

ARTĂ și EDUCAȚIE ARTISTICĂ

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ARTS AND ARTISTIC EDUCATION



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HOLON INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY WITHIN HIGHER EDUCATION MARKET

*INSTITUTUL TEHNOLOGIC HOLON
ÎN CADRUL PIEȚII ÎNVĂȚĂMÎNTULUI SUPERIOR*

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Rezumat: *Articolul de față tratează unele aspecte manageriale ale Institutului Tehnologic Holon din Israel și sugerează câteva strategii de management care ar contribui la îmbunătățirea statutului instituției și, respectiv, ar genera sporirea numărului de studenți.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *învățământ superior, management, instituție de învățământ superior, strategii manageriale, statut.*

Higher education market is characterized by increasing competition among academic institutions, number of students, controlling market share, tug of study quality, status and reputation of the institution and its graduates [9]. The 90s were marked by an unprecedented number of students in higher education, increase unparalleled in the Western world. Increasing demand led to the opening of new educational institutions and new programs within existing institutions. To manage the higher education system in Israel, the Ministry of Education designated the "Council for Higher Education in Israel" to manage the affairs of higher education – academic colleges in Israel, colleges, bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctorate, diploma studies, courses, engineering studies training etc. The "Council for Higher Education in Israel", known as "CHE", is a corporation established under the Council for Higher Education in 1958, to serve as a national institution for higher education in Israel. CHE plays an important role in the context of acade-

mic studies and higher education. It is decisive on many issues related to Israel's higher education system and has many powers in this context [10].

Academic product, as we know, differs from consumer products because it is very expensive, as expressed in tuition (in fact it is estimated that tuition is only one-fourth to one-third of the total cost of the study), acquisition often involves powerful emotional debates, (since the decision on the type of school and institution is perceived as having a critical impact on personal development, career and life expected), it is consumed over the years, and the deal between students and academic institutions are elements of partnership and cooperation. In light of this, it isn't surprising that education is a complex process, and that students are becoming more and more selective for what they are getting for their money. These considerations include the institution's reputation in the labour market, the level of studies and proximity to home.

HIT Holon Institute of Technology, founded in – 1969 as a branch

of Engineering Tel Aviv University, became an independent academic institution, authorized by the Council for Higher Education (CHE), in 1999. It is subject to tightly CHE regulator controls in budget and academic terms. The Institute offers degrees in eight areas: first and second degree in Electrical Engineering, a BA and MA in managing technology; degree in Industrial Design, Visual Communication Design, interior design, and master's degree in combined design; degree in computer science, and a Bachelor of technology in learning. During more than forty years of its existence, the number of students increased from 200 to 3.500, thus establishing itself as a leading academic institution. The Institute employs approximately 400 employees. Most academic staff (in technology) is men ranks: professor ("from – regular 'and' society"), senior lecturer / senior teacher, lecturer / teacher and junior faculty. The administrative staff is made out of women engaged in various fields of administration [10].

Although the Institute is an academic institution, an incorporated non-profit organization, its management approach is a business in every way. The Institute runs an intense competition viewing to increase student body, conceived in this market as customers for all purposes. In this context, the product "that the Institute provides to its customers is a product of economic value. Accordingly, the Institute mission concept is not only to provide higher education but also professional and quality services. In recent years, the organization has undergone a process of organizational change [5]. As a public institution it found itself unable to cope with the

problem of employees' motivation through financial rewards, therefore, the Institute built a unique model based on: a sense of purpose, training students in technology required to Israel; relationships (relationships between workers, administrative staff, academic staff and students) This tough reality urges Higher Educational Institutions to revise their administrative policy.

As it is known, the features of contemporary business reality are: instability, uncertainty, constant change and lack of possibility to predict future. The desire and need of every organization to successfully accomplish short-term and long-term strategic business goals is an axiom. Organizations and managers invest resources to acquire professional tools, methods, guidelines and efficient ways to conduct business and competitive business strategy that would help to succeed [7].

Most organizations enter the long and complex process of building an organizational vision strategy and, frequently, premeditated effective action plans often ruin, fact that strongly affects business success. In fact, building a winning corporate strategy is a defined organizational success. Characteristics of the new reality, associated with chaos, began to take shape in recent decades, raising the need to find new models to explain it. According to the theory of complexity, thinking in terms of chaos and complex systems is contrary to the once dominant paradigm that the world operates according to preset patterns that can be explored, understood and predicted [4]. Theories of complexity, based on non-linear assumptions– the lack of inter-

dependence between cause and effect, defined as the inability to predict the behaviour of the system accurately, emphasizes the interaction between the system parts, as opposed to the emphasis on the parts themselves, and the processes of system components self-organization, in contrast to the built-in control processes, such as management processes in the form of top-down. In other words, an organization can invest in them inputs and internal resources, can formulate a vision and a true competitive business strategy based on a competitive external environment, a dynamic business strategy, or a customer-oriented strategy adapted to the organization's values, but the results will be "failure." As mentioned above, a successful business strategy is something everyone aspires to, but you can not rely on luck. After the strategic plan was formulated, printed and distributed, employees are those who will implement it. If it isn't understood and whipped, consequently it isn't implemented. Considering this, we should understand that the most important and valuable resource to the organization is human resource, including the importance of positive organizational attitudes of employees expressed in two main positions: "job satisfaction" and organization "function success" [1, p. 189]. On the other hand, if in the past, the employee had to prove that he is worthy to work in the organization, today organizations should invest no less, branding themselves as "friendly to work". Organizations in the private and public sector work hard in terms of success, meeting the vision, goals and objectives they set for themselves. Managers and leaders of organizations should understand that

human resources are the cornerstone of this success [3]. Today, the modern corporate environment changes are inevitable and we have witnessed a rapid development of different organizations, so the treatment and management of this precious resource (economic and ethical) has a central place, more than ever, both for society and organizations. Human factor ensures the success of the organization critical capability of achieving goals, especially in periods characterized by uncertainty and complexity.

Satisfaction with work is defined as a collection of feelings and beliefs people have toward their work. The satisfaction scale can range from extremely satisfactory to extreme dissatisfaction [4]. Beyond the fact that people develop attitudes toward work there are other aspects, such as: attitudes towards the type of work, relationships with colleagues and subordinates officers. We distinguish four factors that can affect the level of satisfaction of employees:

1. Personality – the personality is a factor in terms of feelings and thoughts towards work, whether a positive or negative general perceptions towards work.

2. Values. Values influence satisfaction, because they reflect the person's beliefs and influence behaviour.

3. Situation at work in terms of rights and obligations.

4. Social influence – influence that individuals or groups have on the individual or colleagues' attitudes and behaviour. According to Steers & Black there are five dimensions by which we define job satisfaction [7, p. 157]

1. The work itself – how the worker performs the task.

2. Wage – fair wages and compensation form.

3. Promotion opportunities – opportunities for advancement in the workplace, a component of the organization's investment in worker.

4. Supervisors – how considerate and concerned the officials are for their employees.

5. Colleagues – colleagues' level of support.

There are different theories of job satisfaction:

- *Theory of equality*. This theory is engaged in the relationship between employee inputs (work investment), such as effort, prior experience, training, knowledge, etc., and outputs (the result of his work), for example, salary, status, friends and more. According to this theory, the employee will be satisfied when he receives compensation corresponding to the investment.
- *Motivational factors theory and Herzberg's hygiene* (Herzberg's Motivator – Hygiene Theory of Job Satisfaction). According to this theory, every employee has two types of needs and requirements: motivational needs – those needs related to the work itself and the challenge it presents, such as interest in the work, responsibility and independence, as these provide the needs that affect the motivation of the employee; hygienic needs – those needs related to physical and psychological conditions surrounding the work, such as cleaning, comfort, location, type of management, salary, tenure and security in the workplace, all of these provide hygienic needs.

Herzberg proposed the theoretical links between the motivational and hygienic needs and job satisfaction as it follows:

1. When motivational needs are satisfied – the employee will be satisfied and vice versa, when these needs are not satisfied, the employee is not satisfied.

2. When hygiene needs are satisfied – the employee will be satisfied and vice versa, when these needs are not satisfied, the employee is not satisfied [5, p.79]. There could be situations where the employee will be satisfied and not satisfied, if the motivational needs are satisfied and, in contrast, hygienic conditions are inadequate. According to Herzberg satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposites but two separate dimensions: one ranging from satisfaction to dissatisfaction and the other ranges from dissatisfaction with the lack of dissatisfaction. According to this theory, hygienic factors related to work environment affect dissatisfaction. Motivational factors related to the work itself affect satisfaction.

- *Model aspects of satisfaction* (The Facet Model of Job Satisfaction). This model applies to components of the aspects of work and examination of the employee's satisfaction towards every work aspect. According to this theory employee's satisfaction score is a summary of all work aspects [8]. This model has great importance because it causes managers to understand the impact of work on employees in all its variety.

In conclusion I should mention that in order to ensure success, the administration of higher educational

institutions must develop open dialogue channels to bring cooperation and create a positive climate and organizational culture that would

encourage corporate citizenship behaviour and mutual responsibility among employees.

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LEADING THE PROCESS OF CHANGE IN EDUCATION

MANAGEMENTUL PROCESULUI DE SCHIMBARE ÎN DOMENIUL EDUCAȚIEI

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Rezumat: *Articolul dat abordează conceptul de schimbare din perspectivă educațională și relevă acele dimensiuni ale sale, care asigură funcționalitatea managerială și didactică. Se stipulează că resursele umane constituie factorul de bază în procesul de realizare a schimbării, de aceea este necesară valorificarea lor, prin diverse activități formative.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *educație, manager școlar, management, schimbare, proiect, seminare metodice.*

The pluralistic and changing society we live in requires lots of changes in the educational system, so that it could provide individuals capable to adjust themselves to the society needs. A traditional school that concentrates in knowledge delivery will not be able to do that, if it has no culture of research, continuous and constant learning involving both teachers and pupils. Thus, a modern school requires changes, a renewed definition of roles and authorities of each of the partners in shaping the educational policy. In this context, school must pay attention to and deal with changes [14], or it will be perceived as irrelevant to its clients' lives.

The concepts of change, initiative and project are the axis upon which the educational activity in a process of change is based. A change requires renunciation, it disturbs an existing meaning at a time of exposure, and application of new goals and processes. The change itself creates an environment of uncertainty and some discomfort. Every change requires taking "risks", in the meanwhile acquiring new knowledge [11]. Sara-

son defines change as replacing permanent behaviour patterns by unfamiliar and new behaviour patterns. In the modern age, change is conceived as a normative process, steady and integral in the system, growth and development being possible only through it rather than laying in abeyance. Educational systems seeking to supply a response to the social demands and adjust themselves to the spirit of times, face the need to change concepts, structures and teaching methods [23]. From reviewing the professional literature dealing with the process of introducing changes into educational systems, there were pointed out two central factors that occlude accepting the desired changes and achieving behaviour changes amongst individuals involved in the renewal: those that relate to individuals manning the system and to organizational limitations of the system.

Every process of change involves objective characteristics, imprinted in the process of change itself, rather than in the character of change, in the field or in the subject, in change agents and its leaders or in the population partici-

pating in it. In order to deal with these difficulties, it is necessary to be aware of the characteristics of change and its implications on partners. Changes are dynamic, with a mechanism of regularity and cyclicity. They move in circles, starting with enthusiasm, energetic activity and creativity. Sometimes a change might halt to offer the opportunity to become aware of the phenomenon. Then it is important to use appropriate techniques in due course. A change takes place at three levels: conscious, emotional and behavioural. The conscious level relates to the learner's personal experience leading to intellectual change; the emotional level leads to a change of values and viewpoints and the behavioural level improves teaching and social skills [21]. Change is a long-term process, with no shortcuts, affecting three dimensions simultaneously: professional, personal and physical. The professional dimension includes knowledge, beliefs, skills, learning and teaching behaviours and organizational willingness to flexibility. The personal dimension relates to the human capital: principal, teachers, pupils, establishment and parents. The physical dimension includes buildings and resources available to the organization.

Many studies point at the principal as the leader of change processes, the key component of change success [2], [12], [15], [18], [24]. The principal has a decisive position in shaping the school culture and organizational policy, including everything connected with management and control of school atmosphere [8]. A successful education institution, managing to implement, refine, improve and develop changes, is usually lead by a principal with clear pedagogical leadership and educational visions, characterized by

commitment to institution goals and values, with personal involvement in the processes of change and with high performance staff. Such a principal acts in cooperation with teachers, promoting their development, and involves parents and the community as partners of the educational process. Opposed to it, difficulties arise in organizations where the principals are reserved or not personally and actively involved in the process of leading the change. Therefore, leadership style of a principal and the level of his involvement in the process are key factors in the success of an institution functioning [12], [13]. Lortie indicates that principals wishing to successfully lead change processes, are required to have very high behaviour and management skills. He identifies several characteristics specific of such principals:

- A person with vision, reach and diverse experience in education;
- A person able to build a good communication system with teachers and the community;
- A person able to deal with resistance to the change [21].

Changes can be successful when being carried out by a professional community, learning the process of change, performing it during studying, cultivating an educational project at a community level, and encouraging collaborative team learning. A learning community alongside with learning skills, invites experiencing in the adjustment of teaching-learning-evaluation at a system level. Thus, the emphasis should be placed upon the development of the human resource as the leader of change [16], [26]. This can be done by achieving community projects involving organizing professional learning communities,

training apprenticeship, direct encounter between teams etc.

What is a community project?

A project is a one-time task of a collection of actions that have defined start and ending. The actions must be carried out in an order that has been planned in advance, according to technological and logistical considerations. There are five stages in a project: initiating and starting stage, planning stage, execution stage, inspectional stage and finishing stage. The success of a project in a business field is determined by its functioning, the extent to which the project supplies a good answer to the reason it has been created for. On the other hand, an educational project sets the central goal we wish to achieve, with endless and developing actions and tasks, expressed in the lifestyle of school culture. Studies conducted in educational systems around the world, on the subject of regional, community or national projects, indicate a series of advantages. Projects reinforce the status of single schools, due to their belonging to a group of colleagues, togetherness giving safety to respond to policy and programs, to demand answers from policy makers to the needs arising in the field. They enable mutual thinking with colleagues on educational issues between theory and practice in application in school, encouraging systematic brainstorming, during discussions and interactions between groups, that produce a holistic educational product, thus creating higher obligation to application [3], [7], [20]. In the last decade, different projects have been in operation, their purpose being to generate improvement of all aspects of education.

Professional learning communities are groups of people that share apprehension, a complex of problems or passion for a certain subject, deepens knowledge and expertise to share ideas, to set standards, to build tools and to develop relations with colleagues [9], [25]. The central indexes characterizing the efficiency of an educational organization, that has a learning professional community characterized by a continuous learning, are: mutual vision, values, goals, collaborative work culture searching for challenges and planning new learning opportunities, focusing on reflective practice, experimentation, knowledge systems and acceptance of decisions based on data. Growth of leadership and its cultivation requires: commitment, obligations, research, principles and agreed standards through a collective learning and formulation of meaning. The basic principles of such a community are: building a steady learning framework for a theoretical learning and application at the same time, creating a common language at all levels, accepting educated decisions based on field data, building a mutual vision and more [1], [10].

Training apprenticeship is an essential coefficient to process renewal and change amongst teachers. The purpose of training apprenticeships is to provide knowledge of new skills and approaches, while introducing the apprenticing person with a need to accept change in skills and behaviour. It is important that the training apprenticeship could respond to the needs of teaching employees, could work diligently on absorption of innovations in the dynamic environment and could be positioned

organizationally and normatively to support them. The quality components of a training apprenticeship success are to view the apprenticing people as partners, to create relevance, and to clarify the goal. Practice and actual experience must be included alongside with a theoretical study, enabling the apprenticing person to test his work and to find problems and professional needs in order to be able to ask for a suitable response. A learning whose purpose is understanding, must be mainly a learning on experience basis. Lately, a trend has arisen for replacing the use of the words "course" or "training apprenticeship", with the term "learning experience", its use expressing what is really happening during studying [4], [27]. Those actions are adequate for an adult learner, capable of directing himself towards learning, to apply what is relevant for him and produce outputs, pleasure and motivation upon experiencing a success to learn and experience at the same time, and even reach deeper understanding with the activity.

A regional training apprenticeship constitutes a group pressure. According to the "theory of field", in order to understand an individual's behaviour his surrounding forces must be considered. The behaviour of an individual in certain situation is depen-

dent upon factors operating in his environment and relationships. A group is meaningful to an individual in several aspects: feeling of belonging, enhancement of sense of security, identifying with the group. The group is the means for achievement of a goal, accepting a public obligation and creating "group pressure" upon participants in the group activity [6], [17].

A direct encounter between teams. The uniqueness of a regional community seminar, unlike a school seminar, consists in a direct encounter between people from different "fields". This kind of an encounter enriches the experience, cultivates thinking and the practices that support the development of teachers [5], [19], [20].

Finally, it should be underlined that community projects have declared indexes of success. They enhance the visibility of change leading in schools, upgrade lessons and promote learning achievements, they emphasize the importance of professional communities' development, educational leadership, development of innovative pedagogy and up-to-date study program, combination of practice and theory integrating I.T., learning environments, and strategies meant to promote advanced pupils.

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PLACING CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS INTO VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL FRAMES

INSTITUȚIONALIZAREA COPIILOR CU NEVOI SPECIALE ÎN DIVERSE MEDII EDUCAȚIONALE

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Rezumat: *Articolul de față reflectă câteva modele de integrare a copiilor cu CES. Fiecare model presupune anumite particularități și legități de implementare subordonate factorului de administrare locală.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *copii cu nevoi speciale, medii educaționale, integrare, incluziune, instituționalizare.*

The article below views three central perceptions of integration: Mainstreaming, Integration and Inclusion. Each model has its own assumptions, a guiding, applicable local policy; its own history and variance points that distinguish it from other perceptions.

The Mainstreaming model: This perception is the oldest of all three, and its origin is in the Special Education Law of the USA. The subject population of this approach are children with light disabilities up to medium ones. This perception focuses on the scope of time as well as the special circumstances in which this child population will stay in regular classes in school. The basic principle of this approach is that placing the child with light-medium disability in a special class for special education shall be conducted only if no other solutions have been found for the child other than his placement in a regular class; and thus the State has to provide possible alternative for the child on the principle of "the less limiting educational environment". According to this perception, the child with spe-

cial needs alternately goes to the developing class during day-hours in order to be able to receive assistance according to his special needs. There is a number of types of developing classes which vary from each other in the type of assistance they introduce:

Remedial Teaching – The therapeutic teacher helps the child in an individual way with basic skills: arithmetic, Arabic, Hebrew, and reading; these skills are necessary for the child's success in the regular class.

Individual Assistance to the Child – The therapeutic teacher helps the child deal with the learnt material in the regular class. This model is mainly acceptable in high schools.

1. **Class Focusing on Life Skills –** The learning curriculum in class deals with developing life skills like finding a job, filling forms and reports, balancing income and expenses.
2. **Class focusing on Developing Learning Strategies –** The emphasis here is on the method rather

than the learning content. A group of researchers led by *Del Donald Dashler* has developed teaching curricula for developing certain skills like attention and problem solving, improving reading, word treasure, expression, arithmetic, as well as tutoring in other fields like direction, control and self-evaluation [1, p. 72].

The Integration Model: The main drive of the integration movement was towards the education of students with severe disabilities, close counterparts of the same age attending general education, to enable them to form relationships with students who are not disabled. Students with severe disabilities have often learned in special classes at regular public schools, while being together with other students in school was usually at lunch, breaks and special occasions.

There is a number of types of special classes in the USA:

1. Categorical Therapeutic Class – in which students of the same disability group learn together; like children with psychological disturbances or children with learning difficulties.
2. Multi-categorical Therapeutic Class – which includes students with various disabilities who have similar level of functioning or learning achievements.
3. Non-categorical Class – Grade students who need help, without classification. This model is common in the United - States to avoid tagging students based on disability.

Therapeutic grade built on skills – This class focuses on teaching remedial studies in a specific problem

atic field of study such as reading or arithmetic.

The Inclusion Model: The idea of inclusion refers to placement of children with disabilities of any kind of regular education classes with appropriate support services provided mainly within this frame. While the model of mainstream refers to the extent of time that children with light disabilities will stay in regular classes according to their ability, and the integration model refers primarily to closeness and allowing social interaction between children with disabilities, severe and regular students, the concept of inclusion and generalization concern the full partnership and consolidation of limited students with their colleagues (Group of equivalents) at all levels. In defining the term "inclusion", Sailor points to six major views:

All students will receive education at school – they get the education as if they were not disabled.

There should be children with disabilities in schools according to their relative population abundances.

No rejection of children with disabilities from schools on the basis of the type or extent of disability.

General education should match age-wise and in terms of class students with disabilities, so that it were independent units of special education classes.

1. The preferred teaching methods of the inclusion model are both cooperative learning and peer teaching (teaching that occurs during the interaction of students).
2. Support for special education students in the general class and other joint frameworks.

Stages in the history of the Inclusion Model: The beginning of the idea of inclusion was in 1978, in an attempt to integrate the education of students with disabilities within the broader context of general education. The attempt to create comprehensive plans for these students was the premise that children with disabilities cannot be discriminated against in education, and we should allow them access to company and partnership relations with peers who are not disabled.

It is possible to identify four stages in the history of Inclusive Education [3, p.29]:

1. The public debate on individual rights preceded the legislative formulation on the subject.
2. Legal enforcement action by parents of children with disabilities together with professionals to repair and improve education for the disabled population.
3. Allocation of research grants to enable the application of inclusive education in the country.
4. Exploiting the resources of IDEA (Individuals Education with Disabilities for the Entire population of a school, while producing "secondary profits" for children in the regular education.

Reviewing the literature on definitions and approaches to inclusive education shows that the concern has gradually moved from special educational needs of the special education population, to concerns for school needs as a whole, and the ways of combining resources that will provide quality education efficiently to all students in school.

Integration of children with special educational needs in regular

schools has gradually become a key topic in special education over the last half a century [2]. Since the late 1990s the term "inclusion" which embodies a whole range of assumptions about the purpose and meaning of schools has replaced the previously used term "integration" in the vocabulary of special educators. In contrast to integration, inclusion implies a restructuring of the educational environment to accommodate the needs of a small number of children with significant disabilities. It promotes self-determination and participation of individuals with disabilities as any other minority in the community. Fischebein M. defined inclusion as a cohesive sense of community, acceptance of differences and responsiveness to individual needs. The fundamental principle of inclusion is the valuing of diversity in the human community [1, p. 85]. Over the last decade the idea of inclusion has become increasingly the focus of national and international policy of education. Inclusion has been defined as placement and education of students with disabilities in general classes (including general physical education), with peers in their neighbourhood schools [4]. An inclusive school is a place where everyone belongs, is accepted, supports, and is supported by his or her peers and other members of the school community in the course of having his or her educational needs met. It also means providing all students within the inclusive appropriate educational programs that are challenging yet geared to their capabilities and needs as well as any support and assistance they and/ or their teachers may need to be successful in an inclusive environment. Inclusion,

in general schools, has many benefits both for students with and without disabilities. According to recent studies, students with disabilities have the same possibilities and opportunities to participate as non-disabled counterparts in school and social events.

Students without disabilities learn to approach children with different characteristics, develop empathy and acceptance of individual children's differences, become more aware and more responsive to other children's needs and learn more about persons with disabilities.

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MENTOR AND BEGINNING TEACHER MEETINGS: IMPLEMENTATION AND INSIGHTS

ȘEDINȚELE ÎNTRE MENTOR ȘI PROFESORII DEBUTANȚI: IMPLIMENTARE ȘI PERSPECTIVE

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***Rezumat:** Articolul de față tratează problema interacțiunii dintre profesorii debutanți și mentori și cea a conținutului ședințelor de mentorat, din perspectiva mentorilor. S-a demonstrat că acestea trebuie să abordeze atât aspecte profesionale, cât și cele emoționale.*

***Cuvinte-cheie:** profesori debutanți, mentori, inducție, dificultăți, autodeterminare.*

Beginning teachers start their career full of hope and motivation, infused with a sense of mission and a desire to make an impact [7]. The encounter with the reality on the ground comes as a blow to them, forcing them to fight for their survival. The result is physical and emotional fatigue, causing burnout and even dropout [4], [10], [15]. In Israel a three-year program has been developed for the induction year, including workshops providing support and empowerment in parallel with support for mentors [14].

On entering the induction stage, beginning teachers are expected to integrate and show results, understand the organizational, cope with the demands, and exhibit a command of the subject matter [15]. These and other factors create many difficulties for them [3], [14]: (1) difficulties in adjustment to the system – the need to learn the organizational culture and internal politics of the school and integrate with the teaching staff [5]; (2) pedagogic difficulties – a lack of practical knowledge and class management skills, time spent in searching for relevant materials, understanding curricula, and developing differential teaching units [10]; (3) disciplinary problems, resulting in

a sense of helplessness, alienation and lack of respect in the face of students' insolence [6]; (4) difficulties in development of a professional identity due to the intense nature of the teaching profession, the pedagogic, emotional and administrative load [10].

"Growth Resources" – Induction Unit in the Kaye Academic College of Education

In the past two years induction stage units have been set up in colleges/universities, handling matters that range from the induction stage to training of mentors. The establishment of these units is a practical manifestation of the vision of continuity in professional development led by Israel's Teachers Administration, enabling dialogue between the different Administration departments [13]. Such a unit, advocating self-determination theory [2], has been set up at Kaye Academic College of Education. As an extension of this theory and in keeping with the concept of continuity, the staff of the unit has defined operative goals: (1) creation of a unique support system for the processes involved in professional development; (2) creation of a supportive professional community; (3) accompaniment of the beginning teachers in the

stages of developing a professional identity; (4) strengthening of the beginning teacher's self-determination [8]. Self-determination theory deals with an individual's internal processes, focusing on his proclivity for psychological growth and development. The theory relates to three basic psychological needs, satisfaction of which contributes to development of a professional identity: (1) the need for bonding and belonging; (2) the need for a feeling of competence; (3) the need for autonomy, guidance and self-regulation [1], [2]. Implementation of the self-determination approach is based on the belief in the potential for growth existing in the teacher, finding expression in courses [8], [1].

Mentors

Mentoring of beginning teachers may be defined as the most important strategy for meeting their needs [11], [4], [16]. The desired traits of the mentor are defined as follows:

- Knowledgeable and experienced in the field of teaching – Expertise on the pedagogic – subject content in parallel with generic aspects [15], [3], [18].
- Aware of the beginning teacher's need for belonging– the mentor must understand that cultivating a sense of belonging in the beginning teacher is a basic need, as stated in self-determination theory [2], and he must help to consolidate relations between the beginning teacher and the school staff [14].
- Able to provide emotional support – the mentor must heed the distress signals conveyed by the beginning teacher from a position of trust and empathy [3], [9].
- Available, accessible and consistent – the weekly meetings serve as a steady anchor, giving the be-

ginning teacher a feeling of confidence, professionalism and active involvement [3].

Contribution of Mentoring and Guidance to the Mentors Themselves

The work of the mentor is complex and accompanied by much deliberation due to its very nature: support and assistance vs. evaluation; understanding of the professional dependence of the beginning teacher vs. the need to cultivate personal autonomy; empathy and attentiveness vs. advice and practicality; permanent framework vs. flexibility; and orientation to the needs of the beginning teacher vs. commitment to the system [14]. Coping with this duality allows personal growth on the part of the mentors themselves in addition to acquiring beginning tools and ideas, boosting their self-confidence, improving their interpersonal relationships, and intensifying their own personal commitment to the school and the community.

The Beginning Teacher in the Research Literature

The research literature abounds with information on the induction stage in teaching, but does not make a distinction between novice teachers and teachers in their second year. In Israel the concept of internship has been in existence for 13 years, but a definition of the status of the new teacher has been known for only the past three years.

The Method

Content analysis was conducted on questionnaires submitted by 58% of the mentors. The central content in some of the subjects was identified as part of a thematic analysis and counted by means of a frequency analysis. Certain questions were eliminated from the final analysis since either the teachers

chose not to answer them, or their answers were not relevant or unclear.

Aims of the Content Analysis

In order to study processes from the mentors' point of view they were requested to fill in a questionnaire on the activities of new teachers, aimed at:

1. Identifying the content on which mentors focus with teachers during their first year following internship.
2. Identifying areas where the new teacher is in need of assistance in order to create a link between these needs and the workshop

| Subjects of meetings | N | % |
|---|----|-------|
| Class management and disciplinary problems | 86 | 68.8% |
| Work programs, curricula and personal programs | 76 | 60.8% |
| Issues relating to integration in the system and the school culture | 67 | 53.6% |
| Planning of teaching units and lessons | 61 | 48.8% |
| Subjects relating to Evaluation | 55 | 44% |
| Interaction with parents | 43 | 34.4% |
| Providing answers to students with special needs | 38 | 30.4% |
| Varying teaching strategies | 36 | 28.8% |

Note: The questionnaire contained additional subjects but these were not included as they were referred to by less than 20% of the teachers.

Difficulties in mentoring: a total of 63 mentors (54%) wrote that there were no difficulties at all in the mentoring process and 29 (23.2%) detailed or emphasized problems in timing: "The difficulty was to find a suitable and proper time for dialogue" (respondent 120); "There was not enough time to sit together and talk about the issues" (respondent 112). Eleven mentors (8.8%) stated that there were a few difficulties at the start of the process, which no longer existed the moment a

relationship of trust was established.

3. Identifying the contribution of the mentoring process to the mentors themselves.
4. Examining whether a correspondence exists between the work of mentoring and the perspective of the Teachers Induction Unit at Kaye Academic College.

Findings

Following is a distribution of the themes that arose from the subjects discussed at meetings between mentors and novice teachers:

| Subjects of meetings | N | % |
|---|----|-------|
| Use of teleprocessing and technology | 28 | 22.4% |
| Observing and feedback | 27 | 21.6% |
| Emotional support and assistance in cultivating personal competence | 25 | 20% |
| Special initiatives and activities in the classroom and the school | 25 | 20% |
| Teacher-student relations | 21 | 16.8% |
| Reflection and professional development | 20 | 16% |
| Cultivation of a class climate and inculcation of values | 20 | 16% |

relationship of trust was established. Two teachers (1.6%) stated that there were difficulties throughout. All the respondents, with the exception of six, believe that it is preferable to provide guidance to a teacher from the same school for reasons of accessibility and availability, and facility in easing his integration into the school staff.

Sixty-one mentors (48.8%) did not state insights or proposals for improvement; 23 mentors (18.4%) wrote about the need for contact between them and the college staff; 14 mentors (11.2%) emphasized pedagogic content; 13 mentors (10.4%) wrote about the need for additional hours for guidance; and 9

mentors (7.2%) referred to the fact that the process involved helping the absorption of the new teacher and contributing to his self-confidence. All the remaining issues raised by the mentors ranged from 0.8% to 4%.

Contribution of the process to the mentors themselves – 57 respondents (59% of the teachers who answered this question) stated one or two contributions, and the rest referred to 3-4 subjects from which they had benefited:

| Contribution of the mentoring process to the mentors | N | % |
|--|----|-------|
| Professional development | 38 | 30.4% |
| Peer study | 38 | 30.4% |
| Self-reflection | 29 | 23.2% |
| Acquisition of new tools | 26 | 20.8% |
| In-depth study | 24 | 19.2% |
| Sense of satisfaction / achievement | 15 | 12% |
| Coping with challenges | 12 | 9.6% |
| More meaningful attention to the induction stage | 12 | 9.6% |
| Mentoring – processes, skill and importance | 11 | 8.8% |
| Strengthening of personal status in the school | 3 | 2.4% |

Some of the respondents stated in their answers: "I learn about myself all the time through the new teachers. I uphold and reinforce positive aspects and improve aspects that need improvement ... this process has helped me greatly to develop and improve both professionally and personally" (respondent 3); "... new experiences, new situations ... Widening of professional development and motivation to develop professionally ... development of discussions and development of understanding and more consideration to the matter of mentoring new teachers" (respondent 5); "the very fact that I carried out observations ... made me gain insights into my own learning method. This made me think about acts that we perform automatically ..." (respondent 10).

Discussion

From an analysis of the meetings between the beginning teacher and the mentor it may be seen that there is a correspondence between the aims of mentoring, as defined by the Ministry of Education, and the actions on the ground. The Director-General's Circular

2009 presents the roles of the mentor: "... The mentor is an experienced teacher who has been trained for the job and he is part of the teaching staff and is involved in educational activities ... his impact on optimal absorption of the intern ... may be manifested in three areas: professionally, environmentally and emotionally." Indeed, mentors emphasize content associated with three goals: subjects relating to **professional aspects** are distributed throughout the table of subjects (class management, working with curricula, teaching units and lesson structures, evaluation and teaching strategies); "integration into the staff and the school system" refers to **environmental aspects** and represents an answer to the need for contact and belonging as presented by self-determination theory [2]; 25 mentors referred directly to **emotional aspects** while it constituted in addition an integral part of other subjects (assistance in integration into the staff; interaction with parents; students with special needs; and teacher-student relations) [2], [11], [14].

It appears that despite the different professional situation of the teacher in the first year of teaching and the professional experience gained during the internship year, mentors still place great emphasis on pedagogic aspects. It is possible that this stems from the readiness of the beginning teacher to acquire more hands-on tools that will allow him to develop professionally. It is also possible that it is a question of the desire to prove himself and his capabilities and that this is his way of strengthening his professional identity. Another possibility is the confidence placed by the beginning teacher in the staff of the college unit that he will be helped to obtain the emotional support he needs, such that he will be able to meet the needs of the hour.

An additional aspect that derives from the findings deals with the issue of timing and coordination of mentoring meetings. A total of 23.2% of the mentors emphasized coordination of meetings as being problematic due to the lack of time. Others perhaps did not emphasize this, but 91 respondents stated that it was preferable to work in the same school for reasons of availability. Mention of this fact by mentors supports the statements of Shaz-Openheimer & Zilbershtrom that while it is an anchor that gives the beginning teacher a feeling of confidence, it is also a source of aggravation because the educational system does not devote sufficient attention to the subject and exhibits a lack of understanding of the fact that a regular framework of meetings gives novice teachers a sense of security [3].

The last issue addresses the mentor himself. Hagger & McIntyre present the personal contribution of mentoring to professional development of the mentor, and indeed, the findings

confirm their claim and underscore the issue of professional development, peer study, self-reflection, and acceptance of new tools. Altogether 15 teachers make a mention of the sense of satisfaction and achievement they feel, as stated by Hobson, Ashby, Malderez & Tomlinson. Furthermore, mention of the need by 23 mentors for contact with the college supports the statements of the above researchers regarding the desire to study and develop. The statements of the mentors shed light on the place they occupy, their vision, work and study methods, as well as the significance behind the frequency analysis. There is no doubt that the words of the Teaching Staff Administration director are a direct reflection on the quality of these teachers' work: "... teachers are the spearhead of the educational system and they lead meaningful teaching and learning processes in schools. The quality of the educational system depends on the quality of its teachers" [13].

Recommendations:

The present research signals the start of a process of familiarization with the status of mentoring in the first year of teaching (following internship) and with ways to establish relationships based on trust and communication with mentors. The findings and the insights deriving from them lead to the following recommendations: (1) in order to continue cultivating contact with mentors, at least one study day should be fixed in the college for this purpose. In addition, careful attention should be paid to ongoing personal contact with the mentors for them to feel relevance and care on the part of the unit staff; (2) the problem of the timing of meetings should be presented to

boards of directors, enabling them to discuss the need, the significance, and

the logistic and emotional problems stemming from them.

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SOME UNDEFINED BOUNDARIES BETWEEN FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN THE ISRAELI ARAB SECTOR

ASPECTE ALE EDUCAȚIEI FORMALE ȘI CELEI NON-FORMALE ÎN SECTORUL ARAB DIN ISRAEL

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Rezumat: *Sistemul educațional din Israel include atât educația formală, cât și cea non-formală, care este cea mai nouă abordare a învățării prin activități plăcute și motivante. Articolul de față prezintă o privire de ansamblu asupra educației non-formale în Israel și relevă acele probleme ce constituie un impediment în exploatarea sistemului de valori, tipice culturii arabe, prin intermediul educației non-formale.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *educație non-formală, educație formală, sectorul Arab, sistem de valori, abordare.*

The dispute about what is to be considered formal education or NFE draws the attention to the relationship between formal education which is much likely to be under the state direct control and NFE which is out of the state direct control. As the two systems work to serve the society under the umbrella of one state, a relationship, regardless of its nature, is supposed to exist between them.

Brennan tries to explore this relationship by referring to three different models of NFE to be discussed across developing nations as well as for any individual developing country: NFE as complement, supplement and alternative to formal education. Each of these three models has its own roots and purposes which directly relate to the policies and practices of formal education.

The following is an outline to these three models [2]:

(1) NFE as a complement: This model represents the role of NFE in providing educational services unfulfilled by the school system. It is deve-

loped to reach those whom formal education had not been able to deliver its services. The target groups include school left-outs and drop-outs, and adults who are found to be illiterate. The complementary nature of this type of NFE was required to perform functions which formal education was designed to fulfill, but had not been able totally to achieve because of the shortage of sufficient schools, teachers or resources, or because these tools are mal-distributed or used geographically or culturally throughout the nation.

(2) NFE as a supplement: This model is designed to provide educational services related to recent important stages in the development of the nation. It is a response to the issue of the changing role of the state and economy, including the private sector, and the acceptance of education as a commodity. This model, almost being driven by economic considerations, required as a quick reaction to educational, social and economic needs because formal education is slow in its response to these needs. The target

in this type of NFE is an industry or particular type of knowledge or skill, with links between the two categories.

(3) NFE as an alternative: This model seeks to recognize the area of indigenous education and establish a link between learning and culture to achieve social change. It emerged from the unwillingness or inability of the colonial state and its formal education to accept and recognize that there had been pre-existing educational structures in the society before the colonial period, and that some of these may have been acceptable, even preferable and more successful, than the formal education adopted from the western countries and tending to continue to serve a function of elite recruitment. The alternative model, especially after the emergence of the state as a central and superior authority in the contemporary societies, might have no chance to be fully implemented. In the Palestinian case, for instance, there were ample attempts to develop NFE approach as an alternative to formal education which was controlled by the Israeli occupation (the state). However, these attempts were ruined or did not last for a long time, so many NFE program send up as complement or supplement to formal education, although NFE as a whole was in opposition to formal education and the state. This analysis is not only confined to oppressive situations, but also includes the democratic liberal societies, because as the state provides freedom in such societies, both formal education and NFE together are likely to respond to most of the people's needs, and there is no need to rely only on NFE as an alternative.

Besides, although Brennan mentioned that his argument is based on developing countries, his models neglected the differences in the political rea-

lity in these countries and the diversity of the state role and its influence over NFE. To what extent, if any, do levels of democracy affects the implementation of these models? Here Brennan's models provide no answer. In other words, while the above models try to clarify the relationship between formal education and NFE, they ignored the relationship between NFE and the state which controls formal education and its relationship with NFE. Moreover, due to the huge variations between the developing countries, Brennan's conceptualization does not fit all contexts. For instance, although NFE in Palestine has tried to play these three different roles (complementary, supplementary and alternative) in different times over the occupation era, none of these models alone match adequately the PNFE under occupation which perpetuated its opposition to the Israeli occupation.

(4) There is a fourth model presented by Wilson which perceives NFE as **opposition to formal education**. This model covers situations like that existing where most of NFE was in direct dispute with formal education. However, the four models, mentioned above, are still unable to cover all NFE practices. For instance, they disagree with the situation in a country, such as Tanzania where the state committed itself to integrate the two systems, formal education and NFE, and devoted a sophisticated amount of its budget to NFE [8].

(5) Kassam refers to a **fifth model** which is the **integrated model**. This new model has different base than all the former ones. Most of the previous models depend on an assumption that NFE lags behind formal education and just provides an inferior chance to those left behind by formal education only. Ranking NFE as a second after

formal education is not only noted in these models but also dominated the spirit of NFE literature as a whole [6].

The integrated model already has advocates and adopters. Many researchers (Coombs and Ahmed 1974, Fordham 1979, Evans 1981 and Ahmed 1983) argue that the integration between formal education and NFE education is the preferable situation which could enhance the efficiency of the education system and save resources [3], [4], [5]. This model was the strategy adopted by the UNESCO in its Second Medium-Term Plan from 1984 to 1989.

The integrated model does not give preference to either of the two systems. It views them as equivalents rather than rivals. The integrated model assumes that the relationship between formal education and NFE is much likely to be subject to a direct correlation rather than an inverse one. Fordham and Bockarie argue that an increase in formal education goes hand-in-hand with corresponding increase in NFE. Bockarie cites the developed countries as an example because in these countries NFE flourished and so does the extent of participation in formal education [1].

To justify this argument, it could be argued that expanding NFE provision is unlikely to reduce the need for formal education and vice versa. On the contrary, as such a promotion of NFE activities would activate the mental and manual capabilities of the beneficiaries and increase their awareness, this, in turn, will expand their demand and pressure over the state for formal education provision and access. Likewise, expanding formal education would open up economic opportunities, and accelerate social mobilization which, in turn, could create immense demand

for NFE programs. This discussion might put an end to the debate about the relationship between development and expanding of NFE activities. So far, as Bockarie stresses, there were two views regarding this issue: the first view argues that NFE serves the poor who have been deprived of formal education, which indicates that NFE is only for poor countries and would become less important with their development [1]. The second view argues that expansion of NFE depends on the resources available to providers and the public, thus a wider-range of NFE activities is needed and expected to be found in developed countries. Clearly, the above discussion and the practices of NFE give support to the second view.

As formal education is often under a state direct control, it could be argued that formal-NFE relationship depends, to a large extent, on the relationship between NFE and the state. If the latter is good the former is likely to be good as well and vice versa.

This point highlighted the importance of exploring NFE-state relationship. The next section will be devoted to this issue.

The essential difference between formal and non-formal education is probably that formal education programs impose predetermined objectives upon the learners while non-formal programs try to respond directly to the needs of the different client groups. Seen from this angle, formal education is largely supply driven while non-formal education is largely demand driven.

This has, at least, two important consequences for the planning of non-formal education which are the following:

- Any form of planning in this area will always be much more con-

cerned with need assessment than formal school planning.

- The essential planning function is to be kept close to the program level because of the continuous flexibility which is required to respond to the changing pattern of demand.

1. The role of central planning.

This being said, what is the role of central planning in relation to the rapid proliferation of non-formal education activities? Manifestly, the question is not to discuss (as has often been the case) if the State should intervene or not in NFE. The international comparative study shows how the State is already intervening as an important organizer of specific activities and program. Furthermore, the country case studies show how the State has a regulatory role more or less throughout the subsector.

2. Formulating policy. Policy formulation and planning is required in order to make the diversified educational field more transparent, to raise the issue of equality, to guarantee minimum standards of quality, to facilitate an efficient use of public resources and to match future demand and provision

3. Improving co-ordination. Any kind of central co-ordination, however limited, necessarily entails some loss of autonomy on the part of the organizations to be coordinated. The essential question is therefore how far the co-ordination can go without jeopardizing the great organizational flexibility of NFE activities, which is precisely what enables them to provide relevant and effective answers to specific, changing, training needs. Obviously, different views on the content and the necessary degree of co-ordination will depend on one's vision of social orga-

nization, the function of education within that organization, and the appropriate roles of the State and of private initiative. But, whatever the different positions taken in this respect, the case studies completed as part of this research project clearly bring out three questions of co-ordination which have to be considered.

a) Relationship between the school system and NFE. The first concerns the relationship between the dominant school system and the other educational segments. In view of their cent diversification of the educational activities, the functions of formal schooling, the content of what is being taught and the teaching methods have to be re-examined. This need is obvious when one considers the distribution of roles between school education and the area of out-of-school professional training where not only the potential participant but often the organizers are far from clear who should be organizing what. This particular problem is far from being settled in most countries, but a similar issue arises in other sub-sectors. What are the implications for the school system of the rapid expansion of informal learning patterns though modern communication media, of the increasing popularity of self-development activities? What lessons can be drawn from the experience in the para-formal education area for improving the organization of formal teaming? These questions are not new but they are bound to become (or remain) a central policy concern in most countries.

b) The necessity to facilitate a cumulative learning process. The second issue relates to the necessity to facilitate a cumulative learning process for the users of different school

and out-of-school training programs. This raises the challenge of creating mechanisms for the recognition of different training and life experiences. One of the factors which complicate a smooth construction of individually-tailored training itineraries is the fact that training acquired in one place, within the formal, non-formal or in-formal education sectors is frequently not recognized in the other sectors. Several countries have begun to introduce some form of a system of accreditation and equivalency of qualifications and certificates.

c) Improving co-ordination between organizing agencies. The third challenge is that of improving co-ordination between organizing agencies. As has been indicated before, many exchanges and subcontracting procedures already exist in practice mainly between agencies organizing training activities within the same area of education, e.g., professional training or training for personal development. However, it is far from sure that the existing co-ordination is the most efficient and the most beneficial for the users.

4. The nature of planning. Finally, the nature of some of the non-formal education programs raises questions about the nature of the planning itself. First, whilst the organization forms which the central planning mechanisms should take will depend upon the political and socioeconomic conditions of each country, it is clear that a 'technical' approach to the planning of NFE (designing and matching the supply of educational services to potential demand for them within the limit of available resources) only makes sense at all on a local level. Furthermore, in view of the intrinsic charac-

teristics of the wide variations observed in the forms of out-of-school education, it is essential that the wide range of organizers and users of NFE be closely involved in such an exercise.

The second novel problem for planners is the identification of learning needs. Assessing future demands for any form of education outside the formal school system raises serious difficulties. The traditional approaches towards planning have proven inadequate for this purpose. Even in the well-known sector of professional training it has become extremely difficult, because of the swiftness of the technical changes, to forecast the numbers of the people to be trained and the content of the qualification required. The problem of need assessment in the other areas relating to socio-cultural promotion and personal development education has hardly been considered. What is required here is a serious creative effort on behalf of the educational planning community to develop the necessary instruments (or to adapt and transfer them from other sectors) for assessing and forecasting needs.

Manifestly, some need assessment is presently taking place at program level, but we know very little about the way this is being done. On the other hand, need assessment at the central level does not require the same degree of precision, where the focus should be on trends and general orientations, which may well involve different assessment methods all together [7].

Many thinkers had approved the importance and significance of the non-formal education into the formal education, what help students to formulate a value system, touchiness to the society and its needs, encourage initiative and volunteering activities

and conducts, especially that high school students are teenagers who really need and require an alternative and special training and instructions for what they do have at their schools. Such complexes of informal education and non-formal education oblige social settings and milieu, such as youth groups, community centers, volunteering, councils and so on, that are different from the schools- where often the problem is rooted.

Nevertheless, according to the definition of the Israeli Ministry of Education and Sports, the Israeli educational system includes formal and non-formal education. The formal education on one hand includes: pre-primary education, primary education, post-primary education, post high school and academic education. On the other hand, the informal education includes activities among the community and the youth in the education domains and adult education. This is a simple and direct definition, but in fact when it comes to the implementation stage we face many problems especially in the Arab sector.

First and foremost, both the formal and non-formal education are truly lifelong processes whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience and the educative influences and resources in his or her environment [2]. But with the non-formal education there is an important additional aspect, it is an organized system of educational activities outside the established formal system, whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity, that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives. Consequently, it is very problematic to draw a theo-

retical line between the two systems and shows how the non-formal education is different from formal education. This is an essential step in order to get to the maximum cooperation and division of functions between the two systems. The two systems should work together like rowing a boat with two captains on the opposite sides; if they work in opposite directions the boat will go in circles and never progress. But if they work in full coordination and according to a coordination policy with the same objectives the outcome will be effective. Moreover, the different attempts of classification between the two educational systems do not adequately match the reality and the practices of the non-formal education which have no commitment to these boundaries [7]. Accordingly, it is unpractical to consider them as two separated forms rather than interacting components. In practice formal education and non-formal education should be viewed predominantly by modes of learning. In other words, there are degrees of formality and non-formality on different dimensions. Some programs are pure non-formal, some are non-formal but mixed with formal elements, and some are formal but mixed with non-formal elements. Furthermore, non-formal characteristics of extracurricular activities are present when such activities are carried out in the formal type [1]. Similarly, the non-formal type displays formal characteristics when the trainees under this type receive certificates. In addition to what was mentioned so far, the imperfect and even unprofessional implementation of the non-formal policy in the Israeli Arab sector has many factors but we'll focus on three [4, p.78]:

1. The first is the Israeli State's biased attitude towards the Arab educational system. The Arabs in Israel don't have full authority and facilities to run their own educational system in a way that matches their values and norms. In fact, the non-formal education in the Arab sector emerged strongly under the Jewish policy as an instrument used to implement the Israeli policy of making the Arab better citizens. Therefore, there are no determined outcomes of this system. Due to the difference between the educational services and the Arab population the effectiveness of the non-formal educational system is insignificant. In other words, there are not enough efforts to build working plans that fit the Arab populations; these plans should be built after a long-term search on the needs of the Arabs. The reality is that the plans are built according to the Jewish society needs and then transferred to the Arab sector. The development of curriculum and materials for usage in Non-formal Education is the responsibility of the administrators of the Arab sector, but at the operational level the curriculum development outline and structure are designed in advance by the Ministry of Education in favour of the Jewish community.

The Arab non formal education system suffers from many problems and obstacles, such as: unqualified teacher in the non-formal contents, contents of curriculum are not suitable to the needs of local situation, a lack of appropriate teaching-learning materials, the educational management is not sufficient and a lack of promoting formal education continuously including family and society .

2. The second problem is that of Arab administrators who are responsible of the educational system. Unfor-

tunately there is a general attitude of exclusion of the non-formal education from the formal education. They are dealing with it as a separate, marginal and unimportant part of the formal system. They are also responsible for creating and expanding educational exclusion. They run the education system, distribute educational services, design and implement the curricula, set up the legislation, exercise the rules and provide the necessary resources. They also take decisions on behalf of the whole Arab population, articulate their minds and attitudes, direct them toward specific targets and influence their perceptions; all this without enough qualification, adequate data and awareness of the nature and need of this community. They simply work according to fixed plans that were already imposed on them.

3. The third important problem is the parents' involvement and attitude towards the non-formal education. Parental involvement is an integral part of the whole educational system; but, unfortunately there is a significant lack in the awareness of the importance of the non-formal education among the Arab community in general and among the parents in particular. In the parents' conception of the non-formal activities it is either a free babysitting time or external and additional activities. It was found that parents are not even aware of the fact that their influence is important on their children's education, and even if they are aware of this fact, they do not always have the time to go to scheduled activities. Parents' positive involvement with their children's schooling is related to many positive outcomes. To the parents, schooling is often limited to meaning indoor and formal education. They don't consider that learning needs to

continue outside of the classroom too and non-formal education provides this opportunity for continued growth of the child [1].

For days to come, formal and non-formal education shall go hand in hand in order to gain the maximum educational outcomes [7]. The best approach is to trace the roots of the exclusion between the two systems and control them. These roots are likely to be related to the unawareness of the importance of the non-formal education as a complementary, escorted and cooperative system. Moreover, without a planned action to deal with exclusion the yielded educational benefits by population will be insignificant and this cripples any attempt to provide balance in educational services. This, in turn, would cause educational and economical wastage and lead to social exclusion and conflict. In other words, the division between the two systems would hinder both the individuals' efforts to become well-

informed and acquire suitable skills, and the national efforts for sustainable development [3]. The struggle to enhance non formal education and against exclusion from formal education, is also, and at the same time, a struggle for development, justice, greater equality and recognition of the human dignity of all and of the claim of each to a responsible economic, social, and political role in society. Each system alone cannot accomplish the task of education for social mobilization and national development. Besides, parents are not always willing to participate in outdoor activities due to time restriction and a lack of knowledge on importance of the subject. Therefore, I believe that the environmental educators need programs to help get parents more involved with their children's environmental experience, because Non-formal education is a way for parents to continue their child's education outside the classroom.

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DROPOUT AS A STRATEGY TO ESCAPE SOCIAL ISOLATION

ABANDONUL ȘCOLAR CA STRATEGIE DE EVITARE A IZOLĂRII SOCIALE

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Rezumat: *Factorii ce afectează societatea modernă, cum ar fi: nedreptățile sociale, viciile, atitudinea derizorie față de valorile umane etc. au un impact distructiv asupra viitoarei generații. Deceționați de realitatea crudă în care trăiesc, tinerii devin sceptici față de viață, iar scepticismul îi conduce la diverse acțiuni ce marchează semnificativ viitorul lor, una din ele fiind abandonul școlar.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *abandon școlar, elevi, scepticism, izolare, impact distructiv.*

The common belief nowadays is that the world is unfair and often a terrifying place, especially for young people who lack the experience and the efficient life skills. Moreover, it is true that the conventional wisdom, which the old generation is trying to ladle into the young people with such overwhelming generosity, often have little relevance to the increasingly complex problems of the current time. The grown-ups may argue, a little defensively, that the reasons for the mess are somewhat different from what most young people think they are, and that the current crop adults neither so stupid nor so corrupt as their youthful critics often assume. Nevertheless, I am worried to see the young generation approaching the future with a certain but yet uncontrolled scepticism.

For the young generation scepticism became a simply habit of not believing anything until you have some solid evidence that it might be true. They stopped taking things for granted. Therefore the relevant question for the arriving generation is no

weather our society is imperfect, but how to deal with it. For all its harshness and irrationality, it is the only world we've got. Choosing strategies to cope with it, then, is the first decision a young adult has to make, and usually the most important decision of his lifetime.

One alternative that I've noticed is dropping out of school. For some young people who decide to drop out from school, it is a strategy to deal with the reality they live in. Through dropping out certain individuals try to run away from school, in hopes of finding a simpler, more pastoral and more peaceful frame.

Dropout students usually suffer from social isolation and a feeling of alienation, they actually lack a meaningful relationship. This situation has negative effects for not only the functioning and well-being of the student, but also for his solidarity and social cohesion within school in particular and within the society as a whole.

One of the reasons of this problem is adults' attitude. Adults usually

forget they passed through similar situations during adolescence – a decisive period for future life. They blame youth for their mistakes instead of being empathetic. The same thing with teachers, they forget that they were once students. If we, adults, succeeded to look at things in the perspective of the youth, then, we would be able to help them to be prepared socially, mentally, physically and, the most important of all, spiritually for the future. If young people fail to prepare they face immeasurable problems.

Teachers are the key component for providing a better alternative to students other than dropping out. Unfortunately, some teachers push students to drop out. Learning at school usually becomes problematic and challenging for some students to the extent that the school main focus is on learning as an endeavour in itself, rather than as a means to building social relations and engaging students in meaningful activity [3]. For example, educators tend to view friendship, games, romance, collections, popular music, as attractive nuisances that prevent learning and ignore the fact that through these experiences youth gain important life skills like exploring one's interests and abilities. In other words, students are expected to learn to learn in isolation from the social relations that bind them.

Therefore, it's our responsibility to benefit from this tremendous learning energy that comes with social membership. We need to provide students with the opportunity to form communities of practice around subject matter. These opportunities are equivalent to the everyday expe-

riences that the students have through their interaction with families, neighbourhoods, communities, workplaces, clubs and so on [1]. This leads to full meaningful students' participation in the school. Moreover, if students could implement what they learn into their outside school life and bring what they learn elsewhere at school, they wouldn't feel isolated any more. A school must offer learning as a key to the real world.

Due to their poor academic and social integration into the institutional life, students at the risk of dropping out of school are usually more likely to experience isolation and alienation from school. They feel alienated and lack the sense of belonging to school, fact connected to negative student behaviours such as self-isolation, failure, absenteeism, and dropping out. These students usually feel unconnected to the teacher, other students, or the school community at large. They also suffer from the feeling of loneliness, even when in the company of others, due to a perceived lack of meaningful, intimate relationships with peers, family, and the wider community. Students who feel isolated tend to be separated from mainstream groups, feel a lack of connection to others, and feel no one cares or pays attention to them [1]. Therefore, full meaningful students' integration in the learning process has an important impact on persistence.

To reduce social-isolation among students there are few steps that a teacher can conduct [2]. First, identifying the reasons for students' isolation through observations in different setting at school, conversations with the student and parents and even conversations with students' teacher from

previous years; then, according to the collected data, the teacher can determine the reason for the student isolation, whether it is related to shyness, bossiness, aggressiveness, appearance, hygiene issues, academic performance or behavioural problem. The next step, is coaching the students in social skills through raising their social intelligence and teaching them how to use basic skills in different situations such as making eye contact, joining in activities, or asking others to play. Third, the teacher should mobilize the whole class, arranging social interaction for all students, fact that ensures successful social involvement

and foster relationships among classmates. An additional important step is to emphasize the strengths and talents of isolated students and make their classmates aware of them.

Finally, I underline that it is imperative to involve parents in their children's social life, encourage them to foster peer relationships, for example guide them how to build a successful visit experience for their child's peers. All the steps I suggested above contribute to the feeling of integration and belonging among students and, consequently, reduce their tendency to drop out.

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SUICIDE IDEATION AMONG YOUTH

IDEAȚIA SUICIDALĂ ÎN RÎNDUL TINERILOR

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Rezumat: Suicidul este a treia cauză a morții printre tinerii de 14-24 ani. Motivele care-i determină pe tineri să recurgă la acest gest disperat sunt multiple. În calitate de părinți și profesori avem obligația morală de a descoperi aceste motive și de a susține tinerii în vederea excluderii unor situații fatale.

Cuvinte-cheie: ideateie suicidală, tineri, comportament, factori de risc, educație.

Suicide is an emotionally charged issue and the process of coping with it is rather complex. It is particularly difficult for us to face suicide of young people who have decided to take their own lives. This phenomena is scary, which determines us to avoid approaching, thinking or touch it. It often paralyzes us in "advance".

This is one of the main reasons that suicide is considered to be taboo in different cultures. This taboo "enhances the" conspiracy of silence on the subject and leads to the formation of prejudices, myths, and distortions of thinking and perception learning disabilities with regard to this phenomenon [7]. This problematic behaviour patterns prevent detection of distress and assisting on time and according to the needs. However, studies show that teens think about suicide, aware of the phenomenon and we know that some are even threatening, and even trying to perform. As a result, education and care, working with adolescents and children in school, cannot help but see the phenomenon in its various aspects that, often, are not treated at all, because of lack of knowledge and fear to touch it. This

situation creates a sealed barrier relation to suffering and prevention of providing assistance in real time. The existence of these myths prevents us from correctly understand the emotional pain of those who are threatening to commit suicide.

It is very important to crack these myths by providing facts on the nature of the phenomenon. This is an opportunity not only to give correct information, but also to empower teachers, parents and counsellors by giving them the tools to recognize the complication of their students so that they can be a meaningful, attentive and helpful figure.

Most definitions of suicide share the notion by which suicide constitutes an act of intentionally putting an end to one's own life, while fully understanding the nature of the act and its objective requires greater preventively comprehensive researches and extended investigations [6], [9]. In Israel, suicide rates are 7.4 per 100,000, with 11.7 for males and 3.3 for females. For adolescents aged 15-24, rates are 5.4 (8.9 for males and 1.8 for females), and these peak at 22-24. In this age group, suicide is the second most

common cause of death for males and third for females, and it holds the highest attempt rates. Similar to other countries over the world, Israeli males complete suicide more frequently than females while females attempt to kill themselves more frequently.

Out of above 7.6 million citizens in Israel, nearly 1.2 million are between ages 15-24, just over 5.8 million (76.3%) are Jewish, about 1.5 million (19.7%) are Arab, and of those approximately 1.3 million (17%) are Muslim. There are 153,100 Christians residing in Israel, 127,600 Druze and 288,400 which are not classified by religion [3]. Although suicide rates for 15-24 year old Arabs are highest compared to other ages in this demographic, Arab adolescents living in Israel kill themselves 1.3 times less frequently than do Jewish adolescents (Israeli Ministry of Health, 2011). Nonetheless, the problem of suicidal behaviour in Arab youth is one which requires special attention. Concerning information shows that while there has been a gradual decrease in suicide rates for Jewish Israelis aged 15-24 since the mid-2000s, suicide rates in Arab youth have stayed more or less static. With 38% of all Arab Israeli suicides committed under the age of 25, compared to 16% of Jewish suicides, it seems that although the risk is generally lower in the Arab population, young age is especially strong as a risk factor in this group [9].

It was found that Muslim Arabs had the lowest suicide rate as compared to Jews, Druze, and Christian Arabs. However, among teenagers Christian Arabs had a lower rate of completed suicide than Muslim Arabs, although both groups had lower rates than Jews.

For the period 1976-1985, male Muslim Arabs and Christians had lower age-standardized suicide rates than Jews and Druzes, but female Muslim Arabs and Druzes had lower age-standardized suicide rates than Jews and Christians. Muslim Arabs of both sexes, therefore, had the lower suicide rates. In order to estimate suicide attempts, studies examined the incidence and outcome of intentional injuries requiring emergency room care among children and adolescents. One study was performed in 1994 with the population of 0-17 year olds who presented to 23 out of a possible 28 emergency rooms all over the country during that one year period. A 6% to 9% random sample of days was selected at each hospital, and for each selected day the relevant records were reviewed for cause, nature, and outcome of injuries and socio demographic information. The annual incidence for intentional injuries resulting in emergency room visits was 19.6 in 10,000 children and adolescents aged 0-17 years of age (95% confidence interval (CI) 17.4-21.8 in 10,000). Fights/assaults constituted 54.1% of the presentations, abuse and rape 10.3% and self-inflicted injuries 10.8%. The rates were higher among boys than girls for fights/assaults and abuse, whereas attempted suicide and rape were three times higher among girls than boys. Nearly twice as many Jewish children and adolescents presented to the emergency room for intentional injuries than Arab children and adolescents, with the ratio becoming even greater for attempted suicide. Of all the intentionally injured, 21.7% were hospitalized. The mortality rate was 1.1 in 100,000 (95% CI =.7-1.7/100,00) with no significant

gender difference observed. No cases of suicide were reported for the Arab population, but there were 30 suicide attempts (rate of 0.6 per 10,000).

When examining risk factors among and within-cultural groups, it is important to look at these factors from three levels: 1) culturally non-specific risk factors which are common across cultural groups; 2) culture-specific risk factors which are unique to each cultural group; and 3) within-cultural group risk factors that help explain the variance in suicidal behaviour within each cultural group [4]. These same three tiers (gender non-specific risk factors, gender-specific risk factors, and within gender risk factors) can also be used to create a framework for examining gender differences in suicidal behaviour among adolescents in the Arab sector in Israel.

1. Non-Specific Factors. Many culturally non-specific risk factors have been associated with both female adolescent suicidal behaviour. These include the following: a family history of suicide, a family history of child maltreatment, previous suicide attempt(s), a history of mental illness (especially depression), a history of alcohol and substance abuse, feelings of hopelessness, impulsive or aggressive tendencies, local epidemics of suicide, social isolation, loss (relational, social, work, or financial), physical illness, easy access to lethal methods, unwillingness to seek help because of the stigma associated with mental health, substance abuse disorders, or suicidal thoughts, barriers to accessing mental health treatment, and cultural and religious beliefs [3].

2. Age is an important predictive factor for suicidal behaviour. In older

adolescents suicide rates are higher than for younger adolescents and children. Brent, Baugher, Bridge, Chen, Chiappettam found higher suicide rates for older adolescents than for younger adolescents [2]. This may be due to the differences in the prevalence of psychopathology among age groups, the elevated risk of substance abuse, the cognitively capability of planning and executing a suicide attempt, or greater intent compared to younger suicide victims [1].

3. Gender differences. Researchers have debated the extent, nature, and interpretation of the suicide rate differences between male and female adolescents in the many countries, and also in Israel. In most studies it has been documented that females have more suicide attempts rather than males. Nevertheless, males complete suicide in higher rates in comparison with females [4], [8].

Many explanations have been offered for the gender paradox. The most common one is that girls and boys choose different methods to attempt suicide. Specifically, males are more likely to use firearms when attempting suicide than are females, and firearms are a particularly lethal attempt method. In contrast, females are more likely than males to attempt suicide via overdose. This suicide method has a more unpredictable outcome and there is a longer time period for someone to intervene with potential success [5]. Another possibility that has been offered is that adolescent females are more body aware and body image conscious than are adolescent males. As a consequence, female adolescents may be more likely to choose a suicide method that is non-disfiguring than are men. Fe-

male adolescents may also be more socialized to be relationship oriented and empathetic to family and friends than are female adolescents. They may then worry more about who will find them and how disturbing the scene will be to the discoverer than might males. This worry may lead females to choose less violent (and consequently less lethal) suicide attempt methods. Finally, there may also be significant gender differences in access to and familiarity with suicide attempt methods, such that adolescent males may find it easier to obtain a handgun or rifle and may be more comfortable handling a gun or rifle than are adolescent females [ibidem]. Each of these potential explanations for the gender paradox warrants addi-

tional research and each of these explanations can be considered within a cultural framework.

“Suicidal behaviour” is a complex behaviour, caused by with different factors, inducing a disturbed mental strength that, if not treated on time, can develop into a real danger. The very existence of this phenomenon among adolescents forces us to approach this problem more seriously, so that we could prevent it. In light of this, it is especially important to raise the awareness of the nature of this phenomenon in all its complexity. Thus, adults are those who can help adolescents to cope with those situations that may be perceived by them as having no way out and, as such, make life pointless and meaningless.

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REPERE TEORETICO-LITERARE ȘI METODOLOGICE ALE RECEPTĂRII OPEREI LITERARE

LITERARY-THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL GUIDELINES OF THE LITERARY WORK RECEPTION

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Abstract: *In this article it is highlighted the problem of receiving the literary work by the student-reader. First of all there are taken some references to the following authors and their creations: Jean-Paul Sartre, Umberto Eco, Hans-Robert Jauss, W. Iser, T. Vianu, Paul Cornea. They analyse this problem, so there are defined literary-theoretical guidelines of reception process. Especially, they lay stress on the type of reader, on the reception phases and levels, on the typology of tasks stated by the professor, on the reader aspect as a text producer.*

Keywords: *reception, literary work, author, student, reader, professor, levels, tasks, reading, creativity.*

Receptarea este un element indispensabil al oricărui proces de comunicare artistică. Or actul de creație, conform opiniei lui Sartr, „include procesul lecturii, aceste două acte interdependente având nevoie de doi oameni cu activități diferite. Strădaniile combinate ale autorului cu cele ale cititorului contribuie la nașterea obiectului concret și imaginar care este opera spiritului. Arta nu poate exista decât pentru și prin celălalt” [6, 246]. Această idee o găsim și în lucrările lui Umberto Eco, pentru care textul este un act de co-producere, care funcționează în parteneriat și este jalonat de două postulate: „Ce trebuie să înțeleagă cititorul?” și „Ce vrea să spună autorul?”. Pornind de la ideea că între actul narării și cel al interpretării există o legătură indisolubilă, savantul susține: „Textul este întrețesut cu spații albe, cu teritorii ale nonspusului. Cine le-a lăsat albe a procedat așa din două motive: în primul rând, pentru că un text este un mecanism leș care trăiește din plusvaloarea de sens introdusă în el

de destinat. În al doilea rând, pentru că, pe măsură ce trece de la funcția didactică la cea estetică, un text vrea să-i lase cititorului inițiativa interpretării, chiar dacă, de obicei, dorește să fie interpretat cu o garanție suficientă de univocitate” [3, 83]. Conform lui Umberto Eco, Cititorul Model și Autorul Model sunt cele două strategii textuale, fiecare încercând să deducă intențiile celuilalt. Autorul Model lansează propuneri de cooperare, care să-l ghideze pe Cititorul Model în actul de actualizare a tuturor potențialităților textului, adică să-l determine să se manifeste din punct de vedere interpretativ la fel cum el însuși s-a manifestat din punct de vedere generativ [3, 87]. În această ordine de idei, R. Muller-Freienfels, distinge două categorii de receptori: „participantul” – un dionisiac, un afectiv, un spontan, care se solidarizează cu opera, identificându-se eroilor, bucurându-se ori întristându-se cu ei și „spectatorul” – un apolinic, un raționalist, un lucid, care urmărește opera ca un spectacol, fără

a-și pierde controlul critic al judecăților și sentimentelor (apud 1, 244). Ceva mai târziu, un alt teoretician al științei receptării, R. H. Jauss, referindu-se la clasificarea lui R. Muller-Freienfels, afirma că nu poate fi vorba nici de simpla transpunere într-o stare emoțională, nici de o reflexie totalmente detașată de ea, ci de o delimitare neîncetată a eului în raport cu experiența ficțională, ca distanțare proiectată pe tot parcursul receptării asupra tuturor variantelor de identificare emoțională [4, 250-259].

Dacă opera literară este o expresie esențializată a umanului, a ceea ce este mai profund, mai caracteristic și mai durabil în ființa umană, o receptare a acesteia impune o pedagogie a lecturii. Percepută cu un „eveniment al cunoașterii”, lectura este un act de educație și de formare, astfel încât cititorul trebuie să aibă conștiința că mesajul estetic al operei literare nu este numai traductibil, ci și transmisibil. Mai mulți cercetători în domeniu (T. Vianu, R. Ingarden, M. Dufrenne, S. Iosifescu, Paul Cornea) au subliniat importanța primului contact revelator cu opera de artă, când subiectul intră sub fascinația ei nemijlocită. Acest moment al „alunecării” consimțite și uneori neconștiente, după opinia lui Tudor Vianu, debutează într-o puternică excitație, printr-o ieșire din indiferență, printr-un brusc elan simpatetic. El poate interveni după o frază, după două pagini sau după cincizeci. Reacția e spontană, confuză, saturată de senzații organice. Are loc o distanțare din sfera intereselor practice imediate, cititorul evadează din timpul profan și din ambianța cotidiană. Pe parcursul lecturii, asemenea momente de fervoare pot reveni. Și chiar dacă lucrul nu se întâmplă, cititorul le păstrează memoria și nostalgia. În orice caz, regăsirea

stării de fericită contopire cu lumea ficțiunii, pe care unii o compară cu extazul, constituie un stimulent puternic al lecturii [7, 305]. Deci, dacă cititorul are un simț estetic dezvoltat, el știe să-și provoace plăcerea intelectuală pentru a-și crea confortul spiritual. Privind lucrurile astfel, arta de a citi este arta de a gândi și chiar mai mult: de a provoca realitatea pentru ca aceasta să-și dezvăluie esențele. „Sunt indivizi, subliniază Tudor Vianu, pentru care opera de artă trăiește mai mult prin conținutul ei, alții, pentru care ea există mai degrabă prin organizarea ei formală. Unii care se abandonează sentimentelor lor și, în fine, alții care formulează judecăți cu privire la structura operei sau emit aprecieri în legătură cu valoarea ei” [7, 351]. Astfel, după esteticianul român, există câteva etape/niveluri ale receptării. Primul nivel este unul al receptării sentimentale. Ceea ce notează cititorii în procesul de interpretare/receptare nu sunt nici aprecieri, nici judecăți cu privire la operă, ci numai sentimente din clasa sentimentelor reactive și dispoziționale. Ei sunt preocupați nu de opera însăși, ci de propriile reacții sentimentale, pe care ea le determină. Aceste trăiri însă, de regulă, nu sunt profunde. O emoție poate fi ușor înlocuită cu alta în urma unor noi impresii. Mai mult chiar. Ei nu-și pot raporta stările trăite în procesul de receptare a operei la o realitate concretă, pe ei nu-i interesează viziunea autorului asupra lumii pe care o creează în operă. Având un gust estetic primitiv, neevoluat, cititorii respectivi „povestesc” conținutul de idei al unei poezii cu iluzia că astfel a fost surprinsă și măiestria poetului, și valoarea artistică a operei. În cazul elevilor, de exemplu, la întrebarea profesorului de ce le-a plăcut/nu

le-a plăcut povestirea „Căprioara” de E. Gârleanu, ei reproduc fabula/ povestea desprinsă din text („Mi-a plăcut, pentru că se povestește despre o căprioară care voia să-și ducă puiul în vârful muntelui. Pe drum ea se întâlnește cu lupul, care o atacă. Până la urmă căprioara moare, iar puiul ei fuge”, „Nu mi-a plăcut povestea pentru că în finalul ei căprioara moare, iar puiul rămâne singur, fără protecția și ajutorul mamei”). După cum se vede și din exemplele aduse, ideile emise de elevi se rezumă, de multe ori, la „îmi place/nu-mi place”, „în viață așa ceva nu este posibil”, „e plictisitoare”, „n-am înțeles nimic” etc. Acești elevi reprezintă tipul receptorului naiv. Ținând cont de faptul dat, profesorul va evita întrebările/sarcinile de natură reproductivă/literală, care cer informații exacte despre cele prezentate în text, efort minim din partea elevului, de tipul: „Ce gândește căprioara despre puiul ei?”, „Unde vrea căprioara să-și ducă puiul?”, „Cu cine se întâlnește căprioara?”, „Ce întreprinde căprioara ca să-și salveze puiul” etc. Pentru început el poate utiliza întrebările *de traducere*, prin care se elucidează semnificația unor detalii, explicarea unor cuvinte, simboluri etc. (ex: „Exemplificați cu extrase din operă că mama-căprioara dorește să-și afle puiul în siguranță”, „Exemplificați cu versuri și relevați ideea poetică, ce ilustrează următoarele motive ale poeziei „Astăzi ne despărțim” de Ștefan Augustin Doinaș: geneza lumii, eterna reîntoarcere, trecerea timpului”, „Precizați cu ajutorul dicționarului explicativ sensurile cuvântului *dulce*. Ce semnificații îi atribuie acestuia autorul în versul „O, mamă, dulce mamă?”), întrebările/sarcinile *aplicative*, răspunsurile cărora cer o racordare a modalității de a

gândi logic la diferite situații din viața cotidiană (ex.: „Ce a determinat-o pe căprioara din povestirea lui E. Gârleanu să se comporte anume așa?”, „Cum ar proceda orice altă mamă, care își iubește copilul, în situația, în care viața lui e în pericol?”, „Cum calificați acest tip de comportament?”, „Raportați cazul căprioarei la unul din viața reală. Formulați concluziile de rigoare”) și ulterior întrebările *interpretative*, care cer descoperirea conexiunilor dintre idei, fapte, valori și necesitatea de a le argumenta (ex.: „Ce semnificații comportă versurile-refren ale poeziei?”, „Interpretați conotațiile versurilor *Tu vei fi azurul din mări/eu voi fi pământul cu toate păcatele*, raportându-le la mitul lui Uranus și al Geei”, „Comparați cele două părți ale „Scrisorii III” de M. Eminescu, relevând procedeul de organizare a lor. De ce autorul a optat pentru acest procedeu compozițional?” etc.)

Al doilea nivel, numit de Tudor Vianu intelectual-apreciativ/analitic-intelectual, iar în didactică și productiv, se caracterizează prin faptul că elevii demonstrează cunoștințe de interpretare a textului studiat, analizează, dezvăluie existența specificului unor judecăți, idei existente deja în critica literară, dar necunoscute de ei înșiși, se îndreaptă, de cele mai dese ori, spre acele elemente a căror perceptibilitate este obligatorie pentru înțelegerea semnificațiilor generale ale operei. Ei se pot identifica cu personajele, detaliază și aprofundează un aspect sau altul al operei. Având în vedere aceste caracteristici, profesorul va încuraja activitatea elevilor respectivi prin formularea unor sarcini/întrebări care să-i ajute a-și organiza intuițiile lor în comentarii unitare, să depășească fragmentarismul. Or, la această etapă asocierea senti-

mentului, a trăirilor elevilor cu diferenți factori intelectuali lasă încă de dorit. Se observă o orientare exagerată asupra aspectului formal al operei, fără intenția de a pătrunde forma interioară, nucleul ideatic existențial al operei. Percepută fragmentar, unilateral, opera nu poate să le producă acea trăire, ca treaptă intermediară necesară continuării și desăvârșirii procesului de receptare artistică. Întrebările/sarcinile cele mai eficiente sunt, în primul rând, cele *analitice*, care oferă posibilitatea de a cerceta în profunzime textul, de a-l examina din diferite unghiuri de vedere (ex.: „Comentați intenția poetului T. Arghezi de a se exprima în prima parte a poeziei „Testament” la persoana I plural („noi”), iar în partea a II-a – la persoana I singular”, „Demonstrați că poezia „Dintre sute de catarage” de M. Eminescu este o meditație”, „Relaționați povestirea „Căprioara” de E. Gârleanu cu „Moartea căprioarei” de N. Labiș. Pronunțați-vă asupra modului de relatare a istoriilor pentru care a optat fiecare din scriitori”). Întrucât momentul cognitiv al receptării artistice se realizează în două etape (prima este reprezentată de cunoașterea conținutului încorporat în forma literară, iar cea de-a doua o constituie cunoașterea realității modelate în conținutul specific al operei), în procesul de interpretare se insistă deci în mod deosebit asupra sarcinilor, menite a-i ajuta pe elevi să descopere această a doua realitate, creată de imaginația autorului (Ex.: „Lumea pe care o construiește G. Bacovia în poezia „Plumb” este conturată din câteva pete de culoare. Care este nuanța acestor pete cromatice? Ce lume/atmosferă/stări sugerează ele?”, „Ce realitate descoperă/crează G. Bacovia în poezia „Lacustră? Alegeți din variantele de răspuns propuse

și argumentați-vă opțiunea: a) o realitate care-l desființează ca om; b) o realitate care strivește orice inițiativă de a lua contact cu lumea; c) o realitate asemenea celei din timpul potopului; d) altă opinie”).

Evident, gândirea analitico-sintetică a elevilor, ca fază/ nivel a/al receptării, se formează în baza și în corespundere directă cu taxonomia lui Bloom, cu cele câteva nivele ale aptitudinilor cognitive formate (nivelul cunoștințelor, al înțelegerii, al aplicării, al analizei, al sintezei și al evaluării). Așadar, cât privește *etapa cunoștințelor*, exercițiile/sarcinile de lucru vizează: **rememorarea faptelor/evenimentelor/informației** în vederea determinării datelor cazului (ex: *Precizați cui aparține replica...*, *Recunoașteți în fragmentul dat procedeul literar folosit pentru realizarea tensiunii interioare a personajului*, *Recunoașteți procedeul de compoziție utilizat de scriitor în opera sa*; *Precizați care dintre personajele romanului Patul lui Procust susțin fiecare dintre temele următoare: politica, iubirea, intelectul și artistul, proprietatea burgheză*; *Prezentați evoluția relațiilor dintre Emilia și Ladima/Fred Vasilescu – dna T*), **localizarea/identificarea problemei** (*Completați, conform opiniei personale, spațiile libere din replicile de pe fișe, apoi reconstituiți, pe baza textului, aceste replici ale personajelor. Comparați variantele voastre cu cele ale autorului*; *Cu ce problemă se confruntă personajul? Ce declanșează problema/conflictul interior al personajului, îl dezechilibrează? De ce natură este problema dată? Cine dintre personajele studiate și în ce condiții/circumstanțe s-a mai confruntat cu o astfel de problemă?*), **organizarea informației** (*Alcătuți pe baza roma-*

nului biografia lui Ladima, având ca repere: categoria socială din care face parte, ocupația, portretul fizic/moral; Alcătuiți un portret al lui Ladima ținând cont de opiniile exprimate de alte personaje; Creați o schiță de portret al personajului Ladima așa cum reiese aceasta din comportamentul și din scrisorile lui), **cercetarea** (Justificați cu referințe la text condiția de copil răsfățat și needucat al dlui Goe/de personaj inadaptat a lui Gheorghidiu), **descrierea** (Descrieți o eventuală schimbare a unui om în momentul îndrăgostirii; Ce caracteristici și ipostaze ale îndrăgostitului desprindeți din opera...?), **evidențierea secvențelor** (Ce episoade din text veți selecta pentru a turna un film după această operă? Care sunt aspectele problemei cu care se confruntă personajul?), **distincția dintre faptă și opinie** (Întocmiți un dosar al comportamentului/acțiunilor personajului Goe/Ștefan Gheorghidiu și o fișă a opiniilor acestora sau ale altora despre el privind...).

Etapă înțelegerii presupune un șir de sarcini/strategii de lucru care trebuie să-l includă pe elev în următoarele activități: **rezumare** (Povestiți în maximum 10 fraze povestea desprinsă din nuvela Alexandru Lăpușeanul, Relatați întâmplarea care strică echilibrul inițial/episodul ce constituie punctul culminant/deznodământul operei; Prezentați informația principală din fragment/operă în formă de piramidă: numele personajului, ocupația lui, trei caracteristici, comportamentul manifestat într-o situație concretă, problema cu care se confruntă, felul în care soluționează problema), **aplicare** (Găsiți în operă argumente pro și contra în ceea ce privește vina ce o poartă personajul Goe/Gheorghidiu pentru...; Comparați-i pe Ștefan și Ela

din punctul de vedere al posibilității de a reface cuplul conjugal), **abstractizare** (Există în scara alternativelor personajului Ladima posibilitatea de a ieși din impas, de a renunța la sinucidere?), **transformare** (Dacă ați avea posibilitatea să modificați ceva în operă, ce anume veți modifica? Ce episod considerați că ar putea fi omis din operă; Ce modificări ar suferi personajul, dacă veți avea posibilitate să-l creați după bunul vostru plac? Cum ați vrea să se termine opera?), **decodificare** (Ce conotații comportă vânătoarea descrisă în balada Mistrețul cu colț de argint?; Ce semnificație comportă titlul romanului Patul lui Procust? Alegeți din variantele propuse: a) iubirea e supusă patului lui Procust; b) societatea e un Procust al lui Ladima; c) Ladima este un Procust pentru societatea sa; d) existența unei limitări se măsoară cu patul lui Procust).

Etapă aplicării, incluzând mai multe operații, denotă capacitatea elevului de a analiza faptele și problema, de a interpreta, a investiga, a clasifica și de a formula anumite concepte. Astfel, în procesul studierii textului artistic, elevii, la această etapă de lucru, sunt solicitați să analizeze comportamentul personajelor, anumite circumstanțe în care acționează sau care le determină să ia o decizie ori să se comporte într-un anumit mod, relațiile dintre personaje, diverse atitudini umane etc. (Analizați comportamentul dlui Goe și raportați-l la un anumit tip de comportament: demn de urmat, satisfăcător, condamnat etc.; Analizați cele două atitudini – a tatălui și a fiului – față de uciderea căprioarei; Analizați relațiile dintre profesoara de literatură și Doc, între profesoară și elevii clasei, stabilind dacă acestea

sunt de prietenie, de rivalitate, de superioritate, de egalitate ori de nesupunere; Analizați destinul mănăstirii de la Trei Izvoare (Toiagul păstoriei) și raportați-l la unul bun, strălucitor, teribil etc.), să interpreteze (Cum explicați gestul lui Ștefan Gheorghidiu de a aduce în patul conjugal o cocotă? Comentați faptul că o parte din săteni (Toiagul păstoriei) „zăboveau o clipă la portița ciobanului, se chiorau la gospodăria lui”, iar alții „năzuiau că poate vor fi poștiți să intre în ogradă”; Cum interpretați faptul că satul îl considera pe cioban un sfânt și în același timp îl numea un prostănac, un chiabur, un dușman de clasă?). Investigarea faptelor, clasificarea informației sunt pe cât de importante, pe atât de necesare în procesul de formare a gândirii analitice/critice a elevului. Iată de ce formularea sarcinilor tip-investigare cu diferite grade de complexitate trebuie să fie o prezență obligatorie în procesul de studiere a operei literare. Această activitate de investigație urmărește, de fapt, elaborarea/găsirea în textul artistic a argumentelor necesare pentru a susține ori a combate un punct de vedere – propriu sau al altora (Susțineți cu argumente din operă că vestea despre mutarea diviziei lui Apostol Bologa pe frontul din Ardeal schimbă definitiv concepția acestui personaj despre datoria de cetățean; Găsiți argumente care să probeze ideea că acțiunea muzelei se desfășoară într-o cronologie lineară și este subordonată relației cauză – efect; Susțineți ori combateți spusele lui Ilie Moromete rostite pe patul de moarte: „...eu totdeauna am dus o viață independentă”).

Etapa analizei, una destul de complexă, presupune operații de **gândire asociativă** (Putea Nicolai Trofi-

movici Balta, ca reprezentant al puterii, să-și schimbe ideile, convingerile și să-l ajute pe Horia în munca de salvare a Clopotniței? Supuneți unei analize comparative personajul biblic (samariteanca) și cel druțian din nulela omonimă; Ce a împrumutat personajul druțian de la prototipul său? De care alte personaje vă aduce aminte Vitoria Lipan?), **creativă** (În rol de jurnaliști care ați asistat la execuția lui Svoboda, precum și la ulterioarele discuții ale ofițerilor pe marginea acestui caz, pregătiți/scrieți un comunicat de presă pe marginea cazului și a discuțiilor respective; Pornind de la intriga piesei, alcătuiți o compoziție dramatică) și **imaginativă** (Cum s-ar fi constituit destinul lui Ion dacă s-ar fi căsătorit chiar din capul locului cu Florica/al Anei dacă s-ar fi căsătorit cu George?), **de simulare** (Cum veți proceda voi în locul lui Ion/Ștefan Gheorghidiu, ținând cont de statutul social, de stările, sentimentele, relațiile personajului cu alții? Motivați. Ce fapte ale acestui personaj le veți putea „săvârși”/juca mai ușor/măi greu din punct de vedere psihologic? Ce replici le veți putea rosti măi ușor/măi greu din acest punct de vedere? Cum se racordează situația jucată/comportamentul personajului la normele în vigoare în domeniul legal/la valorile generalumane? De ce a depins luarea unei hotărâri/decizii pe marginea cazului? De ce ați tratat în modul respectiv situația, personajul? Ce alte soluții ale problemei date pot fi?).

Luarea unor decizii, sintetizarea informației și a argumentelor, formularea ipotezei rezonabile, enunțarea concluziilor vizează nivelul sintezei. Deci regruparea faptelor, structurarea lor într-un ansamblu coerent sunt po-

sibile doar în cazul în care profesorul va formula și sarcinile respective: *Formulați-vă punctul de vedere final cu privire la tipul uman pe care-l reprezintă personajul; Formulați în ce constă sensul vieții lui Ilie Moromete luând ca reper următoarea afirmație: „Tot am făcut ceva...”*; Pornind de la memorabila frază din Grand Hôtel „Victoria Română” „*sint enorm și văd monstruos, nu mai pot privi, dar tot ascult*”, precum și de la argumentele expuse și auzite de voi, precizați vizuirea caragialiană asupra spectacolului lumii; Având în vedere argumentele aduse, formulați o concluzie cu privire la relația personajului Hagi Tudose cu lumea și cu sine însuși.

Cât privește ultima etapă, cea a evaluării, aceasta urmărește **criticarea, argumentarea deductivă, enunțarea concluziilor garantate, compararea deciziilor cu rezolvarea cazului** (*Ce i-ați reproșa personajului/scriitorului – autor al operei? În ce măsură decizia personală inițială coincide cu cea finală? Ce a contribuit la schimbarea acesteia? Ce ați învățat din experiența trăită de personaj? În ce măsură argumentele voastre coincid cu cele ale autorului operei/ale criticilor literari/ale colegilor? În ce măsură concluzia finală satisface convingerile voastre?* etc.

Nivelul superior al receptării operei artistice este cel sintetic-estetic, numit și creativ, conform căruia elevii sunt capabili să rezolve operații logice și probleme complicate, să observe structuri și să opereze cu noțiuni abstracte, să decodifice ambiguitățile textului literar, să emită și să formuleze judecăți de valoare, să înțeleagă jocul special al motivelor cauzalității artistice specifice, să explice de ce poetul a utilizat un anumit vocabular,

de ce a făcut să alterneze anumite personaje, care a fost rolul anumitor contraste pe care el le-a creat etc. Desigur, unele dintre judecățile formulate pot fi obiective, altele – subiective sau de preferință. Ei pot afirma, de pildă, că romanul „Frații Jderi” de M. Sadoveanu este superior operei „Neamul șoimăreștilor”, făcând totuși rezerva că îl preferă pe acesta din urmă. Astfel, pentru a formula judecata respectivă este necesar a se face în prealabil un raționament de valorizare a fiecărei din cele două opere sadoveniene, a se stabili anumite analogii și deosebiri, care, la rândul lor, vor da naștere unor judecăți de motivație. Tocmai acest fapt trebuie să-l ia în considerație profesorul. Or, întrebările *sintetice*, adresate elevilor, încurajază rezolvarea creativă, nestandard a problemelor. Elevii, pentru a răspunde la întrebările sintetice, fac apel la cunoștințele pe care le au, la experiența lor de viață și estetică, oferă scenarii de alternativă. Întrebările respective îi ajută să se implice personal, să propună o soluție, fără s-o aibă de-a gata (Ex.: „Cum s-ar fi constituit destinul lui Ion, protagonistul romanului „Ion” de L. Rebreanu, dacă: a) s-ar fi căsătorit din capul locului cu Florica; b) Vasile Baciuc i-ar fi dat toate pământurile imediat după nuntă?”, „Există oare în scara alternativelor personajului Ana posibilitatea de a ieși din impas, de a renunța la sinucidere? Argumentați”, „Ce schimbări veți face în finalul romanului „Ion”, dacă ați avea această posibilitate? Cum motivați?”). Subliniem că elevii care se caracterizează printr-un nivel creativ de receptare a textului artistic studiat vor propune soluții la sarcinile formulate mai sus, ținând cont de logica construirii personajului, de circum-

stanțele în care el activează și trăiește, de relațiile lui cu lumea operei, de psihologia lui etc. Practica școlară demonstrează că, de regulă, ei acceptă variantele scriitorului (spre deosebire de colegii lor aflați la nivelul receptării sentimentale, care, conduși de emoții, nefiind capabili să înțeleagă logica construirii personajului, îl lasă în viață pe Ion sau chiar îl căsătoresc până la urmă cu Florica), dar nu pur și simplu, ci din motive bine întemeiate. Așadar, adoptând o atitudine intelectuală în fața operei de artă, elevii fac aprecieri asupra ei. Întrebările *evaluative*, care sunt o componentă necesară a unui demers interpretativ școlar, tocmai îi ajută să dea anumite calificative. Următoarea sarcină, propusă de profesor, „Susțineți ori combateți cu argumente afirmația criticului literar Paul Cornea conform căreia „A. Russo este, pe de o parte, un liric pur, interiorizat, grav, melancolic; pe de alta, un observator filozof”, necesită din partea elevilor nu numai formularea unui punct de vedere („sunt de acord”, „nu sunt de acord”, „sunt de acord parțial cu afirmația respectivă”), ci și găsirea unor argumente apelând la cunoștințele acumulate pe parcursul studierii operei scriitorului „Cântarea României”. Această apreciere a elevului vizavi de autorul operei poate fi considerată ca o concluzie finală a procesului de receptare a operei literare.

Revenind la considerațiile lui Tudor Vianu, subliniem că în viziunea cercetătorului, etapa a treia a receptării, „analitico-sintetică, este în parte contemporană cu cea de-a doua, analitico-intelectuală, dar în parte contemporană cu impresia finală în care procesul de receptare culminează” [7, 424-427]. O interpretare corectă și coerentă a operei literare/de

artă nu poate ignora triada autor-text-cititor. Lectura este actualizarea textului, în sensul de scoatere a lui din letargie și activizare prin intermediul cititorului (sau a cititorului specializat, critic, istoric literar sau scriitor). Textul deplin conține atât intenția autorului, adesea voalată în spațiul dintre cuvinte, în ceea ce nu spune pentru că ignoră el însuși sau pentru că nu poate spune, dar și potențialele experiențe ale cititorului de oriunde și de oricând, care face conexiuni între acest text și experiența lui de cititor, dar și experiența lui de viață într-un sens larg. Or „orice text are o funcție, traduce o intenție, vizează un efect, include niște presupoziii” [1, 24], „ajunge să trăiască numai atunci când e citit, de aceea trebuie examinat prin ochii cititorului” [5, 227]. Revenind la teoria receptării a lui Jauss, și, în special, la problema identificării cititorului cu personajele operei, pe care o abordează și Paul Cornea în studiul său, subliniem că savantul german oferă cinci modele de interacțiune a acestora: asociativ (preluarea unui rol în universul imaginar închis al unui act ludic), admirativ (emularea cu un personaj întruchipând perfecțiunea în ordinea înțelepciunii, frumuseții, sfințeniei etc.), simpatetic (autotranspunerea în non-eu și solidarizarea cu eroul în suferință), kathartic (transpunerea spectatorului din universul său pragmatic în situația eroului, pentru ca, prin comoție tragică ori satisfacție comică, să obțină purificarea propriilor pasiuni), ironic (refuzarea identificării, fie pentru a demonstra esența trivială a eroului, fie pentru a demasca procedeele înseși ale solemnizării eroice) [4, 264]. Problema relației cititor-opă a fost abordată și de Ion Coteanu [2] din perspectiva conceptului „dedublare”, care, în

viziunea autorului, înseamnă luciditate – o constantă luare de poziție de tipul „Care e semnificația sensului pentru mine?”. Considerând că, în actul lecturii, transpunerea alternează cu opinia critică, uitarea de sine cu conștiința de sine, reprezentarea personajelor și situațiilor cu fluxul nepuizabil al imaginilor și asociațiilor, care comentează în mintea noastră, dar independent de noi, lumea universului ficțional, I. Coteanu, de fapt, recunoaște interacțiunea dintre comprehensiune și receptare. În această ordine de idei, Paul Cornea subliniază: „Prima lectură poate fi puternic înrăutățită de factori aleatorii: de faptul că-l simpatizez ori îl detest pe autor, că sunt bine sau rău dispus, că pe parcursul performării survin incidente neprevăzute etc. E însă posibilă o a doua lectură și o a treia, e mai ales posibilă o analiză metodică și scrupuloasă – interpretarea – spre a înlătura ceea ce e circumstanțial, ceea ce mi-a scăpat sau am înțeles greșit în cursul primei lecturi, din cauza stărilor umorale, a emotivității, a prejudecăților, a orientărilor prelecturii. Mai e cu puțință, iarăși, să-mi reîmprospătez la nevoie memoria sensului, prin reluarea textului, corijându-mi lacunele ori deformările produse de uitare. Perfectibili-

tatea comprehensiunii și recursul la verificare constituie mari șanse nu numai pentru reușita comunicării interpersonale, ci, în genere, pentru fundarea și progresul cunoașterii, în toate domeniile. Rămâne să exploatăm aceste șanse în mod rezonabil. Dar asta înseamnă că trebuie să condiționăm receptarea de comprehensiune și nu invers, cum, din păcate, se întâmplă obișnuit” [1, 245-246].

Prin urmare, spre a recepta adecvat o operă de artă, contemplatorul ei, în cazul nostru elevul, trebuie să se plaseze în punctul de vedere al artistului, să pătrundă în procesul de formare a operei, să intre în dialog fructuos cu textul. Deoarece modalitatea principală a activității în cadrul receptării o constituie interpretarea, care dă întotdeauna percepției o notă personală, în dependență, în primul rând, de calitățile interpretului ca personalitate, profesorului nu-i rămâne decât să-l ajute pe elev să realizeze cu succes această intenție, acceptându-l nu ca un element de referință pasiv, nu ca un simplu beneficiar al ofertei de informație estetică, ci ca partener de discuție, care își va aduce contribuția sa în investiția comună de măiestrie, talent și libertate.

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ANALIZA PARTITURII CORALE – ELEMENT AL FAZEI PRIMARE ÎN STUDIUL PERSONAL AL DIRIJORULUI

ANALYSIS OF CHORAL MUSIC SCORE – ELEMENT OF PRIMARY PHASE IN THE PERSONAL STUDY OF THE CONDUCTOR

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Abstract: *The article refers to one of the most important phases of individual study of choral music – analysis of choral score. The authors give a Plan which can help students in elaborating such analysis. The beginners of choral art will find some guidelines regarding the modalities of drawing up of choral music score analysis.*

Keywords: *score analysis, choir, choral music score, musical language, performing.*

Disciplina *dirijat coral* se regăsește în aria curriculară de specialitate a domeniului artei corale atât în instituțiile universitare cât, și în cele pre-universitare de profil. Una din competențele specifice ale disciplinei vizează formarea la elevi a abilităților de analiză a partiturilor corale, care se realizează și prin elaborarea acesteia ca cercetare în scris.

Procesul de studiere a partiturii corale decurge în faze consecutive, care includ studiul personal al dirijorului, cât și studierea acesteia cu corul. Una din etapele studiului personal este elaborarea în scris a analizei partiturii, care se prezintă ca activitate intelectuală necesară și obligatorie a dirijorului. Este un proces în cadrul căruia dirijorul reflectează asupra aspectelor muzical-literare, tehnice, vocal-corale, de interpretare a partiturii, formându-și reprezentări proprii de creare a modelului sonor.

Pentru a eficientiza activitatea elevilor în realizarea analizei partiturii corale, propunem un reper metodologic sub forma unui plan structurat. Compartimentele planului vor fi însușite de fiecare elev în funcție de nivelul comprehensiv individual.

Planul analizei partiturii corale

Prezentare istorico-estetică

1. Identificarea creației:
 - denumirea corectă și completă;
 - clasificarea după gen (miniatură, prelucrare/ creație originală, parte componentă a formelor mari ca missă/ requiem, cantată, oratoriu, cor/fragment din operă etc.);
 - clasificarea după tip (a cappella, creație cu acompaniament).
2. Portretul de creație al compozitorului:
 - elemente biografice;
 - apartenență de epocă și stil;
 - creațiile fundamentale.

3. Scurtă caracteristică a creației poetului.
4. Analiza textului literar:
 - conținutul (traducerea textului la necesitate);
 - extragerea ideii și sensului general al imaginii poetice;
5. Istoria creării creației.

Investigarea elementelor de structură și limbaj muzical

1. Forma și particularități de structură:
 - apartenența la forme mari sau mici;
 - structurarea formei conform frazelor, perioadelor, etc.;
 - reprezentarea schematică a formei.
2. Melodia și particularitățile intonaționale:
 - caracteristica expunerii liniei melodice;
 - specificul intonațional al melodiei.
3. Reprezentarea metro-ritmică:
 - stabilirea și caracteristica măsurii sau măsurilor;
 - determinarea elementelor de ritm și formulelor ritmice specifice.
4. Tempoul și modificările de tempo (agogica);
 - apartenența la grupurile lente, moderate, rapide de tempo;
 - indicația metronomului;
 - traducerea exactă a termenilor ce se referă la mișcare;
 - constatarea și argumentarea modificărilor agogice.
5. Planul tonal și modal al creației:
 - determinarea tonalității de bază;
 - precizarea inflexiunilor și modulațiilor.

6. Caracteristicile limbajului armonic:
 - stabilirea planului armonic;
 - evidențierea înlănțuirilor specifice.
7. Dinamica muzicală:
 - traducerea și definirea termenilor dinamici;
 - identificarea planului dinamic al creației;
 - valorificarea dinamicii muzicale în redarea mesajului artistic.
8. Factura muzicală și evidențierea temelor:
 - determinarea tipului de factură (omofonică, omofono-armonică, armonică, polifonică etc.);
 - descrierea expunerii temei.
9. Valorificarea rolului acompaniamentului.
10. Raportul și relația dintre textul muzical și cel poetic:

Studierea compartimentului vocal-coral și metode de depășire a dificultăților

1. Tipul de cor:
 - nominalizarea tipului de cor (omogen, de copii, mixt etc.);
 - componența corului (2 voci, 3 voci, etc., desemnarea diviziilor);
2. Diapazonul și tesitura:
 - constatarea diapazonului fiecărei voci;
 - constatarea diapazonului corului în întregime;
 - definirea tesiturii și constatarea problemelor legate de ea.
3. Respirația și dicția:
 - stabilirea tipului de respirație (individuală, înlănțuită, comună, pe grupe);
 - stabilirea dificultăților legate de dicție și depășirea lor.

4. Caracterul sunetului vocal:
 - precizarea hașurilor;
 - modalitatea de atac al sunetului în funcție de caracterul sonor.
5. Ansamblul coral și echilibrul sonor:
 - crearea ansamblului în funcție de expunerea facturii partiturii corale (ansamblu în unison, metro-ritmic, melodic, timbral, armonic dinamic);
 - crearea ansamblului în funcție de tesitură (natural și artificial);
 - crearea echilibrului sonor în funcție de raportul cor-acompaniament, solo-cor, solo-cora-companiament ș.a.
6. Intonația și acordajul coral:
 - identificarea greutăților de intonație în funcție de susținerea respirației, emisia sunetelor, execuția sunetelor repetate, intonarea sunetelor alterate și cromatismelor precum și a intervalelor mărite și micșorate.
7. Alte probleme definite în partitură.
 - determinarea salturilor în interiorul partițiilor;
 - identificarea greutăților de acordare „pe verticală”.

Determinarea planului interpretativ

1. Frazarea în funcție de desfășurarea textului muzical-literar.
2. Stabilirea culminațiilor particulare și generale.
3. Măsura și reprezentarea ei în schema de tactare.
4. Caracterul gestului dirijoral și procedee de dirijare:
 - descrierea gestului dirijoral conform hașurii și caracterului frazelor muzicale;
 - stabilirea tipurilor de auctate, încheieri;
 - identificarea procedeelor artistice de dirijat (sincope, fermata, accente, structuri metro-ritmice specifice, sforzando, etc.)

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LECTURA EXPLICATIVĂ, MODALITATE DE RECEPTARE A TEXTULUI DE CĂTRE STUDENȚII STRĂINI ÎN PROCESUL STUDIERII LIMBII ROMÂNE

EXPLANATORY READING, A MODALITY OF RECEPTION OF THE TEXT BY FOREIGN STUDENTS IN THE ROMANIAN LANGUAGE LEARNING PROCESS

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Abstract: *The article refers to the explanatory reading as a modality of reception of the text by foreign students in the Romanian language learning process. The author presents the algorithm of the explanatory reading – (1) full or fragmented reading of the text; (2) new words identification and explanation; (3) main ideas identification and the plan of the text; (4) the main meaning of the text– and proposes different exercises that can be used in the process of working with the text.*

Keywords: *competence, reading competence, explanatory reading, vocabulary, logical unit, main idea, plan of the text.*

Lectura explicativă este un complex de metode utilizate, cel mai des, probabil, în receptarea textelor, asigurând profesorilor un cadru optim de dezvoltare a competenței lectorale la studenții străini care învață limba română. Acest tip de lectură include conversația, explicația, demonstrația, povestirea, jocul de rol etc., urmărind „citirea textului în vederea înțelegerii lui” [3]. Studenții sunt puși în situația de a descoperi ei înșiși ideile textului pe care îl citesc, de a formula concluzii personale, de a decodat sentimentele și trăirile pe care le transmit textul. Conform studiilor de specialitate, acest tip de lectură trebuie înțeles, în primul rând, „ca o explicație de gradul I, care constituie un prim nivel al studiului textului. Ea constă în explicarea și înțelegerea textului în literaritatea lui, aceasta presupunând contactul cu opera literară (fie prin lectura model a profesorului, fie prin lectu-

ra prealabilă a textului de către elev, lectură care asigură perceperea globală a textului supus investigației), explicarea cuvintelor și expresiilor (fie de către profesor, fie de către elevi cu ajutorul dicționarelor). Ea constituie condiția prealabilă a activității de comentare și interpretare a textului” [2; 53]. În alt sens, întâlnit în special în studii franceze, explicarea de text este egală cu analiza literară.

În cele ce urmează, vom studia conceptul de lectură explicativă raportându-ne la primul sens pe care l-am menționat. Este vorba de citirea integrală sau pe fragmente a textului, însoțită de explicarea unor termeni și sintagme, cu extragerea și formularea ideilor principale.

În procesul de studiere a limbii române de către studenții străini, acest tip de lectură are un rol deosebit în perioada incipientă de formare a competenței lectorale. Este vorba de „etapa

receptivă”, când cititorul „își formează deprinderi de citire corectă, își îmbogățește vocabularul și își însușește limbajul ca mijloc de comunicare” [1; 156]. Tehnicile de lucru utilizate la această etapă sunt explicarea și înțelegerea literalmente a textului, preceperea globală a textului supus investigației, explicarea cuvintelor și expresiilor. În articolul *Tehnici de antrenament al lecturii*, Liuba Oblejan enumeră mai multe modalități de lucru cu textul la etapa formării competenței lectorale incipiente: analiza vocabularului (identificarea titlului și a autorului, exploatarea titlului, folosirea cuvintelor-cheie, îmbogățirea vocabularului pe parcursul lecturii); lectura selectivă (deducerea sensului unui cuvânt compus, atragerea atenției asupra cuvintelor polisemantice); lectura de înțelegere a textului (lectura „model”, lectura în gând/independentă, formularea sau răspunsul la întrebări, lectura selectivă, revenirea/recitirea, lectura reflexivă, lectura în lanț, lectura repetată, lectura-ecou, lectura pe roluri etc.) [4; 162-163].

Algoritmul lecturii explicative se constituie din următorii pași de bază: (1) lectura (integrală sau pe fragmente) a textului; (2) identificarea și explicarea cuvintelor noi, integrarea acestora în enunțuri proprii; (3) identificarea ideilor principale și alcătuirea planului de idei; (4) desprinderea mesajului lecturii.

(1) Lectura textului se realizează prin citirea integrală model (efectuată fie de profesor, fie de studenții care au deprinderi de lectură corectă și expresivă) sau prin citirea pe fragmente (care impune ca activitate prealabilă identificarea unităților logice, iar aceasta se face de la început, motivat, de către profesor, apoi de către profesor și stu-

denți, pentru ca, în final, studenții să fie ei înșiși capabili să desprindă aceste unități). Dacă la nivelurile începătoare de studiere a limbii mai potrivită este lectura integrală a textului de către profesor, odată cu avansarea în procesul de învățare, modalitățile de primă lectură a textului pot fi diversificate, implicând capacitatea cursanților de a urmări și reconstitui un discurs coerent. De exemplu:

a) Reconstituirea textului din fragmente citite separat. Profesorul împarte în prealabil textul în fragmente (e bine ca un fragment să corespundă unei unități logice, astfel acestea vor putea fi utilizate și la etapa identificării ideilor principale). Fiecare fragment e scris pe o fișă aparte. Studenții vor lucra în grupuri de câte 3-4. Fiecare grup va primi câte un set de fișe cu fragmentele (amestecate) ce alcătuiesc textul, având sarcina să reconstituie textul, aranjând fragmentele în ordinea corectă. Totodată, înainte de a începe acest exercițiu, profesorul poate formula o sarcină didactică prin care să vizeze un anumit aspect al textului citit (să stabilească tema textului, să găsească 3-4 cuvinte-cheie etc.). Prin această sarcină, s-ar putea da un indiciu sau o sugestie în ceea ce privește consecutivitatea fragmentelor. După ce studenții realizează sarcina de reconstituire, se compară textele obținute; fiecare grup argumentează ordinea aleasă. Textul restabilit corect poate fi citit în glas, în lanț, de mai mulți studenți.

b) Completarea textului cu fraza lipsă. Profesorul pregătește din timp pe fișe de lucru textul care urmează să fie citit, scoțând într-o coloană separată unele fraze din text și lăsând spații libere numerotate în locul acestora:

1 _____ Text texttexttext
2 _____ Text texttexttexttext
3 _____ Text texttext 4 _____ Text
texttexttext 5 _____

- A Frază lipsă în text
- B Frază lipsă în text
- C Frază lipsă în text
- D Frază lipsă în text
- E Frază lipsă în text.

Studentii, lucrând individual sau perechi, trebuie să completeze spațiile goale din text cu frazele plasate mai jos de text și să scrie litera din dreptul frazei în spațiul corespunzător. Profesorul poate să pună cu o frază mai mult decât numărul de spații goale, atenționând studenții că o frază este de prisos. După ce se completează textele, se verifică variantele obținute, studenții argumentându-și opțiunea. În cele din urmă, textul poate fi citit integral. Realizând astfel de exerciții, studenții se vor obișnui să acorde atenție coerenței unui text, să urmărească legătura dintre idei.

(2) Identificarea și explicarea cuvintelor noi, integrarea acestora în enunțuri proprii. Explicarea cuvintelor necunoscute este o componentă a studiului textului, fără clarificarea sensului propriu și figurat al termenilor și expresiilor nefiind posibilă înțelegerea și comentarea textului. Această activitate constituie și un prilej de a îmbogăți vocabularul și implicit sfera de cunoștințe și reprezentări ale studenților. În explicarea cuvintelor și expresiilor necunoscute trebuie să se țină seama de câțiva factori: numărul și importanța lor pentru înțelegerea textului; activizarea studenților în procesul de explicare (prin utilizarea dicționarelor, prin sinonime sau antonime etc.); introducerea cuvintelor și expresiilor în vocabularul activ al studenților; înțelegerea valențelor

expresive ale cuvintelor și expresiilor în context, a funcției conotative a limbajului.

În funcție de numărul și importanța cuvintelor necunoscute în cadrul textului, acestea se explică fie în timpul activităților pregătitoare, fie ca urmare a lecturii pe fragmente. Dacă lucrul cu cuvintele noi are loc la etapa pregătitoare, e important ca aceste cuvinte să fie notate pe tablă de profesor și în caiete de către studenți pentru ca aceștia din urmă să le perceapă grafic și auditiv. Explicațiile se dau fie de către profesor, fie de către studenți ajutați de profesor.

În cazul explicării cuvintelor ca urmare a lecturii pe fragmente, e bine ca toate cuvintele noi să fie evidențiate/subliniate în fișele ce conțin aceste fragmente. Explicarea lor se poate face prin utilizarea glosarelor pregătite din timp de către profesor. Se pot utiliza variat două tipuri de glosare:

a) *glosarul complet* – este dat cuvântul nou și definiția acestuia:

cuvânt nou – definiție;

cuvânt nou – definiție;

cuvânt nou – definiție;

b) *glosarul incomplet* – se dă doar definiția, iar studenții trebuie să găsească în text (printre cuvintele evidențiate) cuvântul explicat:

_____ – definiție;

_____ – definiție;

_____ – definiție.

Profesorul va decide în ce tip de glosar va include cuvântul nou în funcție de dificultatea acestuia. Totodată, unele cuvinte noi pot să nu fie incluse în glosare, studenților propunându-li-se să deducă sensul acestora din context.

Introducerea cuvintelor și expresiilor în vocabularul activ al studenților presupune organizarea unor exer-

ciții adecvate care să-i stimuleze pe aceștia în construirea de texte cu cuvintele și expresiile nou-învățate. Este necesară însă o tratare diferențială a cuvintelor și expresiilor, în funcție de locul lor în vocabularul limbii române și de expresivitate. Se pot utiliza diferite tipuri de exerciții ce urmăresc însușirea cuvintelor și expresiilor noi. Iată câteva exemple:

a) *Completează fiecare propoziție alegând cuvântul potrivit din boxă:*

| | | |
|------------|------------|------------|
| cuvânt nou | cuvânt nou | cuvânt nou |
| cuvânt nou | cuvânt nou | cuvânt nou |

1. _____ propoziție de completat.
2. Propoziție de completat _____.
3. Propoziție de completat _____ propoziție de completat.

b) *Încercuiește cuvântul potrivit:*

1. _____ Propoziție
propozițiepropozițiecuvânt nou/
cuvânt nou.

prima jumătate a expresiei
prima jumătate a expresiei
prima jumătate a expresiei

O modalitate uzuală de verificare a înțelegerii și însușirii cuvintelor noi este utilizarea acestora în enunțuri alcătuite de către studenți. În explicarea cuvintelor necunoscute este necesar să se țină seama de faptul că „valoarea *denotativă* a vocabularului nu are o realitate independentă de valoarea lui *conotativă* dată de context, de faptul că vocabularul nu ne interesează în studiul textului literar decât în măsura în care poate ajuta la înțelegerea literară a textului” [2; 59-60]. Sensul indirect al cuvintelor trebuie explicat printr-o discuție, profesorul aducând exemple de diferite contexte de utilizare a acestor lexeme cu valoare conotativă.

2. *Cuvânt nou/cuvânt nou*propoziție propozițiepropoziție.

3. Propoziție propozițiecuvânt nou/cuvânt noupropoziție propoziție.

c) *Unește fiecare cuvânt cu sinonimul/antonimul lui* (ordinea sinonimelor/antonimelor nu trebuie să coincidă cu ordinea cuvintelor noi):

| | |
|-------------------|---------|
| <i>cuvânt nou</i> | sinonim |
| <i>cuvânt nou</i> | sinonim |
| <i>cuvânt nou</i> | sinonim |
| <i>cuvânt nou</i> | sinonim |

| | |
|-------------------|---------|
| <i>cuvânt nou</i> | antonim |
| <i>cuvânt nou</i> | antonim |
| <i>cuvânt nou</i> | antonim |
| <i>cuvânt nou</i> | antonim |

d) Atunci când se învață expresii frazeologice noi sau proverbe/zicători, studenților li se poate propune să unească jumătățile expresiilor:

a doua jumătate a expresiei
a doua jumătate a expresiei
a doua jumătate a expresiei

(3) Identificarea ideilor principale și alcătuirea planului de idei.

Această etapă a lecturii explicative se poate realiza utilizându-se fragmentele de text propuse pentru prima lectură. Studenții vor reciti succesiv aceste fragmente și vor încerca să identifice ideea principală pentru fiecare unitate logică. Se pot utiliza diferite modalități de identificare a ideilor principale:

- profesorul formulează câte 2-3 întrebări pentru fiecare unitate logică, iar studenții deduc ideea principală răspunzând la aceste întrebări;
- studenților li se propune mai întâi să identifice cuvintele-cheie pentru fiecare unitate logică,

apoi, cu ajutorul profesorului, ei formulează ideile principale;

- profesorul pregătește din timp câte trei variante de idei principale pentru fiecare unitate logică; lucrând în grup, studenții trebuie să aleagă ideea adecvată și să-și argumenteze alegerea.

După ce este formulată ideea principală pentru fiecare unitate logică, se alcătuiește planul de idei al textului. Conform acestui plan, studenții vor povesti textul, formându-și deprinderi de expunere coerentă a unui discurs în limba română.

(4) Desprinderea mesajului lecturii se face prin realizarea unei conversații generalizatoare. Înainte de această conversație, se poate verifica nivelul de înțelegere a textului citit prin utilizarea exercițiilor de tipul *adevărat – fals*. Pentru fiecare unitate logică, studenților li se propun 1-2 afirmații, aceștia având sarcina de a indica în dreptul fiecărei afirmații litera A (adevărat) sau F (fals). Fiecare alegere trebuie să fie argumentată cu referire la text. Prin acest exercițiu,

se inițiază, de fapt, conversația generalizatoare. Capacitatea de sinteză poate fi stimulată prin folosirea *metodei ciorchinelui*, care evidențiază conexiunile dintre ideile prezentate, stabilește noi asociații între acestea și dezvoltă noi semnificații.

În concluzie, putem afirma că lectura explicativă presupune procesarea de adâncime [5] a unui text, studenții având o atitudine mentală activă în raport cu obiectul studiat. Astfel, în procesul de studiere a limbii române, studenții străini se obișnuiesc cu diferite tipuri de lectură, dezvoltându-și competențele lectorale și comunicative. Lucrând în acest mod cu textul, studenții învață să citească corect, fluent și conștient texte literare și nonliterare, obișnuindu-se atât cu *lectura de informare* (care îi ajută să cunoască tezaurul literar și cultural românesc, dar și să selecteze informații pe diferite teme privitoare la realitatea cotidiană), cât și cu *lectura de plăcere* (pe care o savurează atunci când înaintea în studiul limbii române).

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