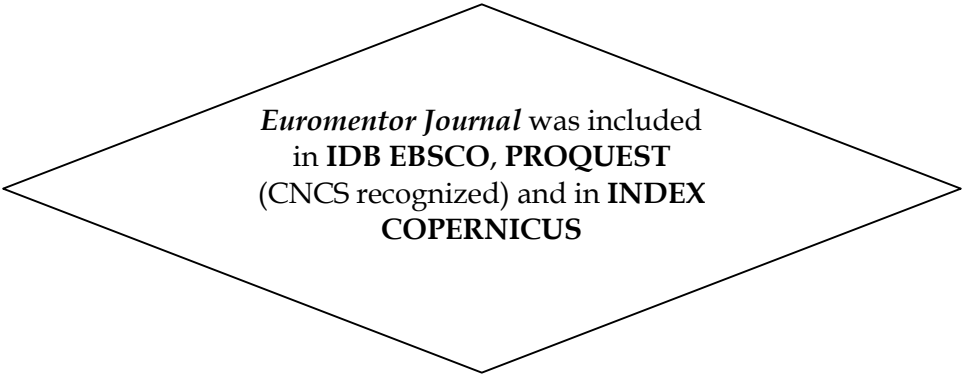


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GLOBALIZATION AND EDUCATION: A PHILOSOPHICAL PERSPECTIVE ON INTELLECTUAL ADAPTABILITY

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Abstract: *One of the recurrent themes in education in general and philosophy of education in particular is the question of the aim of education. The issue is, however, much more immediate and pressing for developing countries because of not only limited, and in many cases scarce, resources but also their almost involuntary absorption into the ever-expanding global economy. As a specific test case, this paper looks at the Caribbean countries among the developing nations and focuses on their attempt in dealing with the twofold task of managing resources and globalization vis-à-vis their educational system. The paper starts with the observation that whatever one's detailed views on the aim of education are, minimally an educational system must be able to cultivate intellectual versatility or adaptability in its clientele – specifically, abilities such as critical thinking, creativity, and imaginative thinking. Yet, these are exactly the capacities that tertiary students generally shun, and they frequently gravitate towards learning by rote and memorization. The paper is then organized into two parts in accordance with the following two questions: (i) how can an educational system end up encouraging rote learning?, and (ii) what remedial measures could be taken to correct such a serious shortcoming? The paper subsequently examines various possible diagnoses and explanations for this educational problem and attempts to chart a way out of the predicament.*

Keywords: *Aim of Education, Closed and Open-ended Systems of Knowledge, Cognitive Adaptability, Epistemic Paternalism, Reasoning, Rote Learning, Taxonomy of Thinking.*

If there is any certainty about the new millennium, it is the fact that the survival and well-being of individuals, or for that matter entire nation, would be very much dependent on their ability to adapt themselves to new conditions and environments. The situation is further accentuated by

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the rise of globalization and an increasing involvement of all nation states in the web of world economy. This means that the key not only to survival but also to success lies in how intellectually versatile individuals, as well as nations, can be in dealing with the ever-changing market requirements. In addition, it is here that the burden of developing such a capability falls on the shoulders of educators, and in this pursuit, one needs to look at how to organize the educational system to be able to cater for this objective.

In this respect, it is important to emphasize that my contention here is neither to endorse national or international social Darwinism nor to espouse a veiled or watered-down Marxist interpretation of social relationships, but simply to point out to a contemporary reality and see whether the developing countries in the Caribbean are doing enough to cope with it. Judging by a general overview of the performance of tertiary Caribbean students, it appears that not much is being achieved to this end. Tertiary students do not seem to cherish the ability of intellectual adaptability as part of their educational upbringing, and my intention is to examine the question of why the educational system apparently fails to foster such a vital quality in its clientele.

I shall begin with my experience of teaching undergraduate courses in philosophy and critical thinking at the Cave Hill Campus of the University of the West Indies in Barbados. What is distinctive about the Cave Hill Campus is that it forms a microcosm of the English speaking Caribbean countries as most of its students come from more than a dozen Caribbean nation states. In my role of teacher, tutor, thesis supervisor, and academic advisor, what caught my attention was a rather extraordinary ability of most students to reproduce and often give an almost perfect verbatim report of what they have been exposed to without showing a concrete command of the subjects in questions. What often transpires is that they happen to be quite good at *repeating* what they have been told, but they appear almost intellectually immobilized when asked either to elaborate the subject, or to unravel the assumptions, or to extrapolate the implications and consequences of the ideas under investigation. Moreover, it should be clear that these are the very necessary, minimal conditions for the development of intellectual versatility. For such students, the concept of education has become almost tantamount to *learning by rote*, and it is not surprising that *critical thinking*, *creativity* and *imaginative thinking* are among the first to fall victim to such a conception. As prominent Caribbean intellectual notes, the urgency of the situation becomes more

apparent when the problem is seen against the backdrop of questions such as the following:

How is the generation of the early 21st century to cope with the information overload that assaults the consciousness ... to make sense of reality, to decide on what reality, and to make choices in the performance of the simplest of tasks the outcome of which may indeed depend on myriad, contradictory frames of reference?" (Nettleford, 1991, p. 19)

Obviously, there is something amiss in the learning attitude and scholastic behavioural pattern of Caribbean students, and in order to rectify the situation one needs to delve into the genealogy of this educational trait. Historically speaking, it seems that this particular problem dates as far back as the early days of the establishment of formal education in the Caribbean. In my survey of literature on the history of education in the region, I had an uncanny encounter with the following statement expressed in 1854:

It astonishes our teachers ... to see with what facility they [black children] commit to memory page after page, and how they excel in those studies in which the memory chiefly is exercised. But... [in] all those cases that call for the exercise of thought and invention, there is a marked deficiency. (Buchner, 1854/1971, p. 136)

The account is authored by a Moravian pastor called J.H. Buchner almost twenty years after the introduction of the *Negro Education Grant* in 1835. In an attempt to explain this phenomenon, Buchner canvasses the issue of race but soon dismisses it.

There is among them [black people] as great a diversity of talent and intellect as is to be met with elsewhere, and ... [that] the black man is capable of a high degree of culture has often been proved ... (*Ibid.*, p. 135-136).

He then goes on to hint at the practice of child rearing among the indigenous black community as a possible source of explanation. However, what he fails to notice is that there are other possible explanations in terms of, specifically, the structure of educational system as well as the socio-political order of the day. The purpose of this paper is to explore these other explanatory avenues, which might have persisted, obviously in different forms, to the present day.

It goes without saying that this psychological-cum-pedagogical attitude of tertiary students towards the essence and end of education is not self-induced, or, more dramatically, self-inflicted. It is the outcome of the processes through which they have passed: processes that have guided

them through primary and secondary education. The students are the products of a framework that wittingly, or otherwise, encourages, if not instills, the habit of learning by rote in them, where by the time they reach tertiary level their desire or need for intellectual itinerary is inordinately inhibited. Now, should this diagnosis happen to be not too wide of the mark, there are two important questions that need to be addressed. Namely,

(1) Why does the educational system apparently encourage rote learning?

(2) What remedial measures could be taken to correct the shortcoming?

At the outset, it should be noted that both questions involve issues that are substantially empirical in nature and as one should resist the temptation of indulging in armchair theorising. However, what I wish to do is to enquire into the conceptual cartography of the debate in the hoping of clarifying some theoretical prerequisites necessary for dealing with the problems at hand.

The first question could be approached at least from two different perspectives. One approach adopts a *socio-political* slant whereby the objective would be to look at the structure of the educational system especially through the prism of history. According to this approach, the current educational system is an extension of the past colonial system whereby the educational emphasis was mainly on *disciplinarian conformity*. Particularly, what is very significant to note is the role of churches in this exercise. They were not only involved in the setting up and running of schools in the colonial territories like the West Indies but, more importantly, they had a considerable input in formulating the aims and goals of education. This is indeed how the scheme for the *Negro Education Grant* was envisaged at the time of its announcement in 1834:

It is for the present purpose assumed that for some years to come a considerable sum of money will be annually at the disposal of His Majesty's Government, for the purpose of promoting Christian education in those British colonies in which slavery has hitherto existed. In the appropriation of those Funds, the Minister of the Crown will be guided by the principle that instruction in the doctrines and precepts of Christianity must form the basis and must be made the inseparable attendant of any such system of Education. (Gordon, 1963, p. 20)

Earlier in the book, Shirley Gordon notes that the idea of education in the West Indies “was imported by government officials and religious bodies with a missionary purpose.” (*Ibid.*, p. 1) She goes on to remark that the missionaries’ “interests were denominational” (*Ibid.*, p. 5); particularly, when they started entering into the field of secondary education and establishing secondary schools, their educational endeavours were informed more by “a proselytising move” than anything else. (*Ibid.*, p. 80)

In the same vein, this is how the British Colonial Office set out their views in a circular despatch on the content of primary school curriculum in the colonies in 1847:

a. Religious Education

To inculcate the principles and promote the influence of Christianity...

b. Relationships with authority

The lesson books of the colonial schools should also teach the mutual interests of the mother country and her dependencies; the rational basis of their connection, and the domestic and social duties of the coloured races. (*Ibid.*, p. 58)

What is pertinent in this quotation to the current concern is the use of expressions such as *inculcation* and *duty* where the concept of disciplinarian conformity plays a crucial role.

Now, within such a context, a method of teaching like learning by rote would suit the masters’ purpose perfectly. Indeed, it may be surmised that the purpose of introducing formal education to colonial territories was generally motivated by two factors neither of which had any interest in anything other than inculcation. One was to provide locally qualified workforce for low-ranking posts and appointments (Mayers, 1998, p. 5), where critical thinking and creativity would be the last item on the employers’ agenda. This is explicitly corroborated by the statement of Rev. J. Sterling in his report to the British Government in 1835 that there was an urgent need for education among ex-slaves to prepare them for “their performance of the functions of a labouring class in a civilised community”. (Gordon, 1963, p. 21) In fact, as observed by many, the process of education had already begun before the *Negro Education Grant* because of the technical demands of the sugar industry. (Bacchus, 1990; Beckles, 1984; Levy, 1980) Generally, the introduction of education, as Eric

Williams (1951/1968) observes, “was not only inevitable but, conceivably, was even a necessary condition of colonial development.” (p. 12)

The other motivation for educating the emancipated slaves was to induce a new identity into the colonised communities where again the eradication of critical and nonconformist thought would be the very object of the exercise. More specifically, at the time of emancipation there was a major concern with maintaining law and order, and in this pursuit education in the form of religious and moral teaching was considered to be a most suitable means of securing social control. In fact, this is how Charles Latrobe, the first inspector appointed by the British Government to report on the beginning of the *Negro Education Grant* in the West Indian colonies, envisioned the end of education: “it is conducive to social order”. (Gordon, 1963, p. 30) The report was filed in 1838 - two years after the implementation of the scheme.

Whether or not these historical reconstructions and speculations can withstand historiographical scrutiny, the account is still suffering from a fundamental explanatory inadequacy. For, there are many other communities and nations, predominantly from underdeveloped and developing countries, that did not, at least directly, suffer from colonial and missionary experiences, yet they are beset with the same educational problem. Indeed, it may further be pointed out that this should not come as a surprise because the same effect can be produced by many different causes. Undoubtedly, a purely historical explanation is not deep enough to be able to offer an account of underlying mechanism(s) for the occurrence of a particular phenomenon. In other words, what is at issue is a question of principles and not how historically a certain circumstance came about. What the requirement of explanatory adequacy demands that a merely historical account fails to fulfil is to furnish an explanation of the theoretical underpinnings of the colonial/missionary educational system. This is what needs to be unearthed as a prerequisite for embarking upon a remedial course of action.

One may, however, concede that there is an aspect to the socio-political approach, which could profitably shed some light on the problem when it is suitably generalised. It also conveniently ties in with the second way of tackling the issue, *viz.* the *theoretical* approach. In this light, the generalized aspect of the socio-political account could be expressed in terms of a doctrine of *authoritarianism* in education. Basically, authoritarianism in education is an educational frame of mind whereby the aim is to make pupils unresisting to “established authority”, and in

doing so, it becomes natural to lay great emphasis on the *formation of habits*. Now, part of this established authority is the predominance of *facts* and *information*, and the tyranny of facts and information due to their apparent solidity and permanence inevitably turns the educational machinery into a system of imparting information. In this context, it is not therefore surprising to see learning by rote to emerge as the easiest, if not the best, way of honing habits and imbibing information.

Generally, educational authoritarianism involves an attempt to get pupils to do well what they are told to do: that is, to get them to conform to a pattern which is often than not achieved through rote learning. However, as John Passmore (1980) points out, this does not stop authoritarian systems of education from producing pupils who are extremely critical, “but only of those who do not fully adhere to the accepted beliefs, the accepted rules, the accepted modes of action” (p. 170) – in short, becoming critical *only* of those who are nonconformist and imaginative. In contrast, a non-authoritarian system of education aims at *autonomy of agency*: that is, education is an activity directed at the attainment of learning in such manner as to respect the student’s intellectual integrity and capacity for independent judgement. In other words, to graft R.G. Collingwood’s (1946) terminology from history to education, learners are not and should not be *spectators*; they are *re-enactors* or *re-constructors* in the process of education. In the case of history, Collingwood argues that the historian is not “a mere spectator of the events he describes” (p. 97), and history is not “a spectacle.” (p. 121) “The historian”, Collingwood writes, “who studies a civilization ... can apprehend the mental life of that civilization only by re-enacting its experience for himself.” (p. 163) Catering Collingwood’s idea to the context of education, an agent is considered autonomous when that person sees himself or herself as sovereign in deciding what to believe and in weighing reasons for actions. Obviously there is a broader socio-political dimension of autonomous agency (Scanlon, 1972), but the foregoing manages to capture the essentials of the concept for the educational context.

It should, nevertheless, be pointed out that autonomous agency in education need not rule out a modicum of *epistemic paternalism*. In fact, if any learning is going to take place, there has to be some measure of control on what and how factual information is going to be imparted to pupils. As John Hardwig (1985) emphasises, we live in an epistemically complex world where each of us cannot reasonably hope to assess all

evidence for all statements, hypotheses, and theories personally, let alone expecting children to be able to do that for themselves. We often have to depend on the authority of others, and under these circumstances it seems likely that epistemic paternalism will frequently be necessary, if not occasionally desirable.¹

However, does this need for epistemic paternalism commit one to a doctrine of authoritarianism in education? If rote learning and its attendant intellectual immobility are anything to go by, educational authoritarianism does not seem to commend itself. However, in order to reach a better understanding of these two theses, one needs to delve more into their fundamental tenets. From this perspective, essentially what should be noted is that both stances stem from certain conceptions of *knowledge* and *mind* and their *interrelationships*. In other words, each position subscribes to its own respective theory of knowledge and theory of mind. To be more precise, they differ in their understanding of (i) what constitutes knowledge and under what conditions it could be attributed to a person and (ii) what it is to be or have a mind and how the mind acquires knowledge.

The emphasis on the relationship between knowledge and mind is very important as one's view of their interconnection could reflect, *inter alia*, on the purpose of education and significantly on the understanding of the personal identity of individuals – both as pupils and later as members of a civil society. Before pursuing this idea in more detail, the following caveat needs to be entered: it may be asked whether “imperialists” have to be mistaken psychologists too – the point being that imperialists may as much subscribe to the correct theory of mind as anybody else but differ in their view of the purpose of education. That is, they might say that there is one sort of schooling for the masses and another for the elite. Indeed, there are too many naked emperors around to want a whole population of sophisticated, responsible critical thinkers. But, in response, it is the purpose of this paper to raise the issue of whether such an attitude is any longer a viable option even for those naked emperors.

Now, on the relationship between knowledge and mind, one way of fleshing out this rather nebulous idea is to see whether there is a conceptual priority in the relationship between mind and knowledge. In other words, is it the mind that structures knowledge or, conversely, is it knowledge that structures the mind? According to a very influential line

¹ On epistemic paternalism, see also Goldman 1991 and 1999.

of thought, it is the structure of knowledge that determines the structure of mind. That is, the mind is shaped and informed by what it knows. On this basis, it is the structure of knowledge that maps the structure of mind.

Historically speaking, René Descartes (1641/1984) was one of the first philosophers to espouse this doctrine and came to epitomise it by his remark that: "I am, then, in the strict sense only a thing that thinks". (p. 18)² On this conception, it is the thinking that makes you what you are. In other words, what gives you an identity as a person is your ability to think and thus to entertain thoughts: you *are* what you think. In this Cartesian construction, what endow us with *selves* are the omnipresent cognitive capabilities that we could exercise. The self is indebted to thinking for its very existence.

But, what is thinking? Thinking is obviously too large a topic due to its variety as well as interdisciplinary nature to be dealt with adequately within the confines of a brief article. Nonetheless, what I shall do is to focus in a general way on the philosophical aspects of thinking, particularly in the context of education. To this purpose, one may then characterise the aim of education as to be, to a large extent if not entirely, the development of thinking in students. Specifically, it would be an attempt by educators to enable their pupils, for example, to think for themselves, to think mathematically or historically, to solve problems, to engage in creative as well as critical thinking, or to think how they should live a fulfilling or a morally good life. It is against this background that one needs to think about thinking.

A caveat may be in order here: the urge to think about thinking is not meant to deny that one can be an excellent teacher without a philosophical grasp of the notion of thinking itself. However, given the current problematic of the students in not being able to evince a good grasp of their subjects and a prevalence of rote learning amongst them, we are, including the teachers, forced to rethink not only our conception of what education is about, but also how we try to achieve it. As logicians are wont to say, teaching is a *triadic* relation: that is, for all *X*, if *X* teaches, there must exist somebody (*Y*) who, and something (*Z*), that is taught by *X*. Thus, if something goes wrong as, for instance, in our problematic situation, one needs to look at all *three* elements of the relation, *i.e.* *X*, *Y*, and *Z*, for diagnosis and hopefully a remedy or cure. And, it is here that a philosophical approach may help by laying bare the conceptual structures

² For a very influential contemporary exposition of this theme, see Fodor 1983.

within which one is operating and thereby to furnish a synoptic overview. In this way, philosophising becomes indispensable even for teachers. Gilbert Ryle (1949/1980) even goes as far as arguing that philosophers' *theory of knowledge* or *epistemology* is essentially a theory concerned with the concepts of learning, teaching, and examining. This might be called 'the philosophy of learning', 'the methodology of education', or, more grandly, 'the Grammar of Pedagogy'. (p. 299)

Now, what is thinking? The first division in taxonomy of thinking comes from recognition of an ambiguity in the usage of the concept. Thinking could mean either a *process* or *activity* as in seeking a solution to a physics problem or a cognitive *state* of mind as in having a particular belief about some issue. However, ideally, it is through the former, *viz.* thinking as a process, that one should arrive at the latter, *viz.* thinking as a belief. The second division in taxonomy of thinking is thinking as a *directed* process as opposed to an *undirected* one. A directed process is one in which an individual's attention is consciously concentrated on a task or goal, whether theoretical or practical; whereas an undirected one is not focused on any particular objective or aim. Now, in teaching and educational contexts, it is the thinking as a directed process that matters and should form the focus of teachers. It is indeed through involving students in directed thinking activities that teachers can bring them to have new beliefs and to modify old ones, and at the same time show them *how* to do it on their own. That is, to develop in them a kind of DIY scheme for thinking, and it would be in this way that students would be trained to develop an aptitude for intellectual versatility and adaptability. But, what often transpires is the reverse: thinking becomes associated with having certain beliefs and pieces of information, and consequently it becomes natural for students to resort solely to memorising as in rote learning to acquire those thoughts.

An important ingredient or variety – depending upon one's choice of theoretical framework – of encouraging thinking as a process is to develop an appreciation and the skill for *reasoning* and *argumentation*. In other words, part of the directed thinking process is the capacity to draw conclusions from premises. What is significant to note here is that an *inferential capacity* does not follow inevitably from the mere possession of information. As Jean Piaget (1928) has made particularly clear, a child can have information at his or her disposal and yet be unable to draw conclusions from it. Hence, an inferential capacity needs to be taught; otherwise thinking becomes as rigid as rote learning.

Here we arrive at the question of: what is it to teach reasoning? In our taxonomy, reasoning turned out to be a directed process that draws on certain patterns or procedures for its implementation. But, patterns and procedures are rules. In that case, is teaching reasoning nothing other than instruction by means of rules? In other words, how does *reasoning with a pupil* differ from *instructing him or her by means of rules*? The contention is that there is a crucial difference between the two methods where one is more likely than not to lead to a rigid frame of mind as in rote learning than the other.

This is how the argument goes. Rules may be divided into two categories: *conventional* and *rational*. A rule is deemed conventional when it cannot be justified, except insofar as being backed up by saying "this is how it is done". A considerable number of the rules taught in schools are conventional or arbitrary in this sense. For example, it is not clear what one should say to a student asking: Why is French letter *r* pronounced differently from the English letter *r*? Or, why should one drive on the left in Barbados? In those circumstances, one cannot do anything other than assert: that is the way in which the French or Barbadians act. But, this type of rule citation does not count as giving reasons.

On the other hand, rational rules can be justified by showing that they are a good, if not the best, set of means for either achieving certain ends or understanding a portion of reality. For instance, one can easily justify the rule that a person must wash his or hands before eating a meal, or that in order to analyse a chemical solution of inorganic substances one should first add hydrochloric acid, or that long passages of prose should be broken up into paragraphs. Obviously, the distinction is not as clear-cut as I am suggesting. There are not only borderline cases, but also on occasions the comprehension of the rules in question may not be within the reach of pupils at that stage. Nevertheless, what distinguishes rational rules from their conventional counterparts is that they could be embedded within a larger *theoretical* framework or structure which could offer a more coherent and intelligible body of knowledge. Indeed, one of the best examples of this attempt at rationalisation is the case of mathematics. In a comparison between mathematics textbook of some fifty years ago with a recent textbook, one is at once struck by the greater immediate *intelligibility* of the procedures the student is taught to adopt. Similarly, in the case of teaching reasoning, students should be able to grasp and realise the intelligibility and coherence of the procedures for argumentation.

Hitherto, the emphasis has been on thinking as a process somewhat at the expense of thinking as a state. Yet, I would like to rectify the situation by considering circumstances under which even thinking as a state of mind could enjoy flexibility and creativity. Thinking as a state of mind essentially involves the acquisition of facts and information, which is undeniably an important ingredient of any educational system worth its name. And, naturally students would be wont to draw on their powers of memory as in rote learning to attain and accommodate as much information as possible. There is, however, one way of avoiding the rut of intellectual immobility as the result of excessive memorisation. What teachers can do is to present facts and information as part of an *open-ended* system of knowledge in contrast to a *closed* system.³

In a closed system of knowledge, information is imparted in terms of a series of discrete facts without an accompanying principle of co-ordination and in the absence of any respect for the location of those facts in the overall body of understanding. Again, under these circumstances, rote learning seems to be the only way of handling the information. In contradistinction, an open-ended system stipulates that facts need to be presented within an organic structure both internally in relation to the members of that particular family of information and externally in relation to other bodies of facts. More specifically, an open-ended system of information attempts to accomplish a threefold task: (1) to identify the fundamental *concepts* and building blocks of that particular epistemic edifice; (2) to delineate the principles governing the relationships among the facts especially in terms of the fundamental categories; and (3) to connect and subsume the identified fundamental concepts with those of other areas and disciplines and generally with the wider domain of understanding.

A consequence of instruction in such an open-ended system of knowledge is that students are more likely to take steps that they have not been directly taught to take which would constitute an act of adaptability or versatility on their part. Basically, it provides students with the necessary means of adopting strategies outlined in an open-ended structure to a wide range of new situations. Their thoughts become novel

³ I have adopted the terminology of open-endedness *versus* closedness from Passmore 1980 who applies it only to capacities which are processes. Whereas in my usage, they are equally applicable to states of mind and are justified within a wider theoretical framework, especially in connection with an active interface or reciprocity between thinking processes and thinking states.

and surprising, not necessarily in the sense that they have never occurred to their teachers or to other pupils before them – such “high-level” surprises are very rare – but in the sense that the teachers have not taught the students to take precisely those steps. The pupils, in other words, have come to be inventive. They have acquired something more than a closed system of odd facts: an ability to act in a manner, which goes beyond the established patterns. This is why in authoritarian system open-endedness is shunned above all else. Because it may lead to the introduction of novelties and innovations that lie beyond the ruler’s control and may disrupt its established social pattern.

To round up the discussion so far, what needs to be done is to consider the connection between the two fundamental types of thinking. As a parting shot, it is interesting to note that the verb *to understand* etymologically suggests that *understanding* is a matter of seeing one thing as coming under another: in the current cognitive vocabulary, *subsuming one concept under another*. And, what, in fact, fundamentally unite thinking as a process and thinking as a state are their dependence on and deployment of concepts. Thinking in either form is essentially nothing other than conceptual connection. To see the poignancy of this point, consider the question: *can there be conceptless thinking?* A moment’s reflection indicates that there can be no thinking without the use of concepts. We might wish in moments of contemplation to detach ourselves from all and any conceptual frameworks, but it is inconceivable that we could dispense with conceptualisation altogether. Even a contemplator needs concepts not only for focusing his or her attention but generally to have some sort of conception of the very object of contemplation.

The significance and immediacy of this observation for education is intellectually rather tantalising. For, if the purpose of education is to teach how to think, students must possess the concepts necessary for the thinking in question. This means that a learner cannot be thinking about the subject of the study in the way that the teacher intends without having concepts suitable to that task. By implication, educationally speaking, concepts and concept formation should take a higher priority in the process of teaching.⁴

⁴ A natural question that arises at this juncture is: what are concepts? This is obviously a topic that educationalists need to take into account, particularly the

We are now at the threshold of our original second question: namely, what remedial measures could be taken to correct the shortcomings of learning by rote? In the light of the above with its emphasis on concepts and conceptual connections, there are generally two tasks that the educational system needs to concentrate on:

- Teaching Reasoning;
- Teaching Open-ended Systems of Information.

From a pragmatic point of view, it seems that in the implementation of this twin-track task primary and secondary education teachers would have the largest role to play because they would be the first educators that pupils encounter in their formal path of learning. This means that the first port of call for the reform of the educational system would be a detailed and extensive examination of teacher-training courses. One should remember that teacher trainees themselves have been the products of the same educational system, and in order to break out of the vicious circle of repeating their own educational upbringing in their teaching careers, they need to be made aware of the problem and be given the requisite means of tackling the issue. Therefore, in this exercise, an evaluation of teacher-training programmes should be accorded the highest priority.

Undoubtedly, the foregoing ideas and proposals are highly tentative and programmatic, but it serves to highlight a particularly pernicious problem in the educational infrastructure of the countries beset with it. A lack of intellectual adaptability will have far-reaching repercussions not only for the economic future but also for the cultural vitality of the nations concerned. Broadly speaking, if the above argument is on the right tracks, the way forward seems to lie in a reorientation of their educational system towards the attainment of autonomous agency as the ultimate aim of education.

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THE PROFESSIONALIZATION OF THE DIDACTIC ACTIVITY BETWEEN "DESIRABLE" AND "UNAVOIDABLE"

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Abstract: *The teacher's job transformation in a profession requires the transition from a simple execution job based on talent, imitation and at many times on ambiguity and arbitrary, to a scientific profession based on a practical and methodological skills; at the same time, the didactic profession requires the knowledge and the abidenss of pedagogical science that is specific to postmodernism.*

Keywords: *contemporary education issues, initial formation, formation continue, teachers professionalization, educational field, academic career, constructivist approach.*

Education, beyond the social fact, is a phenomenon not only complex, but also complicated. From that perspective, pedagogy had to divide its "radii" (St. Bîrsănescu) into the concept of education sciences.

In the last decades, borderline sciences (philosophy of education, psychology of education, sociology of education, anthropology of education, biology of education...) made their presence felt, approaching both the education phenomenon, and phenomena such as the psyche, the society, life etc.

Our contemporary society, showing an unprecedented dynamism and taking on a road of globalization, needs a professionalization of the didactic activity. Where does that need come from? The initial and ongoing training of teachers in primary, secondary and even higher education was neglected during the last two of three decades of the twentieth century, because of a prejudice also highlighted by Emile Plancharde (1992) as follows: "science and intelligence exempt the candidate to the didactic profession from any need professional pedagogic

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training"¹. That prejudice can be easily contradicted starting from the difference between "knowing" and "teaching", then following the didactic trajectory up to the pertinent use of the managerial paradigm, at least in what concerns the management of a grade of students and of the pedagogic behavior. The primary and secondary education teacher is not a public servant, nor a mere instructor holding specialty information, but a factor of progress and of stability in terms of educational psychology for the students.

Towards the end of the second millennium and the beginning of the third, researches and studies appeared concerning "the updating of the vocational training of teachers, in relation to the evolution and expectations of the society and of the faculty itself"², whereas the appreciation of the didactic career was shadowed by a profound state of crisis, which only amplified around the 1980s-1990s, when the idea spread to the majority of European countries (The International Bureau of Education in Geneva). Iucu B. Romiță, Pânișoară Ion Ovidiu, 2000, assert that: "the causes for that situation have been sourced to the ambiguities of the law in connection to the didactic profession and the social status of teachers and professors (the analyzed indicators were wage-related or in connection to the degradation of the status of the profession in the eyes of public opinion), to the reductionist understanding of the didactic position (teachers being treated as public servants), to professional uncertainties, to recruiting teachers based on non-vocational criteria (criteria without professional relevance) and to the generalization at an empiric level of the social belief that any person intending on assuming a teaching career can become a teacher or a professor"³.

Tardif, M., 2004, made comparative studies regarding the attitudes, conceptions and institutional reforms related to the changes occurring in the vocational training of teachers in countries such as the United States, Canada, Belgium, The United Kingdom, Switzerland, France. In order to find determining directions for a global conception answering the expectations of the society, those comparative studies have analyzed traditions concerning the educational field generating the training of teachers and professors.

¹ Plancharde, E., *Pedagogie școlară contemporană*, EDP, Bucharest, 1992.

² Joita, E., coord., *A deveni profesor constructivist: demersuri constructiviste pentru o personalizare pedagogică inițială*, EDP, Bucharest, 2008.

³ Iucu B. R.; Pânișoară, I. O., *Formarea personalului didactic. Raport de cercetare -2*, CNPP - MEN, 2000.

From a historical perspective, "pedagogic professionalization, used as a model, comes from the Anglo-Saxon sociology and stands for a means of developing and improving the social position of teachers, a symbol and a guarantee of the quality of the activity, a way to modernize schools, a method of pedagogic training, of providing instruments for the scientific activity in the classroom"⁴ (Lang, V., 1999).

The professionalization of the didactic activity in a direct relation to the postmodern paradigm is to be found somewhere between "desirable" and "unavoidable" and is motivated by the following considerations:

1) The urgent need to eliminate empiricism from the educational/didactic activity;

2) The desirable need to form pedagogic competencies in teachers, competencies needed in the unavoidable implementation of reforms specific to postmodernism;

3) The acute need to overcome the obstacles placed before the learning of pedagogy knowledge by teachers/professors;

4) The need for corrections in the roles of teachers/professors and of students in relation to the postmodern paradigm;

5) The natural need of teachers/professors to enjoy freedom of circulation in the European and international educational space, by foreign cooperation within the specific institutions of the European Union and of other organizations.

The need to eliminate empiricism has been insistently demanding for an analysis of teacher/professor training models from a historical point of view: the teacher/professor who improvises, the artisan teacher/professor of the professional teacher/professor⁵, regardless of specialty, but who have a scientific justification of their activity.

The transformation of the teaching job into a profession requires a transition from a simple execution job based on talent, imitation and, often, on ambiguity and arbitrary, to an activity with of a scientific nature, based on practical, methodological and communication competences; at the same time, the didactic profession requires good knowledge and observance of the science concerning pedagogic action specific to

⁴ Lang V., *La professionnalisation des enseignants. Sens et enjeux d'une politique institutionnelle*, PUF, Paris, 1999.

⁵ Martinet, M. A., Raymon, D., Gauthier, C., 2001, *La formation a l'enseignement. Les orientations. Les competences professionnelles*,

<http://www.meq.gouv.qc.ca/dftps/interieur/PDF/formation.ens.pdf>; Gliga, L., 2002, *Standarde profesionale pentru profesia didactică*, MECT, Bucharest.

postmodernism; consequently, the didactic profession imposes the need to overcome the stage of a half-profession (partly rationally and partly scientifically), as well as the stage of teachers/professors who are simply following a calling. Chiș, V., 2005, asserts that "the time has come for professional teachers/professors, who can scientifically adapt to a changing school, to modifications in the development of students, to their differentiated approach"⁶.

In Canada, Switzerland and the United States, in an attempt to promote educational reforms such as constructivism, teachers have encountered difficulties caused by the lack of professionalism in their activity, and by the inadequate formation of the competencies required in order to apply such reforms (Perrnoud, 1994; Martinet, 2001). Eliminating that major dysfunction required a well-thought restructuration of the initial/ongoing training of teachers/professors based on standards, whereas teachers/professors cannot be treated as mere "empty vessels" meant to be filled with education reform policies; teachers/professors must have the capacity to understand education reform policies, but they must also competencies, i.e. they must be able to implement education reform policies in a critical, pertinent and creative manner. That reform concerning teachers/professors' training is a reform of the "third type" (following the reform of structures and the reform of curricula) and at the same time a new reform, because (Lang, V., 1999) "it acknowledges the complexity of the profession, requires clarification and instrumentation, acknowledges the specificity of professionalization, develops new competences, corrects the social status of teachers/professors, acknowledges the scientific nature of practice, builds reflections on the practice, diversifies the roles of teachers/professors, asserts the role of pedagogic competencies in relation to professional identity"⁷.

From a constructivist perspective, the professionalization of teachers/professors requires (Rainer, J.D., 2002) "merging various models in order to build knowledge, placing students at the center of instruction, resorting to the relation knowledge-reflection-action-reflection-new knowledge, using given contents as means, emphasizing processes, combining autonomy and collaboration, as well as authority and

⁶ Chiș, V., *Pedagogie contemporană. Pedagogie pentru competențe*, Casa Cărții de Știință, Cluj-Napoca, 2005.

⁷ Lang, V., *La professionnalisation des enseignants. Sens et enjeux d'une politique institutionnelle*, PUF, Paris, 1999.

facilitation, critical thinking and multiple understanding, learning and development"⁸.

The learning of pedagogic knowledge by students/teachers during the period of initial/ongoing training of teachers/professors stands between reality and prejudices. The assimilation of pedagogic knowledge by future teachers/professors is insufficient, because students consider pedagogic knowledge less important in the didactic career. Perrenoud, Ph., 2001, found that "education sciences yet fail to provide solid scientific knowledge on the training for the professional pedagogic action, and that knowledge is not sufficiently stimulating in practice to explain and therefore anticipate problems encountered in school life; for that reason, teachers/professors continue to act empirically, provide only partial knowledge when they have to solve a certain situation, deducing the solution rather reflexively than logically"⁹.

Contemporary education issues, apart from the changes in structures and curricula, impose a new approach to the status and role of teachers/professors and students from the perspective of the student-focused education process (active/interactive learning). In that context, teachers/professors must possess both scientific knowledge and practical abilities, as well as pedagogic capacities and competences; synthetically speaking, teachers/professors must be included in a new culture of professionalization, compatible with the third millennium.

Adey, Ph., 2004, asserts that: "the reconsideration of the roles of teachers/professors can modify not only the contents and categories of pedagogic knowledge, but mostly the scientific training and action strategies (knowledge, capacities, competences, attitudes) for the profession, and not for the job of teacher/professor, the place of their professional development being at the meeting point of the changes in education, professional development and improvement in school"¹⁰.

Regarding the right to the freedom of circulation of teachers/professors in the European and international educational space, to foreign cooperation within the various European and international

⁸ Rainer, J. D., *Reframing Teacher Education: Dimensions of a Constructivist Approach*, Dubuque, Kendall / Hunt Publishing Company, Iowa, 2002.

⁹ Perrnoud, Ph., *Les sciences de l'éducation proposent-elles des savoirs mobilisables dans l'action?*, http://www.unige.ch/fapse_SSE/teachers/perrenoud/php_main/2001_12.html, 2001.

¹⁰ Adey, Ph. et al., *The Professional Development of Teachers: Practice and Theory*. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, Boston, London, 2004.

systems, "the didactic professionalization is one of the strong ideas of pedagogic research" (Perrenoud, Ph., 2001). Mention should be made of the multitude of projects concerning both innovative training, as well as the development of the teaching career (POSDRU, Phare, Socrates, Comenius, Leonardo).

Paun, E., 2008, in their analysis of the issues related to the professionalization of the didactic career, has put forward two ideas, namely:

a) "the professionalization of the didactic activity is preceded by the structuring and institutionalizing of the educational field;

b) the professionalization of the didactic activity precedes the professionalization of the training for a didactic career"¹¹.

a) Regarding the structuring and institutionalizing of the educational field, we need to make a "short historical digression", starting from the incipient stage of structuring and rationalization school activity. The premises for the beginning of structuring and institutionalizing the educational field are provided to us by Comenius, by means of:

- organizing school activity based on collective structures (the classroom) which included students of the same age;
- rationalizing school time by introducing temporal structures specific to an organized activity: school year, school week and school day, with a certain amount of time allocated to the lesson;
- introducing lessons as a form of organizing the teaching activity, as well as a method of organizing and holding the lesson, the structure, didactic methods, rules and principles of an efficient activity (apud Păun, E., 2008).

The emergence and development of modern society have determined the industrialization and urbanization leading to the differentiation and institutionalization of social fields, and consequently to a more precise shaping of the identity of the educational field, therefore the social acknowledgement of school. That social legitimation of school has accelerated the professionalization of the didactic activity. School features, but also those of the didactic activity structured and accumulated during the period of modern society continued to exist, becoming invariants of the didactic activity which we can find to this day in the functioning of

¹¹Paun, E., *Profesionalizarea activității didactice. O perspectivă sociologică în „Repere”* - Revista de Științele Educației, Bucharest University Publishing House, 2008.

school organizations. Shortly, those invariants are the following:

- school is considered an autonomous social space;
- didactic activity is regulated by principles, rules and regulations;
- the creation of a work relation between teachers/professors and students (the didactic contract);
- the classroom is perceived as the main structure of the didactic activity;
- the statuses and roles of teachers/professors and of students are structured on an asymmetrical relation (defined by teachers/professors' power and authority);
- the development of educational management as a source of educational quality.

The current school model (which is a mixture of modern and postmodern), the classroom remains the most stable and usual organizational system, as it answers certain essential needs (Tardif, M. and Lessard, C., 1999), such as the following:

- schools for the masses need to include and educate large numbers of children;
- the school socialization function answers the need for socialization of students in a systematic manner;
- the development of the social and cultural identity of every child has become a requirement of the need for individualization¹².

We believe that the last two social needs (collective, but also customized education) can be efficiently fulfilled within the mass school, as long as it is structured on classrooms.

b) The institutionalization of the educational field which has been developing mainly from the period of modern society has inevitably led to the professionalization of the educational field, therefore to the professionalization of the didactic activity. From those perspectives, the requirements concerning teachers/professors have increased, that is the identity of the profession was determined and defined. That teacher/professor profession identity must be seen as a set of specific knowledge and competences structured in a professional model. The profession of teacher/professor must detach and delimit itself from the job of teacher/professor. The latter is, as we have already shown, the result of an artisanal, intuitive and even imitative assimilation, without a solid

¹² Tardif, M. and Lessard, C., 1999, *Le travail enseignant au quotidien*, De Boeck Université Bruxelles.

basis for scientific knowledge structured in a coherent and autonomous corpus.

We may conclude that the professionalization of the didactic activity depends on the institutionalization of the educational field, and the didactic activity represents a pertinent professional model involving knowledge and competences (describable in terms of professional standards), but also attitudes, values, ethos.

From the perspective of Bourdoncle, R., 2000, "any profession must have, beside a basis of specific knowledge, an ethic dimension, which cannot be standardized"¹³.

Beyond those considerations which concern the institutionalization of the didactic field and the professionalization of training students for the didactic career, we need to look at schools as organizations, where didactic activity is a type of complex and multidimensional work, as well as from a purely pedagogic perspective. In the latter context, within the lesson, which "is a field of situations in a field of action", teachers/professors, regardless of the level of their teaching, should, by their professionalization, use such a classroom management so that they are capable of managing both routine aspects, as well as unpredictable aspects. Moreover, teachers/professors must create didactic situations which would facilitate the involvement of students in their own formation. In that context, a constructivist approach of the education process from the perspective of a constructivist teacher/professor answers postmodernist requirements.

The constructivist approach may also ensure the efficiency of forming didactic competencies, because (Joița, E., 2008):

- "It supports independent-individual knowledge, firstly subjective, by direct exploration and mental information processing, then by collaboration, for the negotiation and generalization of ideas;
- It provides for the implementation and acquiring of specific procedures for the construction of a mental structure in individual knowledge;
- It allows for the integration by reorganization of new items of information and procedures in mental schemes and in previous experiences;

¹³ Bourdoncle, R., 2000, *La professionnalisation des enseignants: les limites d'un mythe*, in the volume *Sociologie de l'éducation. Nouvelles approches, nouveaux objets*, INRP, Paris.

- It is an own mental construction with the purpose of understanding the significance of information in authentic situations: people learn as much as they can understand;
- Its practical purpose is the direct apprenticeship in the scientific knowledge of reality, namely bringing science as a process in school;
- It is a process of ongoing evolution, initially of a subjective nature, then bearing social and cultural influences;
- The learning by own constructions is a process of the knowledge mode, and understanding as an effect is experiential, subjective, inductive, collaborative¹⁴;

Iucu B. Romiță, Pânișoară Ion Ovidiu, 2000, suggest the following stages of the didactic career:

- "beginning: the true discovery of the specifics of a didactic career also marks affective states of ambiguity and enthusiasm;
- stabilization: eliminates initial uncertainties and marks a stronger dedication to the profession;
- experimentation–diversification–balancing: a stage marked by phenomena of personal, pedagogic and career interrogations;
- the period of new questions: a professional and pedagogic turning point;
- serenity and affective distancing: the process of professional and affective disinvestment;
- the stage of conservatism and of discontent: a stage of professional and relational deceptions;
- disengagement: marks a tendency towards internalization, detachment and progressive orientation towards other social activities"¹⁵.

The results of changing the educational field and of the professionalization of teachers/professors aim at improving learning both at the level of students, and at the level of teachers/professors. The interpretative paradigm which sees the changing of the educational process both through the national education policy, as well as through the "local capacity" to understand the culture of school organization creates a

¹⁴ Joita, E., *A deveni profesor constructivist. Demersuri constructiviste pentru o profesionalizare pedagogică inițială*, EDP, Bucharest, 2008.

¹⁵ Iucu, B. R.; Pânișoară, I. O., *Formarea personalului didactic. Raport de cercetare -2*, CNPP – MEN, 2000.

multitude of emotions, but also hope. That hope, beyond the major differences in the processes of teaching–learning–assessment in primary and secondary schools, high schools and universities, should be quantified in the results of students. The results of formative cumulative national/international evaluations should become a measure of schools and teachers/professors' activity. The question to be answered by future professional teachers/professors is: *Is it possible to measure teachers/professors' activity by the results to standard tests taken by students?* From our perspective of contemporary teachers/professors, the answer is yes, to the extent in which the teachers/professors' role is at least a constructivist one, capable of ensuring the higher quality of education at all levels.

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THE AUDIT OF INNOVATIVE ENTERPRISES (UNIVERSITIES) IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

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Abstract: *If a university, due to the nature of its activities (teaching and search activities), organization, structure and functionality specific purpose for which they were established mainly with direct educational development and the other two components of the knowledge triangle: research and innovation.*

Keywords: *Research, development, innovation, audit, management.*

The model innovation assessment for universities

Given that the size of a university innovation is a complex process, given that you cannot establish uniform evaluation criteria which are associated to a system of specific indicators in this regard, for these problems has also taken proposed development of a multi criteria evaluation model (Fig. 1.1):

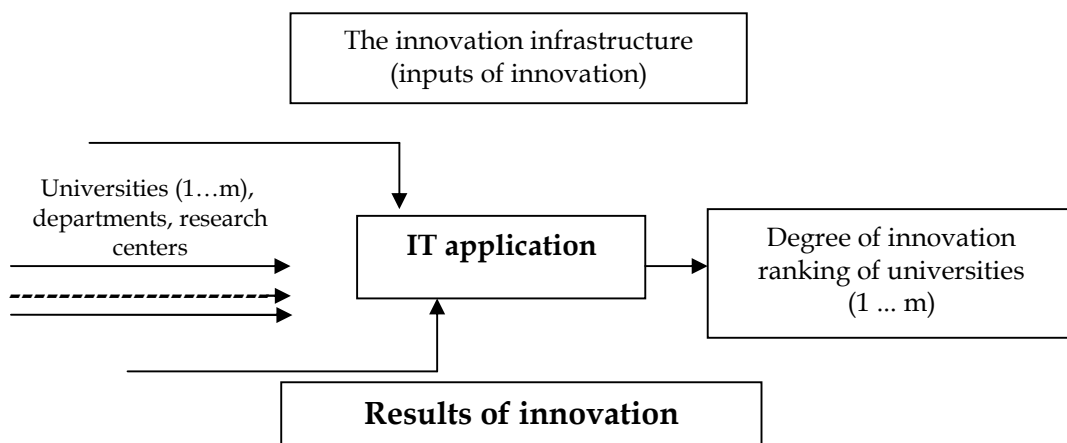


Fig. 1.1. The model of innovation assessment for universities

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To get an overview of innovation at a university level to develop a proposed assessment model based on five key components of innovation (potential driving innovation, knowledge creation potential, ability to integrate a relational system, the ability structuring activities and ability to exploit intellectual property), with direct implications for sustainable development of the university, which are associated evaluation criteria. It envisages a set of criteria associated with each component of innovation so that, for each criterion, to identify indicators of characterization. For each indicator, criteria, component is given a number of points depending on their degree of achievement of RDI compared with other centers within the university. Scoring system operates at between 1 to 10, which granted the degree of fulfillment of each criterion after analyzing indicators associated to each criterion. For each component subject to evaluation, is assigned a weighting. Also, for each criterion is assigned a coefficient of importance, so that the weighting coefficient associated with the innovation component to represent the sum of the coefficients of importance associated criteria established for that component. Group evaluation components and associated weighting coefficients, system criteria, indicators and associated criteria importance coefficients, the system of evaluating the criteria, and recommended measures to improve the assessment of a criterion may be a model for establishing the degree of innovation at a university. To determine the degree of innovation was at a university developed a model based on key components of innovation (e.g. potential driving innovation, knowledge creation potential, ability to integrate a relational system, ability to structure activities capability to exploit the intellectual property, etc..) with direct implications for sustainable development of the university, which are associated criteria and indicators of innovation. Innovation indicators, such as sustainable, it must be consensual and give a representative picture of the three dimensions of sustainable development: society, economy and environment. Equally, it is necessary that they should be very clear, robust and statistically viable, be prepared from the best sources of data sources to be harmonized in terms of methodology with international standards, to be comparable with EU Member States and to provide comparability with international standards used by the United Nations and OECD. At the same time, these indicators should be able to obtain timely and easy to be revised to update them. In order to build a system of indicators of innovation research has been undertaken on the types and categories of indicators used by international organizations (Eurostat, World Bank, UN,

OECD, etc.) For comparative studies and international rankings. Sources of relevant quantitative statistical data collection about the innovation process at a university are: reports of activity in research, development and innovation (RDI) existing at a university (faculties, departments, research centers), The Economic and financial, human resource managers, record the results of RDI, etc. Management of RDI.

The downside of deploying an innovation indicators and an analysis based only on quantitative statistics, is not surprised that qualitative aspects of certain phenomena in our area of interest, or otherwise cannot provide feedback to innovation policies of the university. Therefore, to obtain a system of indicators as complete quantitative data were supplemented with qualitative information about innovation, obtained through sample surveys held in the university R & D centers. Research should address four target groups: university faculties, specialized departments, research centers and other entities to R&D or innovation and technology transfer within the university. Therefore, surveys should be conducted in the target groups to gather information on:

a) the involvement of R & D centers in enhancing innovation in the university, development trends and directions in university R & D centers, etc. immediate needs in innovation.

- Exhaustive statistical survey among IDUs in university centers;

b) leverage the results of RDI of RDI center in each university - Statistical survey in each RDI center.

c) engage each RDI center, faculty management / R & D centers and general management of the university to support technology transfer (Oneness where applicable) - statistical survey of each center the RDI management and general management level university.

To assess the innovative potential and to exploit the short and medium term results of RDI projects at universities have conducted an investigation of the leaders / officers of RDI projects.

The conceptual model for analyzing the degree of innovation of a university

Components, criteria, weighting coefficients and coefficients of importance have been established both in the literature and empirical data, from the survey target groups (faculties, departments specialized research centers and other entities of RDI and technology transfer within University). Given that innovation is a dynamic process, activities come from the "past" and takes place mainly in the future, in determining the

level of innovation at universities will follow the trend of innovation within the university, at least in the short. Establishing the degree of innovation (and indirectly the viability) is achieved by interpreting the calculated average score based on innovation components and weighting coefficients obtained by the relationship:

$$G_{inov} = \sum_{i=1}^5 C_i c_i$$

degree of innovation expressed in terms of innovation components where:

G_{inov} - degree of innovation

C_i - score given i component $i=1,5$

c_i - component associated weighting coefficient

$$G_{inov}^i = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \alpha_j Cr_j^i = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \frac{\beta_j}{c_i} Cr_j^i$$

degree of innovation of innovation component where:

G_{inov}^i - degree of innovation associated to i component $i=1,5$

Cr_j^i - score given j criterion associated with i component $i=1,5$

α_j - important factor associated with j criterion

$$G_{inov} = \sum_{i=1}^5 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \beta_j Cr_j^i$$

degree of innovation expressed according to the criteria of innovation

By applying the computer model, the factors, under-factors and indicators, and their weights, have revealed three possible degrees of innovation in the university:

If: $0 \leq G_{inov} \leq 83$ then the university has a low potential for innovation

$84 < G_{inov} \leq 165$ then the university has a potential innovation environment

$165 < G_{inov} \leq 248$ then the university has a great potential for innovation

The model was applied to all university faculties. The assessment was considered technical and economic information in the levels of 2009 (the reference data). In the study of analysis and assessment of innovation performance in the university were taken of the main components of

innovation:

1. potential driving innovation - to quantify the structural conditions necessary to ensure innovation potential);
2. potential for creating knowledge - to measure investments in human potential as a resource to research and development - a key element of the knowledge economy);
3. ability to integrate a relational system - to measure innovation efforts in the university;
4. ability to structure activities - to measure performance, expressed in terms of added value;
5. capability to exploit the intellectual property - to measure the results obtained through the exploitation of knowledge and intangible assets.

The conceptual analysis and evaluation of innovation in a university based on a system of indicators grouped into factors (components) and the criteria of innovation will be achieved by aggregating the central analysis and assessment of indicators of innovation in the R & D centers indicators developed and developed under Partnerships in priority areas - project INNOINDEX - Model and computer program for determining the degree of innovation of SMEs, adapted and supplemented with other indicators specific academic activity.

The indicators used to audit innovation in university and are harmonized with other indicators to calculate the degree of innovation, recognized nationally and internationally:

- European Innovation Scoreboard (used to evaluate innovation in the EU Member States).
- Inobarometru 2008 - Innovation in the development regions of Romania.
- HG 551/2007 on accreditation/certification RDI units in Romania.
- INNOINDEX (PN II Partnership Program) - system of indicators to calculate the rate of innovation in SMEs.

Indicators of model information are presented below:

Values determined by the criterion level of innovation

No.	Factors	Sub factors	Indicators	Year 2007	Year 2008
1	Potential to lead of innovation	1.1. Staff i 1.2. activities 1.1.Staff involved in technological research and development activities (RTD)	The share of personnel involved in research and technological development (RTD) of total employed persons (%) {research teachers, researchers, students on contract staff drew}	77.5	76.9
			The share of personnel involved in technological research and development (RTD) of total employed persons (%) {research time equivalent teachers, researchers, students on contract staff drew}	53.5	53.2
			The share of personnel involved only in research, technological development (RTD) of the total persons employed in RTD activity (%) (only certified researchers)	1.5	3.4
			Share staff aged 20-45 years of total staff trained in RTD (%)	32.7	38.9
			The share of personnel (employment) through specialized training activities (internal or external) of staff employed in RTD, highly educated, aged 25-64 years (%)	6.2	7.5
			The share of students involved in the RDI of total employed persons RTD	24.8	29.6
			Expenditure on salaries for staff involved in the RTD of total payroll costs (%)	44	46
			Expenditure on salaries for students involved in the RTD of total expenditures for salaries for staff in RTD (%)	10.4	12.8
		1.2. Staff involved in the promotion, marketing, economic forecasting and environmental monitoring	The share of personnel involved in the promotion, marketing, economic forecasting and environmental monitoring staff in total (%)	1.2	1.4
			Percentage of people aged between 25-45 years of total staff engaged in marketing, economic forecasting and environmental monitoring	82	85
			Percentage expenditure on salaries for staff promotion, marketing, economic forecasting and environmental monitoring of total payroll costs	0.6	0.7
		1.3. Supporting innovation in the faculty	Capacity to support the needs analysis process innovation	87.96	87.96
			Capacity to support the research phase in the innovation process	84.54	84.54
			Capacity to support the needs analysis phase in the innovation process	83.70	83.70
			Capacity to support the development phase in the process of innovation	85.56	85.56

			Capacity to support technology transfer phase in the innovation process	83.80	83.80
		1.4. Professional prestige to the faculty	Number of appearances in the editorial staff of the magazine recognized the ISI (or included in international data bases) and international editorial collective of the number of university faculties	389	389
			Number of members of the editorial staff of recognized national magazines (Category B classification CNCSIS) reported the number of university faculties	684	684
			Number of awards (obtained international awards competition, Romanian Academy Awards) by the number of university faculties	13	15
			Number of PhD by the number of university faculties	258	273
			Number of PhDs in science by the number of university faculties	1124	1148
			Number of PhD students by the number of university faculties	2414	2251
			Number of PhD theses related to the number of university faculties	191	181
2	Knowledge creation potential	2.1. Their funding sources for RTD	Share of own sources of RTD of RTD total expenditure (%)	26	29
			Share RTD projects funded in total own RTD projects (%)	8.6	9.4
		2.2. Public funding of RTD including European funds	Share of RTD by funding from public sources of total RTD expenditure (%)	90	88.8
			Share RTD projects financed from public sources of total RTD projects (%)	86.9	79.3
		2.3. Attracted funding sources for RTD	Share of RTD attracted by financing sources (business, loans, etc..) of total RTD expenditure (%)	10	11.2
			Share RTD projects funded RTD projects attracted in total (%)	13.1	20.7
		2.4. Ability to attract funding sources	Ability to attract internal funding sources RTD (funds raised internally RTD activity per person, mln / man)	0.12	0.12
			Ability to attract external funding sources RTD (funds raised externally RTD activity per person, mln / man)	0.01	0.01
3	Innovation and integration in a relational system	3.1. Innovation	Companies that have introduced product innovation through collaboration with faculty (% of total collaboration with industry)	4.2	5.6
			SMEs that have introduced product innovation through collaboration with faculty (% of total collaboration with SMEs)	12.6	14.3

			IM's to introduce a product innovation through collaboration with faculty (% of total collaboration with IM's)	2.3	3.5
			Companies that have introduced a process innovation through collaboration with faculty of RDI (% of total collaboration with industry)	6.7	8.3
			SMEs that have introduced a process innovation through collaboration with faculty (% of total collaboration with SMEs)	14.6	17.2
			IM's have introduced a process innovation through collaboration with faculty of RDI (% of total collaboration with IM's)	3.2	4.1
			No. RDI entities (research centers, technological and business incubators, technology transfer centers, etc..) reported the number of university faculties	38	38
		3.2. Cooperation and collaboration with other entities (universities, INCD's, ITT entities)	Share of partnerships with universities in all partnerships (%)	148	167
			Share of the cooperation / collaboration with other universities in total income RTD (%)	38	42
			Partnerships with enterprises share of total partnership (%)	326	364
			Share of the cooperation / collaboration with enterprises total income from RTD (%)	68	76
			Share ITT partnerships with entities (eg information centers, technology transfer centers, scientific parks, technological and business incubators) of all partnerships (%)	21	23
			Share of the cooperation / collaboration with ITT of total entity revenue from RTD (%)	8.2	8.6
			Share of partnerships with businesses of all partnerships (%)	56	62
			Share of the cooperation / collaboration with companies of total income RTD (%)	12	14
4	Performance of innovation activities	4.1. Participation in the development of new products / upgraded or new technology / market upgraded	The share of products / technologies in all new or upgraded RDI results obtained (%)	7.6	8.4
			Share of new products / technologies and modernization of the total RDI (%)	3.8	4.6
			The revenue from the sale of products / technologies in new or upgraded RDI total income (%)	6.2	6.8
		4.2. RTD activities	The share of total revenue income of UPB RTD (%)	44	45
			No. RTD results (products, technologies, models and designs patents, articles, studies, etc.) per researcher	0.02	0.04
			Share results by selling recyclable product /	1	1

			technology, service delivery, transfer of intellectual property rights, of total RTD results (%)				
			Share the results recovered by selling product / technology, service delivery, transfer of intellectual property rights, of total RTD results (%)	0.5	0.5		
			Share of results of physical, experimental models, functional prototypes, models, norms, procedures, methodologies, regulations and new or improved technical plans, national programs carried out or ordered by the beneficiary of the total RTD results	94	95		
		4.3. Consulting activities (services)	Share of enterprises receiving advice of all enterprises that have been co (%)	97	98		
			Share of total revenues from consulting UPB (%)	5.9	6.2		
		4.4. Promotional activities, marketing and distribution	Share of promotion, marketing products / technologies / services in total expenditure (%)	0.15	0.15		
			Share of promotion, marketing products / technologies / export of total expenses (participation in fairs and exhibitions, research exhibitions, seminars, conferences, etc.)	0.12	0.12		
		5	Intellectual property	5.1. Scientific publications and participation in scientific events, fairs, exhibitions	Number of ISI articles per researcher	0.37	0.67
					Number of citations in ISI journals per researcher	0.12	0.23
					Number of scientific / technical journals without ISI per researcher	0.33	0.10
Books published per researcher	0.38				0.43		
Participation in scientific meetings per researcher	3.2				3.5		
Participation awards per	80				85		
Share of results of total awarded RDI results presented in scientific events, fairs, exhibitions (%)	65				68		
5.2. Economic and technical documentation	No. economic and technical documentation (documentation of performance products / services, feasibility studies, market studies, business plans, technical and economic projects, etc..) produced per researcher			0.1	0.1		
	No. economic and technical documentation acquired per researcher (in the program impact)			0.03	0.04		
	The share of total capitalized documentation documentation developed / acquired (%)			82	85		
	The revenue from the sale of technical-economic documentation of total revenue (%)			0.01	0.01		
5.3. Patents	No. patents registered or registration applications per researcher			0.02	0.04		
	Share of total patents valued patents (%)			4.3	4.8		
	Share of total revenues from the exploitation of			0	0		

			patents (%)		
			Share certificates with international protection of total patents (%)	4	5
		5.4. Models and industrial designs protected	No. models and industrial designs protected or protection applications per researcher	0	0
			Share models and designs of total valued models and designs protected (%)	0	0
			Share of income from the operation of protected industrial designs and models of total revenue (%)	0	0
			Share patterns and designs with international protection models and designs of total (%)	0	0
		5.5. Others (copyright, trademarks)	No. or obtained copyright registration applications per researcher	0	0
			Share of total expenditure copyright charges (%)	0	0
			Share of total income from copyright income (%)	0	0
			No. trademark registration or application per researcher	0	0

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ADVOCACY OF A NEW PHILOSOPHY OF LEARNING

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Abstract: *A new philosophy of learning essentially means a re-thinking of the teaching/learning process, an applied didactic process with an impact on the disciples' thought and conscience, having as its end their spiritualization, the development of axiological intelligence. In our opinion, the transfer of principles and knowledge methods represents the basis of growing the students' creative thinking, and the most direct way is teaching/learning educational subjects from the perspective of the inter- and trans-disciplinary connections.*

Keywords: *method, teaching, learning, problem solving, interactivity.*

Our research emerges from the need of a reevaluation of the existing teaching/learning strategies and methods, of their adaptation to modernity, taking into account the key European competencies and the whole educational journey from kindergarten to the completion of the higher education cycle, as well as the imminence of the contemporary inter- and trans-disciplinary knowledge.

It is well-known that the Romanian education system, regardless of the progress made in the area of modern teaching and learning methods, is preponderantly repetitive. The elementary school teacher dictates, the secondary school teacher reproduces the lesson and the pupils write after dictation, the high-school teacher also uses the same strategy in most of the cases and the university professor often dictates at an infernal speed.

Such an approach of the didactic process, mainly based on informing, is outdated and inefficient. The quantitative methods that presuppose the transfer of a great volume of information is no longer relevant in the internet era, **a new paradigm based on creative, participative learning meant to stimulate both the algorithmic and the heuristic thinking of students is highly needed.**

The most difficult problem that students must overcome is that of an adequate strategy of learning according to their age and to the specificity

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of each subject. As teachers, we can identify the problem with which our disciples are confronted: **they need to be taught how to learn** intelligently, efficiently and creatively, not mechanically, inefficiently and repetitively.

We, the teachers, have the responsibility of shifting the focus “not so much on knowledge retainment, but on learning methods and techniques of learning and of intellectual work, of identifying, finding and using information, of analyzing, synthesizing and processing it and finally, of learning methods and techniques of creativity, of developing information and of creating new meanings.”¹

The learning event takes place when the performance that the disciple is capable of suffers a change between the moment before and the moment after the passing through the learning situation. **Efficient learning requires the students’ takeover of the control over their own learning process.** Successful students know when they need extra information and when they understood something. They are meta-cognitive, which means that they are aware and capable of monitoring their thoughts and their knowledge. The transfer – the ability of applying knowledge in new situations – is affected by the degree to which students learn for understanding (and learn by understanding!). **In our opinion, understanding is the principle of maximum productivity in learning, but it does not identify with it. Thus, the golden rule of learning is the problem-solving and sequential revision and not the mechanical, quantitative and agglomerated reiteration, without any intervention in the learning process.**

In the traditional school system, the teacher has the control over knowledge and over the events in the classroom, thus appearing an obvious connection between strict discipline and the univocal truth of the master who dominates the class and, implicitly, the course.

Research that has been conducted over the past 25 years² show that passivity in the classroom (understood as the result of traditional teaching, where the teacher holds a lecture or makes a demonstration and the students follow) leads to learning only to a small extent. For learning to take place, it is not enough that the students simply listen to the teacher’s explanations during the class or see a demonstration made by the teacher. The cause of this phenomenon is closely related to the functioning of the brain. The brain does not function like a DVD or like a tape-recorder. The

¹ Pavel Mureșan, *Fast and Efficient learning*, Bucharest, Ceres Publishing House, 1990.

² The quoted research is synthetically presented by Mel Silberman in *Active Learning Strategies to Teach Any Subject*, Allyn&Bacon, 1996, p. 6-10.

brain is not a simple receptacle of information. The brain functions like a computer, the latter actually having been created and designed according to the brain functioning model. For a computer to start working we must press the Start button. In the case of passive learning, the Start button of our brain is already activated. A computer does not retain the processed information unless we press the Save button. Our brain must test the information or explain it to somebody else in order to stock it. Teachers overflow their students with their own deep and well-organized thoughts. The teacher appeals too often to explanations and demonstrations of the "let me show you how to" type. The presentation may have an immediate effect on the brain, but in the absence of an extraordinary memory, the students cannot remember too much for the following period of time. No matter how brilliant an orator he may be, a teacher cannot become the substitute of his students' brains and thus cannot carry out the activity that takes place in each student's brain. The students must themselves organize what they heard and saw in an orderly whole and meaningful unit. If the students are not offered the possibility to talk, to investigate, to act or to teach, the learning process does not take place. Learning presupposes understanding, and this means more than knowing the facts. Students build their knowledge on the basis of what they already know or believe. Students formulate the new knowledge by modifying and reasoning their current concepts and by adding new concepts to what they already know. Learning is mediated by the social medium where students interact with one another. If students build their own knowledge, they do not do it alone. Let us not forget that man is fundamentally social. **The true learning is the one that allows for the transfer of acquisition in new contexts.** If students have the possibility to discover by themselves the plausible and, obviously, useful alternatives, they start to refine their previous acquisitions and to add new ones.

We consider that **the great problem of learning is not necessarily the retaining of knowledge but the ability to use them later, in different contexts.** This constitutes the **transfer problem**, which the authors of the **cognitive theory of learning** David P. Ausubel and Floyd G. Robinson³ research on in detail, distinguishing between *lateral transfer*, which includes the performance at the same level as the initial learning (for example, after one has learned that 12-5-7, he can apply that operation to

³ P.D. Ausubel, G.F. Robinson, *Learning in school. An introduction to pedagogical psychology*, trans., Bucharest, E.D.P. Publishing House, 1981, p. 4.

any category of objects), and *sequential transfer*, which means that usually ulterior understanding and learning within a study subject are based on the understanding and learning of the knowledge that logically precedes it. This sequential character is not equally emphasized in all study subjects, but is present in each and every one of them. **The efficiency of teaching/learning depends on the realization of this type of transfer.**

The transfer problem is closely related to that of the cognitive state of preparation. Sequential transfer is possible only to the extent that in the preceding cognitive structure there are *relevant anchor ideas*, to which ideas can associate, thus becoming intelligible, conscious and understood. Learning is also helped by what Ausubel and Robinson called *learning organizers*. These are used especially when in the initial cognitive structure there are no relevant anchor ideas which can be accessed for the new teaching topic; they consist of “ensembles of more complex ideas that are deliberately prepared and that are presented to the student before the system of (significant) knowledge to be learned for the purpose of accessing relevant anchor ideas”⁴. It is about a group of ideas that familiarize students with the new topic; it is about introductory ideas that are presented before the learning material, with the aim of consolidating the new ideas. The teacher must be equally preoccupied with his teaching echo, with the way it is received, with learning exercises and the whole affective and intellectual halo that is created between the input and the output.

In the student-centered school system, the teacher’s image is blurred because the student becomes the gravity and the meaningful center. In order to really have the student in the center of the approach, the teacher plays much more nuanced roles. The student does not automatically get the center role. And even if, viewed from the angle of didactic efficacy, the natural way of the brain’s functioning leads to an approach centered on the student, the success in the classroom depends on the teacher’s abilities of creating the optimum opportunities for learning for each student. Thus, depending on the context, the teacher always acts, but he acts in a manner that is adequate and appropriate to the needs of the group.

Promoting active learning implies the encouraging of partnerships in learning. As a matter of fact, the true learning that allows for the transfer of acquisitions in new contexts, as we mentioned above, is not simply active (individually active), but **interactive**.

⁴ *Ibidem*, p. 176.

The social side of learning was emphasized by Jerome Bruner⁵ even as far back as the 60s. He introduces the concept of reciprocity, defined as “a profound human need to reply to somebody else and to work together with others in order to reach an objective.” Reciprocity is a stimulus for learning. “When common action is necessary, when reciprocity is activated within a group for obtaining a result, then there seem to exist processes that stimulate individual learning and that lead each of us to the competency required by the group constituency” (Bruner, 1966).

It is not only research, but also the experience of the teachers with collaborative methods which emphasize the benefic effect of students' interaction⁶. The group and the tasks where the group members depend on one another in getting to the aimed result show that the students are more involved in the learning process than in individual approaches; once they are involved, they wish to share with the others what they experience, and that leads to new connections that support understanding. Furthermore, students reach deep understanding when they have the possibility to explain or even to teach to their colleagues what they have learned.

In a modern approach, the teacher is preoccupied with creating learning opportunities for his students. In this context, the methods that he uses are the methods through which the students' learning activities are set up. In the absence of an interiorized, methodological inventory (i.e. well-learned, mobile, ready to be applied and transferred in new situations), the activities of the students cannot be interactively anticipated and even to a less extent initiated during classes.

In the 'classical' paradigm of teaching, where the teacher is the source of knowledge and ideas and the student is the <consumer>, the teaching and argumentation methods can be the presentation, the explanation, the demonstration, the exercise, the study case etc. In the new context, of a **society based on knowledge**, these methods become equally insufficient and inefficient, the sustainable learning principle being impossible to obey. That happens because the quantity of knowledge necessary to form a correct general view increases very fast. Instead of aiming at a condensation and reorganization of information based on more general principles, the teacher continuously adds information to his expositive course. The course thus becomes overloaded and in the absence of some

⁵ Bruner, J. *Toward a Theory of Instruction*, Harvard University Press, 1966.

⁶ Apud. Silberman M., *op.cit.*, p.10.

well-formulated objectives (learning results), evaluation becomes more and more problematic. On the other hand, the students possess an age-specific curiosity and exploratory wish. Therefore, feeling the insufficiency and the limitations of the view of the course they are taking, they sometimes start themselves to search the information, but once they dive into the sea of information without the intellectual tools for searching, selecting and systematizing, they will always feel frustrated for not knowing the minimum well enough. Consequently, they find university studies useless, they consider them a “torture” that must be gone through in order to get a diploma that will later allow them to work.

The necessity of a change in the education approach is obvious; that can be done by adopting an attitude where the student is informed about what he is to learn and what is expected from him, where he is shown ways of individual learning and search, where certain benchmarks are set in the program where the teacher builds the minimum of abilities necessary to accomplish a task, where information is condensed and systematized because what centuries ago was written in volumes, now it is taught in a single course. The student’s attitude must be far from being static, but must involve more responsibility in searching study opportunities (seminars, common study sessions with other colleagues or assisted by senior students), individual study and documentation, practical work publicity presentations, summer schools, the Erasmus program, trainings; he must also exploit all the possible resources (internet, libraries) and to continuously evaluate his professional project.

As regards **the way of learning**, it is not necessary to go from simple to complex; one can start from a more complex stage if the adequate method is used. Bruner⁷ claims that the main **method in learning** should be that of discovery. Unlike learning through receiving, which is surprisingly still preferred by some students because the whole content of learning is presented to them in the final form, in learning through discovery the main content to be learned is not given in a final form, but must be discovered by students. However, “the one who learns must rearrange a series of data, of information and must integrate them in his previous knowledge and to reorganize or to transform this whole combination so that it can produce the expected final result, usually a new notion or a new sentence”⁸. This leads towards learning something new.

⁷ J.S. Bruner, *op.cit.*, p. 49.

⁸ *Ibidem*.

But this “new” must be retained and integrated in the student’s cognitive structure. Here a second dimension of learning intervenes – the conscious or the mechanical one. To learn consciously means to understand and to remember the meaning of the idea, to link it to previous knowledge. When the student is satisfied with memorizing the idea without linking it to previous knowledge, we have to do with mechanical memorization. The two pairs - **receiving - discovery** and **conscious - mechanical** - can be combined. The type that contains the characteristic “conscious” is to be preferred. The conditions for conscious learning are: the material to be learned must be logically associable, the learner must possess relevant idea that makes it possible for him to associate to the new material and, lastly, the learner must affectively try to make that association. Obviously, in the learning process memorization and forgetfulness are involved. The conscious learning, which is always to be preferred, is realized in several stages: learning through representation (learning with or through pictures), learning the notions, learning the sentences and problem-solving.

Problem-based learning is a rather new direction in education which aims at a contextualization of learning, inviting students to consider and solve real-world problems. In this context, the solving directions can be different and can even lead to several classes of solutions. According to Finkle and Thorp⁹, it is about a system of training and of developing the curriculum that develops simultaneously both the strategy for problem-solving and the bases of disciplinary knowledge, giving the learners the role of discoverers who are confronted with an insufficiently-structured problem that reflects problems of everyday life.

Other sources refer to learning centered on problems (**also called problem-solving**) as a didactic method through which learning is stimulated by the creation of challenging situations that require a solution. A certain topic is presented as a problem to be solved by the student, who has at his disposal all the necessary means and information.

The teacher acts as a guide for the disciple who searches for solutions and refrains from offering a ready-made answer¹⁰.

Modern education does not mean total abdication of the traditional methods mentioned above, but their adaptation to the psycho-physiological and age characteristics of students through the

⁹ Finkle and Thorp, *Problem-based learning*, 1995.

¹⁰ Apud Glossary of Educational Technology Terms, UNESCO, 1987.

combination with innovative strategies¹¹ such as: brainstorming, SINELG¹², Clustering, the Gallery Tour, the Cube, the Snowball, the Mosaic¹³ etc.

The methods presented above claim a perspective-based approach of knowledge, placing the student and not the teacher in the center; the focus is laid on the formation of thinking and language habits, of communication and relational competencies, towards an optimum adaptation to new contextual situations.

Before using one or another of these methods, what we consider it to be essential in the teaching/learning process is to detect the subjects' level of aspiration and the identification of their intellectual development and, based on that, the adoption of those didactic strategies that are compatible with the nature of the study matter and which will lead to attaining performance. The teacher's role is to organize the conditions where learning takes place. Robert Gagne talks about **the initial preparation stage in learning**, according to which "in order for learning at any level to take place easily, it is necessary that a great deal of attention is paid to elements that have to be learned in advance"¹⁴.

The structure of the learning process contains: reception, learning, storage and actualization; throughout these stages the following main types of abilities are formed:

- Intellectual habits, namely the ability to specifically apply knowledge;
- Cognitive strategies or the ability to solve problems by the learned means (knowledge);

¹¹ O. Păcurari (coord.), *Innovative Didactic Strategies*, Bucharest, Sigma Publishing House, 2003.

¹² **Sistemul interactiv de Notare pentru Eficientizarea Lecturii și a Gândirii (The interactive grading system for the optimization of reading and thinking) is a typical method for the stage of meaning creation (learning-comprehension);**

¹³ **Clustering** is a non-linear brainstorming method that stimulates finding connections between ideas; **the Gallery Tour** presupposes interactive deeply formative evaluation of the products made by groups of students; the **Cube** presupposes the exploration of a subject, of a new situation from several perspectives, allowing for a complex and integrating approach of a topic; the **Snowball** involves the reduction of the number of elements or aspects of a problem or situation in order to focus on the essential ones; the **Mosaic** involves learning through cooperation within a group and teaching the acquisitions made by each of the group members to another group (O.Păcurari, *Active learning. Guide for Trainers*), MEC-CNPP, 2001.

¹⁴ Robert M. Gagne, *The Conditions of Learning*, trans., Bucharest, E.D.P. Publishing House, 1970, p.11.

- Verbal information that can be communicated correctly;
- Motive habits for a variety of contexts;
- Attitudes or preferences for certain modes of action regarding learning tasks or the environment requirements in general.

The existence of a variety of external and internal conditions for learning, the necessity of the initial training stage, the difference between learning types and between ability types make guided training necessary, which always presupposes a plan of action, a lesson or presentation plan. The training planning is always done through *re-elaboration*, starting from the objectives of learning in order to find what the preliminary acquisition must be and, if necessary, the whole way back to links and simple distinctions¹⁵. This “plan” or “**map**” of the training allows us not to leave out essential steps in acquiring knowledge in a certain area. That is why “before undertaking any act of learning there must be a plan of learning in any subject”¹⁶. The moments of training (Gagne calls them “training events”) are: 1) attracting and controlling attention; 2) informing the student on the expected results (the objectives of the training); 3) the stimulation of the actualization of preexistent abilities; 4) the presentation of the stimuli that are specific to the learning tasks; 5) offering learning guidelines; 6) ensuring the reverse connection; 7) appreciating performance; 8) ensuring the transfer possibilities; 9) ensuring memory retention.

It is not advisable that the evaluation in education (curricula and learning process) to be placed at the end of the process, but throughout the process in order to prevent inadequacies; a study plan (curriculum) should involve mastering some abilities which, in their turn, should lead to mastering other more important abilities, as well as to the establishment of a series of rewards. “The reward of deeper understanding gives the effort a force of attraction that is more effective that we have believed so far”¹⁷. There is an intrinsic motivation of success that needs to be grown. In its turn, the curriculum must be logically organized on fundamental structures: concepts, principles, axioms, laws.

We could draw the conclusion that the more the study subject is better organized (clearer, more logical), the more effective learning is. Since

¹⁵ *Ibidem*, p. 211.

¹⁶ *Ibidem*, p. 212.

¹⁷ Jerome S. Bruner, *For a Theory of Instruction*, E.D.P. Publishing House, Bucharest, 1970, p. 51.

learning situations are problematic, they give birth to tension and unbalance, states that make learning more difficult.

We witness the phenomenon of “learning blockage”, which is due to certain anatomical-physiological factors, but also to social ones (conflicts, difficulties in school work, anxiety produced by the school environment etc.). The subject cannot be ignored in the process of learning. At the same time, the characteristics of the teacher’s personality and his ability to engage and involve students cannot be ignored either. The American psychologist Jerome Bruner, a representative of the genetic-cognitive and structural theory, is a great initiator of the idea that psychic development is done through systematic yet guided training, based on deep motivation produced by the success-crowned effort. At the same time, the subject to be learned must be logically organized on essential, relevant structures. Although he may be exaggerating when he claims that any topic can be learned at any age if an adequate method is found, Bruner’s pedagogical and psychological view generates norms and ways to learn that are efficient for all ages.

We consider that in education the emphasis must be laid **on the intelligent problem solving, on selecting and adapting the materials and the methods, on stimulating the interests of students**, through checking the found solutions, through practical confrontation and experimental actions. That could mean what the American philosopher and educationalist Jh. Dewey called **progressive education**, a type of education based on independence and self-control in interaction with an environment that is suitable to the child’s development level. In Dewey’s view, progressive education is also regarded as preparation for life and for democratic relations¹⁸.

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E-LEARNING SYSTEMS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

- regulations, terminology, options, case study -

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Abstract: *More extensive application of the concepts and methods specific for "e-learning" in education is favored by the development of information and communication technology combined with the educational process centered on its beneficiaries. The present paper is part of a series of articles dedicated to the presentation of this topic of academic interest. This first article of the cycle stands as an introduction to the field, addressing legal issues, certain definitions, as well as options for the implementation of e-learning systems. Finally, as an example, the approach of distance and part-time learning within „Dimitrie Cantemir” Christian University is summarized.*

Keywords: *e-learning, part-time learning, distance learning, tutor, tutorial system.*

Introduction

The accelerated progress taking place in information and communication technology, the limited resources of traditional education institutions, the need for lifelong training as well as the tendency to centre the teaching process on pupils and students have led to the introduction and use on a larger scale of certain flexible training forms and methods based on the use of electronic and information means, brought together under the generic name of e-learning.

As for secondary education, the e-learning concept is promoted through IT Educational System (IES), based on the Romanian Government Strategy in the field of education and computer aided education, initiated by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in 2001.

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Within the academic environment, the increasing use of e-learning systems was facilitated by the adoption of distance or part-time learning curricula by many higher education institutions in Romania.

1. Regulations, terminology, options

The Education Law No. 1/2011, Law No. 288/2004 regarding the organization of university studies and Government Decision 404/2006 concerning the organization and development of master university studies provide the legal framework for organizing in Romania the part-time learning forms (IFR) and distance learning (ID).

The academic evaluation and accreditation of ID/IFR university study programs is based on standards, performance indicators and methodology developed by the Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ARACIS), stated in guides for external evaluation of study programs offered by part-time and distance learning education.

According to Education Law No. 1/2011, forms of academic study programs are:

- *full-time learning*, characterized by learning activities scheduled throughout the semester assuming direct encounter, in the university environment, students with teachers;
- *part-time learning*, characterized by activities dedicated to synthesis and applications training courses, assuming the direct encounter, in the university environment with teachers, completed by other specific training means of distance learning;
- *distance learning*, characterized by the use of certain electronic and information resources and specific communication, self-learning and self-assessment activities completed by specific tutorial activities.

If undergraduate curricula can be organized in any of the three forms of education - full-time, part-time and distance, master studies can be organized only for the full-time and part-time education forms.

Finally, study program forms of part time and distance education can be organized only for higher education institutions that have accredited that educational program to the part time learning form (IF).

It results that IFR is a flexible form of education that allows students to manage their own learning process in a merged program, within the organizing educational institution and ID, by integrating distributed educational technology resources, focusing more on how students learn and less on the place they are studying.

As specified in the guides for external evaluation provided by

ARACIS, IFR is characterized by:

- replacement of teaching hours with self-study activities;
- communicating educational information through multiple media environments, specific for ID;
- regular meetings with students for applied compulsory activities, while ID is distinguished by :
- the interaction between students and the institution that offers study programs, as well as between students and teaching resources, is achieved by bidirectional communication media,
- the use of a wide range of education technology: printed study materials, audio/video interactive technologies, multimedia, computer assisted learning technologies and computer networks, etc.

Besides the bachelor and master university studies through ID/IFR postgraduate training and specialization or training as well as improvement and professional conversion courses, attested by diplomas and certificates, can be provided.

In order to obtain the accreditation of ID and IFR programs, any higher education institution shall prove that it has, among others, the adequate material resources to ensure support and services to the students, specific education resources and a tutorial network with specialized teachers specialized in ID technology which highlights the importance of e-learning technologies for this form of academic studies.

Thus, to obtain accreditation under *Criterion A.2./Material resources/Space and facilities for educational activities* the following minimum performance indicators specific for e-learning, for ID Departments and Study Centers are incorporated:

- hardware and software equipment for preparation of educational materials in multimedia format (computers, audio, video and photo copiers etc.);
- network of computers connected to INTERNET;
- audio-video equipment for educational material presentation in multimedia format (projectors, TVs, VCRs, stereos etc.);
- specialized software products to achieve electronic courses and their publishing in virtual libraries, virtual libraries students access control and assessment of their knowledge;
- management systems for admission to the ID form, evidence evaluation knowledge and financial obligations of students.

The *e-learning* concept designates a type of distance education organized by an educational institution and supported by a tutoring

system, which provides teaching materials in an electronic format, assists students in assimilating it in their own way, and ensures the assessment process through information and communication technologies.

On the other hand, an *e-learning system* represents all media and telecommunication means, specific software products, and training materials available in an electronic format, which ensure the use of distance teaching-learning-evaluation, specific for the information society.

The tutor is the appointed teacher to conduct counseling, guidance, and knowledge evaluation of a group of students registered in any ID/IFR program.

The tutorial system represents the educational framework through which the students registered in the ID/IFR program are provided material support, specific education resources, counseling and guidance and bidirectional communication systems.

Generally, there are two possible options for institutional implementation of an e-learning system, that is: within a „virtual” educational institution, set up solely on the criteria of distance learning or as a distance learning department within an existing educational institution.

According to ARACIS standards, in Romanian academic education only the second option is possible, as long as ID and IFR programs can be organized only by higher education institutions that have accredited the program to the full-time education program.

2. Case study - organizing ID/IFR within UCDC (“Dimitrie Cantemir” Christian University)

Within „Dimitrie Cantemir” Christian University distance learning form (ID) and the part-time learning form (IFR) are being organized, according to the laws and regulations in force, for most accredited study programs as full-time education forms (IF).

The main provisions of the Regulation on organization and operation of the ID/IFR department from DCCU are briefly presented below.

Duration of studies for the ID/IFR programs is the same as for coordinated study programs, organized at full-time education programs.

Teachers, who teach full time education, shall teach typically the same discipline in the ID/IFR education form, with the following conditions:

- to have the quality of holder teacher or associate at DCCU;
- to have special teaching experience;
- to provide lecture notes before engaging in the ID/IFR activity

The tutor of the ID program doesn't have a similar equivalent within full-time education. The main task of the tutor is to keep in touch constantly with the students assigned to him. He acts as: advisor, consultant in the specialty fields and mentor for the student. His duties also involve problems concerning the surveillance of student's activity.

Communication systems with the students from the ID/IFR form involve the use of the Internet, assigning each student an individual account, ensuring the tutorial system, and respectively of individual tutoring, the use of other IT means.

At the beginning of each semester, the student receives the schedule of teaching activities, curricula, syllabus, calendar of activities, scheduled examinations and other forms of assessment, the list with the tutor's details (for ID) and of teaching staff, as well as the course support package that shall be used for individual training.

The organizational and relational structure of the ID/IFR Department of „Dimitrie Cantemir” Christian University is illustrated in Figure 1.

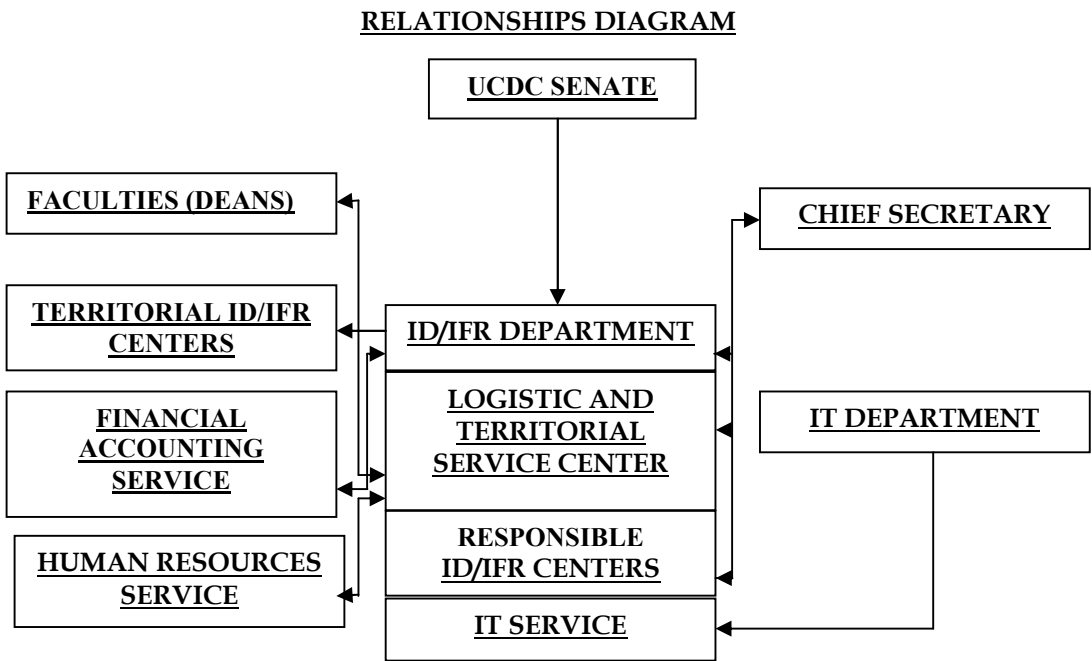


Figure 1. Relationships diagram of the ID/IFR department of UDCD (continuous line – relationships of subordination, double continuous line – relationships of coordination, dotted line – relationships of collaboration).

As it can be seen, ID/IFR territorial centers are subordinated to the management of the faculties that organize ID/IFR programs and are

coordinated by the ID/IFR Department and the IT service has a double subordination – to the ID/IFR Department and to the IT Department.

The main *duties and responsibilities of the ID/IFR Department which are important for the e-learning system* are the following:

- provides the communication infrastructure between students, teachers and tutors, by various means: post office, telephone, fax, e-mail, Internet, videoconferencing, group discussion facilitated by information techniques etc.;
- ensures that each of the ID/IFR study Centers have adequate educational resources, including : multimedia products, computer network and Internet access;
- promotes a clear policy concerning: use of information technologies and access to them, use of digital libraries, distributing educational materials, production and use of materials and multimedia means ;
- ensures confidentiality of all databases on students' activities;
- ensures a constant update of databases;
- ensures safe storage of data on students' activities, the latter being guaranteed and protected against storms unauthorized changes.

Considering that within UDCD, ID/IFR regional centers have a bi-cephalic subordination – both of faculties that organize ID/IFR programs and of ID/IFR Department and that there is only one informatics structure within the ID/IFR Department, which operates for all ID/IFR regional centers, one can advance the idea of setting up an integrated e-learning system within the whole university.

Conclusions

Romanian legislation does not specify the possibility of creating “virtual” academic institutions, constituted exclusively on distance learning criterion, therefore e-learning systems can be implemented in the ID/IFR departments within those institutions that have accredited the respective study programs to the full-time education form.

In order to obtain accreditation of the ID/IFR programs it is absolutely necessary to fulfill the minimal performance indicators, specific for e-learning, provided by *Criterion A.2./B Material resources/Space and facilities for educational activities*.

Given the centralized way of structuring of the ID/IFR Department within UDCD, it is indicated to achieve an integrated e-learning system at university level.

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L'ENSEIGNEMENT DU FRANÇAIS LANGUE ÉTRANGÈRE DANS UNE PERSPECTIVE COMMUNICATIVE

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Abstract: *In this paper, we synthesize the communicative approach in the teaching of FLE. We then show that beyond certain discourses that are so frequent in the FLE teaching, especially teaching in spite the great discourses, there is a lack of methodological reflection and learning at all levels of education: indeed, the didactics of foreign languages does not seem real recognition and he reigns in this field a methodological ambiguity, leaving young unarmed French teachers face in their classrooms.*

Keywords: *didactic, language, teaching, learning, methodology, communicative approach.*

Dans le domaine de la pédagogie et de la didactique du FLE, comme dans tous les domaines de l'activité humaine, les recherches évoluent sans cesse. A mesure que les recherches en didactique évoluent, de nouvelles méthodes s'imposent sans créer en effet une vraie rupture avec les théories précédentes, chacune de ces manières d'enseignement remplaçant l'autre, tout en intégrant des éléments didactiques antérieurs. Ainsi, c'est l'approche fonctionnelle-communicative qui domine actuellement dans la didactique du FLE, depuis le début des années 80. L'approche communicative est apparue à un moment où la recherche en sciences du langage et en didactique a permis de prendre en compte les expériences négatives des méthodes antérieures sans finalité pratique et leur opposer une philosophie d'inspiration behavioriste et où le désir de communiquer dans une langue étrangère d'une manière efficace est devenu beaucoup plus fort. Selon l'approche communicative, la parole est véhiculée par l'étudiant et non par l'enseignant qui dirigeait le processus d'enseignement d'une langue étrangère sans tenir compte du désir de communication des étudiants. De cette façon l'échange entre les étudiants est au centre de l'expérience d'apprentissage qui se fait au moyen de

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tâches interactives plutôt que par des instructions dirigées par les enseignants portant sur des notions, des actes de langage et des intentions de communication. Ces interactions doivent être pensées, organisées, et évaluées par le professeur enseignant. L'apprenant a donc un rôle actif à jouer car tout le processus d'enseignement ne repose plus sur le professeur dont le rôle est d'apprendre à apprendre¹; le rôle de l'enseignant est ainsi redéfini, puisque celui-ci devient à la fois, animateur, coordinateur et conseiller plutôt que maître². Enfin, l'accent est mis sur le sens, le contenu plutôt que sur la forme: on essaie ainsi de prendre en compte la totalité de la situation de communication, à savoir le contexte, les présupposés, le statut, le rôle et la psychologie des personnages; les progressions ne sont plus linéaires mais plutôt³, concentriques ou encore cycliques, permettant aux étudiants de comprendre et de produire du sens. L'approche communicative distingue ainsi nettement l'apprentissage de l'acquisition des connaissances.

Contrairement à l'apprentissage, l'acquisition est spontanée, intuitive et se produit lorsqu'on met l'accent sur la communication et non sur l'acquisition formelle. L'approche communicative se propose en effet comme objectif principal d'apprendre à communiquer dans une langue étrangère, en tenant compte de facteurs tels que la motivation, l'affectivité, l'aptitude et la personnalité des apprenants. Cette approche favorise donc une pratique pédagogique plus efficace, qui permet de mieux répondre au

¹ H. HOLEC, 1990, "Qu'est-ce qu'apprendre à apprendre?", *Mélanges pédagogiques*, 1990, pp. 75-87, ...Selon H. Holec: "apprendre à apprendre est donc un apprentissage comme tous les autres apprentissages, mais il comporte des objectifs spécifiques (par exemple apprendre à se servir d'un enregistrement authentique pour s'entraîner en compréhension orale; apprendre à passer de "il faut que j'apprenne du vocabulaire" à "il faut que j'apprenne le vocabulaire qui me permettra d'exprimer telle attitude dans telle situation; remercier avec effusion pour un grand service rendu autrement qu'en répétant dix fois merci, merci"; etc.); il comporte aussi des moyens spécifiques (par exemple grilles ou questionnaires qui aident à réfléchir sur le type d'apprenant que l'on est, à s'autoévaluer en tant qu'apprenant; techniques d'analyse d'un corpus permettant de trouver soi-même la réponse à une question personnelle d'ordre linguistique; comment on fait une phrase interrogative qui puisse servir à vérifier l'identité de quelqu'un, etc.)"

² Voir Evelyne BÉRARD, 1991, *L'Approche communicative: Théorie et pratiques*, Paris, Clé International, p. 48.

³ Evelyne BÉRARD, *Ibid.*, p. 44, qui affirme: «La progression est en spirale, un acte de parole est présenté puis un autre, on revient sur le premier pour le reprendre et le compléter. Dans ce cas-là, les éléments ne s'ajoutent pas, on considère qu'il y a plusieurs phases de travail et qu'il y a élargissement et approfondissement des actes traités. » Cette affirmation est citée par Jean-Marcel Morlat dans l'article «Pour une approche communicative de l'enseignement du français en Turquie mardi 11 décembre 2007».

désir de communiquer dans une langue étrangère et aux motivations des élèves, au souci d'efficacité des professeurs, aux objectifs des systèmes éducatifs et aux intérêts des sociétés pleinement engagées dans le processus de mondialisation tellement actuels.

Pour mettre en fonctionnement une approche communicative il faut respecter certains principes parmi lesquels nous mentionnons quelques-uns: a) varier les formes de travail; b) il faut éviter de passer d'une activité à l'autre, sans en tirer les enseignements, en parcourant le manuel en quelque sorte; c) stimuler le travail en équipe comme celui dans des groupes par deux, recommandé uniquement pour des exercices qui demandent une préparation sérieuse de la part de l'enseignant et qui pourront effectivement être présentés aux étudiants. Le travail en petits groupes demande une bonne organisation: travail de recherche, enquêtes, exploitation thématique d'un texte, par exemple. Dans ce cas aussi il s'agira uniquement d'activités qui demandent une vraie préparation. Les étudiants pourront aussi venir devant la classe, individuellement, par deux, par trois ou en petits groupes. Ils peuvent noter les remarques au tableau, faire une présentation orale. Dans le cas d'un exercice fait à l'oral, il faut corriger la production orale des étudiants débutants. Si l'exercice est fait à l'écrit, il faudra contrôler si les étudiants notent la bonne réponse. On peut donner la réponse correcte au tableau, sur transparent ou encore contrôler les étudiants individuellement. Il est recommandé de pratiquer évaluation par groupes, c'est-à-dire de faire corriger les réponses des étudiants par les autres étudiants de la classe. On pourra ainsi penser à varier les types d'exercices à partir des actes de langage tels que: combiner, traduire, compléter, dire, lire, écouter, écrire. En donnant des tâches à accomplir aux étudiants, l'enseignant sollicite leurs capacités de déduction et de découverte et les invite à construire leur propre savoir: l'enseignement est bien orienté vers l'action et centré sur l'apprenant qui s'engage ainsi dans différents types d'interactions. L'enseignant doit essayer de s'assurer tout au long de son enseignement qu'il interagit bien avec ses apprenants et il doit de ce fait s'intéresser personnellement à l'état de leur développement linguistique. Enfin, il faut savoir que la qualité et la fréquence des échanges en classe sont des facteurs qui facilitent le processus d'apprentissage.

Dans ces circonstances, l'enseignant doit savoir utiliser ses compétences linguistiques, culturelles et pédagogiques au service de l'apprenant car il restera sa principale ressource et cela même après la fin de la leçon. Il doit sans hésitation être capable de remettre en question ses

connaissances et surtout être patient et à l'écoute de ses apprenants comme l'affirme Evelyne Bérard: *«La vision de l'apprentissage proposée par l'approche communicative met en avant une attitude d'attention aux productions des apprenants, partant du principe que l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère se fait par des réajustements successifs et par la mise en place progressive d'un système. Dans cette appropriation de la langue étrangère, l'attitude active de l'apprenant a un rôle très dynamique. La difficulté réside dans l'écart qu'il peut y avoir entre ces principes et les conditions de leur réalisation»*.⁴

Par conséquent, une approche communicative et une gestion de la classe en situation de communication est enrichissante pour le professeur qui devient alors un véritable chef d'orchestre de même que pour les étudiants en tant que participants actifs: *«Le maître apprend à écouter, à se taire, et les enfants parlent, travaillent. Le maître quitte son rôle de magister pour prendre dans la classe sa vraie place, qui est celle d'un adulte responsable de ses actes et maître de techniques. Nous pouvons dire qu'il se désaliène, les tabous disparaissent, et qu'on écoute plus à mesure qu'il parle moins »*.⁵

Toutefois les apprenants sont en général toutefois habitués à un seul type d'enseignement (le maître parle et les élèves écoutent) et ne sont pas toujours prêts à découvrir une autre approche: *«Une approche communicative demande à l'apprenant d'être actif, de prendre souvent l'initiative; l'apprenant par ses habitudes, son passé scolaire n'est pas forcément préparé à cela»*⁶.

L'enseignant doit aussi faire attention au rapport qu'il entretient avec le tableau, qui doit rester un outil au service de l'apprentissage et non pas symboliser une preuve de supériorité sur les apprenants comme c'est le cas dans beaucoup d'écoles afin de combler un manque de formation linguistique et pédagogique. Il est conseillé de demander aux apprenants de venir au tableau pour écrire leurs réponses ou leurs propositions pour pouvoir voir les erreurs des uns et des autres. Tout cela contribue à l'autonomisation de l'apprenant. L'approche communicative n'est donc pas une approche facile à mettre en place lorsqu'on n'est pas suffisamment formé, tant au niveau linguistique que pédagogique. En effet, un enseignement communicatif implique pour l'enseignant une formation méthodologique adaptée à la pratique de techniques utilisables en classe, ainsi que la connaissance approfondie de différents outils pédagogiques (méthodes, matériaux complémentaires) et surtout la

⁴ Evelyne Bérard, *op.cit.*, p. 48.

⁵ A. Vasquez, F. Oury, 1967, *Vers une pédagogie institutionnelle*, Maspéro, p. 222.

⁶ Evelyne Bérard, *op.cit.*, p. 59.

capacité d'utiliser et d'adapter des documents authentiques: «*La didactique doit être créatrice, pour que l'enseignement soit équitable. Le public «global» n'existant que pour des raisons commerciales, tout enseignement du français doit s'adapter aux conditions locales de son exercice*»⁷. Ce genre de formation est ignoré malheureusement par la plupart des enseignants qui n'ont souvent pas la compétence linguistique et communicative requise et surtout l'aptitude socio-culturelle nécessaire pour communiquer avec des natifs francophones, comme le précise Jean Duverger en parlant des limites de l'enseignement du français en Turquie.⁸

Pour que les étudiants réussissent, il faut que les enseignants soient compétents et de formation adaptée aux méthodes utilisées de FLE, parfois plus traditionnelles pour la grammaire. En général, ce sont les méthodes communicatives qui sont le plus utilisées. L'enseignant travaille souvent des années avec les mêmes méthodes, qu'il pense maîtriser. Elles visent à proposer aux jeunes un enseignement lui donnant rapidement accès à la communication orale. Le travail avec la vidéo et les cassettes audio devrait offrir aux enseignants un support très large et varié qui peut même limiter les faiblesses des enseignants en communication orale. Cependant, pour que cet enseignement soit réellement utile et de qualité, il est important que les enseignants soient formés aux méthodes FLE et qu'ils puissent être soutenus par des enseignants de langue maternelle française en classe préparatoire pour assurer les bases les plus solides possibles. Ceci permettra sans doute à un plus grand nombre d'étudiants débutants d'apprendre le français sans trop de difficultés ni découragement. Les étudiants bénéficiant de la méthode communicative seront plus motivés par un apprentissage plus rapide et par la possibilité de communiquer dans la nouvelle langue étrangère cible.

Une autre qualité de cet enseignement est aussi la capacité de s'adapter à l'apprenant et aussi de fonctionner avec des collègues venant d'horizons et de pays différents. Il faut souligner que l'enseignant ne peut fonctionner sans se référer quotidiennement à ses collègues dans un travail d'équipe et collaborer avec eux. Un autre défaut à éviter et que l'on retrouve chez de nombreux enseignants, notamment, est la consommation, voire la surconsommation du manuel: «*l'approche*

⁷ Magali LEMEUNIER-QUÉRÉ, 2006, «Créer du matériel didactique: un enjeu et un contrat», Franc-parler.

⁸ Jean DUVERGER, Hüsnü ARSLAN, 2002, «L'enseignement du français en Turquie: Entre traditions et nécessaires évolutions», dans *Le Français dans le Monde*, mars-avril, no 320.

communicative, de par ses exigences, et parce qu'elle est moins codifiée au niveau de sa mise en place suppose que l'enseignant possède certains savoir-faire et ne s'en remette pas à l'utilisation stricte d'un manuel»⁹. Valeria Catalano, qui enseigne à l'université du Limburg en Belgique et qui a animé un séminaire de formation en didactique à l'université de Çukurova, a une très belle formule, qui résume toute cette nouvelle philosophie pédagogique: «La matière comprise dans le manuel ne constitue pas à elle seule une leçon de français. On peut la comparer à un ballon vide et plat. Le rôle du prof est de souffler dans le ballon jusqu'à ce qu'il devienne rond et léger, de l'envoyer aux élèves et de le rattraper quand les élèves le renvoient. Les principes didactiques suivants servent à donner du souffle au professeur».¹⁰

Il faut renoncer à la conception que le professeur est le centre du monde et qu'il décide tout. L'apprenant construit lui-aussi son apprentissage avec l'aide du professeur, tout en étant productif tant à l'oral qu'à l'écrit: «L'approche communicative accorde une place importante aux productions des apprenants dans le sens où elle essaie de favoriser ces productions: donner à l'apprenant des occasions multiples et variées de produire dans la langue étrangère, l'aider à surmonter ses blocages, ne pas le corriger systématiquement...»¹¹. On distingue donc différentes phases dans la leçon, qui doit être une démarche construite et dont le déroulement implique souplesse et flexibilité, ce qui est souvent difficile à instaurer étant donné la rigidité du cadre scolaire et aussi le comportement des apprenants qui sont habitués à des leçons traditionnelles.

En effet, la méthode communicative a pour point de départ la langue comme moyen de communication. On reconnaît que toute communication a un but social car c'est l'apprenant qui a quelque chose à dire ou il veut avoir une information, se renseigner. La communication intègre un spectre entier de fonctions (par exemple la recherche des renseignements, demander des excuses, etc.) et de notions (par exemple s'excuser pour le retard, demander des renseignements pour arriver à une autre localité ou à un autre endroit).

Dans la méthode communicative on met l'accent sur le sens plutôt que par la forme dans le cas des corrigés de langue et des notions liées à structure de la langue. La langue étrangère est devenue par la nouvelle méthode un moyen de transmission des informations concernant la

⁹ Evelyne Bérard, Oeuvre. cit., p. 62.

¹⁰ Valeria Catalano, 2006, «Ateliers de didactique appliquée », Université du Limburg, Hasselt, Belgique, polycopié du séminaire donné à l'université de Çukurova, mai.

¹¹ Evelyne Bérard, Opus. Cit., p. 44.

gestion de la classe. L'approche communicative est ainsi orientée vers les besoins et les intérêts de l'apprenant et les programmes basés sur la méthode communicative offrent la possibilité de communiquer en langue étrangère dès le début de l'apprentissage. Si l'accent est mis sur le caractère fonctionnel de la langue les apprenants doivent être capables de se débrouiller dans un pays étranger et de pratiquer la langue qu'ils ont étudiée et d'être préparés à être confrontés à diverses situations dans la vie quotidienne. On mettra l'accent sur les jeux de rôles, sur des projets, sur toute activité qui encourage la spontanéité et l'improvisation. Il n'est pas recommandé que pendant le cours l'enseignant utilise uniquement la répétition et l'exercice classique. Par contre, l'enseignant met en fonction un apprentissage actif, y compris le travail en équipe (pairwork), activité souvent mal exploitée en classe. On encourage les activités d'expression orale, d'écoute et de compréhension qui permettent un contact plus direct avec la langue que lorsqu'on entend parler seulement le professeur.

En fonction de ces caractéristiques, l'approche communicative concerne les besoins individuels de chaque étudiant. Par le désir de perfectionner son habileté d'expression orale, l'apprenant peut acquérir les compétences de communication d'une façon rapide et agréable.

Cependant l'approche communicative n'est pas limitée aux aptitudes orales. Les habiletés de lire et d'écrire doivent être développées pour conférer de la confiance aux participants à tous les niveaux de la langue: lectures, résumés, discussions, débats. Le but sera celui d'acquérir une fluidité accrue et une manipulation plus facile des registres de la langue. Les éléments de grammaire seront toujours enseignées mais non d'une façon systématique et plutôt comme un moyen d'amélioration de la communication orale.

Les moyens didactiques employés doivent être très actuels pour motiver les apprenants. Il y aura des documents authentiques tels que les articles de journaux et revues, des poésies, des manuels, des recettes de cuisine, des annuaires téléphoniques, des vidéos, des extraits de journaux, discussions, tout pourra être exploité d'une façon très variée. Le professeur ne doit pas se limiter au manuel, il pourra utiliser une grande variété de sources d'informations basées sur l'intertextualité, sur des documents authentiques.

En ce qui concerne les fautes commises on peut les permettre car il s'agit d'une étape du processus d'apprentissage qui suppose une réévaluation permanente de la part de l'étudiant qui essaie de s'exprimer d'une façon créative et spontanée. On pourra corriger les erreurs

inévitables d'une façon discrète, constructive.

Par l'utilisation des documents authentiques les apprenants peuvent faire des connexions et des comparaisons avec leur propre langue et culture à partir desquelles ils peuvent acquérir de nouvelles connaissances et établir les plus importantes étapes dans l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère. Plusieurs phases pourraient être envisagées:

Phase 1: Compréhension

- prise de connaissance du document: écoute, lecture, visionnement
- analyse des paramètres de l'énonciation (émetteur, récepteur, référent, canal)
- recherche des actes de parole qui ont permis la communication
- dialogue avec images / poème / chanson / texte
- révision de la leçon précédente

Phase 2: Acquisition et pratique de la langue

- Communication
- Phonétique
- Grammaire
- Lexique
- Différents types d'exercices: exercices de repérage; exercices à trous; exercices de transformation; conversations à compléter ou à reconstituer, etc....

Phase 3: Expression guidée (exercices applicatifs)

- Débat, discussion, réalisation d'une tâche
- Exercices dirigés à partir d'une photo, d'un dessin.

Phase 4: Expression libre (exercices)

- jeux de rôle ; simulation
- Création littéraire, projet artistique
- Création d'une brochure, d'une annonce, etc.

Toutes ces activités vont dans le sens d'une réelle liberté d'expression. Il est bien sûr important de pratiquer une approche diversifiée, une multitude de méthodes, comme l'affirme Christian Puren:

«Trop souvent jusqu'à présent, les didacticiens du FLE se sont comportés en réalité comme des développeurs et propagateurs de la dernière approche ou méthodologie constituée. La disparition de celles-ci de l'horizon didactique à la fois leur permet et leur exige de revenir à leur mission première, à savoir la réflexion et la construction méthodologique. C'est qu'il ne s'agit plus désormais – et il ne s'agira plus dans l'avenir actuellement prévisible – de construire une énième approche ou méthodologie, mais de dégager les règles régissant tout type de construction de ce genre, afin de fournir concrètement aux enseignants et aux

apprenants les moyens sur le terrain et en temps réel, de faire, défaire et refaire de nouvelles cohérences en instances permanentes de renégociation». ¹²

Par conséquent, il faut renoncer à des méthodologies désuètes, et dogmatiques et essayer de jeter un regard nouveau sur l'enseignement des langues et réinventer une didactique adaptée à un monde globalisé et privilégier *«un éclectisme de bon aloi, qui soit tout le contraire d'un bricolage irréfléchi, mais qui se distingue tout autant d'un rigorisme..., toujours réductionniste»*, comme l'explique si bien Daniel Coste. ¹³

En guise de conclusion il faut souligner que la didactique des langues doit actuellement se positionner par rapport à un espace internationalisé de la connaissance, à des instruments d'évaluation des compétences adaptés à la mondialisation, à des sociétés où les appartenances se définissent comme multiples mais dans lesquelles le besoin de communiquer s'avère indispensable. La mondialisation se manifeste dans des structures politiques (Etats, institutions nationales et internationalisées), dans des structures sociales (villes, histoires familiales, parcours individuels) et dans des processus d'échange (réseaux ou flux d'informations, de personnes). Dans cet espace multiforme, marqué par la mobilité internationale, par des représentations culturelles et sociales diverses, les langues étrangères, apparaissent comme des éléments de médiation, indispensables à la communication globalisée, non seulement appréhendés à niveau technologique, mais aussi social.

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¹² Christian Puren, 1995, «Des méthodologies constituées et de leur mise en question», dans *Le Français dans le monde*, no spécial Recherches et Applications, Paris, EDICEF, janvier, pp. 36-41.

¹³ Daniel Coste, Daniel 2000, «Le déclin des méthodologies: Fin de siècle ou ère nouvelle?», dans *Une Didactique des Langues pour demain/En Hommage au Professeur Henri Holec*, Mélanges Crapel, no 25.

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HUMANISTIC METHODS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract: *The psychological research and changes occurred in pedagogical thinking have led to new methods in foreign language teaching called "humanistic methods" or "fringe methods" which focus on some aspects neglected by the traditional strategies: feelings, emotions, interpersonal relationships: suggestopedia, first an experimental method belonging to suggestology, has become a psychological method of teaching and learning foreign languages based mainly on indirect suggestion which appeals to a peripheral subliminal; the silent way, which stems from the trend initiated by the Italian specialist in pedagogy Maria Montessori is based on the fact that the process of learning a foreign language is a natural one, which children perform involuntarily; cooperative learning, whose roots are in the counseling techniques of psychotherapy, is greatly based on group dynamics; the total physical response, which originates in the action-based methods, refers to the learner's reaction, to the instructions received from the teacher and it has been a successful method to teach foreign language for children.*

Keywords: *humanistic methods, fringe methods, suggestopedia, the silent way, cooperative learning, the total physical response.*

Although the humanistic approach in foreign language teaching, as interpreted by Moskowitz and other theoreticians, is different from the communicative approach in certain respects, they still have many common points.

These two approaches no longer regard the learner as the linguistic object on which teaching is focused, but as a human being with his/her own individuality whose dignity, integrity, complexity of ideas, thoughts, needs and feelings must be respected. Foreign language teaching and learning is above all a communication process. Communication means an intellectual but also affective opening for students and teachers alike. It is

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common knowledge that foreign language teachers help the students to broaden their horizons by putting them into contact with other cultures, other mentalities, by promoting multiculturalism. The foreign language teachers have always made efforts to present things in the most interesting and pleasant ways, trying to make their way towards the learners' souls. The education based on feelings, affection has done away with stereotypes in foreign language classes humanizing them in a world where youngsters are in quest for a type of education that may help them understand what is going on around them and, above all, understand their own personality.

The problem of an education centered on the learner, on his/her personality, on the atmosphere in which the educational process is taking place, as well as on the interaction within the group of students and on the teacher-student relationship is not new. This kind of education has been studied and put into practice by specialists in pedagogy like Horace Nann or John Dewey, Friedrich Froebel or Maria Montessori. Furthermore, other individualistic approaches such as the Dalton or Winnetka plan have become widely known and spread all over the world. The technical implementations have evolved, the meanings have been enriched, leading to an educational process which lays more and more emphasis on the individual development rather than on individual differences, on cooperation rather than on competition.

Individualized education does not mean isolation as is the case for independent study, but the fact that it is not meant to compare the way and rhythm of studying gives each student the freedom to work at his/her own pace, according to their own character. Due to the fact that, to a certain extent, the educational process needs to comply with the requirements imposed by today's life and to prepare youngsters for the society they are going to live in, there is a greater necessity of emphasizing the individuality, the development of those educational acts which can provide the student with a larger possibility of organizing his way of studying, planning and implementing some activities together with his teacher and his peers.

The psychological research and the changes occurred in pedagogical thinking have led to new methods in foreign language teaching called "humanistic methods" or "fringe methods" which focus on some aspects neglected by the traditional strategies: feelings, emotions, interpersonal relationships. The most important thing according to this methodology is to enable the learner to get involved into the activities and interactions that are taking place within the class or group of students feeling free of

any constraints. It is necessary for the students to be capable of giving up the feeling of safety offered by the mother tongue environment and to accept the “frustrations” which communication in a foreign language involves. Humanist psychologists such as Carl Rogers have underlined the importance of full learning and the message of the learner’s total involvement also comprised foreign language teaching during the 1970s. The promoters of this method focused on affective factors argue that the learning process will be successful if the students are encouraged to take up a proper attitude and if they are motivated to study the respective foreign language and the cultural phenomena linked to it. They claim that, except for the above-mentioned factors, there are no successful techniques regardless of the way in which they were applied or the soundness of the latest research and linguistic theories.

Suggestopedia – the first and maybe most famous of these methods, was developed by the Bulgarian psychotherapist Lozanov, the founder of the Institute of Suggestology in Sofia in 1966. One of the basic ideas in suggestology is to awaken the unsuspected qualities that each individual possesses and to develop them by making him/her aware of the micro-suggestive elements that already exist around him. Apparently insignificant elements (a ray of sun, a noise in the street, the rustle of paper, a smile) can trigger deep and long-lasting reactions that are capable of stimulating our memory, creativity, imagination and changing our behaviour. Another basic idea of suggestology is to help the learner to relax completely, to be open and receptive towards what he is going to learn. Therefore, it is necessary to remove any barriers raised by negative feelings or grudges before the learning process starts.

Suggestopedia was first an experimental method belonging to suggestology with a view to checking the hypotheses that trigger those suggestive phenomena susceptible of stimulating the human faculties. Then it became a psychological method of teaching and learning foreign languages based mainly on the indirect suggestion which appeals to a peripheral subliminal, *that of authority, of a double planeness, of concert pseudo-passivity and infantilization*, briefly to all micro-suggestive elements which accompany the conscious suggestion:

- *teacher’s authority* that is based on respect towards the teacher’s competence, authority and fame and it is the main element of suggestion, the one which underlies any suggestive method;
- *double-planeness* which designates all that accompanies the act of speaking: tone of the voice, intonation, mimicry, look, imperceptible facial

expressions, gestures, body language and other non-verbal signs, different from direct, conscious and, more often than not, verbal suggestion. The teacher must become an artist in order to be able to handle the double-planeness, the only one which can penetrate the hidden reserves of the personality and which can bring them to surface by means of the indirect suggestion.

- *concert pseudo-passivity* which designates a similar state of mind to that of a person who is attending a musical concert: calm, relaxation, disconnection from the common conscious functions. An agreeable frame of mind without tensions or tiredness is being induced, which is very useful when studying a foreign language because it enhances memorization, intelligence and creativity.

- *infantilization* aims at enhancing self-confidence, spontaneity, relaxation, free expression, imagination, emotions, being often meant to reduce stress.

All these procedures are meant to help the person get rid of his/her inhibitions, activate the personality's reserves and thus make the foreign language acquisition easier for the learner. Suggestopedia is in fact a way of learning a foreign language based on „total harmony” which makes use of music (with different aims according to the learning stages), role-play, yoga techniques and a silent teacher-student relationship.

The materials used for suggestive teaching of foreign language consist especially of dialogues printed in a special way, containing the translation into the learners' mother tongue in a parallel column. These are situational dialogues designed to be as close as possible to real ones (congresses, access to the hotel, restaurant, telephone, in the street, shopping, paying a visit, museums or exhibitions). There are four special stages for handling these dialogues in the classroom, the most important one being the reading of the text. The attendees follow the text attentively, and the music is meant to relax, to create an agreeable atmosphere.

The Silent Way whose author is Caleb Gattengo stems from an individualistic approach of the learning process. One of the basic concepts of this method starts from the trend initiated by the Italian pedagogist, Maria Montessori. The founder of this method applied Montessori's ideas in the classroom. Starting from the fact that learning a foreign language is a natural process, which the children perform involuntarily, the author considers that the older pupil or student firstly needs a helping hand to re-

discover the child in his inner self. Thus, the teacher must act first at the level of perception and then at the level of action. We come across Montessori's idea that the instruction process begins only after the development of the senses has been ensured. In the first stage the students deal with what they perceive and then they integrate everything with the help of the sensations they have taken in over time. The next step consists of making use of what they have gained by means of perception in order to explore the world of action. The first stage, that of young children, is of "absolute perception". At the next stage inferences can be made and this can also be exploited.

The whole teaching and learning system is based on the teacher's ability to exploit the learner's previous language experience (similar to the mother tongue), his imagination and intuition rather than his memory or intellect. The additional materials such as charts, where the pronunciation of the words is encoded, are used to develop the students' perception and to get them acquainted with certain sounds and words without making use of translation. The teacher no longer needs to interfere verbally, as the students can be guided by means of gestures, facial mimicry, silent routine methods without using other materials. It is interesting that Gattengo tried this method in several countries for diverse languages with people belonging to diverse walks of life and he always succeeded in making them read a scenario they saw for the first time. He uses the technique of feed-back, considering that after learning a few basic problems, the rest of knowledge will be acquired naturally, without a conscious effort, appealing to the general knowledge about the language offered by one's mother tongue.

Another basic idea of this methodology is the fact that the spirit of the language exists in one's subconscious, belonging to the collective unconscious. In each language there are certain things that are passed down from one generation to another, which comply with those people's way of thinking, with what they believe to be good and fair. The British were people who preferred working on large areas and the fact that they lived on island and got used to resisting against foreign invasions means that this community is, probably, more self-centered, which gave rise to a set of habits, behaviours, to a certain outlook on life. This is reflected in the language and that is why English people prefer the verbs (different from French people, for example, who prefer the nouns).

This method is based on the cognitive exploration and the search of criteria underlying the structure of a language.

Community Language Learning has its roots in the counselling techniques of psychotherapy and its promoter is the American Charles Curran. It is greatly based on the **group dynamic** and insists on the human, personal factor in the learning process; „to feel” in another language, along with „to talk” is of the utmost importance. It is a humanistic approach focused on the learner as a human being, inducing his lucidity as far as his own being is concerned, self-confidence and confidence in those around him/her.

The term counselling is largely used in teaching and learning foreign languages, having a wide significance concerning a number of activities which take place both inside and outside the classroom, but its basic meaning remains that of helping the counselled people to get to know and understand better their personality, their own feelings and actions. People’s inhibitions, anxieties, blocks and prejudices, feelings of safety or insecurity can be known by means of the counselling activity. The tradition of counselling and psychotherapy which underlie Charles Curran’s work is extremely relevant in the educational process and especially in foreign language teaching, having the role of helping the student to overcome his psychological barriers, fears, frustrations which are more powerful in learning a foreign language. In order to overcome these barriers, more often than not, the student needs the support of his teacher and peers alike. This shows that the affective involvement in learning a foreign language is very important and the learner’s success or failure may depend upon it. Many teachers admit that failures occurred within some groups of students are not due to the lack of good materials or facilities, but to a negative atmosphere inside the group. Support and cooperation inside the group, as well as a harmonious relationship among the students and a good teacher-student relationship are essential for achieving success in foreign language teaching. As some psychologists argue, a close-knit group works more efficiently and it is more productive.

Learning a foreign language implies communicating one’s own ideas, emotions, experience. One of the problems raised by the modern education is that of re-establishing the values of cooperation among individuals in a more and more depersonalized and individualistic world. Cooperative learning involves the full participation of students and teacher alike, their participation in planning the activities they are going to perform and the possibility of making one’s own choice effectively. This involves mutual help and, what is more, helping the teacher as the activities are taking places on groups or interactive pairs where discovery

and the joy of learning are fully shared. The teacher becomes a counsellor, a guide, a support and a partner in cooperative learning. As most problems encountered by students when learning a foreign language are emotional ones, this new relationship teacher-student can lead to improving the learning process by reducing the tensions: the way in which the learning process takes place is considered to be more important than its final result.

The Total Physical Response is a specific methodology for foreign language teaching and it stems from action methods (especially simulation, role-play, dramatization, didactic and educational games). The Total Physical Response refers to the learner's reaction, to various instructions received from the teacher until one has gained enough linguistic information to become independent. It is a very successful method for teaching foreign languages to children as they like to imitate and mime. Children like imaginative things and they identify themselves with the roles assumed. They like stories and insist that they should be told again and again, repeating rhymes and songs delight them. Instead of "look and listen" activities, the children prefer repetitive ones, based on listening and action, where they concentrate on the active meaning of the words and sentences. Later, the children will practise them spontaneously at home. The practical experience and the research demonstrate that the game may fulfill some aims children are not aware of. Thus, especially very young children may come to speak the foreign language almost as well as their mother tongue by training their subconscious, imagination but without making any effort to memorize. The modern pedagogy does not assign the game only a functional significance as it used to do in the past, but also that of assimilating reality with the children's own activity, reason why the use of these active methods is very efficient in foreign language teaching. Due to the variety of games, the language will also be varied, and, what is more, the children do not get bored by the repetitions which lead to memorizing the vocabulary and the specific structures of the language which is being taught.

But the theoreticians of this method argue that not only children learn through action, as the answer based on movement is a motivating technique for beginners of any kind, either children or teenagers and adults. The direct method has always used practical materials for beginners, materials which they can feel, touch and manipulate. The audio-lingual method and the communicative approaches in foreign

language teaching are largely based on building up some situations students can identify themselves with and which help them assimilate the materials actively, taking on possible roles for the respective situations. The materials used during the lessons must be designed in a way that will enable the students to use them immediately outside the classroom (as those who learn French at the French Alliance school in Paris may go shopping using what they have learnt). The teachers are supposed to build up different real and interesting situations during the class in order to motivate their students. Just like for children, veridical situations from their current life may be simulated: things connected to different jobs, actions, processes. When planning the activities, the teacher might get the students involved in their selection, according to their personal likings.

Learning through action is a very successful method for foreign language teaching emphasizing the "solidarity between the hand and the brain" (G. Manod) on which the methodology of the total physical response is based in fact. We could say that "to know means to do, to act" and also that "to speak means to act" – learning through action.

In conclusion, the humanist approaches in foreign language teaching lay emphasis on the personal qualities, such as understanding, empathy, taking on responsibilities, self-actualization capacity (Stevick, 1990). From this perspective, learning a language is regarded as an activity that involves the students as complex human beings, with their whole personalities. Therefore, the foreign language teaching and learning process should fully exploit the affective and intellectual resources of the learners, they should rely equally on the intellectual and emotional intelligence. Despite some reservations that existed as to these methods in foreign language education, the humanist movement has had a clear impact on the practise of foreign language teaching.

This is expressed by the increasing popularity of communicative activities based on emotion and dramatization.

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CHRONOGRAPHS IN ROMANIAN LITERATURE

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Abstract: *This article is about the chronographs, works that describe the history of different nations, but also of the nations they are in contact with. There are two types of genders in Byzantine culture, one is (the) history itself, which describes the events contemporary to the writer. The other type is the chronicle or chronograph, which presents events from the beginning of the world. Some of the chronographs are the Manasses Chronicle, Turcograecia or The Chronicle from 1570. In Romanian culture, there are three types of chronographs: Kigalas (type), Dorothei (type) or Danovici (type).*

Keywords: *chronicle, history, culture, historical events.*

Chronographs represent the element through which the transition from religious literature to historical literature is made. The starting point of this literary genre is Byzantium and the narrated events start from the creation of the world and reach the contemporary period of the writer. In these chronographs, Byzantines not only narrate the life of their empire in all its grandeur, but they also provide information about other peoples, this being an essential element for the peoples that have a less developed culture or that do not record their own history.

D. Russo points out the distinction between two different genres that are found in Byzantine historiography. The first would be history itself, in which only the events contemporary with the writer or the events that took place shortly before the writer's birth are presented. The second genre is the chronicle or the chronograph, which illustrates the events from the creation of the world.

The difference between the two types of writing lies not only in the narration itself, but also in the different public to whom it is addressed. Making use of literary language, history is read by the elite, while the people who have access to the chronographs are of an average intellectual

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level, this making the latter more widespread. In Romania, chronographs were widely spread, making their appearance either through the Slavic language branch or directly from Greek.

After the Byzantine Empire falls prey to the Turks, intellectuals go abroad, while the church and the school, as institutions, decline. Accounts of events are performed by Byzantine historians in the so-called *Threnos* or *Songs of Mourning* which were preserved in large numbers. For a long time, Byzantium produces nothing else. The re-establishment of the intellectuals around the patriarch sheds light upon lists of patriarchs and notes about religious events, generally lacking cultural importance, but offering information about the Orthodox Church of those times.

Chronographs of Slavic and Greek Origin

The Universal Chronicle, written by Constantin Manasses, was translated into medium-Bulgarian towards the end of the 16th century, and a Slavic-Romanian copy was to be found in Moldavia after the second half of the 16th century. However, the text had been read in Romanian intellectual circles for quite some time, as Macarie was familiar with it. The events start with the creation of the world and end in 1081, with the death of Nechifor Botaniatul.

As the book was very popular, scribes added events until the period of time they were contemporary with, so one of the manuscripts narrates the events up to 1570.

Some researchers attribute the chronicle to other scholars, not to Manasses. A rumored name is Damaschin Studitul, because in a manuscript, the chronicle is a continuation of his book *The Physiologist*, and another rumored name is Teodor of Monembazia. However, the original text belongs to Manasses, although the scribes have intervened, filling it in with contemporary events, so that they would sign their names as authors of that work, although the interventions were, in many cases, insignificant.

"There was a time when chronographs were in vogue, a long time for this literary genre"¹, states Dan Horia Mazilu and adds the functions of this literary genre – transmitting experience and delighting the reader. Therefore, the critic considers, the chronographs have surpassed the 18th century, finding not only readers, but also imitators.

One of them is Dionisie Eclesiarhul who drafted *The Romanian*

¹ Dan Horia Mazilu, *Re-reading Old Romanian Literature*, III, Bucharest, 2000, p. 370.

Chronograph from 1764-1815, which, between 1814-1815, was considered not only a chronicle, but also a memoir.

Another chronicle in which the secular and the religious intermingle is *Turcograecia*, which contains, besides the actual narrated events, letters and notes regarding cultural life right after the fall of Constantinople. It consists of two other chronicles – *Political History* and *Patriarchal History*, brought to light by Marttin Crusius, the nephew of Stephan Gerlach. He had been appointed by Lutheran theologians to take the necessary steps in order to unite the Protestants with the Orthodox Christians. Thus he was sent to Constantinople where he met high clergymen from both sides. His writings are represented only by some ephemerides (1573-1578), published by his nephew, who was much more interested in the Orient and whose uncle had mediated his connection with the Protestants in Constantinople. Thus, he gathered information about the language, customs, history and the Greek Orthodox Church of those times.

Martin Cursius is the one who received a chronicle from Theodosius Zygomalas. It was entitled *The Political History of Constantinople from 1391–1578 AD*, and it starts by presenting the reign of Manuil Paleologul, it narrates the battles between the Byzantines with the Turks, it describes the conquests made by the Turkish Empire, it illustrates the state of the Eastern Church and it ends with the reign of Murat III. *The Chronicle of Zygomalas* was published by Crusius in 1584 in Basel, with some additional elements of Greek history, added by him.

The Manasses Chronicle was one of the most widely read historical texts and it was processed in the Greek world in a prose version, entitled *The Chronicle from 1570*, considered the main source of inspiration for *The Chronicle of Dorothei of Monembazia*, which appeared in Vienna in 1631. In translation, the title is long – *A Historical Book Briefly Comprising Interesting Various Historical Accounts Starting from the Creation of the World, Until the Fall of Constantinople and Onwards. Gathered From Various True Stories and Translated Into Vernacular by His All Holiness, Bishop of Monembazia, Kir Dorothei. It Has Recently Been Prepared for Printing At the Expense of the Very Noble Kir Apostol Tzigara from Ianina, and of Ioan Antonie Iulian for the Benefit of the Community*. The author is nominated starting from the title, though there are historians who question both Dorothei's authorship and that of those who funded the publishing of the book. The chronograph goes through around 14 republications. The writing delighted the readers, as it comprised religious stories and it was written in vernacular language.

In Moldavia, the chronograph was printed in a form which coincides

with that of the first edition. Editing was done at the court of Peter the Lamé (ruler interested in cultural life), under the supervision of Zotu Tzigara. In the preface to the reader, Apostol Tzigara points out that Dorothei of Monembazia compiled from several writers, but he translated the text into vernacular, language accessible to everyone.

The chronograph presents the events starting from the creation of the world until Jerusalem was conquered by Babylon. Using Herodotus as a source, it narrates about Nabucodonosor and his successors, Macedonians, Persians, Cleopatra or the legend of Troas. According to the lists of Roman, Turkish and Byzantine emperors, the foundation of Rome is depicted within its pages.

The first edition of the chronicle comprised the events leading up to 1629, while subsequent editions were updated with information leading up to the year they were to be printed in. The existence of such a large number of editions emphasizes the fact that this chronograph was a success in the Greek world. A version of it appeared even in Russia, used by Dimitry of Rostov.

One of the major sources of this writing is the Old Testament, Iulian Stefanescu stating that "the story is often interrupted by theological explanations designed to point out how the facts and even some expressions from the Old Testament – these explanations being very numerous in the beginning of the chronicle up to the death of Moses – should be understood from the Christian point of view".²

Dorothei's authorship regarding the chronicle is denied by the Greek scholar Sathos, who claims that the real author of this writing is Ierothei of Monembazia, well-known bishop, and the fact that Dorothei appears as the author is a simple printing error. Ierothei's name appears very often in the chronicle and events in which he took part are also narrated there, this representing the main reason for which Sathos considers him to be the real author. Another explanation is that there is no Bishop Dorothei among Ierothei's successors. The arguments are demolished by the fact that events in which Ierothei took part were known by several people, and Dorothei might have searched among Ierothei's predecessors, where there is indeed a bishop with that name.

The second Greek chronograph, also written in vernacular language is *The New Compendium of Different Stories, Starting From the Creation of the*

² Iulian Ștefănescu, *Romanian Chronographs: Danovici type*, Romanian Historical Magazine, Volume IX, 1939, p. 11-12.

World and Reaching the Present Year, and It Also Includes the Conquest of Constantinople, Copied From Turcogrecia, as Well as Stories About Kings and Patriarchs as They Governed and About the Patriarchy and All the Ismailis Who Reigned Up to That Day. It Also Comprises the Discussion of Saint. Silvestru With Wizard Zamori and Stories About the Seven Holy and Ecumenical Synods, the Time, the Place and the Reasons for Which They Have Been Created ... and About the Time Venice Was Founded and About the Many Doges Who Have Reigned There and Stories About the Imperial Court Gathered From Many Historical Books and Translated into Vernacular by Matthew Kigalas from Ciprus. As it can be noticed even from the title, the author was Matthew Kigalas, vicar in Venice, but born in Cyprus. The chronograph appeared in Venice in 1637 or 1650, with the additions of the compiler.

The title summarizes the content of the chronicle, almost identical to that of Dorothei's Chronograph; the common source is *The Chronicle from 1570* which they both used. Comparing it with Dorothei's Chronicle, one can notice that this is better structured, as in Kigalas "the narrative is often interrupted by long series of notes or disparate pieces that do not fit or which, because of their length, make the reader lose focus".³ This is probably one of the reasons for which Kigalas' work had appeared in only two editions in the 17th century.

Romanian chronographs

In Romanian historiography, an important role was played by chronographs, 'true vernacular encyclopedias, whose remarkable presence is proven today by dozens of manuscripts, usually impressive volumes, kept in collections in the country and abroad, manuscripts dating back to a period beginning a while before 1620 and ending after the second half of the 19th century."⁴

In the Romanian states, there is a major concern for this kind of writing, whether it comes from Greek or through the Slavic language branch. D. Russo talked about three types of chronographs on the Romanian territory: Kigalas, Dorothei and Danovici, each receiving their author's name. However, Doru Mihăescu claims that there is no need for other writings that do not fit into these three categories, such as *The Chronicle* of Gheorghe Brancovici, *The Chronicle* of Nicolae Costin or

³ Iulian Ștefănescu, *Romanian Chronographs: Danovici type*, Romanian Historical Magazine, Volume IX, 1939, p. 16.

⁴ Doru Mihăescu, *Romanian Chronographs*, The Publishing House of Romanian Academy, p. 13.

Inochentie Ghizel's *Synopsis*.

"The list of D. Russo's 24 manuscripts is currently exceeded even if we confine ourselves to the three types of chronographs of Greek origin it contains, because, if the translation of Matthew Kigalas was detected in only one manuscript, that of Dorothei of Monemvasia was preserved in nine manuscripts and the translation attributed to Pătrașco Danovici in about seventy, making the total number of manuscripts of the three categories to be around ninety."⁵

The first chronograph in Romanian was drafted by Mihail Moxa in 1620, but known only in the second half of the seventeenth century, when such writings or translations from neo-Greek were copied into Romanian. Mihail Moxa was a monk at Bistrita Monastery in Oltenia. He wrote a book of world history before 1620. The beginning is represented by the "creation of the world", and the narrated events stop in 1489. It is a book written at the advice of bishop Theofil, and it is the main source was *The Synoptic History* of Constantin Manasses. Further information is taken from the chronicle of Nifon, *The Chronicle of 1296-1413*, *The Universal Chronicle* of Simeon Magistrul, *The New Serbian Chronicle* or *The Old Testament*. The manuscript of *The Chronicle* from 1620 is to be found at the State Library in Moscow and it is recognized as a manuscript. Two copies of it were kept in Romania, both dating after 1700.

The content of the chronicle focuses on Romanian antiquity, as it also contains information certifying our Roman identity. The model of the monarch is represented by Constantine the Great, as for Romanian leaders, Mircea the Elder and Stephan the Great are highly praised. Biblical and political history are combined, this writing remaining important because of the "recovery in Romanian of Slavonic texts produced by Romanians, or of those that have reached their literary space and, because of the (re)construction - through interpretation, compilation or original creations - of the components of a system of literary genres inherited from Byzantium."⁶

The chronograph of Dorothei of Monembazia was translated, according to Dan Simonescu, by the scribe Drăgoi from Bezdead and the priest Vasile Grid from Șcheii Brasovului. Five copies are kept, dating from 1687, 1792, 1799, 1810 and 1812.

⁵ Doru Mihăescu, *Romanian Chronographs*, The Publishing House of Romanian Academy, p. 14-15.

⁶ Dan Horia Mazilu, *Re-reading Old Romanian Literature*, III, Bucharest, 2000, p. 378.

The translation of Kigalas' chronograph was made by Dosoftei, bishop of Moldavia, the text containing passages about the history of Moldavia and original lines. The Romanian translation follows the Greek writing, but it can be noticed that Dosoftei also knew the Danovici chronograph type, because there are some similarities.

Doru Mihăescu argues that "the translation of the chronograph by bishop Dosoftei took place in Moldavia before May 14th, 1685, date that was marked at the end of the historical narrative, at a time when the author was still working on the translation of *The Life and Death of the Saints* and perhaps on that of *Parimiilor*, subsequently, until his unexpected departure, in September 1686, in his last exile in Poland, he could have still made some small revisions and additions."⁷

Danovici chronograph, a combination between Dorothei and Kigalas, is the most popular of them. It was first detected by Timotei Cipariu in 1858, in Blaj. Moses Gaster is the one who called it "The Danovici Chronograph", named after its author. The number of manuscripts is very high, which is an additional element that maintains the interest in this type of chronograph.

Its translation still raises some questions. "The Romanian translation was made in Moldavia, probably by two persons, at different times: at first, around 1665, that part which, as we know, we were transmitted through the copy from the beginning of manuscript 3517 BAR; it was translated from Modern Greek (the translator might have used a Slavic intermediary). Later, in the post 1678 - pre 1682 period, the second part of the manuscript was translated, this time probably from Slavonic..."⁸

Facts about Romanian history are also found in other writings. One of these writings is *Hronica Slovenilor, Illiricului, Misii cei din sus și cei din jos Misii*, which appeared in 1687 and belongs to Gheorghe Brancovici. The chronicle is written in a quite cumbersome language. It was published by Aron Densusianu in *The Magazine of Literary Criticism*, I, Iasi, 1893, no. 2, and then by C. Bobulescu, in *Historical Magazine*, III, 1917.

The text published by C. Bobulescu was commented by Nicolae Iorga, who claims that the work seems like a report made for Serban Cantacuzino and his family. Brancovici presents the value of the historical

⁷ Doru Mihăescu, *Romanian Chronographs*, The Publishing House of Romanian Academy, p. 171-172.

⁸ Doru Mihăescu, *Romanian Chronographs*, The Publishing House of Romanian Academy, p. 240-241.

past of the Serbs, trying to highlight the common historical path of the two peoples, Romanian and Serbian, in the fight against the Turks. Information about battles is also offered, insisting upon and praising the rulers who faced the Turks. He was aware of some political realities, as he took part in various political missions and settled at the court of Serban Cantacuzino.

Another successful chronograph at the time it was written was *The Synopsis from Kiev*, a history of the Slavs existing in manuscripts in the late seventeenth century. P.P. Panaitescu mentions several manuscripts of this chronicle, some of them including Gheorghe Brancovici's *Chronicle of the Slavic Peoples*.

The original is an old Russian chronicle, with a very long title, printed for the first time in 1674, at Pacerska Lavra monastery: *Synopsis or Briefing of Several Kinds of Chronicles for Founding Slovenia, the Rosii Family, the God-saving City of Kiev, and for the Life of the Saint, Great Prince of Kiev and of the Sole Ruler of Entire Russia, Vladimir and of the Heirs and Righteous Rosii Rulers Until the Kingdom of the Lord and King and Great Prince Theodore Alexeevici, the Sole Ruler of Large and Small White Russia. It was printed in the Year 7188 from the Beginning of the World and in 1680 AD, Within the Holy Wonder-making Pecerscâi Monastery of Kiev, with the Blessing of His Sanctity, Father Inochentie Ghizel, and the Archimandrite of the Same Monastery.*

The success it had assured its appearance in four editions, in 1678, 1680 and two in 1699. As the title mentions, the author is considered to be Inochentie Ghizel, who entered the religious world under the influence of Petru Maior, who sent him to studies. The Romanian translations date as following: the first from 1678 and the other two in 1753 and 1757. About the first translation it had been stated that it belonged to Gheorghe Brancovici, idea rejected by P.P. Panaitescu: "Gheorghe Brancovici was a very educated person, a historian who had read Western chronographs, traveled to Russia, Austria and Romania. The translator of the text in Group I is a rather uneducated man, who ignores basic geographical and historical facts."⁹ The second translation is attributed to Evloghie, the teacher, and the third to Lavrentie, teacher in Hurezi.

The sources of the *Synopsis* include: Strykowski's *Polish Chronicle*, the chronicle of Cromer, Bielski or Gagnini's writings. The work was made known to Dimitrie Cantemir or to Gheorghe Brancovici, as it was

⁹ P.P. Panaitescu, *The History of the Slavs in the Eighteenth Century in Romanian. George Brancovici's Chronicle and The Synopsis from Kiev*, Romanian Historical Magazine, vol. X, 1940, p.114-11.

translated in Latin or Greek. The Synopsis is a book in which God reveals Himself to ancient Slavs and this nation is considered to have a privileged position in history.

Many chronographs were received from the Russians because they proclaimed themselves to be the "saviours" of Orthodoxy, and, on their way to Constantinople, they also stopped in Romania, where they left manuscripts which were later translated.

In conclusion, chronographs represent historical writings that provided information about different peoples and influenced cultures for many centuries. Most of the times they were connected with the religious environment, thus the events combine the secular with the religious.

"On the one hand, the true character of popular encyclopedia - simple, diverse, exciting, accessible to many readers, making space for local additions, on the other hand, the existence of an important theological component are the reasons for which this genre became so widespread, especially among the clergy, in all Orthodox peoples, starting, of course, with those close to Byzantium, and even with Christian Arabs."¹⁰

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¹⁰ Doru Mihăescu, *Romanian Chronographs*, The Publishing House of Romanian Academy, p.294.

COMPARATIVE APPROACH IN STRUCTURING AND DE-STRUCTURING THE INTELLIGENCE IN AFFECTIVE DISORDERS VERSUS SCHIZOPHRENIA

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Abstract: *This paper is intended as an ascertaining study on patients diagnosed with major mental illnesses (schizophrenia and bipolar disorder), through the comparative analysis of the way in which their intelligence gets de-structured over the years under the impact of the evolution of the disease. The modality of approaching this study tends to have a logical – mathematical aspect, the manner in which the intelligence has faded away being analyzed in a similar manner (construction versus de-structuring of the intellect) and engaging the key mental age construct (9-11 years), at which the "mental operators" define them. As a conclusion, the perception of the comparison, of the false hypothesis, inferring with the induction and deduction is differently de-structuralized, in Schizophrenia the "collapse" of the intellect being significantly higher than in the bipolar disorder.*

Keywords: *intelligence, de-structuring, affective disorders, schizophrenia, mental operators.*

The motivation in choosing the theme: Intelligence is one of the mental development axes, being itself the engine, as well as its result. To fundament the process of developing the intelligence on action-based mechanisms is to combat, during the learning process, the following: verbalizing, intellectualizing, formalizing.¹ During the childhood years, along with the construction and constitution of the personality, the

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¹ Piaget, J., "The interdisciplinary dimensions of the psychology", Bucharest, Didactic and Pedagogic Publishing House, 1972.

intelligence is structuring itself, based on self-effort, on personal spontaneity and creativity. Covering the action-based process through which one gains access to knowledge, the individual moves on different levels, from the material level (concrete objects) to the internal mental level. The transit from action to thinking takes place. During this passing, some changes² occur, such as:

- replacing the support on objects with the support on verbal structures, in which objects are being rendered;
- a shift takes place, from external contact to contact with semantic elements of knowledge content;
- transition from intuitive aspects to the logical aspects;
- transition from empirical to scientific aspects.

A cognitive movement of possession of knowledge requires a lot of relationships, objects. Developing the intelligence is a gradual internalization of the acquisitions. Thus, the action becomes a basic molecule in the act of learning that changes over time, enters into new combinations under the impact of training patterns and problematic situations generated by life.

The actuality of the theme: In a similar manner, in the major mental illnesses cases there is a process of de-structuring the intelligence, which (more or less) respects the reverse "rules" of construction and its development in childhood and adolescence.

Intelligence is de-structured differently in the affective disorders, as oppose to schizophrenia, intelligence being reported differently in various pathologies, in relation to thinking, affection, originality, division and reason.³ Psychiatric patients diagnosed with major mental illnesses can be analyzed by observing as a main seam the concept of de-structuring the intelligence.

In regards to schizophrenia, there have been issues raised to whether the patient in question succeeds or does not succeed in using: his ability of thinking, the ability to know and understand, the quick reaction and extension of thinking, dynamism, good organization (proportion, harmonization, comparison synthesis, abstraction), ability to verify, the

² Allport, G., „*The structure and development of personality*“, Bucharest EDP, 1981.

³ Cattell, R.B., „*Intelligence: Its Structure, Growth, and Action*“, Amsterdam: Elsevier, 1987.

power to compose and decompose, sensitivity to consonance, critical spirit.

In terms of affective disorder, the de-structuring of intelligence is directly related to the ability / the power of the patient / subject concerned to stop / potentiate the internal conflict of affects. What counts is the accuracy and insight over details, everything that puts barriers in front of desires, the ability to perfect the self-preservation.

In front of any patient diagnosed with a major mental illness, the modern social functioning concept leads us to appeal to the analysis of the internal realities of the one in question, considering that the intelligence of the patients still succeeds or fails to capture⁴:

- the global significance
- the significance of each stage of a certain experience / life event
- the noticing of changes
- the actual base of one decision making or the other
- the direction of evaluation of the orientation process during the task and of the resolution process (these two approaches come towards each other from opposite directions: one from the beginning, another from the end).

It is important to notice the extent under which the access to understanding is fulfilled, namely, the manner in which these activities can still be realized⁵:

- mental representation of space, time and speed;
- fixating the reality concepts of truth and falsity;
- ability to grasp the mental operations of contradiction and non-contradiction / principle of the excluded third party / ability to grasp disjunction and conjunction;
- ability to capture negation / implication / equivalence;
- ability to grasp the comparison and the common factor, succession / sequencing / planning.

This study presents the results of an experimental way in which patients were tested in order to find out to what extent intelligence skills

⁴ Barnett, S.A., „*Instinct and intelligence*“, Bucharest, Scientific Publishing House, 1973.

⁵ Moisil, Gr.C., „*Lessons about logic of the reasoning tint*“, Bucharest, Scientific and Encyclopedic Publishing House, 1975.

correspond to the mental age period of between 9 and 11 years old, age at which most of "mental operators" are being acquired. To be noted that all the selected patients have had an elevated level of cognitive functioning reached before the onset of the mental illness. For equivalence, we chose a selection of mathematical concepts to those notions usually present and active at this age.⁶ We will further present a comparative view regarding the ability to work or not with these "mental operators" such as:

Comparison. The study concludes that for the mind of the schizophrenic patient it is more difficult to introduce in judgment the criterion by which to make the psychological operation of comparison because he has difficulties with:

- the possibility of choice / capturing the fundamental criterion
- understanding the concept of "temporary elimination", so that subsequently the "canceled" size is returned the forefront.

False hypothesis. In order to be active at a mental level, this requires operating on the possibility, discerning between alternatives yes / no, black / white, true / false, possible / impossible. Equally, there intervenes the ability to work backwards, from end to start, step by step, in sequences, "in steps" judgments. It is also necessary to have the possibility to compare, in order for the patient to make judgments on what changes should be made in the assumption, with the purpose that they lead to solving the situation thereafter.

Capturing the backwards way, when the base is the prosaic function, the attention being the fundamental condition over which the perception of the reverse dimension should occur. A lower but significant contribution comes from the memory itself, through the ability to remember the steps in reverse order. At the thinking level, the operations involved are sequencing, planning, forecasting and retroactive control by single or multiple feedbacks. Mental concepts required are reversibility and reciprocity. As a correspondent in physics plan (kinematic sequence), we refer to concepts such as conservation of matter and invariance. The patient must be able to accede mentally to the idea that reversibility does not cancel the constancy of the phenomenon, but it is only a reflection of it, reflection that can only complete the vision of the whole over a certain

⁶ Popovici, C., *"Logic and theory of numbers"*, Bucharest, Didactic and Pedagogic Publishing House, 1970.

phenomenon.⁷

Capturing duration and movement. Dimensions of time and space are mental constructs that man can access as early as the first year of life once the behavior of postponement is established. The possibility to observe the past, present and future is built in parallel with that of capturing duration, as a finite amount/quantity. Between 8 and 12 years old, a child's perception of time and duration is steadily built. It is totally different from that of an adult or an elder. Around the age of 8 years old the possibility of a child to enjoy the time that is finite appears.

There is an entire psychopathology of time and many situations related to the impossibility of understanding depend on the incapacity to correctly and accurately perceive the temporality and flow of time in the heraclitian sense. Unlike the previously presented situation, here there is a need for denial of the reversibility relating to the exposure of time.

The concept of space is easier to accede mentally, being anterior in the evolution, both phylogenetic and ontogenetic, of humanity.⁸ Even so, the space, like time, can be anxiogen, starting from the perception pathology of a "too much" or "too little" psychic (we include here the whole procession of the phobic – anxious register), extension to the infinite or to a subjective unity, as each patient may be representing it for themselves.

There are patients for whom the perception of time seems to be represented intrinsically. We refer to the schizophrenic patients who store mechanically dates of birth, figures and events, as well as affective patients, to which the ability to orient in years / age / time and times both in his own life history and the others is obvious.

Capturing the *reductio ad absurdum*. We want to identify to what extent, to the schizophrenic patients, for which the highest level of functioning achieved before the onset of the mental illness was a graduating the university, their intelligence can still operate with⁹:

- psychological significance of what it is called a sentence (conceptual unit);
- ability to compare true or false judgment of the statement with

⁷ Odobleja, Ș., *"Consonantista psychology"*, Bucharest, Didactic and Pedagogic Publishing House, 1982.

⁸ Neacșu, Ion, *"Civilization and conduct"*, Bucharest, Didactic and Pedagogic Publishing House, 1987.

⁹ Stewart, I., *"Taming the endless; The story of mathematics"*, Bucharest, Humanitas Publishing House, 2011.

proof of reality;

- non-contradiction principle - when a statement is not true and false simultaneously;

- occurrence of operational groups, allowing conceptualization and coordination of concepts. Separation of objects and manipulation of their immediate representations, replacing objects with utterances / sentences, transitive inferences allow the formation of notions:

- conjunction or disjunction;
- negation;
- implication ("if ... then ..."), as a step in establishing hypotheses and conclusions;
- equivalence ("if and only if ...").

The method of reduction to absurdity is a type of logical reasoning, which involves respecting certain rules so that the truth is not lost. Its retention is subject to the emergence of the idea of invariance, which in turn is conditioned by the possibility to capture the reversibility of mental actions.¹⁰

Expectations. The modern conception of mental illness lays in the center the concept of adaptation. From this perspective, we consider the opportunity that for each psychiatric patient, in addition to a fair and circumscribed psychiatric diagnosis, a careful evaluation must be made, not by reporting to an unequivocal diagnosis, but by what could have been conserved of his intelligence, as a general means of consciously adapting his mind to the new demands given by a lower quality of life (if there is the case), changing behavior according the circumstances, taking advantage of the experience acquisition, discerning (within the meaning of the word "vast", the skill of ability and adaptability).

Young psychologists are now increasingly placed more frequently in a position to identify in the subjects / patients, their remaining functional potential, counted indirectly into originality. The patients who crossed episodes of major mental illness have diminished their ability and plasticity of improvisation, as well as the capacity of artificialness. (One of the definitions of intelligence was that of a faculty able to substitute the natural by the artificial.)

This study conducted here has done a comparative analysis (whose

¹⁰ Berinde, V., 2001, „*Exploration, investigation and discovery in mathematics*“, Baia Mare, Efemeride Publishing House.

results are presented here briefly and only in a descriptive way) between patients with schizophrenia and those with affective disorders in relation to: the ability to discriminate or combinatory (analytic versus synthetic) their creative faculty, critical thinking, reason, imagination, sensorial (the force of their psyche of outward orientation), the power to ensure conceptual representation, meditation trait, the practical dimension (the skills), the reason (deductive process), the development status of conceptual memory.¹¹

Conclusion.

In the case of major mental illness, intelligence begins to express itself as a system that permanently lowers its own degree of entropy.

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SELBSTBILDUNG ENTSTEHT DURCH BINDUNG - GRUNDLEGENDE GEDANKEN FÜR EINE ENTWICKLUNGSFÖRDERLICHE FRÜHPÄDAGOGIK -

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Bildungsarbeit im frühen Kindesalter

Elementarpädagogische Bildungsarbeit vollzieht sich nur **in Form eines sehr engen Bindungsgeschehens** zwischen Menschen! **Bildungsarbeit ist Bindungserleben**, getragen von Nähe, Aufmerksamkeit, Zuneigung, Interesse, Staunen, Neugierde und Zutrauen.

Virginia Satir, eine weltweit geachtete Familientherapeutin, hat aus ihrem therapeutischen Verständnis heraus immer wieder in ihren Vorträgen und aus ihrem systemischen Grundsatzverständnis heraus den allseits bekannten Satz geprägt: *>Ich glaube daran, dass das größte Geschenk, das ich von jemandem empfangen kann, ist, gesehen, gehört, verstanden und berührt zu werden! Das größte Geschenk, das ich geben kann, ist, den anderen zu sehen, zu hören, zu verstehen und zu berühren. Wenn dies geschieht, entsteht Kontakt.<*

So ist es immer wieder und hauptsächlich der **positiv erlebte, zwischenmenschliche Kontakt**, der Kinder wiederum motiviert, Kontakt zu sich selbst zu suchen, herzustellen und sich über die eigene Existenz zu freuen. **Nur wenn dies gelingt**, ist der erste - und gleichzeitig entscheidende - Schritt zur Aktivierung und zum Aufbau einer Selbstbildung des Menschen getan.

Bildungsziel: *Entdeckung der eigenen Lebensfreude und Lebenskunst.*

Wilhelm Schmid, der als Privatdozent an der Universität Erfurt lehrt, schreibt: *„/.../ Ein früher Akt der Sorge ist der erste Schrei, eine erste Selbstbehauptung, aber das Kind bleibt noch abhängig von der Fürsorge anderer, ohne die es nicht leben könnte./.../ Wie immer der Weg der Kindheit und des Heranwachsenden verläuft, es geht darum, den Umgang mit sich selbst zu*

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erlernen und zur Sorge für sich selbst in der Lage zu sein, soll das eigene Leben nicht von anderen abhängig bleiben. Nur über die Selbstsorge wird das Leben zu einem eigenen, und nur dort, wo es Selbstaneignung gibt, kann es Selbstverantwortung geben. Sich um sich zu kümmern und doch nicht die Unbekümmertheit dabei zu verlieren - das stellt das dynamische Zentrum der kindlichen Lebenskunst dar..." (2003, S. 40)

Wenn der Frage nachgegangen wird, was mit dem Begriff einer >dynamischen Lebenskunst< gemeint sein kann, so ergeben sich u.a. folgende Antworten: Das Kind hat und erlebt gleichzeitig die Möglichkeiten,

- gegenwärtige, positive Erlebnisse in all' ihrer Vielschichtigkeit genießen zu können;
- immer wieder über eigene Entwicklungen und Stärken staunen zu können;
- mit Offenheit, Interesse und Neugierde die Herausforderungen des Alltags suchen und sich ihnen mit Engagement zu stellen;
- alte, Lebens einengende Fühl-, Denk- und Handlungsmuster zu erkennen und sich von diesen lösen zu können;
- Zusammenhänge von Ereignissen erkennen und herstellen zu können, um aus der Erkenntnis heraus neue Handlungsstrategien zur Lösung von Problemen zu entdecken;
- neue, unbekannte Spielräume im Rahmen eigener Verhaltensvielfalten zu entwickeln;
- alte, bis weit in die Vergangenheit zurückliegende Geschichten“ zu klären, um aus belastenden Verstrickungen herauszufinden;
- in möglichst vielen bedeutsamen Situationen identisch mit sich umgehen zu können und sich selbst zu sagen: „Wie schön, dass ich geboren bin, dem Leben schenk' ich einen Sinn.“

Die Macht der Gefühle

Über viele Jahrhunderte sahen Wissenschaftler/innen aus unterschiedlichen Fachdisziplinen (auch der Psychologie) ebenso wie Laien die ‚Rationalität und Intelligenz des Menschen‘ als die ‚Perle der Schöpfung‘ an. Das hat sich inzwischen durch vielfältige Untersuchungen relativiert, ist doch demgegenüber bekannt, dass **stets vor allen kognitiven Prozessen und Handlungsimpulsen die Emotionen die entscheidenden Impulse dafür geben, in welche Richtung gedacht und wie gehandelt wird.** Es ist die „Macht der Gefühle“ (Gebauer, Hüther.), die unser Leben steuert und inzwischen haben führende Emotionsforscher

und Hirnspezialisten den Beweis dafür vorgelegt, wie Emotionen das gesamte Leben bestimmen (Baer, Goleman Spitzer). Vor allem sei auf den in Iowa City lehrenden Professor für Neurowissenschaften, Antonio Damasio, den in New York lehrenden Joseph LeDoux, der einer der wichtigsten Erforscher der Amygdala (= des evolutionsgeschichtlich uralten Hirnteils, der einen zentralen Einfluss auf das Gefühlsleben des Menschen hat) ist und einen der führenden deutschen Hirnforscher, Gerhard Roth, hingewiesen.

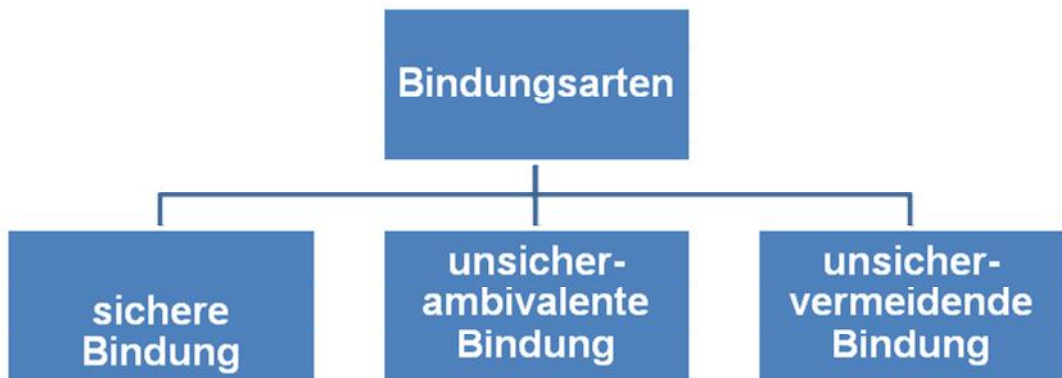
Bindungen provozieren Bildungs- und Entwicklungswünsche

In Anbetracht dieser für die Pädagogik und Psychologie außergewöhnlich bedeutsamen Erkenntnisse sind die Ergebnisse der Bindungsforschung eng mit diesen vernetzt und besitzen für Erzieher/innen einen besonders hohen Bedeutungswert. Einfach ausgedrückt heißt das: **eine liebevolle, vertrauensvolle und verlässliche Bindung**, die Kinder in ihren ersten (und auch weiteren) Lebensjahren mit ihren Eltern sowie anderen Erwachsenen erfahren, ist die **Grundlage für die Entstehung der o.g. >Lebenskunst des Menschen<** und gleichzeitig die **Basis für ein tiefes Selbstvertrauen, Unabhängigkeit und Selbstständigkeit**. Um mit den Worten der renommierten Erziehungsstilforscherin Diana Baumrind zu sprechen: „Kinder brauchen *erst* Wurzeln, *dann* Flügel“. Nur durch eine tief erlebte Geborgenheit und Annahme sind Kinder in der Lage, ihre ‚Lebenswurzeln‘ in Form von Sicherheit und Lebensfreude zu entwickeln und gleichzeitig vor einer Reihe seelischer Irritationen und Lebens einschränkender Ängste geschützt. So vielfältig die Verhaltensirritationen bei Kinder ausgeprägt sind – vor allem Ängste, gewaltbereites Handeln, aggressives Verhalten, Anstrengungsvermeidungsverhalten, oppositionelles Widerstandsverhalten gegenüber Anforderungen oder eine generelle Antriebslosigkeit –, so deutlich haben unterschiedliche, epidemiologische Studien unter Beweis gestellt, **dass diese und weitere problematischen Verhaltensweisen häufig direkt oder indirekt auf fehlende Bindungserfahrungen zurückgeführt werden können** (vgl. Grossmann, K & Grossmann, K.E., 2004). So kommt immer wieder zum Ausdruck, dass eine als sicher erlebte Bindung ein wesentlicher *Schutzfaktor gegen seelische Irritationen* ist.

Bindungsverluste schwächen Körper, Geist und Seele

In der Bindungstheorie, die sich mit der emotionalen Entwicklung des Menschen und dabei insbesondere mit den emotionalen Folgewirkungen,

die sich aus unbefriedigten Bindungserfahrungen ableiten lassen, beschäftigt, wird dabei grundsätzlich von drei Bindungsarten gesprochen.



Zum einen geht es um die >sichere Bindung< - hier erleben Kinder vor allem Verbundenheit, Nähe, Zärtlichkeit, Fürsorge und Schutz. Sie haben das Gefühl, erwünscht und stets gern gesehen zu sein, sie bekommen den Körperkontakt, den sie brauchen, sie werden gestreichelt und merken stets: es kümmert sich jemand um mich, weil ich ihm wichtig bin (vgl. Holmes, 2002). Bei der >unsicher-ambivalenten (=präokkupierten) Bindung< verspüren Kinder eine permanente Angst davor, dass sie verlassen werden (könnten). Diese Angst entsteht durch Erfahrungen, indem sich Bezugspersonen häufig ambivalent verhalten: zum einen zeigen sie von Zeit zu Zeit einfühlsame Verhaltensweisen und zum anderen drücken sie auch stark ablehnende körpersprachliche und verbale Abwehr aus. Eine Auswirkung zeigt sich beispielsweise dadurch, wenn Kinder unbedingt auf den Arm genommen werden wollen und schon nach kürzester Zeit wieder auf den Boden gesetzt werden möchten. Oder das Klammern lässt sich in der Regel auf eine solche Bindungserfahrung zurückführen. Schließlich gibt es die >unsicher-vermeidende (=distanzierende) Bindung. Dabei verhalten sich die Kinder häufig verschlossen, zurückhaltend und abwartend und bringen oftmals ihre Verlassenheitsängste den Erwachsenen gegenüber *nicht* zum Ausdruck aus erneuter Angst, ein weiteres Mal ab- oder zurückgewiesen zu werden.

Grundlagen und damit unverzichtbare Ausgangspunkte für Bildungsprozesse

In der Bindungstheorie, die ein „umfassendes Konzept für die Persönlichkeitsentwicklung des Menschen als Folge seiner sozialen

Erfahrungen“ darstellt (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 2003, in Grossmann, K. & Grossmann, K.E. 2004, S. 65), gibt es **fünf Postulate** (=Grundannahmen), die inzwischen als gesicherte Grundlagen angesehen werden können:

1.) Für die seelische Gesundheit des sich entwickelnden Kindes ist **kontinuierliche und feinfühliges Fürsorge** von herausragender Bedeutung.

2.) Es besteht die biologische Notwendigkeit, mindestens **eine Bindung** aufzubauen, deren Funktion es ist, **Sicherheit zu geben und gegen Stress zu schützen**. Eine Bindung wird zu einer erwachsenen Person aufgebaut, die als stärker und weiser empfunden wird, so dass sie Schutz und Versorgung gewährleisten kann. Das Verhaltenssystem, das der Bindung dient, existiert gleichrangig und nicht etwa nachgeordnet mit den Verhaltenssystemen, die der Ernährung, der Sexualität und der Aggression dienen.

3. Eine Bindungsbeziehung unterscheidet sich von anderen Beziehungen darin, dass bei Angst das Bindungsverhaltenssystem aktiviert und die **Nähe der Bindungsperson** aufgesucht wird, wobei Erkundungsverhalten aufhört (das Explorationsverhaltenssystem wird deaktiviert). Andererseits hört bei Wohlbefinden die Aktivität des Bindungsverhaltenssystems auf und Erkundungen sowie Spiel setzen wieder ein.

4. Individuelle Unterschiede in **Qualitäten von Bindungen** kann man an dem Ausmaß unterscheiden, in dem sie **Sicherheit vermitteln**.

5.) Mit Hilfe der kognitiven Psychologie erklärt die Bindungstheorie, **wie früh erlebte Bindungserfahrungen geistig verarbeitet** und zu inneren Modellvorstellungen (Arbeitsmodellen) von sich und anderen **werden**.)“ (Grossmann, K. & Grossmann, K.E., 2004, S. 67 f.)

Bindung kann durchaus als ein bestehendes, aber nicht sichtbares Band verstanden werden, das zwei Personen verbindet und das dabei selbst in angenehmen Gefühlen verankert ist – als ein **Erlebnis über einen längeren Zeitraum** hinweg (vgl. Ainsworth, 1979). Da sich Bindung erst im Laufe des ersten Lebensjahres eines Kindes entwickelt (Ainsworth, 2003) werden Kinder im Laufe ihrer Entwicklung mehrere Bindungspartner suchen. Dabei nimmt gleichzeitig jedes Kind eine individuelle, **>innere Hierarchie der Bindungspersonen<** vor, und je mehr sich ein Kind verlassen oder geängstigt fühlt, desto intensiver sucht es die von ihm ausgewählte a-priorisierte Bindungsperson. Fühlt sich ein Kind von dieser verlassen, gering schätzend oder respektlos behandelt,

bricht für das Kind „seine Welt zusammen“ und wirkt sich entsprechend stark entwicklungshinderlich auf den Selbstbildungswunsch des Kindes aus.

Sichere Bindungserfahrungen machen Kinder stabil und lernaktiv

Kennzeichen einer sicheren Bindung kommen vor allem dadurch zum Ausdruck, wenn Kinder

- die Bindungsperson als einen ‚grundsätzlich sicheren Hafen‘ erleben, den sie bei Verunsicherungen, Ängsten und Verlassenheitsgefühlen gerne, freiwillig und selbstmotiviert aufsuchen,
- durch die Verhaltensweisen der Bindungspersonen Sicherheit und Hilfe erleben dürfen,
- bei Sorgen, Kummer und Trennung die Nähe zu ihrer Bindungsperson suchen,
- schon sehr früh durch intensive Bindungserfahrungen immer weniger auf Bindungserlebnisse angewiesen sind und sich mit einem Gefühl der inneren Grundsicherheit auf die „Erkundung der großen, weiten Welt“ einlassen und ihrem innewohnenden Forscherdrang nachgehen,
- motiviert und freiwillig über ihre Gefühle berichten und dabei emotionale Belastungen ebenso „ungehemmt und unkontrolliert“ zum Ausdruck bringen wie Augenblicke der Freude und des tiefen Glücksempfindens.

„Im Grunde sind es immer die Verbindungen mit Menschen, die dem Leben seinen Wert geben“

(Wilhelm von Humboldt)

Bindungserfahrungen, so formuliert es Prof. Dr. Gerhard Suess so treffend, „bereiten die Bühne für die Erfahrungswelt /.../. Kinder werden durch die frühen Bindungserfahrungen gleichsam auf ein Gleis gestellt, von dessen Verlauf abhängig sie zunehmend unterschiedliche Erfahrungen sammeln./.../ Neben einer den Bindungsbedürfnissen der Kinder angemessenen Gestaltung des Übergangs in den Kindergarten rückt vor allem die Rolle von Erzieher/innen in den Mittelpunkt unseres Interesses, die /.../ auf jeden Fall /.../zu wichtigen Beziehungspartnern zu Kindern werden. Auf sie werden Kinder ihr bisher entwickeltes Weltbild anwenden und dabei Gefühle und Reaktionstendenzen den Erzieher/innen auslösen, die wiederum dazu angelegt sind, die Weltbilder der

Kinder zu bestätigen. Hier besteht die Gefahr, dass sich negative Auswirkungen hochunsicherer Bindungen im Alltag durchsetzen. Erzieher/innen sollten deshalb über diese Prozesse informiert sein, um schließlich ihre Gefühle und Reaktionstendenzen kritisch reflektieren und versuchen zu können, der Sogwirkung unsicherer Bindungen zu widerstehen.“ (2006, S. 2)

Kinder brauchen mehr und mehr Bindungserfahrungen

Wenn Bindungserfahrungen bei Kindern vor allem ein Gefühl der tiefen Geborgenheit auslösen und gleichzeitig eine Schutzfunktion gegen Über- und Unterforderungen, Kränkungen und Hoffnungslosigkeit, Verlassenheitsängsten und Ohnmachtsgefühlen bilden, dann kann nur die **Grundsatzserkenntnis der Neurobiologie sowie der Bindungsforschung** in den Mittelpunkt der gesamten Bildungsarbeit gestellt werden:

„Bildung geschieht nur durch Bindung.“

Die pädagogische Praxis zeigt allerdings immer wieder und immer stärker – selbst in der pädagogischer Arbeit mit Kindern unter drei Jahren (!), dass zwar den Ergebnissen der Neurobiologie und der Bindungsforschung in Deutschland eine „durchaus hohe theoretische Bedeutung“ beigemessen wird, Bindungserfahrungen aber in der Praxis in der beschriebenen **Ganzheit** und in ihrer Ausprägungstiefe häufig nicht wirklich von Kindern erlebt werden. Das muss sich ändern, um gerade aus den Erkenntnissen der inzwischen 4 vorliegenden PISA-Studien die vollständigen(!) Konsequenzen abzuleiten und in der deutschen Pädagogik zu berücksichtigen.

Im Gegensatz dazu wird allerdings die aktuelle Bildungspädagogik völlig anders gestaltet: **belehrend statt erfahrungsorientiert, hierarchisch vermittelnd statt gemeinsam erkundend und funktionalisiert statt alltagsorientiert.**

Kinder brauchen liebenswerte Mitforscher/innen, geduldige, aufmerksame, staunende und achtsame Entwicklungsbegleiter/innen sowie selbsterfahrungsorientierte Akteure, die mit ihnen gemeinsam den vielfältigen und unbekannten Geheimnissen der sie umgebenden LEBENSWELT auf die Spur kommen wollen.

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OLD AGE. A SOCIO-CULTURAL APPROACH

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Abstract: *This paper starts from the observation that there are strong stereotypes about the different ages of man. And old age is surrounded by many negative stereotypes. But, there are also societies who put good use on the old age which is recognized as the most important age of all. The perception about the inevitability of the own death is one of the most complex physiological, psychological and philosophical experience that facing human.*

Keywords: *Old Age, negative stereotypes about old age, gerontocracy, five stages of preparation for dying.*

Old age appears at the contemporary man on the brink of age 65, being characterized by the cessation of work – through retirement – and the loss of some physical abilities. Specific to this age is the concept of *role exit*, which designates those processes through which the individual leaves his social roles. To demonstrate that the perception of old age is often distorted by various stereotypes, sociologist William C. Levin conducted an experiment in which some young people studying at various colleges in California, Massachusetts and Tennessee were asked to characterize, based on some pictures that were presented, the personality traits of men whose age seemed to be 25, 52 and 73 years. “Does this person appear to you to be competent or incompetent?”, “Attractive or less attractive?”, “Rich or poor?”, “Generous or selfish?”, “Fast or slow?”, “Has a good memory or not?” etc. were some of the questions that the young people had to answer¹. What responders do not know was that the three pictures were not from different three men, but were of the same person in different stages of his life. The pictures were carefully retouched to give the impression that they were made in the same period of time. Levin’s original intention was to do an experiment not with photos of a man, but of a woman, but technical

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¹ apud. Schaefer, R.T., & Lamm, R.P., *Sociology* (5th ed.). Mc-Graw Hill Companies, Inc., U.S.A., 1995.

difficulties made it impossible to implement this intention. And this is because the changes in terms of fashion or hair style are infinitely greater in case of women than men, so it is very difficult to a photo of a lady realized in 1940 seem to have been made fifty years later. Regarding the answers given by the respondents from Levin's questions, they appreciated that the man of 25 years is active, strong, fast, healthy, attractive, energetic, involved from social perspective. The person of 52 years has been described as having a high level of intelligence, as well as being reliable. Old men, however, was characterized as inactive, weak, lacking energy, sick, inefficient, slow, uninvolved, social isolated, having a low level of intelligence, and poor memory, little flexibility etc.

Therefore, the American's public perception of old age abound in negative stereotypes, their consequences being encouraging discrimination in the labor force remuneration and other social rights.

William Levin's experiment, among others, demonstrated that **there are strong stereotypes about the different ages of man. And old age is also surrounded by many negative stereotypes.**

Here are some of the most common:

1. The elders are all the same. If young persons and adults are perceived mainly through significant differences that exist from one individual to another, however, older people are seen as having similar features. Which is not nothing but a completely wrong perception on an entire category of people; older people are equally differentiated compared to the other like those of any other age group. Should not be forgotten that the elders were not born old, but were themselves young, and people tend to preserve their own personality traits to the most advanced ages². In addition, each man carries along his life the experiences of living, which means that older people become more different from one another as well as their personal experiences are more different and numerous.

2. Older people are unproductive. The arguments in favor of this stereotype is the fact that people aged over 65 years have retired, they cannot have children, and sometimes they appear as a burden, both in

² Neubeck, K. J., & Neubeck, M. A., *Social problems: A critical approach* (4th ed.). McGraw Hill Companies, Inc., U.S.A., 1997.

terms of their family and society as a whole. But this is just a very narrow vision of life; in reality, the majority of people belonging to the third age are very productive. Even if they don't undertake paid work, yet should not ignored the involvement of these people in politics, especially as voter turnout and to various religious, cultural and social events. Moreover, in many families, the elderly – in their role as grandparents – are directly involved in raising and educating children. At least in this regard, their contribution to social and family life is significant, and in the case of political field can say that the elderly group is the most active of all. And this is because older people participating in a high percentage at each election, which generates a seemingly paradoxical situation; because of the low level of participations in elections by young people, the votes of the elderly become decisive for designating which party or candidate wins. Thus, in a democracy, outright indifference of the young people to the political field has the consequence that a country's political destiny is decided by the elderly.

3. Stereotype according to which aging is characterized by a severe lack/dramatic of independence and autonomy. The elderly are fundamentally dependent on something – an institution, such as hospital, asylum, etc. – or someone – for example, one or more family members to whom he/she feels uncomfortable because he/she intuitively feels the fact that this person perceives him – consciously or not – as a burden. To characterize this situation, not infrequently the elders are figuratively associated with children³; this process is called *infantilization*, being mainly specific to institutions such hospitals or centers that deal various health care.

4. Old people are senile. The starting point of this stereotype is that some older people manifest some psychological or behavioral deviations in relation to what is generally considered to be normal⁴. Statistically, however, senility is characteristic to a small percent of the elderly; in addition, in some cases, it is a reversible disease that can be treated. Another specific disease of old age is Alzheimer's disease, which involves the reduction or even loss of human intellectual capacities, as well as various behavioral disorders. But this disease is specific mostly to very old age – people over 82-85 years – and increasingly frequency of this disease

³ Victor, C.R., *The Social Context of Ageing*, Routledge, Abingdon, Oxon, 2005.

⁴ Neubeck, K.J., & Neubeck, M. A., *Social problems: A critical approach* (4th ed.). McGraw Hill Companies, Inc., U.S.A., 1997.

is directly related to the increase in longevity, a specific phenomenon of contemporary societies.

5. Older people are in a permanent state of degradation and decline.

This stereotype is based on several sources. First, those with advanced age are regarded as being in a state of total dependence and this because of particular medical reasons. But in reality, the number of people aged 65 whose health is an advanced stage of degradation is much lower than we might expect. On the other hand, people who have reached old age are perceived as being in a condition of intellectual decline. Actually, things are not so. Recent studies show, however, that human intelligence increases over time, it develops with life experience and socialization process.

6. Finally, aging is viewed as similar to the loss of interest and sexual activity. The observation is correct, but should not be generalized; in certain circumstances, some elderly people are sexually active until very old ages and this despite of various health problems or difficulty in finding a sexual partner.

But, there are also societies who put good use on the old age which is recognized as the most important age of all. The gerontocracy represents a sort of social organization in which the politic power, the wealth and the social prestige belongs to the old people. Their role is to lead, they are seen by the others members of society being the keepers of an ancestral wisdom, therefore they have the obligation to take the most important decisions for the community welfare.

In this context, the most important task of the old peoples is to maintain alive the traditions, habits and the ancestral values – the community's culture. Mostly, the young people's look at them with a mixed sense of fear and respect. Besides, the idealization of the old age is a pretty widespread phenomenon, even among those societies where there is no genuine gerontocracy. The examples are countless: the traditional Japanese society, the Sherpas, the inhabitants from the mountain areas of Nepal and also, those states who still have a consistent traditional component.

A special case is that of Sardinia, one of the few places in the world that can be seen a large number of people aged 100 or over 100 years. In 2002 there were 220 persons aged 100 and over 100 years old and it must

be taken into consideration the numerically small population of this country⁵.

But Sardinia is not a singular case with a large number of persons able to reached impressive ages; the Japanese island Okinawa or the North Caucasian zone are also places with many peoples those ages are around 100 years old. The explanations of this unusually longevity are not related to an advanced medical technique and this is easy to demonstrate because the majority of Sardinia's population had never been to a hospital. The sociological analysis proved that the most important factor underlying this phenomenon is related by the area's specific lifestyle; first, is about the diet implying the consumption of fruits and vegetables and a local wine every day. On the other hand, these persons are used to a daily physical exercise because they don't have a television or other modern equipment; they are dedicated to these physical activities which assure them a great physical and mental health.

Old age requires three major types of socialization, namely: **preparation for retirement, widowhood and the inevitability of death**⁶. Regarding the roles implied by the pensioner status, the society does not seem quite prepared to define them rigorously, leaving them to each person's one appreciation; on this basis, it can be the involvement in their grandchildren's growth, different domestic activities or socialization activities as playing chess game in public spaces, parks for instance.

The geriatrician Robert Atchley argued that the retirement is a process that is not done once, but involves several stages⁷:

- *Pre-retirement* is the phase in which anticipatory socialization is manifested, where a person prepares for retirement.

- *The near phase* – when the individual firmly established, without doubt, the exact date of his retirement.

- *The honeymoon phase* – a euphoric period in which mostly are set plans to achieve those activities that he or she never had time to do in previous periods.

- *The disenchantment phase*, in which the pensioner has a deep sense of disgust or depression caused by new acquired status.

⁵ Macionis, J.J., *Sociology* (10th ed.). Pearson Education, Inc., New Jersey, 2005.

⁶ DiRenzo, G.J., *Human social behavior: Concepts and principles of sociology*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., U.S.A., 1990.

⁷ Apud. Schaefer, R.T., *Sociology* (11th ed.). Mc-Graw Hill Companies, Inc., U.S.A., 2008.

- *The reorientation phase* occurs when enthusiasm is replaced by a more realistic perspective on what is status if pensioner.

- *The stability phase* assumed that the person has learned that it is forced to temper his own expectations from life, becoming accustomed to regard retirement from a reasonable perspective that requires a certain comfort to live.

- *The termination phase* begins when an elderly person is no longer able to perform routine/every day activities, such as unattended self-care – washing, shaving, dressing, various physiological needs, etc. – or doing some current housework activities.

A very painful experience is the **loss of life-partner/spouse** that can cause major consequences for the one who continue to live/to survive. From a statistic point of view, this situation is more common for women because the in their case the life duration average is higher than men's.

In terms of preparation for death, a very detailed analysis was made by the American psychologist of Swiss origin Elisabeth Kübler-Ross (1926-2004) on her paper published in 1969 *On Death and Dying*.

The author didn't want to shape a speculative/contemplative perspective over human attitude to death; her analysis is based on her own personal experience as psychologist and on her direct medical specialized contact with 200 persons suffering with cancer. In many ways, the perspective that she's unveil is dot just path breaker, but profound innovator: the death is not unilateral perceived by people; there are five stages of death preparations. Otherwise said, the confrontation with the imminence of death generates a series of emotional ambivalent states, of psychological nature, namely:

1. *Denial* – when a person realize that it is about to die in a short time, first reaction is one of a profound/deep shock. The patients cannot be reconciled with that idea, so they deny, refuse to believe that there is nothing that can be done and they are trying to appeal to all sort of means to assure themselves about the truthfulness of medical verdict. Some peoples show serious difficulties in overcome this moment and they desperately seek other doctors to give them the illusion that in fact there is a cure/a treatment that could save them⁸.

⁸ Cassell, D. K., & Salinas, R. C., & Winn, P. A. S., *The encyclopedia of death and dying*. Facts On File, Inc., New York, 2005.

2. *Anger* – the patient's frustration and the irritation reach maximum sizes also because he feels himself unjustified by his death while everyone else continues to live. In his mind is more obsessive the question *why me?* And the patient's unbounded rage settles on doctors, medical nurses, hospital or even his own family. There are also cases when this boundless anger is orientated to oneself based on a strong conviction that the disease is not accidental, but a consequence of some real actions which he has committed. And this disease is nothing else but a punishment from divinity, faith or some other supernatural forces.

3. *Negotiation* – while the rage decreases and the patient begins gradually to be aware of his hard situation, makes a final attempt to resist death; he's trying to negotiate, real or imaginary, with doctors, family, friends, God. If someone will fulfill his desire to cure him or at least, to escape from death and stay alive even still sick, then he will also fulfill his rescuer's desires, with no exception, he'll go to church, he'll show gratitude to God, will be generous with others, etc. The patient will give everything just to be saved or at least to receive some time. Ultimately, the negotiation is not about health, but time; in this moment of death confrontation, each man is dissatisfied with the remaining life time and willing to do everything to gain more time.

4. *Depression* – when all the hopes invested on the negotiation stage, especially those regarding God begins to dissipate, the patient steps into a deep depression; he's withdrawing itself, definitely loses his hopes and gets less and less communicative.

5. *Acceptance* – on this stage the patient become aware of death's imminence and inevitability, it is reached a high level of death acceptance even if there is still a hope that a miracle will happen and what seems implacable is just a medical error. There is yet, reached a degree of reconciliation with destiny, even if no one can declare himself satisfied with his situation. The hostility is abandoned; besides, Kübler-Ross describe this moment as being the ideal stage of attitude face death. Serenity/tranquility is a symptom that the patient considers he's respectably and in a dignified manner finished his lifetime activities.

Despite the huge success and popularity enjoyed by this study mostly

in U.S.A., there were also critics regarding on one hand, the fact that the model proposed by Kübler-Ross cannot be universally applied to all different cultures of humanity, but only in American society. On the other hand, there were voices sustain that proposed model is not applicable on global level not even in U.S.A. Thus, the assumption on which Kübler-Ross found his analysis is that peoples are aware about their death and so they adopt a certain attitude in face of death decomposed into five different moments. In reality however, there are many situations when death occurs somehow unexpectedly, when a person dies without necessary suffering of cancer or other incurable disease.

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