within two months after graduation (Figure 5). Almost every third of them (29% of the class, and 20% of the population) continued working holding the positions they had held before graduation, half of them as teachers.

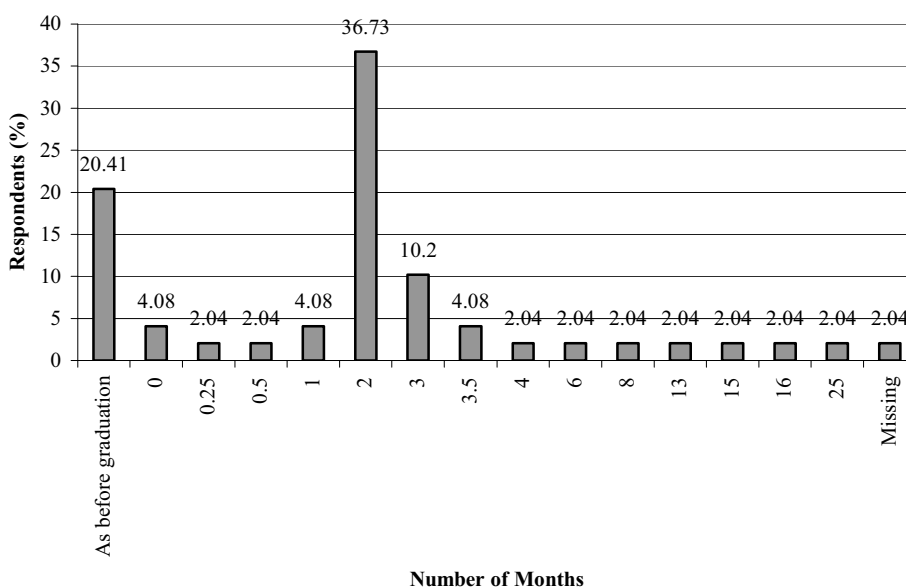


Fig. 5. Number of months between graduation and starting first full-time job

At the time of the completion of the questionnaire 80% of the population worked full-time (including the 4% full-time entrepreneurs) and nobody was unemployed. More than every fourth respondent (27%) said they had tried (typically part-time) entrepreneurship to teach English in this way, which is still less than we had expected.

The analysis of the number of employments showed that more than a quarter (29%) of the respondents had had three, four, five, and even seven employments since graduation either simultaneously or consecutively (Figure 6), which might indicate changes in the labour market.

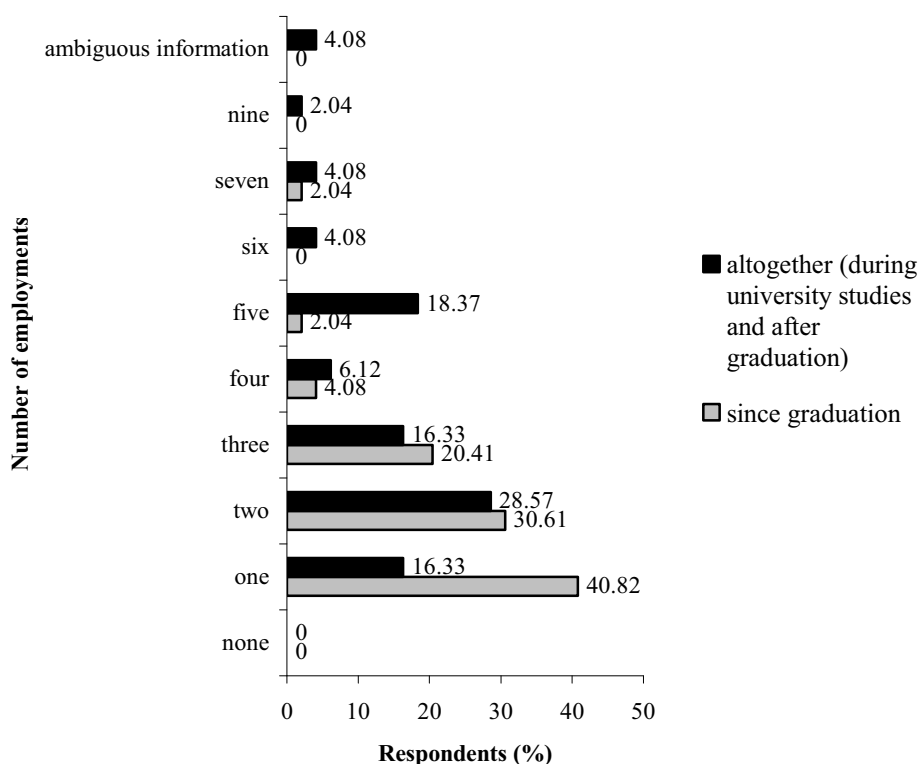


Fig. 6. Number of employments since entering university and since graduation

4.4. English teacherly questions

In the following we present some of the findings of the survey that relate strictly to the respondents teaching of English, such as the repertoire of subjects taught by the population and teaching load.

CAREER MONITORING OF ENGLISH TEACHER GRADUATES

We determined 15 plus one (named other) subject-areas to cover English teaching in Hungary and asked the respondents to give and specify the ones they had ever taught. We found that there was a diversity of subjects ever taught by the respondents (Table 3), and that teaching English for specific purposes was not significant in the population.

Table 3.

Repertoire of respondents' subjects with a content of English as a language

Repertoire of respondents' subjects with a content of English as a language	Respondents (%)
gen 4	2.04
gen 8	2.04
gen 12	14.29
gen ls	10.20
ESP ls	2.04
other	4.08
gen 4; gen 8	4.08
gen 12; gen 14	2.04
gen 12; gen ws	2.04
gen 12; gen ls	2.04
gen ls; other	2.04
gen 4; gen 8; gen 12	4.08
gen 4; gen 8; gen ls	6.12
gen 8; gen 12; gen ws	2.04
gen 12; gen 14; gen ls	2.04
gen 12; gen 14; ESP 14	2.04
gen 12; gen 14; other	2.04
gen dg; gen lc; ESP lc	2.04
gen 4; gen 8; gen dg; gen ls	2.04
gen 4; gen 8; gen ls; other	2.04
gen 8; gen 12; gen lc; ESP lc	2.04
gen 12; gen 14; gen ls; other	2.04
gen 12; gen 14; gen lc; ESP 14	2.04
gen 4; gen 8; gen ls; gen lc; ESP ls; ESP lc	2.04
gen 4; gen 8; gen 12; gen 14; gen ls; ESP ls	2.04
gen 12; gen ls; gen lc; ESP 14; ESP ls; other	2.04
Missing	16.33
Total:	100.00

List of abbreviations:

gen 4: general English in classes 1-4	gen lc: general English in language centre of higher educational institution
gen 8: general English in classes 5-8	ESP 14: English for a specific purpose in classes 13-14
gen 12: general English in classes 9-12	ESP ls: English for a specific purpose in language school
gen 14: general English in classes 13-14	ESP lc: English for a specific purpose in language centre of higher educational institution
gen dg: general English in workers' secondary grammar school	
gen ls: general English in language school	

At the time of the data collection the population held altogether 684,5 lessons a week, about the four fifth (561,5) of which were English lessons. 43 percent of the respondents teach English in public (state) education (in primary and secondary schools), one third (33%) outside the public educational sector (in language schools, universities, and/or as private teachers at home). It is not uncommon that respondents are involved in more than one form of teaching English.

4.5. Indices of professional aspiration and success

As regards the professional aspirations, the questionnaire investigated membership in professional-pedagogical associations and labour unions, and the academic activity of the respondents. Membership of the population is significant in neither pedagogical associations (4%) nor labour unions (8%). The academic activity of the population is characterised by 10% PhD-students. It is to be noted, however, that there is a proportional majority of men in scientific activities. Proportionally more men (36% and 45%) than women (8% and 18%) are involved in scientific research and publication, even if there is a quantitative dominance of women among teacher trainees (cf. Ladányi 2000).

We observed that in the case of the population investigated the quality of the degree has predictive validity in relation to the respondents' professional success provided we accept that the indices examined play a role in it (Table 4). The indices we investigated were (1) the time of starting to look for employment after graduation, (2) the number of months between graduation and employment, (3) the English-teacherly nature of the first employment after graduation, (4) English-teacherly nature of further employment, (5) career profile, (6) intention to quit the profession, (7) membership in professional associations, (8) labour union membership, (9) being in employment at the time of data collection, (10) employment for an indefinite period at the time of data collection, (11) type of employment at the time of data collection, (12) scientific aspiration, (13) research activity, and (14) publication activity.

CAREER MONITORING OF ENGLISH TEACHER GRADUATES

Table 4.

Some indices of professional success according to the grade of the degree

Class (%)	Grade of degree				
	5+ (6.12)	5 (59.18)	4 (26.53)	3 (2.04)	na (6.12)
	(%)				
Time of starting to look for employment after graduation					
Teacherly employment before graduation:	100.00	34.48	38.46	-	33.33
Teacherly employment right after graduation:	-	20.69	23.08	-	-
Non-teacherly employment before graduation:	-	3.45	7.69	-	-
Non-teacherly employment after graduation:	-	3.45	7.69	100.00	-
Did not look for employment during studies:	-	10.34	-	-	33.33
Neither during nor after studies:	-	13.79	15.38	-	-
Other:	-	13.79	7.69	-	33.33
Number of months between graduation and employment					
Continued working as before graduation:	33.33	20.69	23.08	-	-
Immediately:	-	3.45	-	-	33.33
1 month:	-	6.90	15.38	-	-
2 months:	33.33	41.38	30.77	-	33.33
3 months:	-	10.34	15.38	-	-
4 months:	33.33	6.90	-	-	-
6 months:	-	-	7.69	-	-
8 months:	-	-	-	-	33.33
13 months:	-	3.45	-	-	-
15 months:	-	-	7.69	-	-
16 months:	-	-	-	100.00	-
25 months:	-	3.45	-	-	-
Missing:	-	3.45	-	-	-
English-teacherly nature of first employment after graduation					
English-teacherly:	66.67	62.07	53.85	-	33.33
Not English-teacherly:	33.33	34.48	46.15	100.00	66.67
Missing:	-	3.45	-	-	-
English-teacherly nature of further employment					
Yes:	66.67	27.59	23.08	-	-
No:	-	27.59	23.08	-	66.67
No further employment:	33.33	41.38	53.85	100.00	-
Missing:	-	3.45	-	-	33.33
Career profile after graduation					
Have always worked as teachers:	66.67	55.17	61.54	-	33.33
Left the teacherly profession:	-	13.79	7.69	-	-
Never worked as teachers but would like to:	-	-	7.69	-	-

MARIETTA BANKÓ

Never worked as teachers and would not like to:	-	3.45	15.38	100.00	33.33
Left the profession, but would like to return:	-	6.90	-	-	-
Other:	33.33	20.69	7.69	-	33.33
Intention to quit the profession					
No:	66.67	41.38	38.46	-	33.33
Yes:	-	10.34	7.69	-	-
Do not know:	33.33	20.69	30.77	-	33.33
Missing:	-	27.59	23.08	100.00	33.33
Membership in professional associations					
Yes:	-	6.90	-	-	-
No:	100.00	93.10	100.00	100.00	100.00
Labour union membership					
Yes:	33.33	6.90	7.69	-	-
No:	66.67	93.10	92.31	100.00	100.00
Being in employment at the time of the data collection					
Yes:	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	33.33
No:	-	-	-	-	66.67
Employment for an indefinite time period at the time of the data collection					
Yes:	33.33	58.62	69.23	-	33.33
Yes, as full-time entrepreneur:	-	6.90	-	-	-
No:	66.67	27.59	23.08	100.00	33.33
Missing:	-	6.90	7.69	-	33.33
Type of employment at the time of the data collection					
Full-time:	66.67	79.31	76.92	100.00	33.33
Part-time:	-	10.34	7.69	-	-
Full-time entrepreneurship:	-	3.45	7.69	-	-
Child care allowance (GYED in Hungarian):	-	6.90	-	-	-
Maternity aid (GYES in Hungarian):	-	-	-	-	33.33
Other:	33.33	-	7.69	-	33.33
Scientific aspiration					
PhD in process:	33.33	6.90	15.38	-	-
No, but plan to obtain one:	33.33	17.24	15.38	-	-
No, and do not plan to obtain any:	33.33	68.97	69.23	100.00	100.00
Other:	-	6.90	-	-	-
Research activity					
Yes:	33.33	13.79	15.38	-	-
No:	66.67	86.21	84.62	100.00	100.00
Publication activity					
Scientific publications:	33.33	17.24	15.38	-	-
First (scientific one) in preparation:	33.33	-	-	-	-
Non-scientific publications:	-	6.90	7.69	-	-
Do not plan to publish anything:	33.33	75.86	76.92	100.00	100.00

4.6. Reflection on the training

Asking graduates to reflect retrospectively on the training is an essential part of career monitoring. Its essential nature lies in that it offers direct feedback on how the graduates themselves assess the training that prepared them to succeed professionally.

In developing the questionnaire we applied the terms analytic assessment and holistic assessment borrowed from the field of language testing (see for instance Alderson, Clapham and Wall 1996). In the analytic assessment, we determined blocks of training, in the holistic assessment the training was to be evaluated as a unity, as a whole (Figure 7). In both cases the respondents were asked to give marks, one being the worst and five the top mark. In a comparative analysis of the results of the analytic and the holistic assessments we found that the respondents holistically assessed the training provided by the English-American Institute rather than the training provided by the university.

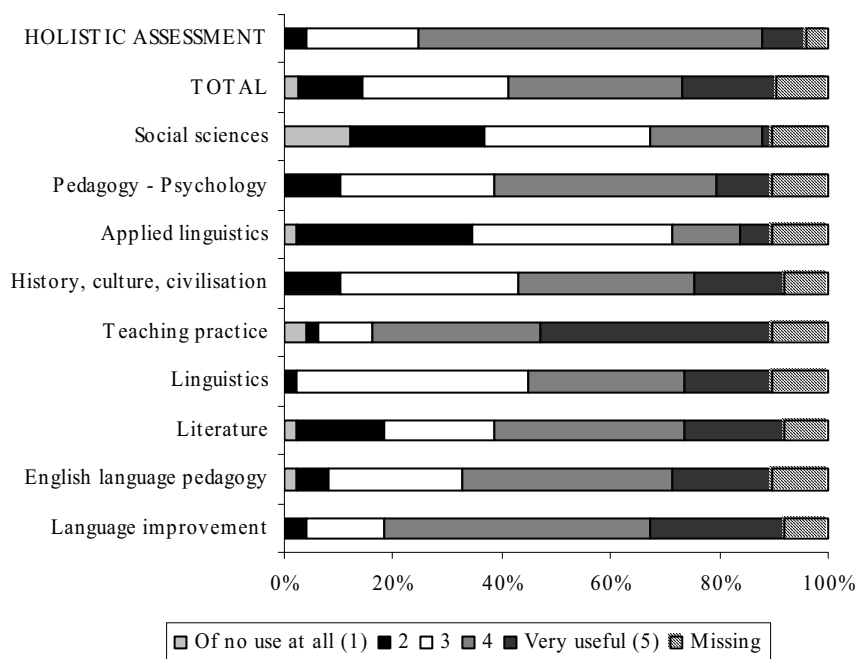


Fig. 7. Analytic and holistic assessment of the training

Respondents were also asked to name areas they missed from the training. Here we applied an open-ended question without offering response options to choose from considering that we wished to get authentic answers and wanted to avoid influencing the respondents. The relationship we found was that the more useful a block of training was according to the graduates, the more they missed from it (see in more detail Bankó 2006).

5. Conclusion

The research the context, procedure and results of which have been partly presented in this paper is both a complete one in its own right and also a test of a research of the kind. Being either the case, an analysis and evaluation with a view to fostering and facilitating the work of the researcher who undertakes the task of continuing the research is a must. Possible ways of further research have been suggested in relation to research scope, population and method in Bankó (2007).

The research, though presented briefly, in its complexity contributes to the career monitoring and evaluation endeavours of higher educational institutions, and English teacher training, in general, and the University of Pannonia, in particular, hoping that the parties involved might show interest in the results.

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ON TEXT PRODUCTION AND TRANSLATION

ALINA PREDĂ, MANUELA TRIFAN

Motto: "To translate, one must have a style of his own, for otherwise the translation will have no rhythm or nuance, which come from the process of artistically thinking through and moulding the sentences; they cannot be reconstituted by piecemeal imitation. The problem of translation is to retreat to a simpler tenor of one's own style and creatively adjust this to one's author."

Paul Goodman

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Textproduktion stellt ein umfangreiches Bereich dar, der aber aus dem Sichtpunkt eines Übersetzers angesehen, viele Grundsätze beinhaltet, die zu einer erfolgreichen, genauer und qualitativen Übersetzung führen. Die vorliegende Studie wurde bestimmt um theoretische Einsichten betrefflich der verschiedenen Aspekten einer Übersetzung vorzustellen, insbesondere in der Richtung der Grunderfordernissen der Textproduktion, welche für das Verstehen der elementaren Problemen aus dem Prozess der Transponierung, Nachbildung und Wiederherstellung des Textes essenziell sind. Die Beispiele, ausgesucht um das theoretische Teil zu unterstützen, zeigen sehr deutlich, daß das Achten auf den Grundsätzen der syntaktischen aber auch semantischen und pragmatischen Ebenen des Textes sehr wichtig sind, um kohärente, qualitätsmässige Texte herzustellen.

SCHLÜSSELWÖRTER: Textproduktion, Übersetzung, Grammatikalisches Urteilsvermögen, Text, Kontext, Syntax, Semantik, Pragmatik

ABSTRACT. Text production is a very large field but, if approached from a translator's point of view, it yields important guidelines that help considerably in the creation of successful and accurate qualitative translations. This study is meant to provide theoretical insights into the various aspects of translation, mainly those related to the basic requirements of text production, essential for a better understanding of the fundamental issues involved in the process of transposing, rearticulating and re-creating texts. The examples chosen to illustrate the theoretical underpinnings clearly show that respecting the conventions of not only the syntactic and semantic textual levels, but also of the pragmatic one is of utter importance in order to succeed in producing coherent high-quality translations.

KEYWORDS: text production, translation, grammaticality judgements, syntax, semantics, pragmatics

Translation studies is probably one of the most mysterious linguistic fields. This should come as no surprise to those who have even the least amount of experience in the field. First and foremost, translating presupposes making a choice, or, to be more exact, a series of choices: any translation is, in fact, just one variant chosen out of a number of possible versions. There are many ways of stating one and the same idea, and each possible variant hides different shades of meaning. The role of the translators is to make the best possible choice of wording, taking into account the numerous factors involved in any act of communication:

- Who are they translating for?
- Is the target audience a factor that should determine the translation procedure?
- What are the significant features of the audience's profile that must be taken into consideration when translating?
- What features of the text are relevant for the translators in their attempt to create a high-quality translation?
- What is the type of text, its concern and its purpose and what are the translation requirements in each case?
- What function is the text meant to perform and how does text-function awareness influence the translation process?
- Is form essential, must it be preserved, or is content the all-important element?

These are some of the most important issues that translators must take into consideration if their endeavor is to be successful. And, after all these questions have been given an answer, it all comes down to text production, a skill that all good translators should possess.

In order to become a good translator one needs to acquire the ability to understand and produce well-structured texts. This capacity is essential for any translator, since otherwise the very aim of the translation process may not be reached. Thus, a translator's most basic ability concerns the construction of texts, yet not merely simple ones, but proficient texts.

This study offers an outline of the different dimensions involved in the process of text production, the syntactic, semantic and, respectively, the pragmatic one, three equally important aspects which must be given careful consideration when translating.

Phases of text production

A translation must be accurate in all its dimensions, not only in the syntactic but also in the semantic and the pragmatic ones. Syntactic elements could reveal some constructions which have to be thoroughly examined, some language specific grammatical aspects that cannot be found in the target language, and, therefore, the syntactic elements of the target language must be checked in order to

ON TEXT PRODUCTION AND TRANSLATION

find some proper equivalents. On the other hand, the semantic and pragmatic structures must also be taken into consideration, because, after all, they are responsible with the meaning, the understanding and the following of logical discourse patterns. Here again, the source language could exhibit some semantic constructions which, if translated word for word, could sound hilarious or be utterly meaningless. Thus, the mere transfer of lexical meaning into the target language does not usually yield the needed semantic structure.

Robert de Beaugrande (1984: 103) considers the following as a typical sequential - stage relay model:

Pragmatics	Semantics	Syntax	Lexicon	Phonemics/Graphemics
plans	meaning	structure	words	sounds/letters

However, although Robert de Beaugrande mentions **five** dimensions of language and, implicitly, of texts, the most important issues concerning text-production and consumption are best systematised by Hartmann (1984: 36), who mentions only **three** components of texts:

	The Syntactic Component	The Semantic Component	The Pragmatic Component
Concern	The different ways in which successive portions of discourse are strung together to form complete texts	The different ways in which referential information is distributed among the constituent elements of a text	The different ways in which discourse correlates with functional variety
Studies on this topic (conclusions reached)	-can be included in the grammar of language	-the study of meaning (Akmajian&Demers, Farmer,Harnish,1990:194)	Katharina Reiss and Wolfram Wilss have advocated a semiotic textual analysis which would specify the discourse features of the source-language message that must be maintained to convey an adequate target-language version when translating.

Issues to be taken into consideration when discussing the topic	-The grammaticality of sentences -The ordering of words and morphemes -Structural ambiguity -Sentences with different structures can have the same meaning -The grammatical and logical relations within a sentence	-Conceptual meaning -Connotative meaning -Social meaning -Affective meaning -Reflected meaning -Collocative meaning -Thematic meaning (Geoffrey Leech)	-What are the original speaker's intentions? -What is the thematic content of the message? -What reaction is expected on the part of the hearer? (Wolfram Wilss)
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The syntactic component

Due to what Akmajian (1990: 126) calls the “intuitive judgment” of native speakers, they are able to produce and comprehend an infinitely large number of phrases and sentences including many that they had never heard before. Chomsky (1976:150) explained this essential feature of linguistic creativity by postulating the existence of a **generative grammar** that derives the sentences’ surface structures from the deep structures (initial phrase markers), a grammar consisting of a **system of rules** and a **set of principles** able to assign representations – at the phonetic, semantic and syntactic level – to an infinitude of expressions. This internalised grammar has the form of generative rule systems, – finite systems with infinite output –, able to account for linguistic creativity.

Fromkin & Rodman (1988: 164) point out that ‘grammaticality judgments are not idiosyncratic or capricious, but are rule-governed’, because ‘grammaticality judgments do not depend on whether the sentence is meaningful or not’:

- ❖ Colorless green ideas sleep furiously
- ❖ A verb crumpled the milk

These two sentences would be accepted as grammatical by any English native speaker, although they sound rather strange, whereas the following two utterances would always be deemed as ungrammatical:

- *Furiously green colorless sleep ideas.
- *The crumpled milk verb a.

On the other hand, the syntactic rules that account for these intuitions about strings of sentences are more than rules of word order, therefore the idea of a 'natural order of thoughts' mirrored by word order is misleading and naïve. Sentences that seem extremely similar at surface level are clearly different syntactically and thus express meaning differently:

Jane is easy to please. (It is easy for someone to please Jane)
 Jane is eager to please. (Jane is really willing to please someone)

Consequently, meaning is articulated not at surface structure, but at deep structure.

Moreover, show Fromkin & Rodman (1988: 165) '[g]rammaticality does not depend on the truth of sentences either - if it did, lying would be impossible - nor on whether real objects are being discussed, nor on whether something is possible or not. Untrue sentences can be grammatical; sentences referring to pregnant fathers can be grammatical.'

The syntactic component of text production is essential, as shown by various linguistic analysis tests. Although the popular view holds that simple sentences are easier to understand than complex ones, it is essential to find the golden ration of hypotactic to paratactic structures in order to increase the comprehensibility of a text. For example, Tyler (1994) performed an analysis on written transcripts of botany lectures delivered by two teaching assistants, a native speaker and a non-native speaker of English. The five native speakers of English asked to assess the two transcripts, while unaware of the language background of the lecturers, all stated that the non-native speaker's discourse was less clear and more difficult to understand. Thomas Bloor and Meriel Bloor (1995: 228) explain that '[t]he subsequent linguistic analysis found that the native speaker used twice as many hypotactic structures in his presentation as the non-native speaker. In particular, the frequency of relative clauses is well over twice as high in the native speaker's text.' This is, however, not only a matter of quantity but, primarily, one of quality, as 'the function of hypotaxis is to signal the speaker's intended logical and prominence relations' (Bloor and Bloor, 1995: 228).

The way in which some non-native speakers use the English language, or any other language apart from their mother tongue, for that matter, as compared to native speakers of English, is somewhat similar to the use of language displayed by young children, as compared to adults. Adults tend to use lengthier themes and more hypotactic structures, thus the text seems better-formed, clearer and easier to comprehend. Children, on the other hand, construct their discourse as a string of independent clauses, thus failing to appropriately signal the peaks of prominence in the text. Here is an example given by Scardamalia and Bereiter (1987: 157-158) featuring two writers, an adult and a child, who are planning a story entitled *A Kid Who Lost Things*.

Do I want an adult [character] to intervene? Or do I want this to be realistic? Or fairy tale-ish? ... Ah, let me see . . . I know. He makes this model of a ship and on this ship he makes a little model of himself, and he loses it! And this little model of himself happens to end up in his pocket. Oh, why not? I can do anything with this story! Okay, so he just doesn't have any friends and he's still doing things, and he doesn't know where he's put his ship and this little model of himself. But - magic! The little model starts to talk to him and helps him to find things!

I could put him going to school and he probably loses a shoe. And then he's trying to find it and somebody else finds it. And he goes home and tells his mother and his mother ... and then the person that finds it gives it back and ... then the next day, ... the boy says thank you to the person that found it. Then the next day he goes to school, he loses something else. And the teacher asks him what he lost ...

These examples were analyzed by John Field (2005: 122), who contrasted the way in which the first writer, an adult, 'explores lots of possibilities for the story and then makes quite thoughtful choices so that the story has a logical development', with the second writer, a child, who 'plans in a straight line: she thinks of an idea, then she thinks of another idea, then another idea' in a merely additive fashion. The child never goes back 'to revise what she has planned, to get an overview or to build her ideas into a story structure'. This is what Scardamalia and Bereiter describe as 'knowledge telling', whereas the adult planning process, which 'takes full account of cause and effect' thus imposing a meaningful pattern upon the raw material displays evidence of what Scardamalia and Bereiter call 'knowledge transforming' (Field, 2005: 61).

Translators must therefore make sure that they do not construct the text in a child-like fashion, that they do not fall into the trap of using only paratactic structures at the expense of the hypotactic ones, and that they also translate with the ear, so to say, ensuring that the translated version sounds as good as a discourse created by a native speaker of the target language, whichever that particular language might be.

The semantic component

As Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1968: 245) points out, '[e]xcept for the immediate satisfaction of biological needs, man lives in a world not of things but of symbols'. And since language is symbolic, 'we are not free to change the meanings of words at will', lest we would be unable to communicate with anyone (Fromkin&Rodman, 1988: 205).

“When I use a word,” Humpty Dumpty said, in rather a scornful tone, “it means just what I choose it to mean, neither more nor less.”

“The question is,” said Alice, whether you can make words mean so many different things.”

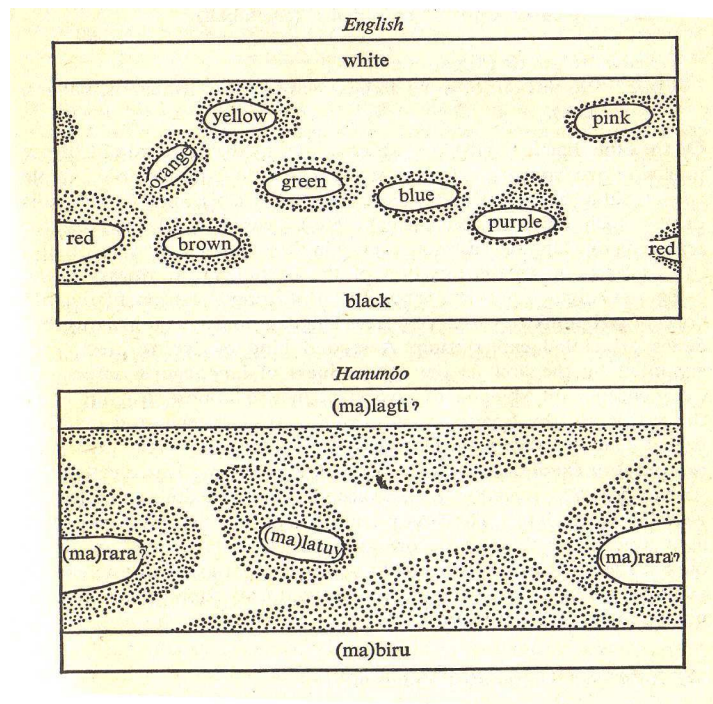
Although new words may be created, when they enter the language, their sound-meaning relationship is already determined.

When thinking about semantics a rather puzzling question arises, namely if language is a single conceptual system, or whether there are as many conceptual systems as there are languages. Attempts have been made to hypothesize a universal conceptual framework, common to all human languages, but this was not an easy task, because it was discovered that different languages classify experiences in different ways. In every language there can be found words such as "male" or "female," "animate" or "human," which are therefore called semantic universals. Other semantic categories are shared by all cultures and referred to by all languages: for example pronouns and color words. Linguists noticed that the composition of pronoun systems is governed by several universal rules regulating distinctions in person and number: the languages restricted to two classes of pronouns, singular and plural, in the first, second, and third person, are grouped into one language type. But there are languages that make use of more pronouns: the *dual* pronoun, which allows the speaker to address two people, clearly indicating that there are '*two*' people; *inclusive* pronouns, which refer to the speaker and the addressee together, and *exclusive* pronouns, referring to the speaker together with people other than the addressee. (Preda, 2004: 111)

There is a universal pattern in the case of colour words as well. Although there exist eleven basic color terms: *black, white, red, green, blue, yellow, brown, purple, pink, orange, and grey*, not all languages have all basic color terms. However, a universal pattern can be detected: languages with two color terms always have *white* and *black*, those with three *white, black* and *red*, and those with more have additional basic color terms according to the order in the list above. ‘The languages which have the same basic color terms in common belong to the same *language type*, and, according to this scheme, seven classes of languages have been identified: languages with two, three, four, five, six, seven color words, and languages with eight to eleven such words’ (Preda, 2004: 111). Geoffrey Leech’s examples (1981: 25) presented in his book entitled *Semantics. The study of Meaning* can further clarify this issue. Leech starts from the theory postulated by Berlin and Kay, according to which English has a range of eleven primary colors terms: black, white, red, green, yellow, blue, brown, purple, pink, orange and gray, whereas, according to Conklin (1955, quoted in Leech, 1981: 25) the Philippine language of Hanunóo has just four:

- (ma)biru= black, dark tints of other colors
- (ma)lagti= white, light tints of other colors
- (ma)rara= maroon, red, orange
- (ma)latuy= light green, yellow, light brown

The diagram below shows the difference between the two systems (Geoffrey Leech, 1981: 25):



Examples of this kind of linguistic relativity can be found in other languages too, even, for example, in French, German and English, although these are languages associated with closely related cultures. Let us consider the following example:

The English word RIVER can be translated into French either as
 → fleuve (= river flowing into the sea), or as
 → rivière (= tributary river)

There are also differences between Chinese and English in subdividing certain categories which English treats as a unity:

- { Tái (= to carry something between two persons, e.g. a ladder)
- { Ná (= to carry something otherwise, e.g. a bag)

On the other hand, there are also situations in which the English language has categories, while Chinese makes do with one:

zhuōzi

- table
- desk

bēizi

- cup
- mug
- glass

jiǔ

- alcoholic drink
- wine
- beer
- whisky

Consequently, when translating a text from Chinese into English, or vice-versa, a problem occurs, because of the cultural differences. In this case the translator has to find a valid method that allows him/her to create a good translation which carries the message of the source language to the readers/listeners of the target language in a valid form.

Leech (1981: 30) also points out that language could become a ‘mental straitjacket, which determines our thought processes and our assumptions about the universe’, if we insist on the idea that language is a static, closed conceptual system. He then shows that, ‘like any other system relating to human society’, the semantic system is actually continually being ‘extended and revised’. New concepts come to life in large numbers, day by day, and these neologisms soon become familiar to people. On the other hand, a process of semantic development may occur, as already existing words come to be associated with utterly new meanings.

Leech (1981: 31) explains that, with the introduction of a new word, the existence of a category can be called into question. Although, at first, expressions such as ‘bed-maker’ and ‘rock-shredder’ are perceived as the equivalents of the respective relative clauses (‘one who makes beds’; ‘that which shreds rocks’), the single words carry a special shade of meaning, pertaining to the bringing into existence of a category:

- the word *bed-maker* asserts that there is a special institutional category of person, whose function or habit is to make beds. Thus, there is a remarkable difference between *Is she a bed-maker?* and *Does she make beds?* The answer of this question could be: ‘Well, she does make beds, but she’s not a bed-maker.’

- *rock-shredder* has a greater newness value than the phrase *machine which shreds rocks*, because it indicates that somewhere or sometime, someone found it necessary to institute a class of objects with this role
(Leech, 1981: 31)

The adoption of new concepts can also be noticed in the case of other types of words, such as abstract nouns and adjectives:

- *McCarthyism*
- *Gaullism*
- *Thatcherism*
- *Heathism, Nixonism, Brezhevism* are not yet legitimate expressions, but they could have been brought into use
(Leech, 1981: 32)

In the advertising field, new adjectives are being generated, because they encapsulate a special, newly invented idea which the advertiser wants to associate with his product:

- *Top-of-the-stove cookers* is the term used to describe a new concept of cooking, in which probably the housewife does not have to bend down annoyingly to take things out of the oven
- *Ready-to-eat cereal* is a special sort of cereal that does not need to be prepared
(Leech, 1981: 32)

The creative tendency is matched by the anti-creative one. Leech (1981: 33) speaks about the simplifying and stereotyping effect which can be exploited by lexical innovation in certain uses of the language, such as political journalism, and he calls this phenomenon 'jargonization':

- American administrators and politicians were stereotyped as *hawks* or *doves*

Other syntagms came into being in connection with bargaining and negotiation:

- *Backing down*, if one side in an industrial or international crisis makes a strategic concession to the other
- *Selling out*, used when one party to a dispute is seen to have betrayed his cause by yielding an important matter of principle
(Leech, 1981: 33)

In conclusion, concepts vary from language to language, but it is a matter of debate as to what extent, and how far, it is possible to postulate semantic universals common to all human language. Proving the existence of linguistic universals and establishing their possible typologies is an extremely difficult task,

since languages are, by definition, constantly changing, therefore, as Comrie (1981) specifies, a universal once determined may not be valid in the future. Still, according to Nobili (1999), the theory of linguistic universals is an interesting field of study, which could prove really useful since '[i]t can contribute to improving language teaching, by identifying elements which are identical in all languages and which therefore do not require further explanations. It can [also] strengthen the theory of a common origin for the whole human kind' and this would benefit several other sciences, such as anthropology and sociology.

However, conceptualization is essential in translating, since it is, firstly, culture-bound and thus, secondly, language-bound. As David Crystal (2007: 417-418) pertinently shows, translators have to render semantic equivalence between the source and the target language, and this is why translation is 'different from other kinds of linguistic activity, such as adapting, précis writing, and abstracting.' The patterns of connections created between words in the translator's mother tongue and those in the second language vary not only function of the similarity or difference between the respective languages, but also according to the way in which each translator processes words in his/her second or third language. There are two different ways in which words in two languages may be connected: on the basis of an association process – the *word association model*, or through shared conceptual representations facilitated by a similar semantic content – the *concept mediation model* (see Potter, So, Von Eckardt, and Feldman, 1984). A study conducted by Choi (2005) proved that the latter model is used more frequently by speakers who are proficient in the second language, in other words 'the more proficient L2 learners are, the larger semantic context effects they should get in forward translation' (Choi, 2005: 17), therefore we may conclude that the way in which translators process words in their second or third language also depends on their level of proficiency in the respective languages.

The pragmatic component

The general study of how context influences the way in which sentences convey information is called *pragmatics*, a term that comes from the field of **semiotics**, or the study of signs (Fromkin&Rodman, 1988: 227). Pragmatics is a field of inquiry as complex as *syntax* or *semantics*. As Fromkin and Rodman (1988: 227) explain, within **semiotics**, *syntax* depicts 'the way signs are arranged,' *semantics* refers to 'what signs mean or signify,' and *pragmatics* means 'the relationship between signs and their users.' Therefore, pragmatics is concerned with people's **use of language in context**, being a part of what has been called *linguistic performance*.

One of the most common and popular conceptions of human linguistic communication is the model presented by Akmajian (1990: 309) which accounts for certain commonsense features: it predicts that communication is successful

when the hearer (or, in the case of written texts, the reader) decodes the same message that the speaker encodes (or, in the case of written texts, the writer). In order to determine the right meaning of the different expressions, the reader must be able to mentally process sentences that reflect complex structural properties. Semantics studies meaning in language as a product of the meaning of words. But there are aspects of meaning which are not derived solely from the meanings of the words used in certain phrases and sentences. Therefore when we read or hear pieces of language, we normally try to understand not only what the words mean, but what the writer or speaker of those words wanted to convey. When rules are broken, there appears the so-called anomaly-phenomenon, which may result in the **no sense** and **nonsense** of sentences.

It is not enough for a sentence to be grammatically correct in order for it to make sense, because the semantic properties of words ‘determine what other words they can be combined with’ (Fromkin&Rodman, 1988: 232). Let us take as an example Chomsky’s famous sentence, which has often been used by linguists to illustrate what happens when semantically unfitting words are combined.

Colorless green ideas sleep furiously.

As Fromkin and Rodman (1988: 233) demonstrate, this sentence is perfectly grammatical, since it obeys all the syntactic rules of English. The subject, **colorless green ideas**, is combined with the predicate, **sleep furiously**; and thus the sentence displays a syntactic structure identical to the one in the sentence:

‘Dark green leaves rustle furiously.’

Semantically, however, there is clearly something wrong with the sentence. ‘The meaning of colorless includes the semantic property ‘without color,’ but it is combined with the adjective green, which has the property ‘green in color.’ How can something be both ‘without color’ and ‘green in color’ simultaneously? Other such semantic violations also occur in the sentence.’ (Chomsky, 1957: 15)

However, it is possible to make sense of this sentence based on **polysemy**: if we take **colorless** to mean *nondescript* and **green** *immature*, the sentence can be construed as meaning ‘nondescript immature ideas have violent nightmares’, a sentence ‘not unimaginable in poetry’ (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/>). Similarly, if we understand **green** as *newly-formed* and **sleep** as figuratively expressing *mental or verbal dormancy*, the sentence meaning would be ‘*Newly formed bland ideas are inexpressible in an infuriating way.*’ (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/>). Different writers have tried **to assign meaning to this sentence through context**, the first attempt being made by the Chinese linguist Yuen Ren Chao (1971):

MAKING SENSE OUT OF NONSENSE
The Story of My Friend, Whose Colorless Green Ideas Sleep Furiously

by Y. R. Chao (after Noam Chomsky)

‘I have a friend who is always full of ideas, good ideas and bad ideas, fine ideas and crude ideas, old ideas and new ideas. Before putting his new ideas into practice, he usually sleeps over them to let them mature and ripen. However, when he is in a hurry, he sometimes puts his ideas into practice before they are quite ripe, in other words, while they are still green. Some of his green ideas are quite lively and colorful, but not always, some being quite plain and colorless. When he remembers that some of his colorless ideas are still too green to use, he will sleep over them, or let them sleep, as he puts it. But some of those ideas may be mutually conflicting and contradictory, and when they sleep together in the same night they get into furious fights and turn the sleep into a nightmare. Thus my friend often complains that his colorless green ideas sleep furiously.’

(<http://www-linguistics.stanford.edu/Archives/Sesquipedalian/1996-97/msg00033.html>; retrieved on 27.02.2007)

In 1985, a literary competition was organized at Stanford University, in which the participants were asked to provide meaning to Chomsky's sentence by using 100 words of prose at the most, or 14 lines of verse. Here are four examples of entries from the competition:

‘It can only be the thought of verdure to come, which prompts us in the autumn to buy these dormant white lumps of vegetable matter covered by a brown papery skin, and lovingly to plant them and care for them. It is a marvel to me that under this cover they are labouring unseen at such a rate within to give us the sudden awesome beauty of spring flowering bulbs. While winter reigns the earth reposes but these *colourless green ideas sleep furiously*.’

(C.M. Street)

‘Behold the pent-up power of the winter tree;
Leafless it stands, in lifeless slumber.’

ALINA PREDA, MANUELA TRIFAN

Yet its very resting is revival and renewal:
Inside the dark gnarled world of trunk and roots,
Cradled in the chemistry of cell and sap,
Colourless green ideas sleep furiously
In deep and dedicated doormancy,
Concentrating, conserving, constructing:
Knowing, by some ancient quantum law
Of chlorophyll and sun
That come the sudden surge of spring,
Dreams become reality, and ideas action.'

(Bryan O. Wright)

'Let us think on them, the Twelve Makers
Of myths, trailblazing quakers
Scourging earthshakers
Colourless green ideas sleep furiously
Before their chrysalides open curiously
Anarchy burgeons spuriously
Order raises new seedlings in the world
By word and gun upheld
The scarlet banner is unfurled
The New Country appears
Man loosens his fears
The New Dawn nears
Recollect our first fathers
The good society in momentum gathers.'

("recently discovered sonnet by Alexander Blok";
translated by Edward Black)

'Thus Adam's Eden-plot in far-off time:
colour-rampant flowers, trees a myriad green;
helped by God-bless'd wind and temp'rate clime.
The path to primate knowledge unforseen,
he sleeps in peace at eve with Eve.
One apple later, he looks curiously
at the gardens of dichromates, in whom
colourless green ideas sleep furiously
then rage for birth each morning, until doom
brings rainbows they at last perceive.'

(The winner: D. A. H. Byatt)

(Available at: <http://www.linguistlist.org/issues/2/2-457.html#2>; retrieved on 27.02.2007)

There are a few other examples, similar to Chomsky's sentence, such as the French '**Le silence vertébral indispose la voile licite**' which may be translated as 'The vertebral silence indisposes the licit sail', whose author is the French syntactician Lucien Tesnière. Groucho Marx came up with '**Time flies like an arrow. Fruit flies like a banana**' which 'mixes syntactic confusion with semantic confusion' thus pointing to the futility of 'a purely syntactical approach to parsing natural language without semantic context' (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/>; retrieved on 20.11.2007). In order to make a similar point, the philosopher Bertrand Russell used the sentence '**Quadruplicity drinks procrastination**'.

Another example which could also be taken into consideration in this discussion is the one mentioned by George Yule in his book entitled *The Study of Language*. It was actually taken from a newspaper advertisement and it makes one wonder about the message the advertiser intended to convey with the following expression: FALL BABY SALE. Yule explains that '[i]n the normal context of our present society, we assume that this store has not gone into the business of selling young children over the counter, but rather that it's advertising clothes for babies. The word 'clothes' does not appear, but our normal interpretation would be that the advertiser intended us to understand his message as relating to the sale of baby clothes and not, we trust, of babies' (Yule, 1991: 98). This example clearly points to **the utter importance of context**, which must be taken into consideration when interpreting and on translating a text.

Conclusions

Text production is a very large field but, if approached from a translator's point of view, it yields important guidelines that help considerably in the creation of successful and accurate qualitative translations. A translation is "qualitative" if the transfer of information into the target language is done in such a way as to preserve the meaning of the original work. As we have seen, there are some elements of text production to which special attention must be paid when writing a translation. But, even more importantly, the diversity of languages and cultures must be taken into consideration, because translating does not involve a mere transfer of words from one language into another.

The theoretical insights into the various aspects of translation outlined above are closely related to the basic requirements of text production and essential for a better understanding of the fundamental issues involved in the process of transposing, rearticulating and re-creating texts. The examples chosen to illustrate the theoretical underpinnings clearly show that respecting the conventions of not only the syntactic and semantic textual levels, but also of the pragmatic one is of utter importance in order to succeed in producing coherent high-quality translations.

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STUDY UPON THE ACHIEVEMENT OF A CLASS MANAGEMENT COMPETENCE DURING A UNIVERSITY SEMINAR

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die Erreichung einer Kompetenz im Bereich des Klassenmanagements während eines didaktischen Seminars. Im ersten Teil dieses Beitrages werden die allgemeinen Regeln und die Sonderregeln, die zur Errichtung einer guten Klassenstimmung dienen, vorgestellt. Es werden konkrete Beispiele gegeben. Der Lehrer entscheidet *Belohnungen* für die Schüler, die sich an die Regeln halten und *Bestrafung* für die Schüler die auf Regeln stoßen. Das Zweck dafür ist die Respektierung der Regeln. Im zweiten Teil wird die Durchführung eines Experimentes beschrieben. Es wurde mit den Studenten des vierten Jahrgangs, im Rahmen des Seminars *Klassenmanagement während des GeographieunterrichtsI*, durchgeführt. In diesem Experiment wurden die folgenden Lernziele erwünscht: die Studenten sollen aus allgemeinen Regeln weitere Nebenregeln finden; sie sollen Beispiele für Sonderregeln geben können, sie sollen die passenden Belohnungen und Bestrafungen für jede konkrete Situation herausfinden. Die Studenten haben am Ende des Seminars die folgende Kompetenz erreicht: sie waren imstande einen Klassenmanagementplan zu entwickeln.

Schlüsselwörter: Klassenmanagement, Disziplinplan, Regel, Belohnung, Bestrafung, Verstärkung

Motivation³

In schools, teachers and pupils have to cope with diverse problems determined frequently by pupils', their or other persons' inappropriate behaviour. Beginners usually do not have the knowledge and skills to solve efficiently conflicts and to create a safe and protected environment where pupils to come fearlessly. School should be/become much of a safe, healthy environment, but still one that does not hide human relationships reality. Sometimes school carries the flaws of rupture and violence and therefore teachers should handle it using strategies for identifying and optimum solving inter- and intrapersonal conflicts (V-

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³ We used the word *pupil* for those that were not in the university and the word *student* for those in the university system. We had to differentiate so that no confusion appeared.

M. Cojocaru, 2004, p. 162). The didactic experiment organised in the *Class Management during Geography Classes* seminar had the purpose of forming to students' in their 4th year the competence of elaborating a disciplinary plan in order to form or change pupils' behaviour. This competence implied that students identified rules in order to create an optimum educational climate both in school and in classroom in particular, to identify logical and illogical rewards, logical and illogical punishment types to include into a disciplinary plan.

Theoretical Coordinates

We noticed that pupils had different behaviour types that they considered appropriate according to their value system and to received and learned educational models. Teachers tolerated certain behaviour types and some forbid them, such as walking from one desk to another during classes. Pupils needed to perceive that the teacher was in control and that he/she was responsible for their environment, that he/she imposed limits and maintained them. In school practice they consider that teachers should have a preventive behaviour of consciously educating the pupils. They may use varied conflict prevention models (E. Stan, pp. 36-38):

- *The Carter model*, in which the teacher always manifests himself/herself positively, helps pupils be aware of their purpose and solving of tasks according to instructions and be aware especially of participation, discipline norms – all these through using appropriate simulations;

- *The Glasser model*, consisting of reality therapy while relating behaviour – through analysis and debates – to the features characteristic of the environment, to its requests and difficulties;

- *The Kounin model*, this model underlines the “wave effect” upon a group when a harsh penalty is applied to a pupil;

- *The behaviour changes inducing model*, in which a behaviour type is induced through managing negative and positive consequences;

- *The logical consequences model*, in which the pupil self-analyses and foresees the consequences of his/her disobedience with the teacher's and colleagues' help.

In this paper we presented the seminar in which we experimented with students *the behaviour changes inducing model* cumulated with *the logical consequences model*. We started from the premise that teachers and not administration were the main responsible ones for maintaining the pupils' behaviour in school. As a rule, the most successful classes are the ones where the teacher has a clear idea about what he/she is expecting from pupils, the one that is well organised and has high standards. Good organising may be done by applying a disciplinary plan that includes rules, penalties, and rewards.

Rules are the names of the results we expect of pupils' behaviour and are meant to prevent or encourage pupils' behaviour through clearly establishing the ends to be met and the limits that should not be passed. Thus, we let pupils know

how far they may go. The rule is a way to solve a series of problems that have certain similar features, it is an operation that should be done each time when the same factor complex and the same objective appears. The efficient teacher invests time in establishing and making pupils observe rules because he/she knows: one creates a guiding atmosphere through rules; one clarifies standards about the things that the teacher thinks are important; through rules and discipline one saves time during classes; one may maintain easier a certain type of good behaviour than have to correct an inappropriate one that has already appeared.

In order to maintain an optimum climate both during classes and in school in general one should establish general rules and rules that are specific to certain situations.

1) **General rules** are more flexible and cover a large series of possible behaviour types. Experienced teachers apply efficiently general rules as they have already learned how to encourage positive behaviour. These teachers never speak loudly in difficult situations and rarely get angry. They only give the pupils a non-verbal signal and they understand. Some general rules examples are the following: Respect the other! Take care of your school! Be polite! Help the others! Keep your classroom clean! In order to let the pupils know which the accepted behaviour types are, the teacher should explain these general rules to them.

2) **Rules that are specific to certain situations** refer only to one behaviour type and establish exactly the behaviour one should expect from a pupil. Teachers cannot expect that pupils behave nicely if they themselves cannot say clearly how they want pupils to behave. Each teacher should establish his/her own expectances and demands for pupils' behaviour without copying and using rules that other persons established. On the disciplinary rules list referring to behaviour one should not write about how homework should be done or about writing with ink (these are academic procedures). It is preferable that the teacher establishes positive rules although negative ones may make pupils be more attentive.

Table 1.

Negative rules and positive ones

Negative rules	Positive rules
Do not swear!	Swearing forbidden!
Do not smoke!	Smoking forbidden!
Do not fight on the playground!	Fighting on the playground forbidden!

The teacher should establish only five rules for the most important behaviour situations from his/her point of view, because of the following reasons: both teacher and pupils will remember easier a limited number of rules; rules cover only a part of the situations related to pupils' behaviour in the classroom and during classes; an old rule that has been learned and observed (even if it was not written down) could be easier replaced by a new written rule (H. K. Wong, R. T. Wong, 1988). Pupils will not be involved into elaborating rules that are included in

school regulations because these should be accepted as they are. They refer to presence for classes, alcohol and drug abuse, smoking, profanation, fights, using facilities (Smoking forbidden!; Drug abuse forbidden!; Guns in school forbidden!; Fight forbidden!, etc.). Essential rules for realising tasks cannot be decided by pupils such as presence to classes, homework solving, care for classroom and equipment. Experienced teachers (H. K. Wong, R. T. Wong, 1988) recommend that instead of losing time in formulating rules with the entire class is better to discuss why a certain rule will help pupils' success.

Table 2.

Examples of rules specific to certain situations (H. K. Wong, R. T. Wong, 1988)

Rules specific to primary grades	Rules specific to high schools
1. Wait for instructions without speaking! 2. Look in front of you when your teacher speaks! 3. Change tasks quickly and without speaking! 4. Do your morning routine! 5. Report directly to the area you were distributed to!	1. Be at your place when the bell rings! 2. Bring all books and materials in the classroom! 3. Doing your make up etc. during classes forbidden! 4. Shifting places forbidden! 5. Pay attention to instructions!
Rules specific to playgrounds	Rules specific to refectories
1. Pushing your colleagues forbidden! 2. Throwing ice and snow at people forbidden! 3. Make sure the slide is free before starting! 4. Only two on a cradle or on a rocking chair at the same time! 5. Use only back and forth movements for a cradle!	1. Pay attention to the traffic from the counter to your table, to the bin and to the exit! 2. Choose your place and stay there! 3. You should eat all you have taken! 4. When you finish raise your hand in order to be excused! 5. Clean the food from your plate with a rubber spatula and put your cover in water!

The teacher presents the rules of the disciplinary plan in the first day of school, but before, he/she should verify if he/she planned carefully what he/she wanted to accomplish, if those rules were useful for accomplishing the respective purpose, if he/she posted those rules in the classroom together with appropriate consequences and rewards, if he/she announced pupils clearly what he/she was expecting from them, if he/she welcomed pupils and took care of administrative work. One should have these rules posted permanently in the classroom, give them to pupils in the form of handouts or have pupils write them down in their notebooks (H. K. Wong, R. T. Wong, 1988).

One notices that some pupils disobey some rules because they think that nothing will happen. A responsible pupil or a responsible adult could hardly accept this but some think that nothing is bad until you are caught red handed. Pupils take

into account if the teacher speaks seriously, if the teacher observes rules or not. They test their behaviour limits in order to see if a rule should be observed or not. They easily disobey a rule that others have already disobeyed. So that pupils observe rules, the teacher should establish *rewards* (positive consequences) that are a result of observing the rules and *penalties* (negative consequences) for those who disobey rules. Pupils should understand through discussions that these consequences are a result of their actions and of the choices they make. Because of this it is important that the teacher discusses with his/her pupils mostly consequences than rules, but also post these rules in the classroom. If pupils are aware of and anticipate the consequences of their actions, then they will be more careful and responsible. In table 3 we present examples of consequences but these cannot be used in any school or classroom.

Table 3.

Typical sets of negative consequences or penalties that a teacher may post (H. K. Wong, R. T. Wong, 1988)

If you choose to disobey a rule	
<i>First:</i> Name on the blackboard. Warning. <i>Secondly:</i> 15 minutes check ups after classes. Thursday <i>Thirdly:</i> Two 30 minutes check ups after classes. Thursday <i>Fourthly:</i> Four 45 minutes check ups after classes. Thursday. The teacher calls parents to come to school. <i>Fifthly:</i> Four 60 minutes check ups after classes, the pupil is asked for a written declaration and is sent to the manager's office. Names and check ups will be wiped off each Thursday afternoon.	Dana Name on the blackboard = 10 minutes detention after classes. Dana 1 tick = 20 minutes detention after classes. Dana 2 ticks = 30 minutes detention after classes and teacher asks parents to come to school. Dana 3 ticks = 60 minutes detention after classes, teacher asks parents to come to school, and the pupil is sent to the manager's office.

In secondary schools the teacher wipes out the names from the blackboard once a week if he/she has classes with that class once a day. In primary schools, the names should be wiped out each day if the same person teaches pupils all day long.

The best consequences are the reasonable and logical ones because pupils learn to differentiate between acceptable and unacceptable actions. A reasonable consequence is the one that follows logically a type of behaviour, the one that the pupil sees as beneficial for him/her than a random one. Pupils have inappropriate behaviour only when consequences are meaningless. Here are some reasonable penalties: stopping the activity, writing three different ways for solving a problem, make the pupil be the last one to leave the classroom, give no reward, exclusion from taking part to the activities, and staying at school after classes. Most pupils accept reasonable consequences because they are aware of the necessity that

teachers are able to maintain discipline in the classroom so that they may learn. Pupils cooperate when they understand how consequences come to be an effect of their behaviour. They differentiate between an appropriate behaviour and an inappropriate one when they perceive the logical link between their actions and what happens because of them. Penalty acceptance will be easier if they know the rules and the consequences from the beginning of the activity. The teacher should observe several principles when establishing which are the negative consequences: to avoid consequences related to pupils' grades (e.g. giving lower grades), the consequence should be an appropriate one and proportional with the disobeyed rule, and these consequences should create discomfort to pupils. When pupils are punished the teacher should tell them that the respective negative consequence is a result of their choice and he/she should encourage them to behave correctly in the future.

When the teacher notices that pupils disobey a rule, he/she should punish them at once and preferably without interrupting the activity. If the teacher stops the activity in order to punish a pupil, he/she disturbs the other pupils and interrupts normal lesson development. The teacher may react in the following ways:

- The teacher will not stop the activity, but he/she will write on the blackboard the name of the persons that disobeyed rules. At the end of the day, the teacher reminds the respective pupils about their punishment. If they do not obey, the punishment will be doubled or a harder punishment is given.

- The teacher gives the pupil a piece of paper with the pupil's name and with the number of the rule he/she disobeyed. Teachers usually take this procedure into account when there is no blackboard (e.g. at Sports class or on a trip).

- The teacher puts flags with penalties on the piece of paper that was cut representing the pupil's frame.

- Pupils write their name on a small drawing. They place these drawings inside a heart. The teacher will take out from the heart the drawing with the name of the pupil who disobeyed a rule and encourages it to go back into the heart.

Rewards are positive consequences and the teacher gives rewards in order to increase the probability that the respective pupil will behave like that again, in order to increase its frequency and intensity. There are several categories of positive reinforces:

- *material reinforces*, usually objects that have personal value (toys, food);

- *activities*: listening to music, watching TV, watching a movie or a show, playing a game, going to dance, going on trips, etc.;

- *social reinforces*: attention, praise, personal value recognition; the teacher communicates these reinforces orally ("Very good!" "Great!", "Excellent!" "Beautiful!", "Bravo!" "You did a good work !") or physically (a shake of the hand, a smile). The teacher can give these reinforces easily, they take only little time, they may be administered immediately after the manifestation of the wanted behaviour, and have strong effect.

- *token reinforces* are valuable through what they replace or through what one gets in their place (instead of money, one gets goods and services). Here are some examples: grades, ratings, diplomas, and distinctions.

When the teacher wants to form and determine a certain behaviour type to his/her pupils, he/she will describe it precisely and he/she will administer reinforces (rewards) after its manifestation. One may notice that a reinforce, a stimulus that is valuable for one pupil does not have the same value for the other. The teacher should find the right reward for each pupil. In order to know this, the teacher may pay attention to pupil's behaviour and may also ask him/her some questions.

Rewards that come as a recognition of well done work impress all pupils. They should understand that well done work is the best reward and that this supposes self-discipline. The pupil will not try self-discipline if he waits for goods and will be bribed with candies, little stars, etc. Instead of a bribing system, the teacher will use a rewards system. He/she will post the rewards and will announce their frequency (daily, weekly, etc.), he/she will explain the system according to which pupils may earn them. Logical rewards are: good grades, a scholarship, money, posting the pupil's paper on the wall, the pupil will be the first one to leave the classroom when break begins, participating to a special event, and nominalization with "Pupil of the Day" or "Pupil of the Month". The most valuable rewards are the social ones: a smile, a handshake, a verbal praising, an encouragement, a note sent to parents, a phone home, an appreciation written on the test.

Methodology

Students received information about the disciplinary plan and about the general rules. In order to solve the first task working in a group they formed groups of 4-5 students. These groups received different tasks. Each group had to give details about a general rule: Group 1 - Respect people!, Group 2 - Take care of your school!, Group 3 - Be polite!, Group 4 - Help your colleagues!, Group 5 - Keep your classroom clean!. Each group had five minutes in order to solve the task. After they received information about specific rules to certain situations, they received a second task, that of making a list with such rules for five minutes. The third task was to identify five appropriate behaviour situations and logical and illogical rewards in each case. They had to do the same for five inappropriate behaviour situations (to find logical and illogical punishment situations). After each task, a representative of each group presented their answers, and students from the other groups completed and commented them.

Results

Students presented their results. For the first task, the groups of students gave details about general rules according to the ones mentioned in the next table.

Table 4.**Details for general rules in the disciplinary plan**

Group	General rules	Rules integrated into the general rule
1	Respect people!	Say hello to people!; Hitting forbidden!; Taking people's objects forbidden!; Gossiping forbidden!; Saying lies forbidden!; Insulting forbidden!; Shouting to people forbidden!
2	Take care of your school!	Writing on desks, walls, doors forbidden!; Breaking windows and blackboards forbidden!; Breaking desks and chairs forbidden!; Slamming doors forbidden!; Sticking chewing gum on desks forbidden!; Destroying didactic material forbidden!; Throw garbage into the bin!
3	Be polite!	Say hello to teachers in the school even if you do not know them!; Say hello to colleagues and administrative personnel!; Speaking with your mouth full forbidden!; Chewing gum when you talk to somebody forbidden!; Putting your hands in your pockets when you talk to somebody forbidden!; Entering a room in front of a teacher or of an older person forbidden!; Stand up when you answer your teacher's questions or when you talk to an older person!; Speaking simultaneously when another person is speaking forbidden!; Pushing your colleagues forbidden!; Shouting to people forbidden!; Quarreling with people forbidden!; Talk in a low voice!; Swearing forbidden!; Insulting forbidden!; Disturbing your colleagues when they work forbidden!; Putting labels on people forbidden!; Using vulgar language forbidden!
4	Help your colleagues!	Explain to your colleagues the problems and lessons they do not understand!; Help your colleagues with solving tasks!; Integrate the shy ones!; Lend to your colleagues the objects they need during classes!; Encourage your colleagues!.
5	Keep your classroom clean!	Through garbage into the bin!; Sticking chewing gum on desks forbidden!; Throwing chalk, paper ball, or other things in the classroom forbidden!; Writing on desks, walls and doors forbidden!; Keep blackboard and sponge clean!; Entering classroom with muddy shoes forbidden!; Spitting on the floor forbidden!; Climbing desks and the teacher's desk forbidden!

For the second task, students realised the following list with rules specific to certain situations. They grouped them in categories as a result of our discussions during the seminar.

Table 5.**Universal specific rules to certain situations that students identified**

The category of rules specific to certain situations	Rules specific to certain situations
Rules specific to pupils' movement in the classroom	Being late forbidden!; Entering for classes after your teacher forbidden!; Running in the classroom forbidden!; Walking noisily in the classroom forbidden!; Go out of the classroom silently!; Get out the classroom after teacher permitted!; Playing truant forbidden!; Stay at your place if you were not allowed to do something else!; Taking your colleagues' vital space forbidden!; Get up when the teacher enters the classroom!
Rules specific to school breaks	Making people stumble forbidden!; Pushing people forbidden!; Hitting each other forbidden!; Punching forbidden!; Aerate your classroom during breaks!
Rules specific to solving certain tasks	Have all materials prepared when the class begins!; Keep your desk neat!; Pay attention to teacher's instructions!; Finish solving the task in the requested time!; Clean the blackboard before and after the class!
Rules specific to language and dialogue	Awearing, giving names and sarcasm forbidden!; Vulgar, aggressive, and insulting language forbidden!; Raise your hand and wait for permission to talk!; Shouting to people forbidden!
Rules specific to pupil's notebook for grades	Have your notebook for grades at all times!; Falsifying grades in your notebook forbidden!; Hand the notebook to your teacher when asked!; Show your parents the notebook!
Rules specific to activities allowed during classes	Using mobile phone during classes forbidden!; Playing cards forbidden!; Listening to music with headphones forbidden!; Reading/skimming magazines during classes forbidden!; Eating during classes forbidden!
Rules specific to <i>Sports</i> classes	Have your sports clothes and shoes!; Disturbing your colleagues when they change their clothes for the Sports class forbidden!; Entering the Sports room without appropriate clothes and shoes forbidden!
Rules specific to <i>Geography</i> classes	Have one atlas for each desk!; The pupil on duty should bring the map in the classroom!
Rules specific to notebooks, books and homework	Copying your homework from your colleagues forbidden!; Smearing your notebooks and books forbidden!; Keep your textbooks and notebooks neat!; Bring your textbooks and notebooks to school!

For the third task, students identified appropriate behaviour types, logical and illogical rewards for these, as well as inappropriate behaviour types and logical and illogical punishment for them too.

Table 6.

Logical punishment and illogical punishment

Pupil's behaviour	Logical punishment	Illogical punishment
he/she is chewing a chewing gum	- he/she should through his/her chewing gum	- the teacher asks the pupil to go to the manager's office
he/she has not a neat paper	- he/she should do his/her paper once again	- the teacher does not accept his/her paper
he/she is walking noisily in the classroom	- he/she should enter the classroom once again	- the teacher takes out two points from the pupil's grade
he/she is late	- he/she has lost instructions and supports consequences	- the teacher ignores the pupil's behaviour
he/she is not bringing his/her books and notebooks	- he/she should manage without them for some time	- the teacher brings more textbooks
he/she is not bringing his/her pencil or pen	- the teacher lends it to his/her pupil who signs for it	- the pupil works without pencil or pen
he/she is talking without having the teacher's permission	- the teacher asks him/her a question on the subject of the lesson	- the teacher asks the pupil to leave the classroom
he/she has not done his/her homework	- he/she stays in school in order to do his/her homework	- the pupil gets grade 2 or 3 (on a scale from 1 to 10, where 10 is the highest)
fight among colleagues	- the teacher asks the pupils' parents to come to school	- the teacher beats the pupils
he/she is using his/her mobile phone during classes	- he/she puts his/her mobile phone on the teacher's desk and gets it back when the class is over	- the teacher takes his/her mobile phone for the whole school year
he/she is insulting his/her teacher	- the teacher should talk to the form master, to pupil's parents, and to the Disciplinary Commission	- the teacher asks the pupil to leave the classroom

Table 7.

Logical rewards and illogical ones

Pupil's behaviour	Logical reward	Illogical reward
he/she is active during the lesson	- he/she gets the highest grade for his/her contribution	- he/she does not participate to the final test
he/she did not miss any class	- he/she is praised and presented as a behaviour model for his/her colleagues	- he/she gets the highest grade
learning good results	- he/she gets a prize	- he/she does not get any reward
neat notebook	- he/she presents his/her notebook as a model in front of the class	- he/she gets two points more to the test
he/she takes part to school contests	- free meditations with his/her teacher	- he/she gets the highest final mark for the respective subject

Conclusions

On the basis of bibliographical research and teaching experience, we noticed that it was necessary to have discipline in order to create an optimum learning environment in the classroom. Therefore, in order to prevent negative behaviour and to change it, teachers should plan and apply a disciplinary plan. These disciplinary plan should consist of general rules and rules specific to certain situations, rewards (positive consequences), as a result of pupils' observance of rules, and penalties (negative consequences) as a result of pupils' disobeying the rules.

So that the students that study to become teachers achieve the competence to create a disciplinary plan, we got them involved into several learning situations. Students solved the following three tasks: they gave details about the rules comprised by a general rule; they gave examples for rules specific to certain situations; they identified logical and illogical rewards and punishment situations that could be applied in order to maintain or change behaviour. Thus, during this seminar students acquired the competence of creating a disciplinary plan.

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SITUATIONS OF LEARNING GEOGRAPHY THROUGH ACTIVE METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Der Unterricht der Physischen Geographie mithilfe der Schülerorientierten Methoden. Das Ziel dieses didaktischen Experiments war die Beibringung der Inhalte und der Kompetenzen den Schüler. Das Thema dieses Beitrages ist die Beschreibung, aus der didaktischen Sicht, der Lektion „Die mineralogische Zusammensetzung der Erdkruste“. Es wurde den folgenden Lehrmuster verwendet: Aktivierung der Vorkenntnissen - Erarbeitung – Ausblick. Die Schüler haben während der Lerneinheit gut mitgearbeitet und waren kreativ.

Schlüsselwörter: schülerorientierten Methoden, Aktivierung der Vorkenntnissen - Erarbeitung - Ausblick, zielgesteuertes Lernen, Geographieunterricht.

Motivation for choosing the theme

Didactic methodology has an important role in gaining and developing the practical abilities and competencies in the educational process. Through these chosen methods and techniques, the teacher can increase the efficiency of the teaching process, the learning and the evaluation ones. By the way of applying the didactic methods and techniques the teacher influences more or less the development of students' motivation for learning, the development of students' autonomy in the process of learning, the explicit learning, the gaining of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, the students' abilities to work individually or in teams, the development of critical and creative thinking, the capacity of self-evaluation of their own activities and results, in comparison with the aims and objectives already established or with their colleagues' results. Due to the fact that in the speciality work papers (Cergăhit, 1997; Dulamă, 2002, 2006 ș.a.) there are more and more often mentioned the advantages and the efficiency of the active techniques used in the didactic process, we aim at observing the efficiency and impact of the active techniques upon the education of the students in teaching General Physical Geography, 10th grade, high school.

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Presentation of the didactic experiment

The didactic experiment was organized during the lesson, having the subject of *The Mineralogical Composition of the Crust*, held for the students in the 10th grade. The main objective was to succeed in making students as competent as to be able to identify the minerals of a collection by their physical-chemical proprieties and genesis. For reaching this competency, the students were given to resolve several cognitive operational objectives such as: to deduce the concept of a mineral, to deduce the importance of minerals in the crust based on a text; several methodological operational objectives, such as: to identify minerals by genesis, to describe the minerals in collection by the physical-chemical proprieties; and several attitudinal operational objectives such as: to resolve the individual and group work tasks in a given time, to collaborate with their classmates during the work on the tasks. The students worked at different moments of the lesson, individually, in small groups and face to face. We used the following material resources: collections of minerals, a collection of MOOS scale, prospects with images of minerals, objects made of various minerals, a 10% HCL acid solution, porcelain plate, water bowl, an alcohol lamp, a rack with asbestos board, a determiner for minerals. Of the vast amount of didactic methods and techniques, for this lesson we used the free association, the brainstorming, the method of “Think – Lecture in pairs - Communicate”, the category generalization, the quintet, the conversation, the learning through collaboration.

Teaching and learning throughout the lesson were structured in three stages according to the constructivist model of Evocation – Making sense – Reflection (Meredith, Steele, 1995). Being configured like a frame of thinking and learning towards the development of critical thinking and creative integration of information and concepts, the model realized by J.L. Meredith and K.S. Steele in 1995 (through modifying and extending the one proposed by Vaughn and Estes) it assembles in the cognitive succession the following:

- activities of analytical evocation and systematization of experiences and previous knowledge the students have about the subject that will be discussed in the lesson;
- activities of confrontation with the new information aiming at comprehending and building their sense;
- activities of critical reflection upon the gained information and then its integration in the schemes included in their own base of information (Dulamă, 2002).

Approaching this integrated structure of teaching – learning for the students to gain new information and competencies, the organization of activity in any case of learning or the entire lesson can be based on the following questions (Dulamă, 2007):

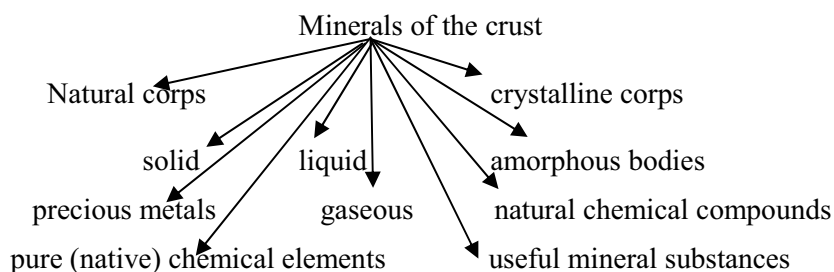
Table 1.

Questions referring to the cognitive step for the students to pass beyond their beliefs

1. Calling up the students' conceptions	2. Establishing the sense of the new information and experiences	3. Reflecting on the new knowledge
What is the subject? What does the student know about it? What is wrong of what the student knows? What is the problem? What else should the student know about the subject? Why should the student find out more about these things? Why should the student change his ideas?	How can this problem be solved? What would the student understand from the new information? What would be good for the student to understand from the new information?	What did the student find out? What seems more important to the student of what he found out? What did change in the student's belief? What significance has the new information for the student? Why does the student believe this? How does the student integrate the new information into the old system of knowledge?

Approaching this integrated structure of teaching – learning so that the students should change their conceptions, the organization of the activity in any situation of learning or the whole lesson can underlay on the following questions:

In the phase of evocation of knowledge and previous experiences students had, we organized a moment of establishing the previous knowledge of the students by an individual activity in which students realized a *free association*. The teacher wrote on the table the assertion expressed by a two-word combination: **Minerals of the crust**, and then, he/she proposed to the students to write individually (without discussing with the classmates) during three minutes all the words associated to the terms in the assertion. Some of the students made a “*delta*” of associations, like:



Other students elaborated a “**chain of associations**”, meaning a succession of ideas:

For example:

Minerals – natural corps – natural chemical compounds – native chemical elements – solid – liquid – gaseous – crystalline – amorphous – precious metals – useful mineral substances.

After this moment of individual activity, during which every student brought out his/her knowledge about minerals, a new phase of activity followed, in which the students worked in pairs so that they could compare their knowledge to their classmates and complete their list of ideas. The technique applied here was that of *Think – Lecture in pairs – Communicate* (Lyman, 1992). The partners presented one to each other the written information by *Free association*. After discussing over the information evoked by the “*delta*” or by the “*chain of associations*”, the students set up a co-operative product they all agreed upon.

The phase of making sense began with a frontal interrogation of brainstorming type. The teacher took an idea about the subject from every pair of students in class and wrote a list on the blackboard. Of all the collected ideas, every student had to form, individually, at first, combinations of relevant words, and then to formulate the definition of minerals. The students formulated the following definition: “*The minerals represent crystalline natural bodies, homogenous, or amorphous from the physical-chemical point of view that can be chemical compounds or pure (native) chemical elements, solid, more rarely liquid or gaseous, and that can be useful mineral substances*”.

For acquiring new information and forming the competency of classifying minerals we used the technique of *Category generalization* (Temple, Steele, Meredith, 2001). The students were given the following work task: Observe the following minerals. Establish a few criteria by which you will be able to characterize and compare them, and group the minerals in categories (classes) according to these criteria. The students found the following minerals: quartz, galena, gesso, feldspar, pyrite, calcite, muscovite, sulphur, jasper, garnet, malachite, agate, rock salt, graphite, limonite, bauxite, turf, black stone, and coal.

By observing the minerals, the students reached the following ideas:

- Minerals have different colours: white (*rock salt, muscovite*), yellow (*sulphur, amber*), black (*graphite, coal*), green (*malachite*), red (*garnet*), etc.

- Some of the minerals are shiny: glassy (*calcite, gesso, quartz*), metallic (*pyrite, galena*), pearly (*muscovite*), and satiny (*malachite*).

For identifying new criteria for classification and other proprieties of the minerals, the students were given another work task. Please observe what happens to minerals and rocks:

- a) when diving these into the water;
- b) when strongly hit with a hammer;

c) when scratching them with nails or with other minerals in the collection of MOOS Scale;

d) when heating up or burning them on the alcohol lamp;

e) when drawing a line with the mineral over the porcelain plate;

f) when taking/putting the mineral near a magnet;

After the students observed the experiments they reached the following conclusions:

a) Minerals have different levels of hardness:

- *soft minerals*, which can be scratched by nails: gesso, graphite;

- *hard minerals*, which cannot be scratched by nails: quartz, jasper, agate;

b) Some minerals *dissolve in the water* (rock salt).

c) Some minerals *break into small pieces* when strongly hit (*quartz*), while others do not.

d) Some minerals are *transparent* (*quartz*), while others are *light-tight* (*graphite*).

e) Some minerals are *compounds of sulphur with metals*: *pyrite* (FeS), *galena* (PbS);

f) Some minerals are types of *salt made of sulphur acid* (gesso $CaSO_4 \cdot x2H_2O$), of *hydrochloric acid* (rock salt $NaCl$), of *carbonic acid* (*calcite* $CaCO_3$).

To identify new criteria for classification and other proprieties of minerals and rocks, the students received the following work task: Read the lesson in the book and identify other characteristics of the minerals and the rocks:

The students found out the following information in the text:

- Some minerals *are formed by precipitation from solutions* in marine basins and lagoons (*gesso*, *rock salt*, *calcite*), others *from volatile components that volcanic gases and lava contain* (*sulphur*, *quartz*) or *as a result of the transformation of some minerals at high pressures and temperatures in deep crust* (*graphite*).

- Some minerals form *metallic ores* (*limonite*, *galena*, *malachite*, *bauxite*), and others do not (*coal*).

- Minerals are used in different economic branches: metal industry (*galena*, *limonite*, *graphite*); alimentary industry (*rock salt*); medicine (*gesso*, *sulphur*); electrical engineering and broadcasting engineering (*muscovite*, *quartz*); at manufacturing art objects, jewellery (*malachite*, *granite*, *agate*); as fuel (*coal*, *black stone*).

So as to establish the classification of minerals, the students receive another work task. Work in groups of four, for five minutes. Analyse the ideas formed during the brainstorming and choose the most important referring to minerals. The students consider as the most important information about minerals the following:

- minerals are characterized by: colour, shine, magnetism, hardness, dissolubility, smell, etc;

- minerals are chemical compounds that form various crystalline networks;
- Minerals are used in different activity fields of the people.

The students receive as work task to answer the questions in the study guide:

Table 2.

The study guide

Questions	Answers
What are the physical proprieties of the minerals? What the physical proprieties of the minerals depend on? How are the minerals used by people called? What are the criteria by which the minerals are classified?	The physical proprieties of the minerals are: colour, shine, hardness, dissolubility, trace, fusibility, magnetism. The physical proprieties of the minerals depend on the chemical composition and form of the crystalline network. The minerals that are exploited by the people are called useful mineral substances. The criteria by which the minerals are classified are: the crystal-chemical composition, the way of forming (genesis), and the importance.

The students have to elaborate in five minute time a graphical organizer of linear tree type so that they could afterwards represent the classification of the minerals. The students use the text in the manual for filling in the information. The students realized the following graphical organizer:

	by crystal-chemical composition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ native elements (<i>sulphur, graphite</i>); ○ sulphurs (<i>pyrite, galena</i>); ○ halides (<i>rock salt</i>); ○ carbonates (<i>calcite, malachite</i>); ○ sulphates (<i>gesso</i>); ○ oxides (<i>quartz, limonite</i>); ○ silicates (<i>muscovite, garnet</i>).
Classification of minerals	by genesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ minerals of sedimentary genesis (<i>gesso, rock salt, calcite</i>); ○ minerals of metamorphic genesis (<i>graphite</i>); ○ minerals of volcanic genesis (<i>sulphur, quartz</i>).
	by importance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ in metallic ores (<i>pyrite, galena, limonite, malachite, bauxite</i>); ○ fuels (<i>coal, black stone</i>); ○ in chemical industry (<i>sulphur, rock salt</i>); ○ in medicine (<i>gesso, sulphur</i>); ○ electrical engineering/ broadcasting engineering (<i>quartz, muscovite</i>); ○ for art objects, jewellery (<i>malachite, garnet, agate, jasper</i>).

SITUATIONS OF LEARNING GEOGRAPHY THROUGH ACTIVE METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

In the reflection phase the students were given as work task to compose quintets (Steele, Meredith, Temple, 1998) about minerals, respecting the following conditions:

The first line: a single word (noun), which names the subject and with a title status;

The second line: two adjectives, by which the subject is characterized;

The third line: three verbs, preferably, gerund, by which the subject is characterized;

The fourth line: four words, any type, but which characterize the general image or express the feeling about the subject; it may be a sentence;

The fifth line: a single word – noun that expresses the essence of the subject.

When the students create quintets, they learn how to synthesize the information about a specific subject. The students created several quintets:

Minerals
Hard, glassy
Dissolving, burning, and smelling
Minerals are useful substances
Jewelleries.

Amber
Yellow, translucent
Shining, melting, burning
The amber – result of fossilizing the wood pitch
Amulet.

Coal
Black, light-tight
Burning, warming up, melting
Valuable fuel for people
Resource

Salt
Transparent, whitish
Dissolving, disappearing, salting,
Makes food taste good
Inexhaustible

Conclusions

This didactic experiment aimed at organizing a lesson for the students to gain new information and competencies. The lesson was structured by the model of Evocation – Making sense – Reflection. The students worked face to face, individually, and in groups of four. In this process of projection and organization of learning situations the students were placed in the middle of the educational process. They were motivated and actively involved in solving the work tasks they were given. What was noticed was the fact that the students improved their self-confidence and maintained their interest towards the approached theme. They learned new concepts and became competent in classifying according to several criteria and organizing graphically the information in a graphical organizer of linear tree type. During the entire lesson the students reacted positively towards collaboration, creativity and critical thinking.

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LES STYLES D'APPRENTISSAGE ET LEURS IMPLICATIONS DANS LE PROCESSUS D'ACQUISITION DES CONNAISSANCES DANS LE DOMAINE GEOGRAPHIQUE

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die Entwicklung der pädagogischen Denkart setzt eine Neuwertung der Unterrichtsmethoden und – Instrumente durch, die die optimale Aktivierung der Schüler sowohl auf kognitivem Plan, als auch mit der Bildung des Antriebsgeistes bestimmen muss. Diese Methoden müssen die Schüler in dem ersten Plan setzen, betonend ihre individuellen Züge (Fähigkeiten, Interesse, Kompetenzen, Lernstil, Arbeitsrhythmus usw.), die Selbstentdeckung und die Reflektierung über die eigenen Tätigkeiten. Die Lernstile zeigen die bevorzugte Rezeptions-, Verarbeitungs-, Einlagerung- und Reaktualisierungsart der Informationen, einschließlich sowohl genetische Bestandteile als auch Bestandteile, die während der Evolution durch häufige und bevorzugte Kontakte mit bestimmten Antriebe sich entwickelten.

Schlüsselwörter: Lernstil, Technik der Projekte, Portofolio, Fähigkeiten, Interesse, Kompetenzen.

Le cadre général

Dans les dernières années, au niveau de l'enseignement roumain, on commence à utiliser une série des idées et des pratiques qui encourage le passage d'un curriculum centré sur la discipline, à un curriculum centré sur l'élève.

„Chaque élève est unique et a sa valeur, quoi que se soit les problèmes issues dans son processus d'apprentissage écolière. A son tour, le processus d'apprentissage et de développement et, lui aussi, unique pour chaque élève, selon le style, le rythme, les caractéristiques et ses particularités, les aptitudes, des expectances et son expérience antérieure.” (Gherguț, 2006, pg.53). Ayant en considération ces idées, l'apprentissage doit être vu comme un processus où, les enfants qui participent d'une manière active, assument des rôles et des responsabilités bien précises et où le rôle du professeur et plutôt celui d'un médiateur que celui d'un formateur.

En développant le potentiel que tous les élèves représentent, des changements commencent à se crayonner au niveau de l'organisation du processus instructif - éducatif, en soulignant de cette manière, la nécessité de l'identification d'une solution didactique, ayant le rôle de stimuler les élèves pour obtenir des performances au niveau de la zone du développement proximal.

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Dans les conditions d'un curriculum national, la différenciation s'impose comme une caractéristique de base d'une bonne pratique educationnelle. A une première vue, on est tenté d'affirmer que les classes d'élèves sont homogènes, mais à une analyse plus attentive, on va conclure qu'elles sont, au contraire, non homogènes (au niveau de leurs habilités, intérêts, compétences, niveau de développement cognitif, environnement et stimulation socio – économique).

Si, initialement, le terme d'enseignement différencié désignait la distribution des élèves dans des groupes d'habilités cognitives, ce qui a généré l'apparition des certains effets négatives de leur part (la diminution de l'auto - efficience, de l'auto - attribution), actuellement, on a la tendance de grouper les enfants selon leurs capacités, leur intérêts, leur rythme de travail, etc. Vue de cette perspective, la différenciation représente un processus d'identification et de valorisation des différences individuelles et d'adaptation aux différents styles d'apprentissage des élèves. D'une autre perspective, la différenciation ne doit pas être considérée une fragmentation. En parcourant les mêmes contenues, les élèves vont apprendre ces connaissances en fonction de leurs particularités et leur propre style d'apprentissage.

Les styles d'apprentissage

Les styles d'apprentissage crayonnent la modalité préférée de réception, transformation, stockage et réactualisation de l'information, impliquant des composants génétiques et des composants développés pendant l'évolution par l'intermédiaire des contacts fréquents et préférentiels avec certains stimuli.

Ces styles d'apprentissage ont été catégorisés en fonction de plusieurs critères. Ainsi, de point de vu sensoriel, les études de spécialité indiquent le fait qu'il y a trois styles principaux d'apprendre: le style auditif, celui visuel et, finalement, celui kinesthésique.

◆ *Le style d'apprentissage auditif.* Les enfants apprennent en parlant et en écoutant, ils discutent et problématisent les aspects essentielles de leur travail, ce qui les rendent efficaces dans les discussions en groupes. Ils apprennent facilement les explications données par la personne qui leur présente le matériel. L'environnement joue un rôle essentiel dans le processus d'apprentissage, le bruit étant d'un côté un élément de distractivité, de l'autre côté, un stimulus positif. Par conséquent, ces élèves ne supportent pas le silence et essaient de l'éviter, si possible.

◆ *Le style d'apprentissage visuel.* Typique pour ces enfants, c'est la nécessité de visualiser le texte écrit et le déroulement des processus qu'ils vont étudier. Pour assimiler facilement les informations, ils font appel à des illustrations, à des images, des diagrammes, des esquisses. La récitation et la réécriture du texte sont les méthodes les plus fréquentes de fixer les informations. L'environnement joue un rôle important, ces élèves ayant l'habitude de le décorer et de le contrôler.

◆ *Le style d'apprentissage kinesthésique.* Caractéristique à ce style, c'est le toucher, et l'implication physique dans l'activité d'apprentissage. Ces élèves

apprennent facilement dans les situations où ils peuvent expérimenter, les notices étant vues comme un acte physique imposé. Etant très dynamiques et actifs, ils manifestent leur enthousiasme en sautant et le manque d'activité détermine l'apparition des certaines manifestations kinesthésiques, souvent interprétées par les professeurs comme des troubles de comportement.

Une autre typologie des styles d'apprentissage a été réalisée en fonction de la plus activée hémisphère cérébrale dans le processus d'apprentissage. Ainsi, on a identifié deux styles cognitifs d'apprentissage: le style globale, dominé par l'hémisphère droite; et le style cognitif d'apprentissage analytique ou séquentiel, dominé par l'hémisphère gauche.

◆ Caractéristique au style global d'apprentissage c'est la nécessité d'une vision d'ensemble du matériel qui doit être étudié, auparavant qu'il soit analysé en détail. Ainsi, ses élèves vont commencer par étudier dans un premier temps la table de matières, les schémas, les titres, les sous-titres, les mots clés, le résumé ou n'importe quelle autre modalité pour se faire des idées générales sur le texte et, seulement après cette étape, ils vont relire le matériel d'une manière analytique. D'habitude, ces élèves préfèrent les schémas qui intègrent les informations comme point de départ dans l'étude d'un matériel et vont lire premièrement le texte, pour se fixer quelques idées générales.

◆ Les élèves qui utilisent le style analytique d'apprentissage, préfèrent de structurer le matériel dans des parties distinctes, présentées d'une manière logique. A fur et à mesure du développement du texte, ces élèves vont s'arrêter pour fixer des idées et, à la fin de la lecture, ils vont refaire la structure du matériel. Caractéristique à ce style d'apprentissage c'est l'idée de réécrire les notices d'une manière logique et ordonnée et l'utilisation du soulignement et de la fragmentation du matériel.

Conformément à la Théorie de l'Intelligence Multiple, décrite en détail par Gardner dans son travail «Frames of Minds», l'intelligence est vue de la perspective de la pluralité, l'auteur soulignant qu'il n'existe pas un facteur général qui confère à l'intelligence une valeur unitaire, mais plutôt quelques capacités essentielles indépendantes, nommées par l'auteur intelligences: l'intelligence linguistique, l'intelligence logico – mathématique, l'intelligence spacio – visuelle, l'intelligence musicale - rythmique, l'intelligence corporal – kinesthésique, l'intelligence interpersonnelle et l'intelligence intra personnelle.

Les types d'intelligence déterminent aussi les modes différents d'opérer avec les connaissances. Gardner propose un examen du type de l'intelligence et, implicitement, du style de l'apprentissage, à partir dès sept modalités différentes d'utilisation des habilités cognitives.

1. Les enfants qui manifestent une inclination vers le style d'apprentissage verbale, vont manifester une sensibilité au sens et à l'ordre des mots, présentant implicitement aussi une intelligence linguistique. Ils utilisent aisément les mots, tant dans le registre oral qu'au registre écrit, ils développent un vocabulaire soutenu, ils communiquent facilement. Ils transforment le mot dans l'art d'écrire, de lire et de parler. Par conséquence, les spécialistes recommandent aux professeurs de valoriser ses aptitudes et compétences de leurs élèves.

2. Dans le cas des enfants qui présentent un style logico – mathématique d'apprentissage, il est souhaitable que les professeurs prennent en considération l'utilisation des nombres, des structures logiques, des classifications, pour le thème ou schéma proposé, en facilitant de cette manière la procession du matériel à étudier. Typique à ces enfants c'est l'habilité de faire des raisonnements complexes, de reconnaître des patterns logiques et des relations numériques, de travailler avec des formules, des graphiques, des concepts abstraits, aussi que de classer, de formuler des hypothèses, de comprendre la relation existante entre des différentes idées.

3. Selon Gardner et ses collaborateurs, le style d'apprentissage auditif suppose la sensibilité au rythme, à la ligne mélodique et à la tonalité, les enfants ayant la capacité de produire et de reconnaître de diverses formes d'expression musicale. Ayant comme point de départ ces habilités, les professeurs doivent avoir en considération des modalités de mettre en valeur ces habilités, tout en adaptant les demandes scolaires et en utilisant les sons dans le processus d'apprentissage.

4. Caractéristique aux enfants qui développent une intelligence spatiale et implicitement un style d'apprentissage explorateur c'est la légèreté avec laquelle ils perçoivent le monde visuel qu'ils transforment ou modifient, ayant comme règle leur propres perceptions. C'est pas par hasard que ce type d'intelligence a été surnommé l'intelligence des images. Ces élèves utilisent facilement les symboles visuels, ils peuvent «de codifier» une carte géographique, peuvent visualiser un certain objet, et ont une perception correcte de l'espace, ce qui détermine un jugement clair et persuasif. En ce qui concerne le processus instructif – éducatif, il est recommandable que le professeur fasse appel à des dessins, à des cartes ou des conceptualisations de l'espace.

5. Le style d'apprentissage kinesthésique suppose la légèreté de manipulation des objets et de coordination des mouvements corporelles, par conséquence les professeurs doivent adapter les demandes scolaires pour que ses habilités et les compétences des élèves soient valorisés au maximum.

6. Le développement d'une intelligence interpersonnelle implique la manifestation d'un certain style d'apprentissage par coopération, ce qui suppose à son tour, l'habilité de se rendre compte et d'interpréter les pensées et les émotions des personnes qui les entourent. Ce style se base sur la capacité de saisir les différences interhumaines, de discriminer et de répondre d'une manière adéquate aux dispositions, manifestations tempéramentales et doléances des autres personnes. L'apprentissage par coopération ou le tutorat sont idéales dans ces situations, les enfants se développant les aptitudes d'interagir avec les autres.

7. Le style d'apprentissage par réflexion implique l'habilité de l'autoévaluation, l'autodiscipline et l'autocritique. Ces enfants ont l'habilité d'accenser leurs propres expériences et de les utiliser dans les dessins, la musique et l'écriture. Par conséquence, il est souhaitable que dans le cadre du processus instructif – éducatif, les professeurs utilisent la réflexion comme une méthode didactique.

Les modalités d'identifier les styles d'apprentissage

Les styles d'apprentissage sont des structures flexibles et temporaires. L'expérience, les demandes de l'école, le rôle joué par un certain élève dans un contexte spacio – temporel déterminé, peuvent forcer leur modification ou leur utilisation strictement contextuelle. L'identification d'un certain style préféré d'apprentissage dans un contexte donné, permet l'intervention sur le matériel qui va faire l'objet du processus de l'apprentissage. (Lemeni, 2005)

Les styles préférés d'apprentissage peuvent être identifiés par l'intermédiaire d'une variété de modalités, comme par exemple: la réflexion, l'identification, le questionnement, et l'expérimentation.

◆ Une des plus utilisées méthodes est la réflexion sur ses propres expériences et résultats. Dans le contexte des groupes de discussions, le professeur peut proposer comme thème l'analyse de la plus efficace modalité d'apprendre que les élèves ont expérimenté, en faisant appel au mode de préparation du matériel, à son parcours et à ses succès obtenus. Par l'intermédiaire des expériences individuelles partagées par les autres enfants, les élèves deviennent conscients de l'efficacité des diverses méthodes, techniques et styles d'apprentissage.

◆ Une autre modalité recommandée est l'identification du style d'apprentissage selon une série de descriptions. A partir de ces descriptions, les élèves peuvent identifier leur propre style d'apprentissage et leurs techniques utilisées le plus souvent. Ainsi, ils vont devenir conscients de leur efficacité et vont continuer à perfectionner ses méthodes.

◆ Les questionnaires représentent une autre modalité d'identification du propre style d'apprentissage. A partir des questions adressées et des réponses reçues, ils peuvent découvrir la spécificité de leurs méthodes d'apprentissage et de leur propre style.

◆ L'expérimentation des certains styles d'apprentissage est une autre méthode d'identification. Ainsi, par essai – erreur, les élèves peuvent opter pour un certain style d'apprentissage après avoir quantifier les résultats obtenus par l'intermédiaire de leur aide. Le choix pour un certain style d'apprentissage va se faire en commençant avec l'analyse des performances et de l'efficacité obtenue, sous l'aspect du temps et de l'effort déposé pour achever l'action entreprise.

La technique de projets – une modalité de valoriser les styles d'apprentissage

La technique des projets est une démarche didactique en groupe, caractérisé par une interaction continue et permanente, ayant comme but l'intégration des nouvelles informations dans des structures cognitives propres, mais aussi leur transfert dans des nouveaux contenus, applicables en pratique. Cette technique contribue d'une côté à l'apprentissage individuel, de l'autre côté, à l'apprentissage collectif.

De cette manière, la technique soutiens la croissance de la qualité de l'éducation, offrant l'opportunité du développement des patterns d'intelligence; d'une manière constructive, le processus d'acquisition des nouvelles informations se réalisant par la découverte et l'implication directe et active, dans le même temps, de l'élève dans sa propre formation. (Ionescu, 2001) La technique des projets crayonne une perspective interdisciplinaire, dans le cadre de laquelle l'élève concentre son attention et ses ressources d'autant plus qu'on lui offre l'opportunité de personnaliser ses connaissances antérieures dans des divers contextes et domaines d'activité et de pouvoir les exprimer en fonction de leurs profil: intérêts, aptitudes, compétences, rythme, style d'apprentissage etc., en éliminant de cette manière une série de barrières et des effets négatives souvent rencontrés dans le cadre du processus instructif – éducatif classique.

Ayant une thème centrale, le projet offre des chances égales à tous les élèves impliqués dans cette activité, ainsi que, même à partir de la phase d'incubation, de projection et jusqu'à la phase de reflétions sur les résultats obtenus, les élèves sont les témoins le leur développement actif.

Faisant appel aux méthodes traditionnelles d'enseignement (l'explication, la documentation, la conversation, la problématisation), le professeur va inventorier toutes les aspects essentielles de la thème étudiée, comme par exemple le thème «Les montagnes Apuseni» - situation géographique, sommets, faune, flore, rivières, points touristiques etc. Selon les informations reçues et le style d'apprentissage, vont se grouper en différents ateliers de travail, en cherchant d'apporter des contributions au sujet présenté, mais aussi d'assimiler les informations reçues d'une manière constructive et plaisante pour eux. Alors, la classe d'élèves va se diviser en plusieurs cercles, selon les aires d'intérêt des enfants.

◆ Le cercle des écrivains. La spécificité de ce cercle est l'inclination vers le domaine linguistique. Par conséquence, ils vont être sollicités à réaliser une ou plusieurs activités comme:

- un essai ou une composition
- une devinette
- une histoire
- une documentation concernant une légende, une curiosité etc.

Les informations que les élèves vont cueillir et utiliser plus tard dans leurs travaux, vont faciliter une analyse de profondeur de l'information, mais aussi une intentionnalité de l'apprentissage.

◆ Le cercle artistique est le groupe des enfants intéressés par les activités artistico – plastiques. A ces élèves, le professeur va leur solliciter de faire:

- un moulage de coque, argile ou mélange plastique des montages Apuseni
- un collage utilisant diverses matières ayant le but de présenter dans un plan bidimensionnel les plus importants aspects étudiés.
- Un dessin ou une peinture qui puisse surprendre les éléments présentés par le professeur pendant ses classes.

Par l'intermédiaire du travail en groupe, vont chercher à surprendre dans le plus fidèle mode les informations reçues. L'implication dans un tel projet suppose de l'intérêt, mais aussi certaines habilités et compétences, ainsi qu'à la fin du projet, les élèves réactualisent une série d'informations, qu'ils les ont appris sans difficulté ou pression.

◆ Ayant comme point de départ le fait que les élèves qui participent au Cercles des Explorateurs pensent en images, le professeur va leur solliciter de réaliser une carte des Montagnes Apuseni, utilisant toutes les informations reçues. La conceptualisation de la carte aidera les enfants à transformer facilement les informations reçues, en réalisent dans le même temps des interférences avec d'autres domaines d'activité.

◆ Les élèves qui vont manifester des inclinations logico – mathématiques vont se grouper dans le cercle des chercheurs. Ils réaliserons une esquisse du contenu informationnel présenté par le professeur. En groupant et ordonnant les informations reçues, ils vont présenter d'une manière logique les idées forces du thème étudié. Ainsi, ils seront obligés, une part, de réaliser une série de rationnements et interférences, de l'autre, de trier les informations essentielles.

Comme élément commun de tous les types d'activités c'est la communication et implicitement interaction des élèves. De cette manière, les enfants vont apprendre à collaborer, à exprimer ses idées et à accepter celles des autres, à établir des objectifs, des priorités, et des attributions spécifiques pour chacun individu du groupe, devenant ainsi plus responsable et plus motivés dans la réalisation du projet proposé.

Pendant l'heure dédiée à l'évaluation des travaux, chaque groupe exposera le produit de son activité de la manière la plus détaillé possible. C'est ainsi que la classe d'élèves sera exposée à un riche contenu informationnel, mais d'une manière plaisante. En fonction de leur propre style d'apprentissage, les élèves vont avoir à leurs disposition le matériel didactique qui va faciliter la perception, la transformation; l'analyse; la structuration et la réactualisation des connaissances visqnt les Montagnes Apuseni. A fur et à mesure ou au fin des présentations, le professeur, aidé par les élèves, va apporter une série d'informations supplémentaires; de rectifications pour que les donnés ne soient pas distorsionées.

La réflexion sur l'activité réalisée est un aspect extrêmement important parce qu'elle détermine le futur développement intellectuel de l'enfant. De plus, l'élève a la possibilité de monitoriser la manière dont il a réussi à atteindre le but établi, d'évaluer les progrès effectués, le mode de gestion du temps et les ressources et les connaissances acquises.

Dans le cadre de cette technique didactique, le portefeuille est une des plus adéquates formes d'évaluation. Cette méthode est flexible, complète et intégratrice, ce qui la transforme dans un outil d'évaluer l'évolution cognitive de l'enfant dans une période de temps donnée (semestre, année d'études, cycles d'enseignement). Le portefeuille peut contenir tous les produits de l'activité de l'enfant, réalisés individuellement ou dans le cadre d'un groupe.

Dans leur travail, Siedel et Walters considèrent que cette méthode offre la possibilité de l'élève de travailler à son propre rythme et style d'apprentissage, par l'intermédiaire d'une implication active dans les tâches de travail et par développement dans le même temps la capacité d'autoévaluation.

L'évolution de la pensée pédagogique impose une reconsidération des méthodes et des moyens d'enseignement, ainsi qu'elle détermine un rythme didactique aux élèves, tant dans le plan cognitif, par la cultivation des attitudes heuristiques, investigatrices, que dans la formation de l'esprit d'initiative. Ces méthodes doivent situer l'élève dans le premier plan, en mettant l'accent sur ces traits individuels (aptitudes, intérêts, compétences, style d'apprentissage, observation, rythme de travail), sur la découverte personnelle et la réflexion sur ses propres activités par l'intermédiaire de l'observation, de l'investigatoire, de l'acquisition d'information et, pas dans la dernière place, la réflexion.

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ETUDE SUR LES POSSIBILITES DE LA CHIMIE DE DEVELOPPER LE PENSEE CRITIQUE DES ELEVES

FLORENTINA CIOMOS

RESUME. Le concept de pensée critique a évolué sinueusement vers une cristallisation et application pratique en l'enseignement, avec des valences formative pour les élèves. Le pensée critique force les élèves d'affirmer les idées avec clarté et de le soutenir avec des arguments et raisonnements logiques. Ainsi les élèves obtiennent des stratégies et techniques procédurales qui leur permet de réaliser des connaissances comme solutions à certains problèmes qui se confronte individuellement ou dans le group. Finalement les élèves apprennent pensant par l'exercice de la réflexion critique dans les activités de réflexion critique pour le développement du pensée créateur.

Dans ce contexte l'étude exemplifie certain possibilités d'application des méthodes, techniques et stratégies spécifique du développement du pensée critique dans les activités d'étude du contenu des notions de la chimie.

L'augmentation du motivation et l'implication des élèves dans les activités d'étude par l'utilisation des stratégies énoncé antérieur est un indice de valences formatives des stratégies utilisées et une persévérante application déterminera l'augmentation de l'efficience de l'enseignement et par défaut du rendement écolier.

Clefs mots: pensée critique, je sais / je veux savoir/ j'ai appris, la diagramme Venn, le guide d'étude, l'étude sur le cas.

INHALT. Das Konzept des kritischen Denkens hat eine komplizierte Entwicklung gehabt, in Richtung seiner Klärung und seiner Anwendung in der Praxis mit bildenden Valenzen für die Schüler. Das kritische Denken verpflichtet die Schüler dazu, ihre Ideen mit Klarheit zu äußern und sie mit logischen Argumenten und Beweisführungen zu begründen. Auf diese Weise erwerben die Schüler Vorgehensweisen und Verfahrenstechniken um einige Kenntnisse als mögliche Lösungen für solche unterschiedliche Probleme bilden zu können, mit denen sie individuell oder in Gruppe konfrontiert werden. Am Ende lernen die Schüler indem sie denken und denken indem sie lernen, und zwar durch das Üben der kritischen Betrachtung für die Entwicklung eines kreativen Denkens.

In diesem Zusammenhang, an dem Beispiel vorliegender Studie werden einige Anwendungsmöglichkeiten der Methoden, Techniken und Strategien verdeutlicht, die im Lernprozess des begrifflichen Chemie-Inhalts dem kritischen Denken spezifisch sind.

Die Steigerung der Motivation und das Hineinziehen der Schüler in die Lernprozesse ist ein Zeichen bildender Valenzen in den angewandten Vorgehensweisen; dadurch wird die beharrliche und richtige Anwendung dieser Strategien die Steigerung der Lernwirksamkeit und auch der Schulleistung bestimmen.

Schlüsselwörter: kritisches Denken, ich weiß/ich will wissen/ ich habe gelernt, Venn-Diagramm, Studienführer, Fallstudie.

Le changement des plans d'enseignement, du programme écolier n'a pas déterminé la stimulation de la motivation des élèves pour l'étude. Dans ce contexte pour la formation des capacités et compétences des élèves dans la perspective d'une didactique moderne se met la question de redimensionnement du modèle classique de configuration d'une leçon où le remplacement avec d'autres méthodes, stratégies, techniques activisateures.

Le modèle traditionnel est valable par les aspects suivantes:

- il assure l'acquisition des connaissances déclarative essentielle d'un certain domain;
- il détermine un enseignement méthodique par les élèves;
- il permet d'identifier les erreurs et lacunes, la correction, complétassions et systématisation des connaissances des élèves;
- les élèves accueillent le feed- back à l'instant de l'émission des messages.

Par analyse des désavantages du modèle traditionnel (la majorité des questions sont formulées par le professeur, la source qui possède l'information c'est le professeur, le message est émis prédominant de professeur à l'élève), mais sans suggérer le renoncement définitif à ce modèle, pour d'autres modèles plus importantes dans des systèmes d'enseignement, nous optons pour une révision d'objectifs de chaque moment, pour une diversité des formes d'organisation, pour des stratégies et techniques centrées sur l'élève (Dulamă E.M., 2002).

Dans ce contexte nous proposons à l'attention le modèle „je sais-je veux savoir-j'ai appris”, la technique d'organisation graphique d'informations (la diagramme Venn), la technique de réalisation de la signification fondée sur l'étude individuel (le guide d'étude) la technique de réalisation de la signification fondée sur les investigations (l'étude sur le cas)

Ces techniques et modèles appliquées dans les leçons de chimie ont stimulée la motivation des élèves pour l'enseignement et à la fin on peut parler d'un enseignement efficient.

Le modèle „Je sais/Je veux savoir/J'ai appris”

Le modèle de la structure du leçon Je sais/Je veux savoir/J'ai appris créé par Donna Ogle avec le but du lecture des textes expositifs, peut être utilisé efficientement dans les leçons de chimie. Ce modèle est structuré dans cinq étapes (Pamfil Alina, 2000) ou c'évidence clairement la situation de départ (ce que les élèves ont connus), les aspects qu'ils veulent connaître pendant l'activité (consemnées dans la rubrique Je veux savoir) et ce qu'ils ont appris pendant le proccés d'enseignement (idées consemnées dans la rubrique J'ai appris)

La transposition du modèle dans la leçon prèsume un parcours de cinq phases.

1. La première étape, centrée sur la question: Qu'est que je sais sur le sujet? se suprapose sur le moment relatif formel d'actualisation des connaissances antérieure("des idées-ancres") dans la leçon traditionnel. Cette étape obligatoire est importante parce qu'on apporte des connaissances et des habitudes appris à l'école ce qu'il permet que les nouveaux contenu soit rapportées sur l'assis de les anciennes.

2. La deuxième étape centrée sur la question Qu'est ce que je veux savoir? présume la réalisation d'une liste des questions à travers les quelles le sujet est mis dans la sphère d'intérêt des élèves.

3. La troisième étape – le commencement de l'étude: "- inclue la confrontation des élèves avec les nouveaux connaissances par diverse formes (textes, materiales graphiques, etc) la recherche des répons aux questions, la perception des nouveaux informations par les connaissances antérieures et l'établissement des nouveaux significations. Pour maintenir l'intérêt des élèves, ils sont préférables les textes avec un langage plus plastique et incitant, avec des nouveaux éléments qui émeuvent et stimulent la curiosité.

4. La quatrième étape est centrée sur l'assertion "J'ai appris" et suppose la monitorisation et le consciemment des nouveaux connaissances, une comparaison avec les vieux connaissances et avec les expectatives des élèves exprimées dans la rubrique Je veux savoir. L'étape se structure sur les questions: Quelles sont les nouvelles connaissances? Comme je répond aux questions initiales? Il y a des questions sans réponse? Comme pouvons-nous trouver les réponses? Il y a des réponses pour les quelles nous n'avons pas formulée des questions? Qu'est ce que je voudrais savoir sur ce sujet?

5. La cinquième étape est centrée sur la question: Qu'est ce que je voudrais savoir sur ce sujet? et implique une extension de l'enseignement centrée sur les questions les quelles n'ont pas eu des réponses dans le texte ou sur des nouvelles questions qui ont été formulée comme une réaction à la lecture de texte.

La valeur du modèle pour les leçons de chimie consiste dans:

- les nouvelles connaissances sont corrélées avec les connaissances assimilées et avec les expectantes des élèves énoncer par les questions;
- ils facilitent la formation des systèmes de connaissances intégrées logiquement.

Nous illustrons cet modèle par l'étude de la thème" Le sucre " pour la X-ème classe, profile humaine.

A 1. La charge de travail est la suivante:

écrivez dans un minut qu'est ce que vous savez sur le sucre.

2. Activité individuel (les élèves écrivent)

3. Activité dans le group (3 minutes)

Mettez-vous d'accord par des discussions avec les membre du group sur les notions énumérées.

4. Activité frontale: partagez la feuille de cahier dans trois colonnes selon le modèle sur le tableau noir. Chaque élève lit une affirmation, autre que l'antérieure et doit compléter la première rubrique du tableau: "Je sais"

B. Pour compléter la deuxième rubrique du tableau, le professeur écrit pour chaque affirmation une question.

C. 1 Activité dans les couples – le début de l'enseignement.

Lisez avec attention le texte de livre et cherchez les réponses aux questions dans la rubrique "Je veux savoir" et l'écrivez dans votre tableau à la rubrique "J'ai appris"

2. Activité frontale

On se lit par tour les questions et chaque groupe va donner la réponse écrite sur une feuille de papier ou va compléter la réponse donnée par le groupe antérieur.

D. On s'écrit sur le tableau noir les réponses aux questions dans la troisième rubrique.

E. La charge de travail:

Si vous avez d'autres questions vous pouvez les formuler et compléter une quatrième rubrique du tableau "Qu'est ce que vous voulez savoir d'autre sur le sucre". On s'écrit dans le tableau sur le tableau noir et on se donne comme devoir: Répondez aux questions en utilisant comme source d'inspiration: le manuel de chimie, l'internet, le manuel de biologie.

Je sais	Je veux savoir	J'ai appris	Qu'est ce que je voudrais savoir
Se trouve dans la betterave à sucre dans le roseau, etc	Comment il s'obtient dans notre pays?	De betterave à sucre par l'extraction avec de l'eau chaude et puis par concentrations et par raffinage.	Quelles substances chimiques on utilise pour obtenir le sucre et sont-elles toxiques?
Il a un goût doux.	Pourquoi il a le goût doux?	Parce qu'il est un disaccharide il est un composé polihydroxyle et c'est pourquoi il a un goût doux.	
Il se dissout dans l'eau.	Quelles particularités structurales contribuent à la solubilité dans l'eau?	Il a dans sa structure huit groupes hydroxyle.	Quelle est la structure chimique?

ETUDE SUR LES POSSIBILITÉS DE LA CHIMIE DE DÉVELOPPER LE PENSÉE CRITIQUE DES ÉLÈVES

<p>Il est une substance solide. Il se fond, se caramélise; il se brûit.</p>	<p>A quelle intervalle de température il se caramélise et depuis se brûit?</p>	<p>A 185 °C il se fond et il forme un liquid jaune que par refroidissement donne une masse amorphe avec l'aspect caramélé-vitre. Par chauffage avancées il souffre une déshydratation interne(se carbonise).</p>	<p>Qu'est ce que c'est le sucre inverti?</p>
<p>Il est utilise dans l'alimentation, à la fabrication des friandises. Il emmène un apport énergétique. Consumé à l'exces il produit diabète.</p>	<p>Quelles transformations il subit dans l'organisme? Quelle est la limite maxime de consomme quotidien?</p>	<p>Par hydrolyse (acide ou enzymatique) se transforme dans glucose et fructose (les deux monosaccharides que l'ont formés): donc la glucose se peut trouver dans l'organisme aux millieu cellulaire, ou dans les liquides extracellulaires. Dans les cellules il a un rôle double: apport d'énergie et le rôle de réserve (particulièrement dans la cellule hépatiques est musculaire).</p>	<p>D'autres emplois?</p>
		<p>Une gramme de sucre dégage par l'oxydation biochimique cca 4.2 kcal ou 17.55 kj.</p>	

Etude sur le cas

L'étude sur le cas est une méthode euristique et applicative fondée sur la connaissance inductive qui facilite passer de particulier aux general. L'étude sur le cas devient une méthode didactique dans le moment quand un cas est offert aux élèves pour analyser, identifier des éléments impliqués, déterminer des causes et issues, suggerer des solutions de résoudre. Le cas nous présente des situations problème. Le cas peut être présenté au dessous de trois aspects (Bocoş, M., 2002):

- description complète;
- description partielle;
- l'énoncé du cas comme une tâche concrète .

Dans la discipline de chimie, comme une tâche, le cas s'énonce comme une tâche expérimentale.

Nous illustrons cette technique par l'étude de la thème "La force des acides" pour la IX-ème classe.

Le déroulement de l'activité expérimentale peut être la suivante:

❖ Les élèves de la classe sont répartis dans trois groupes, chaque groupe formé de 4-5 élèves pour effectuer pratiquement l'expérience qui évalue la force des acides.

❖ La communication des tâches de travail:

Chaque groupe des élèves va recevoir une fiche d'activité expérimentale avec le contenu suivant:

1. Mettez dans deux éprouvettes 2 cm³ de solution de la même concentration d'acide chlorhydrique (HCl), respectivement d'acide acétique (CH₃COOH).

Introduisez dans chaque éprouvette quelques gouttes de solution de tournesol.

Qu'est-ce que vous observez? Qu'est-ce que vous pouvez dire sur l'intensité des couleurs obtenues?

2. Dans 2 éprouvettes avec HCl, respectivement CH₃COOH., introduisez quelques granules de zinc. Qu'est-ce que vous observez? Dans laquelle des éprouvettes on se dégage plus de gaz? Écrivez les équations des réactions chimiques.

3. Faites réagir la solution de l'acétate de plomb (CH₃COO)₂Pb avec la solution de HCl. Puis faites réagir la solution de NaCl avec la solution de CH₃COOH.

Qu'est-ce que vous observez? Écrivez les équations des réactions chimiques.

4. Mettez dans deux éprouvettes CaCO₃ solide. Ajoutez 2 cm³ de solution de HCl, respectivement 2 cm³ de solution d'acide acétique. Qu'est-ce que vous observez? Écrivez les équations des réactions chimiques.

5. Utilisez l'installation pour tester la conductivité présentée dans le manuel, pour la solution de HCl et ensuite pour la solution CH₃COOH.

Observez l'intensité de la lumière de la lampe et faites des conclusions.

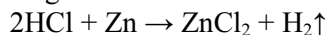
6. Quelle conclusion avez-vous faite sur la force des acides? Mettez CH₃COOH, HCl et H₂CO₃ à l'ordre croissant de leur caractère acide.

❖ Activité frontale

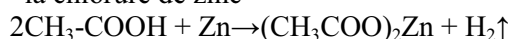
Un représentant de chaque groupe présente les résultats obtenus à une tâche de travail présentée sous la surveillance du professeur.

Conclusions

1. La solution de tournesol rougie; la couleur est plus intense en cas du HCl
2. On se dégage un gas; dans le cas du HCl on se dégage un plus grande quantité du gas

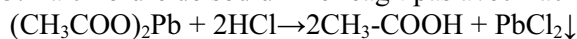


la chlorure de zinc



l'acetat de zinc

3. La chlorure de sodium ne réagit pas avec l'acide acétique



la chlorure de plomb

4. Les deux acides réagissent avec CaCO_3



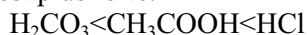
la chlorure de calcium



l'acétate de calcium

5. HCl à une conductibilité électrique plus grande que $\text{CH}_3\text{-COOH}$

6. HCl est plus forte.



La diagramme Venn

La diagramme Venn (Steele, J.L., Meredith, K.S., Temple, C., 1998) est formé par deux cercles qui se superposent partialement. A l'aréal ou elle se superposent on se groupent les ressemblances, dans l'autres aréal resté libre les particularités de ces deux concepts. La diagramme s'utilise soit pour évoque des connaissances soit pour restructurer les idées à l'étape de réaliser le sense ou de la réflexion (Ciomoş, F., 2001).

Nous exemplifions cette technique pour la classe VIII – ème par la comparaison de NaCl avec NaOH et de Cu avec Al

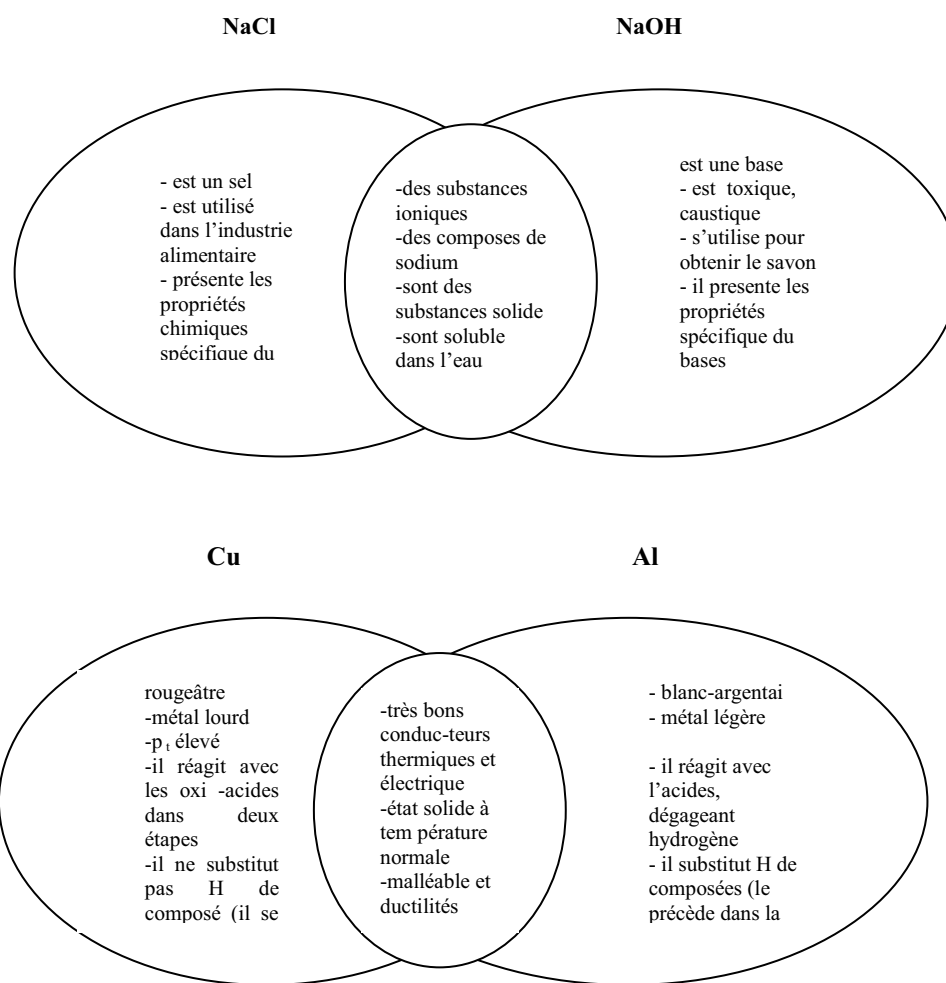
Le guide d'étude

Le guide d'étude (apud. Vacha & Vacha 1996) aide les élèves à l'étude du texte, dans l'absence du professeur par un set de questions ou indications qui orientent l'attention et les détermine de ce concentré sur certains aspects de contenu. À travers de cette technique se met en evidence les aspects essentielles existantes dans un texte, aspects que les élèves ne le saisissaient pas toujours. À travers les questions les élèves sont guidés d'apprendre une modèle interprétatif d'un contenu avec certains particularités. Les guides d'étude sont plus efficientes quand:

- ils appuient les élèves de saisissait certains idées qu'ils ne peuvent pas les identifiées seules.

- ils déterminent les élèves d'effectuer certaines opérations de pensée (analyse, comparaison, déduction, synthèse, abstraction, etc) ou de résoudre des situations-problème;

- ils constituent un point d'appui pour des discussions/débats, commentaires ou pour un devoir écrit(essais)



Les étapes de cette technique peuvent être:

- La communication des charges de travail sur un texte donné: Lisez avec attention le texte suivant: temps de travail 10 minutes

Le soufre est une substance solide, insoluble dans l'eau et ne conduit pas le courant électrique. Par chauffage il se combine avec la limaille de fer, une substance solide et de couleur noire. Le sulfure de fer réagit avec l'acide chlorhydrique et se transforme par une réaction d'échange dans le chlorure de fer (II) et l'acide sulfhydrique. L'acide chlorhydrique est une substance gazeuse qui se peut obtenir par la réaction entre le chlorure de sodium et l'acide sulfurique.

- Activité individuelle

Identifiez les substances chimiques du texte et leurs caractéristiques / propriétés et écrivez la formule chimique dans les rubriques du tableau :

Substances simples		Substances composées			
Metaux	Non-metaux	Oxydes	Bases	Acides	Sels

- Activité frontale

On se lissent les demandes et se demande les réponses formulés par les élèves. L'appoint du tableau avec les réponses des élèves se peut faire au tableau noir.

Conclusions

Ces types d'activité d'enseignement mentionnés ci-dessus ont plusieurs possibilités d'application et valences formatives réelles.

- elles peuvent être utilisées dans des étapes différentes d'une leçon ou dans des groupes de leçons;
- elles permettent de diversifier les formes d'organisation (frontale, dans des groupes, dans des couples, individuel);
- elles développent plusieurs capacités: d'analyse, de conformation, d'évaluation, de systématisation, de classification, d'exemplification;
- elles forment des habiletés de passer du général, commun au particulier et inverse;
- elles offrent des possibilités de combiner avec d'autres méthodes et techniques (l'expérience, l'étude par révélation, l'assaut des idées, conversation);
- elles contribuent à l'éducation de l'esprit d'équipe, la tolérance envers les opinions des collègues mais aussi d'esprit critique particulièrement dans l'organisation de l'activité dans les groupes;
- se donne aux élèves l'occasion de soutenir leurs opinions argumentées.

Dans les exemples concrets d'application se met en évidence l'effet que ce modèle et techniques d'enseignement ont été appliqués plus dans le gymnase ou collège et surtout en classe de profil humain.

Ces applications brisent l'impression traditionnel d'enseignement et par l'introduction des aspects apparemment „ludique” elles réveillent la curiosité et par default la motivation intrinsèque de l'élève pour l'étude.

Ces méthodes et techniques sont recommandées par les promoteurs du pensée critique (Steele, J.L., Meredith, K.S., Temple, C., 1998).

Vraiment les élèves deviennent le centre d'attention, ils se mobilisent pour accomplir les devoirs et mobilisent la flexibilité et la créativité.

Ils articulent les nouvelles connaissances avec lesquelles sont déjà assimilées et réalisent des réseau cognitives qui permettent, par les associations réalisées) la manifestations de l'aspects explicite des connaissances et donc l'opération avec eux dans des contextes variées.

Justement cette finalité est importante dans le proces instructif-educatif.

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LE STATUT DE L'HISTOIRE A L'ECOLE AU XXI^E SIECLE

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Die Stellung der Geschichte in der Schule des 21. Jahrhunderts. Für eine neue Stellung der Geschichte in der Schule müssten wir allererst das Vorurteil beseitigen, dass das Studieren des Faches Geschichte ausschließlich die Übergabe von enzyklopädischen Informationen voraussetzt. Der übertriebene Akademismus im Bereich der Ausbildung vor der universitären Stufe beeinträchtigt ernstlich die erste Ausbildung des Schülers. Das korrekte Verständnis der Rolle der Geschichte in der eigenen Ausbildung jedes Individuums noch in der Schule und im jungen Alter benötigt Bemühung, Imagination, Talent und Hingabe seitens der Lehrer. Gleichzeitig müssen die Inhalte, Methoden und Möglichkeiten, die der Lehrer in seinem didaktischen Verfahren anwendet, den Schüler in Betracht nehmen, seine Eigenheiten, sein Intelligenzprofil und die Interessensphäre der Schülergruppe. Der Schwerpunkt fällt auf das aktive Lernen, auf die Orientierung des Lehrvorganges in der Richtung der Bildung von Haltungen und Werte, auf die Entwicklung von Kompetenzen die dem Schüler ermöglichen, Probleme zu lösen und auf die Adaptierung der Inhalte zu den alltäglichen Wirklichkeiten. Neben den traditionellen Inhalten muss man auch andere Themen erforschen: die Geschichte der Frau, die Bevölkerungsbewegungen (Auswanderung, Einwanderung, Mortalität, Geburtenrate), die Geschichte des Kinos, des Sports, usw., die näher zu den aktuellen Interessen des Schülers und des Jugendlichen wären.

Man kann die neue Technologie der Information und Kommunikation nicht vernachlässigen, das Fernsehen, das Internet oder DVD, die neue Quellen und Blickwinkel für das Studium der Geschichte anbieten können. Der Computer bietet sich immer mehr als ein Mittel für die Ausbildung an, und wenn er der Liebling der Kinder ist, warum sollen wir ihn nicht zum Zweck ihrer Ausbildung verwenden? So wie wir gelernt haben, ein Buch zu lesen, die verschiedenen Meinungen der Autoren zu analysieren, die Quellen zu vergleichen und nicht die Meinung eines einzigen Autors als die einzige und unvergängliche Wahrheit zu betrachten, können wir heute unsere Schüler lehren, das Internet kritisch zu benützen, sowie alle Informationen die sie hier finden. Die Unterschiede liegen aber nur in der Form: das gedruckte Papier wird mit dem Monitor des Computers ersetzt, aber die Essenz ist die gleiche. Eigentlich gibt es noch einen wichtigen Unterschied: die Geschwindigkeit mit der man die Informationen finden kann und die geringen Kosten verglichen mit einem Buch (Zeit, Geld, usw.)

Eine Behandlung der Lektion im Fache der Geschichte, in Konkordanz mit der Zeit der die Schüler leben, erweist sich als dynamisch, mit einer starken Einwirkung auf ihnen und kann das Interesse gegenüber diesem Fach steigern, ein Fach das so faszinierend und notwendig für die Modellierung der Mentalitäten und Verhaltensmustern ist. Die Geschichte kann für jeden Menschen zu einer Lebensweise werden, ein Geisteszustand, der unentbehrlich für die alltägliche Existenz ist. Auf dieser Weise können wir die Stellung der Geschichte verändern!

L'attitude à l'égard de l'histoire est contradictoire: d'une part, on la considère comme un moyen efficace de former des attitudes et des valeurs, de modeler des caractères humains; d'autre part, on la tient pour manipulatrice, pour instrument facile de parvenir à des fins politiques. Nonobstant les arguments pro et contre l'histoire, qui semblent n'en finir plus, le temps est venu de renoncer à cette «guerre» et de tenter de reconsidérer la place et le rôle de cette discipline, de très grand intérêt dans la formation de l'individu. C'est un domaine de la connaissance qu'on ne peut nullement omettre ou exclure de l'éducation scolaire. Par contre, le professeur d'histoire se doit de refaire l'image altérée de l'histoire, de la dégager des préjugés, clichés et stéréotypies formés dans le temps et de la sortir de la marginalisation actuelle.

On se demande souvent: **Pourquoi apprendre l'histoire?**
A quoi bon l'étudier?

Nous, les professeurs d'histoire, connaissons déjà les réponses à ces questions. Cependant le problème qui se pose est si nous parvenons ou non à persuader nos élèves de la nécessité et l'utilité d'étudier cette discipline. L'histoire peut paraître spectaculaire aux yeux de certains élèves au début, mais ce n'est qu'en l'approfondissant qu'ils parviennent à comprendre à quel point l'étudier est important pour leur existence. Il s'agit malheureusement d'une minorité, qui approche d'ordinaire l'histoire par des voies extrascolaires. La grande majorité des élèves rejette l'étude de l'histoire pour des raisons du genre: «il y a tant de dates à mémoriser», «tant de guerres», «tant de rois, reines ou princes etc. à apprendre!»; ou bien «à quoi cela sert de retourner dans le passé et encombrer sa mémoire de toutes ces momies»? Pour éveiller l'intérêt des élèves pour l'histoire, le professeur actuel a beaucoup de tâches à accomplir, un grand nombre de problèmes à surmonter, qui tiennent de l'organisation du système éducationnel: nombre de cours affectés à cette discipline en diminution continue, programmes scolaires trop chargés, classes avec plus de 25 élèves, charges didactique surdimensionnées, statut de l'histoire comme discipline optionnelle aux examens et ainsi de suite.

Les actions destinées à conférer un nouveau statut à l'histoire au XXI^e siècle seraient les suivantes:

- changer la manière d'approche des contenus
- employer des méthodes modernes (actives/interactives)
- connaître bien le profil intellectuel de l'élève
- changer les attitudes et les mentalités des enseignants
- initier des activités extrascolaires agréables
- élaborer des programmes communs entre l'école et la communauté
- avoir recours aux nouvelles technologies etc.
- attacher plus d'attention aux exigences du XXI^e siècle et aux besoins de l'enfant etc.

La liste reste ouverte à d'autres initiatives susceptibles de pouvoir changer la position de cette discipline dans le cadre du curriculum national et au niveau des bénéficiaires de l'éducation. Puisqu'il s'agit d'un changement des contenus, le choix des thèmes et des sujets est un pas important dans l'élaboration de programmes scolaires et la rédaction des leçons.

Nul compendium, manuel ou cours d'histoire ne peut couvrir en totalité la richesse et la variété des contenus de l'histoire, aucun professeur d'histoire ne saurait prétendre être capable de parcourir tous les événements et les transformations d'une période historique. Le professeur a, conformément aux nouveaux programmes scolaires, la liberté de choisir les contenus qu'il veut enseigner. Vu l'impossibilité de «couvrir» toute l'histoire, toute la «matière» programmée pour une année scolaire, on devrait choisir les contenus susceptibles d'offrir un savoir général et une bonne *compréhension* des concepts, et de concourir à l'accomplissement des objectifs éducationnels des «nouvelles éducations». On ne doit pas ignorer non plus les intérêts et les options des élèves. Plutôt que d'insister avec des sujets/thèmes qui présentent moins d'intérêt pour eux à un moment donné, il serait à souhaiter d'approcher les mêmes sujets en se servant d'autres variantes (même thème, autres variantes).

Par exemple: *La Seconde Guerre mondiale*

- la leçon classique présente les causes, les alliances, le déroulement de la guerre, les fronts, les batailles, la fin de la guerre, les conséquences etc.
- il y a une multitude d'aspects que le professeur ne peut pas atteindre dans sa leçon: l'espionnage, les combats des partisans, la situation des réfugiés, la position de la femme restée à la maison etc.
- on peut approcher de tels sujets, plus attrayants et «nouveaux», mais pour les *comprendre* l'élève doit connaître les conditions ayant conduit à l'espionnage

- se servant d'une autre voie d'accès, on arrive à parler, par translation, des conditions/causes du déclenchement de la guerre, de la durée, l'ouverture des fronts et des résultats des batailles dues aux actions d'espionnage
- les élèves apprennent aussi de nouvelles choses, ils découvrent l'existence d'un soi-disant «front» de l'ombre, le fait que l'espionnage, les codages et les décodages des messages ont influencé le résultat des batailles et permis la mise au point de plans visant les débarquements d'Afrique, Normandie etc.

Une telle démarche offre l'avantage d'une meilleure assimilation et compréhension de la deuxième conflagration mondiale que ne le permet la leçon«classique» d'enseignement- acquisition des connaissances. Un sujet de ce genre permet en même temps au professeur de former des compétences de réflexion critique, des valeurs et attitudes liées à la paix et au désarmement, à l'éducation interculturelle (acceptation des différences), à l'éducation civique (implication en guerre de tous les citoyens, «combat» responsable des civiles pendant les six ans de guerre etc.).

Les contenus que le professeur choisit ou qu'on lui recommande à travers le programme scolaire doivent être à la fois un prétexte et un moyen de former des compétences. Pour obtenir des résultats dans l'acquisition des connaissances, on doit renoncer à la quantité. Un professeur doué sait ouvrir plusieurs fenêtres pour un même concept/thème, peut offrir des voies différentes d'accès au temps. Un bon enseignant se fait un intermédiaire entre l'élève et le curriculum; il est toujours attentif aux supports éducationnels complémentaires – textes, films, logiciel – susceptibles de transmettre des contenus pertinents sous une forme attrayante et efficace à des élèves présentant des degrés différents d'assimilation des connaissances (Gardner, 2006, p. 157).

Étant donné qu'il est impossible de couvrir toute l'histoire au fil de neuf années d'étude de cette discipline (entre la IV^e classe et la fin du lycée), on doit essentiellement former aux élèves l'aptitude de chercher et sélectionner l'information en vue de l'élaboration d'un thème. Cette activité d'expert» lui sera extrêmement utile dans sa formation en tant qu'individu apte de travail.

La nécessité de conférer à l'histoire un autre statut au XXI^e siècle a généré l'idée *d'histoire intégrée*. Véritable épouvantail pour les enseignants (notamment dans les pays ex-communistes), ce concept pousse certains à penser que la tendance est de renoncer à l'histoire nationale, aux particularités locales et régionales, aux valeurs de chaque communauté etc. C'est un faux problème, puisque les recommandations du Conseil de l'Europe au sujet de l'enseignement de l'histoire ont, plus ou moins à bon escient, été déformées par les auteurs mêmes des changements survenus sur le plan éducationnel dans les anciens pays communistes. Nous citons en ce sens de *l'Annexe à la Recommandation no. 15* de 2001: «L'enseignement de l'histoire en une Europe démocratique devrait permettre aux citoyens européens de former et affirmer leur propre identité individuelle et collective à travers la connaissance de l'héritage historique commun dans ses aspects locaux, régionaux, nationaux, européens et globaux».

Réaliser une «histoire intégrée» ne signifie pas créer un «euro-manuel», bien que des tentatives en ce sens n'aient pas manqué (voir Stradling, 2002, p. 25). Cela ne veut pas dire qu'on ait abandonné l'idée de «manuel unique», mais tout simplement qu'on en a modifié la vision. L'«euro-manuel» ne vise pas à former une pensée uniforme, unilatérale, ce n'est pas un moyen de transmettre des idées communes et uniques à tous les citoyens de l'Europe; c'est, par contre, la prise de conscience de l'appartenance à un espace complexe, divers et complémentaire à la fois. Ce «manuel» ne suppose pas la rédaction de livres qui contiennent pour tous les élèves européens le même nombre de pages, les mêmes thèmes, idées et images; il s'agit tout simplement d'une approche différente de l'histoire qui signifie développement de techniques, méthodes d'enseignement et thème adaptés à la réalité quotidienne, afin de rendre l'élève capable de faire face à la complexité du milieu environnant, de s'intégrer en tant que citoyen européen en une Europe démocratique.

Pour enseigner l'histoire de l'Europe du XXe siècle, on doit, selon R. Stradling*, se rapporter à trois principes didactiques de rédaction du curriculum (Stradling, 2002, p. 29sq.). Ces principes de rédaction du programme scolaire d'histoire sont valables pour toutes les époques, non seulement pour l'histoire du XXe siècle. Nous les présentons ci-dessous:

- établir un équilibre entre ce qui est important du point de vue historique et ce qui est indiqué d'inclure en un programme destiné à un certain GROUPE D'ELEVES

Par exemple: *les découvertes géographiques*

- du point de vue historique, c'est un moment important (de grand impact en Europe)
 - pour les élèves de l'Europe occidentale (Espagnols, Portugais, Anglais, Hollandais, Italiens, Français etc.) ce sujet est un chapitre de leur histoire nationale
 - ce sujet est-il important pour les élèves de l'Europe centrale et du Sud-Est? La réponse est affirmative. Mais COMMENT le présenter devant ces élèves pour être attrayant et significatif? Ce sujet acquerra une dimension européenne si: l'on souligne l'impact des découvertes géographiques sur la manière de penser et la mentalité des gens (elles ont démontré que la Terre est ronde, qu'elle n'est pas le centre de l'univers etc.); l'on met en évidence les capacités de l'homme d'atteindre ses buts, le fait que l'alimentation des Européens se soit améliorée (introduction de la pomme de terre, du maïs etc.). On ne doit pas omettre non plus les aspects négatifs de ce processus pour Européens et non-Européens à la fois: destruction et disparition de civilisations, intolérance et xénophobie des premiers conquérants etc.
- établir un équilibre entre particulier et général
 - on peut le réaliser par l'appel à l'analyse comparée: comparer les événements de son pays avec ceux d'autres pays ou régions; identifier les différences et les similitudes; préciser les modèles (c'est un principe que le professeur d'histoire connaît bien, aussi ne jugeons-nous pas nécessaire de le développer)

- établir un équilibre entre la perspective historique verticale et la perspective historique horizontale

La **perspective verticale** concerne l'étude du changement et de la continuité en histoire et suppose:

- développement d'une conception générale sur certains sujets, certaines périodes
- compréhension des directions principales de développement d'une longue période de temps, accent mis sur les étapes déjà parcourues (le statut de la femme au fil des époques historiques, par exemple)
- compréhension des modèles ou évolutions diachroniques importantes, telles l'urbanisation, la globalisation, la croissance démographique
- reconstitution du parcours d'une question importante sur le plan européen ou régional ou d'un problème en partant de ses origines, même si ces dernières dépassent la période étudiée

La **perspective horizontale** vise à placer les événements en contexte européen plus large:

- il s'agit pratiquement d'une analyse linéaire du passé, depuis l'antiquité à nos jours
- elle permet aux élèves d'analyser les événements fondamentaux de l'histoire nationale d'une perspective multiple (la *multiperspectivité* de l'histoire), de vérifier et comparer la version présentée dans les manuels à d'autres sources, ce qui les aide à acquérir l'habitude de rechercher et étudier différentes sources historiques pour connaître des interprétations tout aussi différentes et comprendre finalement qu'il s'agit d'interprétations regardées de plusieurs points de vue mais issues des mêmes sources.

Les nouveaux programmes scolaires d'histoire, notamment ceux pour la XIe et la XIIe classe, cherchent à respecter ces principes européens d'enseignement- acquisition des connaissances. On demande à l'élève de:

- comparer les événements de l'histoire nationale à des événements similaires d'autres pays ou régions d'Europe: *Le XXe siècle entre démocratie et totalitarisme* (le manuel pour la XIIe)
- comparer différents aspects de la vie quotidienne: vie à la campagne, vie urbaine, commerce, communications etc.: *Villages, bourgs et villes en Europe et dans l'espace roumain* (XIIe classe)
- démontrer la façon dont les événements de l'histoire nationale ont influencé ou ont été influencés par ce qui s'est passé en Europe: *L'espace roumain entre diplomatie et conflit jusqu'à la veille de la modernité* (XIIe classe) etc.

Les leçons données en exemple pour tel ou tel aspect ne sont pas spécifiques ou adéquates qu'à l'aspect en cause; une analyse plus attentive révèle qu'un seul thème peut inclure plusieurs profils de la perspective historique verticale ou horizontale. Une pareille vision peut paraître déroutante aux yeux du professeur d'histoire; cependant

une analyse pertinente démontre qu'il ne s'agit pas de s'éloigner de ce que les professeurs ont déjà appris; par contre, tout leur savoir connaît un développement et un défi, destinés à les faire renoncer à la routine et à la monotonie de la profession, qui s'installent le plus souvent malgré tout effort de les éviter.

Pour que l'histoire en tant que discipline scolaire acquière un nouveau statut, on devrait principalement renoncer au préjugé selon lequel l'étude de cette discipline suppose exclusivement la transmission d'informations à caractère encyclopédique. L'académisme exagéré de l'instruction pré-universitaire porte de graves préjudices à la formation initiale de l'élève. Une bonne compréhension du rôle que l'histoire joue dans l'éducation de chaque individu dès l'école primaire réclame de la part de chaque professeur effort, imagination, talent et dévouement.

Les contenus, les méthodes et les moyens que le professeur choisit dans sa démarche didactique de tous les jours doivent tenir compte de l'ELEVE, de ses particularités, sa capacité intellectuelle et la sphère d'intérêt du groupe d'élèves. On doit mettre l'accent sur un enseignement actif, orienté vers la formation d'attitudes et valeurs, sur le développement de compétences qui permettent à l'élève de trouver des solutions aux problèmes, sur l'adaptation des contenus à la réalité quotidienne. Aux contenus traditionnels on doit ajouter des thèmes nouveaux – tels, histoire de la femme, mouvements de populations (émigration, immigration, mortalité, natalité etc.), histoire du cinéma, histoire du sport etc. -, plus proches des préoccupations actuelles de l'élève et du jeune dans la société contemporaine.

On ne saurait pas négliger la nouvelle technologie de l'information et de la communication, la télévision, l'Internet, le DVD, capables d'offrir à l'étude de l'histoire de nouvelles sources et modalités d'approche. L'ordinateur devient de plus en plus moyen d'instruction et, puisqu'il est le préféré des enfants, pourquoi ne pas l'utiliser dans leur formation? Tout comme nous avons appris à lire un livre, à analyser les opinions de différents auteurs, à comparer les sources et à ne pas prendre pour vérité unique et immuable l'opinion d'un seul auteur, ainsi nous pouvons enseigner à nos élèves comment se servir de l'INTERNET et considérer d'un œil critique les renseignements qu'ils y trouvent. La différence concerne la forme de présentation: si l'écran du moniteur vient remplacer le papier imprimé, l'essence en reste la même. La différence qui compte vraiment est au fond un bénéfice: rapidité de trouver l'information, coûts beaucoup plus réduits. C'est la voie de l'avenir et, quelles que soient les options des enseignants d'histoire, on ne saurait pas l'arrêter!

Une leçon d'histoire en conformité avec les tendances du temps des élèves s'avère dynamique, de grand impact et capable de susciter un intérêt accru pour cette discipline fascinante et tellement nécessaire au modelage des mentalités et comportements. L'histoire peut ainsi devenir pour tout un chacun un mode de vie, un état d'esprit indispensable à l'existence de tous les jours. C'est par cette voie qu'on peut changer le statut de l'histoire! C'est de cette manière qu'on peut concevoir le «manuel» unique européen et l'«histoire intégrée»! Il ne s'agit pas de notre disparition

en tant qu'individualité nationale, sinon de notre évolution, de notre développement synchrone avec l'Europe. Greenwich n'est pas seulement le symbole du méridien origine, mais aussi du méridien mental de référence (Mitu, 2007, p. 177).

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THE DIALOGICAL METHOD IN THE STUDY OF PHILOSOPHY

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG. Im Rahmen des gewählten Themas, das die Methode des Dialogs betrifft, wird das Problem aus verschiedenen Perspektiven behandelt, welche sowohl die Struktur der Methode und das Ensemble der Vorsichtsmaßnahmen und Regeln zur Geltung bringen, die für seinen Erfolg eingehalten werden müssen, als auch die Auswirkungen der durch ihn geleisteten Arbeit, die in der Qualität der dialogischen Praxis reflektiert werden.

Die Struktur der Methode und die Zusammenhänge zwischen den konstitutiven Elementen zeigen nicht nur ihre Komplexität an, sondern auch das Erfordernis ihrer Kontextualisierung bzw. Flexibilisierung, abhängig von der Art der Inhalte, die Anwendung finden. Diese Maßnahmen sichern die Funktionsfähigkeit der Methode nicht nur in erzieherischen, sondern auch in (selbst)bildenden Hinsicht.

1. About the dialogical method

1.1. The dialogical method can be defined as a heuristical method, produced by at least two speakers, when the communication is assumed explicitly and when the reversibility of the sentences covers a range of relationships with specific terms and effects such as:

- Reciprocity between speaker and public, generating verbal action, communication,
- Complementarity between partners (proponent - opponent), with the correlated effect – communication,
- Mutuality between persons (ego - alter), which leads to ideas communion (new) and to communication based upon them.

1.2. The marks of dialogue can be configured at least by the following aspects:

- The dialogue begins in an *open debate*, marked by interrogative curiosity and honesty among the participants beyond their positions and various arguments;
- By dialogue it is satisfied the *need to contact* the interlocutor's thought as well as to verify one's own capacities of understanding and interpreting;
- The dialogue is the participants' mutual benefit, meaning that solitary meditation is not enough for anyone; it must be supplemented and it is subject to corrections following the way of otherness (the way of the significant other). Thus, the dialogue has the benefit of revised statements and, by this, may go beyond the unilateral and dogmatic points of view;

- Dialogue as a method is also efficient from a psychological and spiritual perspective, for its *capacity to involve* the partners and its force to raise conscientiousness, force due to comparative judgment, critical thinking upon one's own products, the need to open a public debate on the value of certain statements, the re-examining and re-formulating them better for the participants. Let's not forget that the dialogue must proceed towards a thinking which is more adequate, more just, more conform to the data, freedoms and constraints coming from reality;
- On the other hand, dialogue can be considered as a *temporary unifying knowledge* approach, essentially open to new (dialogical) experiences, because those carrying the dialogue agree upon the necessity of a critical – reflexive approach, as a measure of precaution against the danger of establishing a partial truth as final truth. Thus understood, the dialogue becomes a research way, a working method looking for contradiction not to tolerate it, but to overcome it;
- The dialogue requires discipline, which assumes *its openness to all kind of human experiences*, personal, interpersonal and socio – cultural. Such openness has a shaping effect upon intolerance, arrogance and excessive criticism, as well as upon other forms of taking away the inner democracy of the method. It is always useful to remind, from this point of view, the ethical side of the method;
- The dialogical method involves at all levels of didactical experience and knowledge *operating with the fear of making a mistake*, which assumes tacit openness to unexpected, as well as the capacity to efficiently integrate the significance, even with the price of reviewing certain fundamental statements, involved up to a certain point in the debate.

1.3. The structure of the dialogical method

The structure of the dialogical method puts in a better light the existence of a complex of elements composing it, organized in a certain way, stable and recognizable, beyond the contexts and various results accompanying it. The structure's elements organize themselves in specific activity sequences, interdependent, which cannot be eluded without compromising the method as a whole. These sequences are:

a. *Questioning the theme* represents the starting point of the method organizing the aggregate of exercises contained by the method. What questioning means? It means transforming the affirmation in an interrogation, it means “seeing the question behind the statement”, “the interrogation under the statement” (Russ, 1999).

What questioning means for the teaching of Philosophy, whether the dialogue takes place in a classroom or in a lecture room? There is no philosophical approach without questioning: the questioning is made either by descriptive-affirmative analysis, or by interrogation. For instance, the Kantian questions concerning the human condition (What may I know? What may I hope? What ought to be done?)

What is man?) call each of them for a previous questioning approach in order to establish the area of the issue and its further widening. What questioning means in this case: acknowledging the difficulty of the answer beyond its apparent evidence. This way of being of philosophy finds itself in the act of its birth, by interrogating the principles of mythical explanation of the world. We remind here Socrate's example, which, as we know, leads questioning towards its best: What is virtue? What is right? What is beauty? etc. are questions that beyond their simple appearance build up a questioning approach leading to difficulties hard to overcome.

The teacher's role in this frame is to organize dialogue, to establish the theme and underline its area and importance within the subject it serves. The teacher is also the one organizing the questioning of the theme, operating with the right number of opening questions, in order to fully meet the goals for which the systematic questioning is done:

- we are talking about a theoretical goal, that of carefully framing the debated theme, due to epistemic reasons, but also economic ones upon we have already made short references,
- one goal attached to a communicational intentionality that intends to unlock communication and engage as many students as possible in debates by stimulating their curiosity for the chosen theme, by actualizing the knowledge they already have either from the study of different subjects, or from other information sources (outside the school), knowledge which can be reevaluate in the new context,
- one goal with a psychological feature intending to create a certain atmosphere friendly to exchanging ideas, mutual trust among participants, students and teachers as well, provoking students' curiosity for what is next in the lesson, provoking their cognitive motivation,
- one practical goal on the strength of which the teacher states the technical conditions of carrying out the lesson, announces the materials he is going to use (documentaries, sketches, maps, collections of texts, author volumes etc.) and which the students will use, reminds (if necessary) the basic rules of communication and interaction among students and between students and the teacher.

b. Framing the main problem and the theme and formulating it as issue – questions, questions whose tension requires an answer representing another important methodological sequence. On the way it is formulated the issue – question depend not only the debut of the debate, but also the whole dialogue, its dynamic and constructive tension and probably most of the way it will end by formulating the conclusions. Within the study of philosophy, the problem is the one bringing in the debate the true theoretical fundament of a theme: it is the base for the exercises provoked and carried out, their heuristical line, it is what unites and leads the questions and answers to the conclusions.

The philosophical issue is not like a scientific problem. *Solving* it, as the peak in the approach of a scientific problem is substituted, within philosophy, to *clarification, organizing* better than it already is the sequence of questions, to operating with leaving aside the prejudices and biases, to *installing a conceptual rationality against the sensitive illusion and common opinion*. Within the science, the problem may disappear once it is solved. Within philosophy the problem may persist in an analyzing plurality and its very solution is always amendable.

For the experience of students' first contact and familiarizing with philosophy, as well as for a deeper study, the following steps are important from a didactical point of view:

- clear identification of the philosophical problem, its area and specific horizon, without overlapping it to specific approaches coming from the fragments in the text book or other bibliographical sources;
- not mistaken the problem by reducing it (and profaning it) with one of the senses it is associated at the level of common representations (for instance, the problem of freedom is not to be mistaken to its ordinary representations, nor to its political, juridical, moral hypostasis etc.)
- not settling in a dogmatic and one-sided way to formulations of the problem which one author or another consecrated. Beyond their value upon which the philosophical thought must reevaluate again and again, philosophy depends on the plurality of ideas and must fund there its concepts and most general judgments, in order not to become biased or dogmatic.

The teacher is responsible for the clarity and accuracy of the question – problem. Discussing the role of the teacher at this point and beyond, we should remember that in order to gain the attention of the class and of the seminar, as well as for the general success of the educative endeavor proposed by this method, the way the questions are crafted and presented is of great importance. Therefore:

- Every question represents a request for information, a gaping of missing information in a determined field. To request an answer presupposes, therefore, to know how to provoke it, to solicit it by clear formulations and avoiding repetitions and interrogative overlapping that would disorient more than help. The way the teacher formulates the questions are very important, as well as the possibility for the pupils to ask questions, for the success of the method and especially for the acquisitions that may be obtained through this experience. The teacher can be a model for some of the pupils or students, that have become disciples in respect to the way questions are asked (without ostentation and without aggressiveness), so that they may fulfill their main role as instruments of search and progress in knowledge;
- On the other hand, we cannot avoid reminding an aspect that has clear connotations at cognitive and educative level, namely that a question

represents a forme of thought. Because of this the questions should not be formulated beyond or below the capacity to respond of the participants to the dialogue, but in the area of judgment and knowledge in which they know or think (with optimism) to have certain competence.

The displacement, during the dialogue, of the focus from questions as means to verify and evaluate on questions designed as instrument to orient the thinking and study in the field of knowledge, which means that the road from the unknown to the known is in the care of each and every participant, student or pupil, leads, naturally, to the democratization of the role of the question in the economy of the lesson. On the basis of this experience each of the participants to the dialogue may ask questions, because of the need to solicit the clarification of the information possessing at a given time.

c. Raising up the issue itself, represents the sequence of activities that presupposes the division of the question in parts or themes with a smaller span than the question, that are more easily analyzable each in part and more accessible as to their meaning.

The role of the teacher in this sequence of the method is to help (the pupils first and the students if necessary) to discover the significant parts for the understanding of the issue, to familiarize them with systematic and methodic work, by which no important part of it remains undiscussed.

d. The analytical proceeding presupposes the careful analysis of the cases, situations, texts, documents or auxiliary materials so that nothing remains left behind from what is significant as to the possible solution to the question-issue.

The teacher will supervise, when necessary, the proper time allotting for this activity, given the predilection of pupils to linger more on the moments for analysis. Also, he will be careful so that the analytic moment will not become superficial, because on its quality are depending the partial synthesis moments and the reaching of conclusions. More, the profundity of the later can be framed only on the basis of acquisitions and analyzing capacities that come not only through the study of philosophy, but which in the context of this subject receives specific connotations and dimensions.

Also, we are referring to what can be called analytical responsibility in the sense that pupils are involved in the analytical proceedings that they are conducting not only as cognitive beings, but also as willful and passionate beings, with personal options and preferences. From this point of view it is very important that, already in the matter here discussed, the pupils learn to make an honest analysis, shielded from subjectivity. Only when the obtained data will be ordered in series of reports unanimously accepted these will be in position to express subjective views also, with a personal tint. This way, through comparative exercise and progressive deliberation, is established the validity of data, compared to and separated from partisan points of view that are marginal and accidental.

e. *The synthetic proceeding* refers to bringing together the obtained data from the analysis of the main components of the problem and the reconstruction of the road from parts to the whole that is the issue itself. The reconstruction of the whole from the analyzed elements is done making connections, bridges and mediating between them. The collective result of the analytical proceeding brings, thus, elements of novelty on the field of knowledge, bringing to light aspects that initially could have only been guessed at, refines the understanding of connections between elements of the problems, placing them in the zone of central or secondary interest in relation to the issue at hand.

The roles of the teacher in this moment are the following:

- to guide the pupils in their search for the most valid partial solutions to the given problem. This task is not easy, because it presupposes the maintaining of a good balance between the individual research of the pupils and teamwork, so that neither the individual merits, nor the results obtained by the class as a whole are ignored;
- to be careful that in the process of rising the thinking of the pupils from the particular to the general there will be avoided the clichés that come from the social representations that are common at a certain time in the communities from which they come, where are considered as truth.
- to use comparison, progressive deliberation, value decantation, reflective spirit and conceptual construction as necessary and unavoidable exercises, according to the range of the considered problem. It is the moment to call the attention the fact that the *de facto* engagement in the elaboration of the partial synthesis of the knowledge data and, finally, their participation to the arriving at the final conclusion of the dialogue represents a sure way to mature thinking for them. The visible effects of the maturation mentioned by us consists, at least, in not confusing the whole with a part and not making in unilateral judgments (partial conclusions); also, there is the question of the possibility of discerning between objective understanding perspectives on problems discussed through relating to the partisanship or subjectivism that accompanied them before the constitution by them of the field of exercises already mentioned; finally, there is the question of feeding a certain gnosiological optimism on the basis of which the participants may realize that the possibility of arriving to more and more general and correct conclusions is not the exclusive prerogative of the teacher and that they are capable of this kind of performances. The confidence in the power of personal reflection in arriving to articulate by oneself correct judgments and conclusions generates a positive attitude towards working with ideas, philosophical texts, confidence that can inform any future learning experience.

f. Offering an optimal relation between the plurality of ideas and their thematic coherence represents a sequence of great importance in the general frame of the method.

We cannot dialogue fruitfully on a given topic in the absence of a plurality of ideas regarding it, as we cannot lose sight of the fact that not every statement made in its literality may be useful for us for its nuanced understanding. To separate from further intrusions, that are marginal or accidental to the subject the main context of ideas represents one of the permanent obligation of the teacher, one of the things to keep an eye on for the preservation of the debate on the subject, as well as keeping the intention clear for avoiding to fall in the irrelevant. Insisting this way in the work with pupils, the teacher will make them used to be truly productive as to the ideas relative to a given subject. For the work with students, also, the question of balancing plurality and coherence is an important aspect. It is about not wasting energy into looking for many answers that are poorly linked to the problem-question and its center of interest, about concentrating the interest of the participants and reminding them as often it is necessary the fact that a problem does not exist outside its solutions.

Another aspect, related to the technical side of utilizing the method, should be mentioned. We should warn about the fact that the more profound the analytical proceeding is the more articulate becomes and the clearer remains the thematic unity of the debates. Also, the more theoretically prepared the participants are, the more balanced the dialogue will be harmonizing the plurality of ideas and the thematic coherence, not only in extension, but in profundity, that is regarding the depth of the judgments arrived at and the answers formulated.

g. The approach towards results and the forming of conclusions represents the sequence in which the entire edifice of ideas realized through analytical effort and synthesis adapts itself and is fixed into clearly articulated forms. We can talk about situations in which there is one or more conclusions following the debates, their plurality not being a sign of an impossibility to deliberate, but of the conservation of the dialectical spirit that cannot be foreign to dialogical perspective in any of its moments, including the conclusive one.

The role of the teacher consists in the help given to the class in formulating the conclusions. In these situations we have a logical component of the intervention that serves to limit or eliminate some cognitive difficulties that can surface on the road to elaborate conclusions by the pupils, given their limited capacity for abstraction and generalization. On the other hand there is a psychological component that we have to consider and that aims to minimize, as much as possible, the pupils' fears that stem from the learning experience, such as fear of error or the trivialization of the result of their thinking, either by a part of the class or by the professor. This is the time to recall that the dialogical method is a profoundly democratic method that brings and maintains an honest competition between the participants. The role of the professor is to keep the spirit of participation to the dialog of the pupils alive, without preferences or discriminations and to remind when necessary the ethical implications of the participation to relation to the others.

h. Establishing the accord to end the dialogue is to be done in virtue of the realization that, at least for the span of one course, or seminar sufficient steps have been made towards a deeper and more proper understanding of some ideas. The accord for the closing of the dialogue is requested precisely on the basis of such realization.

The clear and stable structure of the dialogue method can be found in any seriously pursued didactic context. To avoid the danger leveling and that of methodological reductionism we remind that the method in question is flexible as to the specificities of various subjects, to the content and the specific work possibilities of the pupils or students, as well as their experience in undertaking a dialogue. It follows, of course, that in the educational practice one and the same method will vary as to its form from subject to subject and from one didactic context to the other. It is about different accents as to the interest given to one or the other of the elements that make up the structure of the method, in its general developing, about the kind of exercises selected in the making of the method, about the objectives that were set. Thus, for example, one of these variations may be provoked by the issue to be studied, its character that can be more or less accessible, the level of familiarity of the pupils or students with it, that require different attention and amount of time given from one lesson to the other or from seminar to the other as to the questioning and shaping of the sphere of the central problem. Of course, when the issue is one that has been substantially publicized, such as the issue of human rights, for example, the moment of starting the debating of the issue is reduced because it is accessible to many pupils. The main accent will be on the diversity of opinions among the participants to the dialogue and the maintaining of an optimal balance between plurality and unity.

The diversity of competences on the part of pupils or even students as to their problem solving capabilities in the field of human studies is another factor that generates variations in the application of the said method. Thus, for instance, for the experience accumulated before the end of High School it is illustrative the tendency to operate more analytically than synthetically. This situation can be explained by the higher frequency of exercises of analytical character, that pupils face in school, through the various learning situations, as well as by a certain behavioral stereotype of many of the teachers in avoiding moments of synthesis during lessons, a stereotype that we only wish to mention here, without insisting on its nature or reason. We are faced, in these learning situations, in extreme cases, to activities dominated excessively by the analytical, the synthetical being left aside or pushed away, and the teacher enunciates the solution to the problem *ex abrupto*. On the other hand we have statistically less frequent experiences, but that are illustrative nevertheless for our discussion, experiences in which, realizing the necessity of increasing the frequency of synthetic exercises during lessons proceed to provoking them without sufficient logical and argumentative bases.

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