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**Technical Editor
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**Editors of this volume
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ÉCOLE-COMMUNAUTÉ ET DIMENSIONS DE LEADERSHIP

Professeur ordinaire Ettore FELISATTI,
Département de Science de l'Éducation, Université de Padoue,
ettore.felisatti@unipd.it

Resumé

*Aujourd'hui, la représentation de l'école comme communauté est très valorisée et bien accueillie dans les contextes de l'éducation scolaire. Il s'agit d'un modèle qui retrouve sa matrice dans l'idée de *Gemeinschaft* de Tonnies, et qui est aujourd'hui particulièrement soutenu par Sergiovanni. L'orientation de l'école-communauté est adressée vers la socialité: elle fonde son action sur la compréhension de l'autre, sur les valeurs et les intérêts partagés ; elle vise à la construction de relations significatives ainsi qu'à la croissance intégrée et convaincue des personnes impliquées (Sergiovanni : 2000, 2002). L'école-communauté est une *learning organization* (Senge : 1990, 2006) puisque les processus d'apprentissage de chacun, des groupes et de l'organisation à son intérieur sont considérés comme fondamentales. Dans ce contexte, un leadership distribué joue un rôle décisif ; il devra être en mesure de développer empathie (Goleman: 2004), mais surtout de se mettre au service du développement des potentialités des personnes et de faire augmenter une culture de la coresponsabilité à soutien des valeurs et des pratiques communes. Le concept d'école-communauté coïncide avec celui d'une communauté de leader, dans laquelle la fonction de leadership est partagée et vécue par les dirigeants, les enseignants et les élèves et s'étend parmi les parents et la communauté où l'école s'opère.*

Mots clé: école-communauté, apprentissage, leadership

Aujourd'hui l'école se trouve en situation de devoir penser à nouveau son propre rôle et sa propre fonction en relation à la colocation qu'elle a eue historiquement dans la préparation des nouvelles générations. Actuellement les problématiques qui investissent la réalité éducative et scolaire sont nombreuses, mais de notre point de vue l'incommunicabilité *inside/ outside* constitue le nœud de la question. L'école est de moins en moins en mesure de faire connaître ses qualités, y compris quand celles-ci sont démontrées avec ténacité et réalisées d'une manière adéquate ; sauf rares exceptions,

elles risquent de se faire prendre au piège dans des circuits bornés et de ne pas développer une résonance qui permette au milieu de participer à une entreprise commune. Le système fait apparaître à l'extérieur une proposition difficilement entendue, très souvent jugée affadie et incapable de répondre aux défis pressants lancés par la société de la connaissance. C'est ne pas par hasard qu'aujourd'hui, à travers les relations que l'école instaure avec l'extérieur, la délégation autrefois assumée par le système scolaire soit de plus en plus remise en question ; les usagers continuent à suggérer des propositions d'implication, en plus des demandes d'implication de la part des stackholder qui investissent dans le domaine éducatif et formatif ; à tout cela il faut ajouter le désir de contrôle et de réappropriation communautaire de l'éducation. Sans aucun doute, les perspectives selon lesquelles on peint la réalité future sont nombreuses.

David Istance (CERI/OCSE) au Forum du Conseil de l'*International Bureau of Education* de l'Unesco (20-31 janvier 2003) suppose trois panoramas possibles face au système scolaire et formatif : le premier a comme but le maintien du « statu quo » à travers le renforcement de l'organisation bureaucratique et la structuration d'interventions pour l'entretien. Celui-là semble le chemin le moins souhaitable puisqu'il risquerait de créer à l'intérieur de l'école des niveaux d'autoréférentialité qui ne sont plus supportables, étant extrêmement onéreux pour la communauté et incapables d'interpréter ou d'orienter le développement perspectif des sociétés locales.

Un deuxième panorama, déjà cité par Illich dans les années 1970, préfigure de possibles dérives vers la « déscolarisation », une perspective alimentée par une insatisfaction profonde et généralisée à l'égard de la qualité des résultats produits par les systèmes scolaires. On procède au démantèlement des systèmes de direction actuelle ; ceux-ci sont substitués par des contextes de « network society », c'est-à-dire par des réseaux formateurs soutenus par le développement important et fortement diffusé des technologies de l'information et de la communication. Plusieurs agences privées accréditées opérant dans un système de marché hautement compétitif et parcellisé font proliférer les offres de formations.

Sans nul doute, le troisième panorama, toujours proposé par Istance, préfigure le futur que l'on souhaite, dans lequel le système-école procède de façon constante vers une « re-scolarisation » ou bien une « relance » effective de l'éducation et de la formation, soutenue surtout par un considérable investissement de ressources et choisie en vertu de la reconnaissance des résultats obtenus en termes de qualité et d'équité. Les écoles se développent comme centres de la socialisation opérants contre la fragmentation sociale ; elles se veulent aussi organisations d'apprentissage visant à la qualité de la connaissance ainsi qu'à l'obtention de niveaux élevés

de savoir en réalisant modèles d'expérimentation et stratégies d'innovation en mesure de répondre d'une manière adéquate aux demandes sociales.

Comme on le sait, il est difficile de connaître le futur panorama et bien sûr celui-ci ne s'épuisera pas dans un seul modèle parmi ceux que nous venons de tracer. Avec une très grande probabilité, il se présentera sous une forme complexe puisqu'il réunira en soi les aspects partiels de chaque représentation; il conciliera les différentes dimensions selon des critères d'opportunité et de pluralité aussi bien dans les modalités de distribution que dans les conformations de l'offre éducative et formative. Ce qui restera sera sûrement l'exigence de la part de chacun, des groupes, des communautés, des associations, des institutions, de percevoir comme sienne la culture et la proposition éducative, qu'elle soit distribuée par une organisation scolaire (publique, privée ou mixte) ou par des structures et organismes nouveaux (réseaux, organisations locales, etc.). Il s'agit, en somme, de se réunir autour de l'idée d'une «éducation partagée» dans laquelle pénètrent trois aspects: l'implication de valeurs, l'adhésion à la proposition et la conformité de l'action didactique.

Le Conseil Européen de Lisbonne (2000) pour l'année 2010 vise l'objectif de transformer l'économie européenne en une économie « fondée sur une connaissance du monde plus compétitive et dynamique, en mesure de réaliser une croissance économique soutenable avec la création d'emplois et une meilleure cohésion sociale ». Un but d'actualité comme jamais, qui est surchargé d'un côté du poids d'une crise financière et économique qui rend difficile la découverte de ressources adéquates pour l'éducation et la formation ; de l'autre côté cela avive les difficultés d'un renouvellement culturel et d'une organisation en mesure de donner significativité et force aux directions nécessaires de recherche. Les interventions sont à considérer inéluctables et, plus concrètement, elles visent à :

- 1) Améliorer la qualité et l'efficacité des systèmes d'éducation et de formation ;
- 2) Faciliter l'accès de tous ;
- 3) Soutenir la citoyenneté active, l'égalité des chances et la cohésion sociale.

Ces trois directions s'allient à l'exigence pressante d'une adhésion impliquée et active de tous ceux qui directement et/ou indirectement prennent partie au procès de gestion et *governance* de l'école. Leur implication pleine et nécessaire nous amène à réfléchir, en ce contexte, sur l'idée d'une communauté scolaire qui décide d'avoir soin des questions éducatives.

L'école dans l'idée de communauté

L'école-communauté représente une perspective intéressante, utile afin de concrétiser l'« entrée » dans un projet commun, dans une entreprise à laquelle des personnes font confiance et pour laquelle elles sont disposées à engager leurs pensées et leur présence authentique. Sergiovanni (2000), à propos de cela, éclaire la nature profonde de l'école-communauté en recourant à la pensée de Tonnies et en particulier à deux métaphores: la communauté (*Gemeinschaft*), orientée vers la compréhension et les relations, et la société (*Gesellschaft*), dans laquelle normes et formalisations sont prépondérantes. D'un point de vue paramétrique, société et communauté peuvent être identifiées comme absolues et contraposées. En réalité, dans une dimension plus pratique, elles cohabitent, s'intègrent et se superposent sur de nombreux niveaux, en se mettant en relation dans une perspective de coexistence.

Le concept de *Gesellschaft* met en évidence la valeur d'une organisation formelle neutre qui disperse la spécificité de chacun en faveur d'un universalisme uniformisant, où dominant l'individualisme et l'intérêt personnel ; les prestations d'une personne conditionnent son acceptation ; c'est la culture de type fonctionnel et instrumental qui est valorisée. Le fait d'entrer dans la logique d'une *Gemeinschaft* signifie, au contraire, préférer une orientation tournée vers la socialité et fonder l'action commune sur les actions, valeurs et intérêts partagés qui reconnaissent la nécessité de comprendre la spécificité de chacun.

Il faut viser à la construction de relations significatives, où la dimension empathique aurait l'importance qu'elle mérite ; il est aussi important de s'orienter vers une acceptation inconditionnée de la personne au-delà de la prestation offerte, car ce que l'on veut c'est une croissance intégrée et convaincue de l'être humain dans toutes ses composantes. Dans la *Gemeinschaft* il est important d'accueillir la valeur substantielle des question afin de les connaître plus profondément, en évitant de rester à un niveau simplement formel et en visant à des modèles d'altruisme à travers lesquels il est possible de promouvoir un intérêt bienveillant à l'égard du bien-être des autres.

L'école peut exprimer sa dimension de communauté sous différentes formes : communauté de son, d'apprentissage, de professionnels, de collégiens, d'intégration, de recherche. Ce qui est vraiment important, rappelle encore Sergiovanni, c'est qu'une « communauté de pensée » se crée, une communauté où les personnes se perçoivent liées les unes avec les autres à travers des liens spéciaux dérivants de processus d'immersion ayant pour but d'opérer ensemble pour la construction et le soutien à une culture commune. Plus concrètement, il s'agit d'établir des connexions – à l'intérieur de la personne et parmi les personnes - fondées sur les principes de loyauté et d'intentionnalité, ainsi que sur des buts, valeurs, traditions et

histoires partagées. Tout cela afin de stimuler des adhésions conscientes, des cohérences d'actions et de significations en remplacement de visions empreintes de règles inflexibles et absolues.

Senge, à propos de cela, fait référence à la perspective d'une organisation qui pose au cœur de son action les processus d'apprentissage: la *Learning Organization*. Celle-là se structure au moment où une école, en tant que système d'organisation, devient consciente du fait que l'amélioration est un objectif possible à atteindre seulement à travers une série de processus d'apprentissage: ceux-ci doivent interconnecter le changement de l'organisation et le changement des personnes qui y font partie d'une façon méritoire et continue.

L'apprentissage se construit à travers l'application de cinq disciplines substantielles (2006):

- *Maîtrise personnelle*, dans laquelle on apprend à stimuler la capacité d'obtenir des résultats individuels et à construire des milieux sociaux dans lesquels tous sont encouragés à développer une capacité à poursuivre et atteindre les objectifs fixés ;
- *Modèles mentaux*, discipline qui demande de connaître les théories de type implicite que l'on utilise pour comprendre comment celles-là conditionnent les actions et les décisions individuelles et d'organisation. Cela se fait afin de formuler de nouvelles stratégies culturelles et mentales ouvertes à la recherche et à la confiance à l'égard du nouveau ;
- *Vision partagée*, centrée sur la construction d'une représentation du futur qui se veut claire, désirable et partagée au niveau social; elle est soutenue aussi par l'identification des modalités grâce auxquelles on peut atteindre cette représentation.
- *apprentissage de groupe*, concernant la capacité de savoir penser collectivement. Cette capacité est développée au moyen d'approches dialogiques et de discussions sur la base d'une communication ouverte qui amène à un élargissement de la compréhension et au partage de sens ;
- *pensée systématique*, qui met en jeu des visions intégrées et organisées selon des dimensions complexes dans lesquelles les spécificités individuelles sont comprises à l'intérieur de contextes dynamiques de relations pour le changement.

Dans une telle perspective, l'école n'est jamais comparable à une entreprise tout court, c'est-à-dire à un endroit où les tâches et les rôles sont gérés au moyen de relations formalisées et hiérarchisées ; où les orientations et les décisions clés de l'organisation sont gouvernées par la logique du profit/marché; où il y a en prévalence des formes de gestion de l'organisation fondées sur la qualité, l'efficacité, l'efficience et le contrôle du produit éducatif en fonction du progrès économique. Il ne s'agit pas de diaboliser les

aspects utilitaristes, non plus de renoncer à la possibilité d'être des écoles à grand succès (du reste, toute école se doit d'être à succès !); mais avec une telle perspective on risque de se retrouver au milieu d'une éducation qui en choisissant d'être techniciste et maniaque de l'efficacité perdrait sa perspective anthropocentrique; le risque serait aussi celui de se soustraire aux rôles fondamentaux de promotion de l'identité, maturation personnelle et sens d'appartenance, à celui de poursuivre la construction de chacun vers le bien commun.

Il faut rappeler que c'est justement la *reconnaissance* que le sujet assume en tant que *personne* dans le contexte scolaire qui fait de l'école une réalité spécifiquement connotée. Une personne est une valeur, une identité, un droit, elle est communication sociale et authenticité; sa reconnaissance requiert une façon de voir spécifique, culturelle et de valeurs. Celle –là, en se traduisant en actions concrètes et cohérentes, amène l'organisation et dispose des milieux d'*empowerment* pour la croissance personnalisée, l'enrichissement de chacun, des groupes et des communautés. La conception de l'école en tant que communauté établit une relation étroite avec les quatre dimensions de l'agir, identifiées par Mounier en relation à la *communauté personnaliste* ou *personne de personnes*, fondée, selon l'auteur, sur l'amour:

1. elle renonce à agir d'une façon fondée uniquement sur l'idée d'action efficace détachée de la valeur d'humanité ;
2. elle poursuit une façon d'agir qui assume importance en tant qu'authenticité, car cela répond au besoin profond de l'être en tant que personne ;
3. elle accueille l'idée d'une action contemplative comme recherche de perfection et d'universalité dans laquelle l'homme aspire à l'élévation et à l'incarnation des valeurs ;
4. elle va dans le sens d'une action communautaire comme activité complexe qui trouve son domaine de réalisation dans une communauté de travail.

Dimensions de leadership dans l'organisation scolaire

Le début des processus de changement vers une école organisée de façon communautaire, et son parcours de structuration, requièrent la présence d'un leadership capable de guider et d'impliquer les gens dans la perspective identifiée.

La leadership, en effet, devient une valeur déterminante au moment où, à l'intérieur d'une organisation, on tend à modifier l'existant. Kotter (1990, pp. 103-111) rappelle que « La leadership s'évalue à travers le changement (...) si le changement augmente, la quête de leadership augmente ». Il place cette fonction en position de discontinuité, mais aussi en position d'une nécessaire intégration par rapport au management, lequel, à son tour, se

mesure avec la complexité de l'organisation à l'intérieur de laquelle il a pour but de produire un certain degré d'ordre et de cohérence.

Les différences entre ces deux fonctions sont nombreuses, mais elles se distinguent surtout par leur approche aux situations : le management opère à l'intérieur du paradigme passé et présent, tandis que le leadership peut sortir du paradigme existant pour entrer dans une nouvelle perspective paradigmatique projetée vers le futur.

Dans les *learning organizations* le leadership joue un rôle subtil et déterminant qui dépasse la vision traditionnelle du leader, charismatique et décideur, appelé à faire des choix, prendre des décisions clé et motiver les collaborateurs. Selon Senge, dans ces contextes-là, le leader devient projeteur, éducateur, assistant, il assume des rôles critiques et imprégnés de significations nouvelles associées particulièrement à la « capacité de créer une vision partagée, d'encourager des modèles de pensée systématique. Bref, le leader dans la *learning organization* est le responsable de la création d'une organisation dans laquelle les individus peuvent étendre continûment leurs capacités de former leur futur - c'est-à-dire être responsable de son apprentissage» (Senge, P.M., 1990, p. 10). Cela est possible à partir d'une tension créative générée par ce qu'on veut créer, donc d'une « vision » indispensable pour faire développer la réalité. L'énergie pour le changement jaillit de cette vision.

A propos de cela, Goleman nous rappelle que le succès d'un leader découle du « comment » il se conduit et, en particulier, de sa capacité à mobiliser de façon émotionnelle les gens avec qui il travaille. Des recherches menées par l'auteur démontrent que cette figure a la capacité de se rendre compte des potentialités du facteur émotif dans les domaines où il opère : le leader d'un group est à même d'influencer, plus que les autres, les émotions des ses membres et cette fonction constitue, au même temps « l'essence originaire et l'élément le plus important du leadership » (Goleman, D. et all, 2004, p. 27). Un leadership efficace est à même de créer empathie et retentissement, c'est-à-dire marquer une orientation positive au climat émotif d'une organisation, en indiquant avec intensité les buts à rejoindre et en insufflant aux autres la conscience de collaborer pour atteindre un objectif commun pour lequel il vaut la peine de s'engager.

Mais, suivant McGill et Slocum (*A little leadership, please*, in "Organizational Dynamics", Winter, pp. 39-48) encore plus que sur un modèle « idéal » de leader, visant aux qualités personnelles ou à des positions dans l'organisation, il est nécessaire de réfléchir à un leadership « approprié », qui se plonge dans les actions micro et macro tout en s'orientant vers la construction d'un contexte dynamique où l'action de changement de l'école se fonde sur les ressources et les désirs de tout sujet impliqué dans le changement-même.

Le leadership «pour» et «avec» les autres dans l'école communauté

Comme nous venons de voir, il nous faut demander au leadership de préparer le changement futur dans les organisations, mais aussi de savoir construire le futur des gens, hommes et femmes, qui travaillent quotidiennement dans l'organisation (Quaglino, D., 1999). Dans une école-communauté, une perspective semblable s'associe à l'idée de préparer le futur des jeunes par le biais d'un dialogue permanent entre dimension d'organisation, projet communautaire et *governance* diffusée. Une opération difficile, celle-ci, mais incontournable, qui devient crédible seulement si on réalise, en forme adéquate, des processus diffusés de délégation ; lesquels requièrent un éloignement des dérives et des pièges dégénérateurs entraînés par une gestion myope du pouvoir réalisé exclusivement *pour soi-même* et non pas *pour et avec les autres*.

Dans le développement d'une idée de communauté, il n'y a rien de plus négatif qu'un leadership qui opère sur la base de positions d'autorité rigoureusement préétablies: un leadership autoritaire, rappelle Goleman (2004), crée « discordance », elle ne développe pas empathie et, donc, elle nie la dimension partagée qui est l'essence intime d'une école-communauté.

La question, ainsi posée, se représente sur un plan de cohérence éthique car elle couvre une perspective de leadership responsable et de poids, qui incarne un modèle cohérent, à même d'exprimer des fortes relations synergiques entre vision communautaire et conduites qui l'interprètent. Cela signifie qu'il faut poursuivre, sur un plan personnel et d'organisation, des conditions de crédibilité, d'ouverture, de loyauté et de confiance basées sur le partage et les capacités des individus et des groupes d'opérer dans la perspective d'un changement significatif.

Dans une idée d'école-communauté, le leadership s'organise nécessairement d'une forme élargie et d'une modalité diffusée: y participe les dirigeants, les coordinateurs, les enseignants, les élèves, les parents. Dans la perspective communautaire il n'y a rien de plus fallacieux que de considérer la fonction de leadership comme une gestion réservée seulement au dirigeant, car tout domaine, qu'il soit communicatif, didactique, pédagogique ou d'organisation, doit être l'expression d'une culture soignée avec le sens commun entre tous ceux qui sont impliqués dans les questions de l'éducation et de la formation des jeunes, les hommes du futur.

Comme nous avons vu, l'école-communauté n'as pas besoin d'un dirigeant qui vise uniquement à la gestion du quotidien, mais plutôt d'un partisan du changement, c'est-à-dire d'un leader capable de formuler des visions positives partagées de manière empathique et à même de participer avec un rôle principal dans les processus de changement de l'école en encourageant, en soutenant et en motivant une culture de l'engagement commun. Un passage si crucial mène à considérer l'exigence principale d'entrer dans le vif du sujet qui amène à un leadership qui vise à la

construction d'une intelligence et d'un leadership collectif de l'école et cela implique nécessairement le glissement vers un concept de *leadership distribué* pour lequel on a besoin d'une action qui distribue le pouvoir, comme on a rappelé tout à l'heure, afin que tous aient le droit de pouvoir concourir activement aux perspectives de gestion du changement choisies, communautairement, par l'école. Il s'agit de diffuser le plus possible l'action de leadership en impliquant tous ceux qui participent au niveau idéal et opératif, au processus de construction de la mission que l'école s'est choisie.

Voilà pourquoi on préfère, au lieu du leadership traditionnel et individuel, un leadership de service, un *servant leadership*, adressé aux autres et aux potentialités de développement des gens et des contextes concernés. Dans cette perspective, le chef d'école mène une fonction de *promoter* « avec » les autres, afin de stimuler les conditions utiles pour atteindre des apprentissages avantageux et des significations partagées dans un chemin commun de croissance. Souvent, à ce propos, on parle de leader « modeste », un concept qui risquerait d'assumer dans la culture italienne une sémantique déviée, parce qu'il ne faut pas ramener l'humilité du leader à une acception de soumission ou de dévalorisation, mais plutôt qualifier la mise en fonction d'un leader qui écoute et qui veut comprendre les autres en ne se posant pas au dessus d'eux, mais avec eux, parmi eux et pour eux. Il n'a point besoin de crier ou d'imposer son point de vue mais d'interagir en participant au développement des processus, en améliorant les réflexions des groupes, en transmettant ses certitudes et ses savoirs. Comme nous le rappelle Scurati durant un congrès de l'AEDE (2003), un dirigeant modeste sait prendre part à une discussion, à un discours, à un dialogue, et en ce sens il arrive à traduire sa fonction en perspective morale.

Lui, il n'est pas un *head teacher* (chef des enseignants) mais un *head learner* (chef des apprenants) car il est le premier à comprendre que le chemin vers l'amélioration commence par une initiale et s'achève par une prise de conscience des limites qui sont toujours présentes dans les contextes d'organisation, professionnels, relationnels, opératifs, éthiques. Une organisation qui apprend, découvre ses limites et apprend de ses propres erreurs, la présence d'erreurs est perçue comme « opportunité d'apprentissage », car, à partir de celle-ci, on développe réflexion et connaissance, on recherche et on expérimente des solutions, on contrôle et on évalue. Tout cela dans un entrecroisement général qui développe compréhension et co-action vers des significations partagées et des buts communs.

Les processus en exécution valorisent les apports de tous et Rorst, à ce propos, en rappelant que le leadership est une relation d'influence réciproque entre leader et *follower* (partisans), qui proposent ensemble des modifications réelles sur la base de buts réciproques, remarque le fait que l'action de leadership doit être interactionnelle, multidimensionnelle, non pas

structurée en modalité top-down, mais basée sur des idées partagées et, surtout, diffusées parmi tous (Rorst J., 1991). Le concept est étroitement lié à la perspective de construire l'école comme une *communauté de leaders*, à l'intérieur de laquelle, selon Sergiovanni (2002, p. 162), «pas seulement le chef d'école, mais tous les followers ont aussi la même obligation d'incarner les valeurs de la communauté, les chefs d'école et les enseignants doivent partager équitablement l'obligation de guider l'école». Il va plus loin, et il propose de considérer la «densité de leadership», c'est-à-dire le nombre de gens impliqués directement dans les différents processus décisionnels, comme s'agissant d'une mesure pour peser les niveaux d'implication active et de soutien à la mission, présents dans l'organisation scolaire.

Or, nous nous sommes acheminés sur un chemin qui nous mène vers un partage de plus en plus élargi des responsabilités et de l'engagement pour la qualification constante des actions d'organisation et d'éducation développées dans l'école, autrefois visées uniquement sur l'individu et/ou sur un groupe restreint de collaborateurs. La pratique partagée et diffusée du leadership ouvre des espaces de recherche et d'intervention qui admettent les défis du changement, mais de plus en plus nous nous apercevons qu'un vrai changement peut avoir lieu seulement si les enseignants sont reconnus comme les piliers du leadership dans l'école et s'ils sont considérés comme des membres actifs des processus de développement et de recherche. A l'intérieur de ces processus-ci il faut encourager et sauvegarder les modèles de collaboration avantageuse et de co-responsabilité dans les résultats poursuivis, personnels et communs.

Dans l'idée d'une communauté scolaire qui souhaite et vise à une vision élargie et partagée, il serait un obstacle de ne pas accueillir les exhortations provenant des élèves concernant les perspectives actuelles et futures de l'école, la gestion des initiatives relatives aux projets de l'institut, l'aménagement des activités de classe, les stratégies d'enseignement-apprentissage et les modèles d'évaluation. A ce propos, MacBeath (2003), cite un *student leadership* et amorce une perspective qui dépasse l'implication de ce groupe dans la phase formelle du projet généralement engagée en classe. L'auteur trouve dans la capacité des élèves de développer des visions et des propos, une ressource et un espace de développement dont le leadership d'une école ne peut pas se passer. Il s'agit là d'étendre vers des frontières nouvelles le besoin de l'étudiant d'être protagoniste, besoin déjà établi par les théories socioconstructivistes dans le domaine des processus d'enseignement-apprentissage ; et de préparer les conditions pour permettre à cette composante de s'exprimer - dans la classe et au-delà de la classe - pour que les pratiques, les normes, les buts et les valeurs que l'école-communauté élabore, soient négociés, partagés, chargés de significations, grâce à des situations de proposition et de soutien actif de la part des élèves. Encore une fois, l'idée fondamentale est celle du « s'occuper » (*caring*) des

élèves, un concept (et une pratique) qui nécessite d'une triangulation vertueuse entre des dynamiques d'écoute, besoin d'être protagoniste et attitudes de proposition, dans lesquelles l'élève cède en « passivité » et acquiert en dynamisme, en faisant propres à leur tour des valeurs de leadership à même d'agir pour le changement avec les autres figures de l'école.

Il est opportun qu'une orientation pareille gouverne aussi le rapport avec les familles. Comme nous le rappelle Sergiovanni (2002, p. 187), les bonnes écoles « n'attendent pas que les familles ou les étudiants assument le poids de s'harmoniser aux valeurs de l'école. Au contraire, elles travaillent intensivement pour s'adapter aux valeurs des familles. Elles sont prêtes à répondre avec empathie et à respecter les valeurs de ces familles-là ». De cette façon, en ce qui concerne l'école, on réalise une quête d'alliance avec la famille, une mise en place des conditions appropriées pour pousser une présence réelle de celle-là et son harmonisation dans les choix éducatifs de l'école. Ici, le leadership scolaire entre dans une dimension de co-action qui lui permet, en même temps, de se développer dans la communauté externe et de recevoir partage et exhortations pour fortifier et/ ou modifier les choix de signification graduellement adoptés dans la communauté interne.

Les modèles de leadership, dans l'école-communauté, visent à se construire au moyen de la présence dialectique des acteurs de l'école elle-même. Ce qui étend les ouvertures perspectives, vers un leadership vu comme « bien universel », est le fait que, dans son intérieur, trouve place de façon complète le principe morinien (Morin E., 2001) du droit à l'implication, du côté de tous les sujets qui, différemment, sont impliqués dans le projet formatif.

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FORMING COMPETENCES THROUGH LEARNING AND PROBLEM SOLVING

Professor Ph. D. Gheorghe DUMITRIU,
“Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, Teachers Training
Department, dumitriu@ub.ro

Abstract

This study deepens the psychological problematic of the forming of competences through learning and problem solving. We highlight the difficulties that we face in the operational defining of the term competence, the complexity of the demarche of formation and development of the competences. We emphasise the importance of the strategies and the tools used in order to mobilise the psychic resources, that are used in this context, the arguments given by the literature of speciality, as well as the author's research in this field.

Thus, the research emphasised that the statement of a problem triggers in the mental plan the construction process of a representation, tranzitory construction that is determined by the elements of the situation and of the task that has to be solved. The failure of the solving or a new learning modality can lead to the changing of the reprsentation, and a new problem-space will be defined, in other words, a new research space for the subject.

Keywords: *competence, learning, cognitive capacity, strategy, problem solving*

1. Defining and explaining the concepts

The individual competence is the person's capacity to know, understand and produce results or of making performance (*The big psychology dictionary*, Larousse, Editura Trei, 2006, p. 218). Competence is defined as being the capacity, aptitude or the ability to make in a correct and efficient manner an activity, of knowing a person or a group, to solve a problematic situation (*Psychology dictionary*, Oxford University Press, second edition, 2006, by Andrew M. Coleman, p.153).

For a person to become competent in solving some problematic situations, she must learn in a conscious and coherent manner the informations and the procedures about a situation or a problem.

There is no cleared definition of competence that is accepted by the researchers and the practitioners of the social education. Competences are hard to identified and measured with the existing research methods or with

the evaluation tests of the socio-human sciences. In order to determine the level and the quality of the competences we measure the subject's performances, behaviors and observed answers and we give him certain capacities. After that, as Ketele shows (2000) is hard to find convergent points in the world of education regarding the approach of the competences.

After Boterf and Perrenoud (1999) regarding the notion of competence there are many aspects to clarify as it follows:

- The problem-situations are enscribed in a context of circumstances. It is necessary to have a certain level of thinking in teaching, education, profession, so that the social actors can relate and collaborate in an efficient manner.
- The centring on the competences, as Mathelart emphasised, is anchored more in a historical, social and individual context;
- It is not sufficient to have resources and to be confronted with the problem-situations, we also need the availability to learn, to be identified, combined, mobilized and put to work;
- There are important the methods, the strategies and the habitual devices used in action to be able to determine with a certain certitude what are the valid or real competences as to the prescribed competences. As well in education, as in formation, it is talked about the focus on competences, through the analysis of the situations, problematisation, simulation, project pedagogy.
- The development of the competences requires time and time management strategies, of the programs and of the conditions of formation.
- There are no two identical interpretations regarding the competences, but there are very different points of view regarding the building methods and of evaluation of the competences, each author comes with his own interpretation;
- We must work with a limited number of competences, criteria and methods, says Roegiers, so that the students learn to use them in a solid manner in their actions and goals;
- Competences must be evaluated in an integrated manner, more in a formative manner than in a sumative one, based on some precise minimal criteria, that attest true competences of approach and solving of different problem-situations.

Learning is the activity of acquiring information through a message, that modifies the state of incertitude (lack of knowledge, disorder) of the person that receives it (*The big psychology dictionary*, Larousse, Editura Trei, 2006, p. 595). In reality, when we learn, each person uses a particular cognitive style, respectively, a coherent and consistent manner between certain forms of processing the information and certain affective and social characteristics. Also, each person uses a metacognition, an ensemble of cognitive activities

through which the subject achieves a knowledge of his own knowledge instruments or manages their well functioning. Metacognition means knowing the rules that applies to the cognitive functioning, regarding the planning, the changing and the monitorization of the person's cognitive processes (*Psychology dictionary*, Oxford University Press, second edition, 2006, by Andrew M. Coleman, p.456). In his learning, knowledge, communication and problem solving activities, the subject uses the mental processes of acquisition and of information processing.

The problem is a situation for which the subject does not have a procedure, a method, a strategy and of knowledge, that allows the making of the objective that has to be reached, respecting its constraints, conditions and rules (*The big psychology dictionary*, Larousse, Editura Trei, 2006, p. 927). Problem solving is the cognitive process that is directed to the finding/ identifying the solutions of problems that are well/ poorly defined (*Psychology dictionary*, Oxford University Press, second edition, 2006, by Andrew M. Coleman, p.603).

2. Cognitive strategies of representation, interpretation and solving

The researches have emphasised that the presentation of the problem triggers in a mental plan the process of building a representation, a tranzitory construction, that is determined by the elements of the situation and of the task that has to be solved. "The representations are, in fact, the content of the operational memory, the information that is kept in the memory of the task, and the information of the long term memory that are activated" (C. Bastien, 1997, p. 42). The failure to solve or a new learning modality can lead to the chainging of the representation, and it will define a new problem-space, in other words, a new searching space for the subject.

Numerous experiments that were carried out in the field of problem-solving (Richard, 1984, Bastien, 1987, Clément, 1994, 1996; Bastien, Pélissier, Tête 1990) emphasised the role of the "points of view", of organising the knowledge into functional contexts. Also, there were emphasised in solving the "isomorphic" problems the difficulties that the subjects had to face in solvinf the transfer problems and of the transformation ones, the role of the logical and psychological operators in processing the information in the problem-situation.

Thus, the results have shown that the transformation problems are more difficult to solve than the transfer ones, the interpretation that is proposed being formulated in terms of difference of the mental function that are implied by the operators (to shift or to change). In the transfer problems the objects that have to be compared are situated on the same position, while in the transormation problems they are situated on different positions (C. Bastien, 1997). The thesis made by Clément (1994) considers that this difference between operators that corresponds, in fact, to the differences

between points of view regarding action. Either the point of view is transferred to the transformation and it takes into account the intermediary positions that are generated by action, or they are transferred to positions and it takes into account the result of the action.

The results of the research bring into discussion the distinction between the well defined problems and the poorly defined ones, the latter ones appeal to the knowledge of the long term memory. In the case of an inconsistency with the problematic situation in order to come to the right solution we must change “the point of view”, respectively the functional context.

The change of the representation allows the control of the subject's activity, by reducing the problem-space to an approachable dimension. In the analysed situations this change of representation is part of the subject's own activity that is based on the extracted information from the product of the anterior activity. Solving of a problem means the using of a strategy, respectively a planned coordination of the psychological means (knowledge, cognitive operations, actions) to attain a purpose. Any problem has an initial state, that contains known elements, and a final state that refer to the elements that have to be discovered by the subject's actions to transform the initial state in the finding out of the purpose solution. All the data of the problematic-situation and the subject's actions are possible only within the perimeter of the problem, in what in which A. Newell (1972) calls the problem-space. The problem-space is the ensemble of situations of problems that are defined in an initial state, a purpose and transformations of states (A. Newell, in *The big psychology dictionary*, Larousse, 2006, p. 1165).

In order for a problem to be solved the person has to take into account not only the constraints of the situation, but also the psychological relationship between the task and the subject's competences. In approaching a problematic situation or in confronting a problem the subject can be at two different ways of cognitive competence, respectively to have or not to have the knowledge that can apply to the situation.

In the case in which the subject has declarative knowledge (a procedure or a skill that is about to be elaborated) or he has procedural knowledge (a procedure or a skill that is already built), that applied to the situation failed, the known procedures applied to the problematic situation does not lead to a solution, to the obtaining of the correct result, respectively the solution.

In the case in which the subject does not have knowledge that can apply to the problematic situation that can allow him to decide the solving actions, it is not produced the activation of of procedures or adequate strategies, that can apply to the situation that has to be solved. The subject is determined by the situation to explore new ways of action, to change his approach manner, his representation manner and his manner of interpreting the problem in order to be able/ to succeed in finding a solution to it.

The elaboration by the subject of a representation of the problem means the building of a new interpretation of the problem-situation that allows the tracing of a research space, of searching and indentifying operations that lead to a solution. The research of a solution is defined by Newell and Simon (1972) as a shift in a searching space, represented by a graf whose knots are the conditions that the situation can take after the subject's actions. It is possible that the research space thus defined does not contain the final state, respectively the solution, and that is wht we must reanalyse some aspects of the interpretation of the problem, especially the ones that refer to the licit actions of the subject. In his tries to solve the problem the subject has to interpret the initial state, the final state of the problem and the licit actions or the correct operations that allow the transformation of the initial situation in a new structure that is close to the purpose-situation.

In the conditions in which the subject has the knowledge and procedures that are already learnt, but their application do not help in the discovery of the solution of a problem-situation, he must use or he must build new strategies, especially heuristical ones. Thus in the solving of problems of transformation into states, the subject may use the *means-end strategy*, that was mentioned by Duncker and that was popularized by Newell and Simon (1972). This strategy means the passing from the initial state to the final state of a situation, through intermediary states, by using some actions or operations that allow the transformation of the original state in a new one (for example, the problem of the Tower of Hanoi).

Another efficient procedure could be *the climbing the hill strategy* that means the selection, from the states that are immediately accesible, starting from the present state, the one that diminishes the deviation between it and the purpose. This procedure is applied in a recursive manner to the new state of the situation until the present state coincides with the purpose-state. It may happen that the repetated use lead to a deadlock when the finding of a solution necessitates the chosing of a state that increases the deviation from the resolutive purpose.

The strategies are acquired, just like knowledge, through the actions and mental learning operations, of knowledge, of processing of information, of solving of school problems, of approaching the cognitive tasks and of controlling the professional situations. That is why, to learn what and how to learn can be considered an acquisition of various strategies, general and specific, an operational activity of building of some cognitive and metacognitive competences for each human person. Some researches proved the fact that learning the strategies used in the cognitive, rezolutive activities, and especially in the metacognitive ones, represent an objective criterion of the evaluation of the efficacy of the psychical functioning and of the personal intelectual activity. So, when a conscious learning of the notions

and of the strategies takes place it is formed and developed one's own methodological competences of knowledge, processing, understanding, memorisation and using the information, of applying it to practical situations, or the correct execution of an action.

The acquired strategies are an operational component of the intellectual capacity, that explains some differences of the individual development regarding the choice of an option of the existing options, adopting an individual decision in normal conditions or in risk conditions, the assimilation and the decoding of notions, the receiving and processing of information, testing different hypothesis, and the identification of the solutions in the problem solving. The research made in the field of cognitive psychology seem to prove the rule that the cognitive processes, even if they are common through the structure of organisation of the human being, they are different through the the manner of functioning and of operation in various situations. The results of the research have shown that the interindividual differences are interpreted as a normal consequence of the processes of acquisition of knowledge and strategies, of their mechanisms of functioning in the cognitive system of every person.

Regarding the individual differences of psychical development, we must notice the concerns from the field of neuropsychology where just this differences allow the emphasis of the functions and of the dysfunctions of the cognitive system. But the statistico-mathematical methods of handling the experimental data (the analysis of the variation and its derivations) are not adapted to the study of these differences, and case studies are necessary that can lead to a "true methodology of testing the hypothesis" (C. Bastien, 1997, p.41).

3. The competence to mobilize the operations, to learn and to solve through strategies

A person's competences are not just the sum of knowledge, skills and abilities learnt that he mobilises in a given situation. Although it is based on anterior cognitive experience, on routine and on acquired knowledge, competence is the power to activate and to use in an efficient manner the resources for the solving of the situation that appeared. Competence is the force of the intellectual autonomy and the behavioural one of the person in his relationship with the problem-situations in order to solve them successfully.

It is competent the subject that can analyse the situation, to decode it, to adopt a decision that is adequate for its management. The capacity to adapt to a variety of unexpected situations that appear in school learning or in the social practice implies, in a necessary manner, the function on being autonomous in thinking and action. Being competent means that the person has the power to adapt to particular or singular cases that are unpredictable

(Perrenoud, 1999). Also, in the conditions of human interaction from the social practice competence and autonomy is needed in order to analyse, evaluate and solve in an efficient manner different problem-situations. (see Paquay, Altet, Charlier, Perrenoud, 1996).

If one truly wants to build competences then the engaging of the subjects in the process of formation and evaluation it is certainly necessary. And this is because education is always made in the meeting or the dialogue of two people with different positions, but independent, autonomous. When one wants to form and develop the competences it is indispensable to associate people and institutions that are autonomous. In order to build competences it is needed independence of thought and action, of free speech, of cooperation and reciprocal understanding. It is impossible to learn in another person's place, that the subject is always controlled by the adult, without any personal implication, or without the mobilisation of his potential with the purpose of developing the competences to high levels of performance. Even if the teachers cannot learn in the place of their students, yet they can organise and formalise the conditions that are beneficial to learning and development (Meirieu, 1996).

Competence is materialized in the person's capacity to handle with success new challenges, to act efficiently to the problem-situations, to approach and to solve them in an adequate independent manner. Being competent means being the master of a situation or a problem that occurs, being capable of training, correlating and using in an adequate manner those cognitive operations that ensures the success. The competent subject is able to process and to structure the problem's data, to anticipate the strategies or the production means in an optimal time the right solution to the given situation.

In the try to solve the problem-situation the subject uses his whole base of resources (skills, typical answers, knowledge, abilities, schemes, algorithmical models, experience). But in order to face the difficulties, the obstacles, the setbacks of the situation it is necessary to use intelligence, thinking, logical memory, creativity, practically all the capacities, structures and cognitive devices.

In order to approach and to solve problem-situations, the subject needs taught or helped to behave naturally, to adopt autonomous attitudes, to involve from his own initiative and not because his teacher forces him to. He has to think and to express himself free from internal motivations, without constraints or coercive measures in the development of personal competences. In freedom and dignity, the subject can act in a rational manner, he can communicate or create spontaneously, he can judge, bring arguments, adopt decisions and take responsibility on his actions. After Jacquard (1985) we are together co-craftsmen of a world to build and develop that we understand and we master all of a time with reciprocal trust.

Our studies, made longitudinally on samples of pupils and students (Gh. Dumitriu, 2004, p.173) emphasised the operational value in the learning activity and their significant relationship with school performance of the following competences and strategies:

- ✓ *Cognitive competences*: the capacity to understand the notions, to process the information, of systematically/ methodical analysis, of defining and explaining, of retention and applying/ of solving problems;
- ✓ *Metacognitive competences*: of anticipation, planning, organisation, monitorization, aware auto-evaluation and auto-adjustment;
- ✓ *Strategies of mobilisation and management of the resources*: motivation, voluntary effort, time management, stress, anxiety and frustration control;
- ✓ *Strategies of communication and relationship*: the capacity to work in a team, to participate in group debates, of cooperating in social activities, of solving conflicts/ problems, of personal development.

4. Psychological resources of the competences of the person that learns

There were elaborated and applied many tests to know the learning strategies used by the students, in a research conducted by Boulet, Savoie-Zajc and Chevrier (1996). The research had as a main purpose the identification of the strategies used successfully by the students (with results that are superior to the average of their group) and by the students that were unsuccessful (that had results that were below the average of the group). The inventory elaborated by the authors and applied on a representative lot of students contained 143 items that covered in an explicit manner four categories of learning strategies:

- *Cognitive strategies*: of repetition, elaboration, organisation, generalisation, discrimination and compilation of knowledge;
- *Metacognitive strategies*: of planning, control and adjustment;
- *Affective strategies*: of establishing and maintaining the motivation, the focusing of attention and controlling personal anxiety;
- *Resource management strategies*: effective time management, control and adjustment.

In the learning activity these strategies are used in a differentiated manner or even in an individualised manner by the successful students, compared with the unsuccessful one, according to specialisation, to the specific content of the study discipline, of their personal interests, on the nature of the motivation, of the capacity of self-evaluation and control.

Some authors, based on the comparison of the school results obtained by 30% of the very good students and 30% of the poor students, identified between the two groups big differences regarding the used learning strategies (Martinez-Guerrero and Sanchez-Sosa, 1993). The differences between the

two categories of students regarding the strategies and the capacities used in the learning activity manifest themselves in the manner of investing one's own resources regarding:

- The effort made for a deep and thorough learning;
- The planning of the study activities and the search for the meaning of words;
- The systematical reading of each theme until the understanding and the full mastering;
- The organisation and the integration of the concepts of the study theme;
- The persistence in reading, the writing down of the main ideas, and the taking out of the conclusions from each read text;
- The putting into relation of the new knowledge and the ones they already know;
- The emphasis of the concepts, of the key-words and their explanation with one's own words;
- The confrontation of the concepts with examples and contra-examples for the understanding of the sense of the study material.

As we can notice the effective strategies for school success are oriented towards a deep learning, profound through the implication of the cognitive factors of the person. In the same time, the motivational, affective and attitudinal factors must not be neglected, because they ensure the necessary energy of the optimal functioning of the capacities, of the strategies of the cognitive system in the learning activities.

The motivational and affective structures influence the ways we use and we develop the intellectual competences of the students that are involved in the learning activity. In principle, the dominant characteristics of the individual or his group and of the reference groups influence, in different shares and effects, the functioning of the cognitive system. We refer to processes and energetic states with orientative functions: reasons, desires, aspirations, attitudes, ideals, emotional states, personal involvement, level of reactions, auto-control, auto-monitorization, auto-evaluation, self esteem, the personal efficiency feeling.

From the numerous variables that interfere with the learning and the development of competences activity, the cognitive processes and the knowledge have an obvious impact on school and professional success. "The putting to work" of the aptitudes and of the intellectual capacities in didactical situations, necessitates a mobilisation of the students' motivation and affectivity to make a good cognitive and creative learning. With all the differences of intellectual potential and of adaptation to the educational environment to succeed in the cognitive field it is necessary to invest in an efficient and balanced manner the psychical and physical resources of the student.

In fact, not all pupils/ students with aptitudinal potential manage to obtain maximum performance, because they have different or even opposed affective attitudes regarding school learning, and they channel their energy towards other fields of activity. In order to adapt to school requirements, to have success it is needed an optimal affective attitude that allows the students to create opportunities, to capitalize on their intellectual potential in different contexts and social conditions.

Because of the different attitude in investing the cognitive, volitional and energetic resources in school learning, there is a significant breach between the intellectual potential and the personal development of the ones that study in schools, high schools, faculties. In the same time, each society and educational system has a specific ideology and culture, a set of values and dominant interests, they they impose on their members, which they control and they evaluate after a grill that has the same meaning for all.

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EDUCATIONAL-THERAPEUTIC INTERVENTION IN LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION DEVELOPMENT FOR CHILDREN WITH TRISOMY 21 (DOWN SYNDROME)

Associate Professor PhD Iolanda TOBOLCEA,
„AL.I. Cuza” University of Iași, itobolcea@yahoo.com,
Associate Professor PhD Constanța DUMITRIU,
“Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, dumitriuconstanta@yahoo.com

Abstract

This paper provides general information on the trisomic child (Down syndrome) language and personal development, the assessment and the advancements made during the educational-therapeutic interventions. The tools used for achieving this goal are defined in this paper: facilitation and net acceleration of the communication and language development in the trisomic child. The mental retardation of the trisomic child affects his/her learning ability in several domains, having a negative impact on the child's communication ability and therefore, these communication opportunities should be improved throughout the child's life. The complementarity of similitude between psychomotricity and speech therapy is finalised by a better global response of the trisomic child behaviour. Therefore, we will resort to presenting the case study of a trisomic child, synthetically highlighting the stages of intervention, the evolution during the therapy, the partial results obtained, so as to pursued the therapy in order to achieve the goals established for the complex program of educational therapy. An early educational intervention contributes to the systematisation of all the chances to achieve a faster psychological development of the trisomic child, until the level that can possibly be reached.

Keywords: *Down syndrome, trisomy 21, therapy, language, communication*

Language means and allows for a finer and a more developed communication. A child able to speak is a child who communicates at a normal level and with whom we can communicate at the same level. From here we can seize the importance that parents place on the first words and phrases the children with various disabilities utter, since communication will allow them to integrate within the community. The main message of this

paper is that language and communication in persons with trisomy 21 can be considerably improved if they are systematically developed.

In the Anglo-Saxon countries, chromosome anomaly, **trisomy 21**, was thoroughly presented in the papers of L. Down. Unfortunately, L. Down used the term “mongolism” in order to designate this anomaly, which negatively affected both the trisomic children and their families. (Cibbens, J., 2001). Approximately a hundred years later, another explanation was preferred. In 1959, the French researchers discovered that the cells of the mongoloid subject contained 47 chromosomes instead of 46. The cause was in fact the chromosome 21, present in three copies instead of two, which also gave the name *trisomy 21*. We need to emphasize the fact that the Anglo-Saxon countries use the term *Down syndrome*, while in other countries, like France for example, the term *trisomy 21* is more widely used, referring to the anomaly of the chromosome itself. *The term “trisomy 21”* is much more appropriate and we will therefore prefer it throughout this paper, since we consider that it designates more precisely the chromosome anomaly with its subsequent deficiencies.

Language characteristics in children with trisomy 21

Trisomic children present multiple difficulties and associated disorders, both in the field of oral language and in reading and writing. Usually, these children can show retardations in language acquisition and articulation difficulties that affect speech, which becomes incomprehensible, even when the sounds, taken separately are correctly pronounced. Deranged respiratory rhythm requires special exercises for achieving a correct costo-diaphragmatic breathing and a correct pronunciation of voiced sounds, for the pronunciation of which an additional vibration of the vocal strings is required. At school age, the problems are related to writing-reading acquisition. Starting with acquiring the skill to use a writing tool and learning the letters of the alphabet, the trisomic child and his/her family have to go through a long and exhausting way.

We can conclude that: trisomic children need a complex and sustainable speech therapy aiming both at the therapy of the oral language disorders, communication development and writing and reading therapy. Complex speech therapy is recommendable in acquiring, strengthening and automation of oral and lexicographical language. The parents, together with psycho-pedagogues, contribute to the process of language learning, providing the children with more opportunities for generalizing the words to new situations, and using various models for learning more and more complex words. Actually, trisomic children present a one-year retardation compared to the normal child, as far as the first words uttered (such as “mother” and “father”) are concerned. After the age of three or four, progresses concerning vocabulary acquisition can be noticed in the

development of the child suffering from trisomy 21. From that moment on, their receptive and productive luggage, that is the words that they understand and reproduce, increases constantly, but always much slower. (Tobolcea, I., 2002).

Sound pronunciation and articulation is usually way less intelligible than in normal children. The articulation difficulties are related to the consonants, especially those learned later in the ontogenetic development, that is **F, V, J, S, Ș, Z, L and R**. The difficulties are even greater when the consonants are to be found in very long words or in words that are extremely difficult to pronounce. The articulation difficulties of the trisomic children are due to some disorders forming an ensemble: the hypotony of the articulatory organs, neuromotor maturation retardation, and sometimes even an auditory deficiency, varying from mild to moderate forms.

Educational-therapeutic intervention in the child with trisomy 21

In the case of trisomic children, some specific, educational-therapeutic actions are recommended:

1. Early help and educational intervention. The help provided to trisomic children and to their families is essential, and this action must be started as early as possible in order to achieve the best results in the trisomic child recovery. The parents will be informed of the characteristics of the trisomic child physical, psychological and social development.

2. Progress evaluation. As presented above, the intervention must take place as early as possible, i.e. during the months immediately following the birth of the trisomic child. This requirement is justified by the acquisitions developed during the first year and which support communication and language development. It is necessary to carry out the intervention plan developed by specialists for the early intervention. The parents accept and cooperate in the activities proposed for the child development, and they become increasingly interested in continuing the program, and this motivation is extremely important to build the trust in their child's further development.

3. Direct involvement of parents and the other family members. In the interaction with the trisomic child, it is necessary to communicate by means of gestures, facial mimics and corporal attitudes, in order to prepare language for an adequate development.

4. Defining concrete objectives. Language means communication and interaction and therefore, it is a social phenomenon, being at the same time a cognitive phenomenon. The words symbolise things, persons, events, and from this perspective it can be said that language represents reality. Actually, if we want to sensitize the child to the verbal tags designating various states, actions, qualities, quantities and various semantic relations, we have to help him/her notice and understand these elements of reality. At

this moment only, will the child be ready to express them, and, through repetition, language will become efficient.

5. *The hierarchisation of the objectives in the linguistic education of their child.* Most of the parents are interested in these problems and they are actively involved in the development of the trisomic child. The society is responsible for training specialists and educators specialised in disability problems and in problems related to the development of the deficient children and adults. The parents and specialists have to collaborate actively in the educative intervention of children with special needs. It can be said that the recommendation is efficiently applied to the field of communication and language, due to the social nature of this activity and the normal role of the family in the development of the linguistic skills of the child.

6. *The ongoing evaluation principle and the principle of objectives substitution during therapy.* The linguistic intervention program involves an ongoing evaluation of the trisomic child evolution, and during therapy, the parents, together with specialists, are using assessment methods for the communicative and linguistic skills of the child. Evaluation is indispensable throughout the intervention. A complementary principle is the substitution of the educational objectives during therapy. Once an established objective has been reached, and when the new behaviour is stabilized, the next step is the achievement of a new objective. Educational objectives, especially linguistic, will be organised hierarchically, according to the language development process in the trisomic child (Fletcher, H. and Buckley, S., 2002). Language development in the normal child can be used as an indicator for the trajectory to be followed in the acquisition plan by the disabled child, i.e. knowing the order in which the acquisitions are to be followed in the linguistic evolution compared to the normal child.

Complementarities of the educational-therapeutic intervention program

Language and communication skills formation and development are main objectives in the intervention programs; specific therapeutic activities are used both by professionals and parents (Pueschel, S.M., 1990). The discussions with the specialist about the school requirements concerning the language level are highly recommended; the specialist enjoys a certain experience and (s)he knows the school and preschool curriculum, gives the children's parents indications and advices concerning the curriculum and the extent to which the curriculum is appropriate to the communication abilities of the child. (Giralametto, L., 2000). The parent wishes the best models and an efficient stimulation of language, based on some programs focused on completing motor tasks, using especially speech.

The following question can be asked: Will the child be disadvantaged in the program inclusion if his/her speech is not easily understood outside his/her family? Usually, the decision referring to inclusion in a school will

not be based on this aspect since many normally developed preschool children have problems with speech intelligibility and fluency between the ages of three to five. Therefore, teachers, parents and other children focus on communication and can infer what the trisomic child tries to say, successfully decoding his/her message. At this age, communication partners of the child are more patient and more willing to understand faster what the child is saying. If (s)he has the language skills required by the school environment and can obey the rules, (s)he will succeed even if his/her speech is harder to understand. (Kotlinski,J. and Kotlinski,S. 2002)

The global educational-therapeutic intervention project is constituted on a certain amount of time, which allows at a certain point to highlight a certain aspect over another. Therefore, during the sessions, the following fields will be approached:

- *physical therapy*: often recommended from an early age, and which aims at reducing the child's hypotonicity and the creation of a normal dynamics of the muscles and articulations (Stoel-Gammon,C.,2003). The physical therapy allows a better preparation of the child's organism in order to accomplish the various stages of development;

- *speech therapy*: accompanies early language and communication development. The specificity of the early interaction with trisomic persons is the basis of the need of a good development of this relational circuit. Generally, these sessions are carried out in the presence of, or with the participation of one or both parents. At the beginning, speech therapy is in charge of correcting the pronunciation, the articulation of all the sounds; by means of games and reading activities, the goal is to rise the child's interest in words, the development, organisation of representations and imagination (Stoel-Gammon,C.,2003). The therapy of pronunciation, lexis and syntax will be pursued for a longer period, in order to improve the child's expression deficiencies so that, at the end of the treatment (s)he could be understood and communicate with the members of the community within which they live;

- *psychomotricity*: an important aspect of the psychomotrician activity is the creation of the body schema, in the development of motor skills, manual coordination, fine motor development, gesture skills and precision, etc.

The creation of child oriented education-therapeutic projects, and also focused on the complementarity of the therapeutic interventions requires the collaborative development of actions, as follows: psychomotric interventions concomitantly with logopedic intervention (Mervis,C. and Becerra,A., 2003). The trisomic child follows activities focused on the psychomotric and language and communication development activities. The simultaneous activities of the two professionals are followed by a better coordination of the therapeutic practices. This allows the child's preparation for the

integration within a complex group, the possibility to learn and communicate with other people.

In order to highlight the interdisciplinary aspects within the educational-therapeutic intervention, we consider necessary the practical presentation of some therapeutic sequences simultaneously developed for the psychomotric development and the correction of sound pronunciation, verbal expression. To this end, we resort to presenting the case study of a trisomic child, synthetically highlighting the intervention methods, the evolution throughout the therapy, the partial results obtained, leaving the therapy to be continued in order to achieve the goals established within the complex program of educational therapy.

Case study

I. BIOGRAPHIC DATA

1.1. Name: A.V.

1.2. Chronologic age (V.C.): 7 years and 9 months;

1.3. Familial environment: father: A.D., 50 years old, average education, retired due to medical reasons; mother A.E., 48 years old, average education, minor companion; brothers: 3 elder healthy brothers.

Observations: there is a big age difference between A.V. and his brothers.

1.4. Social report: Good housing conditions, the family income is within the normal limits. Normal family relationships, the subject benefits from emotional support.

II. CASE HISTORY:

2.1. Evolution during the pregnancy: normal.

2.2. Birth: normal, at the end of nine months, weight: 3000 g.

2.3. Evolution during the first years: A.V. had a difficult evolution. Motor deficiencies have been reported: the child was able to sit after 10-11 months and to walk after the age of 2. He had various health problems caused by a weakened immune system. The child began to speak after the age of 3. The first years of life recorded a difficult evolution: toilsome physical development (at the age of 3 the child weighted 8 kg). The child also presents an increased sensibility of the respiratory system, frequent rhinoviruses, difficult healing, sometimes up to a month for just a cold. The child does not present cardiac problems. Following the ophthalmic exam, the child was found to be suffering from accentuated myopia, strabismus.

2.4. Medical diagnosis:

- trisomy 21 syndrome (Langdon – Down);
- moderate mental deficiency;
- defective motor coordination;
- congenital strabismus.

III. PSYCHOLOGIC EXAMINATION:

3.1. The level of development of the psychic processes

Perception: reduced

Attention: low focussing and distribution, fluctuation in attention persistency.

Memory: mostly mechanical, the child has troubles memorising, after many repetitions. Each piece of information accumulated has to be consolidated; otherwise obliviousness interferes, faster than in the case of children without deficiencies.

The level of intellectual development: reasoning still in a preoperational stage, $QI = 52$, the child is able to recognise images, can partially count, but the concept of number is not yet formed.

Psychomotricity:

- irregular general motor coordination, deficient fine motricity. Only when helped will the child manage to create simple plasticine figurines, to cut-out simple figures drawn on cardboard, to colour, etc.

- deficient body schema, the child identifies incorrectly the elements of the body schema both for himself and for other persons.

- laterality – right,

- space and time orientation –extremely reduced.

Language

Pronunciation difficulties, especially in the group of stigmatisms and rotacisms. The child's vocabulary is underdeveloped. He only uses simple sentences to communicate. His language is clumsy, grammatically incorrect. He often makes use of gestures to express his desires and interests. He is able to understand short messages, but in case of a longer message, misunderstanding and lack of interest appear, the child abandoning the activity.

Personality traits: apathetic, docile, and sometimes cooperating.

The level of psycho-social maturity: the child has some minimal skills of personal autonomy but no social autonomy skills. The child is not encouraged by the family to develop a series of actions concerning personal hygiene (tooth brushing, hand washing). His behaviour is slightly instable, does not manifest any desire to interact with other children or adults.

Significant pedagogical data

Around the age of 5, the child is attending a special kindergarten for a few months. Although he acquires new skills and information, the parents are discontented since the health state is getting worse and therefore the child stops attending the classes. At the age of 8 (September 2008) the child is enrolled in the general kindergarten in the preschool group. He integrates easily, is accepted by the other children, makes new friends, gathers information and acquires skills. All this is possible thanks to the special interest and support provided by the nursery teacher, but also due to the

child's parents. In the autumn of the year 2009, the child is enrolled in the integrator school, first grade.

3.2. Complex examination of language:

The child started the speech therapy at the age of 5, since expressive speaking was at the level of expressing 2 -3 groups of sounds, as well as 3 – 4 words of vital interest. Communication was situated at a rather mimic and gestural level, speech was incomprehensible. At that moment the vocabulary volume is more developed and although the child presents difficulties in communication, he understands familiar words with the help of a visual aid. As far as the articulator process of the sound is concerned, it can be noticed that the vowels are well pronounced, but there are errors at the consonants level: “r”, “z”, “g”, “p”, “n”, “c”, “s”. The type of communication evolved more towards verbal communication, although it still remains more deficient compared to the mimic and gestural communication. Sentence building is deficient and it is only realised mechanically, in the form of repetition when it is sustained. The grammatical structure is also deficient.

Logopedic diagnostic:

- polymorph dyslalia
- retardation in language development.

3.3. Results in the assessment:

- V.L. (language age): 4, 6 years old;
- in studying the nonverbal language, A.V. obtained 8 points, the child realising a comprehensible miming of the concrete notions of “ball”, “gets dressed”, “the child is eating”. The subject did not succeed in miming the abstract notions or the concrete phrase.

In the section “Using parts of the body” the subject indicated: movements of the face, the head, the movement of both hands and one leg. The correlation of these individual results shows that receptive and expressive language is assimilated on the concrete side, and body expressivity is pretty low, signalling motor deficiencies. In the independent speech exam, the child obtains the result 4, which shows the level of the subject's language, that is, the child does not possess yet the elements necessary to a coherent verbal expression of the coherent sentence type. At this moment, the language is realised only with permanent support.

The therapeutic intervention program

The program was realised in the form of several weekly meetings, meetings that lasted 1-2 hours, according to the child's endurance. The program focused especially on psychomotric education, development of language and communication skills, socialisation.

The objectives have been discussed with parents and their achievement was realised through collaboration.

Objectives:

- organisation of the body schema, self awareness;

- development of motion coordination in space and development of the perception capacity;
- development of laterality;
- organisation, orientation and structuring of the temporal space;
- development of the general psychomotricity and hand psychomotricity, manual and oculo-manual coordination;
- sound pronunciation correction
- accurate expression, use of simple and developed sentences
- ways of developing the vocabulary
- development of communication skills

IV. INTERVENTION AND EVOLUTION DURING THERAPY (therapeutic sequences)

Objective concerning the body schema:

- to gain awareness of his own body
- to distinguish from another person
- to build personal feeling

Observations:

The child collaborates, being interested in the new games that he is learning.

Week I

Objectives:

- to name the elements of the body schema, referring to his own body.
- to name the elements of the body schema, referring to another person or to a doll
- to identify the missing elements of the body schema, in drawings of persons with various missing elements; or, in plasticine figurines with missing elements.

Observations: At the beginning, the child shows the component parts of the body schema, both in his own body and in another person. He identifies the missing elements of the body schema.

Week II

Objectives:

- to draw his own body
- to draw another child
- to create a plasticine child, with or without a model
- to check the colours the child knows.

Observations: A very schematic drawing of the child. The subject is more interested in creating the plasticine figurine. He also likes to create all kinds of plasticine figurines (hammer, balls, apples, nuts, etc. The child identifies a few colours: red, green, yellow).

Week III

The same objectives, plus consolidation of the colours that the child already knows.

Observations: We establish some fixed marks in the room, having the colours that are familiar to the child (the blackboard is green, he has a yellow teddy bear that he loves, and his football ball is red). He enumerates, not only does he show, the elements of the body schema.

Week IV

Objectives:

- to familiarise with other colours
- to verify the known geometric shapes
- to verify and consolidate the information related to the body schema

Observations: He is very interested in the exercises related to the body schema, since he masters the information related to it. He only knows one geometric shape: the circle. It is known that his red ball is round; it has the shape of a circle. He gets familiar with the new colour very quickly and we establish a benchmark for it also: his plastic chair is blue. He manages to give examples of other blue objects outside the room.

Week V

Objectives:

- to consolidate the acquired information;
- to familiarise with various colours (white)
- to colour respecting the model colours;
- to familiarise with a new geometrical shape: the square;
- to sort the logo pieces according to the colour criterion.

Observations: As in the case for the colour blue, a benchmark is also established for white (the refrigerator is white). The starting point for the square is the tactile perception of the geometrical shape, then other objects from the room having the same shape are provided as examples, and then the following step is the graphical representation. The child encounters difficulties in this operation, we establish the characteristics for this shape and we establish that his green blackboard is square. The child masters the notions “lying”, “standing” and “oblique”.

Weeks VI-VII

Objectives:

- to continue the exercises of spatial orientation;
- to practise exercises related to laterality
- to practise exercises with the other information acquired (colours, geometrical shapes, body schema)

Observations: The child solves correctly the spatial orientation exercises, but he still encounters difficulties with the exercises related to laterality. In order to memorise more easily, we put on his left hand a watch, and he will know that the other hand is the right one, since he is using it to hold the pen. We perform several exercises with the known geometric shapes, colours and body schema.

Progresses recorded in this therapeutic stage: The child manages to identify the elements of the body schema in his own body and in other persons, to represent graphically a child. He knows ten colours. He can draw some geometrical shapes: circle, square. He is able to identify the right and left sides of a body schema, and he is able to orient fairly well as far as the directions right / left are concerned. He forms and consolidates spatial, and to a smaller extent temporal, orientation benchmarks. All these results have been obtained by undergoing the therapeutic program and it has been noticed the permanent collaboration of the parents and of the entire family.

Speech therapy in this case is based on the therapy of the oral language pronunciation difficulties. The speech therapy objectives were achieved by means of ludic activities, trying to capture and maintain the child's attention as focused as possible on the speech therapy actions.

In the first stage, we tried to create a positive and securing affective climate, for the development of the phonoarticulatory gymnastics and breathing exercises. Because of the muscular hypotonicity, accentuated at the level of the phonoarticulatory apparatus, as well as the high volume of the tonsils and the adenoid vegetations, the subject produces a weird sound during expiration. This is why we insisted quite a lot on the balance inspiration-expiration and on the pronunciation accuracy. General gymnastics exercises were performed for the articulator apparatus, in order to achieve facial mobility: exercises for eye blinking, concomitantly and then alternatively, cheeks bloating, then deflation, as well as exercises for maxillary gymnastics: closing and opening the mouth, free and then resistance driven, in order to practice lips and tongue gymnastics, suction with the lips tightly tied, rapid tongue drawing out and in. Also, there were practised exercises comprising games with various onomatopoeia in order to stimulate the phonatory act, but also auditory attention games, in order to stimulate the phonematic hearing. (Tobolcea, I.,2002).

In the second stage, specific exercises were carried out in order to utter, consolidate, differentiate and automate the problematic sounds. In front of the logopedic mirror, the establishment of the correct pronunciation of the sounds was aimed at by means of repetitions. Then, the sound was practiced by means of onomatopoeia and pronunciation of a series of opposed syllables such as: „ra-re-ri-ro-ru-rî-ră”. The following step was the consolidation of the sound in syllables, monosyllabic, disyllabic and polysyllabic words. At this stage, the exercises used involved the words transformation by sounds or syllable substitution: „ra-ma, ra-na, ra-di-e-ră, ra-ză, ra-ță, ra-pid”. The visual aids were used consistently during all the therapy stages, together with additional explanations for every unclear element. An important accent was also placed during the therapy on the differentiation of the deficiently pronounced sound at the syllable, word and

sentence level, as well as on the differentiation of the sound at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the word.

For the skills automation in the correct pronunciation, the exercises used included short image based narration, memorising short poems and songs. These exercises were easily accomplished by the subject since he enjoys melodic lines, as most trisomic children. It has been observed that music stimulates very well A.V., and therefore the therapy sessions were developed along a diffuse musical background, which had a positive effect on the child.

For vocabulary development visual aids were first of all used. Following the therapy, A.V. developed a better pronunciation, and the means of expression were diversified. Nevertheless, the subject does not master the vocabulary very good yet, this being reduced, especially at the level of notion words.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMENDATIONS; results obtained in the therapeutic stage presented

The subject enjoys a good prognostic, and can extend the scope of performance if he will continue the language rehabilitation and development therapy. The child is still in an early stage of the process formation. The intervention in the field of socialisation is also required by means of various group games, which could also contribute to language evolution. During the process of normalisation of these children, and their social, school and professional integration, an early intervention is the first step to be realised so that the recovery therapy could turn into a complete success. The early intervention comprises specific activities: social, medical, psycho-pedagogical care, developed during the first years of the life of a child with special educational needs.

The participation in early intervention programs provides the child with the opportunity of a good onset, in order to obtain maximum results both intellectually and from the point of view of adaptive functioning. Early intervention in trisomic children comprises a full range of aspects such as: parents counselling, appropriate explanation of the genetic problem, counselling in medical problems specific to trisomic children, inclusion of the children in a psycho-pedagogical program of complex intervention, such as other activities, all this being possible by the interdisciplinary collaboration of a team of professionals. The parents must be informed about the multiple recovery possibilities, about the intervention of various professionals: doctors, social workers, psycho-pedagogues, physical therapists, psychologists, etc. The psycho-pedagogical intervention programs must show continuity, even though sometimes they are developed in very remote periods, of the order of years.

The persons with special needs have existed and will exist as long as the world will exist, that is why we have to take into consideration the fact

that this situation implies a certain life standard, and therefore the need to prepare the society by adequate education and legislation, in order to accept our fellow human beings the way they are. Further developments present programs that will guide and help the trisomic persons develop their identity and live their life as independently as possible. Such optimistic views concerning the future are justified only if we keep the present successes and continue to improve the positive results obtained by the complex educational therapies.

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SOCIALIZATION AND SCHOOL DEFLECTION. THEORETICAL PREMISES AND PRACTICAL APPROACHES

Associate Professor PhD Constanța DUMITRIU,
“Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, dumitriuconstanta@yahoo.com,
Schoolteacher Gabriela HORODINCU (MELINCIANU),
“Georgeta Mircea Cancicov” School Bacău, melincianugabriela@yahoo.com

Abstract

The main aim of this research represented the making evident of the conditions that generate and favor deflective behavior, the identification of internal and external factors that generate deviation, both as a group phenomenon and specific manifestation of individual conduct, as well as the overall evaluation of the efficiency of prevention activities for this social phenomenon.

On the grounds of our approach there lies the conviction that in most cases, the manifestations of deflective conduct are based on minor misbehavior, unobserved in time, tolerated, free to shape students' personality and this way turn into solid behavioral schemes. Viewed as a phenomenon of infringement of any norm, deflection can lead teenagers towards different paths: nonconformism, social maladjustment with psycho-pathological substratum.

Our methodological approaches have been centered upon the underlying of the main features of school deflection, on the identification of the factors and basic mechanisms which generate and favor deflective behavior among the minor, on the evaluation of prevention activities achieved in school. At the same time, the analysis and evaluation of the socialization process efficacy has made it easier to adopt some measures and proposals regarding the increase of prevention activities and efficiency of minors' resocialization process.

Key words: *deflective conduct, social maladjustment, prevention activities, socialization*

INTRODUCTION

Considered by many an integrant part of the disruptive behavior and personality area, the phenomenon of school deflection implies a series of complex problems which cannot be rendered evident or solved by means of a single branch of knowledge. For this matter, more and more, this issue tends to become a priority in what psychological, pedagogical and sociological

research are concerned. It is imposed by the necessity of improving the measures on an educational level, meant to prevent and diminish the antisocial behavior among minors as well as the necessity of identifying solutions which help avoid distortions and conflicts during the process of moral and juridical socialization of the young generation.

The concept of socialization knows various definitions: a) it is a stage and long-lasting process that is realized during the entire life of an individual as a part of formal and informal groups that he comes into contact with or that he is a part of; b) it is a process of “*formative-educative influence which the different social groups and society, in general, exert upon the individual and his personality*” (Banciu, D.,1981,p.87).

Most authors consider **socialization** the main process through which individuals assume the norms, the values and the rules of specific behavior of a certain social group that they are a part of, or a process of internalization of the cultural and ethical-normative model in the conscience and conduct of every member belonging to a society. Socialization is at the same time the result of the interaction of some factors, or formal or informal socialization agents, fact which leads to the adjustment of individuals’ conduct by complying to society and group’s values and norms.

Compliance to social norms is realized by means of four factors:

- the pressure of the social group exerted upon the individual in order to determine him to conform to the process of social influence;
- the process of internalization of the norms;
- the fact that, quite frequently, the individual is not fully ‘aware’ of the possibility of choosing alternative manners of conduct;
- the knowledge of the fact that breaking the norms draws upon itself vindicatory sanctions.

Internalizing the norms and the values of a social group implies the step-by-step converting of social control into self-control and the change of conduct from a normative form (regulated by external factors) to an inner motivated normal form, thus “the individual becomes conscious, through the agency of the different codes which he is destined to decode, of the various principles that take action in society” (Barbulescu, E.,1987, p.81).

The process of socialization teaches the individual how to understand culture and its ways of thinking and acting, and <patterns his current behavior in agreement with the standards of the group that he belongs to>. Viewed from this perspective, socialization lays the stress on ‘conformity’, on the ‘learning’ of this compliance by the individuals coming from a certain society or a certain social group.

Socialization is a dynamic process in which both the individual and the environment change. During this process, the individuals assimilates a whole range of knowledge, attitudes, skills and moral rules necessary for social

survival, developing their thinking, imagination and creativity. Some authors consider that individuals change their values, attitudes, behavior as they take upon themselves new roles and gain new experiences. At the same time, other authors regard socialization as a process of 'maturation', of progressive development which grants the identification with the other members of the society he belongs to, the power of judgment towards the received messages and the ability of individualization, meaning the rise of the individual as a unique person capable to discern the significance of his existence and his actions inside the social environment.

The majority of the studies emphasize the idea that an individual is socialized when he learns to behave himself in agreement with the ways of thinking and feeling, specific to the society or group he belongs to and when he takes upon himself conducts consistent with the requirements of the social roles which he must perform during his whole life: delinquency is considered to be a consequence of unachievement or faulty realization of individual socialization. Therefore, the process of socialization implies progressive compliance with society's normative and cultural models, but at the same time the correlation and coordination of socialization agents' efforts in agreement with the current social needs.

An individual is regarded as being unsocialized or deflective when he refuses or goes astray from the norms and values unanimously acknowledged. Hence deflection is either the indirect resultant of partial or imperfect socialization of the individual, of the failure of this process, or the result of a negative socialization which implies the digression from the acknowledged social norms and the conformity to the values and norms of a marginal deflective group. The issue of pointing out the causes that generate antisocial behavior continues to arouse specialists' interest, without having yet reached a consensus between the different points of view going about.

Some researchers consider **psychology factors** as important as the **social** ones. Consequently, during the evaluation of the various ways of conduct, one must take into account the factor of **aggressiveness** or the **frustration** one, behavioral and emotional instability as well as the impulsiveness and self-centeredness characteristic for this age, factors which strongly influence socialization and belonging to a society. That is why the discrepancy between physical and psychic maturation, hostility and even aggressiveness towards the former generation, the violent reactions to the feeling of uncertainty, psychic anomalies, hereditary tares.

Unlike psychologists who stress the psychic features of preadolescence, sociologists give credit to socio-cultural elements and to the conditions of social life in general. Thus deflection is not considered a personality disorder or incapacity of the young to adapt to the environment they live in, but a consequence of social structure dysfunctions of existing conflicts in the social system. This way emphasis is on the existing tension

between deflection and conformity, change and social stability, conflict and cooperation, hence representing a form of protest against inequalities and social barriers.

Deflection carries along with it a whole range of conditionings and causal determinations and the solution to the problems that the children are confronting with implies knowledge, evaluation, explanation and diminution of the causes and conditions that generate or favor antisocial ways of conduct among them out of regard for the complexity of the factors belonging to the:

- macrosocial level, which emphasize the changes and the major processes that can influence deflection(the increase of urban agglomeration, massive mass movements, economic difficulty, inflation, the increase of indulgence and social tolerance, traditional customs, morals and manners' decline);
- microsocial level, in order to identify the functions and dysfunctions occurred in instances' activity bearing a socialization role and a social one (family, school, group of friends).

Thus in many families dysfunctions occur through diminishing the educative role of the family group, lack of parental control, disorganization and instability inside the family, evanescence of the family group. School faces multiple problems of moral education of students and adolescents, proliferating school abandonment, indiscipline and mediocrity with an increasing number of problematical students. Nowadays we are witnessing the growth and diversity of street packs, even the development of some subcultures and social environments that favor deflection through the phenomenon of negative induction and socialization. At individual level, that emphasizes the structure of the preadolescent's personality who exerts disruptive behavior as well as the premature outburst of egocentrism, impulsiveness, aggressiveness (Radulescu, S.M., 1990, 89).

METHODS AND RESOURCES

Objectives and work hypothesis:

Objectives of cognition:

- realizing a classification of typical conduct for disruptive behavior;
- identifying behavioral risk factors of underage students.

Objectives of prevention:

- making students aware of the risks that deflective conduct entails;
- supporting students during the process of achieving an upright social behavior, secure from the point of view of maturation and gaining social autonomy;
- render parents sensitive with regard to deflection risks;

- turning the educative potential of the class, family and other instructive factors regarding prevention of deflective behavior to good account.

Objectives concerning therapy:

- keeping an eye on behavioral issues as far as the class and the individual are concerned;
- becoming familiar with some individual and group counseling techniques in the treatment of the main outbursts of school deflection for the school and the socio-moral recovery of students.

Work hypothesis:

Developing an educative structured project bearing a high degree of educational coherence and interaction achieved by means of various educative factors (teaching staff, form masters, parents) can, in short and middle term, result in reducing deflection risks and the recovery of students exhibiting behavioral problems.

The target group of the project was formed of pupils subject to the risk of school abandonment. Various cases of study have been carried out on this basis. In addition, the social phenomenon has been closely followed for three running years: 2006-2007, 2007-2008, and 2008-2009.

The aim of this educative project was to put into practice some strategies and realize various activities meant to diminish school absenteeism and implicitly to prevent it.

METHODOLOGICAL STRATEGIES

The analysis of such a social phenomenon like school deflection can be realized through complex methodologies meant to establish on the one hand the framework of the research, (the real dimension of the child/s life situation), and on the other hand the necessary tools (methods, patterns, curriculum etc.). Methods which allow longitudinal study of the phenomenon in progress (social biography, case of study, social background) as well as observation, interview, talk, social investigation, have been used to answer the purpose.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

With the help of these methods and techniques we have gathered and analyzed statistical data taken from a school institution subject to describing and understanding the state of affairs and dynamics of gymnasium education between 2006-2009.

Table 1. *The dynamics of school population*

Level	Year		
	2006 - 2007	2007 - 2008	2008 - 2009
Elementary education	180	141	138
Gymnasium education	205	175	177

Table 2. *The total number of 8th grade graduates*

Year	2006 - 2007	2007 - 2008	2008 - 2009
The total number of 8 th grade graduates	68	38	39
The total number of pupils registered in a form of education	59	38	-in the course of finishing....
The total number of students unenrolled in school (highschool or vocational school)	9	-	- in the course of finishing....

Table 3. *Resuming studies*

Form of education	2006 - 2007	2007 - 2008	2008 - 2009
Highschool	40	35	-in the course of finishing....
Vocational school	19	3	-in the course of finishing....
No further resuming of studies	9	-	-in the course of finishing....

Table 4. *The dynamics of school absenteeism*

Form of education	2006 - 2007	2007 - 2008	2008 - 2009
Elementary	3	3	2
Gymnasium	5	2	3

The sociological analysis of the data in view points out the fact that the number of school population from elementary and gymnasium education is decreasing. As far as the sociological investigation of school deflection forms is concerned, the obtained information emphasize the dynamics of the phenomenon of deflection exerted by the level of population belonging to the previously mentioned school in Bacau.

Deflective forms of conduct	2006-2007	2007-2008	2009 (partially)
Abandoned minors	1	-	3
Home flight	3	2	3

School flight	5	6	5
Vagrancy	3	2	3
Theft	2	2	2
Robbery	3	2	3
Begging	2	1	2
Violence/aggression	15	20	15
Absenteeism	8	5	5

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions of this practical survey can be summarized as following:

- the highest frequency of deflective conduct is registered by: indiscipline, falsehood, sloth, verbal and physical violence, school and home flight, theft, school abandonment;
- most minors are marked by emotional and moral unstableness and strong socialization deficiencies;
- these initially materialize through a tendency towards vagrancy, a seek for negative entourage, alcohol and cigarette consumption, then through violent acts identified by competent authorities;
- low school performances, absenteeism and school flight, spending nights outside family and stealing from it and from classmates, most certainly indicate that this negative conduct represents an ensemble of factors which family, school and other institutions playing a socialization and social control role are equally responsible for;
- the average age characterizing the majority of minors subject to investigation is 7-14 years, fact coinciding with a relative shaping of personality and showing and exhibiting constant tendencies of conduct;
- the diminution of the educative function is mostly evidenced in the 'breaking' of the parental couple, in reduction of the degree of cohesion among family members, in the growing tensions and conflicts inside the family;
- family risk factors are the most present and intense ones in causal mechanism of deflective conduct among which the highest in degree and intensity are the following: disorganization of the family group, moral and emotional depreciation of the conjugal climate and affective relations between parents and children, parental control insufficiencies, underrating of the child's group of friends, educative style deficiency;
- the presence of some school educative dysfunctions, materialized in the insufficient knowledge of social and family environments that

these problematic children live and grow up in, lack of control of the latter and their entourage.

Being the representative of one of the most important educative factors in collective and individual therapy of deviant minors, the social assistant and the guidance counselor contribute to a great extent to fulfilling all duties bearing a socializing role, that of assisting the minor through all the stages of the recovery process.

As it results from the survey we made during our practical research, social maintenance activity is laborious and slow; the low number of social assistants makes it almost impossible to tackle with the problem of efficiency in granting social maintenance and social services to minors exhibiting school deflection. The same reasons cut to the minimum the number of prevention acts of this type of conduct.

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PRESENT LEARNING STYLES

Iulia Cristina TIMOFTI,

Physiotherapy and Occupational Therapy Department,
“Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, iuliadumitriu@hotmail.com

Abstract

Students like to learn in different ways: some like to study alone, others – next to their colleagues, and some prefer to sit and observe the others. This study is focused on identifying the learning styles among students, such as auditory, visual or practical styles. Does the faculty specialty influences the youngsters learning styles? The paper will try to answer this question and it will also present possible strategies for improving the students learning styles. This intervention is more than important since pupils and students motivation has decreased over time.

Keywords: *learning styles, students, strategies of development*

Learning styles are various ways of learning. They involve educating methods which are presumed to allow a person to learn at the best. It is commonly believed that most people favor some particular method of interacting with, taking in, and processing stimuli. Based on this concept, the idea of individualized "learning styles" originated in the 1970s, and has gained popularity in recent years. It has been proposed that teachers should assess the learning styles of their students and adapt their classroom methods to best fit each student's learning style. One of the most common and widely-used categorizations of the various types of learning styles is Fleming's VARK model which expanded upon earlier NLP models. VARK is a questionnaire that provides users with a profile of their learning preferences. These preferences are about the ways that they want to take-in and give-out information. It includes visual learners, auditory learners and kinesthetic learners. Fleming claimed that visual learners have a preference for seeing (think in pictures; visual aids such as overhead slides, diagrams, handouts, etc.). Auditory learners best learn through listening (lectures, discussions, tapes, etc.). Tactile/kinesthetic learners prefer to learn via experience - moving, touching, and doing (active exploration of the world; science projects; experiments, etc.). Its use in pedagogy allows teachers to prepare classes that address each of these areas. Students can also use the model to

identify their learning style and maximize their educational experience by focusing on what benefits them the most. Studies have shown that most of the people are visual learners, then auditory and on the last place we find the tactile/kinesthetic learners.

Metacognition is defined as the knowledge and control one has over one's thinking and learning activities. Metacognition, as a "learning to learn" technique, has to habilitate the students with the important skills and capacities. To become able to practice autonomous quality learning, the students have to benefit by a continuous feedback from the teacher, beginning from a systematic knowledge of the learning styles and adapting the didactic strategies. Individual styles reflect a particular mode of expression, behavior and performance of an activity, whether it is learning or training. The students learn differently yet most of the teachers choose to ignore or to deny this fact. Even if teachers notice that some of their students are hostile or indifferent, only few teachers try to adjust their teaching methods.

Present research

This paper intends to study the impact of the students learning styles to the quality of the higher education, which requires the necessity of organizing a stimulating learning environment where the students participate to the process of their own education (metacognition).

Instruments

I used two scales regarding the learning styles and I also interviewed students about the steps they take during learning and about internal or external conditions of learning. As mentioned before, I used two scales of learning styles, in order to identify how students from different faculties learn: one scale has 39 questions and the answers characterize three learning styles (visual, auditory and practical); the other scale is inspired after R. Linksman (1999) and its 17 questions have 4 possible answers, each corresponding to these learning styles: visual, auditory, tactile and kinesthetic. In the results interpretation, I considered the tactile and the kinesthetic styles equal to the practical one.

Participants

The research was undertaken during the first semester of the academic year 2009-2010. The sample consists of 186 students from the first year of study from faculties as: Mathematics (5), Informatics (3), Letters (27), Biology (21), Engineering (53), Physiotherapy (15), Sports (38), Economic Sciences (7) and Ecology (17). There is no equal number between faculties because we considered only the students enrolled in the Teachers Training Department.

Results and interpretation

As noticed in the tables below, on the first scale the auditory style is ranked as the first one, the visual – as the second and the practical style as the third, while on the second scale the auditory style changes position with the visual one. This fact is not that significant for the present research since the study is interested mostly in the differences between faculties.

Table no. 1. *Hierarchy of the learning styles for the first scale*

	Visual	Auditory	Practical
Mathematics	2	1	3
Informatics	1	1	2
Letters	2	1	3
Biology	2	1	3
Engineering	3	1	2
Physiotherapy	2	1	3
Sports	1	2	3
Economic Sciences	2	1	3
Ecology	2	1	3

Table no. 2. *Hierarchy of the learning styles for the second scale*

	Visual	Auditory	Tactile	Kinesthetic
Mathematics	1	2	3	3
Informatics	3	4	2	1
Letters	1	2	3	3
Biology	2	4	3	1
Engineering	2	3	4	1
Physiotherapy	1	4	3	2
Sports	2	3	4	1
Economic Sciences	1	2	3	3
Ecology	1	2	3	4

As numbers show, there is no real correspondence between the results for the two instruments and this might be caused by the lack of honesty among the participants since the two scales are validated. The tables show that the auditory and visual styles are most likely preferred by students and the two specific styles can change places, depending on the learning context and requirements. Since there are no real correspondences between the two types of results, I can't conclude that the faculty specialty influences the students learning style. If the scales will be applied again in their third year of study, it is possible to be noticed several changes. Nevertheless, there is correspondence between the two scales when it comes to the practical style of learning. Most of the youngsters prefer dynamic activities instead of

studying in a library or at home. They are interested in fast ways of stocking information and this fact can be observed during classes as well. The chaotic hierarchy may also be the result of the random admission for freshers. The faculty and a specialty represent no longer the youngsters choices as they should be. It is a gambling action, the future students having the possibility to apply, at the same time, for more than one faculty. May the dice roll! This fact should make all of us wonder about their self-evaluation of strengths and weaknesses. The process of self-evaluation begins during the pre-university education or at least at that time it should begin. Teachers from highschool and the school's psychologist have this important task to lead the teens towards a realistic understanding and awareness of their qualities and faults, of their abilities and competences. After this significant step, the future students can make a choice regarding the domain they want to follow. But this study is focused on students from the first year and so it intends to present several strategies that teachers may use in order to identify and to develop youngsters learning style.

Strategies of developing the learning styles for students

Of course, the learning style is a complex of human characteristics inter-correlated and stabilized in time, a model that combines internal and external operations resulting from behavior, personality, attention, cognitive abilities and the list can go on. The metacognition competences represent those cognitive capacities that are superior developed, which help students identify the cognitive instruments used in solving different tasks of learning and evaluate their functionality in an objective way. The results of this study prove that students have underdeveloped metacognitive competences. Because it includes “the knowledge that the subject has about the function of his own cognitive system and could optimize its function” (Miclea, 1999, 323), the metacognition could represent the way of an efficient learning for students.

Various researchers have attempted to provide ways in which learning style theory can take effect in the classroom. The external conditions (such as sound, light, temperature) and the internal factors (motivation, persistence, responsibility) are essential, as it resulted from interviewing the participants too. Although learning styles will inevitably differ among students in the classroom, teachers should try to make changes in their classroom that will be beneficial to every learning style. Some of these changes include the development of small-group techniques in which students sit in a circle and discuss a subject collaboratively as well as other techniques such as team learning and brainstorming. Teachers should always keep in mind that they can be learners as well and this feedback should be appealing to them. As for specific strategies that teachers may use during classes, here are some recommendations from specialists. Methods for visual

learners include ensuring that students can see words written down, using pictures when describing things, drawing time lines for events in history, writing assignments on the board, using overhead transparencies, and writing down instructions. Methods for auditory learners include repeating difficult words and concepts aloud, incorporating small-group discussion, organizing debates, listening to books on tape, writing oral reports, and encouraging oral interpretation. Methods for tactile/kinesthetic learners include providing hands-on activities (experiments, etc.), assigning projects, having frequent breaks to allow movement, using visual aids and objects in the lesson, using role play, and having field trips. By using a variety of teaching methods from each of these categories, teachers are able to accommodate different learning styles. They are also able to challenge students to learn in different ways.

Metacognition, as a „learning to learn” technique, has to habilitate the students with the important skills and capacities. To become able to practice autonomous quality learning, the students have to benefit by a continuous feedback from the teacher, beginning from a systematic knowledge of the learning styles and adapting the didactic strategies. The teaching must be structured in a manner that allows students to be active, to develop and express opinions and ideas, to confront them and debate them with others, to compare their learning styles and to learn from each other. By using some didactical interactive-participating and metacognitive strategies, the student is placed in the centre of the instructive process, stimulating him to participate effectively in the development of theoretical and applicative activities. This way, their independence and creative potential are discovered and developed.

The teacher’s perception about the students has to register a major transformation - the image of the student as a passive receiver of information must be replaced with the image of an active student, motivated to practice an authentic learning. And so, the accent must be placed on the way that the assimilated information are processes, structured and used in different situations, the way that the knowledge and the metacognitive strategies can be used by the students in practicing an efficient learning. I am certain that by reducing the existent discrepancy between the learning styles practiced by today’s students and the didactical strategies used by some teachers contribute to the improvement of the learning process.

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PSICHO-SOCIAL APPROACHES OF THE JUVENILE DELINQUENCY CONCEPT

Psychologist Roberta TORON,
Individual Cabinet of Psychology, toronroberta@yahoo.com

Abstract

In our society, the actions a man undertakes play a decisive role in the process of turning probability in reality. The individual reacts consciously, after having processed the information according to his needs and chooses the one that meet his expectations. He has the freedom of choice according to the factual conditions. As decision comes within a social life governed by generally accepted values, the responsibility which comes with it underlines the relation between social necessity and liberty of choice, which is the very base of the concept of responsibility. There are people who possess a great deal of inborn common sense, but we can say that, for most of the people, being able to understand and obey to the civic rules is a feature that is learnt on the way, by peer or self education.

*The absence of adequate criteria generates a series of ambiguities in the definition of juvenile crime. It involves a series of social behaviors and social conditions that are not always connected but which have one thing in common - the use of criminal law. From all the forms of out-of-law behavior, the crime holds the highest degree of dangerousness, because it affects the social values and relations and it breaks the moral rules according to which one's behavior can be classified. The word delinquency comes from the Latin word *delinquency*, which means "to be guilty of something, to make a mistake". The etiology of delinquency is a result of the failure to integrate in the society.*

Key words: *juvenile delinquency, social control*

Characteristics of delinquency

Among the causes of juvenile crime a child is exposed to in his familiar or social environment we can mention the lack of money, one-parent families, the presence of criminal groups in the neighborhood.

From this point of view, delinquency may be regarded both as a juridical and social phenomenon (it implies causes of social nature and require that measures of penalty be taken). From a juridical point of view, delinquency defines the breaking of social rules that govern any form of life in a group. Thereby, this juridical perspective is not able to tell the difference

between the behavior of young delinquents and adult out-laws, because it does not offer the possibility to identify the cause of such behavior, it just states criteria which tell the difference between an illicit and a normal social behavior. This is why the term *juvenile delinquency* is frequently mistaken for *crime*, and this is the reason why some terms, such as crime, offence, deviation are wrongly and ambiguously used. Crime is defined as the sum of anti-social behaviors which break the rules of the juridical law and is followed by the intervention of the correctional measures taken by the state (Zamfir, C., Vlăsceanu, L., 1993, p. 144).

Generally used to describe the inadequate behavior of people under eighteen years of age, the term delinquency is applied to different forms of behavior and categories of adolescents, such as those who break the law, those who are abandoned by their parents and thereby integrate in a potentially criminal groups, those who have run away from home or school as a result of too hard punishments, those who need protection for different reasons (Banciu, D., Rădulescu, S., 1990, p. 58).

Juvenile delinquency refers to a sum of actions and felonies covering a wide range, from mediocre school results, indiscipline, to more serious deviations, such as vagrancy, physical aggressions and abandonment of home.

The term "juvenile delinquency" can be applied to any kind of behavior of an adolescent that is not approved by grown-ups. Besides the felonies that are equivalent to those committed by adults (such as robbery, man-slaughter, prostitution), in many countries, the laws regarding the under-eighteen offenders contain the kinds of felonies that "young people in moral danger", or "young people who do not obey to parental authority" can be charged of. In order to classify an adolescent as an offender, we have to take in consideration the possible felony as a result of his behavior. If the felony does not occur as a result of his actions, we have a case of a possible juvenile delinquency, and the measures which are imposed consist in surveillance of the young person at home, or in an institution. Thus, the adolescent is punished for the failure to educate and prevent of an adult.

Because it is impossible to identify operational criteria in order to classify all their elements in a unique etiological discussion, the term of juvenile delinquency is ambiguous and it functions according to the juridical values, more precisely, according to the harmful results of anti-social behavior that is punished by the law.

The criminal record of an adolescent is not similar to that of a grown-up because, in the case of the first, we can associate the felony to the mistakes made by his tutors in the education of the young person. Despite of this, the laws which is applied to young offenders follow the same criteria as the laws by which adult felons are judged, even if the role is not to punish, but to re-educate and to protect the adolescent.

Some foreign authors consider that the term of juvenile crime and the notion it names are relatively new. This is because the notion has not been used until the XIX century, and it is not until the XX century that special child law courts have been established.

We can distinguish between three different periods of the life of a young person:

- babyhood;
- childhood;
- adolescence (the periods between the end of puberty and the beginning of adulthood)

Thereby, a person who is under-age should be considered guilty rather than criminal.

Those who have covered the study of juvenile delinquency have drawn a psychological profile of the adolescent, just like in the case of adult criminals (Neveanu, Popescu-Paul, 1978, p. 180).

Therefore, we can say that an under-aged offender has:

- an inclination towards aggressiveness (passive, or active) which is a result of the negation of commonly accepted social values;
- an emotional instability generated by lacks in his education;
- a social inadaptation, which comes as the inhibition of the feeling of being unsecured, and which the adolescent tries to compensate by running away from home, or by avoiding the organized and generally accepted ways of life;
- a dual behavior (a hidden one, where the crime is generated, and a public one, when interaction with society occurs, and when the crime is usually discovered);
- an existential lack of poise, which is translated through vices, perversions, irrational spending of money.

The young offender is an individual who seems to have an extra-amount of negative life experiences and who feels like living in a threatening environment. As he does not have a social status to defend, there is no fear of losing it, and thus, no motivation to obey to social rules.

Delinquency and social control

Social control can be defined as the sum of the actions that members of a community take in order to obey to the set of rules they have established. The making of this notion is part of the making of sociology as a science. From its very beginnings, sociology has settled a goal, that is to give an answer to the wuestion that Thomas Hobbs has asked in the early XVII century: "How can someone impose a rational social order, since people, selfish by nature, will be tempted to act irrationally and only according to their instincts and personal interests"?

Many have answered these questions (philosophers, historians, psychologists, sociologists) and the answers may be divided into two categories:

- those who have emphasized the importance of normality (state institutions and laws to maintain social order) by the notion of exterior social control;
- those who have emphasized the importance of social values for individuals who are capable of submitting to social rules by the notion of interior social control.

Apart from this, the notion of social control implies the sum of laws and institutions (social, cultural, juridical, political) through which any society imposes upon its members the rules of moral and social order. Among these laws and institutions we can mention the juridical law, the culture, traditions and customs of the society, the intervention of the public opinion and any kind of formal and informal, spontaneous or organized influence which imposes, through conviction and manipulation that moral and social rules be followed.

In traditional communities where people were asked to act similarly and where there were no differences in social roles or functions, the moral rules, as a mechanism of social control, had the following characteristics:

- homogeneity - the ability to rule and guide the actions of all its members;
- implicit legitimacy - the ability to follow the moral demands of the society by the "sacred" role of the religious authority;
- informal character - the ability to function following informal penalties covering a wide range, from warning to violent punishments;
- lack of specialization and intervention of a third party. This consists in the absence of a general impersonal will and social control agents who are not personally involved; here, the sanctions were given by the elder or by the chief of the family or the community.

As opposed to traditional societies, modern societies imply a growth of heterogeneity, a specialization of social control and division of its members. The characteristics of such societies are:

- the appearance of many moral systems proper to different social groups;
- the change, from relations between individuals to relations based on contracts supervised by a third party;
- the appearance of law as a form of legitimate social control. It is based on general impersonal will of the community which is beyond the personal will of the individual;
- the independence of the juridical law system;

- the appearance of specialized agents and agencies to apply the legal decisions.

In modern society, which is characterized by organic solidarity (Bădescu, I., 1994, p. 227), social control emphasizes the role of the institutions of state, thus the importance that is being given to the correctional or repressive aspects of the juridical system. From a normative point of view, social control is defined as the sum of the actions whose aim is to define deviation and to stimulate peer reactions in preventing and stopping it.

Yet, the definitions of delinquency do not imply normative concord. The small delinquent groups reject, partially or on the whole, the values of the bigger social group and built their own models of social conduct. Thus, different forms of social control use different ways to interact with the social life, covering a wide range, from spontaneous to organized, from informal to official. All social relation is based on moral laws which define the roles of the parties. Different types of social control are built within social relations and are equivalent to the social context in which they operate.

Thus, family, school, social environment, work mates and other organizations constitute forms of social control whose aim is to watch over the human relations and see that they are adequate.

Social control is a form of influence which is translated in human relations. A deviant behavior of one member cannot be repeated at end. It will eventually turn into tolerance or the ending of human relations. It is also true that tolerance is one cause of deviance. The individual who is out of the reach of social control easily loses his sense and turns to delinquency.

Yet, the reactions of the social group towards deviance can cause a centripatal movement and draw the individual on the right side of things. It can also cause a centrifugal movement and push the individual away from the legal side of society. The representatives of the theory of "social reaction" (H. Becker, K. Erikson, F. Tannenbaum) consider that delinquency is more of an effect of the social reaction to exclude the individual than a characteristic of the individual himself (Banciu, D., Rădulescu, S., Voicu, M., 1987, p. 145).

The researches on juvenile delinquency show that the parents of young delinquents show a tendency towards indulgence, they are mild and passive and do not posses a constant behavior towards their child, they over-react and beat the children. Tolerance is another reaction towards deviance. Thus, the act of delinquency itself stops being considered as such, since the limits and directions that the community have established allow it. But, contrary to some belief, tolerance does not imply the end of a misbehavior.

Stigmatization is the third reaction to deviance. This implies the reactions of the members of the community towards a delinquent. They posses information on the individual and are able to identify him as an

outlaw. Goffman (1975, p. 21) says that there are two kinds of social stigmatization - one, when the community helps the deviant when he is in need, and the other, when the delinquent is exiled, that is, he is no longer admitted in the social group. A stigmatized delinquent will eventually find solutions to fight rejection by the social group. Lermet identified the "secondary deviant" and he uses the term to name the person who has to adapt to being stigmatized. For example, if one is unemployed, he may experience the need to steal in order to satisfy his needs. If he finds it hard to face hostility and contempt from the rest of the community, he may be pushed towards fellows like himself.

The risks that the stigmatized individual turns definitely towards delinquency are very high, and there are three reasons for this:

- he is over exposed to anti-social individuals;
- if he convinces himself that he is what the group says he is, his self-esteem will be very low and that leaves him uncovered in front of temptation;
- being excluded from the group, he will no longer face the influence and fear its reproaches.

In other words, deviance and exclusion cannot be parted: a deviant behavior pushes the individual towards the edge of the group, where he is no longer confronted with rules. Different rules and cultural customs rarely imply rigid demands. When deviance strongly affects a community and interferes with its rules of social order the social definitions of normality have a unitary character.

This is why there are still a series of deviant acts that remain undetected by the institution of social control. This type of acts have been named by sociologists "real delinquency", meaning the sum of outlaw acts that go undetected and thus unpunished. Therefore we can say that the social control itself causes deviance by stigmatization and exclusion of the group. Deviance is a concept whose relativity varies in the perimeter of historical and cultural models of the society and groups. What is deviant for a society may appear moral to another. What is normal for a particular period in history may seem deviant for the following period.

Due to the relativity of things, the sociologists who study this phenomenon consider delinquency a multitude of meanings rather than a strict reality. One can understand the meanings only if he identifies with the deviant. In order to understand the phenomenon of delinquency, one must take into consideration the existential issues of young people at risk. Many of the people who have acted anti-socially possess the ability to return to a normally accepted social behavior. There is still a number of young people who end up being wrecks, and this started from vagrancy. The limits between anti-social acts (vagrancy, beggary), grave felonies (theft) and extremely dangerous felonies (robbery, rape, murder) are very fragile.

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MENTAL PROCESSING OF THE INFORMATION FROM MESSAGES AND PROBLEM-SITUATIONS

Professor Ph. D. Gheorghe DUMITRIU,
Teachers Training Department, “Vasile Alecsandri” University of
Bacău, Romania, dumitriu@ub.ro

Abstract

The study highlights the structures and mental operations that are involved in the resolvent process, as well as the differences revealed by the research in this field regarding the manner of analysis and of organisation that differ from competent persons to the novice ones.

In the processing of the assimilated information there are put into function by the subject, in succession, cognitive operations of thinking, memory, representation, that generate certain affective states, positive or negative emotional attitudes. In studying the architecture and the functioning of the human cognitive system we must start from the hypothesis that says that learning through training (in the educational process) means the transformation of the rational organisation of the knowledge that have to be learnt in a functional organisation, a transformation that is made through problem solving. Through rational organisation we understand the accessibility of the knowledge that will be passed on to the students, based on the compliance of the principles, the exigencies, psychological criteria and pedagogical norms.

Keywords: *information processing, psychological matrix, metacognition, formation profile*

1. Mental structures and operations that are involved in the resolutive process

The research made in the last two decades gives us the possibility to explain and to understand the human behaviour through the mental structures, especially cognitive ones, that instruments the relationships between stimuli and answers. With the help of the cognitive structure the subject choses, receives, analyses, decodes, evaluates, interprets information and decides on the way he responds to it. It is considered that the mental structure includes cognitive-informational elements, instrumental-operational ones, motivational- affective, characterial – valorical that function in an intrinsical or typological manner.

The experimental research prove that there are no unequivocal, linear relationships between the nature of the situation, the event, the problem, and the nature of the person's behaviour, his way to react. The way to react of each person is more individualised according to the structure and the dynamic of his individuality than to the characteristics of the situations. Thus, in aware learning and problem solving, competent people (for example, teachers) analyse and organise the information into significant configurational units for a category of problems, while the students proceed in a sequential manner, part by part, segment by segment.

In general, pupils, students that are motivated for a deep learning have the feeling that they cannot succeed without effort, have the awareness that they cannot grasp the meaning or that they cannot manage the meaning of the message without the mental processing of the information. In the processing of the assimilated information, there are put successively in function by the subject cognitive operations of thinking, memory, representation, that generate certain affective states, emotional attitudes, positive or negative. Thus, in the processing of information the students that are intellectually capable and that are cognitively motivated operate on the received message, they analyse the information communicated by the teacher, discovering its advantages and disadvantages. They insist on the content of the didactical message, they decipher the referential meanings, they anticipate and they become aware of the significations of the knowledge or the ideas of the subject taught/ studied. In the same time, in the processing of the information they are active, selective, rational and reflexive, they manifest critical attitudes, in the memorisation and in the interpreting of the knowledge, and in the making of the answers.

In succeeding in practising an intelligent learning the pupils and the students need competent teachers, ability to communicate in an explicit manner, they need how to argue a point of view, in a clear and veracious manner the scientific contents that are taught. Any new information that the teacher offers to the students has to be offered in an intelligible manner, that is connected in a logical way with the cognitive experience of the receivers in order to be understood correctly. In the conditions in which the teacher gives long messages or he transmits much information that is not relevant, conclusive for the referential content of the subject matter, we notice a decrease of the personal involvement in the task, a diminishing of the motivation and the students' interest in learning.

The active and motivated participation of the pupils and students in the learning activity is influenced not only by competences, but also by the charge, the shape, the size, the difficulty, the redundancy and the originality of the message that has to be acquired. It is proven that if a didactical message is too complicated, abstract or conceptualized then we see a diminishing of the possibility of the correct understanding and the

communicative relationship between teacher and student becomes less effective.

In decoding the signification of a message counts not only the quantity of information (prosaic or creative) but the quality, the value and the importance of the information it contains. The newness and especially the originality, the intelligibility of the informational content, the logic of the of the elaboration of the pro and con arguments are elements that are characteristic that attract the capable students more, students that have a rich cognitive experience.

The student with a low cognitive motivation for learning process in a superficial manner the content of the didactical message, emphasising more the shape of the message and the nature of the assignments on the teachers' behaviour. These students prefer to be attracted into learning by apparent, conjunctural and insignificant elements in order to make a good impression in the eyes of the audience. Also, they have the tendency to give to the teacher or to the source of the message the correctness of the content, the truth of the information that is memorised and rendered. Receiving only the apparent aspects, learning only the the form elements of the didactical message, these students are not willing to think about the quality of the information in order to understand the meaning and the truthfulness of the content of ideas.

In the intelligible learning of a informational content an important part is played the value of the of the arguments of the message and the degree of personal involmment. When the didactical message has a major importance in the development of the students' competences they are very attentive during classes and lectures in order to receive it correctly, and they think seriously to the decoding of the significations. On the contrary, when a message does not have value for the personal becoming, although they consider the source to be reliable, they are not very attentive in receiving the information and they give little time to the analysis and the decoding of the knowledge transmitted by the teacher.

Social psychology studies have shown that the information processing is more solid when the students exhibit a high degree of personal involvement in the cognitive tasks. Between pupils and students there are significant differences regarding the pleasure of making intelectual effort or the degree of development of the cognitive need. Thus, the students with a high degree of cognitive need are more disposed affectively and volitional to a consistent intelectual effort in making logical arguments, compared to the onea that have a low need for knowledge, that learn less and that make a minimal effort in acquiring knowledge and strategies.

We consider that the learning behaviour, of personal involmment of the students in cognitive tasks or in the solving of problems is the product of the mental activity of processing the information. With the help of the personal psychological matrix, the pupils, the students and the teachers build their

answers to the stimuli from the environment, to the social situations and requirements. Through the cognitive-axiological matrix the subject makes infinite mental activities that orient, select and organise the cognitive system, the attitudes, the motivations and individual behaviours in connection to the world (Gh. Dumitriu, 1998, pp. 75-76).

2. The monitoring of the mental processes in learning and the solving of problems

The time that is given to school learning is considerable, having in view the road from kindergarden to school, high school and onwards to the professional formation. Although there are many concerns in this sense in the field of the ergonomical cognitive psychology, most works that aim at learning are centered on learning through induction, meaning in situations in which the content that has to be learnt is not given to the subject in an explicit manner.

Considering that a big part of our cognitive activity is given to the process of acquisition in situations of explicit learning (school learning) it results that this field represents a privileged field to study the architecture and the functioning of the human cognitive system. This is what C. Bastien (1997) wants to study starting from the next general hypothesis: learning through training (in the learning process) means the rational organised transformation of the knowledge that have to be learnt into a functional organisation, a transformation that is made through problem-solving. Through the rational organisation we mean the accessibility of knowledge that will be transmitted to the students, based on the respecting of the principles, exigences, psychological criteria and pedagogical rules.

The experiments that were planned and made with the students emphasise the fact that, once the problem is solved, the acquired knowledge are articulated directly and functional because they are structured through the aimed purpose. These “atomic” knowledge are activated in chain, even if the problem is put in the frame of programming new experiences, and they elicit this cognitive function (Bastien and Richard, 1995). From this perspective it is clear the essential role of problem-solving, of learning through action. In other words, the author shows the fact that “solving problems that fastens the purposes, that activates the predecessors and finally it structures knowledge”(C. Bastien, 1997, p. 40). The theoretical perspective that means establishing that the acquisition of knowledge through training aims the transformation of a rational organisation of the “collective knowledge”, that are produced in the socio-genesis, in a functional structure of individual knowledge, that are produced in psychogenesis, make up in the opinion of many authors an operational frame for the research.

Learning through problems is a major coordinate in the methodologies of many systems of professional formation. In the field of general knowledge

there cannot be formed competences of high level except by confronting the students manner with numerous problems, complex and realistic, that mobilise different types of cognitive resources. Learning through problems, developed in many professional formations, in the Faculty of Medicine, means that the student are frequently placed in the situation of identifying and solving problems. As Tardif (1996) says problems are built by the teacher so that they favor a progression in the assimilation of knowledge and building competences.

There were proposed open problems (for example, the ones that were developed in the mathematical didactics), problems with short formula, that do not induce the methods or the solution. They incite the student to examine them, to build them (the task has to aim the “area of the proximal development”). It is often talked about the problem-situations (Ph. Meirieu, 1989) developed in different disciplines and didactics of their teaching. It is considered than in order for a problem to be realistic it has to be framed/ included in a situation that gives it purpose. It is recommended to resort to different types of problem-situations, some that have a well defined ending, others that are less structured (as it is the project intercession) but all that are well mastered by the teacher in order to know the cognitive problems the all the students/ part of his students are going to face.

There are well known the studies that are centered on emphasizing the importance of the obstacle. An obstacle is different from a difficulty in the sense that a difficulty discloses a lack of knowledge or techniques that are not structured. “Treating/ solving needs in general the putting into action of problem-situation” (Etienne and Lerouge, 1997, p. 65). To structure in a deliberate manner obstacles, says Ph. Perrenoud, or to anticipate them and to spot them in a task that is inserted in a project intercession, requires a great capacity of analysing the situations, the tasks and the mental processes of the student, doubled by the capacity to decentrate, to forget his own expertise in order to put himself “in the student’s shoes”. It also takes the capacity to manage the class in a complex environment in the sense that the students offer work in groups, the duration of the activities is hard to foresee and to standardised (Ph. Perrenoud, 1997, p. 79).

The actions, operations and the means used by the subject in the learning/ problem solving process can be cognitive acts (he knows how to do), and they can be metacognitive acts (he knows how to become aware and to anticipate the intellectual activity, he knows how to manage and to monitor his resources, operations, stages, strategies and behaviour, he knows how to organise, evaluate and adjust tyhe cognitive, affective, motivational and volitional processes that produce the expected result, he knows to think in a reflexive manner the impact of the objectives, of the contents and the methods on the learning results). (Gh. Dumitriu, 2004, p. 163).

3. Institutional programme of formation and evaluation of competence

The theories that want to explain the acquired competences, the action abilities of the person, usually regards, according to Wattiez, four categories of processes and results:

- ⇒ *Knowledge* (acquisition of information)
- ⇒ *Cognitive abilities* (capacities, learning strategies)
- ⇒ *Abilities* (personal aptitudes of action, the ability of doing)
- ⇒ *Attitudes* (specific ways of reporting to self, others, situations).

Based on this structure of the person's competences we analyse the formation profiles, qualifications profiles, and certification of different samples of students (pupils, students, didactic staff, managers etc). In the formation frames there are approached the specific objectives (in the terms of the behavioristic psychology), the learning contents, learning methodology, organisation conditions and evaluation procedures. Planning an education based on the building and developing of competences implies an exact structuring of the approach of formation and evaluation.

A programme of formation of the mathematical competences in pupils is characterised, considers Wattiez, by the following elements:

- A mathematical formation that is correctly articulated during three years;
- Contents that are in service of the competences (solving of problem-situations, activities of logical thinking, analysis, calculation, comparison, representation)
- The structuring of a competence around a chart of specification, respectively a confrontation chart of the competences and the contents that correspond to a competence;
- A learning that is centered on the integration of the experience and the students' skills in the solving of the cognitive situations, but especially in practical ones.
- Fundamental competences and competences that have to be improved. Fundamental competences (with a share of 75%) are the ones that the subject has to master compulsory in order to be able to continue the learning of new acquisitions. The competences that have to be improved (with a share of 25%) are the ones that are developed through formation programmes. Both types of competences are compatible to ensure high thresholds of school and professional success.
- An evaluation that is oriented on competences, in which the control of the correct notions about notions, methods, strategies have to be made in close connection with the problem-situation that has to be solved.

- A mending system that is based on the mastering of the competences in order to surpass the difficulties that can appear in learning, in solving a situation, or in the attaining of an objective that is specific to a competence.
- Terminal objective of integration – has to role to connect learning and solving complex situations, to tie them to the profession or to the everyday life.

Respecting and applying these requirements could, in middle term, to transpose learning in terms of competence and to transform the “actors” in subjects of their own intercession of personal formation and development . in the initial formation we have to develop the basic competences, fundamental ones, that are necessary to the adjustemnt to newness and to the mastering of of situations in the social field of the categories of professions with general character. The reorganisation and the improvement of the basic competences is made through the programmes of continual formation that validates the level and the actual operational value, their real effectiveness.

The results of the research have shown that for the making of competences in pupils and students it is necessary a change of the didactical methodology in the direction of the making of three reference objectives regarding:

- The formation and the development of the capacity of metacognitive reflection on the purpose, on the referential field, the learning sterategies, and of the role behaviours;
- The elaboration and the using of learning strategies, solid, thorough, based on the efficient dealing of the situation/ problem, on the intelligent processing of information;
- The development of the transfer ability of the teorethical knowledge, of the cognitive competences, of the strategies acquired in different practical situational contexts.

To ensure the quality in education and to obtain school, social and professional success we must form and develop in students a batch of competences with general and specific functions. In the conditions of some new cognitive tasks, many pupils and students have difficulties in using some adequate strategies of efficient learning. They have difficulties in analysing and solving the problems and situations that appeared so they do not have optimal work methods, effective strategies, flexible approaching procedures, constructive-creative attitudes and they did not develop the feeling of competence and personal performance.

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L' AGRESSIVITE – CONSEQUENCE DU MODELE EDUCATIONNEL FAMILIAL

Lecturer PhD Mihaela RUS,
Lecturer Teacher Mihaela NAIDIN,
Lecturer PhD Elena PREDESCU,
„Andrei Saguna” University of Constanța

Résumé

La société assure à l'individu le milieu nécessaire au développement de sa personnalité, des modèles de pensées (mentalités) et de comportement, relations interpersonnelles et moyennes de vie, tous ceux-ci réunis dans un système cohérent et très bien organisé par lequel l'individu devient dépendant du milieu social. La vie individuelle, ainsi que la vie de la communauté sont beaucoup influencées par la société et, ainsi, la personne est marquée par le sceau des modèles socio culturels dont il fait partie. Par ces modèles, plus ou moins intériorisés par l'individu, il s'adapte aux besoins de la société.

Mots clé: *agressivité, modèle, éducation, famille*

INTRODUCTION

Les modèles socioculturels offerts par la société sont très importants surtout pour les enfants dont la personnalité est en train de se former. Dans ce sens, un rôle particulier revient à la famille qui représente le premier milieu social de contact de l'enfant et, en même temps, le premier modèle de culture et d'éducation. Aujourd'hui, le nombre des familles désorganisées et des enfants de la rue est en hausse et, de cette façon, les modèles positifs sociaux, culturels et moraux se sont perdus ce qui permet aux modèles négatifs d'être adoptés et, au final, de s'adapter à l'agressivité.

Sur ce fond, on rencontre les *aspects* suivants :

1 – un grand changement pendant la période de la petite scolarité, changement déterminé par ce qu'on appelle « la période de crise », période de référence pour le développement général, « séculaire » (nommée ainsi par Tunner) de l'enfant, accompagnée par les caractéristiques spécifiques à l'âge (développement psychosocial, développement cognitif, moral), d'un côté, et d'autre côté, les aspects plus « fragiles » de la personnalité de l'enfant ou de

la famille d'appartenance dans ces périodes de passage, de « crise » (morale, conception sur le monde et sur la vie, etc.).

2 – on forme des structures de comportement, des structures morales, des mentalités.

Tous les aspects présentés ci-dessus déterminent la formation et le développement de l'agressivité et du comportement agressif, tout en constituant *les motifs* du choix de ce thème.

Toujours dans le sens des *motifs* on pourrait ajouter *l'intérêt* et la *curiosité* concernant le modèle de manifestation de l'agressivité chez l'enfant d'âge scolaire bas, enfant dépourvu de famille et institutionnalisé de diverses manières (dans des maisons d'enfants, des centres de placement, etc.). Dans pareilles institutions d'éducation, les divers types d'agressivité se manifestent d'une manière prégnante.

Par conséquent, dans la vie sociale il y a une agressivité en augmentation continue. *Ce problème de l'agressivité* – soit qu'il s'agit des actions collectives ou individuelles – préoccupe au plus haut degré la contemporanéité.

Au niveau social global il existe des études de socio psychobiologie qui estiment que notre siècle est au comble des frustrations et de l'agressivité. Cela est donné par la prolifération sans précédent des sources au potentiel générateur, sensibilisateur et déclencheur d'émotions sans confort pour l'individu et pour la communauté. Les exigences adressées à l'homme, en général, vis-à-vis de ses mécanismes d'adaptation, se multiplient et sollicitent des consommations géantes d'énergie. Par conséquence, les décompensations émotionnelles sont fréquentes, mais cela réclame une assistance thérapeutique et éducationnelle spécialisée.

Chaque siècle génère ses propres angoisses. Ainsi, OSCAR MOORE écrivait sur les maladies de la contemporanéité, sur les *frustrations* qu'elles génèrent et, par suite, sur *les comportements d'adaptation*. De cette façon, on peut affirmer que nous ne connaissons pas la société où nous vivons. La panique morale s'élève à la violence, au crime, au dénigrement et à la désintégration de la famille. Les hommes de science constatent que beaucoup croient que le monde est un endroit pour lequel il vaut se battre. Mais le problème c'est comment peut-on mener cette « lutte »m comment peut-on bien s'adapter à ce monde.

Les problèmes d'adaptation générés par la multitudes de frustrations, d'angoisses et agressions de la période qu'on vit sont dus, de même, à l'accélération sans précédant des changements du milieu naturel, mais surtout, du milieu social à tous les niveaux de la vie.

Par conséquence, on assiste à des déséquilibres existentiels et fonctionnels sur le plan intern-subjectif et extern-comportemental, à des désordres biopsychologiques, à des syndromes d'inadaptation, ç des comportements aliénés, antisociaux et agressifs.

On peut se poser la question : *pourquoi le rapport basse scolarité – agressivité ?* Voilà la réponse : parce que la basse scolarité représente une période de modelage et de formation de la personnalité adulte, parce que c'est la période quand on peut intervenir à succès dans ce sans.

Le comportement des enfants, leur style de réaction, de se réjouir ou de s'attrister, d'avoir ou de ne pas avoir peur, d'espérer ou non, tout cela sont, avant tout, un reflex des modes de comportement et de réflexion connu en famille.

De même, le sentiment de sécurité psychoaffectif aux effets inattendus au niveau de la formation de leur personnalité est nourrit en famille, quelque précaire qu'elle soit. Ensuite, l'image de soi est un reflex de l'image que l'enfant se fait dans les groupes communautaires.

Si on a en vue tout cela, on peut constater les effets frustrants de l'enfant ayant une pareille provenance. Ils sont dus au fait que *le modèle de la famille* change ce qui conduit au changement des modèles d'identification de l'enfant, au changement de ses comportements concrets et de son style de relation.

A l'heure actuelle, apparaissent des familles à un seul parent, les divorces connaissent une fréquence ahurissante, et les situations où l'enfant devient « objet de partage » ne sont pas peu. Le temps que les parents passent avec l'enfant est de plus en plus réduit. L'enfant devient de plus en plus seul et il cherche d'autres moyens de communication affective au-delà du noyau parental. A tout ceux-ci, on ajoute le statut social et professionnel de la famille, la menace de la perte de l'emploi, ce qui conduit à la diminution du seuil *de tolérance à la frustration*.

Les modèles socio-comportementaux positifs et négatifs deviennent de plus en plus difficilement à déchiffrer, ils sont toujours plus nombreux, tandis que les jugements de valeur des adultes d'autorité sont de plus en plus divergents. Par conséquent, les enfants se trouvent dans la situation d'impossibilité optionnelle et actionnelle, et peuvent développer la conduite d'un complexe d'impuissance caractérisé par le manque de confiance dans ses propres forces, l'agressivité comme forme d'adaptation et même contre-réaction à la frustration.

A l'âge de la basse scolarité – qui a été centrée dans cette étude – les enfants s'approprient la plus grande partie des comportements adaptatifs. Par sa nature, la basse scolarité est liée à la personnalité en formation. Maintenant, les équilibres émotionnels et psychiques sont, généralement, fragiles et c'est la période quand on se constitue des clichés, des patterns comportementaux durables et transférables, ultérieurement, dans des diverses activités.

A la base des expériences sociales accumulées pendant cette période, se forment :

- des invariants comportementales ;

- des patterns de réponse au statut de noyaux adaptatifs bons et mauvais ;
- des modalités d'évaluation concernant le monde environnant ;
- des repères d'identification personnelle au plan social.

Tous ceux-ci se concrétisent dans des tableaux comportementaux à spécificité individuelle.

Concernant l'adaptation psychologique humaine, elle a été analysée du point de vue biologique et sociologique, sans accent sur ses nuances psychologiques.

Nous mentionnons le fait que *l'agressivité* est un problème d'importance sociale particulière parce qu'elle est à la base des comportements violents du types crimes, actions terroristes, etc., qui peuvent être prévenues par des interventions thérapeutiques appliquées depuis très tôt, notamment, depuis les premières manifestations agressives.

LE MODELE FAMILIAL – FACTEUR DETERMINANT DE L'AGRESSIVITE

Avant d'être « soi- même », l'enfant est « autres ». Chaque enfant se forme une personnalité sur le modèle offert par « l'image » de l'autre. Chaque système d'éducation en tant qu'acte de formation de l'individu commence par imitation et finit par identification à un modèle.

L'imitation et l'indentification chez l'enfant se font par rapport aux « influences », comprises comme pressions et répressions externes, exercées par les parents sur l'enfant.

Toute éducation en tant que processus de formation de l'enfant doit commencer et se dérouler dans le cadre du groupe familial d'origine de celui-ci. Les personnes chargées par la formation de l'enfant sont, avant tout, les parents. Les traces mentales laissées par la famille à chaque individu exercent plus tard des influences sociales en ce qui concerne sa prédisposition et « sa force créatrice dans le domaine de la tradition, de l'art et de la religion ». On parle, donc, de l'existence d'un soit disant « complexe familial ».

En ce qui concerne l'influence du couple familial on considère que la mère et le père influencent l'enfant par leur comportement individuel, aussi bien que par la nature de leurs relations conjugales. L'enfant perçoit les relations conflictuelles des parents. Les troubles à l'intérieur du couple génèrent à leur tour (secondairement) des troubles chez l'enfant. Trois quarts des enfants ayant des troubles de comportement proviennent des familles séparées ou des familles où les relations conjugales sont marquées de violence et agressivité.

Scientifiquement on a prouvé que les enfants ayant des parents agressifs deviennent eux aussi agressifs dans les relations avec les autres enfants et, à la maturité, avec le reste des gens.

L'argumentation par des gifles, des raclées ou des fouettées doit disparaître de « l'arsenal de l'éducation ». Les enfants ne naissent pas brutaux, ni agressifs, ni cruels. Le manque de logique est tellement flagrant que les parents qui apprennent que leur progéniture ait battu un autres, lui appliquent toujours une belle fouettée. Et la situation devient encore pire dans le cas d'un mauvais climat familial fondé sur : la misère matérielle, la misère morale, le manque de compréhension, l'alcoolisme, les enfants illégitimes, etc.

Souvent, l'enfant manifeste un penchant naturelle vers la tentation de l'adulte sur le territoire de la violence, de le « tenter » de cette manière. En ce moment, le parent doit manifester sa supériorité et ne pas se laisser « manoeuvrer » et l'enfant se rendra compte de ce qui signifie maîtrise de soi et sûreté de réaction.

Insouciance, brutalité, maladresse, égoïsme sont des traits à éliminer du portrait d'un PARENT. Il est naturel que les parents aient le droit d'utiliser des moyens coercitifs, tout comme des moyens de récompense, mais les gifles ne résolvent pas les impasses.

Les actes d'agressivité maxime – la violence – sont, généralement commis par des jeunes mal attachés au milieu où ils vivent, aux écoles ou à la profession choisies, mais il y a aussi l'exemple négatif des proches qui peut pousser le jeune sur une pente périlleuse, nocive aux manifestations antisociales.

Du point de vue psychologique, l'enfant est le résultat de la nature des relations entre ses parents. Cet aspect est très important et son analyse met en lumière les différences attitudinales du père et de la mère envers l'enfant. Ainsi, la mère peut orienter l'enfant contre son père qui, à son tour, peut essayer d'attirer l'enfant et de l'orienter contre sa mère.

De même, l'enfant développe « des intérêts clandestins et des impulsions souterraines » ce qui se réfère à la curiosité sexuelle. Donc, il y a deux catégories de choses : décentes et indécentes, d'un côté, et pures et impures, de l'autre côté. Dans la séparation du décent de l'indécent, le rôle majeur revient aux parents et surtout à la mère qui insiste sur le décent, tandis que l'indécent reste confus, intouchable. Parfois, la mère refuse qu'on parle en sa présence de « questions sexuelles » tandis que le père garde la sphère de l'indécent par sa position d'autorité morale suprême. Souvent, l'indécent est associé à la culpabilité.

COMPARAISON: CENTRE DE PLACEMENT – ECOLE DE MASSE

La famille et l'enfant représentent les éléments de base de la société. La famille est le cadre où l'enfant naît, se développe et forme sa personnalité.

Jusqu'à FREUD, on considérait que la vie proprement dite, surtout la vie psychique, débutait à la naissance de l'individu et se développait par des

étapes successives jusqu'à l'âge adulte. Ce point de vue est soutenu par la théorie de PIAGET.

Selon O. RANK, dans le processus de formation et de développement de la personnalité individuelle, on distingue quatre phases majeures :

1 – la phase familiale qui considère que la vie commence par l'union du couple marital. La naissance de l'individu va représenter une expérience psycho traumatique pour l'enfant (le *traumatisme de la naissance*), accentuée par la coupe du cordon ombilical en tant que symbole de la séparation de la mère. S'ensuit une étape de développement et de séparation graduelle de l'enfant de ses parents, notamment de sa mère, et la sortie de sous le contrôle et l'autorité maternelle.

2 – la phase sociale est considérée comme une "renaissance" par l'affirmation externe de l'individu, en même temps que la séparation complète de sa famille d'origine. C'est la phase de la formation et de la liquidation du *complexe oedip*.

3 – la phase artistique représente l'union de l'individu avec la nature, la réalité, le monde. Cette phase se caractérise par la domination de la pensée, considérée toujours comme un processus d'affirmation sociale, d'acquisition du prestige et de l'autorité individuelle.

4 – la phase spirituelle est considérée supérieure et elle correspond aux idéaux éthiques et spirituels de l'individu. Elle est vue comme un processus d'affirmation totale de la personne. Cette phase se caractérise par l'identification de l'individu avec des idéaux spirituels, idéologiques ou philosophiques, représentant le moment de l'accomplissement de son être (voir le schéma O. RANK).

En partant de cette *structure* de formation de la personnalité – offerte par O. RANK – on ne manque pas de se poser la question : Comment se passent les choses dans le cas des enfants sans parents, dont la personnalité se forme dans des centres de placement ?

Pour répondre à cette question il faut partir d'un aspect plus général, notamment : Comment ces enfants sont-ils arrivés dans les centres de placement ? La réponse tient de quelques situations d'une importance extrême :

- a. les parents de l'enfant sont décédés, inconnus, mis sous interdiction;
- b. les parents sont déclarés, par sentence judiciaire, morts ou disparus;
- c. les parents sont déchus des droits parentaux;
- d. l'enfant est purement et simplement déclaré abandonné;
- e. le développement ou l'intégrité morale de l'enfant est menacée en famille pour des motifs in / dépendants de la volonté des parents.

Dans les plus graves situations – lorsque les parents sont désintéressés, froids, distants, passifs en ce qui concerne la formation et l'éducation de leur propre enfant, ceux-ci (les enfants) préfèrent vivre dans la rue, dans les parcs ou dans les bouches d'égout. Les enfants mal aimés, abandonnés, sans

famille, ont, à la place de la protection affective des situations frustrantes et des carences émotionnelles. Ils se formeront comme des personnalités agressives parce que la société est une « entrave » et une « zone interdite ».

Le manque du modèle familial entraîne des conséquences négatives pour la maturité émotionnelle, affective et intellectuelle, pour l'intégration sociale, pour la communication et les relations avec des autres et, au final, pour leur propre identité. Le manque du modèle fait qu'ils deviennent des dépendants sociaux, des sociopathes, ou des antisociaux. Les pulsions primaires, dépourvues de la censure du Supra-moi moral leur donnera un profil psychologique spécifique.

LES OBJECTIFS DE LA RECHERCHE

Le titre de notre ouvrage est une expression générale dont la formulation est fondée sur la prémisse que l'agressivité, le comportement agressif représentent une forme d'adaptation ainsi qu'une réaction contre une situation frustrante. Cela est déjà scientifiquement confirmé par la psychologie.

Le premier objectif de notre recherche suit le saisissement de la nature qui existe entre les variables : agressivité, adaptation et frustration. Comme premier aspect du processus de passage du général au particulier (ce processus cherche de toucher un niveau de testabilité directe des phénomènes étudiés), l'agressivité est considérée, principalement, sous ses formes de violence et de langage oral agressif dans les relations interpersonnelles. Cela ne signifie pas qu'on néglige les autres dimensions de l'agressivité : les carences éducatives dans la famille d'origine et dans les institutions d'enseignement (nous parlons des modèles familial et scolaire intériorisés par les enfants), les facteurs qui déclenchent le comportement agressif (prédisposition génétique et psychopathologie parentale, facteurs traumatisants pour les enfants et pour la famille aux implications dans le déclenchement de l'agressivité, maladies somatiques graves, autres traumatismes), ainsi que les autres formes de l'agressivité et du comportement agressif.

Dans la démarche de la formulation des objectifs de notre recherche, nous sommes partis d'une série de prémisses dont le contexte est le suivant :

- a. La société se trouve dans un processus continu de transformation et de développement.
- b. Par conséquence, les valeurs se modifient donnant naissance à d'autres valeurs différentes qui englobent des transformations profondes dans tous les aspects liés à l'adaptation sociale et interpersonnelle de l'individu.
- c. L'influence mass media par la promotion des films artistiques et des desseins animés qui étalent la violence et le comportement agressif,

en général, par: agressions, banditisme, l'usage des armes, des cambriolages, des effractions, des enlèvements, etc.

Ces réalités ont été prises en considération pour la fixation des *objectifs de la recherche*. Par conséquent, notre recherche a pour objectif principal le saisissement de la croissance de l'agressivité chez les enfants institutionnalisés, en comparaison avec les enfants en famille. Parallèlement, la recherche vise les objectifs secondaires :

1. La mise en évidence des caractéristiques psychiques (plus fragiles) qui se sont modifiées et qui déterminent le comportement agressif des enfants de basse scolarité du Centre de Placement ;
2. Le saisissement de la manière d'influence du Centre de Placement – en tant qu'institution d'éducation intellectuelle, morale, culturelle, sociale – sur le développement du comportement agressif ;
3. Le saisissement du mode de manifestation de l'agressivité chez les enfants de basse scolarité du Centre de Placement ;
4. L'analyse du degré et du mode dans lequel le type de réponse à la frustration influence le comportement d'adaptation sociale et scolaire : le comportement d'étude, le comportement de relation ;
5. L'investigation des influences exercées par une série de facteurs externes sur le type de réponse frustrant – agressif : les élèves de la même classe, les caractéristiques de l'institution qui les protègent, la famille d'appartenance.

LA RECHERCHE

LES HYPOTHESES DE LA RECHERCHE

Comme point de départ, on a pris en considération le – démontré scientifiquement – que l'agressivité est une forme d'adaptation et de réaction contre la frustration chez les enfants institutionnalisés de l'âge de basse scolarité.

Par conséquent, l'hypothèse principale est formulée de cette manière : si on présume que l'agressivité est une forme d'adaptation et de réaction, alors cela se manifeste surtout dans les Centres de Placement comparativement aux écoles de masse.

En dehors de l'hypothèse principale, on a formulé les hypothèses secondaires suivantes :

- Si l'agressivité se manifeste en tant que forme d'adaptation étant donné le manque des modèles familiaux et scolaires, alors elle a des tendances évidentes de manifestation;
- S'il existe certaines caractéristiques psychiques plus fragiles chez les enfants institutionnalisés en comparaison avec ceux en famille, alors elles sont plus évidentes chez les premiers grâce aux influences respectives;

► Si l'agressivité est une forme d'adaptation et réaction envers la frustration, alors les enfants du Centre de Placement utilisent le comportement agressif dans ce sens;

Tableau nr. 1. *Distribution des sujets par milieux familiaux éducatifs*

La répartition par classes	<i>Milieux familiaux éducatifs</i>		
	Ouvriers	Etudes moyennes	Etudes supérieures
La II-e classe	2	4	1
La III-e classe	5	7	-
La IV-e classe	4	5	2
Total	11	16	3

► Si les manifestations frustrantes – agressives (leur intensité et leur qualité) ont valeur adaptative sociale et scolaire, alors la valence positive ou négative des groupes sociaux et scolaires d'appartenance les influencent ;

► Si chez les élèves soutenus par leur familles on constate un bas niveau de l'agressivité et une adaptation en fonction du spécifique de chaque élève, alors que chez les enfants institutionnalisés on constatera un seuil plus élevé de la frustration et de l'agressivité, respectivement un niveau plus bas en ce qui concerne la qualité de l'adaptation socio scolaire.

Nous avons pris de même en considération, chez les enfants en famille (l'école de masse), la structure en fonction des milieux éducatifs familiaux : parents ouvriers, aux études moyennes, aux études supérieures.

L'ORGANISATION DE L'ACTIVITE DE RECHERCHE

Sur la base des hypothèses et les objectifs formulés, nous avons effectué la recherche dans la localité Constanta ayant de même en vue la réalisation d'une étude comparative. Donc, nous avons investigué des sujets du Centre de Placement DELFINUL pour dépister les éléments de spécificité et l'Ecole nr. 1 de la même localité, école générale où les enfants ont des familles.

Chez les enfants en famille (école de masse), on a eu en vue la structure en fonction des milieux éducatifs : parents ouvriers, aux études moyennes, aux études supérieures.

METHODES ET TECHNIQUES DE RECHERCHE

Dans le but de la réalisation des objectifs proposés et partant des prémisses considérées comme base de l'élaboration des hypothèses de la recherche, nous avons estimé que les principales méthodes utiles dans notre démarche soient :

L'observation dirigée. Cette méthode consiste dans la poursuite soutenue et systématique du comportements des sujets dans le but de saisir

leurs aspects caractéristiques concernant, d'un côté, la physionomie, l'hygiène, le visage, le regard, la mimique, la gestualité, leur conformation générale, et, d'un autre côté, les aspects du comportement des sujets dans certains moments ou situations spécifiques (pendant les activités scolaires ou au libre choix).

Les objectifs suivis par la méthode mentionnée sont : 1) qu'ils manifestent des réactions motrices à des connotations agressives, 2) qu'ils utilisent un langage agressif ; 3) qu'ils manifestent une attitude frustrante, 4) qu'ils utilisent soit la violence (le comportement agressif violent), soit un langage agressif pour éliminer la frustration.

Dans le but de la réalisation des objectifs établis et pour une claire illustration des hypothèses nous avons utilisé, de même, une série de testes psychologiques tels le teste de frustration Rosenzweig, le teste de personnalité Woodworth, le teste « Je suis... » et « Je voudrais être... », le teste « La famille », le teste « La classe ».

Nous avons, de même, utilisé l'étude de la fiche médicale et l'anamnèse psychologique.

Dans la littérature de spécialité, le soin pour la diagnose et le mesurage de la frustration n'occupent pas une importance proportionnelle aux préoccupations théoriques sur ce phénomène dans son ensemble.

La difficulté du mesurage de la frustration résulte de la difficulté de corrélation des instruments de diagnose avec la théorie de cette corrélation dans le but de l'objectivité de la recherche. Tout instrument utilisé doit être expliqué, décrit, la théorie qui le définit doit être précisée ainsi que sa valeur diagnostique.

Pour la discrimination aux prédispositions frustrant agressives de différents degrés, à côté de l'observation, anamnèse, interview, nous avons utilisé, comme instrument principal, le teste Rosenzweig, validé pour les enfants entre 3 et 13 ans. En complément, nous avons appliqué le questionnaire de personnalité Woodworth, le teste la Famille, le teste La classe, etc.

Par rapport aux situations frustrants, les sujets expriment plusieurs types de réactions aux situations de frustration corrélées avec les particularités de personnalité, avec le mode de structuration du potentiel attitudinal frustrant : des réactions orientées extra punitives (irritation, colère) et impunitives (les situations frustrantes étant expliquées d'une manière conciliante).

Les caractéristiques de la frustration chez les sujets investigués

Les groupes d'élèves investigués ont mis en évidence une série de comportements spécifiques par rapport aux stimulants frustrant. Ainsi, on a mis en évidence un groupement de types de réactivité par rapport aux stimulants respectifs. Donc, on peut constater ce qui suit :

Le groupement des sujets en fonction des indicateurs de valeurs globales de la frustration. Les résultats obtenus ont permis l'identification de trois catégories de sujets : ceux à potentiel réactif frustrant de valeur réduite (qui ont obtenu à l'épreuve Rosenzweig un total entre 0 – 8 points), ceux à potentiel modéré aux stimulants frustrants d'une valeur moyenne (9 – 15 points) et les sujets à réactivité frustrante (10 – 24points).

Le type de réaction de comportement des élèves par rapport aux stimulants frustrants.

Dans ce cas, nous avons mesuré le degré dans lequel la cause de la frustration est originelle à l'intérieure de leur subjectivité, à l'extérieure ou quelque part sans importance significative. Les résultats sont les suivants : le pourcentage le plus élevé appartient aux sujets qui localisent à l'extérieure la cause de leur frustration ; ils sont suivis par les enfants qui se font *mea culpa* et sur la dernière place se situent les sujets qui offrent des explications impunitives.

LES CARACTERISTIQUES DE L'AGRESSIVITE CHEZ LES SUJETS INVESTIGUES

Le rapport des valeurs globales entre frustration et agressivité

L'analyse de la distribution des sujets du lot choisi, dans le cadre de certaines catégories de valeurs pour les phénomènes étudiés, met en évidence des proportions assez proches. Par exemple, la frustration réduite apparaît chez 19% des sujets tandis que l'agressivité réduite chez 12%; la frustration modérée caractérise 46% des sujets et l'agressivité 52%; une frustration de haut niveau est impliquée pour 35% des élèves et l'agressivité pour 36% .

On peut constater le fait que les enfants frustrés, de règle générale, sont agressifs. L'analyse comparative de la frustration et de l'agressivité met en évidence un état de tension, de menace, la persistance d'une nécessité, la défense sauvage du Moi.

Performances du teste Woodworth

Les groupes d'élèves investigués ont relevé une série de tendances affectives qui ont été plus évidentes dans la stimulation du comportement agressif. Ainsi, on a pu mettre en évidence un groupement des enfants par rapport à cette tendance. Nous avons sélectionné du groupe des 8 catégories de tendances seulement 3 qui mettent en évidence ou stimulent le comportement agressif; il s'agit des tendances impulsives (l'impulsivité), les tendances vers l'instabilité et les tendances antisociales.

Le groupement des sujets en fonction des tendances affectives

La distribution des sujets du lot, choisi selon les 3 catégories de tendances affectives mentionnées, met en évidence le groupement des élèves en 3 niveaux : normal (0-120 points), limite (120-250 points) et prégnant (250-364 points).

L'analyse des résultats obtenus relèvent un poids plus grand des élèves aux tendances vers l'impulsivité, instabilité et antisociales à la limite des enfants institutionnalisés (en ordre : 60%; 80%; 50%) face aux élèves en famille (33%; 30%; 0%). Ces tendances affectives se manifestent chez les élèves en famille plutôt entre les limites du normal, face aux autres enfants investigués. De même, les tendances antisociales sont beaucoup plus évidentes chez les enfants institutionnalisés, face à ceux dans le cadre de la famille (30%; 50%; 20%; en comparaison avec 20%; 0%; 0% - en fonction des niveaux abordés)

L'analyse de la distribution des sujets du lot choisi dans le cadre des catégories de valeurs pour les phénomènes étudiés met en évidence des proportions relativement proches. Par exemple, l'agressivité réduite se manifeste chez 12% des sujets et l'impulsivité chez 30%; l'agressivité modérée caractérise 52% des enfants et les tendances impulsives 47%; l'agressivité élevée se manifeste chez 36% des enfants et l'impulsivité pour 23%.

On peut constater que, de règle, les enfants aux tendances impulsives sont, en même temps, agressifs. L'analyse comparative de l'agressivité et de l'impulsivité met en évidence un état de tension, de menace, de nervosité, de domination d'une réaction affective.

En fonction du pointage général obtenu, nous avons groupé les sujets intégrés dans l'expérimentation en 3 niveaux : enfants aux tendances antisociales prégnantes (250-364 points), enfants aux tendances antisociales modérées (120-250 points) et enfants aux tendances antisociales réduites (0-120 point).

Par conséquent, les poids se présentent de la sorte : 30% des enfants institutionnalisés manifestent des tendances antisociales réduites en comparaison avec 20% des enfants en famille ; 50% des enfants des institutions de protection manifestent une impulsivité modérée (dans le sens que cette manifestation est à la limite) en comparaison avec 0% des enfants en famille ; et le reste de 20% des enfants du Centre de Placement expriment des tendances antisociales prégnantes, chez les enfants de l'Ecole de masse cette tendance ne se manifeste chez aucun des enfants soumis à la recherche.

En conclusion, nous pouvons affirmer que, chez les enfants institutionnalisés, il existe un déséquilibre effectif qui n'a pas dépassé les frontières du normal, mais qui peut le faire et arriver dans les sphères du pathologique si on le néglige.

CONCLUSIONS

Pour mieux mettre en évidence la mesure dans laquelle ont été vérifiées les hypothèses formulées comme point de départ ainsi que la mesure dans laquelle nous avons atteint les objectifs proposés, on passe en revue les

principales conclusions auxquelles on est arrivés à la fin de la recherche effectuée :

- Les élèves investigués ont relevé une série de comportements spécifiques par rapport aux stimulants de la frustration et on a mis en évidence une réaction de différents degrés : réduite; modérée et élevée. Par conséquence, chez les enfants institutionnalisés, on constate une réaction élevée en comparaison avec les élèves en famille.

- Etant donné le fait qu'une des cause de la frustration peut avoir son origine à l'intérieur de la subjectivité de l'individu, à l'extérieur de celui-ci ou quelque part sans importance significative, les enfants institutionnalisés localisent, de règle, à l'extérieur la cause de leur frustration et, par conséquent, ils manifestent une réaction extra punitive dans un degré bien plus grand en comparaison avec les autres enfants.

- Cette réaction extra punitive par rapport aux stimulants de la frustration se réfèrent à la domination de l'obstacle au potentiel frustrant, à la défense du Moi en fonction de la perception d'un stimulant frustrant et de la persistance de la nécessité comme indice de la résolution des problèmes posés par la frustration.

- En ce qui concerne la défense du Moi, nous avons remarqué que la grande majorité des sujets attribuent aux autres la responsabilité de la production d'un événement indésirable. Concernant la défense du Moi, la majorité de ceux qui considèrent que "l'autre est responsable" sont des extra punitifs.

- De même, on peut constater que, de règle, les enfants frustrés sont aussi agressifs. L'analyse comparative de la frustration et de l'agressivité met en évidence un état de tension, de menace, la persistance d'une nécessité, la défense acerbe du Moi.

En ce qui concerne le comportement frustrant agressif chez les enfants sans famille, cela peut être rapporté à quelques facteurs de l'institutionnalisation tels : l'âge à laquelle l'enfant a perdu (ou s'est séparé) de ses parents, l'âge quand s'est produit l'institutionnalisation, la fréquence du changement des institutions protectrices et des personnes d'affection (si elles ont existé).

De cette perspective, on constate les conclusions suivantes :

- les enfants dont la frustration et l'agressivité sont réduites sont ceux institutionnalisés immédiatement après leur naissance. Chez ces enfants le seuil de frustration est élevé, leurs particularités psycho comportementales les recommandent comme des inadaptés, difficilement à éduquer, etc. Dans des diverses activités, ces enfants s'ennuient vite, ne participent pas d'une manière active à la vie collective, ils laissent l'impression qu'ils soient insensibles aux appréciations morales, aux punitions ou aux gratifications ;

ils ne finalisent pas les activités débutées et leurs capacités d'étude, de communication et de relation sont en déficit.

- les enfants dont les valeurs de la frustration et de l'agressivité sont élevées ont perdu leurs parents à l'âge d'environ 2-3 ans. Chez ces enfants, le seuil de la frustration est très réduit, ils sont soupçonneux, intolérants, disposent d'une réaction élevée, développent des crises nerveuses. D'entre eux proviennent les enfants agressifs, en prépondérance extra punitifs, ceux se sentent dépourvus de sécurité, qui se balancent, qui grincent des dents, etc. En ce qui concernant les relations de groupe, ils sont difficiles, incommodes, dérangent les autres, ils ne sont pas agréés.

- les enfants institutionnalisés qui ont perdu leurs parents après l'âge de 6-7 ans ont un niveau de frustration et de l'agressivité oscillant entre les valeurs moyennes et immédiatement en dessous de ces valeurs. En général, ils sont agréés dans le groupe et le pronostic de l'adaptabilité est favorable.

Les enfants institutionnalisés qui ont un ou les deux parents mais ceux-ci ont des problèmes d'intégration socio humaine (ils sont alcooliques, ou familles désorganisées) se manifestent souvent d'une manière agressive. Au niveau de la personnalité, ces enfants présentent des complexes d (infériorité, s'expriment dans le plan comportemental par des crises existentielles, expriment des complexes de culpabilité et d'impuissance, et parfois ils se comportent comme s'ils ont perdu les liens avec le monde et ils deviennent incapables d'action.

Par conséquent, la frustration et l'agressivité chez les enfants institutionnalisés sont corrélées avec les caractéristiques générales données par le milieu de protection (familial). Et cela parce que l'institution publique ne peut pas créer une certaine intimité, certain climat familial, une vie personnelle individuelle en conformité aux exigences spécifiques des différents niveaux d'âge de l'enfance.

De même, on peut constater qu'en général, les enfants ont la tendance vers l'impulsivité et souvent sont agressifs. L'analyse comparative de l'agressivité et de l'impulsivité met en évidence un état de tension, de menace, de nervosité, etc.

Chez les enfants qui adoptent un comportement agressif comme compensation des situations frustrantes on constate un Moi faible, dominé par des tendances dépressives, paranoïdes, de schizophrénie, etc.

En ce qui concerne le rapport entre l'image de soi et le comportement frustrant et agressif, nous avons constaté qu'en général, les enfants avec une image de soi réduite manifestent un état d'un caractère frustrant et, par conséquent, ils adoptent aussi un comportement agressif (extra punitif) pour éliminer, compenser la situation vue par lui comme frustrante.

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PROPOSAL FOR A COMMUNITY SCHOOL

PhD Cristina MAZZUCCO,
University of Padua, cristina.mazzucco.1@unipd.it

Abstract

In the following article we consider the possibility to promote and incorporate in the school the Community model stressing a trend that's been present in the educational Italian panorama and elsewhere for the past forty years. An interesting proposal of the American professor Sergioivanni opposes the Community model to the Organization model, highlighting the peculiarities of two worlds that on some aspects are characterised in different ways: the lifeworld, which is characterized by communicative acting, by shared values and spontaneity, and the systems world, characterized by a technical, instrumental and strategic acting.

When things work properly in a school, the lifeworld and the systems world undertake one another on a symbiotic and mutual relation profitable for both of them. The key to everything is the reciprocity from which should arise trust and respect. When the lifeworld and the systems world get along symbiotically they have an equal value position. Sergioivanni's position shows that this reciprocity can be reached in schools only when lifeworld leads the systems world. If, on the contrary, the systems world is guiding the lifeworld, the strictly organizational dimension brings damage and various disorders, but it is important that the systems world does not oppress the lifeworld.

Keywords: *Community school, Systemsworld, Lifeworld*

The idea of community, in relation with the school, during the last century has become the core consideration for many pedagogues and educators who have outlined education as the result of a common work that has included beside the families, teachers, institutions and territory. Considering only the Italian context, several attempts have been made in the last forty years to realize a new model of school, intended to interact with the wider social community and to create a real school community.

Anyway, when we recall the idea of community only in order to refer to the participation that characterize it, to the social management, to the interaction between parts and the sharing of the decisions, we are likely to reach a limited and reductive vision. We cannot forget, in fact, that the term

community evokes first of all the sense of belonging , the search of the common good, the sharing of values, as mutual aid and responsibility towards the others, the improvement of relationships based on solidarity and on cooperation between subjects, the consolidation of strong and long-lasting relationships, full of symbolic meanings.

The frequent reminder to promote community in the school, if on one side it has emphasized, several times and under various aspects, the necessity of a change of the organizational model, asking the school explicitly to leave the educational monopoly that had distinguished it in Italy until the late sixties, on the other side it has highlighted, not only in Italy, also a different way to answer to the recent needs of the today's society, defined as "*liquid society*" (Bauman, 2002) in modernity and postmodernity also defined "*modernity at large*" (Appadurai, 2001).

It is not difficult to notice the strong contradictions and the complexity that mark the actual social scene, that has often become a place lacking in communitarian bonds, strongly marked by the "crisis of the limit", where all seem possible and the individual freedom appears limitless and unconditioned; a place where loneliness and indifference grow; in which living is often conflictual and relations are cold and conventional; where the sense of personal and social liability is often lacking.

On the other hand, not only the society, but the school itself points out its crisis and the many contradictions that characterize it. While in the early seventies, in Italy, the school has been asked to change its organization in order to operate an opening towards the territory and the families, today many students complain about the so-called "lead by the market" education . We mention a choice that appears to be supported by the kind of school culture with functional mould, aiming to a management skilled school, strictly at the service of the economic progress, articulated on curricula based on profiles which are more consistent with the professional market trends rather than with the deep requirements of personal development. Obviously this does not mean not to consider the need to prepare competences in function with a future profession, but to safeguard the totality of the process in the personal growth and to postpone the strictly professional training and the postgraduating concerns.

To be more specific, a school meaning to be recognized as school community, as explained by the American researcher Thomas Sergiovanni (1), it must first of all present itself as a community of people, as a learning and inquiry community, an inclusive community and a caring one. Besides, it is constituted as a collegial community, a community of professional practices and thoughts (Sergiovanni, 1994).

Such a model of school can be imagined as a sort of puzzle whose pieces, each one with its specificity, are part of a broader picture, that represents them all inside a common frame: a whole constituted by different

and interdependent parts sharing culture, values and commitments. It is a school that interacts with the territory, which chooses as a pedagogic environment the idea of the school as a pleasant place of thought construction and of research, which focuses on the growing and learning person and undertakes to support the originality of his individual path.

An educating and learning community that becomes also community of practice, community of search and of intentions in which pupils and teachers, bounded to the realization of a common assignment, learn from each other sharing experiences and unspoken skills, comparing ideas and opinions, negotiating the construction of meanings, elaborating again and analyzing their own strategies of thought, becoming aware of a common culture. The adults have specific roles to carry out in order to create, to develop and to live the community in the school in which they interact. They are bound to grant that the mutual relations succeed in arising the best that the community has to offer, teaching and practicing the values of the democracy, the duties of citizenship and respect of the common good, the caretaking of the others. In particular the educators are requested to cooperate, to count on mutual support. They become, in time, a community of professionals of the education: they are listened to, they support and respect each other; they search, they discuss together, they converse, they think, they learn and they teach together. Teaching and learning are modified from individual practices into collective activities and must be realized in the respect of times and needs of the children. The spaces are naturally predisposed for an active and common participation, work team and the discovery together. The relations are warm and are personalized, tending to strengthen feelings of nearness. There are many opportunities for parents to meet, exchange and dialogue.

Comparing the Community model to the Organization model, Thomas Sergiovanni (1994, pp. 214-226) highlights the peculiarities of two worlds that on some aspects are characterized in different ways and imply sometimes exclusions sometimes penetration: the lifeworld, referring to the idea of “vital world”, and the systems world, that recalls instead the concept of “systemic rationality” (Sergiovanni, 1994). Habermas, German philosopher and sociologist, coined the two terms in order to describe two fields which are non consistent between each other, even if ideally interdependent, and grouping all the social institutions from the family to the formal complex organizations (Habermas, 1986). Sergiovanni, borrowing those concepts, has tried to better define the basis on which constructing the “character” of a school, in order to define if to make it more consistent with the idea of community or with the idea of enterprise (Organization). The lifeworld presents itself as a world of norms, purposes, values, meanings, relations. The systems world wants to be a world favoring efficiency, result and productivity: it consists in the whole strategies, instruments and aids that

usually are used in the organizations as means of management (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2002).

When the things work properly, the two worlds are tied in a relation of mutual exchange and in a equal value position. According to Sergiovanni, though, reciprocity and parity are granted, in the school as in the family or in any other associative form, only when the lifeworld can lead the systemsworld. On the contrary, when the systemsworld leads the lifeworld, the strictly organizational dimension risks to oppress, to suffocate and “to colonize” the vital world. In order to say it with the words of Sergiovanni, “school character flourishes when the lifeworld is the generative force for determining the systems world, and school character erodes when the systems world is the generative force for determining the lifeworld” (Sergiovanni 2000, p.ix). Analyzing and understanding the character of our own school can help to understand if the standardization processes are pulling it away from its vital worlds. To this end it can be useful to try to define the cultural and pedagogical frame of a school analyzing the documents of the institute, the quality of the relationships school-family-territory, the cultural initiatives, some eventual solidarity assistance, activity of support to the parenthood, environmental projects. It can as well be useful to try reading the explicit curriculum (annual programming and course plan) and the implicit curriculum that hides itself for example in the daily work that the teachers realize in the classroom, made visible in the notebooks, in posters and in all the works exposed in the classrooms and the halls, in the way the places are decorated, the daily activities, the structure and organization of the spaces. Moreover it can be profitable to organize focus group or to prepare and submit questionnaires helping to gather the opinions and the convictions that guide the teachers in their job.

When in the school we refer to the quality of the culture, to the world of values, the expression of needs, desires and the hopes of the persons who in it interact, we are speaking about the lifeworld. It is the basis for the development of the social and intellectual forms and of the human capital, that, in turn, will contribute to the development of cultural capital. The lifeworld is further enriched until it creates a cycle of cultural reproduction. The systems world constitutes instead the basis for the development of the management and of the financial and organizational capital of the school that, in turn, contributes to the development of the material capital which enriches further the systems world creating a cycle of material reproduction. On Sergiovanni’s opinion, the best solution would depend on the right balance between lifeworld and systemsworld, more than on an alternative to them. Both worlds are important to the school, yet if we want it to be the place where identity (not conformism or wish to look alike) builds up in a plural world, in coexistence and social responsibility take on, it is important that the systemsworld does not oppress the lifeworld.

In the attempt to better explain the construct of vital world it can be useful to resume the thought of Habermas. He lists three dimensions related to the lifeworld: the culture, the community and the person. Culture represents the learning, the knowledge and the system of norms from which we draw signification. The community allows you to feel the relation with the others, being part of an unique and precious social group and consequently makes you feel unique, precious and in harmony with the others. The community moreover emphasizes the sense of individual responsibility towards the common good. Referring to a person orients to the understanding and to the reaching of our way to be, it helps in the search of identity and originality, also using the individual competences. The “colonization” from the systemworld forces the three dimensions that constitute the lifeworld to face a cost. When a culture loses its value inside the school, significations and traditions crumble away and the parents, teachers and pupils risk to drift in a sea of apathy and indifference. When in a school the community sense is attenuated, the sense of belonging weakens and the fact that you feel part of something important and that you have common objective and scopes lose sense. The parents, the teachers and the pupils feel disconnected, they feel mystified and lonely. When the person loses its authentic meaning, in the school, the parents, the teachers and the pupils feel alienation, dropping up, disengagement for themselves, the school and their job. Apathy and poor engagement are closely connected and they become part of the vicious circle of the lifeworld deterioration. Many searches, in particular in the United States, have put in evidence that the strengthening of the standards, the renewal of the curricula, the renewal of the instruction systems and of the school organization, the renewed system of teachers training, do not seem to be strong enough, by themselves, to struggle against apathy and against the insufficient level of preparation that we often find in the schools.

Supporting the lifeworld in a school means to think about a curriculum whose operating modalities allow a great deal of development of interpersonal relationships, and to the improving of teaching and learning systems of cooperative type. It is necessary to stimulate not only the learning by the discovery, the consideration in action, the elaboration of a flexible thought, the negotiation of meanings and the shared construction of knowledge, but also the development of abilities and social competences aiming to common objectives and the experimentation of democratic modalities managing the group section, the class and the school. Cultivating the lifeworld in a school means caring about the professional growth of the teachers, trying the co-planning of the didactic activities (teachers and parents), promoting the typical organizational modalities of a collective community and professional practises with high exchanges of reports about the experiences carried out, and where opportunities about collaborative

work and group thinking practises are frequent. To increase the value of the vital worlds of a school can be realized also in actions of shared leadership: this one is characterized by a reciprocity of obligations and responsibility, and by an authentic evaluation, meaning the refusal of the standardization and promoting the overcoming of practical didactics referring to “average” requested standards and to imaginary “average” pupils. It is a setting encouraging the consideration of the processes, which can move on a plan of a qualitative and interpretative survey and is in a position to create research instruments based on observation.

From the organizational point of view, this model of school can be developed through plans aiming to establish a moral culture and to work around shared values.

It is fundamental however to involve the parents and to encourage pupils and families to propose themselves for voluntary service activity, thus cultivating the social solidarity and consolidating inclusive attitudes and acceptance of diversity.

(1) Thomas J. Sergiovanni is Professor of Education at the Trinity University, San Antonio, Texas, since many years he’s caring about community school and has encouraged the carrying out of several experiences in Texas.

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AESTHETIC EDUCATION AND EVERYDAY BEAUTY

Univ. reader PhD Venera-Mihaela COJOCARIU,
“Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, venera_1962@yahoo.com

Abstract

Achieving aesthetic education appears to have entered obscurity in the age of overestimating technology and scientific knowledge. At the same time, and corresponding to these trends, many of the finalities of aesthetic education are achieved non-formally and, particularly informally, which may cause unexpected effects and, why not, with an axiologic bipolar impact upon the shaping of human personality. The current study aims at answering the following questions: 1. What is aesthetic education? 2. What are its objectives? 3. What do we mean by contemporary expansion of the aesthetic? 4. What is everyday beauty? 5. How do we meet everyday beauty? 6. What are the effects of meeting everyday beauty upon achieving the objectives of aesthetic education?

By articulating the answers, we expect to detect some suggestions so that we may provide the entire process of aesthetic education extending beyond the artificial barriers between the formal, non-formal and informal space of achieving it.

Key words: *aesthetic, aesthetic education, everyday beauty*

1. What is aesthetic education?

The precise delineation of the concept of aesthetic education requires a simple etymological approach for the word “aesthetic”. This leads to the discovery of its Greek roots, according to which “aisthetikos” means “something that addresses feeling, inner vibration” (5, p. 174). In everyday language, the word aesthetic is assimilated to the adjective beautiful, also found in DEX, where the adjective “aesthetic” means that trait of beauty which meets with the requirements of aesthetics (9, p. 348). From the perspective of aesthetics, it is a *fundamental notion*, which particularizes itself under, at least three shapes: *natural aesthetics* – shapes (flowers, leaves, clouds, waterfalls, cliffs), colours, rhythms, landscapes, views, acoustic phenomena (the song of birds, the sound of waterfalls, the roaring of the storm), grand natural landscapes (sunset or sunrise, full moon, night at sea, unleashed storm); *social life aesthetics* – the beauty of clothes, outfit, voice, interpersonal relationships, work products, parties, meals, shop

windows, homes, interiors; *art aesthetics* – the authentic rendering of reality by each author.

Psychologically speaking and unlike intellectual, moral, technological or psycho-motric education, *aesthetic education* meets another type of human specific need, a subjective need of feeling and emotion, of access to a different value which should, first of all, ensure inner harmony and after that outside harmony, the merging of the subjective with the objective, the value of BEAUTY (2, p.?). This is one of “man’s existential ways” and its purpose is that of “making one feel, vibrate, and thus, identify oneself with it” (apud 4, p. 127). In this respect, we agree with the synonymous meaning of aesthetic education, “*education by and for beauty*”. The psychological, ontological and gnosiologic arguments (5, p. 92-95) highlighted by the pedagogic literature prefigure the necessary scale to justify the importance and value of complete training in the making of the human personality.

2. What are the objectives of aesthetic education?

The aim and / or essence of aesthetic education are generated on the long term, transcending the purely aesthetic sphere and extending to provide certain socio-cultural and professional behaviours. Approaching them can be achieved on a continuum marked by a minimum (as restricted meaning), meaning “the development and education of aesthetic and artistic behaviour” and a maximum (as broad meaning) stated as “social integration, developing awareness of a common cultural heritage, a common cultural identity” (5, p. 97).

The levels that will customize the finalities of aesthetic education as objectives can be highlighted as being the following (6, p. 316-317):

1. the *informative – theoretical* level aiming at aesthetic training, aesthetic instrumentation by familiarization with *knowledge* of various art fields as well as knowledge of certain skills and abilities necessary to conduct the process of creation (knowledge of: trends and styles, art history, the life and work of great artists, the language of arts, the philosophy of art, techniques of combining colours, tones, proportions, composition or interpretation);

2. the *formative – applicative* level that is achieved through *direct contact with an aesthetic object*; it refers to *perceiving beauty, experiencing certain aesthetic emotions* and *the impact they have upon the evolution in time of human personality*. In this way, the receiver is raised to awareness and his/her experience is enriched by releasing feeling and aesthetic emotion.

Sinking lower into this taxonomy of aesthetic education finalities we enter the realm of its objectives, highlighting the following categories:

1. *General objectives* (3, p. 110):

a. *perceiving beauty* in art, society, nature by way of sensory (aesthetic perception), rational (aesthetic knowledge), affective (aesthetic feelings), motivational (aesthetic interests) means integrated in the aesthetic taste;

b. *assessing beauty* in art, society, nature by forming aesthetic attitudes and the aesthetic decision-making (“aesthetic judgment”);

c. *creating beauty* in art, society, nature, at the level of process-product-general trait of the human personality, with an individual, particular, social significance.

This view is fully convergent with the hypostases of the finalities of education envisaged by such teachers as *Ștefan Bârsănescu* and, later, *G. Văideanu* (apud 2, p. ?):

1. training for tasting the work of art; training for reproducing the work of art; training for creating a work of art; forming aesthetic judgement;

2. building the capacity of perceiving beauty; building the capacity for appreciating beauty; training the aesthetic attitude to create beauty (apud 6, p.180).

2. The *specific objectives* should be established starting from the skill level of students and, from this perspective, they can be grouped into (5, p. 99-100):

a. *objectives aimed at training the ability to perceive and appreciate aesthetic values*, concerning the hypostasis of *receiver* and *interpreter* of aesthetic values and, by this, concerning all students. This implies:

- identifying and cultivating the *aesthetic sense of* beauty or the natural inclination towards it;
- forming the *aesthetic taste*, the ability to spontaneously capture beauty, to react spontaneously to the aesthetic object by a sense of satisfaction or dissatisfaction;
- forming *aesthetic judgment* or the capacity to deliberate upon aesthetic objects and rank them in a value based field according to certain criteria;
- forming *aesthetic attitude*, as a constant personality trait, as a means of relating the individual to the world.

b. *objectives aimed at developing the capacity to create aesthetic values*, concerning the hypostasis of *creator of beauty* aiming thus at students with special skills in various fields of aesthetics. This involves:

- identifying and cultivating *aesthetic skills*;
- forming *skills and abilities* required by the particularities of creation in various fields of art;
- assimilating *the techniques of artistic creation*;
- cultivating the individual style, that of *originality*;

From I. Nicola’s point of view, the specific objectives are summarized as follows (6, p.312-316):

1. *educating aesthetic attitude* – expressed by a set of spiritual reactions of man to aesthetic values. Its distinctive note is given by the *subjective degree and intensity of the receiver's participation in the process of assimilating the aesthetic message*. It aims at and it is based on satisfying certain subjective pleasures, aspirations, curiosities and delights, being a “subjective synthesis of the concrete sensorial, emotionality and rationality” (ibidem, p. 313). At its base lies a specific interest, *the aesthetic interest*. Its nature is strictly separate from any other interest in that its effects relate only to *the person's subjectivity*, which it raises to awareness through such manifestations as pleasure, delight, devotion, self-abandonment. The elements of aesthetic attitude are: *aesthetic taste, aesthetic judgment, aesthetic ideal, aesthetic feelings and beliefs*.

2. *developing creative skills* can be achieved *particularly*, with reference to various fields of art, and *generally, building creative predisposition in daily activity* (arranging the room, the table, the garden, interpersonal relationships). Any of these instances involve the following steps: identifying predispositions, practicing and developing them in favourable conditions.

We believe that this relatively extensive and comparative clarification of the objectives of aesthetic education is useful to our approach because it will finally allow us to highlight the way in which everyday beauty contributes to achieving some of them.

Moreover, we remain consistent in assessing, as we did on other occasions (2, p. ?), that in a time of kitsch, violence, megalomania and vulgarity boom, the aesthetic education initiatives seem to increase their *therapeutic virtues*. They can discreetly bring to the attitudinal and behavioural plan of everyday life values such as balance, measure, tolerance, grace, sublime by means of universally recognised and appreciated means in the field of arts, but also by means of experiencing everyday beauty and of making the best use of it.

For the contemporary world, achieving the objectives of aesthetic education can be both a source of tranquillity, beauty, peace and inter-acquaintance and a gateway towards “establishing one's own cultural identity and integration within humanity” (5, p. 181). At the same time, aesthetic education can also act as a binder in the process of forming human personality, as far as rigor, technicism and pragmatism characteristic of intellectual, moral and technological education must be balanced and restructured according to the learner's affectivity, sensitivity and emotional dimension.

3. What do we mean by contemporary expansion of the aesthetic?

We start from Grigore Smeu's statement that, in the contemporary world, “the claims and seductions of the aesthetic have significantly

exceeded the classical theories of art, seeing dramatic expansions in the dynamic version of the daily life” (7, p. 297). And then, on this background, we term as the contemporary expansion of the aesthetic the process of *increasing (awareness of) the presence and the impact of the aesthetic in the different spheres of social life* (1, p. 422-425). Basically, it is impossible to think of any reality of everyday life (from the shape of the alarm clock to the design of the toothbrush or of the daily cup of coffee, from the supermarket label of the product to the advertisement, from the cut and colors of clothing to the means of accomplishing verbal and non-verbal communication) as being outside the sphere of the aesthetic. However, exactly the same thing can be said about the expansion of ugliness. The two antonymous realities can be seen in a permanent conflict, in a struggle for supremacy and conquest of new territories (especially young!!!), generating sometimes distressing effects by the prevalence of non-values and sometimes positive ones particularly by highlighting opposites and through the emulation produced with a view to annihilating and overcoming ugliness. If the central value of the aesthetic is beauty, then this type of beauty is ubiquitous (but not always acknowledged in our daily activities), it is *everyday beauty* and its opponent, forever lurching and willing to multiply itself, is everyday ugliness. In this way, everyday aesthetics does not reveal itself only as a matter of study or reflection but it represents a complicated and expressive problem of modern culture (7, p. 298)

4. What is everyday beauty?

Logically speaking, everyday beauty is a *species and a genre concept at the same time*. As a *species concept*, it is the third form of beauty, besides artistic and social life beauty, thereby it is clear that the degree of “removal” from “absolute beauty” is the highest in relation to the other two, this also being the expression of its “impure” nature as well as its maximum degree of accessibility.

As a *genre concept*, it subsumes a variety of related concepts, as we shall see from the following numerous examples. It is that *species of beauty* which accompanies us daily in our actions, which can be spotted at all levels and all action plans (*intrapsychically*– we are able to experience beautiful thoughts or feelings - and *interindividually* – we are able to have a beautiful group of friends and beautiful ways of communicating; *economically* – we create beautiful products and packagings or we come across beautiful shop windows and buses – and *politically* – we provide a nice media coverage for a candidate or we can construct beautiful speeches; *naturally* – sunset, as well as a child’s smile, is beautiful; *socially* – our relationships with the others and our mutual responses can be beautiful; *artistically* - a theatre or concert performance is beautiful).

Everyday beauty is also that kind of beauty that may *have a profound and unexpected impact* upon the formation of personality, by its very ubiquity (but insufficiently acknowledged) (7, p. 298) but also by the specific of its influences (silent, not always announced, sometimes lacking in systematization, discreet most of the times, frequently informally achieved, but also permanent, and thus, very strong). Therefore, everyday beauty is rather “felt” as a “mute presence, a kind of generic implication” (7, p. 301) than as an explicit reality, but precisely through this capable of subtle influences.

From this perspective, it appears as a *combined and multiple form of beauty*, with a prevalence of beauty from one of the fields, being sometimes difficult to delineate natural from artistic or social beauty precisely because daily social life implicitly leads to extensions, mixtures, and mutual contaminations. *Metissage*, as a characteristic of contemporary aesthetics, brings about a mixture of forms and criteria, and everyday beauty can be regarded as a product generated by it. For example, although *the beauty of the relationship between teacher and his/her students* expresses a predominantly social beauty, it also has an artistic part (depending on the “art of conversation” and/or the “art of persuasion”), as well as one belonging to natural beauty (extrovert temperament, middle tone of voice or the teacher’s luminous face); *the beauty of human faces*, although predominantly expressing natural beauty, can also impress as a result of a permanent coexistence in a social environment characterized by certain facial beauty criteria (European, African, Asian), thus becoming socially or artistically impregnated (as a result of works of art specifically expressing the diversity and uniqueness of various categories of facial expressions); finally, the *beauty of a piece of music* obsessively listened to through repeated playing on a radio station throughout a day (essentially artistic in nature) turns into social beauty (which is over-advertised), and even into natural beauty as it will be hummed and interpreted by everybody according to one’s own musical skills, ear and voice. The widespread presence and integration of the *computer*, of the Internet respectively, into our professional and personal lives make it possible for this channel to become involved in the presentation / multiplication and dissemination of beauty / ugliness.

Metissage is also revealed by the way in which everyday beauty is subordinated to both aesthetics and pragmatics (the value of usefulness which also brings about, here and there, its marketing, with unexpected effects upon the maintaining of the value of beauty itself) (7, p. 302). With these characteristics, everyday beauty frames itself as *beauty relative* by its nature, but still impregnated with a certain degree of absolute, *ultra-subjectivized* (since there are no universally accepted criteria in this case!), *temporized* (with the meaning of the distinction proposed by Rosario

Assunto, apud 7, p. 310), *always subject to a rapid ontological degradation* and very liable to turn into its opposite, everyday ugliness.

5. How do we meet everyday beauty?

In our effort to answer this question, let us consider that we can suggest the following solutions:

1. *constantly, permanently, repeatedly, almost ceaselessly* (starting with waking up and until the end of the day, including while dreaming; from the domestic activities to the professional ones; from self-reflection to interpersonal relationships; from posture to the flight of birds; from the means of transport to people's faces. All we have to do is identify it!!! The eye must be trained to receive, taste, assess beauty!);
2. *massively, explosively* (If the "dose" of everyday beauty that we come across were quantifiable, we would be amazed at the many angles that it surrounds us from!!!). Only we are not always aware and open-eyed!!! (but, beware, so are things as far as ugliness is concerned!!!);
3. *directly* (through unmediated contact, with the help of all sensorial, rational, affective levers) and *indirectly* (through mediation, instrumentation: illustrations, pictures, video camera, camera, media, Internet);
4. *implicitly* (for example, when we are not interested in the glass for its beautiful shape and its usefulness, but nevertheless, the beauty in it touches us!) or *explicitly* (when we choose and set a certain glass on the table precisely because of its beauty or the beautiful feelings that the handling of such a glass brings about!);
5. *consciously* (I want it close by, I look for it, I appreciate it!!!), *semiconsciously* (I am not intentionally preoccupied but when I come across it I identify it and I find joy in it) or *unconsciously* (it is with me but I do not notice it!);
6. *prospectively* (for routine elements, as when I feverishly prepare to spend some time in my wonderful garden or in my quiet library) and *unexpectedly* (for unpredictable aspects, as when I find with amazement how beautiful the forest looks on a bright autumn day!);
7. *informally* (the range of colours in the street, the silence of the night), *non-formally* (architectonic balance, advertisements) and *formally* (arrangement of educational space, the design of learning devices) as a way of organization;
8. *with a differential impact intensity (major*, as when the design of a poster raises me to awareness, attracts me and determines me to attend a certain show; *average*, as when I am drawn by the beauty

of the park, I reflect upon this opportunity but, eventually, I find that I am not willing to give up what I had previously scheduled so that I may spend an hour on its alleys or *insignificantly*, as when although aware of the presence of a street object of decoration I pass by it indifferently, or as *effects (acceptance - stimulative*, as when after a musical audition I search for information about the singer, the composer, I listen to and experience more music of the same kind; *acceptance - indifferent*, as when I admire a certain building from the urban landscape and I move on without any other effects; *rejection*, as when I am attracted to a combination of spices well presented visually but, after documentation, I give up buying them because I realise that the colours are not natural, therefore the substances are not healthy) according to the context and the personality of the affected person;

9. *simultaneously* in relation to everyday ugliness (the beauty of nature and the garbage left behind by tourists) or *successively* (a civilized conversation followed by an avalanche of imprecations);
10. in relations of *opposition* with everyday ugliness (city enchantment compared to a street argument, the chromatic balance of a window shop compared to a model's vulgarity) or *indifference* towards it (the beauty of the sky compared to verbal violence, the design of cars compared to the vulgarity of a certain make-up style).

6. What are the effects of meeting everyday beauty upon achieving the objectives of aesthetic education?

When we confront the problem of everyday beauty, be it only succinctly analysed, with the objectives of aesthetic education, we find that the two generate a multitude of effects, of which we highlight:

- The possibility of generating certain *axiological confusions* and of remaining in a state of lack of awareness or of a mixture between values and non-values (due to their daily mixture and the frequent lack of managing the running into everyday beauty, respectively everyday ugliness by adults or aesthetically educated persons);
- The possibility of achieving a favourable impact in the formative-applicative plan by developing the capacity to receive beauty, to experience certain aesthetic emotions and to amplify their impact upon the evolution of human personality. The more frequent meetings with everyday beauty our life produces, the stronger is our belief in becoming better!!!
- Contributions to the *development of the aesthetic sense, of the natural inclination towards beauty as well as of the aesthetic taste*;
- *Stimulating aesthetic feelings*, human sensitivity generally;

- *Developing a taste for beauty* by integrating and making the most of various means (sensory, rational, affective, motivational);
- *Generating/developing aesthetic attitudes and judgments* (to a probabilistic degree!!!);
- *Encouraging the creation of beauty*, on the level of process – product – personality trait, with a prevailing individual but also social signification through the valorization of aesthetic skills;
- *Extending the therapeutic virtues* of aesthetic values;
- Turning everyday beauty from a tool of aesthetic education into its aim, from the perspective of articulating (unique, sensitive, subjective) individuality with (the global, “cold”, objective) society.

7. Conclusions and suggestions

In conclusion, as we believe has been shown, even the mere meeting with everyday beauty, unguided and unmanaged by qualified persons, can *make significant contributions to the achievement of the objectives of aesthetic education.*

Nevertheless, perceiving everyday beauty, experiencing it and its impact upon the human personality occur *differentially*, having as *a foundation the landmarks of aesthetic education formally* received in school and family. If these had been thoroughly and authentically achieved, then there exist all the prerequisites for the positive effects of everyday beauty to amplify, as well as the reaction of rejecting and marginalizing everyday ugliness. In the absence of these frail landmarks or foundations, there cannot be any separation between value and non-value, a confusion of values may arise and even a wrong choice which, as it is not adjusted in the desired direction, may become an axiological option induced by the everyday living environment.

It becomes more than obvious that there remains (and all the more so!), in the context of the contemporary expansion of the aesthetic, the crucial role of aesthetic school education in the initial raising to awareness of children and young people concerning aesthetic values, empowering them with the basic aesthetic criteria so that, on this basis, the reception, acceptance and experiencing of everyday beauty are possible, together with the (conscious!) rejection of everyday ugliness and amplifying the impact of everyday beauty upon the complete and balanced forming of the human personality. There remains an increasing need for specialized guidance in the direction of aesthetic education because there is a *great diversity of the level and impact of aesthetic education* received, at the level of the beneficiaries of everyday beauty. This means that, on the one hand, adults themselves constantly need counselling in this field. On the other hand, the young, in full process of

formation, should have access to genuine values so that they may have an adequate training.

On the dimension of “*How?*” can this desideratum of *complementaring formal aesthetic education with the non-formal and, particularly the informal one* (implicitly, of beauty in art, nature and social life!) be achieved, we further present a few *suggestions*:

- *arranging the classroom according to beauty criteria* (irrespective of the species: artistic, social, natural) (which thus turns into everyday beauty) *with the students’ help and involvement*, by raising awareness and applying the criteria that lie at the basis of the aesthetic success of the initiative and by turning to good account the students’ creative predispositions;
- *stimulating and encouraging students to create “beautiful” products* (material or factual!) (arrangements, photographs, clothes, language, poetry, journals, behaviour, caring for plants and animals) which may become a constitutive part of their everyday life and environment;
- *encouraging certain transfers from the art world into the world of daily life in terms of product or process* (grace, balance, harmony, humour);
- *carrying out extracurricular activities* (visits, contests, camping, competitions) in environments whose aesthetic impact should be pointed out, turned to good account and, as much as possible, turned into constancy;
- *integrating certain “aesthetic chips” within* (formal or non-formal) *activities* and approaching them thorough heuristic conversation with a view to raising awareness and amplifying the impact;
- *exploiting* (by all means and under all forms!) *the opportunities provided by computers and the media to the full* in order to increase the degree of spreading everyday beauty in the daily environment as well as in as many interpersonal relationships as possible.

Therefore, we consider that the effort of both artists and trainers should exceed their distinctive activity and their professional environment so that they may provide, on the one hand, the arts’ “going out” into the streets and life to everybody’s and the entire daily environment’s advantage (theatre or street animation, is a good practice in this respect!), as well as their “entry” in as many personal life situations as possible, for a harmonious personal and professional development.

We are convinced that willingly, knowingly and systematically impregnating the daily context with real aesthetic values, together with the generalized and gathered reaction of all the qualified and able instances against everyday ugliness may constitute levers for human balance, emotional recovery and acceding to happiness

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THE TAXONOMY OF COGNITIV OBJECTIVES – A CONTINUE CHALLENGE FOR MODERN DIDACTIC

Univ. reader Valentin Cosmin BLÂNDUL,
University of Oradea, Romania, bvali73@yahoo.com

Abstract

In a curricular conception, the most important components of learning process are the educational objectives, all the other elements (informational content, didactic strategies, lessons or teaching-learning-evaluation activities) being projected in according with them. The most frequent used educational objectives are those from cognitive area. In this sense, projection of the objectives is made in according with Bloom's taxonomy, which hierarchical organizes these objectives in 6 main levels: knowledge, comprehension, application, analyze, synthesis and evaluation. In the present paper, we will describe this taxonomy, comparative with Revised Bloom's Taxonomy Model – a new approach of objectives' projection in contemporary didactic.

Key-concepts: *education, process of learning, didactic objectives, model, Bloom's taxonomy*

The problem of scholar curriculum

The majority specialists from Romanian' educational area considers that real curricular reform began since scholar year 1998 / 1999. The research in this field and reform promoted especially by World Bank have sooner a diagnosis function to create some favorable premises for curricular reform. From the main Romanian learning system weakness, S. Cristea (2006) mentions: excessive theorization of taught content (which can break up pupils from real life), professors teach using so many exposed didactic methods (some of them seem like a "speaking manual"), excessive administrative centralization (state had a decisive role for establishing national scholar curriculum in according with Romanian educational ideal), so on. In fact, the reform process refers at those structural and functional changes of one system which help it to become more and more effective (S. Cristea, 2006).

Another concept which was promoted during the reform process is represented by "scholar curriculum". Even if from historic point of view, the concept is old (etymologic, it become from Latin and means "race"),

however, in pedagogic literature it was used since a short time (beginning with 19th Century and more, in Romanian-one, from middle of '90's). We will not insist upon the multiple definitions of curriculum, but we will observe that in limited sense, this concept includes the content of learning process together with scholar documents which reflect it, while, in large sense, curriculum includes the ensemble of pupils all learning experience offered by school in more or less organised framework (V. Chis, 2001, Musata Bocos, 2002). In according with C. Cucos (2006, p. 182), scholar curriculum supposed a complex interdependence between following aspects:

- specific objectives for some educational field / level of learning, profile, scholar discipline, didactic activities;
- educational or informational content which is necessary to accomplish the established objectives;
- projection and organisation of educational-instructive process;
- evaluation of scholar progress.

In fact, these approaches offer a complete vision upon one of the most important difference between the traditional and curricular models of education. S. Cristea (2006) remarks that pedagogic projection (viewed as a theory and practice of instructional process elaboration at all its level) is based on following two models:

A) Traditional model:

- ◆ is focused especially on taught content which subordinate all the others didactic components;
- ◆ the relationships between those components are not very clear;
- ◆ the objectives are established in function of informational content;
- ◆ teachers evaluate the content learned by pupils;
- ◆ the formative aspects are not very clear;
- ◆ teachers and pupils develop and use the informative competences.

B) Curricular model:

- ◆ is focused on the objectives (having a formative role);
- ◆ the content is selected and organized according with the objectives;
- ◆ the didactic strategies are reported at projected objectives and content as well;
- ◆ the evaluation process is formative and is made in according with objectives and content;
- ◆ the evaluation strategies are integrated with all teaching-learning ones;

- ◆ curricular model is reported at actual and prospective needs of person and society, trying to establish an equilibrium between general and professional culture;
- ◆ curricular model tries to develop the pupils' and professors' personality, organizing in a coherent way all learning experience and, also, using all educational forms.

Analyzing these two models, we can observe that for traditional one, the accent is put on content (and, of course, on the informative dimension), while that, for curricular model, the accent is put on the objectives (and, of course, on the formative dimension). In fact, one of the essential characteristics of instructive-educational process is their orientation function by the educational aims, which are concretized by scholar performances. For the didactic process to become more efficient, M. Ionescu (2005) suggests organize the didactic activity so that problems regarding to content and teaching-learning strategies to be solved function to established objectives and obtained performances. In this way, it will be established a relationship between aims and objectified behavior, which means that educational objectives must clearly mention the desirable behavior of pupils. These results will be permanent evaluate and correct in according with the mention objectives.

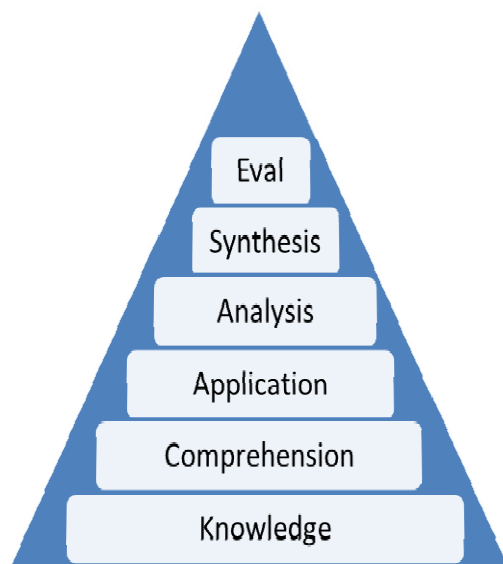
The traditional Model of Bloom's taxonomy

It's well-known that when professors make a project for lessons, they don't put the objectives in a random order, but they respect a very precise succession for them. The objectives' taxonomy – concept which from etymologic point of view became from “taxisi” = order and “nomos” = law – means hierarchical organization on different levels, every one including the properties of inferior levels, being satisfy the quantitative and also the qualitative accumulation criteria in the main filed of learning (cognitive, affective and psycho-motor area) (V. Chis, 2001). The most practice taxonomy is B.S. Bloom's one composed from a single dimension, which describe the cognitive process involved in learning activities, in according with their complexity' levels. Very often, the Romanian' learning system uses the objectives from cognitive area which refers to acquisition of knowledge. The objectives was organized in hierarchical system and described in the following way (Mary Pickard, 2007):

1. *Knowledge* – means learning of different terminology, factual dates, principles, theories, so on;
2. *Comprehension* – means content' transposition and interpretation;
3. *Application* – using different knowledge in some concrete situations;

4. *Analyze* – means content decomposing in its constitutive elements and establishing the relationships between them;
 5. *Synthesis* – recomposing and creating something new;
 6. *Evaluation* – means elaborating judgments about some content based on more or less precise criteria.
- Graphic, this taxonomy could be represented in Picture 1.

Picture 1 *Bloom's Taxonomy of objectives from cognitive area*



The Revised Bloom's Taxonomy Model

However, the scholar practice and, sometimes, the pedagogic literature show a few limits of Bloom's taxonomy. One of the most important limits is that Bloom's taxonomy creates an artificial "break" between first and last 3 hierarchical levels. Concrete, in their didactic activity, many professors use the objectives which can be included in knowledge, comprehension and, sometimes, application, stimulating in this way for their pupils only cognitive process from inferior levels. This category of professors will teach using especially the traditional and not so active didactic strategies and will evaluate the pupils' scholar progress so that they will have to accept (usually resigned) the teachers' verdict. Those professors who project the educational objectives from superior taxonomic levels (analyze, synthesis and evaluation), will develop for their pupils some cognitive process from higher level, which allowed them to divergent and critical product any information or problems. In their current didactic activities, this category of professors will very often use some interactive teaching-learning strategies and a

formative evaluation which can be expressed by self-evaluation / inter-evaluation (Bocoş, M., 2002).

Starting with this limits, accepted by B.S. Bloom as well, the author tried to revise his own taxonomic conception, in according with request of modern learning process, but also with a new challenges of science and technique. It results a revised taxonomy of cognitive objectives, which can be expressed in the model of Revised Bloom’s Taxonomy (R.B.T.) and described in details by Mary Pickard (2007, pp. 45-54). So, R.B.T. Model intends to help teachers clarify and communicate their own expectations regarding at what pupils learn as a result of instructive-educational process. Therefore, R.B.T. Model is more pragmatic comparative with previous version, including not only cognitive process involved in learning activity, but obtained knowledge / competences as well. The principal new element introduced by R.B.T. Model is represented by trying to project the educational objectives functions of two dimensions: involved cognitive process and accumulated knowledge ones.

The cognitive process dimension from R.B.T. Model starts from pupils active implication requested in learning and in developing of their own behavior. The authors of cognitive theories consider that efficiency of learning is parallel increasing with deeply pupils involve in this activity (Anderson, 2006). Therefore, some cognitive process using by pupils in their learning activity and describes in previous version of Bloom’s taxonomy it should be re-evaluate (Table 1). So, R.B.T. Model put more accents on measurable behaviors which describe the cognitive process. Therefore, the first level “Knowledge” was transformed into “Remember”. But the success in learning activities cannot be resume only at remember and reproduction of knowledge, being necessary that pupils prove understanding of that knowledge, their application in some new situations to described different components (including here analyses and evaluation), to make judgments regarding to learned content, but probably most important, to create some new information, using the previous experience. In this way, pupils can prove they know very well the taught content, being able not only to remember or analyze it, but also to create something new starting on it.

Table 1. *The cognitive Processing Dimension of the Revised Bloom’s Taxonomy*

<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Examples of the cognitive processes involved</i>
Remember: can the student recall or remember the information?	Define, duplicate, list, memorize, recall, repeat, reproduce state
Understanding: can the student explain ideas or concept?	Classify, describe, discuss, explain, identify, locate, recognize, report, select, translate, paraphrase
Apply: can the student use the	Choose, demonstrate, dramatize,

information in a new way?	employ, illustrate, interpret, operate, schedule, sketch, solve, use, write
Analyze: can the student distinguish between the different parts?	Appraise, compare, contrast, criticize, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, examine, experiment, question, test
Evaluate: can the student justify a stand or decision?	Appraise, argue, defend, judge, select, support, value, evaluate
Create: can the student create new product or point of view?	Assemble, construct, create, design, develop, formulate, write

The new dimension introduced by R.B.T. Model is about to accumulated knowledge by pupils as result of learning activity (Table 2). First, it's about some factual knowledge (terminology, components of different elements and so on), by which pupils must remember using their memory. Conceptual knowledge is more complex than factual ones, including 3 subtypes: classifications and categorizations, principles and generalizations and last, but not least, theories, models and structures. To prove to accomplish of this level, pupils have to explain the learned concepts with their own words and transfer / use them in different new and various contexts. Procedural knowledge become from factual and conceptual ones and include: skills, algorithms, methods, techniques and criteria for selection and classification of different elements. Pupils can prove acquisition if these procedural knowledge by their application in some situations or by theoretic and practical interpretation of learned content. The highest level is represented by meta-cognitive knowledge which refers at pupils abilities to know and understand learning procedure of information from different areas. From this category take part strategic knowledge, solving problem, learn "how to learn" and independent learning. Pupils can prove accomplish at this level using arguments, evaluating of learned content and, also, creating something new started with their previous experience L. Anderson, 2006, Mary Pickard, 2007).

Table 2. *The separate Knowledge Dimension of the Revised Bloom's Taxonomy*

<i>Types of Knowledge</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Factual knowledge - the basic elements students must know to be acquainted with a discipline or solve problems in it	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. knowledge of terminology b. knowledge of specific details and elements

Conceptual knowledge - the interrelationship among the basic elements within a larger structure that enable them to function together	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. knowledge of classification and categories b. knowledge of principles and generalizations c. knowledge of theories, models and structures
Procedural knowledge - How to do something, methods of inquiry, and criteria for using skills, algorithms, techniques, and methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. knowledge of subject-specific skills and algorithms b. knowledge of subject-specific techniques and methods c. knowledge of criteria for determining when to use appropriate procedures
Meta-cognitive knowledge - knowledge of cognition in general as well as awareness and knowledge of one's own cognition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. strategic Knowledge b. knowledge about cognitive tasks, including appropriate contextual and conditional knowledge. c. Self- knowledge

R.B.T. Model – according from which B.S. Bloom recommends projection of cognitive objectives – is creating by organizing those two mentioned dimensions (Table 3). As we presented in previous paragraphs, the factual knowledge supposed their remember by pupils, the conceptual knowledge need to be described / explained and meta-cognitive ones have to be evaluate with strong arguments and create something new. Therefore, when professors want to project any operational objectives, they must know these levels of learning, to establish a positive connection between this ones and knowledge and to try to accomplish including objectives from superior levels.

Table 3. *Revised Bloom's Taxonomy Model*

<i>Cognitive Process Dimension</i>	<i>Knowledge Dimension</i>			
	1. Factual	2. Conceptual	3. Procedural	4. Meta-cognitive
F. Create				F4
E. Evaluate				E4
D. Analyze				D4
C. Apply			C3	
B. Understand		B2		
A. Remember	A1			

General conclusion

As a conclusion, the taxonomy of cognitive objectives revise by B.S. Bloom offer the opportunity for professors, pupils, parents, scholar managers, all interested persons as well, to clearly anticipate the learning results, to hierarchic organize them into educational process and, finally, to evaluate them. These two dimensions of R.B.T. Model (the cognitive process and accumulated knowledge one) offer a general vision regarding the way in which must be project the lesson. Therefore, we recommend for all professors to be very careful regarding to new taxonomy and try to use it in their current didactic activities.

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LE RÔLE D'AUTOEVALUATION DANS LA FORMATION DU «PRATICIEN REFLEXIF»

Univ. reader PhD Constanța DUMITRIU,
„Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, Romania,
dumitriuconstanta@yahoo.com

Univ. reader PhD Iolanda TOBOLCEA,
„AL.I.Cuza” University of Iași, Romania, itobolcea@yahoo.com

Résumé

L'étude met en évidence quelques directions importantes sur lesquelles sont fondées les recherches dans le domaine de la formation des enseignants, de même que la pratique et le développement, chez les étudiants, de la capacité d'autoévaluation, de méta-analyse et de réflexion sur l'activité menée.

Concernant la formation des futurs professeurs en tant que véritables „praticiens réflexifs”, nous rappelons l'intérêt des spécialistes du monde entier pour la création et le développement des capacités métacognitives de l'éducateur, censées le rendre capable d'analyser ses propres pratiques, de résoudre des problèmes ou d'inventer des stratégies. La formation prend appui sur l'apport des praticiens et des chercheurs et envisage l'articulation de la théorie et de la pratique, afin de construire la capacité d'analyse, vue comme une métacompétence à même de créer d'autres compétences. Deux grilles d'autoévaluation, utilisées avec succès à l'intérieur du programme de formation des futurs professeurs, y sont présentées. L'accent y est mis sur le développement des mécanismes de réglage et de contrôle de la fonction cognitive lors de l'apprentissage, de la coopération ou de la solution des problèmes. .

Mots-clés: autoévaluation, méta-analyse, praticien réflexif, formation initiale

Les découvertes dans le domaine de la psychologie cognitive, les exigences de la professionnalisation de la carrière didactique et le rôle prépondérant eu par le modèle du „praticien réflexif” situent la capacité de métaanalyse, de réflexion à la pratique déroulée, sur les premières places dans le cadre du profil de compétences de l'enseignant actuel. „Bien qu'ils existent des personnes qui sont contre cette forme d'évaluation, il y a aussi de plus en plus adeptes de celle-ci, surtout après l'utilisation prometteuse du portfolio.” (Seldin, 1991, apud. Tremblay, p. 39). C'est vrai que les études réalisées dans cet espace problématique ont mis en évidence le fait que

l'utilisation compétente du portfolio pour la monitorisation des acquisitions cognitives, affectivo-attitudinales et pratiques des étudiants qui se préparent pour la profession didactique, stimule l'apprentissage autonome, basé sur la compréhension et la réflexion, et exerce la capacité métacognitive et l'autoévaluation. L'autoévaluation se trouve dans le bénéfice de celui qui veut réfléchir à son activité, au chemin parcouru ou à parcourir. On identifie, par l'autoanalyse, les points forts et les points faibles, les aspects à corriger ou à consolider. Et, si ce principe est valable pour les élèves, il doit aussi être valable pour les enseignants trouvés dans un processus continu de développement professionnel.

La capacité de réfléchir à l'efficacité de l'activité personnelle se construit progressivement, à partir de l'enseignement primaire et pendant tous les autres niveaux de l'enseignement, par l'exercice de l'autoévaluation (faite par les élèves), par le rapport aux systèmes de référence qui définissent le rôle, la tâche et les directions de l'activité, par la compréhension graduelle des progrès et des acquisitions, par le rapport aux exigences de l'activité d'appréhension et de conduite en groupe.

Les défenseurs de l'autoévaluation montrent que son but est d'encourager les futurs enseignants à examiner de près ce qu'ils font, en répondant à quelques questions concernant l'activité déroulée. H. Berrard (1992) apprécie qu'une telle analyse est importante pour la formation professionnelle et le développement personnel de l'étudiant, parce qu'elle est basée sur un examen minutieux des forces de celui-ci et des difficultés à dépasser.

Dans ce contexte, la formation et l'exercice de la capacité d'autoévaluation chez les futurs enseignants gagnent une signification et une relevance à part, s'intégrant et facilitant, à la fois, le développement progressif des compétences évaluatives et métacognitives. „Il n'y a aucun doute qu'une évaluation, dans le cadre du processus d'enseignement ou de la formation, nécessite, de la part de ceux qui apprennent (élèves, étudiants – s.n.), la participation à son élaboration.”, apprécie A. de Peretti (1998, p. 165).

Ils ont besoin de fonder leurs propres appréciations ou adhésions sur celles de leurs enseignants, sur certains dispositifs ou instruments qui stimulent leur attention et motivation, guident leur perception, les aident à identifier la nature des difficultés, clarifient leurs profils d'acquisition et de progrès, en leur assurant un cadre de référence personnalisée. L'auteur propose un échantillon diversifié d'instruments qui peuvent aider non seulement l'apprenti mais aussi les enseignants (trouvés dans le processus de la formation continue), la majorité de ces instruments étant élaborés et expérimentés par les enseignants et les formateurs. On présente aussi des instruments d'autoévaluation pour chaque discipline didactique, qui

permettent l'observation du développement des connaissances et des aptitudes, et quelques exemples d'instruments d'évaluation interactive.

Marie – Christine Tremblay (1998) propose et expérimente une grille d'autoévaluation, vue comme l'instrument de réflexion des enseignants à leur activité didactique, en partant d'un profil de compétences du personnel didactique de l'enseignement secondaire. La compétence sur laquelle l'auteur s'arrête est ainsi exprimée: qu'il enseigne/instruise dans une perspective de formation fondamentale. On a décelé quatre éléments de cette compétence: l'analyse de la situation éducative, la conception de l'intervention pédagogique, la réalisation de l'intervention pédagogique, le règlement de son action. On associe à chaque élément de cette compétence des actions moins générales, plus spécifiques, l'auteur parlant de cinq actions comprises dans les quatre éléments de la compétence:

1. „situer le rôle et la place du cours dans le cadre du programme” (l'élément „L'analyse de la situation éducative”);

2. „sélectionner et structurer les contenus en fonction des objectifs à atteindre et des caractéristiques de la situation” (l'élément „La conception de l'intervention pédagogique”);

3. „communiquer avec les étudiants, oralement et par écrit, dans une langue claire, précise et correcte” et

4. „présenter un contenu structuré et organisé dans une manière qui favorise la construction des propres connaissances pour les étudiants” (l'élément „La réalisation de l'intervention pédagogique”);

5. „analyser les effets de son activité pédagogique sur la formation des étudiants et, si nécessaire, adapter ses interventions ultérieures” (l'élément „Le règlement de son action”).

Chacun de ces éléments et sous éléments peut constituer un point de réflexion, un sujet à approfondir, un domaine d'introspection. On a ensuite construit un tableau de spécifications, présentant les items, dans une manière ordonnée (*des objectifs d'évaluation, leurs aspects observables, ainsi que les éléments – critères* désignés). On a finalement élaboré une grille d'analyse basée sur une échelle descriptive, les éléments – critères étant très explicites, facilitant ainsi l'activité d'observation pour le jugement du niveau de performance: compétence insuffisante, compétence minimale, compétence moyenne et compétence supérieure.

L'auteur considère cette modalité d'évaluation comme complémentaire aux autres, parce que, dans ce domaine ouvert au développement d'une culture de l'évaluation, chaque système et chaque stratégie trouvent leur place (pp. 47 – 53).

Nous rappelons dans ce contexte, nos propres recherches empiriques, réalisées dans le domaine de la construction et de l'évaluation des compétences des étudiants qui envisagent une profession didactique; les techniques et les instruments utilisés concernent:

- la connaissance, par l'étudiant, de la fonctionnalité de l'activité cognitive propre;
- la connaissance de la capacité et des mécanismes de contrôle cognitif, de projection des processus cognitifs propres, afin de réaliser un objectif déterminé;
- les mécanismes de réglage et de contrôle de la fonction cognitive, de réglage de l'apprentissage et du fonctionnement de la pensée dans une situation de solution de problèmes (Dumitriu, 2003; 2007; 2009).

Nous présenterons, à la suite, quelques procédés d'autoévaluation que nous avons conçus, adaptés et appliqués dans notre propre démarche d'expérimenter le modèle évaluatif centré sur le portfolio, dans le cadre du programme de formation initiale des futurs enseignants.

L'autoévaluation de mon activité d'étudiant pendant tout le semestre

Réponds par: Oui, Non, Parfois

No. crt.	Items	Oui	Non	Par fois
1.	L'activité personnelle de préparation			
1.1.	Avant les cours, j'organise et réactualise mes cahiers			
1.2.	Quand je m'absente, je m'informe immédiatement sur ce qu'on a enseigné			
1.3.	Je réalise le contenu de mon portfolio conformément aux demandes et aux termes fixés au début du semestre			
1.4.	Je vais à la bibliothèque pour me documenter, tenant compte de la bibliographie recommandée			
1.5.	Je viens aux cours et aux séminaires			
1.6.	Je cherche des illustrations, des graphiques, des documents que j'inclus dans le portfolio			
1.7.	Je fais sérieusement mon devoir parce que cela m'aide à comprendre les concepts, les aspects théoriques			
2.	Mon activité et mon attitude dans le groupe			
2.1.	J'aime apprendre, écouter et travailler pendant les cours et les séminaires			
2.2.	J'interviens fréquemment (par des questions) pour mieux comprendre			
2.3.	Je préfère travailler en de petits groupes parce que cela me motive			
2.4.	Le bruit me dérange quand je travaille			
2.5.	Je m'annonce parmi les premiers à présenter les solutions aux problèmes mis			
2.6.	Pendant l'activité frontale, je respecte le silence, je sais écouter celui qui parle, sans l'interrompre			
2.7.	Pendant l'activité par groupes, je parle avec de calme, j'écoute les opinions/arguments de mes collègues			
2.8.	Je m'efforce à résoudre les tâches/devoirs le plus créatif-			

	vement possible			
3.	(L'auto)contrôle			
3.1.	Je me prépare pour chaque séminaire dans l'éventualité d'une courte évaluation			
3.2.	L'évaluation m'aide à me rendre compte si j'ai bien compris et si j'ai suffisamment travaillé			
3.3.	Constamment, je revois plusieurs cours, devoirs, en vue de la vérification partielle annoncée préalablement			
3.4.	Quand je prends une petite note, je cherche à comprendre Quelle en a été la cause			

Efficientes pour l'exercice et le développement de la capacité d'autoévaluation et de la compétence métacognitive de l'étudiant sont aussi les grilles de niveau pour la coévaluation formateur – étudiant. Nous nous arrêterons sur l'une de celles-ci.

Grille de niveaux pour une coévaluation enseignant (formateur) – étudiant

Demande: mettez un X devant la situation constatée. Refaire le test aura comme but l'atteinte du niveau 5 dans chaque domaine.

No.	Items	Etu- diant			Enseig- nant				
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
		5	6	7	5	6	7		
I	La pensée critique								
1.	Ne manifeste aucune curiosité								
2.	Exige des explications complémentaires								
3.	Est capable d'expliquer un phénomène/une situation observé(e)								
4.	Est d'accord ou pas, mais sans pouvoir argumenter								
5.	Exige des justifications, conteste en argumentant								
II	La participation								
1.	Ne manifeste jamais l'intérêt de répondre								
2.	Ne répond que si nécessaire								
3.	Participation explosive et incohérente								
4.	Participation spontanée, inconsistente, mais cohérente								
5.	Toujours prêt à répondre, à accomplir une tâche d'une manière réflexive								
III	La persévérance, la volonté								
1.	Arrête son travail devant la moindre difficulté								
2.	Recommence après un premier échec si on le lui demande								
3.	Recommence spontanément après un échec								
4.	Continue à travailler en dépit de nombreux échecs								
5.	N'est jamais intimidé par la difficulté et le volume du travail								
IV	L'effort personnel								

1.	Ne fait toujours ce qu'on lui demande		
2.	Déroule son activité sans tenir compte de la qualité de son travail		
3.	Est préoccupé de la chose bien faite		
4.	Recourt à toutes les infos qui pourraient l'aider à bien accomplir ses tâches		
5.	Accomplit sa tâche faisant appel aux infos supplémentaires afin de l'enrichir dans sa manière propre		
V	La préoccupation pour la présentation		
1.	N'est pas du tout préoccupé de l'aspect du matériel présenté		
2.	Présente des épreuves réécrites et/ou avec d'effacements		
3.	Présentation soignée, mais pas efficace		
4.	Fait de grands efforts pour l'organisation et la présentation		
5.	Présente une épreuve parfaitement organisée		
VI	L'attitude d'écouter		
1.	A une attitude rêveuse lorsque l'enseignant ou un collègue parlent		
2.	Intervient spontanément dans les discussions, mais en dehors du sujet		
3.	Intervient quand il doit le faire, mais sans répondre au problème posé		
4.	Intervient quand il doit le faire, en formulant une réponse sur le même sujet		
5.	Intervient quand il doit le faire, en faisant référence aux arguments exposés antérieurement		
VII	La créativité		
1.	Est capable de tout reconnaître, mais sans être créatif		
2.	Est capable de reproduire un(e) ou plusieurs procédés, contenus, solutions		
3.	Est capable de choisir la procédure ou la notion adéquates		
4.	Est capable d'utiliser différemment les notions étudiées		
5.	Est capable de proposer de nouvelles solutions		

(apud. André De Peretti, 1998, pp. 219-220).

La pratique éducationnelle et les propres recherches dans ce domaine ont démontré que la démarche de la construction des compétences autoévaluatives est réalisable si l'on respecte quelques conditions:

- la connaissance par les étudiants, dès le début de l'activité, des objectifs curriculaires et d'évaluation qu'ils doivent atteindre ;
- l'encouragement des étudiants à se poser de questions concernant le moyen de résoudre une tâche, les effets formatifs de celle-ci et la rédaction par écrit des réponses à ces questions;

- la présentation claire, dès le début de l'activité, des techniques d'évaluation qui seront utilisées, des standards et des critères d'appréciation;
- la stimulation de l'évaluation dans le cadre du groupe;
- la complétion, à la fin d'une tâche, des questionnaires structurés sur des questions à réponse ouverte, sur des échelles de classification et sur l'élaboration d'un essai (à la fin du semestre) visant la démarche propre d'élaborer et soutenir le portfolio.

Par la fréquente utilisation des instruments décrits, l'enseignant peut surprendre l'évolution de l'étudiant sur le plan du développement psychoaffectif et de la construction de ses compétences professionnelles; l'autoévaluation devient ainsi moyen de formation et résultat de l'action pédagogique.

Michel Vial, s'arrêtant sur la nature et la fonction de l'autoévaluation dans le dispositif de formation (1998), avance la supposition suivante: si l'évaluation formative est un dispositif de „mise” en projet des acteurs par la pratique de négociation et de règlement continu, instrumenter l'autoévaluation lui permettra de rester dans l'évaluation formative, évitant la dérivation qui consiste dans la reproduction des conduites relevantes pour l'évaluation sommative. Cela, à condition que le formateur utilise ses rôles (arbitre, médiateur, négociateur) pour résoudre les conflits provoqués par „la déstabilisation” nécessaire à l'acquisition. Par conséquent, la négociation serait le principe de base, déterminant le dispositif d'évaluation formative, et l'autoévaluation, un élément essentiel du dispositif „d'évaluation – règlement”, comme Bonniol le nomme, ce système de règlements étant „le témoin de la dynamique de la formation”.

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THEORETICAL OVERVIEWS ON SELF-REGULATED LEARNING STRATEGIES

Lecturer PhD Cristina - Corina BENȚEA,

Department for Teacher Training, “Dunarea de Jos” University of Galati,
Romania, corina.stir@yahoo.com

Abstract

Self-regulated learning refers to the processes by which individual learners attempt to monitor and control their own learning. Self-regulated learning involves learning strategies and mental processes that learners deliberately engage to help themselves learn and perform better academically. Many researchers have agreed with the importance of self-regulated learning for students at all academic levels. The self-regulation skills can be taught in different ways, learned, and controlled. Students can be taught to become more self-regulated learners by acquiring specific strategies that are both successful for them and that enable them to increase control over their own behavior and environment. The individual set of common self-regulation strategies that are usually used by successful students are divided in three categories: personal, behavioral and environmental strategies. The teachers must help students to gain self-regulation and teach them the self-regulation strategies.

Keywords: *learning, self-regulation, self regulated learner, strategy, skill*

1. General aspects of self-regulated learning

Self-regulated learning is a frequently use construct in researches on student performance and learning achievement. The researchers have demonstrated that self-regulated learning is associated with success in school and is viewed as a key to success in a career. Self-regulation can be defined as an integrated learning process, consists of the development of a set of constructive behaviors that affect one's learning. These processes are planned and adapted to support the attaining of personal goals in changing learning environments. Self-regulated learning refers to the processes by which individual learners attempt to monitor and control their own learning (Education Encyclopedia: Motivation: Self-Regulated Learning). The term of *self-regulation* describes learning that is guided by metacognition, strategic actions, and motivation to learn (Zimmerman, 1990; Butler & Winne, 1995; Winne & Perry, 2000; Boekaerts & Corno, 2005; Perry,

Phillips & Hutchinson, 2006, from Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia). Self-regulation refers to the use of processes that activate and sustain thoughts, behaviors, and affects in order to attain goals (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). In other words, it refers to taking charge of our own learning by coordinating the thinking skills.

Many researchers have agreed with the importance of self-regulated learning for students at all academic levels. In the educational psychology studies, researchers have identified some characteristics to success in and beyond school (Corno, et al., 2002; Pintrich, 2000; Winne & Perry, 2000). Zimmerman (1989, 1990), an expert in this area, has found that successful students report that the use of self-regulated learning strategies contributed for most of their success in school. There are many different models of self-regulated learning that propose different constructs and processes, but they do share some basic assumptions about learning and regulation. From the social cognitive perspective, the self-regulation is explained by the interaction between three factors: 1. the person with its characteristics, such as beliefs about success, 2. the behavior, such as engaging in a task, and 3. the environment with the environmental stimuli, such as helping and feedback from the teacher or peers.

Three cyclical phases seem to emerge in the acquisition of self-regulation skills. The first phase is the *forethought* which precedes the action and performance. In this phase, the learners set the stages for action, map out the tasks to minimize the unknown and develop a positive mindset. Positive and realistic expectations can make the task more interesting and accessible. Goals are set as specific outcomes, arranged in order from short-term goals to long-term goals. Practically, in this stage the learners decide when and how they will get started the activity, where they will do the work, and what are the conditions which can help them in their learning activities. The second phase is the *performance control* which involves processes during learning activity and the active attempt to use specific strategies which can help the students to become more successful. In this stage the students reflect about accomplishing what they hope to do, under what conditions and in what time they can perform, how they can encourage themselves. *Self-reflection* is the third phase which involves a self-evaluation of outcomes compared to goals and standards, the reflection after the performance. In this stage the students analyze and decide if they accomplished what they planned to do, in what time and under what conditions they attained their goals, what they did differently from their usual action, if they praised and positive motivated themselves during this time and if had a positive impact on their work (Zimmerman, Schunk & Ertmer, 2000).

Self-regulated learning has three components: self-observation, self-judgment and self-reaction (Zimmerman, 1990, 1994, 1996). So, the development of a good self-regulation usually involves three types of

personal actions: self-observation, self-judgment and self-reaction actions. The *self-observation* consists in a deliberate attention to specific aspects of one's own behaviors by systematically monitoring the own's activity and performance. Most researchers agree that the best learning occurs when someone carefully observes his own behaviors and acts upon what he has learned. The *self-judgment* supposes a self-evaluation of one's performance by systematically comparing the own's current progress and performance with a pre-established standard or a goal. The *self-reaction* to the performance outcomes consists in making evaluative responses to judgments of one's own performance, in personal processes of engaging in proximal goal-setting, metacognitive planning, structuring the environment, self-motivation by praise or criticism, behavioral outcomes, repeating, memorizing, asking for help.

2. Self-regulated learners

The self-regulated learners are defined as “metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own learning process” (Zimmerman, 1989, p. 329). The studies demonstrated the self-regulated learners have some specific and essential characteristics. So, these learners set personal goals, perform strategically, continuously monitor their progress, self-motivate and adapt their approach to better accomplish their goals. They have a repertoire of strategies which appropriately apply to the challenges of academic tasks. These self-regulated learners know about their academic strengths and weaknesses and usually have a high self-efficacy and beliefs about success (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). They hold incremental beliefs about intelligence and attribute their successes or failures to some factors as: personal effort in task, effective use of strategies within their control (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 2002). Finally, students who are self-regulated learners believe that opportunities to take on challenging tasks, practice their learning, develop a deep understanding of subject matter, and exert effort give rise to academic success (Perry et al., 2006). The degree to which subjects are motivated to self-regulate learning depends in part on their commitment to personal goals and on the self-efficacy beliefs they hold about their academic capabilities (Zimmerman, 1989, 1994). Students' level of self-regulation is highly predictive of their academic achievement not only in typical learning circumstances but also in the face of personal obstacles, such as a learning disability or an unsupportive academic environment. Learners with high levels of self-regulation have a good control over the attainment of their goals. Goals direct activities and students must learn that there are different ways to attain goals, and how to select the best way to finish a specific task.

Conscious self-regulation requires to the students to focus on the process of how to acquire self-regulation skills. According to Barry

Zimmerman (1989), self-regulated learning involves the regulation of three general aspects of academic learning. First, *self-regulation of behavior* involves the active control of the various resources students have available to them, such as their time, their study environment, the place in which they study, and their use of others such as peers and teacher to help them (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia & McKeachie, 1993). Second, *self-regulation of motivation and affective process* involves controlling and changing motivational beliefs such as self-efficacy and goal orientation, so that students can adapt to the demands of a course. In addition, students can learn how to control their emotions such as anxiety in the ways that improve their learning. Third and finally, *self-regulation of cognition* involves the control of various cognitive strategies for learning, such as the use of deep processing strategies that result in better learning and performance (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia & McKeachie, 1993).

Current researches indicate that some gifted students possess better self-regulated learning strategies than their peers (Boekaerts, 1997; Boekaerts & Corno, 2005). However gifted students may have done very well in school without using good self-regulation strategies because of a combination of their high abilities and/or an unchallenging curriculum. If learning is relatively easy for some students with less effort and organization, for another students are not so because social or personal conditions may prevent developing self-regulated learning strategies. For some students who already have some of these strategies, social or personal issues may prevent them from using them regularly and thus, they need to be helped and encouraged to do so. Some talented students with high potential need learn to strive for excellence results. These students may find it difficult to learn self-regulation when it is not taught, modeled or rewarded by the adults in their home and family. Even if students interact regularly with adults who demonstrate self-regulation, they may fail to use these skills themselves due to peer pressure or refuse to use the strategies their parents or teachers regularly employ at home or school. Compared with low achieving students, high achievers set more specific learning goals, use a variety of learning strategies, self-monitor more often, and adapt their efforts more systematically. The quality and quantity of self-regulation processes is crucial. One self-regulation strategy will not work for all students, and that the use of only a few strategies will not work optimally for a person on all tasks or occasions. It is important that students learn to use multiple self-regulatory learning skills rather than single strategy. They must also learn that their goals and their choice of self-regulation strategies have to be continually adjusted. The teachers will be able to work with students to help them shift from performance goals to move towards mastery goals, focusing on understanding the material, persisting when they are challenged or their performance fails.

The researches has shown that it is a connection between the self-efficacy beliefs and self-regulated learning. The quality of the self-regulatory skills students employ depends in part on several underlying beliefs students hold about themselves (Zimmerman, 2002). These students' beliefs are judgments of their capability to accomplish a task or succeed in an activity, or self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1977, 1986) first drew attention to the connection between self-efficacy beliefs and self-regulatory practices when he developed a social cognitive theory of human behaviour. Academic self-efficacy beliefs are influential during all phases of self-regulation. Students who believe they are capable of performing academic tasks use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies and, regardless of previous achievement or ability, work harder, persist longer, and persevere in the face of obstacles. Students with high self-efficacy also engage in more effective self-regulatory strategies. These students monitor their academic work time effectively, persist when confronted with academic challenges, incorrectly reject correct hypotheses prematurely, and solve conceptual problems. And as students' self-efficacy increases, so does the accuracy of the self-evaluations they make about the outcomes of their self-monitoring (Bouffard-Bouchard, Parent & Larivee, 1991). Pintrich and De Groot (1990) found that academic self-efficacy was related both to cognitive strategy use and to self-regulation through the use of metacognitive strategies. The researchers concluded that self-efficacy played a facilitative role in the process of cognitive engagement, that raising self-efficacy might lead to increased use of cognitive strategies and, thereby, higher performance, and that "students need to have both the 'will' and the 'skill' to be successful in classrooms" (Pintrich and De Groot, 1990, p. 38).

Studies tracing the relationship between academic self-efficacy and the self-regulatory strategy of goal setting have demonstrated that self-efficacy and skill development are stronger in students who set proximal goals than in students who set distal goals, in part because proximal attainments provide students with evidence of growing expertise (Bandura & Schunk, 1981). In addition, students who have been verbally encouraged to set their own goals experience increases in confidence, competence, and commitment to attain those goals (Schunk, 1985). Self-efficacy is also increased when students are provided with frequent and immediate feedback while working on academic tasks (Schunk, 1983) and, when students are taught to attribute this feedback to their own effort, they work harder, experience stronger motivation, and report greater efficacy for further learning (Schunk, 1987). So, self-efficacy beliefs are powerful predictors of motivational and academic practices. Zimmerman et. al. have investigated students' confidence that they possess the self-regulated learning strategies required to succeed in school. They discovered that this "self-efficacy for self-regulated learning" contributes both to students' motivational beliefs and to the academic success they

experience (Zimmerman, 1989, 1994; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990).

Self-efficacy beliefs influence the students' academic motivation through their use of self-regulatory processes such as goal setting, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and strategy use (Zimmerman, 2000). The more competent that students view themselves, the more challenging goals they select. Zimmerman, Bandura, and Martinez-Pons (1992) demonstrated that students' self-efficacy for self-regulated learning influenced the confidence they had in their academic capabilities and, through that influence, affected the final grades they obtained. Academic self-efficacy influenced achievement directly as well as indirectly by raising students' grade goals. In another study, college students' writing self-efficacy predicted the personal standards they used to judge the quality of the writing they considered self-satisfying as well as their goal setting and writing skill (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). Pajares examines the relationship between gender, self-efficacy, and self-regulated learning (Pajares, 2002). Researchers have also found that students' self-efficacy for self-regulated learning is related to motivation and achievement in academic areas such as language arts, mathematics, and science. Students' confidence in their self-regulated learning strategies is related to their academic self-concept, self-efficacy, value of school and of particular school subjects, achievement goals, and academic performances. It is also negatively related with academic and subject-specific anxiety (Pajares, 1996; Pajares, Britner & Valiante, 2000; Pajares & Graham, 1999; Pajares Miller, & Johnson, 1999; Pajares & Valiante, 1997, 1999, 2001).

3. Self-regulated learning strategies

To be successful in school and life each student must personally develop a common set of self-regulation strategies, such as planning, organizing, monitoring, and evaluating personal progress against a standard, as well as an individual set of skills. These self-regulation skills can be taught, learned, and controlled. In many classrooms, teachers assume most of the responsibility for the learning process and students may begin to depend on this learning. Students can be taught to become more self-regulated learners by acquiring specific strategies that are both successful for them and that enable them to increase control over their own behavior and environment. Students learn to decrease negative behaviors and increase positive behaviors. Therefore, students who are self-regulated must learn to continuously ask themselves "Does this strategy work for me in this situation?" In order to self-regulate, students must shift their focus from comparing their performance to peers to self-comparisons, and from being reactive to being proactive learners.

The individual set of common self-regulation strategies that are usually used by successful students are divided in three categories: personal, behavioral and environmental strategies. The *personal strategies* usually involve how a student organizes and interprets information. These strategies are: the organizing and transforming information, the goal setting, the planning setting and time management, the keeping records and monitoring, the repeating and memorizing actions. The *behavioral strategies* involve actions like the following: task analysis, self-evaluating by checking quality or progress, self-instructions and feedback, and self-consequating by self-reinforcement, self motivation and delay of gratification. The *environmental strategies* consist in structuring the environment such as change the academic task' difficulty, change the academic setting, the immediate environment and create an optimal study area. These strategies involve seeking assistance and structuring of the physical study environment like seeking information by different sources, environmental structuring by arranging the physical setting, eliminating or minimizing distractive stimuli and break up study periods and spread them over time and seeking social assistance from peers, teachers or other adults.

During a students school career the primary goal of teachers is to produce self-regulated learners by using such theories as Information Processing Model (IPM). By storing the information into long term memory the learner can retrieve it upon demand and apply to tasks, becoming a self-regulated learner. P. Schloemer and K. Brennan (2006) provide a process for developing self-regulated learning where students and the instructor collaborated in selecting personal learning goals for each student. To the extent that one accurately reflects on his or her progress toward a learning goal, and appropriately adjusts his or her actions to maximize performance, he or she has effectively self-regulated. Frequent and extensive monitoring of learning activities and progress toward goals, along with instructor feedback, promoted self-regulated learning.

4. Instructional practices for development of self-regulation strategies

B. Zimmerman (1989, 1990) provides a theoretical overview of self-regulated learning and considers prospects of developing self-regulation within novice learners. Self-regulated learning involves learning strategies and mental processes that learners deliberately engage to help themselves learn and perform better academically. Students can be proactive and engaged or, alternatively, lack initiative and responsibility for their learning. In his study, M.R. Young (2005) provides an empirical support for the theoretical relationships among cognitive evaluation theory, achievement goal theory, and self-regulated learning strategies in the school context. Superficial learning strategies were linked to extrinsic motivation, while intrinsic motivation determined usage of deep cognitive and metacognitive

strategy. Perceived autonomy, perceived competence, and task mastery orientation mediated the classroom environment's effect on intrinsic motivation. These findings suggest that active application oriented experience which provides high interaction, supportive feedback, and clear goals that emphasize learning over grades, will increase intrinsic motivation and the use of self-regulated learning strategies. Teaching guidelines and pedagogical examples for enhancing intrinsic motivation are provided by the researcher.

Self-regulation can be taught in diverse ways. Some teachers have instructed students in self-regulation learning by adapting a *Learning Academy Model* (Zimmerman, Bonner & Kovach, 1996). This model help students to focus on behavior and emphasize expert and peer modeling, direct social feedback for performance efforts, and practice routines that involve goal-setting and self-monitoring. The tutoring and coaching during actual performance efforts are very important. Students are taught to control their learning processes with self-monitoring and self-regulation. They can learn more with less effort by using the following steps: 1. evaluating of current level of mastery, 2. analyzing the learning task, 3. setting learning goals in short and long term goals, 4. choosing appropriate strategies to master material and 5. monitoring the own performance.

Learners regulate their own learning by observing what they are able to do, then comparing this what they have observed to a standard of some kind and making judgments about the quality of this performance, and finally making plans regarding what to do next. In summary, academic self-regulation includes skills such as the following (McCombs, 1989; Schunk, 1994; Zimmerman, 1994):

- Valuing learning and its anticipated outcomes
- Setting performance goals
- Planning and managing time
- Holding positive beliefs about one's abilities
- Attending to and concentrating on instruction
- Effectively organizing, rehearsing, and encoding information
- Setting up a productive work environment
- Using social resources effectively
- Focusing on positive effects
- Making useful attributions for success and failure

Starting from this approach the teachers are responsible for the following actions: a) adopt a systematic instructional self-regulatory approach to learning; b) make students consciously about their responsibility by encourage them to exercise how to accomplish learning activities, c) help students to focus their attention on their regulation learning task away from the teacher; d) demonstrate the model to the students; e) practice the model observation in structured settings; f) self-regulate by adapting to changing

personal and contextual conditions; g) demonstrate effectiveness of self-regulatory techniques by keeping records of student's progress; e) use verbal persuasion to support and encouragement students, especially when they perceive that new strategies are not good. The teaching strategies associated with the Learning Academy Model are break tasks into components, use direct assistance and explicit training, anticipate students' questions and incorporate literary and other symbolic forms of information (pictures, diagrams, formulas) link strategy use with improved performance, maintain portfolios, video or audio tape (Zimmerman, Bonner & Kovach, 1996).

The teachers must help students to gain self-regulation and teach them the self-regulation strategies. This process takes time and practice to gain effective skills. Initial efforts must be refined based on student's feedback, performance, and personal reflection. A common set of self-regulation strategies does exist and steps and lessons are designed to help and instruct students to develop their own self-regulation strategies demonstrated who are successful in school. Five common instructional practices considered as effective in helping students learn self-regulation:

1. guiding learners' self-beliefs, goal setting, and expectations consists in helping students frame new information or feedback in a positive rather than a negative manner and providing specific cues for using self-regulatory strategies;

2. stimulating and promoting a reflective dialogue consists in modeling of reflective practices by teacher (think aloud), student practice with reflective dialogue and then collaborative learning by group discussions to think through tasks;

3. providing a positive or negative corrective feedback about the task of learning, not about the learner for the purpose to help learner to clearly understand the performance standards and perceived as attainable;

4. helping learners to make connections between abstract concepts that can be done by teach them to separate relevant from irrelevant information, guiding their reference standards, using case-based instructions or examples, know where and how to self regulation and focus their attention;

5. helping learners to link new experiences to prior learning by use experiential learning activities, the application of knowledge in broader contexts and integrate real-life examples with classroom information (Zimmerman, Bonner, & Kovach, 1996).

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LA CONSERVATION SPATIALE ET LES STRATEGIES DIDACTIQUES

Assist. PhD Roxana-Maria GHIȚĂU,

“Al. Ioan Cuza” University of Iași, Romania, vasiloiuroxana@yahoo.com

Résumé

Le sujet de notre étude envisage la spatialité en tant que rapport extérieur, en questionnant dans quelle mesure la présentation de la tâche, la stratégie didactique (jeu et marque social versus tâche traditionnelle) modifie la performance pour les enfants d'école maternelle.

Les mots clé: *conservation spatiale, stratégies didactiques, l'enfant d'école maternelle*

La conservation et l'enseignement

La notion d'espace est complexe et elle se construit progressivement autour le développement psycho - motrice de l'enfant. Tous les auteurs insistent sur les difficultés d'apprendre cette notion et ça parce qu'elle concerne concevoir et non pas voir. La vision de l'espace n'appartient au perceptible, mais au concept. Il ne suffit pas de montrer à l'enfant des objets, mais il faut provoquer sa pensée.

La réversibilité est la capacité qu'a l'enfant de concevoir toute action comme ayant son inverse. C'est-à-dire que quelles que soient les transformations sur la forme de l'objet, la quantité reste identique et donc, l'objet qui retrouvera sa forme initiale aura la même quantité. *L'invariant* est un objet de réflexion stable sous l'action du sujet et sous l'action de certaines transformations physiques; ça rend possible l'adéquation de la réalité immédiate, un raisonnement qui puisse déterminer des configurations et des transformations. Le processus d'évolution des invariants durera jusqu'à 12 ans, les chercheurs en acceptant la succession suivante (Vinh-Bang, Inhelder, apud Șchiopu, Verza, 1997, p. 179): la conservation de la substance; ça commence à environ 5 ans et finit à 9 ans; la conservation du poids: de 6 à 11 ans; la conservation du volume: de 7 à 12 ans. On a obtenu ces résultats en travaillant avec 175 enfants, des groupes de 25 pour chaque âge. On a appliqué des épreuves de conservation standardisées. On dit qu'une

acquisition est consolidée lors qu'elle s'applique au moins chez 65% des sujets (on parle aussi de 60%).

Les conservations spatiales sont : a. *conservation des quantités numériques* (7 ans): quand on place une rangée de jetons peu espacés et qu'on demande à l'enfant de prendre autant de jetons que l'exemple, il réalisera correctement l'exercice. b. *classification* (8 ans); c. *sériation* (8 ans) d. *groupements multiplicatifs*: c'est la capacité à combiner la classification et la sériation.

Plusieurs chercheurs ont tenté d'enseigner aux enfants le concept de conservation. Leurs résultats dépendaient évidemment de la manière d'enseigner. Si l'adulte explique que la quantité de limonade d'un verre haut et celle d'un verre étroit sont les mêmes parce que les deux quantités sont identiques lors que la limonade est dans des verres identiques, une tentation pareille de corriger tombe même si l'enfant a 6-7 ans.

Certains chercheurs qui ont essayé d'enseigner divers types de conservation, par exemple la conservation des liquides, de la matière et du nombre, ont réalisé des vrais succès en modifiant la structure de base de l'expérience. Tout comme dans l'expérience du garçonnet qui se cachait pour que le policier ne le trouve, la simplification de la tâche, l'enjeu de participer activement et de composer une épreuve qui semblerait un jeu qu'un teste, ça n'était que de principes pour aider les enfants acquérir le concept de conservation plus vite que spontanément. Dans une certaine étude, les enfants de 4 ans ont appris la conservation dans un processus d'instruction fidèle, supposant des démonstrations, des analyses et l'opportunité de pratiquer des exercices actifs pendant les stimulations de l'adulte par le renforcement positif verbal. Une autre étude a prouvé qu'un tel training ne doit pas être temporel: 79 % d'un groupe de 84 enfants de 4 ans ont compris la conservation après plusieurs mois d'entraînement. Les enfants de 3 ans, de toute façon, ont des difficultés quant à l'acquisition de la conservation, quel que efficace soit le training.

La construction de la spatialité à l'âge de l'école maternelle

D'après le critère d'intériorité-extériorité on peut parler de *l'espace intérieure* (la différenciation de schéma corporelle, l'image de son corps) et *l'espace extérieure*, en tant que distance du *ego* corporel et une certaine direction par rapport au corps. L'espace, environnement vide par sa définition, et aperçu et bâti mentalement en suivant la perception des positions, de directions, de distances et de déplacement. La perception de l'espace permet l'orientation dans beaucoup de situations, en se constituant dans un élément d'intégration pour un nombre de notions importantes, telles que « la taille », « la forme », « le volume », « la vitesse », « le temps ». A mesure que l'on dépasse le niveau de l'expérience immédiate, de la perception directement entremise par l'action, l'espace cesse de constituer

une collection d'environnements successifs, mais une structure de rapports, de relations représentées mentalement et abstraites. L'acquisition des éléments spatiaux et temporels introduit une notion nouvelle et importante, c'est-à-dire l'abstraction (Soubiran, apud Albu, 1999, pp.100-101).

Jusqu'à trois ans l'espace de l'enfant est un espace « vécu » pleinement, sans des formes et des dimensions, c'est-à-dire il s'agit d'un *espace topologique*, caractérisé par des relations de voisinage, de séparation, d'ordre, de continuité. *L'espace euclidien* ou mathématique, géométrique (3-7 ans) est plus homogène et l'enfant y reconnaît des formes géométriques. A l'étape de la connaissance des notions, l'enfant apprend se déplacer à l'intérieur de son environnement familier, y situer correctement des objets et d'utiliser des termes spatiaux : « devant », « derrière », « haut », « là-bas ». *La compréhension des relations spatiales* s'appuie sur les raisonnements formés au moment de la perception des certaines réalités spatiales.

A partir du stade opératoire, l'espace euclidien et l'espace projectif se constituent. Ils se construisent ensemble mais parallèlement l'un à l'autre et sont tous deux dérivés de l'espace topologique; le premier espace se constituant du stade sensori-moteur. L'espace topologique est inhérent à l'objet, il en exprime les propriétés intrinsèques; il constitue les objets eux-même avec leur propre espace. L'espace projectif et l'espace euclidien situent les objets et leurs configurations selon un ensemble; c'est-à-dire, les uns par rapport aux autres dans un système de relations. L'élaboration projective est le fait que l'enfant coordonne les différents points de vue de l'objet dans un plan spatial, qu'il ne les considère plus eux-mêmes mais par rapport à l'environnement. C'est dans cet espace que l'enfant acquière la notion de la droite.

Dans l'élaboration euclidienne, l'enfant coordonne les objets par rapport à un axe de coordonnées stable; cet axe exige la conservation des dimensions attribuées à l'objet. L'acquisition de ces espaces permet à l'enfant d'acquérir notamment la conservation des surfaces; alors qu'auparavant il se basait sur ses impressions perceptives directes, l'enfant développe un processus d'intuition simple, fondé sur la représentation élémentaire. Ensuite cette intuition devient articulée, elle porte sur les transformations appliquées aux objets.

«L'épreuve de trois montagnes» de Jean Piaget ou «l'argument de l'égoïsme de l'enfant de moins de 7 ans». Selon Piaget, les enfants plus jeunes de sept ans ne peuvent pas comprendre un point de vue différent, à cause de leur égoïsme. Le fondement de cette assertion se repose sur l'expérience où les enfants entre quatre et onze ans ont regardé un moulage contenant trois montagnes différentes du point de vue de la forme, de l'hauteur et de la couleur. Au début les enfants étudiaient le moulage en l'entourant, l'analysant de toute côté, puis ils étaient assis d'une côté où il y avait la construction, une poupée étant assise de l'autre côté. On a demandé à

chaque enfant de sélectionner quelle photo (d'une série de photographies présentée) semblait à celle vue par la poupée. N'importe où était assise la poupée, les plus jeunes ont sélectionné incorrectement la photo, en précisant leur propre point de vue. À sept ans, presque tous les enfants ont réalisé que l'angle de vue de la poupée est partiellement différent, mais ils n'ont souvent été pas capables de choisir la photo réelle. Entre sept et neuf ans les enfants choisissent généralement correctement, à des fautes occasionnelles, et finalement à neuf, dix et onze ans ils accomplissent la tâche parfaitement.

Les psychologues du développement croient aujourd'hui que « l'épreuve des trois montagnes » était trop complexe pour un teste valide des habilités de l'enfant à considérer la perspective de l'autrui. Les expériences ont démontré que de plus tôt (3- 4 ans) les enfants commencent à comprendre le point de vue de l'autrui, même si élémentairement. Selon une étude, les enfants de 4 ans peuvent choisir correctement l'image vue par Grover (un personnage de « Sesame Street ») d'une scène rurale de différentes positions. Dans une autre expérience, 90% d'enfants de 3 ans ont correctement répondu à la question « qu'est que c'est photographier de devant, d'arrière et d'une côté ? ».

Davantage, quand la construction de la perspective devient composante du jeu, les enfants entre 3,5 ans et 5 ans ont de très bons résultats. Voilà la conclusion générale d'une série d'expériences où on a demandé aux enfants de cacher un personnage derrière un ensemble murale, ainsi que les policiers qui le cherchent, ne le trouvent pas (Hughes et Donaldson, 1979). Les chercheurs ont établi la question-clé: « Pourquoi les enfants considèrent cette tâche plus facile que l'épreuve de 3 montagnes ? » C'est parce que l'on parle d'une tâche plus humaine que l'autre. Les raisons et les intentions des personnages (le jeu de cache-cache) sont pleinement compréhensibles pour un enfant de 3 ans. Cette habilité de comprendre et de s'identifier avec les sentiments et les intentions de l'autre est vraiment le contraire de l'égoïsme.

Les recherches faites sur la conservation de la notion d'espace chez l'enfant présente de différentes démarches, d'après toute une série d'aspects prioritaires:

A. La notion d'espace du point de vue de sa complexité et des ambiguïtés qu'elle suppose;

B. La méthode de travail, la modalité de communiquer avec les sujets, la stratégie;

C. Le matériel expérimental employé.

A. Du point de vue de la conception de la notion d'espace, les variables expérimentales supposent:

La spatialité en tant que forme (les expériences supposaient la représentation anticipative ou reproductive des plans en section d'un cube, d'un cylindre, un cône ou une pyramide - V. Radu, 1973).

La spatialité en tant que rapport extérieur, distance, mouvement

Imaginer un objet en rotation, c'est une des plus répandues modalités de mesurer l'aptitude spatiale. Ainsi, on doit mentionner aussi le problème des images mentales, dont la caractéristique principale est la représentation des relations topologiques entre les objets. Parmi les actions appliquées aux images mentales, impliquant la construction de la notion d'espace, on doit souligner la rotation, l'expansion et la constriction. Roger Sheppard et Metzler (Miclea, 1999, p. 177) ont montré aux sujets des paires de représentations bidimensionnelles des objets tridimensionnels. Ils devraient préciser si les objets représentés étaient identiques, sans se rapporter à l'orientation spatiale. Les conclusions établissent que la rotation des représentations des objets tridimensionnels est identique à la rotation de ceux-ci dans la réalité physique.

Dans les études de Jean Piaget les coordinations spatiales ont été considérées des processus intraindividuels, en ignorant ainsi le facteur social (les relations sociales sont imaginaires). Les spécialistes de la psychologie sociale Doise et Mugny (1998) ont souligné le rôle du conflit socio-cognitif, un principe pleinement utilisé responsable pour la parution des coordinations interindividuelles. *L'interaction sociale qui détermine la parution de tels conflits constitue un cadre favorable au développement cognitif.* Voilà l'idée d'une expérience qui porte sur la conservation de positions spatiales à l'enfant envisagé dans « la coordination sociale des points de vue dans la reproduction d'un village » (Doise et Mugny, 1998, p. 123). L'expérience a beaucoup de variantes d'après le maniement du facteur sociale, maniement créé pour résoudre le problème de l'implication du social dans l'élaboration des structures cognitives (1. Comparer les performances des individus et les performances des paires; 2. Grouper les sujets d'après leur niveau cognitif).

B. *La méthode de travail* exerce une pleine influence sur la performance, question aperçue et théorisée surtout par les psychologues russes. Galperin utilise la notion de «type d'orientation à l'intérieur d'une tâche» pour désigner la composante la plus importante de l'élaboration du mécanisme psychologique de l'acquisition, composante qui porte sur le développement du processus d'assimilation des connaissances. Du ce point de vue, on remarque la composition de la modalité finale d'orientation à l'intérieur de la tâche. Pantina et Galperin (apud Popescu-Neveanu et F. Andreescu, 1970) ont vérifié l'efficacité de trois types d'orientation à

l'intérieur d'une tâche: a) le modèle de l'orientation globale, synthétique- suppose l'offerte d'un modèle, la démonstration de son production sans séparer les points de repère et les conditions à opérer; b) le modèle de l'orientation dirigée, pas à pas (modèle, démonstration, points d'appui, on précise les conditions à opérer); c) le modèle de l'orientation autonome (modèle, démonstration, conditions à opérer, les enfants découvrant eux-mêmes les points d'appui). Les études plaident en faveur du modèle de l'orientation autonome, parce qu'elle stimule davantage l'indépendance et nie la passivité et la lassitude.

L'importance de régler par des images et des mots a fait l'objet de plusieurs études, où les enfants doivent subir les conditions expérimentales suivantes:

1. Le contacte directe avec l'objet réel qui reste devant l'enfant pendant la solution de la tâche, sans d'explications détaillées;
2. Le contacte directe, des explications détaillées, l'objet vu tout le temps;
1. Le contacte directe, sans d'explications, l'objet absente quand on travaille;
2. Le contacte avec l'objet réel, des explications, l'absence de l'objet durant la solution;
3. Le contacte avec un substitut, des explications;
4. Présenter un substitut, des explications;
5. L'instruction verbale, sans présenter l'objet réel ou un substitut.

Les conclusions établissent que pour les enfants d'école maternelle plus âgés les explications sont marquantes et pour les jeunes enfants de maternelle les explications verbales constituent un obstacle.

Une autre série d'études pose le problème de *la motivation*, parce que la direction de l'activité d'acquisition par des systèmes d'indicateurs et d'explications ne se convertit en des effets de développement. « *L'orientation à l'intérieur d'une tâche* » c'est un phénomène extérieur qui n'influence positivement le développement qu'en présence de la force interne du progrès psychique, la motivation. La thèse développée par A.N.Leontiev (Al. Roşca, 1975) soutient que le développement psychique de l'enfant avance étroitement vers la parution et le changement des raisons du jeu, de l'acquisition, du travail par la subordination d'hierarchisation des raisons, en « principales » et « secondaires ». Les raisons nouvelles déterminent la parution d'une nouvelle grille de significations, en aboutissant au changement de l'attitude pour l'activité développée. Istomina (1969) a imagine un modèle expérimental ou la même tâche à mémoriser des mots était formulée différemment d'après ces trois conditions expérimentales: le jeu, l'activité dans le laboratoire, l'activité pratique.

C. Quant au *matériel expérimental employé*, on doit préciser l'importance de la complexité du matériel et du degré de s'en habituer des sujets. Popescu-Neveanu a constaté la subordination de l'activité intellectuelle pour les détails perceptifs, en causant la chute en non-conservation d'un nombre de sujets qui auparavant ont donné des réponses conservantes. Toutes les études inspirées des méthodes expérimentales piagetiennes (Bovet, Sinclair, 1977, Doise, 1998) concluent toutes *que les seuls sujets qui enregistrent des progrès en valorisant les explications et l'entraînement sont ceux situés à un niveau stadial assez proche de la nouvelle acquisition*. L'exercice n'est pas utile s'il ne respecte de limites du niveau du développement cognitif du sujet, ainsi qu'il n'avance que si les intermédiaires sont près de la conservation.

A propos des images, M. Witling Lauret (apud I. Radu, 1983) a développé une expérience étagée pour les enfants de 4, 5 et 6 ans :

- Sur de petits jetons carrés il y a des formes géométriques simples. Les mêmes formes, représentées sur papier calqué, on les présente aux enfants en leur demandant de les reconnaître (de loin ou par supposition des images) et d'en vérifier l'exactitude. Cette étape envisage l'aspect purement perceptif ;
- Sur des feuilles de papier on réalise par des points les mêmes formes, cinq sur une page. La tâche de participants est de dessiner les formes de la page en suivant la ligne d'appui (on vise l'aspect motrice);
- Sur de petits cartons il y a des formes et les enfants doivent les reproduire sur des feuilles blanches (on envisage l'intégration de l'aspect perceptif et de celui motrice).

Les résultats indiquent que les aspects perceptif et motrice proprement dits sont maîtrisés à 6 ans par 80-90% des enfants, tandis que seulement 50% d'eux sont capables d'une intégration perceptivo-motrice, nécessaire quand on copie les formes.

La présentation de l'expérience

L'exercice formatif proposé dans cet article envisage les enfants de 5, 6,7 ans. Donc, du point de vue des stades, on est a priori au stade de l'organisation des relations spatiales et de la compréhension des relations spatiales (d'après A. de Meur, Albu, 1999) et au stade de l'espace géométrique et mathématique selon Jean Piaget. On doit préciser qu'une fois arrivé à ces niveaux, l'enfant intègre d'une manière implicite l'espace visuel, de la bouche, des pieds, du proche et celui topologique. La tâche préparée pour les enfants d'école maternelle est située symboliquement, entraînant un système des relations extérieures, objectives, interdépendantes et arbitraires par rapport à l'enfant.

Notre expérience vient de celle de Doise et Mugny (1998) intitulée « la coordination sociale des points de vue dans la reproduction d'un village ». On a gardé la structure de leur manière de travailler avec les sujets (la pré-évaluation pour établir les niveaux de conservation et l'évaluation), mais aussi la construction des items, à seule différence que dans cette expérience les participants ont concrètement travaillé. Davantage, notre recherche a introduit la variable *jeu vs tâche traditionnelle*.

La recherche a deux buts majeurs: a) établir l'efficacité de certaines stratégies didactiques pour les enfants de la maternelle; b) identifier le rapport « âge »-« la conservation des positions spatiales » (on peut obtenir des informations en facilitant la comparaison par âge, d'ici résultant la découverte des stades sensibles de l'acquisition des réponses favorables).

Le lot expérimental est composé d'enfants d'école maternelle qui viennent de quatre écoles maternelles de la ville de Iasi. Leur âge est structuré généralement entre 5 ans et 2 mois et 6 ans et 8 mois. Il y avait deux situations où un sujet avait 4 ans et 6 mois et un autre - 8 ans et 5 mois. D'après le sexe, il y avait 61 filles et 51 garçons.

L'hypothèse principale établit qu'à l'âge de l'école maternelle quand il s'agit d'une tâche cognitive sur la conservation des positions spatiales, les performances obtenues par le jeu sont supérieures à celles obtenues par l'instruction dirigée. Les hypothèses secondaires sont les suivantes: 1. Les enfants d'école maternelle de 5 ans, de groupes hétérogènes obtiennent de meilleures performances que ceux de groupes homogènes ; 2. Les garçons, quand il s'agit d'une tâche de conservation des positions spatiales, obtiennent des meilleurs résultats que les filles; 3. Les sujets qui pendant la pré-évaluation se sont situés au niveau intermédiaire, vont progresser plus vite à l'évaluation que les sujets placés en tant que non-conservateurs à la pré-évaluation.

Les variables indépendantes sont:

1. La stratégie didactique - la condition expérimentale du jeu; la condition expérimentale instruction dirigée ;
2. Le sexe des sujets - masculin ou féminin ;
3. L'homogénéité des groupes - générée par l'âge.

La variable dépendante est la performance définie par le niveau de conservation: non-conservateur, intermédiaire et conservateur.

Les étapes de la recherche ont supposé:

A. L'exercice préliminaire, parce où les enfants s'habituent avec la tâche

Le lieu de l'action est la salle de classe. Les facteurs humains impliqués: les enfants et l'expérimentateur. Le matériel nécessaire un panneau placé devant la classe sous les yeux des enfants ; deux rectangles en papier, le premier horizontalement à 3 cercles colorés différemment, le deuxième verticalement. Les enfants doivent attacher les cercles

correctement. Les mécanismes impliqués sont : la perception, la rotation mentale, l'anticipation des positions par la comparaison des repères offerts ; les transformations proprement dites imposées par la rotation mentale.

B. La pre-évaluation, qui doit établir les niveaux de conservation ou se trouvent les enfants, par une tâche semblable à celle de l'exercice préliminaire.

Les différences entre l'item de la pre-évaluation et celui de l'évaluation:

- L'item de la pre-évaluation suppose une rotation mentale de la position verticale bas à la position horizontale haut. Les transformations qui interviennent sont déterminées par les directions « en avant – en arrière » qui se succèdent mentalement
- L'item de l'évaluation implique une rotation mentale de l'horizontale au verticale. La transformation principale impliquée est celle de la direction « à gauche- à droite » qui devient « en avant – en arrière »
- La différence entre le nombre d'éléments impliqués : trois éléments pour la pre -évaluation, quatre éléments pour l'évaluation.

La définition des concepts qui interviennent dans l'évaluation des performances

Le concept de *niveau* désigne le stage de l'évaluation de la conservation et vient de la psychologie sociale (Doise et Mugny). On distingue 3 niveaux.

Le premier niveau non-conservateur (de compensations nulles)- les participants ne s'intéressent de l'orientation différente du terrain et déterminent une rotation de 90 degrés à tout l'ensemble perceptif. Ils reproduisent ce qu'ils voient plus bas au dessus. On note ce niveau par N.

Le second niveau intermédiaire (des compensations partielles)- les participants ne transforment qu'une d'inversions demandées; ils transforment correctement l'ordre à gauche-à droite, mais ils reproduisent incorrectement l'ordre en avant – en arrière. On note ce niveau par I.

Le troisième niveau conservateur (de compensations totales)- les transformations sont correctes pour l'ordre à gauche- à droite et aussi pour avant- arrière. On note ce niveau par C (au pre-évaluation 39 travaux, évaluation - 33 travaux).

Une autre dénomination: CN (le premier niveau non-conservateur), CP (le second niveau intermédiaire), CT (le troisième niveau conservateur). Les solutions du niveau non-conservateur et intermédiaire y présentées ne sont pas les seules possibles. Les spécialistes parlent de l'existence de deux sous-niveaux de non-conservation et de deux sous-niveaux intermédiaires, chacun à des configurations différentes.

- *Le progrès* : on a du progrès lors qu'un sujet classe N ou I a la pré-évaluation avance pendant l'évaluation aux niveaux I ou C (il y a du progrès de deux niveaux de C à N et du progrès d'un niveau de N à I ou de à C) ;
- *La régression* : on a de la régression lors qu'un sujet obtient a l'évaluation une performance inférieure a celle de la pré-évaluation (il y a de la régression de deux niveaux de C à Net de la régression d'un niveau de C à I et de I à N) ;
- *L'équilibre* : on a de l'équilibre lors que le sujet est au même niveau, tant a la pré-évaluation qu'a l'évaluation ;
- *L'indice structural* : il s'agit de la mesure ou les sujets respectent les rapports entre les éléments ;
- *La déviation* : c'est l'exactitude de la position d'un élément.

Dans cette recherche l'indice structural compte plus que la déviation.

On ne sanctionne les localisations approximatives que si elles sont extrêmes.

C. Évaluation

La condition instruction dirigée - on traite la tâche traditionnellement, en tant que problème à résoudre, ou il y a des notions: les cercles colorés..., le rectangle etc. L'expérimentateur utilise des termes qui strictement n'appartiennent a cette étude, plus précisément, les formes géométriques. Tout ca contribue a poser l'exercice dans un contexte a haut degré d'abstraction

La condition jeu- la tâche est marquée socialement, on raconte aux enfants une histoire ou un garçon joue du football à plusieurs ballons. Employer l'histoire, ça donne le contexte pour la construction du système de signifiants. Il est composé de plusieurs éléments: des éléments représentés à une échelle réduite: sur une fiche (les terrains et les ballons) et des éléments auxiliaires, imagines, qui soutiennent l'histoire (des personnages humains et des personnages des contes de fées). Le rôle de l'histoire est de respecter le profil de l'âge psychologique de l'enfant d'école maternelle, de sa pensée animiste et concrète.

Les résultats de l'étude

a. Pour le premier objectif de notre recherche les données statistiques ne soutiennent pas l'hypothèse principale. Les résultats obtenus (Independent Samples T Test) ont été les suivants: pour la condition « jeu », $M=2,37$; pour la condition « instruction dirigée », $M=2,09$; la différence entre les moyennes $MD=0,28$, insignifiante pour le seuil de signification $p>0,05$ ($p=0,064$).

b. Il y a des données pour *confirmer partiellement l'hypothèse principale pour le groupe de filles*: pour la condition « jeu », $M=2,24$; pour la condition « instruction dirigée », $M=1,75$; la différence entre les moyennes $MD=0,49$ signifiante au seuil de signification $p<0,01$ ($p=0,016$). La

confirmation de l'hypothèse pour le groupe de filles- l'efficacité accrue de la stratégie du « jeu » en comparaison à la stratégie « instruction dirigée » peut être le résultat de la sensibilité accrue face aux signifiants imaginatifs du jeu; ce résultat positif des filles dans un exercice de conservation spatiale est en opposition aux études de spécialité qui nous informe sur les performances supérieures des garçons quand il s'agit de la spatialité.

c. L'hypothèse secondaire- *les garçons obtiennent des performances supérieures que les filles lors qu'il s'agit des exercices spatiaux* - est confirmée. Les résultats obtenus (Independent Sample T Test) ont été les suivants: les garçons $M=2,51$, les filles $M=1,98$; la différence des moyennes d'après le sexe $MD=0,53$ significative statistiquement au seuil de signification $p<0,05$. On peut expliquer ces résultats par la capacité accrue des garçons à opérer avec les stimulents abstraits.

d. L'hypothèse secondaire sur le progrès des intermédiaires de la pré-évaluation à l'évaluation est infirmée. Quand même, les résultats statistiques obtenus par la méthode Paired-Sample T Test ont indique le progrès des garçons intermédiaires de pré-évaluation a l'évaluation. Les moyennes obtenues: pour la pré-évaluation $M=2,00$ et a l'évaluation $M=2,50$, la différence des moyennes $MD=0,50$ est statistiquement significative au seuil de signification $p<0,05$. Les garçons intermédiaires avancent, ils apprennent d'une épreuve a l'autre grâce à l'assimilation facile des notions abstraites.

Conclusions

On peut expliquer les résultats par:

- Les deux conditions ont enregistré la performance objectivement (les résultats de la fiche de travail) sans surprendre les relations affectives aussi. L'objet de la comparaison dans cette recherche a été constitue par le niveau de conservation sans suivre d'autres variables. Si on réalisait une analyse qualitative, on pourrait préciser que les aspects suivants étaient plus évidents dans la condition du jeu;
- Les deux stratégies ont supposé des éléments attrayants, amusants, qui ont suscité de l'intérêt;
- La plupart d'enfants avaient plus de 6 ans, donc ils possédaient des structures nécessaires pour la solution de l'exercice, ainsi qu'ils trouvaient la solution n'importe la présentation de la tâche; en revanche, pour les enfants qui ne possédaient assez d'opérations développées nécessaires pour la solution des items la stratégie y utilisée est importante. Le fait que les enfants d'école maternelle ont obtenus des résultats positifs pendant l'instruction dirigée n'est qu'une preuve de leur maturité motivationnelle et cognitive.

- Un autre facteur qui puisse influencer sur la performance est le degré de s'habituer a un certain type de stratégie. Ainsi, c'est normale que dans les conditions ou un groupe soit entraîné de plusieurs fois par instruction dirigée, obtienne des performances supérieures par cette stratégie-la. Il est possible que pour ces groupes l'appel au jeu provoque un relâchement, une concentration insuffisante à l'obstacle cognitif.

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EDUCATIONAL STUDY ON HISTORICAL DIMENSION OF PRIVATE LIFE

Assist. PhD Liliana MĂȚĂ,

“Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, România, lsacara@yahoo.com

Abstract

The goal of this study consists of analyzing the historical dimension of private life in school. It's about an observational research on curricula documents and perception of high school teenagers and teachers on this dimension developed into Romanian education system. The main objectives of this research aim at 1) identification of specific aspects on historical dimension reflected into school document and 2) catching on opening level of teachers and high school pupils regarding this dimension. The results are distinguished through frequencies on specific themes at school documents level, and on opening level of high school pupils and teachers.

Keywords: *private life, historical dimension, curricula documents*

1. The Configuration of Private Life's Historical Dimension

The accentuated secularism, that characterizes western societies, has contributed to the expansion of private life's components (Sudre, F., 2006, p. 315). The concept of private life was developed, according to the holistic theory, into six categories: the material self, the personal self, the adaptive self (Adler, A., Towne, N., 1991), the private space, the private time (Meder-Klein, M., 2005), the primary groups (Cooley, Ch. H., 1902). Each of these six categories is divided into specific subcategories, each linked to the ten dimensions: objective, biological, psycho-social, aesthetic, religious, technological, economical, *historical*, cultural-political, juridical. This study deals only with the historical dimension of private life.

The concept of private life varies according to period, environment and society in which the person lives. There are many volumes coordinated by P. Veyne (1994), G. Duby and Ph. Aries (1995, 1997) regarding of the history of private life. The eighteenth century refines the distinction between public and private. On long term, French Revolution emphasizes the definition of public and private spheres and marks out the family. The home and the night delineate one space-time coordinate in which privacy, so necessary around

the human body, a coordinate in which freedom and dignity are allowed (Aries, Ph., Duby, G., coord., 1997).

The nineteenth century dignifies the gold age of private life, in which words and things clarify themselves and notions purify. Between the civil society, private life, intimate and individual are stippled concentric ideal circles, but who are inextricable in reality. This century is marked by a desperate effort for stabilization of the frontier between private and public life, connecting them by the family, a supreme concept in the patriarchic home (Aries, Ph., Duby, G., coord., 1995).

The enhanced differentiation between private and public in the ensemble of society modifies the public life and private life in twentieth century. Neither one nor the other evolves in same mode and between the same rules. In the same time, their frontiers displace and, as it is specified, their structure transforms, which means the acknowledgement of the complexity of a history which must make out the way in which private life is constituted in simultaneous way and is obtained at one predominant collective existence. One triple wish of family, conjugal and personal intimate crosses the ensemble of the society and it affirms with one especial insistence at the beginning of the twentieth century. The life divides in three equal parts: public life, dedicated in most of work, private family life and personal life, which is more private still. The variety and the extension of private life during the second half of the twentieth century doesn't limit to the domestic domain. The conquering of the space intended for private life doesn't limit only to one family space, but also to a way of escaping from this.

From this incursion in the history of private life, we have access to a scale of representation of the way in which the components of private life have evolved.

2. The educational study regarding of historical dimension of private life

2.1. The Objectives and the Hypothesis of the Investigation

2.1.1. The Objectives of the Investigation

The first objective of this study is the analysis of school curricula and textbooks for primary, gymnasium and high school educational system. We analyze these aspects having in mind the historical dimension of private life. The second objective is to determine the high school students' and teachers' level of openness towards the historical dimension of private life.

2.1.2. The Hypothesis of the Investigation

The first general hypothesis

The objectives and the contents included in school curricula and textbooks for the undergraduate educational system reflect, in a different

manner, the historical dimension of private life, at the level of the three indicators: “Representations training”, “Attitudes training” and “Behaviors training”.

The second general hypothesis

There are major differences between teachers’ points of view and students’ points of view when it comes to the historical dimension of private life.

2.2. Variables

In the case of the content analysis, *the dependent variable* is represented by the categories of indicators structured on those two levels, while *the independent variables* are: curriculum areas and school year/ grade.

In identifying the subjects’ level of openness, *the dependent variable* used is the appreciation of the importance of the aspects concerning private life. In order to establish this variable, the subjects were asked to evaluate each dimension, according to its importance. The following *independent variables* were taken into consideration: socio-professional group (high school students/ teachers), gender (male/ female), environment (urban/ rural), and the high school students’ school year/ grade (first year students, second year students, third year students, senior year students).

2.3. Subjects

2346 subjects were involved in this study; they were grouped according to the independent variables, as presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The distribution of subjects according to the independent variables

Socio-professional group	890 teachers	According to the gender variable: 733 females and 157 males
		According to the environment variable: 456 from urban environment and 434 from rural environment
	1456 high school students	According to the gender variable: 766 females and 690 males
		According to the environment variable: 1009 from urban environment and 447 from rural environment

2.4. Methodology

In order to identify the component elements of private life in school curricula, *the content analysis* was used in order to distinguish the themes and the specific categories that correspond to each indicator. In the content analysis of the school curricula and the textbooks for the IX-XII grades, there were three types of categories that were taken into consideration: 1. Representations for private life training; 2. Positive attitudes for private life training; 3. Appropriate behaviors for private life training. These three categories correspond to the three major categories of educational objectives:

cognitive, affective and psycho-behavior. The themes and the specific categories were analyzed at the level of the seven curriculum areas: Language and Communication (L.C.), Mathematics and Sciences (M.S.), Social Studies (S.S.), Arts (ART.), Sports (SP.), Technologies (TECH.) and Counseling (CO.).

The main instrument that was used for the establishment of the students' and teachers' level of openness for different aspect of private life was *the questioner (Lickert scale)*. Subjects were asked to evaluate 60 elements, having 5 choices: very low, low, medium, high, and very high. The subjects were reminded that there aren't right choices or wrong choices, but there are just personal choices. The research was conducted between 2008 and 2009 in Romania.

2.5. Data presentation and Analysis

The data collected were analyzed having in mind just the historical dimension of private life. There are two analysis directions: 1. the analysis of the themes and the historical dimension's specific categories at the level of school curricula and alternative textbooks and 2. the identification of the subjects' perception on the representative elements of the historical dimension.

The first general hypothesis is confirmed. The objectives and the contents included in the school curricula for the undergraduate educational system reflect, in a different manner, the historical dimension of private life, at the level of the three indicators (Figure 1). As the frequencies illustrated show, in school curricula, there are more themes regarding the historical dimension of private life at the level of behaviors training (12) and at the level of representations training (9), as opposed to the level of attitudes training (0). As the frequencies illustrated show, in textbooks, there are more themes regarding the historical dimension of private life at the level of behaviors training (31) and at the level of representations training (30), as opposed to the level of attitudes training (0).

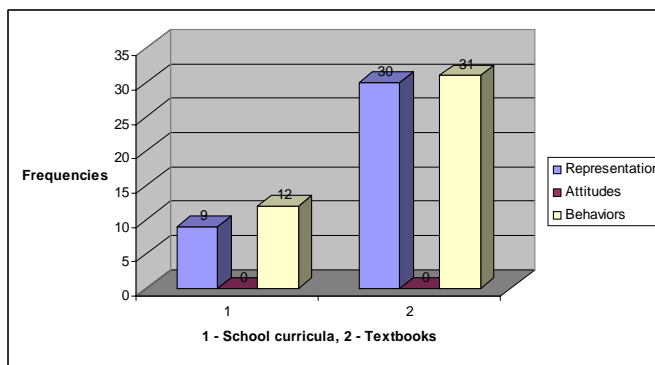


Figure 1: The representation of frequencies for indicators of E.P.V. at the levels of curricula documents

There are differences between school curricula and alternative textbooks regarding the curriculum areas (Figure 2). The frequencies obtained indicate the fact that, when it comes to school curricula and textbooks, most themes concerned with the historical dimension, can be found at subjects from the curriculum area of Social Studies (SS), comparatively with the others curriculum areas.

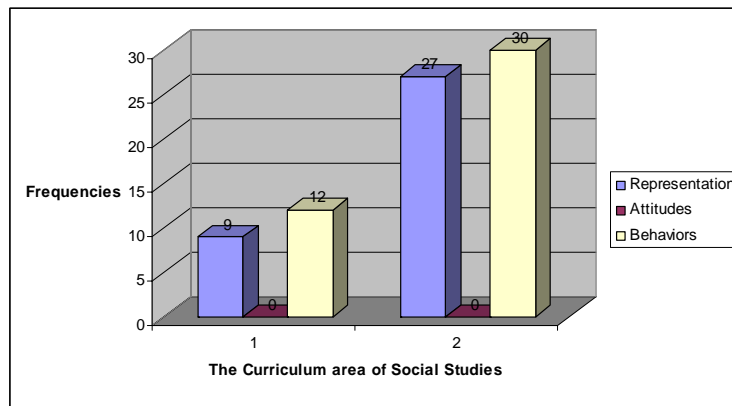


Figure 2: The representation of frequencies for indicators of E.P.V. at the levels of the curriculum areas

There are also major differences between schooling levels (Figure 3). At the level of textbooks, there are more themes concerned with the historical dimension in high school system comparatively with primary and gymnasium educational system. At the level of school curricula, there are more themes concerned with the historical dimension in primary and gymnasium educational system from perspective of representation training and more themes in high school system from perspective of behaviors training.

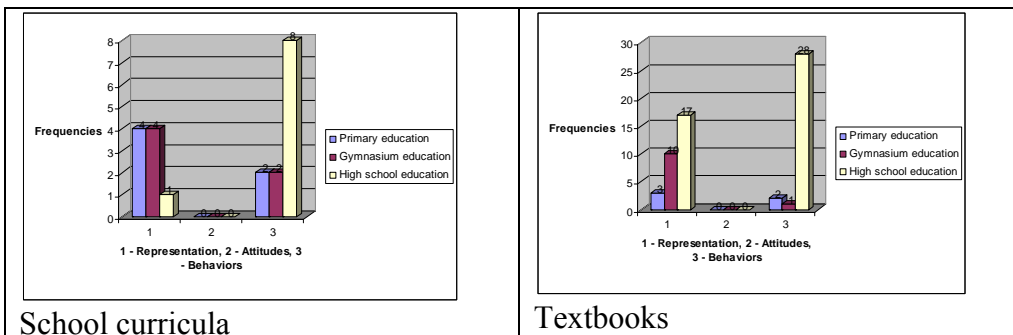


Figure 3: The representation of frequencies for indicators of E.P.V. from perspective of schooling level

The second hypothesis is confirmed. There are differences between

teachers' and students' perspectives on the historical dimension of private life. Test t results show that teachers have a more positive perception than students only for Adaptive Self [$t(2344) = 5,332, p < 0,05$] (Table 2).

Table 2. The results of the environmental comparison test for the historical dimension variable according to the group variable (teachers versus students)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Material Self - historical dimension	Equal variances assumed	9,190	,002	,187	2344	,852	,01	,050	-,089	,108
	Equal variances not assumed			,190	1980,182	,849	,01	,049	-,087	,106
Personal Self - historical dimension	Equal variances assumed	5,340	,021	1,064	2344	,288	,05	,049	-,044	,147
	Equal variances not assumed			1,084	1994,764	,278	,05	,048	-,042	,145
Adaptive Self - historical dimension	Equal variances assumed	11,304	,001	5,332	2343	,000	,25	,047	,159	,343
	Equal variances not assumed			5,480	2042,092	,000	,25	,046	,161	,341
Private Space - historical dimension	Equal variances assumed	2,082	,149	,416	2344	,678	,02	,051	-,078	,120
	Equal variances not assumed			,430	2075,712	,667	,02	,049	-,075	,117
Private Time - historical dimension	Equal variances assumed	12,255	,000	-1,239	2344	,216	-,06	,049	-,158	,036
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,265	2006,315	,206	-,06	,048	-,156	,034
Primary Groups - historical dimension	Equal variances assumed	14,422	,000	,424	2344	,671	,02	,052	-,079	,123
	Equal variances not assumed			,433	1994,711	,665	,02	,051	-,078	,121

After analyzing the results of the statistical data, the following general

conclusions can be stated:

- There are more themes regarding the historical dimension of private life at the level of behaviors training and at the level of representations training and, as opposed to the level of attitudes training, where these themes are inexistent;
- Most themes regarding the historical dimension of private life are found in primary and gymnasium educational system from perspective of representation training and more themes in high school system from perspective of behaviors training at the levels of school curricula and they are found in high school educational system at the levels of textbooks;
- Teachers perceive the historical dimension in a more positive way than students regarding of component which designates adaptive self.

Having in mind the results, it becomes clear that actions are needed in order to unify the contents and the objectives regarding the aesthetic dimension in schools.

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PROGRAMS AND RESEARCHES IN THE AREA OF BEGINNING TEACHERS TRAINING

Assist. PhD Liliana MĂȚĂ,
„Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, Romania, lsacara@yahoo.com
Univ. reader PhD Constanța DUMITRIU,
„Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, Romania,
dumitriuconstanta@yahoo.com

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to analyse the programs and the studies regarding to the training of beginning teachers. In the first part of the study there are presented the advantages of induction programs. In the second part, it is realized a synthesis of principal programs and studies at the national and international level. In the final part, there are presented the action directions of a new model regarding to the forming of professional competences at the beginning teachers.

Key words: *induction program, professional competences, beginning teachers*

1. The necessity of programs and studies centred on beginning teachers training

The problem regarding to the practice preparation programs of beginning teachers during of debut in career - „induction program” – is very difficult to resolve for initial training systems of teachers, recognizing at European level by member states and by nominee countries (Iucu, R., 2007). The debut represents a discovery moment of specific from didactic career, therewith underlining ambiguous affective states, but enthusiasm, pride and conceit. In these stage this is to point out the big number of exits from system, of young teachers which give up didactic career, not from financial motives, but already from educational motives regarding to the absent of saucer programs for pass of educational adaptative crisis. Many new teachers feel isolated and overwhelmed by the challenge of their first year on the job (Rogers & Babinski, 2002), and they encounter barriers to developing and/or accessing the resources and personal support systems they need to understand and resolve practice-based concerns (Gold, 1996).

Teacher induction programs have historically focused on the personal comfort levels of novices (Feiman-Nemser et al., 1998; Gold, 1996). Feeling comfortable does not necessarily lead to effective teaching and student learning (Anyon, 1981). J. Wang, S.J. Odell, S.A. Schuille (2008) examined the effects of formally structured components of teacher induction on beginning teachers given that conceptually based induction programs that focus on support for learning to teach are rare (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a), as are studies on program effects. These components include teacher mentoring relationships, which are a major supporting structure for beginning teachers in induction programs (Odell & Huling, 2000); different kinds of collaboration among beginning teachers and colleagues; and professional development activities designed to affect teaching and student achievement (Moir & Gless, 2001).

Induction programs are important for beginning teachers (Britton, Paine, Pimm & Raizen, 2003; Huling-Austin, 1990, 1992; Gold, 1996). Huling-Austin (1990), for example, concluded that beginning teachers who participate in induction programs can improve their teaching performance, stay longer in the profession, enhance their personal and professional well-being, and learn about the culture of the school system. In addition, she suggested that induction programs should be configured so that they help beginning teachers to satisfy the requirements in order to advance beyond provisional licensure. In a later review of studies on beginning teachers, Huling-Austin (1992) noted a number of factors that corresponded with a teacher's success in the classroom. Two salient factors identified in her study were collegial support and mentoring, which are key components of induction programs.

2. Specific induction programs

At the international level, there are many studies and guides regarding to the beginning teachers training.

Feiman-Nemser (2001b) analyzed 20 hours of observations and 10 hours of interviews collected over 2 years from a mentor teacher with 30 years of teaching experience who was reassigned from classroom teaching to work with 14 beginning teachers in an induction program. She identified the mentor's dispositions and skills that were consistent with assumptions of educative mentoring from Dewey's concept of experience (1938), where the educator is responsible for arranging conditions so that learners have growth-producing experiences. These conceptions and skills included the following: co-thinking with beginning teachers about teaching, instead of being an expert who imposes ideas; focusing beginning teachers on basic instructional issues that they may not have recognized, such as how children think, and connections between theory and practice; helping beginning teachers frame their self-identified teaching problems and articulate reasons for them; and

modeling teaching that demonstrates principles of good teaching. The author argued that these mentoring conceptions and skills are crucial in effecting beginning teachers teaching and that learning to teach is an inquiry process contextualized in beginning teachers practice that needs to be assisted by an experienced other.

Drawing on surveys of 37 teacher induction program coordinators, Athanases and Achinstein (2003) stated that beliefs about children's thinking was important to developing effective teaching. They also affirmed that mentors should help novices focus their attention on children's thinking. Observations of mentor--novice conversations and interviews with two mentor-novice pairs over 1 year demonstrated how the mentors in these cases were able to focus beginning teachers attention on student learning, especially, that of low performers. The authors identified skills for mentors that included analyzing and assessing students by using rhetorical questions, follow-up probes, and suggestions as a co-thinker during conversations. The assumption was that if it is crucial for novices to understand children's learning to develop student-centered instruction, then a substantial focus on student learning in mentor-novice discussions is necessary.

Stories of Beginning Teachers is a study of participants in the Notre Dame Teacher Education Program. The editors explain that „the more [that is] known about the challenges of beginning teachers, the more likely those challenges can be confronted and overcome” (Kueker, J., 2004, p. ix). This information could be a resource for beginning teachers, teacher educators, inservice providers, and supervising teachers. Analysis of the editors' research falls into 22 categories of challenges that are experienced by most beginning teachers during their first year, as well as throughout their careers. These challenges are then organized into five superordinate categories: self challenges, student challenges, professional responsibility challenges, challenging adults associated with the school setting, and outside-the-school challenges. In the study, participants in the teacher education program rated how often they encountered each of the 571 issues that were identified through the 22 categories. The challenges were rated from "never" to "every day or almost every day." From the data analysis, a majority of "frequently encountered challenges" were about student misbehavior, motivation (or lack of it), and individual differences.

Studies by Chubbuck et al. (2001), Meyer (1999), and Reiman, Bostick, Lassiter, and Cooper (1995) demonstrated that new teacher support groups reduced teacher stress as well as encouraged novice teachers to be less egocentric and more able to focus on teaching tasks and student learning. Another valuable model for providing support to new teachers is through collaborative consultation in which a trained facilitator guides teachers through the problem-solving process (Caplan & Caplan, 1993). Collaborative consultation has been found to improve teachers problem-

solving skills, facilitate teachers understanding of and attitude toward children's problems, and promote gains in long-term academic achievement (Meyers, 1995).

The literature on induction provides program descriptions (David, 2000; Davis, Resta, Higdon, & Latiolais, 2001) and advice for principals on ways to support new teachers (Weasmer & Woods, 1998) but presents few images of a university's efforts to create an induction program that extends the ideas begun in preservice teacher education while novices are within varying school contexts (Auger & Odell, 1992; Johnson, Clift, & Klecka, 2002; Resta, Huling, White, & Matschek, 1997).

There are notable preoccupations on the national level for this stage of professional career. The “START project for professional development of probationer teacher (2001)” is representative for broached domain. This project it was initiated and developed by Britain Council, in collaboration with Scholar Inspectorate from Iași, House of Didactic Corp from Iași, „Alexandru Ioan Cuza” University of Iași, Foundation „EuroEd” Iași and with the constant crutch of spring structures from The Education Ministry, The General Direction for Continous Education, The Training and Perfecting of Didactic Personal and The National Center for Training of Personal from Preuniversity Education.

The principal objective of project it was elaborating and experimental implementing of an assisting strategy in probation, modulated at Romanian educational system”.

Nearby START project, there are activities realized in the domain of beginning assistance in didactic profession from Mentor Association from Romania, a nongovernmental institutional structure implicated in educational change projects which placed in their center beginning teachers.

C. Petrovici (2006) proposes a study in the domain of beginning teachers training. The objective of research is exploration of experiential frame for establishing and validation of educational professional competences, of essential roles, functions and qualities of beginning educators.

Studies in this section that examined induction effects as reported by beginning teachers and their mentors contribute to understanding the structured components of teacher induction and its effects.

3. MODECOMP – a new program of beginning teachers training

The principal aim of MODECOMP project consists in elaboration, experimentation and application in educational practice of an operational model centred on development psycho-pedagogical competences at beginning teachers.

The model is structured for three levels:

a) from the theoretic point of view, the demarches are centred on knowing and analyzing of speciality literature at the national and international level and developing of conceptual and methodological frame;

b) under researching rapport, there are realized elaboration and application of specific psycho-pedagogical instruments for identification of difficulties which beginning teachers confront in didactic activity; determination of indicators and concepts for the domains; the realization of psycho-pedagogical experiment; the cantitative and qualitative analyzing od dates; the psycho-pedagogical processing of results;

c) at the operational level, la nivel operational, it pursues to build up and to aplicate the intervention strategies for development of professional competences.

The importance and actuality of this project consists in articulating of theoretical construction with the experimental dates, rezulting an operational, integrate, normative, complex and formative model. The model will contribute at abilitation of beginning teachers with strategies of projection and realization of educational process pursuant to European professional standards.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF OPERATIONAL THINKING THROUGH MATHEMATICS CLASSES

Professor PhD Costică LUPU,
„Ștefan cel Mare” National Pedagogical College of Bacău, Romania,
costica_lupu@yahoo.com

Abstract

The matter of the ways and means of influencing the man in order to optimize his creative potential tends to have these days a main place in the field of science and social practice concerns. The human activity as a whole implies a multitude of aspects belonging to the human psychic. The process of thinking is a general process of maximum of complexity that coordinates these activities.

The high degree of generality of these classes, the excessive abstracting, the tendency of some teachers to transmit as much information as possible, often exceeding the curriculum, don't meet the necessity of developing the student's thinking process.

Practising critical thinking requires for the students to be involved in the learning process, at the same time, in the actual experience, in the process of observation, reflection and learning, and in applying the achieved knowledge; the teaching-learning process implies covering the levels of evoking, realizing the meaning and reflecting.

Keywords: *concepts, notions, reasons, reasoning, problem solving*

WAYS OF INFLUENCING THE INDIVIDUAL IN ORDER TO OPTIMIZE HIS POTENTIAL

The child and young people nowadays spend a great deal of their lives as subjects of the instructive-educative act. Education, schooling, learning must be useful, fruitful for the personality of the one who studies, and the usefulness and fruitfulness cannot be measured in this case, except by their psychological efficiency, by the new gained proceedings, structures and organizations, that is, by the progress achieved through education and learning. The problems of learning are well connected and united with the problems of development.

Intellectual development, as a side of general psychical development, is by itself conditioned by the way the activity of assimilating certain knowledge and skills devolves. The driving force of the psychical

development is intrinsic, not being given from the beginning, natively, but acquired, learned through special mechanisms of internalizing the external pattern of contradiction and objective causality.

Language, its structure and component relations: learning, memory components are essential factors in school achievement.

As a psychical function, (although it doesn't have its own informational content) *attention* facilitates the performances of the other psychical processes. It actually represents the orientation of intellectual activity regarding the implicit or explicit purposes of learning. Basic knowledge has an essential role, both in the subordinate process of sensorial information and in the remaking that take place at the working memory or attention memory levels. The manner in which knowledge is organized inside the memory facilitates its updating process.

Behavior is guided by knowledge and processes belonging to the attention area, or by the knowledge and the structure of active purposes from the working memory level.

The cognitive architecture of the human psychic (the totality of impenetrable cognitive mechanisms, necessary and sufficient for the achievement of an intellectual behavior) allows the human cognitive system to learn from the environment and its own experience. Learning depends on the organizational manner of the beforehand knowledge base.

Knowing school achievement and improving them needs mastering specific instruments destined to the psychological knowledge of the pupils. The potential of every child must be capitalized by offering new methods and techniques that allow the possibility of expressing himself as an individual and social asset.

THINKING AND LANGUAGE

When we use the term "thinking" we can suggest an entire series of different things. We can suggest, for example, that we meditate upon a matter which we often associate with intellectual activities, or we can think about a problem such as which is the shortest way to reach the hospital in time for a check-up, or sometimes we can suggest the dreaming process "I was thinking what it would be like to win a lot of money". Or we can suggest the process of decision making "I don't know if I'm going to this party. I'm still thinking about it". All of these are mental activities which we call the same "thinking".

Osgood, in 1953, defined thinking as "the internal representation of events". Psychologists suggested different explanations for the origins of thinking: Freud (1980) saw thinking as being oriented towards a purpose; Piaget (1952) considered it a form adaptation; Dewey (1933) considered it as a result of discrepancies.

Andrei Cosmovici (1996) defined: “thinking is a sequence of operations that leads to revealing important aspects of reality and to solving certain problems”. It is difficult to define thinking so that we can surprise its overview and the many issues involved. It seems fairer to consider *thinking as a sequence of operations that allow us to know some aspects of reality and to deal with problem solving situations*.

As a psychological process of great complexity, the act of thinking can be objectified in a number of specific forms: *concepts, notions, judgments, schemes, reason or it may occur in the act of understanding or solving problems*. In short, here are the main forms of psychological human thinking.

Concepts are ways to group together or to classify information so that a number of classes of objects can be specified. Objects can be classified in two ways, by common characteristics or by the *features* they share. Broad concepts can be categorized in subcategories and at the same time we can notice that some objects belong to several categories.

Notions allow us to reason regarding a class of objects or phenomena. Using notions, we succeed in differentiating the essential from nonessential. Generally, we are talking about two kinds of notions: concrete and abstract.

Reason communicates relationships between notions, that is, it achieves the affirmation or denial of a report between notions. What is interesting to note is that in order to be considered an act of thinking the act of reason must have the attribute of conviction, of adherence, from the one who enounces it.

A scheme contains ideas, plans, reviews and memories of past actions that may help in the *decision making process*. A scheme is highly mobile; it constantly changes with the acquisition of new information.

Reasoning is that form of thinking in which from a few reasons we can achieve another reason. In other words, reasoning is "*directed thinking*". This form of thinking is used in conjunction with other mental processes in order to achieve the optimum solution of a problem. There are two types of reasoning:

- *deductive reasoning*, held in the abstract level, ranging from general rules to specific instances;

- *inductive reasoning*, it amounts to a multitude of specific observations and concrete facts, in order to achieve generalizations.

Understanding is to establish a significant relationship between an unknown material and another previously known. In many cases, the act of understanding is associated with the activity of learning new content. There are two types of understanding:

- *an immediate understanding*, based on previous experience (mother tongue words, attitudes of others, familiar phenomena);

- *mediated understanding* relating to the development of thinking efforts in making connections and links, designed to allow us to discover the essence of an act or phenomenon.

In terms of learning activity it is important to know the comprehension scientific text devolves.

From this perspective have been outlined several steps:

- *preliminary reading* stage and a fragmentation of the text, a group of ideas, a clarification of the general meaning (often, it's reading "*diagonally*");

- *extensive reading* stage during which the main ideas of each fragment come off (sometimes, the main ideas of each fragment materialize in a (sub) title the passage receives);

- the stage of *organizing main ideas and titles* as a mental plan somewhat similar to a wider contents of a book (obviously, in this process are used all forms of thought, concepts and notions are inferred, judgments and reasoning are achieved)

- the stage of *full comprehension of the material* (when all contents, notions and concepts newly learned can be used to make judgments and reasoning, to solve problems, or as knowledge base for understanding new knowledge)

Problem solving is achieved mainly through a conscious mental manipulation of symbols. Sometimes it's about a transfer operation of prior knowledge for a problem solving situation.

The ways of solving the problems are multiple: trial and error; dividing the problem in sub-problems and solving each one, etc. It is important for children to learn the algorithms to solve but also to vary the types of problems in order to increase the plasticity of thought. Sometimes the solution to a problem may appear "from nowhere" through a so-called process of "enlightenment". The literature mentions different forms of thinking in the context of solving problems. For example, Guilford proposed distinction between *convergent thinking* (the one that, based on a feature algorithms it allows solving the problem and finding only one solution) and *divergent thinking* (the one leading to a multitude of results, or finding the same result by different methods). Without supporting the superiority of one form to the other it should be noted that divergent thinking must be in line with the process of convergent thinking.

Thinking is characterized by two broad types of operations: *general operations* and *specific operations*. General operations are present in all acts of thought, while specific operations are found only in very limited activities. General operations of thinking are: *comparison, analysis, synthesis, abstraction and generalization* (A. Cosmovici).

Comparison is the in relation, on a mental level, of objects or phenomena in order to clarify similarities and differences between them.

While stating that the purpose of this joining is to clarify similarities and differences between objects, the comparison refers only to the baseline of reflection, and not to the actual finding of these similarities or differences.

Analysis refers to a mental separation of objects or phenomena into constitutive elements, specific parts or features and it is a decomposition of the whole into its components.

Synthesis consists in making a connection between objects, phenomena and their various parts, elements or features, achieved by mental separation of their components (analysis), consisting in identifying and constructing an overview of the entire reconstruction.

These three operations of thinking allow solving problems. What must be particularly emphasized is that only the existence of these capabilities to achieve the operations of thinking is not sufficient for solving problems. A great importance is held by the changing in conditions and data of the problems to solve. In other words, *progress is fuelled by changes in thinking experience*, by the diversity of objects or situations of concern.

Abstraction is an analysis of the essential, isolation on a mental level of issues or key relationships between objects and phenomena. Abstraction allows the development of conclusions linking the object to a whole class of objects that have common, similar characteristics.

Generalization is the action to extend a relationship between two objects or phenomena on an entire class. In other words, the generalization is the operation of transition from individual-concrete to general or specific categories.

J. PIAGET'S CONTRIBUTION ON THE SPECIFIC OPERATIONS OF THOUGHT

According to the great Swiss psychologist, mental development is seen as a process of continuous construction, as a progressive series of balances. During the mental construction of knowledge there is something that remains constant, common to all stages and ages. The items that are constant are the *functions of thinking* and the elements that change are its *structures*. For example, the interest function, as actions trigger, is common for all ages.

A particular attention is given to the *structures*. The structures are sets of elements related in time and space, causal and implied (determinative) and can be *static or dynamic, cognitive or affective*. Structures play the role of antecedent, support for the acquisition of any experience, the role of matrix that incorporates information, the factor that makes assimilation a fundamental dimension of development.

Piaget has shown that *specific operations of thinking* come from the *gradual internalization of actions*, that the child actually performs first in the day to day activity and then through mental debate. Thus, the development of thinking operations is achieved along *stages of evolution*.

1. *The Sensory motor state (0-2 years)* is the first stage in child development; the child's first manifestations of intelligence and thought arise from perceptual and motor activities. The child will gradually learn that he is a different entity from the outside world, he will realize that objects can be moved by hand (he will learn the *concept of causality*), he will learn to experiment (especially with movement) to discover the world and to reach his purposes.

2. *The Pre-operational stage (2-6 years)* is marked by egocentric thinking; the child will understand hardly life in another perspective than his own. Also, the child's thinking process is dominated by *animism* (the world is made for the child and everything around him is alive and under control) and *artificiality* (natural phenomena are created by people).

Realism is, at this age, an absolute notion, for example, names are real for children - they don't understand that names are just verbal labels. Also, at this stage children begin to use symbols (not to manipulate them). The children begin to understand objects as parts of larger groups, they do some simple classifications, but nevertheless they cannot think in a logical manner. In the late stage, they begin to distinguish between reality and fantasy and they also begin to understand gender roles.

Reversibility, considered by Piaget the main characteristic of human thought, expresses the ability to return to the mental plan, to the point of departure, to make the way around. During this period the child is not capable of reversibility, since he is still linked to immediate perceptions. This was demonstrated by experiments on the conservation of substance, weight and volume. If you pour water from a shorter and wider glass in higher and narrower one (with the same capacity), the child will judge that there is more fluid in the second glass because the level of the fluid is higher.

3. *The concrete operations stage (7-12 years)*. At this stage the child begins to think logically and organize thoughts coherently; his thinking process is a situational one, he cannot yet operate with some abstract concepts. Gradually, the egocentric perspective disappears. The child begins to understand issues related to the conservation of objects (substance, weight, volume), to reversibility, etc..

4. *Stage of formal operations (abstract)*. This stage lasts from about the age of 12 until the individual matures. Sometimes, Piaget says, some individuals do not reach this stage, their thinking not being able to surpass the concrete operations stage. At this stage the individual can make assumptions, he can test them and can answer problems. Intellectual development is complete: the individual is capable of all operations of thinking. Internalization and processing of concrete actions in specific operations was highlighted by the Russian psychologist Galperin (after A. Cosmovici), using the example of learning additions.

I. The first phase is the one in which the teacher *demonstrates* to the children how to do the operation; for example, children are introduced to two sets of chopsticks, the chopsticks are counted in each lot, then they are mixed together and at the end the chopsticks are counted from the great bunch.

II. The second phase is *to familiarize the child with an action*. The child will *handle directly* the chopsticks and do exactly the same activities that were done by the teacher.

III. In the third stage, children will not directly manipulate objects (chopsticks), at this stage called *concrete operations stage*; children will perform the same action *verbally*, meaning that they will say: "x apples plus y apples equal z apples ". It is noted that *changes already start to happen to the material*, the child beginning to do the operation with other objects than chopsticks.

IV. In the fourth stage begins the *internalization of the operation*. The child will not utter aloud the operation, he will do the additions mentally, but still at the same pace as if he would say it aloud. This can be seen in some children when their lips move slightly, a phenomenon called exteriorization of inner speech.

V. The last phase is the one of *full internalization*. The calculus becomes automatic and the addition is done quickly and schematically. External language is no longer used and it is replaced by another important form of language - the inner language.

Clearly, there is no need going through all these stages for the internalization of operations. Some individuals can skip some steps to go directly to the internalization phase. The internalization of operations allows the implementation of crucial aspects. We refer here to the possibility (that may appear) of *mental experiments*. The numerous advantages that arise from this are:

a) it is easier and cheaper to imagine an experiment than actually proceeding with it;

b) imagining the changes would help avoid unnecessary testing;

c) mental processing can cover a wide range of issues, and further, material change can lead to thinking development in general.

The same Piaget found out that the internalization of various actions is carried out in an order dictated by their complexity. Thus, the discussions and group controversies are the last to be internalized (after the ages 11-12). Gradually, the child begins to internalize some conversations, and afterwards contradictory discussions. During this time, the ability of abstraction and generalization begins to manifest. Thus, we are witnessing the development of abstract thinking that takes place as imagined controversy. This process is supported by the development of inner language.

THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE IN THINKING DEVELOPMENT

Language is the function of tongue used in relation to our peers. Language/tongue is an *above-individual reality* established in books and made up by a system of words, a vocabulary, and certain rules of their combination. As seen, language is closely related to the activity of achieving thinking operations through the internalization of actions, but also to the development of thinking through internalized controversy. Learning language (signs) is possible because humans' socialization process. The relationship thinking-language was widely studied by Vîgotski. The Russian scientist claimed that for the very small child, together with language development begins the development of his thinking. Vîgotski describes three stages in the development of language which devolving, become more intimately connected with thinking.

Each of these stages in the development of language has its own functions.

The first stage (*0-2 years*) - *social language or external speech stage*. At this stage the links between thinking and language are less obvious. Children use this type of language to control the behavior of others and to express simple thoughts, emotions, and desires.

The second stage (*3-7 years*) - *the stage of egocentric language*. This type of language is the "bridge" between primitive and public language, specific for the first stage, and sophisticated, interior language, specific for the third stage. At this stage, the children talk to themselves, without taking into account whether someone listens to them or not. Basically, they think aloud in trying to direct their own behaviour.

The third stage - *the stage of internalizing language, for oneself*. It's the type of language used by grown children and adults. With this type of language the individual can direct their thinking and behavior. Developing this type of language allows the development of all forms of thinking and devolvement of higher mental functions.

In order to be capable of coherent language, the child must acquire language and the process can be done only in close interdependence with thinking. At first words don't mean anything to the child they're just sounds that direct attention. By associating words with actual objects thought operations are being facilitated: comparison, analysis, synthesis. Gradually, each term becomes a point of crystallization, of *defining significations/meaning*.

Thinking can progress based on specific fixed centres of relationships system's organization around the words. This is the way notions arise. One of the main objectives of intellectual education is to determine young people not to rush in to judging a phenomenon immediately after its appearance, but to seek the essence of things. In this respect, a very important role is help by controversy. Thus, the *dialectical function of language* is evident and,

through these controversies, it can help us find the truth. Gradually, the student will form a system of notions and knowledge that is organized based on relations to be understood and semantics

DEVELOPING STUDENTS' THINKING IN THE SCHOOL CONTEXT

Often, one of the main methods of working in the classroom is the *teaching exposure*. Unfortunately this method is not sufficient for the assimilation of knowledge. In fact, learning involves much more.

Education focused on this method was often criticized, especially because of the rupture between the knowledge acquired in school and the reality beyond school. This was due and is due, yet to the passive role that children have and to the manner of evaluation, which is often focused on mechanical reproduction of content.

As a response to these trends, even since the beginning of the twentieth century, a number of famous educators John Dewey, Maria Montessori, Ovid Decroly harshly criticized the student's passive role and insufficient application of their thinking. The school was considered to be an artificial environment devoid of the "*challenges*" of reality and plans and education programs were too rigid. As a response to these criticisms new methods and models have been developed, including so-called *project method*. Thus, the method of individual projects is used for scrolling, *in individual pace*, learning contents - clear and well defined by curriculum.

This modality, as similar others, helps develop children's thinking, and their active participation in their own formation. The model presented above is one of the organizational forms of education: *the individual form*. In addition, a form of organization of *activity in small groups* (4-5 pupils) can be used. These two models are a counterweight to the *frontal form* of organization education, in which the educator works with the entire group at once and the child is too little active.

To change this situation, *problematization and discovery learning* have been proposed as the main methods of teaching and learning. In this case the dominant concern is that new findings are not to be presented to the children in their final form, generalized, fully explicit, but in practical situations that raise problems. Children should also be *used to find problems* by themselves to solve.

Contemporary psychology has highlighted the benefits of group work and cooperative learning. First it was found that working in groups generates more ideas than if the members of the group should work separately. Ideas issued by someone can change the point of view of the other, who may continue to enrich them.

The most important issue regarding this method refers to the fact that firstly, such *activities require a lot of time* and secondly it requires a *rethinking and a decanter of learning content*.

Under these conditions, the teaching speech cannot be completely eliminated. First the speech is necessary for stating events or descriptions, as most lessons of literature, history and geography are.

Problematization of content may be a viable alternative make the exhibition method more efficient and to stimulate thinking development for students. And finally, another very important thing must be pointed out. Changing these methods of work must be accompanied by changes in all sections of the educational process, from organization and equipment to the content aspects of teaching and assessment. The implications are many and various, for example, no matter how great the effort made by the teacher to make the children more active and to stimulate their thinking, when using the evaluation based on the reproduction of learned material, the overall efficiency of the process is lost.

SYSTEMATIC TRAINING OF CAPACITY AIMED AT CONCEPT UNDERSTANDING, KNOWLEDGE OF PROCEDURES FOR CALCULUS AND SOLVING PROBLEMS

Mathematics in kindergarten, primary and secondary school aims to ensure for all children basic skills training, covering: arithmetic calculus, problem solving through exploring, testing and implementing algorithms (methods) to solve problems, active involvement in practical situations, and the search for solutions beyond the strict calculation of the learned skills.

At the basics of learning mathematics lies thinking as superior form of human activity. In most cases, thinking appears as solving problems.

Pedagogically speaking it is good for attention to be directed to this meaning of thinking – efficient thinking often occurs without explicit occurrence of the problem (when re-reading a poem once learned we can discover a new meaning; in someone's intervention we can discover a problem which we previously never thought about).

Thinking , as a problem solving process and as an internalized action to be carried out at different levels begins with handling difficulties; uncertainty makes its appearance before carrying out an important task for the individual, because he cannot anyhow apply his solutions to the given problem – situation.

The process of problem solving can be spread into stages: the appearance of the difficulty - the problem; problem delimiting, formulating; seeking possible solutions; formulating hypotheses; verifying, motivating the hypotheses; application, confrontation, transfer.

It's required to be emphasized the fact that without the participation of the individual, society would not create thinking and, without constant

mutual relation between the individual's thinking and that of others the child would not become aware of the differences that separate his ego from the others'.

The teacher presents the notions to a classroom, but at the same time he works with the individual. Each child perceives what is said at his level of understanding. In mathematics we operate with concepts, calculation rules, properties, we establish relations between numbers, we struggle between the desire to make our children know as much as possible and the inability to achieve the expected performance.

It would be ideal if in a class, at least ten children would get to be mathematicians because we gave everything we could, but in the plan for educational ideal the transition from the statement "education for all" to "education for everyone" has major implications at schools' level. It's about the focusing on the possibility of becoming for each individual.

Teaching that supports the problem solving process is effective if the problems are good (interesting, solvable by children), if children receive only the necessary support in order: to interpret the problem, to choose the effective methods of solving; if they not only solve the given problem but they also easily find the way leading to successfully solving other problems; if they have continuous encouragement.

PLANNING LESSONS THAT PROMOTE CRITICAL THINKING DEVELOPMENT

Critical thinking is a pedagogical trend that rejects the mentality that there is only one good, appropriate answer, and that's because people have each their own way of thinking, so solving problems is different for each one.

According to the nine fundamental ways of thinking stated by Zlate in 1999, critical thinking is "centred on testing and evaluating possible solutions in a given situation, on the choice of appropriate solutions and reasoned rejection of the least appropriate ones. It requires well-founded logical reporting of the matter to the problem and its option for the best way to solve it. "

To think critically is to practice many ways of thinking and argue convincingly your point of view, to adopt and to reject after an objective assessment.

Comparing with traditional teaching strategies with teaching strategies that promote critical thinking we can point out the much more complex activity of the child, (who is determined to remember some prior knowledge or to ask questions in order to make meaning of ideas), but also of the educator who, in addition to organizing and moderating the teaching-learning process he also becomes a partner in learning.

During the actual lesson, evocation will pursue drawing the attention of children by examining their previous knowledge and encouraging them to formulate questions and set goals for their learning. The activity of extension following this activity will have to facilitate cooperation in solving problems as well as in sharing ideas and not in the least it will have to focus on feelings and attitudes.

Developing critical thinking of children we actually achieve its two key dimensions:

- social dimension – the expression of human solidarity, a sense of belonging to a group;
- pragmatic dimension – the involvement of children in activity, in solving authentic problems.

These dimensions cannot be attained unless the teacher and children form a relationship based on trust and respect and the stimulating process occurs gradually encouraging each child's participation, accepting personal opinions, making each child more responsible.

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AN APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF SCIENCE FOR YOUNG LEARNERS

Lecturer PhD Daniela POPESCU,

“Constantin Brancusi” University of Tg-Jiu, Faculty of Letters and Social
Sciences, Romania, dana_popescu77@yahoo.co.uk

Student Flavius POPESCU,

University of Edinburgh, School of Informatics United Kingdom,
flavius.popescu@gmail.com

Abstract

In the past years there has been noticed a certain decrease in the number of students that choose science as their subject of study for a university degree. One of the main reasons generating this climate is the extent in which this subject is made accessible to children at an early age. As long as school curricula restrict the pupil's time and opportunity to study preferred subjects more in-depth, developing a field of interest is a difficult step. Some schools have taken action in this perspective and got involved in a number of activities on different topics or have completely reconfigured their curricula to allow time for the introduction of a set of optional courses. Moreover, pupils at schools which have not implemented such programmes have the opportunity to subscribe for a summer course. That is what stimulated us to organise a summer activity in the form of a computer science and engineering course, which promised to deliver a unique blend of skills including computer programming, robotics, numeracy, teamwork, communication and practice of the English language. This document will explain the structure of a robotics course designed for young learners. Potential content for the course is revealed and points on how to deliver the activity are provided.

Keywords: *Programming, Robotics, Training, Young Learners*

1. Introduction

The main challenge of the classroom of tomorrow is to develop new types of courses meant to prepare students who pursue a scientific career. The first issue is that of the trainers being able to teach courses that can best serve students' interest in science. How to develop such a course, how to deploy the right education environment, what can be done about students' poor motivation, how to make use of skills like critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration or self-direction are questions that could be an

obstacle for many. Therefore we thought of sharing our experience in designing a computer science and robotics course. The following guide offers a detailed picture of the structure of the course, providing any trainer with a stream of ideas and how to implement them in order to help students make the most out of this experience.

2. Course characteristics

As this course is not based on previous programming experience, it is important to take some time, on the relevant class, and explain the idea behind an algorithm and its fundamental control structures. Associations and real-life examples can be given so as to aid the understanding of the relevant concepts.

The ability to work in a team is an important skill that this course greatly relies on. Students will form teams of 2-4 members. Whether one team will effectively complete all the tasks throughout the course or not depends on how well the members will organise and divide tasks among themselves.

For the length of the course, each team will be provided with a LEGO® Mindstorms® robotics set, along with building instructions, and a computer which includes special software that can be used to program the robot. All aspects of the programming part will be thoroughly explained. It will be a good opportunity for all team members, whether they have met any of the notions before or not, to get hold of a theoretical basis and immediately visualise the effects of applying it in practice.

The students are not required to bring any materials from home. If the course is organised as a summer activity, this fact will greatly help the instructors to easily put an accent on the entertainment element of the course, while children will not feel like they are part of the traditional school environment. However, as there is an educational side as well, one way of combining the two is to offer students personalised notebooks and pens. They should be encouraged to use them and write down what they consider to be important.

Another important aspect of organising the course is feedback. This can be used by instructors to improve the activity and try to meet students' expectations and it should be requested from them at the end of each day. A quick and easy solution that can be implemented even from the first day is to place three bowls at the exit. One of them should be of different colour and will be empty. Each of the other two will contain labels with a happy face and a sad one, respectively. When the students finish their activity and prepare to leave they are asked to choose a label from one of the two bowls and place it in the third one, according to their impression on the course. This way it is easy to see how well the students get along with the course structure and the instructors will often be able to tell what went well and

what did not. Alternatively, another bowl with a neutral face can be added. This type of feedback can be easily collected and allows an immediate analysis of the day.

After the first few days of the course, the students will have a better idea of how it is working, how much they understand from its content and what is not properly organised. At this point, more detailed feedback can be collected in the form of a questionnaire or a small sheet of paper that allows them to express their honest opinion. A good way to get the most out of the feedback, especially since children are the ones who provide it, is to ensure a private space where they can write their ideas. In most cases, they will think about more aspects if they are not distracted by their curious team mates.

3. Course description

The course content is organised in five days, as follows.

3.1. Day 1: Welcome! Let's build a robot together!

The instructors welcome the students. They first introduce themselves and then the course, briefly pointing out its main stages. Having a short discussion on how the students should approach the trainers and behave during the course helps create a better working environment.

The introduction must not take a lot of time. However, the students should understand that the success of their team depends on individual effort and that they must be patient and listen to what the ones around them have to say. Creativity and the ability to sustain ideas will ultimately prove to be some of the main factors that make the difference between being able to fulfil a task or not.

Colour-coded teams with equal number of members (if possible) are randomly formed. Team members then have the chance to meet each other and choose a name and logo for themselves.

The teams are now ready to begin their first task, which is to follow a set of given instructions in order to build a vehicle robot. The instructions will graphically reveal, step by step, how to attach the given LEGO pieces together. At each step, there is a drawing with all the pieces that should be assembled during that step. Each team is also provided with a 1:1 diagram depicting measurements for variable-length parts such as axles, bricks, etc. Three-dimensional views of the growing construction are shown in order to help the students check proportions between individual pieces. The teams should take account of that and carefully select from the kit the correct parts that must be assembled.

Once all teams finish building their robot, they have the opportunity to learn about navigation through the intelligent brick's system of menus and watch the robot perform some demo programs which can be found in the

memory of the NXT brick. These programs are meant to give students a preview of the types of programming that follow in the next few days.

3.2. Day 2: The MINDSTORMS NXT programming environment. Basic movement and sensor usage

Programs for the NXT can be created using the MINDSTORMS NXT drag-and-drop programming environment, which is included in the robot set. It is based on programming blocks which serve different purposes and it is easy to understand and use. The blocks can be dragged onto a program “brick” which determines the flow of the program. Simple programs which involve basic movement and sensor usage can be quickly created. For more complex programs, many more blocks must be dragged into the program and connected between themselves, which can be sometimes cumbersome and requires a lot of space on the screen. A programming language usually serves the development of larger applications, but for most programs encountered in this course, the drag-and-drop environment can be efficiently used.

In the programming environment, the blocks are sorted into categories, or palettes: common, complete and custom. The common palette contains all the blocks which can be used for basic movement and sensing, including some extra features such as playing sounds or displaying text.

Throughout the day, the common blocks will be explained i.e. how they can be used to achieve desired results, what options control which type of robot behaviour. The instructors will aim to gradually introduce students to programming, while altering between a theoretical explanation and a practical exercise. By assuming this approach, the students will be able to understand the notions better and even more importantly, they will have the ability to ask questions after observing the behaviour of the robot during each experiment.

3.3. Day 3: Revision. Advanced blocks

By the end of this day, students should be able to create programs which use all sensors. They should also have all the necessary training that will allow them to explore their creativity and come up with working solutions to problems raised in the following days.

In order to learn some more programming techniques, the students can attempt to solve more exercises. These are meant to challenge them and allow each team to plan and develop solutions, with help from the trainers. Exercises can be similar, but are not limited, to the following examples:

1. Make the robot move in a square pattern: how would you alter the length of the square side?
2. Make the robot move in a circle pattern: how do you control the length of the circle radius?

3. Your robot has a claw mechanism for grabbing things: how would you use it to pick up a ball?
4. Navigate to the nearest object! Several items will be placed around your robot, at various distances; your robot should detect the one that is closest, move towards it and stop in front of it.
5. Create a program to make the robot sound-sensitive with regards to its speed. If there is a lot of ambient noise, speed should be close to maximum; if there is complete silence, its speed should be close to 0.
6. Transform your robot into a fearless navigator! Use any sensors that you find necessary and create a program that, once run, will allow the robot to go through a random obstacle course. See how far it gets, and if it gets stuck, think about what you have to do to make it go even further.

3.4. Day 4: Preparations for the competition

Throughout this day, teams have the opportunity to see the competition mat, and think about solutions to its challenges. The rules are thoroughly explained and students are allowed to ask questions.

The purpose of the competition is to stimulate students' creativity and challenge their minds, while evaluating their ability to work with their teammates and come up with efficient solutions to the missions, all under the pressure of time.

The competition mat contains several items, some of which can be obstacles or they can be related to one or more of the missions. Somewhere on the mat, a base area can also be found. This is the 'launching pad' for the robot.

The teams must carefully choose the missions they want to solve. It is not necessary to successfully complete all missions. Teams should select from the ones that they feel they can approach better. The goal is to collect as many points as possible and sometimes, solving many of the easier missions will be worth more than the result of all the hard-work that was put in for a few difficult missions. The competition is timed, and once a team is ready, their robot will only have a certain amount of time (usually less than a few minutes) to run the programs.

The base area acts as a 'pit-stop' while the timer is running, so the robot, after completing one or more missions, can be programmed to return to the base. One of the team members can then quickly change to the next program and send the robot in its attempt to solve the next mission(s).

If the robot is touched outside the base, it should be immediately taken to the base and the team will be given a penalty, in form of points deduction, warnings, etc. Several touch-penalties could lead to the round being stopped (timer set to 0).

The teams are allowed to modify their robot (arms, parts, etc.) if they find necessary. However, they should take into account that, while an additional arm will do the job for one of the missions, dragging it around the mat for the other missions which do not require its help can slow the robot down, or even stall it. A solution to this problem is to group the missions accordingly and take advantage of the robot entering the base for a program change. A team member can then quickly remove the no-longer needed arm from the robot.

3.5. Day 5: Competition time!

The teams are now ready and the competition can start. Each team is given a chance to send their robot and acquire as many points as possible in one round. There is more than one round, and the one that is marked highest is the final score for that team.

When the timer stops, a referee assesses the situation and awards points for the missions that are successfully completed at the end of the round. Note that if the robot completes a mission but then, while attempting a different mission or otherwise, it accidentally interferes with it (e.g. moves an item away from its location after it has already been placed there as part of the task) the mission is not considered successful. In order to be so, it must last to the end of the round. If, however, after the timer ends, the robot program keeps running and then it interferes with any of the missions, no points are lost. The robot should be immediately picked up, once the timer reaches zero, and any damage done to the objects on the mat must be taken account of.

Here is a sample sheet containing rules and scoring for a competition. Notice that the mat used in this competition was designed with three base areas, each with its own timer. The teams are allowed to choose which base(s) they want to compete in and for each of those, they are given two chances to score as many points as possible.

- Base I - basic movement and sensor usage

Countdown: 1 minute

Missions:

Knock down the cuboids: yellow, green and red cuboids are worth 5, 2 and 10 points respectively.

Hit the checkpoints: checkpoint 1 is worth 20 points, checkpoint 2 is worth 25 points.

Cross the finish line! Have the robot placed at Checkpoint 2 before the timer ends. (15 points)

Bonuses:

Time Attack: complete all tasks in less than 25 seconds. (10 points)

Nice and clean: complete all tasks with no penalties. (15 points)

- Base II - construction & creativity

Items from the base area used in missions: 4 cuboids (2 blue, 2 green)

Countdown: 50 seconds

Missions:

Special delivery: move the two blue cuboids to Checkpoint 3 (worth 20 points if both are partially touching the checkpoint area and 25 points if they are completely placed inside the area). Move the two green cuboids to Checkpoint 4 (worth 30 points if both are partially touching the checkpoint area and 35 points if they are completely placed inside the area).

Return to base: have the robot placed back at Base II before the timer ends. (5 points)

Bonuses:

Time Attack: complete all tasks in less than 30 seconds. (10 points)

Nice and clean: complete all tasks with no penalties. (10 points)

- Base III - advanced sensor usage

Countdown: 45 seconds

Mission: reach Checkpoint 5. (40 points)

Bonuses:

Time Attack: complete the mission in less than 30 seconds. (15 points)

Nice and clean: complete the tasks with no penalties. (10 points)

Penalties for all bases:

Displacing any of the standing orange cuboids from their original location results in a deduction of 15 points per cuboid displaced.

Touching the robot while it is outside the base results in a deduction of 5 points. In addition it counts as a warning, with the third warning setting the countdown timer to 0 minutes 0 seconds and thus ending the round.

Crossing the dotted red lines with all wheels forces the team members to touch the robot and bring it back to base.

Displacing the aiding obstacles will result in a deduction of 10 points.

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CO-TEACHING IN THE CONTEXT OF STUDENT TEACHING PRACTICE

Assist. Teacher Raluca GALIȚA,
„Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, Romania,
raluca.galita@yahoo.com

Abstract

The English lessons taught by the Romanian students during their programme of student teaching practice in schools made me, as a methodologist, realise that they are better and the students feel much more at ease when they teach in pairs rather than alone. The purpose of this paper is to describe what co-teaching is, to show what techniques students should approach in co-teaching and to underline the main advantages and disadvantages for both the student-teachers and the pupils.

Keywords: *co-teaching, student teaching, teaching techniques*

1. The English Lessons in Student Teaching

In the field of student preparation in order to become a teacher, one important step is student teaching. It is considered to be the final stage of a student's journey on his way to becoming a teacher. For the English classes, the traditional model of student teaching involves:

1. twenty hours of observation: the students spend the initial weeks as silent observers of the English lessons taught by the mentor. They take notes on:

- stages of the lessons;
- timing;
- classroom management;
- teacher talking time;
- error management;
- activities and materials used.

The observation lessons are followed by discussions between the mentor and students in which the teaching process is analysed in details. Students get “the meaning of teaching experience” by means of reflecting on it. “Reflection, then, is one means of investigating practice and of theorising about it. Basically it involves systematic critical and creative thinking about actions within the intention of understanding its roots and processes and thus

being in a position to refine, improve or change future actions” (Fish Della, 1995, p. 13).

2. four hours of teaching: the students gradually assume the role of teaching.

3. one final lesson of teaching.

For these five lessons the roles change: the student becomes the teacher who is observed by the mentor, his colleagues and the methodologist. By trial and error, they develop abilities in the teaching activity, experimenting its complexities. This time, the mentor and the methodologist are the ones who take notes on the evolution of student-teachers, paying attention to (Galița, R., 1999):

- preparation (clarity and appropriateness of aims and objectives, suitability and preparation of materials, balance / variety and timing of activities / methods);
- personal and professional attitude (voice, use of language, ability to establish rapport, professional attitude);
- performance (classroom management, presentation techniques, elicitation, pace and timing, handling transition, exploitation of materials, use of teaching aids, ability to use language properly, giving feedback, assigning homework, achievement of aims and objectives);
- reflection and awareness (ability to evaluate own performance, ability to plan future action, willingness to experiment, ability to work as a member of a team / independently).

For the final lesson the student has to work alone, as this is the one which is supposed to be the best, the one in which the student is expected to apply all the pieces of advice he has received so far from the two observers and the one which will bring him the final grade for the whole activity of teaching.

For the other four lessons the student may choose between either teaching alone or teaching together with a colleague (co-teaching).

2. Co-teaching

Although co-teaching is sometimes considered to be a method in student teaching which allows the mentor and the student to collaboratively work together in a class (Heck, Teresa; Bacharach, Nancy), I prefer to regard it just as a model which involves two students who work together in the classroom throughout or at some point of their student teaching experience to best meet the needs of all pupils. I prefer this variant because it is the most frequently used for the English classes in Romania.

Sometimes the students wrongly assume that teaching together, in pairs, means that one conducts half of the lesson, while the other one stands or sits by and watches, and for the other half of the lesson the roles change.

In fact, while co-teaching, the students should not only share the responsibility for planning, instruction and evaluation for a classroom of pupils, but they also work *together* creatively (for example, one may be teaching, while the other one is writing notes on the blackboard). This means that co-teaching should be collaborative, interdependent and coordinated, with the student-teachers interacting with all the pupils at different times, but interacting also with each other.

3. Co-teaching Techniques

There are a few different techniques of co-teaching (Cook, Lynne, 2004) (“One teaches, one monitors”, “Alternative teaching”, “Parallel teaching”, “Station teaching”, “Team teaching”) and more than one technique can be carried out within one class period.

a) One teaches, one monitors

This technique implies that one student-teacher leads the lesson, assuming the role of instruction, while the other student-teacher walks around the class, monitoring pupils’ behaviour and progress. The main strength of this technique is that it provides unobtrusive assistance to those pupils who didn’t understand or to those with diverse needs. The student-teachers should alternate the roles of lead teacher and support teacher.

b) Alternative teaching

This technique implies that one student-teacher works with a larger group of pupils, while the other student-teacher takes responsibility for a smaller group. Sometimes, the splitting of pupils into two groups can be based on achievement. “One teacher provides remedial instruction to pupils who are struggling on a skill while the other teacher provides enrichment to those who have grasped the skill” (Flynn, K.J).

c) Parallel teaching

In this co-teaching technique, the class is split into two equal groups and the two student-teachers teach the lesson simultaneously. The main strength of this technique is that the pupils benefit of more supervision (the teacher can better monitor individual student progress) and they have more opportunities to respond. One of the challenges that this technique raises is that the two student-teachers should carefully coordinate their teaching so that pupils “receive essentially the same instruction within the same amount of time” (Rosario, Belinda; Coles, Candace; Redmon, Pamela and Strawbridge, Judy).

d) Station teaching

This technique implies that the student-teachers divide in two both the pupils and the content to be taught. Each teacher then teaches the content to

one group (“station”) and subsequently repeats the instruction for the other group. A third “station” could be established, on condition that the pupils should be able to work independently.

e) Team teaching

In this co-teaching technique, one student-teacher teaches the material, while the other one demonstrates (with examples on the blackboard). The latter can also provide follow-up activities.

4. Advantages and Disadvantages of Co-teaching

Co-teaching may have several positive effects both on student-teachers and on pupils, but there are also some disadvantages for both parties.

a) Advantages

Among the advantages/benefits of such activity for the student-teacher, there are:

- the student-teachers feel more at ease and confident in front of the class, as they know they are not alone and the responsibility is shared;
- they learn how to work together, how to complement each other;
- the student-teachers, by working together, have the opportunity to learn from each other;
- their strengths are combined and their weaknesses are less obvious.

As for the pupils, the advantages might include:

- the opportunity to learn from two people who may have different ways of thinking or teaching;
- the opportunity to be exposed to different types of language, including accents, registers and idiomatic expressions;
- the opportunity of learning how to respect the differences.

b) Disadvantages

Some of the disadvantages for student-teachers may be:

- co-teaching requires that student-teachers plan the lesson together and sometimes conflicting opinions may occur;
- the classroom environment can be inconsistent and this may lead to a poor final grade for the student-teachers.

In what concerns the pupils,

- they may get confused when receiving information from two different sources;
- they may not know whom to listen to.

5. Conclusions

The student-teachers need to have a very clear image of what co-teaching is before implementing this model of instruction. They should be aware of their responsibilities but also of the advantages and disadvantages of co-teaching.

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CRISES OF IDENTITY AT FIN DE SIÈCLE

Assist. Teacher Cătălina BĂLINIȘTEANU,
“Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, bcdum79@yahoo.de

Abstract

The decadence called forth a confusion of the specific gender roles; most of the female characters reveal masculine features and the male characters show female weakness. The ego of those female characters develops through ‘will to power’ (if we consider Nietzsche’s theories), through perversity (which is seen as defence mechanism) and through a narcissist reflection (the individual gets a feeling of self confidence due to his recognition in society). If the super ego appears as a moody psychic instance, then the id of the heroes learns how to satisfy its sexual needs. The psyche of the female characters turns out to be the battlefield for the struggle between a paralysed super ego and a greedy id. We focus our analysis on Heinrich Mann’s novels “Îngerul albastru” and “Zeițele”, on the way he encapsulates this bewilderment of genders, which presents an androgynous figure and which leads to the alienated identity of the modern woman.

Key words: *Übermensch, the relation master-slave, alienation, individuation*

At fin de siècle the individual’s alienation to himself, to the whole world becomes a major issue for analysis for the modern society. These alienated heroines are depicted through their power of manipulation; their relations to other persons are marked by a general indifference and impudence. Behind their apparent humility and innocence there lies their desire for recognition and a selfish motivation that they are able to exploit everybody. The tendency in the 19th century distinguishes two types of women: a pure, submissive and an ill-reputed/disreputable woman. In Heinrich Mann’s work the heroine turns from a prostitute type (*Îngerul albastru*) to an idealized lover that appears mostly as a goddess (*Zeițele*). In my present paper the female character embodies a sexualised woman that tries to have control over her life or even holds it.

Slave and aristocratic morality

Friedrich Nietzsche in his *On the Genealogy of Morality* (1887) comes up with two fundamental types of morality: the noble morality aims at “good” valuation, which equates the “evil” valuation of the slave. The

difference between the aristocratic and slave morality lies also on the fact that the noble triggers good or evil consequences and the slave reveals good or evil intentions. The decadent culture with its language, codes, traditions and way of thinking is identified through the conflict of these two types of morality. The duchess of Assy (the heroine of *Zeïtele*) embodies the ideal modern woman who can unite in her personality strength, beauty and intelligence. The goddesses Diana, Minerva and Venus from the Roman mythology are chosen as names for the three volumes of Heinrich Mann's novel. In a letter to his editor in 1900 Heinrich Mann admits: „*Es sind die Abenteuer einer großen Dame aus Dalmatien. Im ersten Theil glüht sie vor Freiheitssehnen, im zweiten vor Kunstempfinden, im dritten vor Brunst. [...] Wenn Alles gelingt, wird der I. Theil exotisch bunt, der 2.te kunsttrunken, der 3.te obscön und bitter.*“ (Heinrich Mann, 1971, pg. 87-88) (“sunt aventurile unei maro doamne din Dalmația. In prima parte îi strălucesc ochii după dorul de libertate, în a doua parte tânjește după artă, în a treia după pasiune.[...] Dacă totul îmi reușește, prima parte va fi exotica, a doua artistică și a treia obsecenă și amară”.)

The duchess of Assy defines the morality of a strong, determined person, for whom the Good stands for nobility, strength and will and the Evil for weakness, cowardice, shyness and irrelevance. The duchess shows a noble character when she forgives the ones who betrayed her, when she intends to get involved in the romanticized revolution and in other political riots, when she shows interest for art in all its forms. The aristocratic morality highlights and protects the modes of valuation of a noble and strong person. The duchess seems to be the only person capable of establishing this mode of valuation, she does not need anyone's approval, she decides what is good or dangerous for her and for her subjects; as a true aristocrat she creates her own mode of valuation.

Its opposite, the slave morality, appears as resentment, which the weak feels towards the powerful. The slave sets up an imaginary revenge. It therefore needs enemies in order to sustain itself, unlike noble morality, which hardly takes enemies seriously and forgets about them immediately after he has dealt with them. The weak deceive themselves into thinking that the meek are blessed and will win everlasting life, thereby ultimately vanquishing the strong. People around the duchess reveal only hidden and mean intentions, whose actions bring only unlucky consequences. The slave's morality and intentions focus only on financial gains, all these subjects are greedy for power and profit and their reactions to the feeling of oppression emerge gradually. The duchess expresses the noble morality through her strength, whereas the 'slaves' try to subvert her value. All her enemies and betrayers do not necessarily long for a reversal of the social positions, but they want to enslave her, to bring her to same level as theirs. The duchess differs from the others through her noble character, and the

slave's nature distinguishes through the usefulness of his intentions: he fights for something useful, not for something noble or powerful. Her subjects try to mislead the duchess and they plot a riot, during which the duchess is supposed to struggle for the rights and freedom of the Dalmatians. She does not fully understand the anxieties and restlessness of her folk, in fact „*das Leben von einigen tausend Menschen*“ „*war völlig gleichgültig*“ („viața a câtorva mii de oameni îi era cu totul indiferentă“), still her intentions regarding these people are not evil/bad. Nietzsche's theory coincides with Heinrich Mann's opinion about 'mastery' and 'slavery', they were not in favour of a standardization of the society, of equal positioning of people, because they believed it would mean a general decay of mankind.

Master-servant relations

The industrialization gave birth to a social competitive struggle and this influenced greatly the cultural life, the general mentality and the people's way of thinking. Many philosophers dedicated their time and thoughts to this conflict between people that are stuck at the periphery of the action and those that are in the centre of all things hence the conflict between margin and centre within one social system. In his work *The Phenomenology of the Spirit* (1807) Hegel introduces two philosophical categories in order to explain these marginal and central positions: the master (*der Herr*) and the servant (*der Knecht*). Both represent the margin and the centre of a system. The servant is always dominated, he will never dominate the others, he acknowledges the position of the master and he will never be appreciated or acknowledged by anyone and in the end he will be defined by his duty to his master and by his fear of him. At the opposite side, the master (on the contrary) receives all the advantages of the system. This relation between master and servant changes when the servant develops a kind of self-confidence and this marks the beginning of revolution, as long as he becomes aware of his position and wishes to replace it with that of the master. Hence the servant begins to wander from margin to centre.

The power relations in the school from *Îngerul albastru*, where professor Unrat behaves as a master and treats his pupils/students as servants, suffer a radical change when the professor trying to punish his pupils follows them to the tavern "The Blue Angel" and in this way he gets to know Rosa Fröhlich whose personality acts as a catalyser on the professor's fate. In this depraved location we notice that the absurdity of his tyrannical behaviour is rooted in a lack of passion and love. The feelings that were long suppressed, come to life and the actress 'dominates' the old man who is totally bewitched by her irresistible charm; this prefers the professor (a man with a certain social and financial situation) to the highschool students who are in search of new adventures and affairs. The satirical episodes from the actress' wardrobe in the tavern present the reversal of

power relations. The tyrant from the school loses his authority and his respect because of this woman; instead of a master-servant relationship there begins a complicity relation or an apparent friendship between the professor and his students, because in Rosa's wardrobe all men succumb to her beauty and charm. This wardrobe is the only place where men no longer hold control and the women have the opportunity to dominate the others. Rosa Fröhlich highlights the opposition between man and woman from a cultural perspective: the school, an educational institution that is attended by the children of the most respectable people, is the place where only a man can be the master; on the other hand the indecent tavern is a cheap/inferior institution which does not receive anybody's respect where the 'former' master can no longer impose his will on the others and his position is assumed by a woman.

Übermensch and the Individuation

The marketed form of the society at the fin de siècle highlights the theory of alienation; the emancipation of the individual at the turn of the century involves the individual's autonomy and isolation from society under the imposed social constraints. Schopenhauer and Nietzsche analyzed the illusions and disadvantages of individuation and their criticism showed that the man's autonomy and loneliness represent a divergent phenomenon of modernity; the crisis of identity is in fact the crisis of the individual. In *The Birth of Tragedy* (1872) Nietzsche explains the difference between the contemptuous individualism of the modern society and the noble individualism of the 'will to power'. He does not understand the confusion of most Europeans of that time, who strive after individuation, but at the same time they struggle for the equality between man and woman. He believes the exile of individualism is claimed through the voice of Christian morality: the individual is said to adapt to the common social challenges, in this way the individuation is brought to destruction/ disappearance. Heinrich Mann, fascinated by Nietzsche's work, outlines a portrait of nietzscheanic individuality through his hero, Professor Unrat (a tyrant) and his heroine the duchess of Assy (an anarchist); he reveals the representative of individualism from the title of the novel (*Professor Unrat oder Das Ende eines Tyrannen*-Profesorul Unrat sau Sfârșitul unui tiran), but from the beginning he points out the crisis of individualism (the fall of the tyrant). In his opinion the tyrant and the anarchist are the only ones capable of rebelling against the Christian restrictions. Once the morals seem to decay there emerge the persons that stand for the predecessors of individualism.

As a tyrant Unrat appears to be an early and unconscious form of the 'will to power', and his life is generally characterized through loneliness and frustrations of not being understood properly by the others around him. Before he met Rosa, he feels rejected, misunderstood and alienated. He is

considered a hysterical old man, whose life is defined through his need of money and through his fear of sexuality. His identity experiences appear to be signs of individualism, he seems to have forgotten his origins, therefore he is forced to live by himself (after the death of his wife alienates himself from his son and regards him as a decayed man). In this way Unrat is the subject of his own actions and is aware of his individuality. We cannot consider Rosa Fröhlich a representative of individualism, in fact she represents the opposite, because she is dependable on other persons and cannot detach/ distance herself from them. Within the relation subject-object Unrat appears as the superior being. In his turn Unrat is threatened by an identity crisis, which emerges in the form of his fall or of an exaggerated conformity.

Heinrich Mann, as Nietzsche, was enthusiastic about the *Übermensch* (=superman, overman) and out of his admiration for this concept there emerges the central theme in the trilogy, a character that could comprise all features: strength, intelligence and *joie de vivre*. Volker Ebersbach (1987, pg. 86) depicts the duchess of Assy as being free from any philosophical and religious constraints, from any sign of patriotism and as being unscrupulous as the *Übermensch*. The term designates an ideal person, who breaks the traditional boundaries and creates new values. Nietzsche's opinion points out at the mankind's duty to generate such a character, which seems to be superior to everyone.

This superior individual unites two key concepts: the will to power and the eternal recurrence of the same. Heinrich Mann applies the principle of the eternal recurrence of the same on one of his heroines, when he intends to re-enact some events from history through the existence of the duchess. Therefore everything already experienced by the three goddesses (Diana, Minerva and Venus) is once again embodied by the duchess; she presents features of their personalities, she brings to life their images. This experience of the eternal recurrence seems for Nietzsche the hardest thing to be accomplished by human beings. Who is capable to overpass this issue, proves to be an *Übermensch*. Heinrich Mann believes that if the duchess is willing to submit totally to this assimilation and to identify herself to the three goddesses, then she surpasses the boundaries of a common man. The duchess, the 'superwoman', is the creator of new values, which refer to her own needs and desires (freedom, art and love) and at the same time she destroys or disapproves of the former (old) values (religion, God, the traditional moral conventions). The new values rely on love and on her joy in experiencing life. Opposing the Christian dogmas the *Übermensch* pleads for an existence only on earth and defies the ones that believe in the promised reward in heaven. The *Übermensch* considers that those persons, who choose this kind of existence, are not satisfied with their life on earth, thus they try to build their own illusionary world in their mind. The duchess does not

dream of the soul's salvation, thus she prefers to experience everything properly, although "*alles stürzt sich [...] in den Abgrund*" (Zeitele, vol. III, pg. 234) ("deși totul pare să se prăbușească în prăpastie"). She takes things as they come, the way Nietzsche demands from his *Übermensch*, therefore she has the strength on her death-bed in spite of all her pains and torments to defy all her enemies and the parvenus around her.

The image of the duchess as a 'superwoman' is completed with another principle that marks the huge difference from a common person: the will to power. The duchess' will to power has nothing to do with certain ordinary phenomena of life (such as breeding, pleasure, financial, political and social control over other persons), but it refers to knowledge, experience and a real perception of things around her. The instincts, the needs represent for Heinrich Mann the basis of knowledge, for that reason he allows his heroine to experience all instincts and urges. With this female character the author intended to show how the individual succeeds in getting the right perception of the world; he realizes that the duchess is capable of interpreting the events happening in the world and of reflecting them on her personality. Still Heinrich Mann lets his heroine experience the 'evil', because this seems to be the greatest challenge of being an *Übermensch*. Therefore the duchess is forced to endure the experience of a rape; for an independent woman as she is, this experience is the hardest, but if she wants to reach a certain level of knowledge, then she has to accept her own destiny. Furthermore Nietzsche demands from his *Übermensch* to desire his fate ("*Wollen befreit: das ist die wahre Lehre von Wille und Freiheit*" – "dorința eliberează: aceasta este adevărata lecție despre voința și libertate"). The duchess does not accept her fate passively, she imposes her will and behaves as a true mistress that subdues the other characters; through her will to power she succeeds in getting the real sense of her life.

In the case of individual identities (such as that of Unrat and the duchess of Assy) we cannot speak of a selfish behaviour of the individual towards other persons, but of his limitation to certain social constraints and in this way both man and woman feel alienation and anxiety. Heinrich Mann's heroes and heroines do not identify themselves to other persons, therefore they become psychologically isolated, although they are physically dependable on other persons. If they want to identify to a certain group of people, they are forced to accept their conformity, thus their partial adaptation or refusal to adapt leads them to crisis of identity.

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THE PROCESS OF CREATION IN ADVERTISING

Lecturer PhD Brîndușa-Mariana AMĂLĂNCEI,
University of Bacău, brandusa_amalancei@yahoo.com

Abstract

In our opinion, a first step in analyzing an advertising creation resides in analyzing the way in which the message is build up and transmitted. This way, we will bring into discussion the points of view of the specialists in the field of advertising regarding the quality advertising and a series of principles that are recommended in the achievement of an advertising production. In our analysis we will take into consideration a series of remarks regarding the “recipe” of an efficient commercial, as well as some notes about the research in advertising and the process of creation.

Keywords: *Unique Selling Proposition, AIDA Principle, Dagmar Model, Acca Model, Lavidge Steiner Model*

1. The Search of the Idea

Among the ones that tried to underline some of the aspects that should be found in the quality advertising we can mention Mihaela Nicola and Dan Petre (2001). They considered that in the advertising production, the potential of ideas, of execution, of expression and of style is followed by a series of precise parameters.

According to Mihaela Nicola and Dan Petre “the creation must sell the brand of the product” (*op. cit.*, p. 94), because it represents a device to establish and to maintain, but not accidentally, the connection between the product and its consumer, and must be “an original, coherent, honest communication regarding a product, that can be easily understood by the consumers”. The main purpose of the creation is indisputable, because it can transform an unknown product into a brand. The above mentioned authors consider that the main characteristic of an advertising production is simplicity, knowing what it is about to be communicated and drawing out the main idea of all the characteristics of a product.

In order to be considered quality advertising it is also necessary, according to the authors mentioned, for the message to be clear and direct, taking into account the conversational style of the target consumer, generally unsophisticated: “The excess of epithets does not make a product more

attractive. One of the principles that must be strictly followed by the creator, is to talk to the consumer as if he were standing right beside you, in order to convince him to buy that certain brand” (M. Nicola, D. Petre, *op. cit.*, p. 98).

The specialists consider that quality advertising is intelligent and speculative and the message can be perceived easily. There are few products on the market that can be easily distinguished from other similar products, and that is the reason why they should be presented in such a manner to catch the eye and to gain the consumer’s approval.

The main concern of advertising is the search of the *idea*, finding that simple but unique concept that can determine more and more people to buy and appreciate the promoted brand. But the most important issue is to find the USP – *Unique Selling Proposition*, through which a product can be considered unique, as compared to other similar products, this uniqueness can be found in: the history of the brand, name and/or package, characteristics, formula, performances of the product; distinguishing a characteristic that identifies a product as being unique in the process of communication (a characteristic that is not used, yet, by the competition); economical or financial aspects, price and so on; associating the brand with a person that the group wants to identify itself with.

The issues presented are part of the advertising technique, and we presented them from the perspective of advertising specialist, in order to offer some suggestions that can be useful in the appreciation of advertising.

2. Attention, Interest, Desire, Action

Creating the advertising discourse, either oral (commercial, radio/TV) or written (printed commercial, banner), implies the existence of a sender, a receiver and a space-temporal context. The immediate purpose of the advertising discourse is to persuade the sender, to induce a certain perlocutionary component of the message that leads to buying the product/contracting the service.

Olga Bălănescu (2003) considers that the advertising success depends on the way the copy-writer respects the AIDA principle: *attention, interest, desire, action* (*op. cit.*, p. 122). The advertising must catch the receiver’s *attention* through both its text and image, by being original using memorable verbal structures, rhythmized by colors and lines successfully blended, by means of visual impact. Once the advertising catches the attention it is essential to maintain *the interest* of the receiver all along the advertising, in order for him to express an *attitude*. On the other side, this interest must be so intense that the receiver actually *wants* to purchase the product / contracting the service promoted and *to act* accordingly.

Concerning the attention, Michèle Jouve (2005) makes a clear distinction between two different types of attention: spontaneous and voluntary. Spontaneous attention, completely involuntary is caused by the

message: “In this case, we will refer it as a «clinging» text or suggestively, a play upon colors, a music refrain, a surprise effect of any sort... that has the role of catching the eye of an individual”. In this way the attention is directed towards the senses and the spirit. Voluntary attention focuses upon the receiver, meaning that the above mentioned methods become second, while the impact of the argumentation takes the lead. The next step after catching the attention is that interest must be woken. But the receiver finds a product, a proposal and a message interesting when he sees immediately in it some advantages he can enjoy. From this derives the idea that: “the necessity of turning qualities into advantages, in gaining satisfaction” knowing that “what interests the individual is something that corresponds to its needs, his tendencies and not the characteristics of the product”. After the receiver managed to establish a connection between the object of communication and a need / a profoundly aspiration, comes the necessity of creating a state of privation, becoming appetizingly. In order to emphasize this state of *desire*, we can mention three procedures: “the sublimation of the craving word”: *A coffee named desire*, putting into jeopardy the capacity of obtaining the object: “One should not lose a good business”, “Until stock exhaustion”, “Before permanent shut down” and “tempting the consumer, for instance, by means of a favorable proposal: free consultation for 15 days, try with no obligation to buy, gift to encourage the purchase or to reward”. The act of buying or involvement is conditioned by three parameters: the need, the effort required to meet this need and the final satisfaction and in order to have an efficient type of communication one must: “stress the need, minimize the effort, reducing to the maximum the intermediate approach and turning into a facilitating agent to increase pleasure and to insist upon future satisfaction” (Jouve, *op. cit.*, p. 113-115).

3. More Models

Along with the system *AIDA*, Michèle Jouve proposes three more models designed to set the same approach: *Dagmar* and *Acca* (it is not enough just to draw attention, but it is intended for the receiver to understand, firstly, what is proposed; therefore emphasizing the idea of persuasion) *Adoption* (a more pragmatic attitude, more conservative, because they go through several stages – evaluation, experimentation – before adhesion occurs; furthermore a free consulting, or a sample, or a free trial with no obligation to purchase will be proposed) and *Lavidge Steiner* (notoriety is the way to attract attention since this is primary dealing with the issue of communicating the brand, the image; a second stage of “knowledge” results, instead of understanding; *op. cit.*, p. 116-117). The conclusion that emerges is that the three models have as starting point the principle according to which before you can buy or adopt something we must “learn”. So, in advertising we can identify several “attack plans”

depending on the choice of the creators to seduce before informing or to explain logically prior to “shackle”.

4. Text and Image

Usually, the text of an advertising is in close connection with the image, that tends to express more and more “because territorial expansion of markets (*globalization* spot advertising) along with the intention of being easily accessible to the most diverse audience” (O. Bălănescu, *op. cit.*, p. 141). Sometimes the image cannot say everything, but combined with a good slogan, it can have the desired impact: “Sometimes an image is worth a thousand words, but it must first fit into a whole, to respond to product positioning and creative concept. And the use of free, shocking images, without any regard to the product may do more harm than good” (M. Nicola, D. Petre, *op. cit.*, p. 120).

Wanting the receiver to understand the text easily, to find it familiar, and to memorize it, the creators often resort to intertext (mottos, quotes, idioms, proverbs), play upon words, polysemy, suggestive comparison and so on. But – according to Olga Bălănescu – “it is not enough for the message to be popular, it needs to be supported through the information transmitted – extra-textual elements – especially in the context of this millennium, when information represents a fundamental source. The impact of the message upon the receiver depends heavily, on the correlation of these elements, in the advertising and in the balance between the emotional and informational element” (*op. cit.*, p. 141).

Mihaela Nicola and Dan Petre consider that advertising should respect some basic principles of design to create a visual impact. Thus, it is necessary for an advertising to convince as a whole and to obey the principle of *unity*. If the elements of the advertising do not combine with each other, confusion may occur. Also, the advertising parts must be compatible, that is *to harmonize*, and to be placed in such a way as to direct the reading from the top left corner to the bottom right corner. The sequence may, therefore, help the viewer examine all the elements, some of the most common arrangements are the ones shaped as the letters “Z” or “S”. Usually, a certain component is privileged over others and this done by means of *emphasizing*. Not everything is equally important, and the presentation of the elements, equally may lead to a “plain advertising”. A final principle that is to be taken into consideration is that of the *equilibrium*. This implies the existence of elements equals in size and shape, both in the left and the right side of the advertising. The authors above mentioned consider that such a symmetry “creates stability, but may leave a sense of lack of imagination” (*op. cit.*, p. 120-121).

According to Mihaela Nicola and Dan Petre the most developed advertising creation is the video commercials. It has two main components:

the video component (the visual) and the audio component (spoken words, sound effects, music). Most of the commercials are a blending of various techniques: the testimony, the speaker, the demonstration, the close-up procedure, the narration, the comparison, the metaphor (a procedure according to which the brand is replaced by an image, a symbol or an expression that has no direct connection with it, but presents the qualities or the characteristics on which he wishes to draw attention), still pictures or frames, slice-of-life (is a dramatic technique were the chosen actors act in a story related to the product), interviews with consumers, stickers or situations (the commercials that present a succession of events that support an idea and are used in commercials on soft drinks, candy, and other convenience goods; in this case it is used as a jingle or an audio support, a song whose lyrics illustrates best the current situation), animation (the most common is the cartoon, but recently the three-dimensional technique is used).

The authors above mentioned consider that the efficiency of the audio advertising is given by certain parameters, such as the use of a sound or of a memorable noise, related to the brand. In this case, the first five seconds are essential catching the attention of the audience (M. Nicola, D. Petre, *op. cit.*, p. 125).

François Brune (1996) points out that in the video commercial the variety of the vocal stimuli deliberative conceals the convergence of the recommendations, the word plays the role of a secret, persuasive element. Therefore, the author recalls the spot for Woolite, where Romy Schneider confesses, suggesting a touching story of a perfect couple, inviting the receiver to dream at: *Between Woolite and my woolen clothing is a long story, years and years of tenderness*. In that very moment comes the external, neutral and determined voice of the technician, that points out the advantages of the product (it washes in cold water and so on), and the driver offers the conclusion: *Act like Romy Schneider, use Woolite*. In the end, the product imposes in three ways: the novelistic seduction, didactic security and through wise recommendation (*op. cit.*, p. 168-169).

According to François Brune, the four tones illustrated in this spot (narrative, suggestive, didactic and imperative) must be completed with a fifth: the indicative tone, meaning “this product exists, is used, I use it, the product functions”. Different voice functions, according to the author, are in close connection with the meaning of the words. In order to make the receiver desire the product, the suggestive tone is used; the narrative tone is used in order to place the product on the novelistic scene; the didactic tone is used in order to present its content; the imperative tone is used in order to prescribe its use and the indicative tone has the purpose of convincing the receiver of the working order of the product.

5. Conclusions

Because the message must point out a product that interests everybody, we consider that is imperative to use terms and structures that have the ability to impress the public opinion. According to François Brune, the content of the message “obsessively brightens the frames and life-style of the rich ones; the language, the shape, the themes, and the rhetoric used try to adapt to the peoples need. In short, a bourgeois dream will be shaped into a working language. Lazy demonstration, redundancy, hyperbolic metaphors, coarsely symbolism, hyper-expression, common sense *approach* [...], foreground on the soup or on the raw material, screaming colors, intense musical signal [...] and so on – the operators use all sorts of procedures *to get* the public, more or less intuitively, but systematically”.

We also would like to mention Olga Bălănescu’s (2003) points of view regarding the so called “publicity style” which is placed by the author in the publicistic style.

According to Olga Bălănescu, the *publicistic style* is different from the other functional styles through its heterogeneous character both from the formal point of view and from the composition one (*op. cit.*, p. 9). This style has on its basis three functions: the informing function, the propaganda function and the agitation function; this way the public is informed, influenced and trained in a certain direction regarding the social, politic, economic, artistic, scientific events, and so on.

Regarding it’s stylistic versions, there differentiate mainly two orientations: the elevated version appeared as a consequence of the requirements of placement in actuality of the daily events of social-politic, cultural-scientific nature and the familiar version that is easily to the audience as a result of the transmitter’s focusing exclusively on the receiver.

No matter if it’s about reports, interviews, advertisements, commercials, daily current information, editorials, news, classified ads, press statement, and so on... to the presented material it is often attached a series of extra-linguistic means (photos, maps, caricatures, statistics, tables, and so on). In order to catch the public’s attention the publicistic style uses a figurative vocabulary, periphrases, inversions, digressions, comparisons, epithets, repetitions, enumerations, parallelisms, antithesis, interrogative and exclamatory intonations, direct and indirect speech and so on, in general the norms of the literary speech being obeyed, and their disobedience are achieved in order to raise the expressive value of the statements. Also, the elliptical formulations, the striking titles, the aphorisms and the quotations are means of stirring the interest of the public opinion.

The publicistic style contributes to the spreading of some technical terms, but also of some words from the familiar language or from slang, being at the same time sensitive to the changing of expression of the different social classes and to the linguistic innovations.

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THE PROBLEMATIC EGO IN HEINRICH MANN'S WORK

Assist. Teacher Cătălina BĂLINIȘTEANU,
“Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, Romania, bcdum79@yahoo.de

Abstract

Freud's psychoanalysis brought its contributions to the defining of the new identity crisis, still the term "identity" is missing from our analysis although we try to identify the character of the modern individual. We focus our paper on the major psychoanalytic theories and we investigate the human urges/ needs under the influence of the external world in terms of sexuality and social life. Heinrich Mann's novel "In the Land of Cockaigne" presents us the decay of an individual whose main interest is the possession of objects and of other persons. Everything turns to be an object in the hands of the 'master', everything can be marketed, and sexuality, love, all feelings and desires are submitted to money, power and social life. This marketed universe in the eyes of the modern individual is linked to the theory of alienation; in this decayed world the individual feels himself alienated and wants to tear the veil of social restrictions and conventions.

Key words: *power, sexuality, social status, relation between master and servant*

Most of the writers at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century show their interest in psychoanalysis and their novels and short stories vacillate between the conscious and the unconscious, between dream, fantasy and reality. Heinrich Mann reveals his preoccupation for this domain and focuses on the adaptation of people to the new life conditions and to the new social challenges; he does not perceive sexuality as the main cause of all the psychological disorders, but the individual's failing to adapt to the whole society. In his novels Heinrich Mann intends to emphasize that the effect of sexuality on people is just an expression of the influence that the social life and the morals have on the individual. The new sexuality at the turn of the century is a social issue, which registers both a hidden aggression and a cultural conflict. The author wants to highlight that the crisis of the individual reflects in fact the crisis of the whole society. Thus we cannot state that the psychic soundness depends on a general reform of the morals.

Heinrich Mann assumes that the ego of his characters depends on the current civilization and culture; when we want to consider the society at the

turn of the century, then we have to ponder on some specific features of the individual at that time: firstly we deal with an individual whose ego only strives after power; the individual wants to have control over his own body, sexuality, his social status and over his life. The society demands the individual to adapt as fast as he can to the new social and political circumstances; the human being has to surpass all the challenges imposed by society. In fact the ego has the impossible task to rule an individual that cannot control his own life. There begins a competition, a rivalry between all human beings who are possessed by their strivings after power and the direct consequence of such a rivalry points out a society full of frustrated individuals. Secondly Heinrich Mann reveals people's confusion in which they equal a good social position with a fine way of living. We observe that at the turn of the century the ego troubles itself only with social issues; Heinrich Mann's characters perceive the loss of the social position as a loss of their identity in the society as if they did not exist for the people around them. Roland Brunner (2000, pg. 17) considers the career or the social position as a "narcissist contract" (if one loves his career as his own life, as his own image) and believes that neurosis or depression can be a product of the social life of that time. In most of his works Heinrich Mann presents the ego's alienation towards institutions such as family and religion and finally towards his own country.

In the Land of Cockaigne it seems that the individual does not pay attention to history, or to his own past, and does not show any intention concerning his future. The ego relies on the immediate satisfaction of his lust and the super-ego seems to be too mild, too gentle. Thus there arises a new pervert version of ego, which provokes and usurps the individual. When we consider the rapid and successful rise of Andreas Zumsee, we cannot stop wondering whether his perversity and cynicism represent or not an ideal ego. The individual is taught to get his recognition in society through hatred, arrogance and sometimes through violence. *In the Land of Cockaigne* the super-ego seems to be paralysed or anaesthetized, that perversity and an infected soul damage the social life and the already disordered society. The last feature of the individual at the turn of the century designates the narcissism of some characters (especially Andreas Zumsee). Due to his social rise Andreas becomes a true dandy with narcissistic features, a position that he adores and thus he displays his sexuality, lust and desire openly.

The phallic power

Whenever we speak about the social status of an individual, we observe that it seems to be strictly connected to the idea of power. The social power designates the influence or the control of one person over the others' attitudes and prospects. This relation, to have or not to have power, is

understood in psychoanalysis through the possession or the lack of phallus (Freud uses this term very often in his theories; he mentions it in the “phallic stage” of the infantile sexuality, which solves the castration complex. Jacques Lacan is the one who focuses on this term and renders it a symbolic value. Freud pointed out himself the difference between penis –representing the masculine sexual organ- and phallus –the analytic term- although Lacan tried to emphasize its importance) (apud Nasio, 1999, pg. 41). If we consider the castration complex, we remark that the masculine sexual organs, whose loss causes the castration anxiety, refer not to the sexual intercourse, but it aims at the cultural and psychological perception; from a psychoanalytic approach we focus on the absence or the lack of such a phallic power. Freud acknowledges the trading degree (its ability to be substituted) of this organ with other objects: its loss or its gaining can threaten, suppress or protect the others. Freud equates the symbolic phallus to that object, which compensates/replaces the possession of the mother. The phallus is the signifier for desire, it is the sign for the symbolic power, for the social position, for career, for money itself, and its loss or its absence has the same significations as in the case of the sexual intercourse. If the real castration complex plays an important role in the satisfaction of the human sexual desires, then the masculine sexual organ dominates most of the erotic experiences, therefore the symbolic castration gains its importance and all social relations relate to the symbolic phallus.

In the Land of Cockaigne all relations between characters seem to evolve only around this issue: money (as a sign of a high social position); from a psychoanalytic perspective money represents a possible perception of the phallic power, it is the signifier for the object of desire. If the characters lose or earn a fortune, then they possess the phallic power. Firstly it seems that the heroes and heroines renounce at true love, the author deprives his characters of eroticism, but they seem to enjoy life through other forms of lust: money (which can buy anything), luxury, women, social ranks, etc. People neglect their family, love, friends, they sell their ‘soul’; they can satisfy all their needs and desires with the help of money. Money is for the society at the turn of the century as a deception of senses, which stimulates everyone’s desire and greed.

Money as fetish object

Money represents the sign of an alienated power; the bourgeoisie renders wealth a ‘fetishlike character’ and it has the strong belief that money (although it is an inanimate object) helps a person to flourish (apud Freud, *Vol. 3*, 1999, pg. 295-305). Although there exist various forms of fetishism we distinguish the ‘money-fetishism’ from religious and sexual fetishism. Freud mentions a kind of sexuality that turns to different objects and parts of the body, but we focus our analysis on the significant change from a relation

between people into a relation between objects. In his major work *Das Kapital* (1867) Karl Marx uses the term of “Warenfetischismus” (market fetishism), which depicts the specific ideological character of the social relations in capitalism. Karl Marx emphasizes that the production in capitalism is carried through not in the interest of usage, but in the interest of trading those objects and for getting a profit out of them (apud. Abrams, E. Talbot, 1962, pg. 1180-1190). The trading nature of the goods is therefore the real purpose of working. We concentrate our analysis not on Marx’ theory, but on Freud’s view that money is the sign of a symbolic phallic power over other persons, and when the individual is in control of such a power, then he can satisfy all his needs and desires/ urges. Money becomes an exchange object for the object of desire; for the people from the land of Cockaigne money apparently comes to have a life of its own and it inculcates things with certain value or importance.

More and more people are striving for money, therefore they are degraded to function as objects whereas money becomes an apparent subject because it is the producer of desires and it satisfies the people’s urges and needs: all characters are under the control of money, instead of controlling it. This exchange between subject and object reinforces the idea of alienation of the individual in the society of that time. When we use the term “fetish” related to money, we try to highlight Heinrich Mann’s irony when he depicts how his characters consider money as the only way of thinking and acting for the civilization of that time. In fact this ‘money fetishism’ conceals the social relations between people and leads the entire society to decay.

Identification-a psychoanalytic perspective on social life

Even the poor people are driven into this decay, even the lower class begins to denigrate the spiritual value of things and human beings, and their lack of money and power forces them to lower themselves even more than the upper class. When the poor characters have the opportunity to earn a lot of money or to get rich, they concentrate their entire force and energy towards this dangerous and decaying style of living. Both little Matzke and Andreas Zumsee are aware of their power of seduction and they use their charm to get the desired social power, therefore they get certain financial profits. Their sexual relation with the Türkheimers helps them achieve the desired recognition in the society and reach the social status that they strove so hard for. Money or certain financial gains guarantees them a specific social position in the bourgeoisie. The social power represents the influence of one individual on the emotions, behaviour and perceptions of other persons; in the land of Cockaigne the power relations distinguish themselves according to: firstly we remark the punishment of certain representatives of this society (Lizzi Laffé is banned by the Türkheimers from the land of Cockaigne because she has the courage to offend Andreas, the official lover

of Mrs. Türkheimer; even Andreas will be banned from this world when he dares to cheat on his rich and powerful mistress).

Secondly we observe the legitimation of one's identity according to his/her social status (Andreas, fascinated by Mr. Türkheimer's power, praises ironically his features of a 'true' master: "*Für mich überwiegt in Ihrer Individualität und Ihrer Wirksamkeit das Ästhetische, Sie vergönnen uns geschwächten Modernen, einen Eroberertypus, einen Renaissance Menschen zu schauen*" – Im Schlaraffenland, pg. 279-280) ("*Pentru mine, precumpănitor în personalitate și faptele dumneavoastră este esteticul. Dumneavoastră ne dați prilejul, nouă oamenilor moderni, storși de vlagă, să admirăm un tip de cuceritor, un om al Renașterii.*"- Țara huzurului- pg. 220). Finally one can acknowledge one's power through an identification process, in which the master becomes a model for the whole society and all people intentionally or unintentionally try to copy him.

In psychoanalysis the identification designates the conscious or the unconscious assumption of the features and gestures/ way of behaving of another person (apud. Chemana, Roland, 1997, pg. 148-151). A certain ego will assume all these features if it wants to seize the object of desire (the power). When we refer to Andreas Zumsee we cannot speak of a total identification, but a partial one, in which his ego identifies with only one aspect of the desired object. For Freud the identification object does not refer to the looks of a person, but to an unconscious perception. In fact we identify ourselves with only feature of the person that we love, admire, desire or that we probably lost. Andreas wants to identify himself with Mr. Türkheimer's wealth and or with his power. Through this identification Andreas' dreams and desires would come true, through this he would get the social recognition that he so much longs for. Money and power grant Andreas a public life and the escape from boredom and from his fear of poverty. Such an identification process offers Andreas the opportunity to spice up a little bit his empty life; he copies Mr. Türkheimer's gestures and the expression of his face, because he feels both admiration and fear for this man. Through this 'taking over' of certain features from Mr. Türkheimer, Andreas' admiration and fear of this man diminish in their intensity, thus we can consider the identification as a defence mechanism of Andreas (=the servant) in front of the 'master' (Hegel, Wilhelm Friedrich, 1995).

But at the same time this identification represents the symbolic anaesthesia of Andreas' super-ego. The paralysis of the super-ego is also presented through Andreas's cynicism and perversity regarding his social relations. Psychoanalysis perceives perversity not only as an abnormal sexual life, but also as the individual's behaviour regarding a symbolic castration; as if the subject ignored the fear of castration and disregards the master and neglects or forgets his position in society. *In the Land of*

Cockaigne Andreas leads his life after two principles: he enjoys all his financial gains and at the same time he wants to make a profit out of it; on the one hand he profits from Mrs. Türkheimer's love, but on the other hand he wants to laugh at the Türkheimers. He is not satisfied with his financial gains, but he also wants to identify himself with Mr. Türkheimer and to play the role of the master. He does not want to be conferred the social status (through marriage), or to earn it (through different relations to rich women), instead he wants to be accredited with this status (as in the case of an aristocratic title). We consider his behaviour as an act of perversion due to his lack of any guilt feeling. Andreas enjoys this situation (he possesses both of the women of Mr. Türkheimer: wife and mistress) and laughs at it with little Matzke (Mr. Türkheimer's young mistress). He does not feel obliged to be sincere or faithful to any person; this perversity helps Andreas integrate and adapt quickly to the society from the land of Cockaigne. The whole society undergoes Andreas' experiments and through these psychological experiences he aims at a lustful gain. His deeds reflect his need to hold the control over the social life and his strategies in achieving the power are: manipulation, the power of seduction, and the remunerations he receives from his 'victims'. Whereas the pervert identifies himself with the master and plays this role, in fact he is the servant, the slave of his own desires, because he is not capable of loving any person or object that does not designate any financial or social relation.

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MEANS OF EDUCATION IN EARLY CHILDHOOD. THE ROMANIAN LULLABY

Lecturer PhD Violeta POPA,

„Vasile Alecsandri” University of Bacău, Faculty of Letters,
violeta_preda@yahoo.com

Abstract

The present paper examines – by analyzing the lyrics of the Romanian lullaby – the prototypes in which knowledge, positive judgment, highly-developed wisdom etc. Are delivered from generation to generation.. The main objective of this study is to reveal a certain constellation of values that moulds the personality of the infant and of the entire ethnic group.

Keywords: *education, early childhood, emotion, personality, lullaby*

1. General Perspective About Traditional Family. Archaic Beliefs

Spiritual, economic, aesthetic and even demographic evolution of a certain ethnic group is closely linked to its own archaic system of beliefs and superstitions. In the Romanian traditional village, for instance, it was considered that only a large family was a happy and blessed by God. The childless woman was perceived both by her husband as well by the entire community as damned and vanishing without bringing into the world another human living was considered one of the greatest sins (Femeia care nu avea copii era [considerată] stearpă, era văzută rău și de bărbat, care-și vedea neamul stingându-se, dar și de ce[a]laltă lume, care o bănuia că a greșit în fața lui Dumnezeu, carele și-a-ntors fața de la ea; Marcel Olinescu, 2004, 154). Thus, most women were terrified by the thought of not having a child and if the situation occurred, they would request magical spells or potions. In these circumstances, the abortion was, most of the times, out of the question because of its terrifying consequences. It was believed that the one who tried to abort a baby by means of magic, after death would suffer in hell, would be hanged by its tongue and her unburned child would transform into poisonous snakes that will suck out her blood (cele care, prin farmec, caută să se scape de copil, după moarte vor fi puse ca talpă a iadului, și vor fi agățate de limbă, iar copiii pe care i-a lepădat, se vor preface în șerpi veninoși, care o vor suga; Marcel Olinescu, 2004, 166).

2. Midwives, Fairies, Mothers and “The Power of the Almighty Word”

Cosmic symbolism assimilates the image of the mother both to the fruitful land as to the water reign from which all living plants and creatures emerge. From this point of view, the maternal principle is closely connected to death as well as to life: the act of giving birth means getting out from the womb and dying is perceived as return to the earth “matrix”, probably to revive. The divine Mother is the “universal fecundity spirit, the goddess of all births and at the same time, the one who is capable to bring death” (Ivan Evseev, 1998, 250).

One of the strongest Romanian beliefs is “the power of the Almighty Word”. This conviction is that once a word is uttered, the associated reality is automatically invoked and it materializes at once. After the actual birth of the baby, the midwife is the first person to welcome and to wish it all the best in life. By doing so, she becomes the first embodiment of the witch or fairy that cast a spell upon the offspring. If in the international popular literature (*La Belle au Bois dormant, The sleeping beauty in the wood*, in Charles Perrault, *Contes de ma Mère l'Oye*, 1697) the fairy (wise woman, godmother) or *fée* (fr.) offers gifts, such as wit, beauty and musical talent (... les fées commencèrent à faire leur don à la princesse. La plus jeune lui donna pour don, qu'elle serait la plus belle personne du monde; celle d'après, qu'elle aurait de l'esprit comme un ange; la troisième, qu'elle aurait une grâce admirable à tout ce qu'elle ferait; la quatrième, qu'elle danserait parfaitement bien; la cinquième, qu'elle chanterait comme un rossignol; et la sixième, qu'elle jouerait de toutes sortes d'instruments dans la dernière perfection, Georges Gérard, *Le cabinet des fées, or recreative readings, arranged for the express use of students in French*, <http://www.gutenberg.org/>; 10.11.2009), the Romanian midwife wishes the baby to be first of all lucky and clever, happy and loving, healthy and wise, rich, good-hearted, and respected (“Acest băiat / Ce l-am ridicat –/ Să fie norocos,/ Și mintos / Și voios / Și drăgăstos / Și sănătos / Și-nvățat/ Și bogat, / Om de treabă / Și luat în seamă!”; Marcel Olinescu, 2004, 162).

The second embodiment of the fairy is the mother of the child. Through the lullaby she is the one who has the power and the obligation to stimulate sleep (so that she may fulfill her other chores) and the “duty” to cast a spell that will influence, sometimes change dramatically, the newborn destiny.

The act of sleeping is defined in Encyclopedia Britannica as “a normal, easily reversible, recurrent, and spontaneous state of decreased and less-efficient responsiveness to external stimulation”. This state contrasts with that of “wakefulness, in which there is an enhanced potential for sensitivity and an efficient responsiveness to external stimuli”. It’s well known that newborn infants need to spend an average of about 16 hours of each 24-hour period in sleep and it is also a fact that the babies are not able to fall asleep

by their own. Scientific studies revealed that REM sleep in the newborn infant may reflect a need for stimulation from within to permit orderly maturation of the central nervous system.

The custom of rocking and lulling the baby asleep in ones arms, on the legs, in a kneading trough or in a rocker is widespread in the Romanian traditional village. This archaic practice was disputed through time by psychologists and pediatricians. There were two theories: that the mother should let her baby to “manage” to fall asleep by itself crying, and to sooth it and rock it to sleep. Nevertheless, nowadays, neonatologists along with specialists in Social Welfare and Health Studies, are conducting intense investigations on the effect of Skin-to-Skin Contact (Kangaroo Care) shortly after birth (Goldstein Ferber, Sari, Makhoul, Imad R., 2004, 858-865), and has discovered that infants slept longer, were mostly in a quiet sleep state, exhibited more flexor movements and postures, and showed less extensor movements.

The variety of cribs attested in the Romanian traditional village proves a strong and loving relationship between the family (especially the mother) and the offspring. The first type is the “bassinets” which is the smallest type of crib, specifically for babies from birth to about four months, and tiny enough to provide a “cocoon” which small babies find comforting. Romanian mothers used kneading troughs or willow, wattle or strips of bark baskets (Ivan Evseev, 1997; G. Stoica, P. Petrescu, M. Bocșe, 1985) known as Moses baskets, as bassinets. These “sleeping shelters” were very light and versatile to handle and carry because the Romanian woman had to fulfill other tasks during the day: to cook, to weave, to wash, to make clothes, to work the field etc. It’s no wonder that these bassinets fastened up with ropes, or sometimes just a strip of cloth worn on the back or on one shoulder were used by the mothers to carry their babies with them to work or while working.

On the other hand, as we have stated before, the purpose of the lullaby is varied: to express love, to calm down (both the baby and the tired mother), to protect the baby (V. Popa, *Educational...*, 2007, 105). When singing lullabies the mother expose the infant both to a certain type of melodic harmony and the mother tongue, so he/she can develop a certain musical and linguistical understanding. By repeating the song and certain expressions, they will impregnate in the memory of the child, facilitating the early development of the articulate speech and even orienting and educating his/her musical aesthetics (V. Popa, *The Archaic...*, 2007, 147). In this way, a special type of communication is fulfilled, preparing the one which “implies the creation of a sense, according to the uninterrupted correlations between our perception faculties, our language and vocabulary skills (needed to decode them), imagination (needed to interpret them), as well as memory, to maintain them coherent when we became the transmitter of the message”

(André de Peretti, 2001, 8). The message sent by the Romanian lullaby lyrics is varied.

The first and the most common is to sooth the infant and almost to force him/her to fall asleep so that the mother to be able to fulfill her other chores (Cu tine mă zăbăvesc / Și lucrul nu-l mai gătesc. / Dragul mării, dormi în pace, / Doară lucrul mi l-oi face!"; S. Fl. Marian, 2000, 299). Sometimes, the mother is passing this work to someone else, usually an older daughter that pleads the baby to fall asleep, promising food in return („Nanii, nanii, fata/ Până vini măicuța/ Că s-o dus la moară/Și ne-aduce noauă, /Făinuță-n poală,/ În o străiță nouă/ Și-a mânca și fata/ Și-a mânca și mama!"; Ion Bratu, 1970, 282).

Another type of lullaby is the one which the mother wishes the newborn to grow up nicely and rapidly („Haida a, a a, a, a, a, / Haida nani cu mama! / C-un picior te-oi legăna, / Țâță dulce că ți-oi da / Și din gură ți-oi cânta/ Să dormi să te odihnești, / Mare mărișor să crești"; S. Fl. Marian, 2000, 299).

Sometimes the mother feels that she has to summon some archaic spirits of the totemic nature, mostly the animal ones. Thus, she calls for the spirit of the duck, of the pike, of the goose, of the cat etc. („Vină, rață, / De-l ia-n brațe, / Vină știucă, / De mi-l culcă, / Vină, somn, / De-l adormi, / Vină, pește, / De mi-l crește. / Și tu, găscă, / De-i dă țâță. / Vină, dulcă, / Și mi-l culcă,.../ Și tu, mătă, / De-i dă țâță / Și tu, luică, / De mi-l culcă,.../ Și tu, pește, / De mi-l crește, / Că copilul / Trebuiește!"; S. Fl. Marian, 2000, 226-227).

The evidence found in the Romanian folklore corpus shows the great affection that the Romanian off spring benefits from: “No Christian name was enough for the little one. The Romanian mother calls her baby: my little one, my dear one, my kind one” (S. Fl. Marian, 2000, 240). When the parents observe that the baby stands up alone and tries for the first time to walk, they use to say: “*Tree, tree* or *little tree, little tree*, meaning that they wish for the baby to grow up and to stand up like the tree does” (S. Fl. Marian, 2000, 240). In this way, they are expressing the faith in the “magical power of the spoken word”, believing that once something is uttered, the reality expressed by the words will soon come true.

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