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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: G
LINGUISTICS & EDUCATION

VOLUME 24 ISSUE 6 (VER. 1.0)

OPEN ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH SOCIETY

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: G
LINGUISTICS & EDUCATION
Volume 24 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Teacher Socialization in Physical Education: A Critical Incident Technique Approach

By Xiaoping Fan & Jaimie M. McMullen

State University of New York at Cortland

Abstract- *Background:* Gaining a comprehensive understanding of the teacher socialization process is essential to promote the physical education profession as it contributes to the improvements of recruitment, retention, preparation, and support for physical education teachers. There is a gap in teacher socialization research that spans the lives and careers of physical education teachers.

Purpose: Using a critical incident technique (CIT), the purpose of this study was to gain a holistic understanding of the teacher socialization process in physical education, guided by the occupational socialization theory (OST) framework.

Method: Participants in this study were two physical education teachers located in one state in the Western United States, representing mid- and late-career physical education teachers. A comparative case study design was employed to investigate the socialization of physical education teachers using critical incident timelines, semi-structured interviews, and follow-up interviews. The timelines and interview transcripts were analyzed using thematic analysis and cross-case comparison. Trustworthiness was established using several techniques, including triangulation, peer debriefing, member checking, and an audit trail.

Keywords: critical incident technique; occupational socialization theory; comparative case study; dynamic process; physical education.

GJHSS-G Classification: LCC: GV361



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Teacher Socialization in Physical Education: A Critical Incident Technique Approach

Xiaoping Fan ^a & Jaimie M. McMullen ^a

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Findings: The two cases of Jayden and Tara explored the socialization of two physical education teachers over their lifespan, showcasing the key factors (both positive and negative) that influenced their development. Results are represented according to the three phases of OST (e.g., acculturation, professional socialization, and organizational socialization phases) for Jayden and Tara respectively. Jayden's acculturation was influenced by sports and a coaching background, harmful behaviors of friends, parent expectations, and inspirational coaches. His professional socialization was shaped by physical education teacher education (PETE) coursework and influential agents. Organizational socialization for Jayden was influenced by students' needs, supportive agents, classroom teachers' perceptions of his subject, and a value of physical education. Additionally, Tara's acculturation was influenced by a relationship with a physical education teacher, being disinclined towards academic, engagement in practical courses, and a passion for working with children. Her professional socialization was shaped by evolution of the PETE programme, impact of PETE faculty, having a quality cooperating teacher, and a former physical education teacher. Organizational socialization for Tara was impacted by previous physical education experiences, continuing connection with the PETE programme, influential agents, as well as marginalization and burnout.

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Conclusions: The results underscore the crucial role of agent and self in the dynamic process of teacher socialization. While interactions with agents influence teachers' beliefs, perspectives, and actions, they actively negotiate with these agents rather than passively absorbing their influence. Future research could employ the CIT in conjunction with other methods to investigate individuals' significant events.

Keywords: critical incident technique; occupational socialization theory; comparative case study; dynamic process; physical education.

I. INTRODUCTION

Socialization is the process through which individuals acquire the norms, cultures, and ideologies of a particular social setting by interacting with other people and social institutions (Billingham 2007). Teacher socialization is a continuous and multifaceted process that shapes individuals as they enter and progress in the teaching profession, involving various experiences, interactions, and influences (Lawson 1986). Gaining a comprehensive understanding of the teacher socialization process is essential to promote the physical education profession as it contributes to the improvements of recruitment, retention, preparation, and support for physical education teachers. This is especially crucial given the current precipitous decline in enrollment in physical education teacher education (PETE) programmes in the United States (Richards et al. 2021; van der Mars 2018).

Occupational Socialization Theory

Occupational socialization theory (OST) has served as a theoretical framework for research with respect to the exploration of teacher socialization in physical education. Lawson (1986) defined occupational socialization as all forms of socialization that initially influence individuals to pursue a career in physical education and subsequently shape their perceptions and actions as teacher educators and teachers. Since the influential works of Lawson (1983a, 1983b), researchers have devoted four decades to investigating the socialization process of physical education teachers who enroll in physical education teacher education (PETE) programmes, undergo training in the programme, and enter schools as a physical education teacher. Guided by OST, researchers have examined how individuals become members of the physical education teacher's society and explored the factors and experiences that impact their decisions and

behaviors during this journey (Richards et al. 2014). Teacher socialization is considered a dialectical exchange, wherein teachers are influenced by a variety of factors while actively participating in their own socialization (Schempp and Gruber 1992; Zeichner and Gore 1990). This socialization process includes three phases: acculturation, professional socialization, and organizational socialization (Richards et al. 2014).

Acculturation, the first phase, begins from birth and continues until an individual decides to join a teacher education programme, aspiring to become teachers (Grotjahn 1991). During this phase, individual experiences and interactions shape attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs about teaching physical education, laying the foundation for initial understanding (Lawson 1986; Richards et al. 2014). Acculturation establishes the cognitive structures related to physical education and helps individuals comprehend its value (Grotjahn 1991; Lawson 1983b). During this phase, factors such as apprenticeship of observation, subjective warrant, personal sport experience, family members who are educators, and influence of coaching and teaching mentors collectively contribute to their decision to pursue a career in the profession of physical education (Curtner-Smith 2017; McCullick et al. 2012; Richards et al. 2014).

Once individuals enter a PETE programme, the process of professional socialization begins (Lawson 1983b). Through PETE, preservice teachers receive professional training to acquire and uphold values, sensitivities, skills, and knowledge deemed essential for teaching physical education (Lawson 1983b; Richards et al. 2014). These experiences shape their attitudes, competence, and confidence in teaching physical education, preparing them as qualified teacher candidates. Consequently, PETE programmes have a substantial impact on preservice teachers' value orientation and teaching behaviors in physical education (Ennis and Chen 1993; Wright et al. 2015). More specifically, various factors, including PETE faculty profiles, shared technical culture, field experiences, methods courses, foundation courses, and individual value orientations, contribute to the professional learning and growth of these future teachers (Richards et al. 2014; Sofo and Curtner-Smith 2010; Stran and Curtner-Smith 2009).

Organizational socialization occurs when individuals take on the role of K-12 physical educators (Lawson 1983b). Transitioning from PETE to the workforce, individuals embark on their journey as physical education teachers and actively pursue continuing professional development to enhance teaching effectiveness (Richards et al. 2014). Organizational socialization is crucial, directly impacting teachers' teaching practices and student learning. Several critical factors are at play in this process, encompassing school contexts, institutional

expectations, socializing agents, marginality and isolation, policies, and professional organizations (Banville and Rikard 2009; Richards et al. 2014; Stroot and Whipple 2003). Among these factors, the marginalization status of physical education in the school context is viewed as one key element that complicates the socialization process for teachers (Eldar et al. 2003).

Prior studies have focused on specific phases of teacher socialization (i.e., acculturation, professional, organizational) (Lawson 1986; Richards et al. 2014). Yet, there is a gap in the research that spans the lives and careers of physical education teachers to understand how socialization evolves over time. Further, a literature review by Richards et al. (2019) indicates that previous qualitative studies regarding teacher socialization in physical education relied primarily on interview and observation methodologies. Therefore, a methodological approach of capturing critical incidents over time would be worthwhile considering the continuous nature of the socialization process. In this vein, the purpose of this study was to utilize the critical incident technique (CIT; Flanagan 1954) to gain a holistic understanding of the teacher socialization process in physical education. By adopting this approach, the study identifies the constructive aspects that nurture teachers' professional growth, while also highlighting the adverse factors that present inherent challenges in this process. Therefore, guided by OST (Lawson 1986), this study explores both the positive and negative factors that significantly influenced physical education teachers' choices to enter the PETE programme, their experiences within the programme, and their experiences in schools since.

II. METHOD

a) Critical Incident Technique Qualitative Methods

The CIT is a potent qualitative research method involving gathering and analyzing incidents (behaviors or events) with a substantial impact on individuals' experiences and behaviors within a specific context (Flanagan 1954). The CIT has been utilized across various fields such as psychology, social sciences, human resources, training and development, and education, serving as a tool for highlighting the characteristics of successful individuals (e.g., leaders, doctors, etc.) and essential requirements for processes (e.g., training programmes, services). Critical incidents can be collected through various means, including observation, interviews, questionnaires, record forms, diary studies, digital media, and others (Edvardsson and Roos 2001; Flanagan 1954). The versatility and adaptability inherent in CIT make it an effective instrument in research endeavors.

In a study of teacher role conflict, Iannucci and MacPhail (2018) employed the CIT using a living graph

and interviews, to examine a teacher's career in relation to their experiences of teaching physical education and another school subject. The CIT employed in our study comprises a critical incident timeline that is presented graphically, featuring a horizontal axis representing time and a vertical axis illustrating the degree of impact (see

Figure 1). The horizontal axis was divided into the three phases of OST and the vertical axis encompassed both positive and negative impacts. Supplemental interviews enable participants to interpret and elaborate on the events that significantly impacted them.

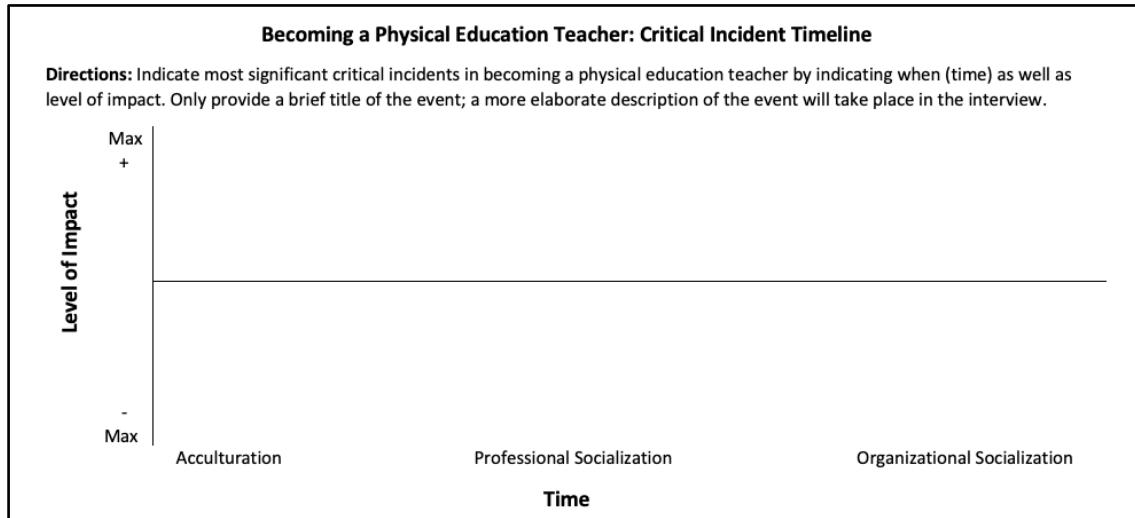


Figure 1: Critical Incident timeline.

b) Approach

A comparative case study design (Merriam and Tisdell 2015) was employed for this study, which involved two distinct cases: an elementary physical education teacher and a secondary physical education teacher. This approach can enhance the precision, validity, and stability of the findings by analyzing both the similarities and differences between the two cases (Miles et al. 2014). This study involved comparing and contrasting the socialization processes of two physical education teachers across the three phases of OST, aiming to explore various aspects of their socialization, identify patterns, and derive meaningful conclusions.

c) Participants

Participants in this study were two physical education teachers located in one state in the Western United States, representing mid- and late-career physical education teachers. They graduated from the same PETE programme but at different times. Pseudonyms were provided to ensure their privacy and confidentiality. One of the participants, Jayden (male, 31 years old, Black Hispanic and Latino), is a physical education teacher in a K-5 elementary school, who has been teaching in the same school for almost seven years. This was his first full time job as a physical education teacher since he graduated from the PETE programme. He has also been a middle school basketball coach for four years. Jayden's teaching philosophy is to expose students to a variety of skills and activities to help them keep physically active and healthy for the rest of their life. Tara (female, 40 years old, White), a physical education teacher in a K-8

school, has a total of 18-years teaching experiences in physical education with seven years at an elementary school (K-5) and 12 years at her current school. She has an undergraduate degree in physical education and a master's degree in educational leadership with a principal's license. She coaches dance and gymnastics at her current school. Her teaching philosophy is to help children stay healthy and become lifelong movers.

d) Data Collection Procedures

Employing the CIT, data sources for this study included critical incident timelines, semi-structured interviews, and follow-up interviews (Merriam and Tisdell 2015). Two physical education teachers were initially contacted via email with a comprehensive overview of the study. After receiving their consent, the researchers proceeded with scheduling of data collection. Each teacher engaged in two meetings held in their respective offices, with the first meeting focusing on completing the critical incident timelines and participating in a semi-structured interview, and the second meeting centering around the confirmation of the critical incident timelines during a follow-up interview. The interviews lasted between 90-120 minutes and were audio recorded. The identities of individuals and schools mentioned in the critical incident timelines were blurred.

During the first meeting, teachers received clear instructions about how to complete the critical incident timeline and pinpointed when, and to what extent the most significant incidents that influenced their paths as physical education teachers. After completing the timelines, each teacher took part in a semi-structured interview. The interview protocol was designed in

accordance with the three phases of OST. During the interview, participants elaborated on each critical incident in detail that was plotted on their timelines and responded to additional interview questions. Sample questions included, "talk about the plotted critical incidents in PETE" and "in your opinion, what was missing from the PETE programme?"

Following this meeting, the researchers conducted a preliminary analysis of the gathered data, listing questions and any areas of confusion, which helped prepare for the follow-up interview. During the second meeting, researchers asked questions related to teachers' responses in the previous interview, aiming to gain deeper insights into their experiences. For instance, Tara was asked to provide further elaboration on the individuals who influenced her decision to pursue a master's degree. Additionally, specific events mentioned in the first meeting but not marked on the timelines were confirmed during the second meeting. For example, Jayden had identified being a cooperating teacher, mentioned a specific principal, discussed being on a specialist team, and doing observations of other teachers as critical incidents during the first meeting, yet these were not marked on the timeline; he was asked to verify these events and specify their corresponding levels of impact.

e) Data Analysis

Thematic analysis and cross-case analysis were utilized to dissect teachers' critical incident timelines and their responses to the interview questions (Creswell and Poth 2008). When analyzing the timelines, researchers identified significant events that exerted either positive or negative influences on teachers' socialization and subsequently generated initial codes. Similarly, in the analysis of interview data, researchers read the interview transcripts multiple times, identified critical incidents directly pertinent to teachers' socialization, and generated corresponding codes in the margins. Next, patterns were created that included codes with similar meaning. Specifically, for each teacher across the three phases, codes with analogous or comparable meanings were grouped together by the researchers. Following this, themes were developed and defined according to their distinctive properties and dimensions. Ultimately, cross-case analysis was conducted between the two cases (Corbin and Strauss 2008). The researchers compared the themes that encapsulated teachers' socialization throughout the three phases, discerning both similarities and differences.

f) Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness was established using several techniques, including triangulation, peer debriefing, member checking, and an audit trail. First, triangulation was employed, which involved multiple investigators and diverse data sources (i.e., critical incident timeline and interviews) to corroborate the findings (Creswell and

Poth 2008). Furthermore, the second author served as a peer debriefer in this study, reviewing and assessing the methods and findings to enhance the validity and credibility of the study (Merriam and Tisdell 2015). Next, member checking was conducted by requesting participants to validate the critical incidents and corresponding impact levels on their timelines. Lastly, an audit trail was maintained throughout this study, which provided a transparent account of the research process from project inception to findings reporting (Merriam and Tisdell 2015).

III. RESULTS

The two cases of Jayden and Tara explored the socialization of two physical education teachers over their lifespan, showcasing the key factors (both positive and negative) that influenced their development. Results are represented according to the three phases of OST (e.g., acculturation, professional socialization, and organizational socialization phases) for Jayden and Tara respectively.

Jayden's Socialization

The key factors influencing Jayden's acculturation included sports and a coaching background, harmful behaviors of friends, parent expectations, and inspirational coaches. Jayden's professional socialization was shaped by PETE coursework and influential agents. His organizational socialization was influenced by students' needs, supportive agents, classroom teachers' perceptions of his subject, and a value of physical education. Figure 2 represents Jayden's critical incident timeline.

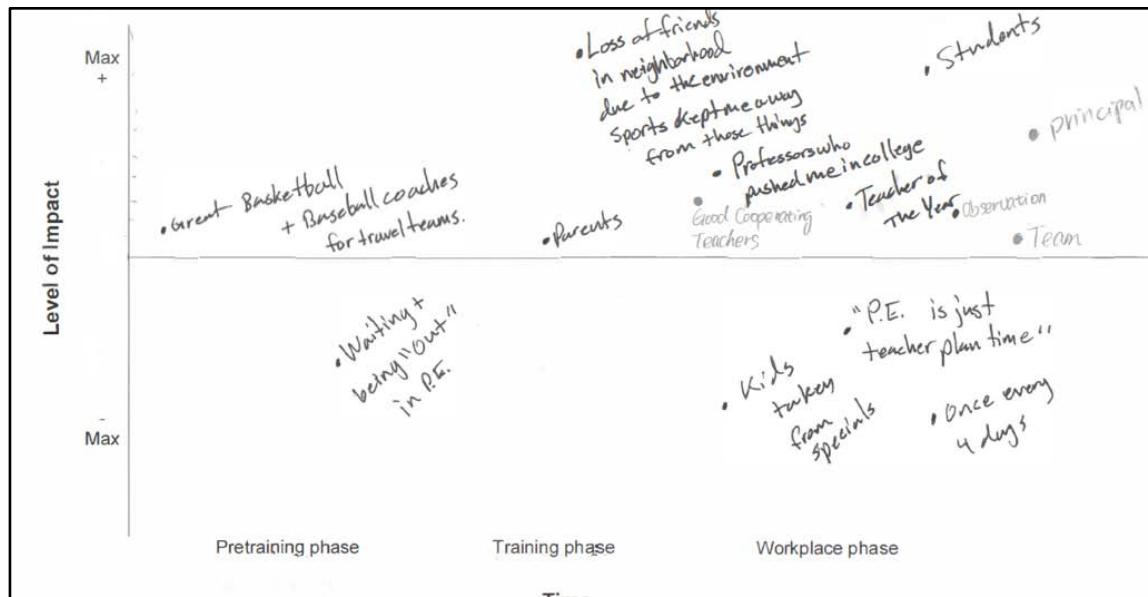


Figure 2: Jayden's Critical Incident Timeline Across Three Phases

a) Acculturation

Sports and a Coaching Background: Jayden was enthusiastic about sports and being physically active and he participated in various team sports during his childhood. His personal passion for sports led him to consider pursuing a major in physical education. Additionally, Jayden engaged in coaching basketball teams during his high school years, which reinforced his passion for coaching and working with young children. As Jayden shared:

I always knew that I would end up coaching because I had done it before, and I just knew that I would coach. Even if I did have a different profession than teaching or physical education, I would still coach (Jayden, Interview 2).

Harmful Behaviors of Friends: Observing the adverse consequences of his friends' harmful behaviors (e.g., being arrested) on families and the broader community, Jayden was motivated to make a positive difference. Initially, Jayden's career aspirations led him toward becoming a personal trainer; however, he later reconsidered this path as he recognized the potential to positively influence a group of students in the role of a physical education teacher. Exposing these students to a variety of physical activities can offer alternatives for children's leisure pursuits, thereby negating the allure of detrimental activities both for their personal growth and the betterment of the community. The impact of friends held the most significant influence on Jayden's acculturation, as indicated by the timeline (see Figure 2).

Parent Expectations: Jayden reported that his mother earned a bachelor's degree and when he initially considered halting his education after obtaining an associate degree, his mother expressed disappointment. As a result, Jayden resolved to persevere with his schooling. He reflected, 'I could see the

disappointment in her face when I basically said I am going to quit. So when I saw that look on my mom's face, I knew I had to keep going' (Jayden, Interview 1).

Inspirational Coaches: Jayden indicated that he was inspired by the dual roles that coaches also serving as physical education teachers take. Specifically, his basketball and baseball coaches left a lasting impact. Beyond imparting sports skills, these coaches instilled in him the values of respect, diligence, and perseverance, contributing to his personal growth and development. As he reported during the interview,

It seems like there's always kids who had really good coaches that ended up doing similar things. Like both of my coaches were also teachers at some point. When you look up to someone so much, you just almost ended up doing the same thing that they did (Jayden, Interview 1).

b) Professional Socialization

Coursework: Jayden pointed out that the PETE programme prepared him well to become a strong teacher. He gained content knowledge, teaching skills, and job searching strategies from a variety of courses. He also emphasized the importance of observation, discussion, and reflection in those courses. Specifically, Jayden highlighted methods courses in which he honed his abilities in course design, assessment, and teaching practices. For example, he shared his experiences within the elementary methods course:

We would observe students in the classroom settings, see the way the physical education teachers run their classes. And then, she (instructor) would relate what we saw from that teacher to the textbook, like "Did you notice how he went from this task and then he modified it or added an extension task?" (Jayden, Interview 2).

Jayden also highlighted the diversity and progression of his field experiences, which were



required aspects of several courses. In terms of diversity, he reported that he was exposed to students at various levels in different schools. Additionally, he participated in student teaching for both elementary and secondary school physical education. Concerning progression, Jayden and his peers started with observations, proceeded to teaching within a small group, and ultimately engaged in individual teaching throughout the PETE programme. He shared this about his student teaching experience:

We get to student teach for eight weeks with both age groups of students, eight weeks elementary physical education, eight weeks secondary physical education. So we were exposed to all different levels of students and just get an idea of where might I fit in the best when I become a teacher (Jayden, Interview 1).

Influential Agents: Jayden highlighted how the PETE faculty, cooperating teachers, and cohort groups significantly influenced his professional socialization. He indicated that the faculty demonstrated care for him and inspired him, 'They really cared about me, and they really did believe that I could be a good PE teacher' (Jayden, Interview 1). He also emphasized the robust support system within his cohort where they helped one another to be successful in the programme. Jayden acknowledged the crucial role of his student teaching cooperating teachers (one elementary and one secondary) in enhancing his teaching practice (see Figure 2):

Both of them were really good. I still talk to both of them when I can. They were not the type of people who just said, 'here you go, go teach', we had a system to help kind of progress me into the full teaching by myself (Jayden, Interview 2).

c) Organizational Socialization

Student Needs: As plotted in Figure 2, students' needs were a pivotal factor in his socialization journey. Jayden noted that students at his school had diverse backgrounds, they navigate challenges such as trauma, social-emotional struggles, and behavioral challenges. In response to these circumstances, he sought to build a learning environment where students feel valued and cared for. As he said, 'knowing that the things that they go through every day, it makes you understand why they may be doing some of the things that they're doing' (Jayden, Interview 1). The needs of these students served as the foundation upon which he designed his physical education programme and impacts the way he teaches on a daily basis.

Supportive Agents: Jayden interacted with a variety of individuals, among them, the experienced physical education teachers in the district, the specialist team at the school, and his principal (see Figure 2) – all of which he identified as key agents that influenced his teaching. He had the opportunity to observe fellow physical education teachers and gained ideas from their

practices. He also mentioned the positive collaboration with the specialist team at the school as something that is very influential in his development. Additionally, he expressed his appreciation for the support provided by the principal. He said:

There are schools that will kick physical education teachers out of the gym for testing, for lots of different things. And she's done a really good job of trying to keep me in my space and letting me have my time (Jayden, Interview 1).

Classroom Teachers' Perceptions: Jayden reported that classroom teachers perceived physical education as a break rather than an integral part of student's education. He lamented, 'it almost seems like it (physical education) is treated as a break for the kids so that it's not seen as part of their school day and as their education' (Jayden, Interview 1). Classroom teachers' negative perceptions were somewhat discouraging, but also drove him to advocate for physical education at his school. As he emphasized, 'it makes you want to show your building all of the things that you're doing. You are teaching content, and you are teaching very important life skills' (Jayden, Interview 2).

Value of physical education: Jayden indicated that his past experiences had shaped his value in physical education. These experiences included facing personal health issue in childhood, experiencing waiting times in physical education, appreciating PETE faculty's care, and witnessing the relationships that cooperating teachers built with their students, and so on. Consequently, he strove to establish a caring and supportive learning environment for students. Jayden reported that he was committed to maximizing learning time, including social skills, and introducing nutrition in his classroom. Receiving the Teacher of the Year award (see Figure 2) in his state influenced his motivation to stay current and to continue to focus on being a great teacher.

Tara's Socialization

Tara's acculturation was influenced by a relationship with a physical education teacher, being disinclined towards academic, engagement in practical courses, and a passion for working with children. Her professional socialization was shaped by evolution of the PETE programme, impact of PETE faculty, having a quality cooperating teacher, and a former physical education teacher. Her organizational socialization was impacted by previous physical education experiences, continuing connection with the PETE programme, influential agents, as well as marginalization and burnout. Figure 3 depicts Tara's experiences during acculturation and professional socialization.

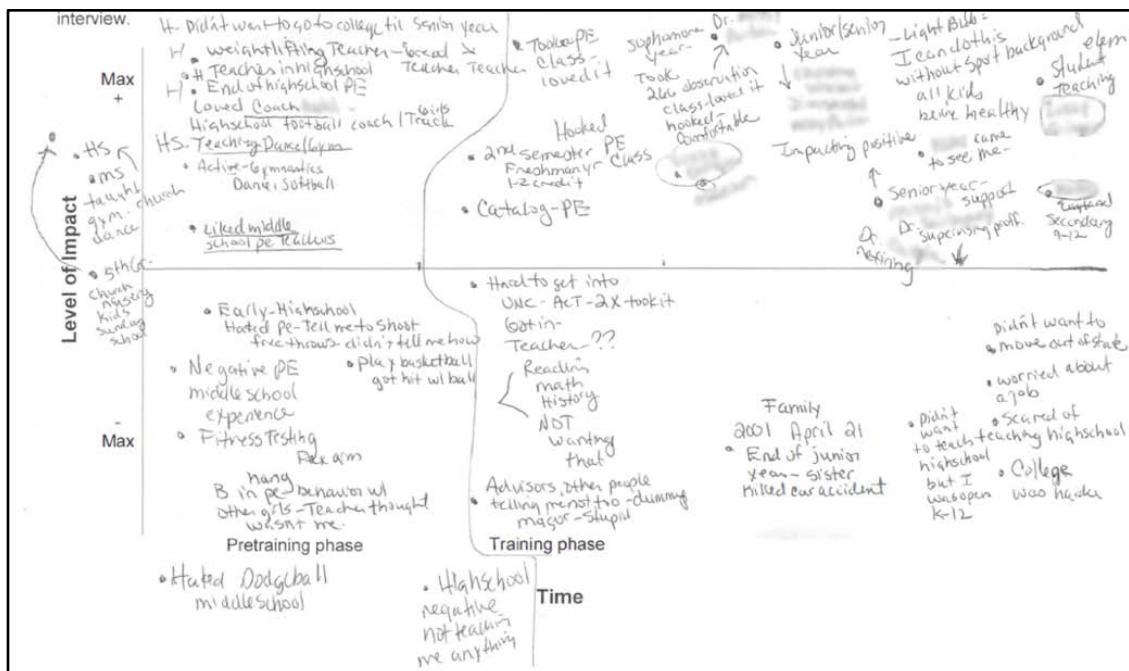


Figure 3: Tara's Critical Incident Timeline in Acculturation and Professional Socialization

a) *Acculturation*

Relationship with a Physical Education Teacher: Tara stated that she enrolled in Mr. K's weightlifting classes throughout high school, during which she had positive learning experiences (see Figure 3). During that period, she built a strong relationship with Mr. K, who was her favorite teacher. Tara highlighted the significant role that Mr. K played in shaping her decision to pursue a teaching career. She shared:

It was my senior year when I kind of got in when I decided I wanted to teach. It was kind of because of him. He was impactful for me wanting to actually go to college and maybe be a teacher. I didn't know what kind of teacher, but I knew I wanted to be a teacher. I had a couple of favorite teachers, he was probably the biggest one (*Tara, Interview 1*).

Disinclined towards Academics: Tara reported a preference for the arts over academic pursuits. As she stated, 'I don't like academics. I'm an arts kid, I did not survive high school without having dance, gymnastics, band, and orchestra, those were my classes' (Tara, Interview 1). This is also evident in her timeline (see Figure 3). During high school and her first semester of college, she held a desire to become an elementary teacher, although the specific subject or grade level remained undefined. she explained:

I kind of kept looking what do I want to do? I want to be a teacher. Where can I go? What can I do? History? Reading? Math? No. I kind of kept going through all the content areas. I knew I wanted to be elementary, so I was thinking of declaring as an elementary education (*Tara, Interview 1*).

Engagement in Practical Courses: During the second semester of college, Tara enrolled in a one-credit practical course (i.e., dance education), which sparked

her. She realized that teaching physical education was the path she desired to pursue. As she delved deeper into the PETE program, Tara's enthusiasm for becoming a physical education teacher grew stronger with each passing class. She articulated, 'every class I took from then on out in PETE, any of the classes just kept confirming that I knew I wanted to be a PE teacher' (*Tara, Interview 2*).

Passion for Working with Children: Tara indicated that she loved working with children. During her time in middle and high school, she secured a position teaching dance to children aged five to eight at a local dance studio (see Figure 3). She said, 'I've always been working with kids so I came in wanting to teach them about living healthy lifestyles. And that's kind of where my decision went for that' (Tara, Interview 1). Furthermore, she reported that she chose to disregard the opinions of others and ultimately opted for physical education. She shared an instance where the university advisor recommended considering other majors, but 'I kind of ignored everybody around me telling me not to do that (physical education)' (Tara, Interview 1).

b) *Professional Socialization*

Evolution of the PETE programme: Tara reported that in her junior and senior years, the PETE programme underwent a curriculum transition from a coaching-oriented to pedagogy-oriented approach. She emphasized that the revised programme was more effective for her professional growth. She mentioned learning about classroom management and professionalism but also noted a lack of pedagogical content knowledge and field experiences. She explained, 'we did get out to teach a little bit, but it was



not like what the elementary physical education methods course looks like now, we didn't get as much field experience at that point' (*Tara, Interview 2*).

Impact of PETE Faculty: As indicated in Figure 3, Drs. P and S influenced Tara's professional growth and their passion inspired her to advocate for the profession. 'They taught me to love the profession and to respect the profession and to fight for the profession' (*Tara, Interview 2*). She not only gained knowledge in their classes, but also received their care. For instance, Drs. P and S reached out to her when she faced the loss of her sister to provide her with their sympathy and support.

Quality Cooperating Teacher: Tara participated in student teaching alongside Ms. K at a high school and Ms. L at an elementary school. She indicated that both cooperating teachers served as effective mentors, aiding her in enhancing her teaching practices. She shared her experiences working with Ms. L:

I was fairly natural with the little kids, but that doesn't make you even know all the good teaching practices. I learned a lot from her on how to engage K-2 students...I was good with little kids, but Ms. L refined it and just made all the teaching practices, classroom management better (*Tara, Interview 1*).

Former Physical Education Teacher: Tara maintained the connection with Mr. K, who had a significant impact on her during high school. Tara had the opportunity to coach track alongside Mr. K while she was student teaching in her last semester of the PETE programme. She reflected, 'he was just a good teacher, gentle with high school girls. He was good at both [teaching and coaching], and good at relationships, appropriate relationships with kids' (*Tara, Interview 2*).

c) Organizational Socialization

Previous Physical Education Experiences: As shown in Figure 3, Tara noted that she had negative experiences in secondary school physical education. She lamented, 'I hated dodgeball in middle school physical education. I hated getting hit with the ball' (*Tara, Interview 2*). Simultaneously, she emphasized her lack of learning in these classes, saying, 'it's like roll out the ball, they're making me go play flag football and I know don't know how to play' (*Tara, Interview 2*). As a result, these negative experiences influenced her current teaching practices. She explained: 'The negative experiences of what I didn't learn taught me what I want to be because I don't want my students to have those negative experiences' (*Tara, Interview 1*).

Continuing Connection with the PETE programme: Tara stayed connected with the PETE programme through research and service. Early in her career, the PETE programme faculty included her in a grant focusing on enhancing physical education within the district. They collaborated to conduct research and present results at

conferences. Since her seventh year of teaching, the faculty had brought preservice teachers to her school for practicum and student teaching experiences. Tara indicated that her interactions with preservice teachers has provided her with valuable ideas. She reported:

My student teacher taught me a couple things that I'm using right now. I could see it with the teacher candidate's teaching. I would see those progressions and they basically helped me. I learned kind of into that next level of when I became a teacher (*Tara, Interview 2*).

Influential Agents: Tara stated that she contacted Ms. L (her former cooperating teacher) for assistance, observed her co-teacher's teaching, benefited from a principal with high expectations, and experienced support from a specialist team at both her former and current school. However, the challenges at her previous school including student behavioral issues, the appointment of a new principal, and the retirement of colleagues contributed to her frustration and ultimately influenced her decision to accept a position at her current school. After 14 years of teaching, encouraged by the PETE programme faculty and her husband, Tara went back to school to pursue a master's degree in leadership with principal licensure. Despite facing multiple obstacles such as, 'student loans, time away, building committees, district PE [physical education team], lead teacher [at her school]' (*Tara, Interview 2*), she persisted and achieved her master's degree.

Marginalization and Burnout: Tara highlighted that she was currently facing some real challenges, including the retirement of her partner physical education teacher, the assignment of physical education teaching to a classroom teacher, the school's decision not to hire a new physical education teacher, and a reduction in instructional time for physical education. These factors collectively had a negative impact on her passion for the profession. What she believed to be the marginalization of physical education at her school led her to feel burnout in teaching while her interest in administration continued to develop. Consequently, Tara indicated that she was applying for an assistant principal position as the next phase of her career journey. She explained:

I do want to pursue the admin piece of it. That's the track I really want to go to and as this next phase of my career. In the meantime, I don't hate my job, but I'm struggling a little bit. I'm just getting tired and I'm not sure I want to be in physical education until I retire. I want to know what's happening with budget, with safety, supervision. I love supporting other teachers. My heart is just still telling me that I want to go up a level (*Tara, Interview 1*).

IV. CROSS-CASE COMPARISON AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to utilize the CIT to gain a holistic understanding of the teacher socialization process of physical education teachers.

The results presented the socialization process of two physical education teachers across the three phases (i.e., acculturation, professional socialization, and organizational socialization phases). Key incidents, both positive and negative, were identified within each phase for each teacher. This section delves into the similarities and differences between the two teachers through a cross-case comparison, synthesizes previous related research, and shares overall insights into physical education teacher socialization derived from this study.

a) *Acculturation*

Research has revealed that factors such as individuals' sport background, physical activity involvement, previous physical education experiences, and influential agents (e.g., parents, siblings, peers, teachers, and coaches) significantly influence their decision to enroll in PETE programmes (Curtner-Smith 2017; McCullick et al. 2012; Ralph and MacPhail 2015). The results of in this study indicated that participants' sports background contributed to their consideration of physical education as a means to maintain a connection with sports (McCullick et al. 2012; Placek et al. 1995). Their sports participation and coaching experiences led to their choice to pursue physical education teaching as a career. Furthermore, the influential agents (i.e., parents, friends, coaches, and physical education teachers) play a vital role in guiding participants towards this profession. Given the significant impact of physical education teachers and coaches on career decisions, nurturing positive and supportive relationships between coaching and teaching mentors and students can be an effective strategy to encourage individuals to pursue careers in physical education.

b) *Professional Socialization*

Research has shown that PETE faculty, cohort groups, coursework, early field experiences, student teaching, programme culture, cooperating teachers, and subjective theory significantly influence preservice teachers' professional growth (Sofo and Curtner-Smith 2010; Stran and Curtner-Smith 2009). In this study, coursework, field experiences, influential faculty, cooperating teachers, and cohort peers all played crucial roles in shaping participants' professional socialization, influencing their knowledge, skills, and dispositions toward teaching physical education. As evidenced in prior research that emphasizes the importance of close cohort groups and supportive faculty (Sofo and Curtner-Smith 2010; McEntyre and Richards 2023), both teachers appreciated the care showed by PETE faculty and support from their cohort. Therefore, apart from a quality PETE curriculum that ensures effective learning, a supportive environment is essential in retaining individuals within the physical education profession. Faculty could exhibit care for their students and promote the coopetition among peers.

Recognizing the powerful influence of cooperating teachers' high-quality mentorship on promoting preservice teacher's teaching practices (e.g., Graber 1996; Sofo and Curtner-Smith, 2010), it is advisable for the PETE programme or the university to consider the quality of cooperating teachers when selecting placement for student teachers. A distinguishing factor exists between Jayden and Tara's experiences. Jayden gleaned substantial benefits from his coursework, whereas Tara's learning was affected due to the evolution of the PETE programme. After entering the profession, the ongoing association with the PETE programme and participation in professional development events have the potential to compensate for this limitation (Parker and Patton 2017; Patton and Parker 2015).

c) *Organizational Socialization*

The process of teachers' organizational socialization is shaped by a wide range of factors, reflecting a diversity of influences. These factors include mentors, colleagues, stakeholders' perceptions, administrators, school culture, policies, professional development, and role orientations (Banville and Rikard 2009; Rhodes and Woods 2012; Stroot and Whipple 2003). The teachers in this study exhibit strong commitment to establishing a positive learning environment for children's learning and health, perceiving themselves as change agents for students, aiming to foster their healthy lifestyles (McCullinck et al. 2012). Throughout this process, various influential agents have positively and negatively influenced their socialization. The support receiving from various sources, such as fellow physical education teachers, specialist teams, the PETE programme, student teachers, and others, has been demonstrated to possess the potential for promoting teacher's teaching practices (Woods and Lynn 2014). Hence, teachers can actively engage in professional learning communities to foster a feeling of belonging and establish connections with individuals within and outside the school for accessing support.

Jayden is a mid-career physical education teacher, while Tara, with 18 years of teaching experience, represents a late-career physical education educator. The results of this study indicate that the marginalization of physical education has significantly influenced Tara's enthusiasm for teaching physical education, ultimately leading to her experience of burnout. This finding aligns with previous research (Lux and McCullick 2011; Mäkelä and Whippstudy 2015), indicating that the marginalization status can cause teachers to perceive their role as less important to the schooling mission, resulting in increased stress and burnout. The ongoing marginalization and negative public perceptions of physical education have influenced Tara's career, leading her to contemplate

transitioning into an administrative role in order to exert a more influential impact on the status of physical education in school. Further research into the transition of physical education teachers to administrative roles is warranted.

d) Overall Insights

The results of this study indicate that the three phases of teacher socialization are interconnected. The acculturation phase sparks individuals' interest in the profession of physical education, the professional socialization phase advances the process by offering professional training, and the organizational socialization phase marks the start of their career as physical education teachers. Through this process, teachers' previous experiences and interactions collectively mold their beliefs, values, and actions as they navigate the journey. For example, Jayden and Tara consider the negative instances of previous physical education as lessons to be avoided within their own classrooms. Their previous negative experiences have, to some extent, exerted a positive influence on their current teaching, underscoring the interaction between acculturation phase and organization phase within OST. This highlights that teacher socialization is a dynamic process exerting mutual influence on each other (Richards et al. 2014).

Additionally, the results of this study emphasize the crucial role of both agent and self in the process of teacher socialization. The results highlight the significance of socializing agents in shaping teachers' commitment to the profession of physical education. Influential agents, such as family members, teachers, coach, PETE faculty, cohort groups, cooperating teachers, administrators, fellow physical education teachers, classroom teachers, students, and others, significantly contribute to the socialization of Jayden and Tara. Throughout the interaction with these agents, the theme of caring becomes particularly prominent for both teachers. It is suggested that physical education teachers, PETE faculty, and school colleagues should foster a welcoming learning and working culture. Simultaneously, individuals should proactively build relationships with various groups to enhance their sense of inclusion during their journey.

While interactions with agents influence participants' beliefs, perspectives, and actions, they actively negotiate with these agents rather than passively absorbing their influence (Zeichner and Gore 1990). The results of this study indicated that teachers play active roles in the socialization process, highlighting the significant role individuals themselves play in their own socialization. This finding aligns with the insights of Richards et al. (2014), which state that individuals have the capability to resist the impact of teacher education and workplace socialization. A relevant example is Jayden's advocacy for physical

education even when classroom teachers considered it as a break. Promoting the cultivation of critical thinking could potentially enhance individuals' ability to navigate both advantageous and adverse factors throughout their socialization. Integrating critical thinking practices within physical education, PETE, and teacher professional development is essential.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Teacher socialization is a complex and dialectical process. Teachers' experiences, interactions, and values intertwine to contribute to their socialization. Employing the CIT has the potential to enhance the understanding of the entire socialization process of physical education teachers. Without additional context or specific information, providing a definitive explanation of the CIT technique is challenging (Flanagan 1954). Therefore, future research could employ the CIT with other methods to investigate individuals' significant events.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: G
LINGUISTICS & EDUCATION
Volume 24 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Decolonial Indigenous Education: Contribution to Ethnic-Racial and Intercultural Education

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Abstract- The purpose of this study is to reflect on some issues of intercultural and decolonial education, based on the Latin American decolonial thought that, in this research, since 2017 until the present day, has been developing in the villages of the Indigenous Territory of Alto Guamá River (TIARG), in Santa Luzia do Pará, and the Karipuna People, located in the Uaçá Indigenous Territory, Oiapoque County, Amapá State. This article was constructed from an ethnographic research and field expeditions carried out with indigenous teachers and students, both in the village of São Pedro and in the school of the village Frasqueira, Tembé Tenetehara people, and in the village Manga, in the Uaçá Indigenous Land, Karipuna people, with the objective of presenting a proposal for ethnic-racial decolonial education. Inserting ethnic-cultural diversity in indigenous intercultural education is a major challenge. In this regard, it is an opportunity to think about ethnic-racial education, that is, to present a critical conception, re-signifying eurocentric positions regarding to the situation of ethnic-racial relations in Brazil. The intervention of ethnic-racial practice and interculturality in pedagogical practice enables different types of knowledge and establishes a relationship of equality, dialogue and respect.

Keywords: decolonial education. interculturality. ethnic-racial. equality.

GJHSS-G Classification: LCC: LC1099.5.B6, LC3705



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Decolonial Indigenous Education: Contribution to Ethnic-Racial and Intercultural Education

Educação Decolonial Indígena: Contribuição à Educação Étnico-Racial e Intercultural
(Povo Tembé – Santa Luzia – Pará e Povo Karipuna – Oiapoque-Macapá)

Fabrício Cesar da Costa Rodrigues ^a, Risonete Santiago da Costa ^º & Estefane de Souza Reis Tembé ^º

Resumo- A proposta deste estudo é trazer para a reflexão algumas questões da educação intercultural e decolonial, tendo como fundamento o pensamento decolonial latino-americano que, nesta pesquisa, desde 2017 até os dias atuais, vem se desenvolvendo nas aldeias do Território Indígena do Alto Rio Guamá (TIARG), em Santa Luzia do Pará, e do Povo Karipuna, situado na Terra Indígena Uaçá, Município de Oiapoque, Estado do Amapá. Este artigo foi construído a partir de uma pesquisa etnográfica e de expedições em campo realizadas com professores e alunos indígenas, tanto na aldeia São Pedro quanto na escola da aldeia Frasqueira, povo Tembé Tenetehara, e na aldeia Manga, na Terra Indígena Uaçá, povo Karipuna, com o objetivo de apresentar uma proposta de educação decolonial étnico-racial. Inserir a diversidade étnico-cultural na educação intercultural indígena se constitui em um grande desafio. A este respeito, trata-se de uma oportunidade para pensar uma educação étnico-racial, ou seja, apresentar uma concepção crítica, ressignificando posicionamentos eurocêntricos em relação à situação das relações étnico-raciais no Brasil. A intervenção da prática étnico-racial e da interculturalidade no fazer pedagógico possibilita os diferentes tipos de conhecimentos e estabelece uma relação de igualdade, de diálogo e respeito.

Palavras-chave: educação decolonial. interculturalidade. étnico-racial. igualdade.

Abstract- The purpose of this study is to reflect on some issues of intercultural and decolonial education, based on the Latin American decolonial thought that, in this research, since 2017

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until the present day, has been developing in the villages of the Indigenous Territory of Alto Guamá River (TIARG), in Santa Luzia do Pará, and the Karipuna People, located in the Uaçá Indigenous Territory, Oiapoque County, Amapá State. This article was constructed from an ethnographic research and field expeditions carried out with indigenous teachers and students, both in the village of São Pedro and in the school of the village Frasqueira, Tembé Tenetehara people, and in the village Manga, in the Uaçá Indigenous Land, Karipuna people, with the objective of presenting a proposal for ethnic-racial decolonial education. Inserting ethnic-cultural diversity in indigenous intercultural education is a major challenge. In this regard, it is an opportunity to think about ethnic-racial education, that is, to present a critical conception, re-signifying eurocentric positions regarding to the situation of ethnic-racial relations in Brazil. The intervention of ethnic-racial practice and interculturality in pedagogical practice enables different types of knowledge and establishes a relationship of equality, dialogue and respect.

Keywords: decolonial education. interculturality. ethnic-racial. equality.

I. INTRODUÇÃO

Este estudo pretende trazer para reflexão algumas questões de educação intercultural e decolonial, tendo como fundamento o pensamento decolonial latino-americano que, nesta pesquisa, desde 2017 até os dias atuais, vem se desenvolvendo nas aldeias do Território Indígena do Alto Rio Guamá (TIARG), em Santa Luzia do Pará, e do Povo Karipuna, situado na Terra Indígena Uaçá, Município de Oiapoque, no Estado do Amapá. Além disso, trata-se de uma oportunidade para pensar uma educação étnico-racial, ou seja, apresentar uma concepção crítica, ressignificando posicionamentos eurocêntricos em relação à situação das relações étnico-raciais no Brasil.

É necessário compreender que a escola não apenas produz e socializa conhecimentos; ela produz experiências e saberes cotidianos que vão integrando os povos indígenas a uma lógica de sociedade multiétnica. A escola deve partir para o enfrentamento de oposição a uma proposta de educação hegemônica, no que se refere à reprodução de uma visão positivista e eurocêntrica que foi no passado e ainda é produtora de múltiplas desigualdades.





A escola indígena tem que ser vista como uma instituição primordial e necessária, sendo capaz de justificar a sua existência na aspiração de que ela possa contribuir com suas lutas mais amplas. Tudo isso pressupõe uma educação que seja capaz de reprimir a desigualdade, de reivindicar direitos, conquistas e de ressignificar seus valores culturais. Em meio a esse cenário no Brasil, temos algumas experiências de decolonizar a educação formal, a exemplo do movimento negro, quilombola e indígena, que pleiteiam e admitiram formas diferenciadas de educação que representem suas reais perspectivas e pautas de lutas. Tem como característica também promover uma educação de acordo com a realidade dos países periféricos e das classes inferiorizadas.

Este artigo foi construído a partir de pesquisa etnográfica e de expedições em campo realizadas com professores e alunos indígenas, tanto na aldeia São Pedro quanto na escola da aldeia Frasqueira, povo Tembé, e na aldeia Manga, na Terra Indígena Uaçá, povo Karipuna, com o objetivo de apresentar uma proposta de construção educacional decolonial étnico-racial.

A abordagem sobre as relações étnico-raciais analisa como o sistema educacional desenvolveu a sua práxis profissional ao relacionar-se com seus educandos, tidos como afrodescendentes. A matriz cultural brasileira recebeu uma ideologia europeia dominante, com o propósito de omitir as origens indígenas e africanas. Assim, a ideologia europeia constrói uma concepção educacional desconexa e incoerente com a formação educacional brasileira numa comunidade multirracial e pluriétnica.

O tema central do presente estudo foi pautado a partir das seguintes questões: Quais princípios pedagógicos devem fundamentar uma educação decolonial e do currículo diferenciado para os dois povos em estudo? Quais concepções da interculturalidade crítica devem nortear o contexto da diversidade étnico-cultural adequada às escolas indígenas?

Tal concepção implica a necessidade de uma formação docente intercultural “[...] a partir de referências pessoais e coletivas, simbólicas e materiais e que se encontra inserido em vários processos socializadores e formadores que extrapolam a instituição escolar” (GOMES; SILVA, 2011, p. 17).

As práticas pedagógicas decoloniais têm por finalidade instigar uma reflexão crítica da realidade e possibilitar uma trajetória de mudanças em uma perspectiva pedagógica voltada para a educação escolar indígena onde a tendência é inovar o processo educativo sob múltiplos sentidos, em um viés multicultural, além de garantir suas tradições pelos professores indígenas. A criação da Lei nº 10.639/2003

foi uma importante conquista, ao estabelecer uma meta jurídica para esta modalidade de práticas.

Ao abordar essa situação, a escola indígena deve partir para o enfrentamento de oposição a uma proposta de educação hegemônica, no que se refere à reprodução de uma visão positivista e eurocêntrica que foi no passado e ainda é produtora de múltiplas desigualdades. Trabalhar na sala de aula a diversidade étnico-cultural na educação indígena se constitui uma construção metodológica necessária, cuja dimensão educativa está inserida nas atividades diversificadas nas escolas das aldeias, nos planejamentos pedagógicos dos professores, na pesquisa da cultura e de dados sobre a comunidade.

A prática docente deve ser entendida no âmbito sociocultural, de acordo com suas particularidades, a partir de intervenções a serem realizadas em sala de aula sobre a ideia de raça, sobre o racismo, sobre as desigualdades raciais no Brasil da diversidade.

Vale ressaltar que os professores indígenas das disciplinas de História e Geografia, a partir de conteúdos específicos, podem trabalhar sob o enfoque da educação indígena e do negro e das relações étnico-raciais com seus alunos, assim como preveem também as diretrizes curriculares das outras disciplinas. Os livros didáticos, no entanto, apresentam, de forma superficial, a questão das relações étnicos-raciais, sendo necessário, a partir de uma análise e reflexão crítica, buscar alternativas que possibilitem uma abrangência maior da educação indígena e da complexidade cultural do Brasil.

Ressalta-se ainda que, de acordo com os estudos da genética moderna, não existe uma base científica coerente sobre a existência de raças entre a humanidade, pois se criou um certo padrão construído pela sociedade e pela cultura de seu tempo, do conceito de “etnia” como sendo correlato ao de raça. Mesmo apontando um possível desgaste conceitual desses termos, a autora afirma que,

Em geral, reserva-se o termo “raça” para identificações baseadas em caracteres físicos como a cor da pele, e o termo “etnia” para identificações baseadas em caracteres supostamente mais culturais, tais como religião, modos de vida, língua etc. (SILVA, 2009, p. 100).

Nesse sentido, o termo raça é vazio em seu sentido, reportando-se às heranças do século XVIII e XIX, que justificaram as teorias racistas e adotaram uma política de branqueamento.

De modo geral, tais considerações se intensificam em várias dimensões de aportes pedagógicos como a reconstrução de estratégias organizacionais, mudanças nos currículos e nas práticas de ensino, a fim de impulsionar grandes transformações no combate ao racismo no âmbito

institucional. Buscar recursos didáticos disponíveis e fomentar uma educação multicultural e inclusiva é importante para a educação básica. A aplicabilidade da pedagogia decolonial é desenvolvida através de sua práxis, que, segundo as considerações de sua criadora, a argentina Catherine, Walsh (2013, p. 28), pode ser compreendida como:

Práticas que abrem caminho e condições radicalmente 'outras' de pensamento e re e insurgimento, levantamento e edificação, práticas entendidas pedagogicamente – práticas como pedagogias que por sua vez fazem questionar a razão única da modernidade ocidental e o poder colonial ainda presente desligando-se deles.

Para decolonizar a educação indígena, é necessário construir uma educação autônoma, considerando todas as formas de saberes e conhecimentos e, sobretudo, como pensar a educação com a participação da comunidade, em uma perspectiva educativa que considere as necessidades, suas tradições e suas perspectivas de interpretação simbólica do mundo tanto do povo indígena Tembé e Karipuna, que oferecem possibilidades de propor outros conhecimentos e cosmovisões que vão muito além da transmissão do saber escolar do branco e do modelo escolar dominante. A escola é um local significativo para esse processo de construção de valores multiculturais e também de questionamentos das relações étnico-raciais baseadas em atitudes preconceituosas e do exercício da cidadania. Nesta perspectiva, o professor comprometido com a decolonialidade questiona e propõe mudanças nas relações pedagógicas e dinamiza o seu compromisso com a emancipação política contra toda forma de opressão historicamente construída.

A partir dessas questões, busca-se também compreender a valorização da existência dos saberes que a tradição oral representa na sociedade indígena que deve ser também mantido no espaço da sala de aula. Ainda que de maneira muito pouco difundida, a tradição oral deve ser utilizada como veículo de saberes, sendo adaptada e recriando-se no contexto das disciplinas do currículo escolar.

Compreende-se que tal conhecimento está sendo paulatinamente esquecido nos territórios indígenas, precisando ser trabalhado de forma interdisciplinar. Neste sentido, há a possibilidade de construir ações educativas significativas onde os aspectos da valorização da cultura indígena sejam ressignificados em novos conteúdos escolares. Como devem ser trabalhados os temas transversais a que se referem os Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais nesse contexto? Sabe-se que, no geral, os conteúdos transmitidos em sala de aula asseguram apenas parte do aprendizado dos alunos, que deve ser complementado com outros saberes próprios da cultura.

Nesse sentido, as escolas nas aldeias Tembé e do Povo Karipuna não têm tido uma adequação pedagógica e curricular que possa levar em consideração a diversidade de ritmos, de uma práxis intercultural crítica em sala de aula. Essas identidades indígenas são marginalizadas pelas políticas educacionais nas imposições "normativas". Tal negação reforça o problema do racismo na educação.

A escola formal, tal como se estabeleceu, tem deixado a desejar no seu processo de ensino e aprendizagem, na questão da formação de cidadãos críticos. É por esse motivo que é necessário dar vida à escola indígena e a novas experiências tendo uma visão antropológica de educação onde a escola se adeque às necessidades da comunidade e suas relações com a diversidade de saberes.

II. QUESTÕES ÉTNICO-RACIAIS NA EDUCAÇÃO INDÍGENA INTERCULTURAL

Esta abordagem traduz um esforço de compreender os contextos das questões étnico-raciais, bem como alguns conceitos sobre interculturalidade e preconceito, enfatizando que o diferente deve ser tratado com coerência dentro da igualdade. A formação dos professores, no bojo da Lei nº 10.639/2003, tem sido analisada e discutida nas duas escolas das duas aldeias indígenas em estudo, onde os professores e todos os envolvidos na educação devem, segundo Dias e Porto (2010, p. 50),

[...] adquirir, na sua formação, capacidade para lidar com as diversidades socioculturais na escola, visando à superação dos processos discriminatórios e de exclusão social, e consequentemente, à promoção de inclusão, é possível fazer uma aproximação qualificada entre a Educação em Direitos Humanos e a formação do Pedagogo.

Penso que a mediação entre formação, processo educacional indígena e interculturalidade faz parte de uma única construção, capaz de promover discussões e novas posturas para uma educação diferenciada.

A concepção de interculturalidade assume múltiplas caracterizações, mas, de modo geral, "[...] traz a ideia de inter-relação, diálogo e troca entre culturas diferentes e supõe a coexistência da diversidade como riqueza" (PALADINO; ALMEIDA, 2012, p. 16), ou seja, um tratamento igualitário das culturas sem sobreposições. A interculturalidade pressupõe a existência de múltiplas formas de culturas que convivem juntas, o que nos proporciona a diversidade.

Apesar da tentativa das políticas públicas educacionais em acabar com os diversos tipos de discriminação, o preconceito racial ainda não foi resolvido, apresentando maior destaque dentre os demais. Isso é fomentado por uma ideologia que impõe

a superioridade de um povo, de uma raça, ou mesmo de uma cultura sobre outras, demonstrado de diversas formas: em nível cultural, religioso, biológico. Não se pode escamotear uma historiografia dos povos indígenas que possibilita um legado diversificado para a construção das relações raciais e de valorização étnica de seu pertencimento das identidades.

Inserir a diversidade étnico-cultural na educação intercultural indígena se constitui num grande desafio. Tal problemática, na produção teórico-metodológica educacional, pressupõe uma nova concepção de educação e de formação docente. Refere-se a uma concepção em que a prática docente seja entendida como sujeito sociocultural, isto é, aquele que proporciona um autodesenvolvimento face a suas experiências no contexto da diversidade. Também é importante considerar que os currículos nas escolas indígenas não são apenas transmissão de conhecimentos; há uma lógica que exclui e seleciona determinados conhecimentos no âmbito da sociedade, utilizada por grupos hegemônicos que produzem identidades e diferenças.

Dessa forma, o componente curricular deve ser reconstruído segundo o contexto dos grupos sociais e culturais dos povos Tembé e Karipuna. Um currículo de uma escola indígena, articulado com as concepções das relações étnico-raciais, deve estar atrelado aos estudos dos saberes culturais, da língua materna, da ancestralidade dos povos indígenas.

Entende-se que os principais resultados apontaram que, ao desconsiderar os saberes culturais indígenas, por sua vez, a escola do não indígena manipula e reforça a opressão dos grupos sociais subalternos e reproduz a colonialidade com a noção de conhecimentos superiores e inferiores. Por conta disso, vários povos indígenas passaram a se organizar, ampliar e melhorar as demandas por uma concepção de educação inovadora, específica, diferenciada e bilíngue, bem como os processos de ampliação de formação inicial e continuada de professores.

III. UMA PEDAGOGIA DECOLONIAL NA PERSPECTIVA DA INTERCULTURALIDADE E DO PENSAMENTO DECOLONIAL LATINO-AMERICANO

Entende-se que a discussão sobre a educação para a diversidade e interculturalidade é algo necessário, tanto para a sociedade quanto para a escola contemporânea, educação essa a ser debatida e discutida, criando novas possibilidades de construção de conhecimentos e de uma intensa participação de todos os envolvidos com a educação. É importante fundamentar um amplo consenso no cenário educacional e provocar novas reflexões no corpo docente acerca desses conceitos já utilizados,

tencionando para problematizar o que vem sendo realizado (NUNES, 2017).

Pensando assim, há uma urgência no surgimento de novas práticas na educação étnico-racial e consolidação da iniciativa de projeto decolonial do conhecimento e das estruturas de poder, respectivamente (MIGNOLO, 2003, 2005; QUIJANO, 2005), além da necessidade de uma prática pedagógica sob a perspectiva de interculturalidade crítica (WALSH, 2001, 2005, 2007).

Na concepção de Quijano (2005), trata-se de uma questão complexa que afeta o cotidiano das escolas e o trabalho dos professores. Sobre as questões étnico-raciais, vale ressaltar que,

Na América, a ideia de raça foi uma maneira de outorgar legitimidade às relações de dominação impostas pela conquista. [...] Historicamente, isso significou uma nova maneira de legitimar as já antigas ideias e práticas de relações de superioridade/inferioridade entre dominantes e dominados. Desde então demonstrou ser o mais eficaz e durável instrumento de dominação social universal. (QUIJANO, 2005, p. 118).

Quijano explicita que o conceito de raça é uma abstração, uma invenção que nada tem a ver com processos biológicos. É no século XVI que se cria a união entre cor e raça, e mais, esse conceito, para o autor, exerce papel fundamental no desenvolvimento do capitalismo moderno a partir do século XIX (OLIVEIRA; CANDAU, 2010). Entende-se que a escola precisa averiguar criticamente tais abstrações e seus significados e, consequentemente, a prática docente, articulada com a especificidade de cada disciplina, para ressignificar o foco dessa discussão. Segundo Oliveira e Candau (2010, p. 20),

Além disso, esse conceito operou a inferiorização de grupos humanos não-europeus, do ponto de vista da produção da divisão racial do trabalho, do salário, da produção cultural e dos conhecimentos. Por isso, Quijano fala também da colonialidade do saber, entendida como a repressão de outras formas de produção de conhecimento não-europeus, que nega o legado intelectual e histórico de povos indígenas e africanos, reduzindo-os, por sua vez, à categoria de primitivos e irracionais, pois pertencem a “outra raça”.

Walter Mignolo (2005), nessa pauta de reflexão, vai considerar que as ciências humanas, legitimadas pelo Estado, cumpriram papel fundamental na invenção do outro. Pode-se afirmar, ainda segundo o mesmo autor, que o discurso da história do pensamento europeu é, de um lado, a história da modernidade europeia e, de outro, a história silenciada da colonialidade europeia.

A escola, nesse contexto de complexidades em uma sociedade desigual e racista que se transforma rapidamente, tem que demonstrar habilidades diante das relações que compõem o exercício do poder,

assumindo o compromisso de respeitar as diferenças e cumprir seu papel social na construção de uma sociedade justa, igual e solidária.

Para Moreira e Candau (2003), a escola sempre teve dificuldade em lidar com a pluralidade e a diferença. Tende a silenciá-las e aniquilá-las. Seguir os padrões da escola regular, com a homogeneização e na busca pela “normalização”, acaba negando as questões das diferenças. Faz-se necessário que o sistema de ensino seja reestruturado e que as escolas trabalhem a partir de uma nova cultura, concretizada através de ações articuladas e com a participação direta de todos.

Como pensar numa educação diferenciada, já que existem 210 sociedades indígenas hoje no Brasil, constituídas de tradições culturais singulares, experimentando contextos históricos distintos? Desse modo, a escola indígena deve ser concebida nas pretensões e necessidades de cada povo indígena.

Como se sabe, as diferenças culturais se deparam com questões desafiadoras, tanto para as sociedades quanto para as escolas na atualidade, e em particular para as práticas pedagógicas dentro de determinadas relações sociais. Nesse sentido, podem-se destacar algumas: questões de gênero, sexualidade, relações étnico-raciais, conflitos entre igualdade e diferenças e direitos humanos.

O papel da escola na atualidade é também de compreender essa diversidade com atitudes que favoreçam a produção e a ressignificação dos saberes e dos conhecimentos dos diferentes grupos culturais. Vale ressaltar que os debates e discussões podem favorecer a busca e a luta por justiça social, por reconhecimento e por melhores condições humanas de vida para todos, indistintamente (SILVA; REBOLO, 2017, p. 181). O argumento apresentado constitui o fundamento norteador da educação que se busca atualmente.

A concepção da colonialidade do ser dissemina a ideologia da soberania da identidade masculina, heterossexual e branca e, por outro lado, menospreza a identidade indígena, negra, feminina, ou qualquer classe social que rompe com o paradigma prescrito. Dessa forma, as ideias que representam o modelo de modernidade são consideradas superiores, porque seria a exclusiva forma de produzir conhecimentos.

Tal compreensão explica o ideário de “eurocentrismo”, defendido a partir do Iluminismo no século XVIII, que atribuiu à Europa o caráter de superioridade com relação às demais nações e povos (RIBEIRO, 2017). Isso significa dizer que a colonialidade do saber é uma atitude eurocêntrica diante do conhecimento, que utiliza, a partir do Iluminismo, a ideia de que apenas o conhecimento científico e filosófico fundamentado por cientistas e pensadores

excepcionais era considerado autêntico. Entende-se, dessa forma, que os conhecimentos subalternos, ao se relacionarem com saberes dos antepassados e tradições culturais vistas como extravagantes, são comprovados como obstáculo epistemológico¹ a ser superado.

Partindo dessas considerações, “[...] a não existência das organizações sociais, dos saberes, experiências e modos de vida que fazem parte dos grupos sociais oprimidos pela colonização é produzida por uma racionalidade monocultural” (RIBEIRO, 2017, p. 46). Assim sendo, compreende-se que a produção dessa conjuntura, a partir da concepção monocultural, é incorporada pela colonialidade do poder, do saber e do ser.

IV. A PEDAGOGIA DECOLONIAL NAS ALDEIAS INDÍGENAS: CONSIDERAÇÕES E PROPOSTAS DE TRABALHO COM O Povo TEMBÉ E KARIKUNA

Para decolonizar a educação indígena, é necessário construir uma educação diferenciada, considerando todas as formas de saberes e conhecimentos ancestrais e socioculturais. Diferentes formas culturais de conhecimento devem ser valorizadas e poder conviver no mesmo espaço na sala de aula, sem a fragmentação do conhecimento e o descredito das experiências dos mais velhos das aldeias. Os saberes que partem da vida cotidiana têm que passar pelo processo de construção intercultural, pois, na perspectiva da educação diferenciada dos saberes, toda forma de conhecimento tem algo para contribuir na aprendizagem dos alunos.

Com a conquista do direito à educação diferenciada, os povos do campo requerem também, por legítimo direito, o reconhecimento de seus saberes como formas explicativas do mundo no qual vivem e trabalham; têm uma experiência singular com a natureza e seus fenômenos. Tudo isso permite promover um diálogo que possibilite que o aluno traga seus conhecimentos, repertório cultural simbólico, etc., para o diálogo e a discussão em sala de aula, sem que estes sejam discriminados e não aceitos. A educação e, consequentemente, a formação intercultural de professores para o campo pressupõem:

[...] adotar a perspectiva do intercultural como processo de diálogo, comunicação entre pessoas ou grupos pertencentes a culturas diferentes (nacionalidades, origem social, gênero, ocupação, etc.), que promove a integração e o respeito à diversidade e permite ao educando

¹ Gaston Bachelard (1884-1962), da teoria do racionalismo científico durante o século XX, propôs o conceito de obstáculo epistemológico. A pesquisa científica seria sempre algo construído que precisa ser rigorosamente elaborado; nesse processo, o senso comum é semelhante ao obstáculo da realidade.



encontrar-se com a cultura do outro sem deixar de lado a sua própria [...]. (WALESKO, 2006, p. 27).

A formação de professores, sob a perspectiva intercultural, torna-se inseparável da matriz curricular da educação básica, sendo, portanto, um território a ser decolonizado, reconhecendo seu modo de vida e suas experiências. Os conhecimentos são provenientes, quase totalmente, do Ocidente e da ciência moderna. Os livros didáticos, que começaram a ser modificados a partir, principalmente, da Lei nº 10.639/2003, que institui a obrigatoriedade do ensino de história e cultura africana e afro-brasileira na educação básica, disseminam livremente, por muito tempo, ideias estereotipadas dos negros e quilombolas, ignorando as mulheres na ciência e na história e outros tipos de conhecimento.

Ao desconsiderar os saberes culturais indígenas, a escola manipula e reforça a opressão dos grupos sociais subalternos e reproduz a colonialidade com a noção de conhecimentos superiores e inferiores. “A escola desclassifica os alunos de origem desses grupos sociais, não consegue salvar mais do que a minoria de alunos-milagre, cujo êxito justifica, aparentemente, a relegação e a eliminação da maioria” (RIBEIRO, 2017, p. 49).

A escola é uma instituição extremamente classificatória e excluente, porque ao desprezar os diferentes conhecimentos populares também exclui os que fazem parte dessas culturas. A escola indígena precisa combater e questionar esse tipo de exclusão

que se fundamenta na ideologia de que todos fazemos parte da mesma sociedade, “[...] mas, cada um vale, conforme a sua origem escolar, seu pertencimento étnico e sua condição econômica” (BANIWA, 2013, p. 9).

Por conta disso, vários povos indígenas passaram a se organizar, ampliar e melhorar as demandas por uma concepção de educação inovadora, específica, diferenciada e bilíngue, bem como os processos de ampliação de formação inicial e continuada de professores. Por fim, a partir de diálogos com os professores e alunos em sala de aula sobre esses saberes nas duas etnias em estudo, evidencia-se a importância de construir uma escola democrática que reconheça, além das imposições da educação formal, e permita que o povo indígena participe ativamente de uma reflexão crítica e repense a sua educação.

Nesse sentido, foram propostas, junto aos professores indígenas, algumas intervenções na prática da interculturalidade e no fazer pedagógico, a partir de diferentes tipos de conhecimentos, os quais estabelecem uma relação de igualdade, de diálogo e respeito à cultura local. As atividades desenvolvidas com as crianças do Povo Tembé envolvem jogos educativos e didáticos bilíngues relacionando a teoria com a prática, levando em consideração o contexto cultural peculiar do povo indígena. Isso pressupõe respeitar as crianças como produtoras culturais e não como meros receptores apáticos da educação colonizadora.



Fonte: Acervo dos autores (2019).

Figuras 1, 2, 3: Espaços de sociabilidade com atividades diferenciadas nas aldeias São Pedro e Frasqueira

Castro-Gómez (2007) exemplifica como em uma disputa de diferenças, onde o mais importante não é definir qual é o melhor conhecimento, conforme ideias preestabelecidas, mas sim fortalecer o diálogo entre uma posição, um saber e os outros possíveis. Ao considerar uma pedagogia decolonial, a educação escolar indígena ou quilombola, baseada na interculturalidade, na tradição intercultural e na troca de saberes, deve questionar constantemente as formas de desumanização, opressão e os padrões de poder que encobrem as diferentes formas de saber e de ser. Deve levar em conta a diversidade cultural e possibilitar aos alunos outras compreensões de mundo e de

conhecimento, que permitam a reflexão sobre o seu e outros contextos (ALVES, 2014).

A educação escolar indígena, ao promover a interculturalidade e partir da relevância dos elementos do contexto cultural, considera os educandos como sujeitos complexos, carregados de saberes, que pertencem a um grupo socialmente excluído, com séculos de opressão e marginalização nos currículos escolares.

São sujeitos políticos, pensantes, sociais, culturais, com memória sábia de experiências, indignação, sujeitos de presente e futuro. A partir de novas diretrizes pedagógicas, valoriza-se os indígenas

não como seres fragmentados e sim como construtores de sua própria história de vida e os significados dos seus conhecimentos e sua relevância para a educação intercultural indígena.

V. CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

É importante conceber o diálogo de saberes nos processos formativos de educadores indígenas. Acredita-se que é necessário incluir o conhecimento tradicional no currículo das diversas disciplinas, a partir de habilidades que diferenciem as separações e os contextos de uso entre o tradicional e o científico.

Os breves dados apresentados neste trabalho, sobre as relações étnico-raciais pesquisadas nos povos Tembé e Karipuna, revelaram a complexidade de dimensões envolvidas no contexto da cultura e no modo de aprender. A escola, em vez de ser um lugar de “embranquecimento” e de eurocentrismo colonial, deve ser um espaço de discussão da história e da tradição dos povos indígenas, valorizando as referências culturais que devem ser consideradas no âmbito da escola indígena, fundamentadas nos Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais (PCN).

Constatou-se que a formação docente deve considerar as experiências anteriores, entendendo os professores como autores autônomos na construção de uma educação igualitária e intercultural. É necessário repensar criticamente os fundamentos da educação básica antirracista redefinindo os papéis dos professores, da matriz curricular e da educação escolar indígena como um todo e criando condições políticas para tal. Exige-se um esforço intelectual com todos os envolvidos com a educação intercultural indígena, que ressignifique a identidade e o educar para as relações étnico-raciais com responsabilidade coletiva.

Assim, a dimensão de saberes é produzida pela inquietação e pela crescente relevância dos conhecimentos/saberes tradicionais indígenas e pelos processos autônomos de aprendizagem, ou seja, de uma pedagogia indígena – no fortalecimento de uma educação emancipatória e de reconhecimento. Ressalta-se a importância dos saberes ancestrais e das tradições de cada povo, valorizados na cultura escolar, no cotidiano das aldeias, bem como a relevância da realidade contextualizada nos vários conteúdos de ensino e de diálogos interculturais.

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Bridging Western and Eastern Perspectives on Education: A Comparative Study of Paulo Freire's Critical Pedagogy and Confucianism in the Digital Era

By Qianchao Ge

Introduction- The global spread of digital learning indicates a degradation of the current traditional teacher-centred approach to schooling, replaced by a form of teaching and learning where digital education leads personalised learning (Benade, 2015). As the digital age continues to shape the context of modern education, scholars are exploring new ways of bridging Western and Eastern perspectives on education in order to better understand the role of critical pedagogy today. Freire's (2021) critical pedagogy emphasises that traditional forms of education tend to reinforce educator power structures, which may trigger inequalities. Critical pedagogy can promote the idea that education should be a process that liberates the capacity to learn rather than a merely mechanical means of imparting knowledge or skills. Eastern Confucianism, represented by Confucius (770–481 BCE), pointed to the importance of moral behaviours, such as 'Jen'(Benevolence), 'Li' (Ritual), and 'Zhi'(Wisdom), which emphasised the role of the teacher in society (Tan, 2015). Thus, Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy and Confucianism both offer unique perspectives on ways to re-imagine education in the digital age (Freire, 2015; Tan, 2015). This paper explores how the educational theories of two philosophers from the East and West, Confucius and Paulo Freire, as can offer a critical understanding of digital education.

GJHSS-G Classification: LCC: LB1025.3



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INTRODUCTION

The global spread of digital learning indicates a degradation of the current traditional teacher-centred approach to schooling, replaced by a form of teaching and learning where digital education leads personalised learning (Benade, 2015). As the digital age continues to shape the context of modern education, scholars are exploring new ways of bridging Western and Eastern perspectives on education in order to better understand the role of critical pedagogy today. Freire's (2021) critical pedagogy emphasises that traditional forms of education tend to reinforce educator power structures, which may trigger inequalities. Critical pedagogy can promote the idea that education should be a process that liberates the capacity to learn rather than a merely mechanical means of imparting knowledge or skills. Eastern Confucianism, represented by Confucius (770–481 BCE), pointed to the importance of moral behaviours, such as 'Jen' (Benevolence), 'Li' (Ritual), and 'Zhi' (Wisdom), which emphasised the role of the teacher in society (Tan, 2015). Thus, Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy and Confucianism both offer unique perspectives on ways to re-imagine education in the digital age (Freire, 2015; Tan, 2015). This paper explores how the educational theories of two philosophers from the East and West, Confucius and Paulo Freire, as can offer a critical understanding of digital education. First, it introduces the digital education landscape; then, it applies the pedagogical theories of the two scholars to the context of digital education, summarises the similarities and differences in their perspectives on this field.

The popularity of digital education has changed the form of pedagogy and raised many social issues, such as the digital divide and ethical privacy. In this section, we examine definitions and key features of digital education and potential challenges to it. According to Beetham and Sharpe (2013), digital education is often defined as the use of digital technologies, including web-based learning resources and software and digital communication tools, to support teaching and learning. Understood this way, one of the key features of digital education is that it presents opportunities. Firstly, the high accessibility of digital education can remove geographical and

temporal constraints, thus making education more accessible in areas that lack educational resources (Gu, 2021). In addition, digital education can provide a more personalised learning experience, and big data platforms can help students better grasp the content by monitoring their learning behaviour and providing accurate feedback (Green et al., 2005).

However, in the practice of digital education, we also need to analyse key social, cultural and ethical features in a multi-dimensional way. Firstly, digital education may exacerbate educational inequalities. As the delivery of digital education may require certain requirements of information and communication technologies (ICT) and equipment, some economically disadvantaged students may not be able to access the related benefits, which may lead to a digital divide or even further contribute to a knowledge divide (van Deursen & van Dijk, 2019). More broadly, it may be possible to apply a critical application of decolonising thinking to digital education, as universal access to this form of education does not necessarily mean equal opportunities for everyone (Timmis & Muhuro, 2019). In addition to the digital divide caused by inequalities in economic capital, other inequalities in socio-cultural capital, such as gender, racial imbalance and geographical imbalance, can all contribute to the digital divide (Costa et al., 2019). Moreover, some researchers have expressed concerns about the privacy and security issues that may be raised by digital education. For example, digital tracking of data, although used as predictive analysis of learner performance, plays a key role. However, the lack of transparency and protection of personal data has led to concerns about its misuse, potential security breaches in digital education, and the potential for algorithms and artificial intelligence (AI) to perpetuate previous ethical issues such as data bias (Hakimi et al., 2021; Pangrazio & Selwyn, 2019).

Scholars have not only considered the key positive and negative features of digital education in terms of privacy and reach, but have considered it from the perspective of critical pedagogy with a particular emphasis on how it enables dialogue. This has led to the emergence of the pedagogy of digital education. According to Freire (2011), dialogic education argues that learning should not be a 'bank' from which information is unilaterally drawn and passed from teacher to student, but rather a collaborative process

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involving the use of critical thinking for the construction of knowledge (Shih, 2018). Freire (2015) also argues that social inequality exists in the teacher-student relationship in traditional education, and, as critical pedagogy provides the conditions to encourage students to become citizens who can think critically about power, it aims to achieve educational equality (Giroux, 2010).

Paulo Freire's application of critical pedagogy to digital education, outlined above, may aim to enhance students' knowledge and thinking through a critical consciousness of technology. Firstly, according to Freire and Macedo (2005), critical pedagogy points out that a broad understanding of the living world perspective and broadening of horizons may be the most obvious advantage of digital education. Specifically, through digital technology it is possible to provide more educational opportunities to understand the intersection of information and ideas from different backgrounds around the world. Knowledge in digital education is developed in an egalitarian dialogue based on digital technology; that is, this knowledge is not held by individuals, but collectively by those in the dialogue. Conversely, dialogue cannot happen when educators and other leaders override students (Bontly et al., 2017). However, there is a limitation to applying Freire's ideas to digital education. We need to be cautious in considering that student-centred forms of teaching and learning in digital education may be context-dependent and that student-centred approaches to education may lead to a lack of teacher control over the pace of the curriculum. Thus, in order to realise the full potential of digital technologies through critical pedagogy, it is important to remain alert to potential challenges and to promote social transformation and equity based on adapting digital educational practices.

The inspiration of Confucianism in contemporary digital education may refer to Confucius' philosophy on the object and process of education. On the former, Confucius advocates that 'instruction knows no class distinction', implying the principle that educators should admit students regardless of nationality or ethnicity (Yi & Fu, 2017). Hence, applying this principle can break aristocratic monopolies on education, making it accessible to students who were formerly denied the right to education. Similarly, digital education breaks down the geographical limitations on traditional education, giving students in rural areas help to address educational needs to support synergistic links between digital equity and intercultural education (Resta & Laferrière, 2015). However, as discussed above in relation to issues of privacy and geographical reach, digital education also poses some limitations considered in Confucian terms, particularly in relation to potential conflicts between mainstream cultures and other minority cultures. For example, educational content in mainstream digital education environments

may be subject to dominantly accepted cultural, social and political influences, while social groups from minority cultures may react to and understand digital educational content differently (Resta & Laferrière, 2015). Therefore, in applying Confucius' thoughts on education to digital education, there is a need to pay particular attention to and respect learners from different cultural and social backgrounds and to maintain digital equity.

Furthermore, in the educational process Confucianism respects the use of *Yin Chai Shi Jiao* (the concept of teaching according to students' level to fully explore human potential), based on students' individual differences, which is in line with the aim of digital education to track students' personal data to provide more personalised teaching and learning (Green et al., 2005; Ying-Syuan & Asghar. 2018). Additionally, Confucianism views education as the maintenance of moral cultivation and etiquette, with a focus on *Jen* for the mutual cultivation of respect and self-respect (Wawrytko, 1982). Hence, as outlined above, Confucian education, like Freire's critical pedagogy, is relevant to today's digital challenges and has important implications for the shaping of contemporary digital education ethics through the application of claims about student-centred education.

Confucius' and Freire's views on education and the issue of moral responsibility and balance in digital education can be compared in several ways. Firstly, Confucius' view of education does not involve the blind worship of teachers. Indeed, his words that 'three people must be my teachers', as espoused in the Analects of Confucius (Ames & Jr, 2010), is similar to Paul Freire's (2009) emphasis on the importance of dialogue and co-creation of knowledge between teachers and students in his essay on the pedagogy of the oppressed. Secondly, Freire's critical education promotes 'dialogue education' and the practice that learning is not just a process of transferring information from teacher to student, but of constructing knowledge that involves critical thinking. Similarly, Confucius believed that learning by rote all the time was dangerous (Makeham, 1996). He encouraged students to use *Si* (thinking) to reflect on, internalise and apply what had been learned (Tan, 2015). Thus, both scholars reject authoritarian forms of education that emphasise rote learning and prioritise dialogic and interactive forms of education that promote critical thinking. Finally, both thinkers considered in this paper affirm the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning, rather than an authority figure who transmits knowledge to the student. Education is a process in which students and teachers learn from each other. The main area of disagreement between the two thinkers is that Confucius sees a harmonious society as most appropriate for learning, whereas Freire prefers radical criticism to transform society to promote education. At the same time, Freire sees education as a tool for critical

consciousness and social transformation (Farag et al., 2022), while Confucianism believes that education should emphasise the cultivation of Jen, Li and wisdom in virtue (Tan, 2008).

In summary, it can be said that a critical analysis and comparison of Freire's Critical Pedagogy and Confucian educational perspectives is needed in digital education. Firstly, in the face of ethical and moral challenges such as the misuse of personal data and AI data bias mentioned earlier, educational institutions should consider how to balance economic benefits and ethical responsibilities in digital education to bring technology back to student-centred goals. Secondly, educators should focus on how to balance status inequalities between teachers and students in the digital environment and foster opportunities for students to engage in dialogue and reflection (Funk et al., 2016). Finally, it is recommended that students become co-constructors of knowledge in digital education rather than passive recipients. Furthermore, students may be cautious about teacher-student inequalities and power relations in digital education in order to develop a more holistic digital literacy (Knox, 2019).

This paper has enhanced our critical understanding of digital education by comparing the potential of Freire's Critical Pedagogy and Confucian perspectives on education, having listed issues such as the digital divide and the protection of personal data privacy, introduced critical pedagogy theories that emphasise the importance of dialogue between teachers and students in relation to the co-creation of knowledge and encourage the use of critical awareness in digital education, and analysed how Confucian education is relevant to today's digital education challenges, such as maintaining equality in digital education, respecting individualised education and complementing ethical education with digital technology. Finally, it has identified similarities and differences in the values of critical pedagogy and Confucian education and their potential implications for digital education. The limitations of this paper are that it only narrowly considers the individual and social dimensions of digital education and does not consider the policy implications. Future research could focus on the impact of policy making on digital education.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: G
LINGUISTICS & EDUCATION
Volume 24 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Intermodal Bilinguals: Acquisition of Sign Language as L1 and Written Language as L2

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Abstract- Based on a bibliographical review and re-readings of different authors, we aim to bring visibility to the discussion regarding intermodal bilingualism and, consequently, to present a reflection on the acquisition of the first and second languages (L1 and L2) by deaf children. We aim to highlight the importance of the first language, in this case, sign language, as a means for developing competence in the second language, the oral language, in its written modality. We divided the article into an explanation of the contact of deaf children with sign language (SL) as their first language. It discusses the development of oral language (OL) as the second language: first addressing writing and then moving on to issues related to reading. Finally, it reflects on using visual resources and how these visual modes can enhance the second language teaching and learning process for deaf children.

Keywords: *intermodal bilingual; sign language; deafness; L2.*

GJHSS-G Classification: LCC: HV2474



INTERMODAL BILINGUALS ACQUISITION OF SIGN LANGUAGE AS L1 AND WRITTEN LANGUAGE AS L2

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Intermodal Bilinguals: Acquisition of Sign Language as L1 and Written Language as L2

Bilíngues Intermodais: Aquisição da Língua de Sinais Como L1 e da Língua Escrita Como L2

Dayse Garcia Miranda ^a & Anelise Fonseca Dutra ^o

Resumo- A partir de uma revisão bibliográfica, releituras de diferentes autores, intenciona-se dar visibilidade à discussão quanto ao bilinguismo intermodal e, assim, apresentar uma reflexão sobre a aquisição da primeira e segunda línguas (L1 e L2) por crianças surdas. Objetiva ecoar quanto à importância da primeira língua, nesse caso, a língua de sinais, como meio para o desenvolvimento da competência da L2, língua oral, modalidade escrita. O artigo se divide em uma explanação sobre o contato da criança surda com a língua de sinais (LS), como primeira língua e discute o desenvolvimento na língua oral (LO) como segunda língua: primeiramente, tratando da escrita e, em seguida, segue-se para questões relacionadas à leitura. Por fim, apresenta uma reflexão sobre os recursos imagéticos e como estes modos visuais podem engrandecer o processo de ensino e aprendizado de segunda língua para as crianças surdas.

Palavras-Chave: bilíngue intermodal; língua de sinais; surdez; L2.

Abstract Based on a bibliographical review and re-readings of different authors, we aim to bring visibility to the discussion regarding intermodal bilingualism and, consequently, to present a reflection on the acquisition of the first and second languages (L1 and L2) by deaf children. We aim to highlight the importance of the first language, in this case, sign language, as a means for developing competence in the second language, the oral language, in its written modality. We divided the article into an explanation of the contact of deaf children with sign language (SL) as their first language. It discusses the development of oral language (OL) as the second language: first addressing writing and then moving on to issues related to reading. Finally, it reflects on using visual resources and how these visual modes can enhance the second language teaching and learning process for deaf children.

Keywords: intermodal bilingual; sign language; deafness; L2.

INTRODUCTION

This article seeks to reflect on how researchers such as Andrews and Rusher (2010), Gallimore (2000), Gárate (2014), Mayberry (2007), Plaza-Pust (2012, 2014), Kuntze et al. (2014), Miranda (2019),

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Pereira (2009), Quadros and Cruz (2011), Silva, S. (2008) address the L1-L2 relationship for deaf children. The main proposal is to reinterpret foreign and Brazilian authors and, based on their observations, construct a text that presents the main ideas and thus assist the reader in a more systematic way to reflect on the process of writing and reading a second language by deaf children. We chose to study these renowned authors due to the credibility and seriousness with which they treat the data from their research and their conviction regarding the importance of sign language as the first language. According to these authors, this is the foundation for success in the second language and its written modality. Similarly, the references used to discuss the difficulties in bilingual education for these individuals primarily focus on the fact that teaching methodology is the basis of the learning difficulties faced by deaf children and highlight the importance of a specific way of teaching as promising, particularly one that uses visual resources as a foundation. However, there is still a lack of a robust quantity of literature on the subject, and thus discussions of this nature are essential for academic production.

I. SIGN LANGUAGE: L1 ACQUISITION

Studies on the acquisition and use of two or more languages reveal that the human mind can deal with situations of contact between languages and search for linguistic resources for each language within their respective spaces of use. Plaza-Pust and Weinmeister (2008, p.258), researchers in the field of deafness, investigate the complexity of language acquisition with different modalities (sign languages, visuospatial mode, oral language, and oral-auditorial mode) and name it an *intermodal phenomenon*.

They can identify the intermodal phenomenon in the linguistic elements of communication (sentences, lexicons) and different degrees of integration and knowledge. This phenomenon shows that intermodal bilingual learners potentialize the linguistic resources available in the interaction. As language acquisition progresses, they establish new forms of organization in circulating languages.

Therefore, when it comes to deaf children, it is essential to focus the discussions on bilingual



acquisition; in this case, acquisition involves different languages and operational modes of language. This differentiation of modes can configure specific linguistic acquisition processes and how linguistic resource use occurs during language learning. In this sense, the difference in the modality of sign language (visuospatial) should be the principle that guides the policies of use and mastery, as well as the individual aspects of deafness.

In this line of reflection, they point out that specific circumstances, such as access and exposure to languages, are essential to the linguistic development of deaf children. Plaza-Pust (2012, p.957) advocates that every child should have access to the language that will be their first one spontaneously and interactively. Deaf children, due to hearing limitations, are in an unavoidable condition to access the oral language (OL) that circulates in the family environment because most deaf children are born into families where their parents can hear (Quadros, 1997). They do not know the sign language. In this case, children must access their first language through a visuospatial sign language (SL). It is from this language that deaf children enter the universe of communication naturally and spontaneously, unlike the oral language, which will require clinical-therapeutic intervention.

The child acquires language in interaction with people around them by listening or seeing the language or languages used. Although language involves complex processes, the child "starts talking" or "starts signaling" when faced with opportunities to use the language (or languages). They experience language in each moment of the interaction, activating their language ability through contact with the language used in the environment. Any child acquires language when they have natural acquisition opportunities. (QUADROS; CRUZ, 2011, p. 15).

Regarding exposure, Plaza-Pust (2012, p.960) states that the age of contact with sign language is a critical issue for most deaf people; once again, he points out that deaf children are born into hearing parents' homes. The distancing or the success in access and exposure to SL depends on factors such as parental choices about language and early educational intervention. The idea of mother language or L1 is related to the age at which contact with the first language occurs and to the environment in which family members use the language at home. Even in countries where bilingual education is available, many parents seek sign language as an option for their deaf child much later in life, so many deaf children come into contact with SL when they are older.

According to Mayberry (2007, p.538), social and cultural factors delay deaf children's exposure to L1. For instance, the age at which people detect hearing loss varies greatly. Therefore, the child's age and the family receiving specialized care also varies. However, the author states that the care available, in most cases, is

focused on hearing and speech training, omitting or minimizing contact with SL, which even recognized as L1 in clinical environments, is usually used as support and not as the language for interactional use. Speaking is a complex process for deaf children. Even with powerful hearing devices and cochlear implants, it is exhausting for deaf children to spontaneously acquire oral language as an L1. They need a period for oral linguistic development, which is achieved based on sign language.

Deaf children present three different contexts for acquiring SL, according to the environment in which they live. The contexts are identified as (i) home, with parents and family who may be either hearing and/or deaf; (ii) the school, the bilingual school with a linguistic environment for SL, involves deaf adults, bilingual teachers, and/or deaf colleagues. If a child is in an inclusive school, the contact with SL may be through the SL interpreter and/or by a linguistic peer (deaf colleague). (iii) By the clinic with specialized care before entry or at the same time as school. Some clinics use a bilingual approach to care for deaf children. Experience in different contexts will determine the implications for the process and the language development of deaf children. (QUADROS; CRUZ, 2011, p.31).

Mayberry (2007, p.543) reports that parents do not expose many deaf children to sign language during the sensitive period for language acquisition. They start to use gestures and mimes to experiment with non-linguistic events in communicative interaction. Deaf children often access sign language as L1 very late, between the ages of five and ten. Using an artificial language system (gestures) at home or in preschool may negatively impact the later development of SL. Nevertheless, the author states that total accessibility to the language can compensate for the exposure delay.

Research on deaf children's language acquisition (Mayberry, 2007; Pereira, 2009) indicates that deaf children can achieve language even with "poor" input, even with few opportunities and/or low-quality interaction in sign language. There is much evidence that language acquisition is based on universal principles of natural languages (Generative Theory), as there are samples that prove that there is a sensitive period for language acquisition to happen correctly.

Quadros and Cruz (2011, p.17) report that American research found that deaf children exposed to SL after age twelve present much more difficulty with some SL linguistic structures and oral language than those who have contact with SL from a young age.

A study (PLAZA-PUST; WEINMEISTER, 2008, p. 263) on the writing of deaf children who attended the bilingual program in Hamburg, Germany, revealed that these children benefit from knowledge of German Sign Language (GSL) in two aspects: (i) they benefit from general knowledge obtained through this language (general world), from knowledge about grammar and SL

production and narratives; and (ii) they compensate the gaps in writing by borrowing SL structures. A fact confirmed by Brazilian researchers such as Ronice Quadros (1997, 2005) and Maria Cristina Pereira (2009), among others, state that the acquisition of sign language as L1, naturally and spontaneously, and in the period considered appropriate for the constitution of the language, offers a consolidated linguistic basis for second language acquisition.

Starting the discussion regarding learning a second language (L2), we know that the complete acquisition of the first language (L1), starting in childhood, contributes to learning another language. In the case of children born deaf, they often start contact with sign language and have only minimal language acquisition (gestures/expressions). Then, late access to the first language affects the outcome of L2 learning. If exposure to linguistic input is not early in life, this will affect the result of both L1 acquisition and all subsequent learning, such as L2.

The first language is a necessary resource for the development of L2 competence. Proficiency in the first language contributes to the development of the second one, as linguistic and conceptual knowledge of L1 is transferred to L2. Cummins's principle of Linguistic Interdependence (1994, *apud* CARVALHO, 2013, p.25) supports this basis: to the extent that L1 instruction is effective, the children transfer this proficiency to L2. However, for learning to happen, the learner must experience adequate exposure to L2 (whether at school or in a social environment) and be motivated to learn it.

Regarding deafness, researchers have a consensus that oral/written language can be acquired as a second language, written modality, by deaf children with a bilingual education. However, few researchers agree that deaf children can compensate for the lack of access to oral language by using other ways to learn written language and thus be successful in L2. According to Plaza-Pust (2012, p. 963), researchers are divided when discussing the acquisition of writing by deaf children. Some consider it important to reflect on the impact of hearing loss and its effects on the writing development of deaf children, especially regarding the role of phonological awareness in literacy development. Others emphasize that it is necessary to look only at written language.

[...] Gunther (2003), for example, maintains that although written language is related to spoken language, it is an autonomous semiotic system. Learners must 'crack the code' along the lines proposed for other acquisition situations; that is, they must identify the relevant units of each linguistic level, the rules that govern their combination, and the interrelation of the different linguistic levels of analysis. Innate knowledge and linguistic environment are assumed to contribute to this process (PLAZA-PUST 2012, p. 964.).

Based on this principle, deaf children do not access oral language. Therefore, they could not read and write a second language. However, this idea is at odds with the results of several investigations, which reveal that deaf children's L1 (in this case, sign language) guides the learning of written L2, as both present visual elements in their structure. (Paula, 2023; Silva, R. 2023). Consequently, Mayberry (2007, p. 548) argues that deaf children with proficiency in L1, sign language, are more resourceful when learning L2, as writing is a visual representation of a spoken language. The acquisition of SL as L1 is the basis for the subsequent learning of an oral language as L2 in its written form.

II. DEVELOPING WRITTEN LANGUAGE (L2)

Continuing the discussion about learning L2/written by deaf children, Plaza-Pust (2014, p. 25) bases her notes on the Interdependence Principle by Cummins (1979). According to the author, this hypothesis draws attention to the functional distinctions in language use and the relevance of its mastery for academic performance in acquisition situations in which the first language (L1) differs from the language used at school (L2). Thus, the assumption is that deaf students cannot achieve written/reading language through interactions only in L1. Therefore, they rely on simultaneous sign and writing as a "viable option to provide access to L2 understanding, even though it is a less successful model developed by the Total Communication Program¹" (Mayer; Leigh, 2010, P. 177, APUD Plaza-Pust, 2014, P.26). The simultaneous use of languages is a tool in teaching a written language and a means of ensuring communication between the hearing teacher and deaf students.

According to Plaza-Pust (2012, p. 966), children differ in writing processing (phonemic, graphemic, or both). In this regard, through observation, she found that deaf and hearing students differ in the distribution of types of spelling errors in their written productions. In the writing of deaf students, she noted errors involving inversions, omissions, or substitutions of letters instead of errors related to sound correspondences, which are characteristic of the early writings of hearing students. Due to the absence of hearing, deaf students cannot phonetically structure words.

However, the author observes that the limited amount of reading input offered to deaf children is one factor that hinders the development of written language in these children. The differences between student groups in developmental progress lie in the diversification of the amount of input (access/exposure) available: while hearing children are continuously exposed to written language, deaf children have little

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access to and contact with their L2, in this case, written language. Thus, the variation in students' productions indicates the dynamic learning processes that shape language organization. Complementarily, where written language serves as L2, the role of sign language as L1 in its development is fundamental for an appropriate understanding of how deaf children can leverage their linguistic resources during bilingual development (PLAZA-PUST, 2012, p. 965).

There is much debate about teaching writing to deaf children, whether it should occur separately or in combination with sign language. Although most advocate for individualized teaching of each modality, research in this field has pointed to language mixing, temporarily, in bimodal bilingual learners. According to Plaza-Pust (2012, p. 966), in cases where there is an asymmetry in the development of two languages, learners may use a "relief strategy," a temporary borrowing of the lexicon or structural properties of the more advanced language. Thus, Plaza-Pust and Weinmeister (2008, p. 277) show that lexical and structural borrowings occur at specific stages of development in both languages, with structural borrowings decreasing as students progress.

One of the characteristics of the bimodal bilingual classroom is the constant use of languages in different modes. The authors base this diversity on the communicative practices among the participants in this linguistic environment. Researchers (Padden; Ramsey, 2008, as cited in Plaza-Pust, 2012, p. 969) have noted the importance of structural and pragmatic cues in providing information about language differences. In particular, similar or distinct educational roles for the different languages used in the classroom are fundamental to the success of bilingual development.

Research claims we must cultivate associations between sign language (SL) and written language. Regardless of the type of associations (manual spelling, alphabetic writing system, and/or the link between the two), the deaf student must be aware of the similarities and differences of each language. Knowing this will help students skillfully explore their linguistic resources in favor of mastering educational content. Language acquisition is a complex process for deaf children. Teachers (both deaf and hearing) and students creatively use their linguistic resources in dynamic communication situations. Thus, children learn to reflect on language, its structure, and its use (Plaza-Pust, 2012, p. 969).

The authors mentioned above report that in the early stages of learning to write, in communication between teachers and deaf children, the knowledge and attention to the relationships between different languages and codes become apparent: children use sign language to check meaning, and once they agree upon the equivalence of meaning, they use manual spelling to confirm the correct spelling of the word.

Sometimes, children and teachers may also use oral expressions for interaction.

The choice of which language to use in bilingual environments is complex, as it relates to numerous factors such as fluency in both languages, conversation partners, the situation, the topic, and the function of the interaction (Grosjean, 1994, p. 165). For bimodal bilinguals, the limitations in the perception and production of oral language condition their choice of sign language as a base language. Thus, code-switching may involve manual spelling in interactions with other linguistic signs.

Grosjean (1994, p. 169) points out that lexical borrowing among bilinguals from one language to another is a common aspect of discursive integration. Typically, code-switching occurs to emphasize, replace, or express a concept that has no equivalent in the language being used, reinforce a request, clarify a point, alleviate communicative tension, and indicate a change in attitude.

a) *Developing Second Language Reading*

Andrews and Rusher (2010, p. 409), in their research on deaf children reading in a bilingual classroom, report that the term code-switching is a didactic strategy and not the linguistic phenomenon itself; it is used by the teacher for different purposes as a planned instructional strategy, for storytelling (signing stories), and for reading written stories, where the teacher translates a written sentence from the spoken language to SL, assisting the deaf student in the literal translation of the text.

Gallimore (2000, p. 129) researches the strategies for using bimodal languages in the reading process of deaf children in "Teachers' Stories: Teaching American Sign Language and English Literacy." He also states that the teacher's placing a finger on a written word indicates to the deaf student that the translation of the word or phrase into SL will be given immediately after this pointing. In this case, we can say that the pointing resource acts as a guide for the deaf child's reading, representing one of the attempts to develop a visual paradigm in the acquisition of L2 for bilingual deaf children.

Thus, the author explains that there are case studies and action research with bilingual deaf students and their teachers using pointing/translating words—guided reading, manual spelling, and language alternation as promising strategies for learning to read.

In this way, Gallimore (2000, p. 134) explains these resources and reports that guided reading leads to students' textual comprehension. The focus is on using context to predict meaning (pointing to words/phrases and translating). With this strategy, the teacher can monitor and check reading development. The author emphasizes that the teacher's role is to carefully choose texts so that they are at the instructional level of

the deaf student and gradually increase their difficulty level. The deaf student must draw on prior knowledge and relate it to the text, make good use of illustrations (visual resources), use SL/spoken language knowledge to access written textual structures and attend to useful visual information.

Gallimore (2000, p.125) states that manual ² spelling offers several benefits to the reading skills of deaf children. Manual spelling is a way to represent oral expression. Because of this spelling, deaf children can identify words visually in the text. It separates the word from sound, and students can depict phonemes visually. It aids in reorganizing the structure of the word and in visual and written spelling correction; it helps recall words and practice reading. Finally, according to the author, manual spelling makes the deaf student a more efficient reader.

Andrews and Rusher (2010, p. 410–411) point out strategies developed by deaf educators using sign language as the primary means of communication. At the beginning of the class, they distribute copies of texts to the students. Shortly after the reading, they discuss the text, relate it to the student's prior knowledge, and seek to address any doubts about the material. Then, they move on to individualized reading. Students make a free translation of the text at the end of the reading.

From this free translation by the students, the educator draws a parallel between the grammar of the languages involved. When students are stuck on the textual lexicon, they stimulate peer interaction and encourage "playing" with the language. They identify problematic vocabulary and help discover connections between sign and written language. Students should be engaged in rich dialogue, continuously alternating between the two languages and using SL to mediate the text. In this way, these strategies ignore phonological information obtained auditorily and instead use semantics and pragmatic resources for understanding the printed text.

According to Gárate (2014, p. 39), the teacher needs to go beyond simple translation. They must teach the deaf student to organize ideas, create topics, and discuss the content with peers. They must encourage collective writing using software, essays, captioning, etc. They also should emphasize the importance of establishing moments of written language with the deaf student and explain the different modes of use. The alternating use (code-switching) of L1 and L2 helps the student understand the potential of each language and the ways each can influence the other, allowing for understanding and connections.

Given that authors conduct much research on the strategies and methods of teaching reading and

² It is the use of manual shapes/forms to represent letters of the alphabet of a spoken language. Deaf individuals use their fingers/hands to name people, places, and things.

writing in constructing the written form of the spoken language, deaf individuals do not follow the same path as hearing children; that is, there is no relationship between oral speech and writing, although results and practices that rely on resources of orality are identified, thus causing failures in writing (Pereira, 2009).

These unsatisfactory effects do not stem from the deaf children's difficulty in dealing with written symbols but from the lack of a shared language in the family and at school, the foundation of writing (Pereira, 2009, p. 12). Therefore, we should not forget that most deaf children begin reading and writing as a second language while learning sign language.

For deaf children to have skills in reading and writing in another language, it is necessary to stimulate cognitive skills—such as the ability to organize, evaluate, and compare information—in their first language and expect them to apply these skills in their second language, that is, the skills acquired in L1 will be used in L2 and vice versa. In this way, deaf children who have metalinguistic awareness in sign language have a firm support base for developing in L2.

Naturally, in the classroom, teachers control writing and reading. So, most activities involving these skills are noted in a sequence that goes from reading a text to questions about it. In the case of deafness, teachers can add another item to this activity, which is to translate what is written into sign language, making the deaf student interpret the word's meaning in the text.

Most educational projects for deaf children ignore the social role of reading and writing, ignore strategies for using two languages, and are unaware that deaf children are exposed to languages late and/or in a limited manner. For a truly inclusive society, deaf children need time to develop their language separately and begin their acquisition of L2. Educators and researchers must look more realistically at different learning spaces for deaf children's languages and reflect on how they can promote language teaching/learning for these children.

III. IMAGE: RESOURCE THAT HELPS DEAF CHILDREN READ AND WRITE

Regardless of how children develop their communication process—whether in oral or gestural form—it is through communication that children gain access to rules, beliefs, and values, gather knowledge from their culture, and, consequently, actively contribute to their formation as individuals.

In the case of deafness, researchers ensure that using sign language in all areas and ages provides adequate conditions for language development and cognitive enhancement for deaf people. It is not deafness that compromises the development of the deaf individual, but rather the lack of access to a

language. Its absence has severe consequences and compromises the development of mental capacity.

When considering a teaching and learning methodology for reading and writing as a second language for deaf students, it is essential to emphasize the introduction of sign language into school spaces as early as possible. However, the mere presence of sign language in an environment and/or learning activity does not support the same level of understanding of the teaching dynamics; that is, more is needed for sign language to be present in the classroom. Supporting this statement, Kuntze, Golos, and Enns (2014, p. 207-208) argue that, in addition to early exposure to sign language, socialization with visual resources is essential for the success of reading and writing in another language (L2). The authors justify this premise based on studies with deaf children of deaf parents and note that they build the skills for reading and writing through access to sign language and visual (image) modes of communication.

From this perspective, we should consider that:

[...] a visual message composed of different types of signs is equivalent, as we have already said, to a language and, therefore, an instrument of expression and communication. Whether it is expressive or communicative, we can admit that an image always constitutes a message for the other, even when this other is the very author of the message. Thus, one of the necessary precautions to understand a visual message better is to seek out for whom it was produced (JOLY, 2006, p. 61).

Sign language facilitates the deaf child's understanding in learning L2. However, we must give attention to the difference in the modalities of the languages involved in the learning process: Sign language (SL) is visuospatial. In contrast, oral language (OL) is oral-auditory. These are different languages; therefore, the teaching methodology involving didactic resources for deaf students needs to consider the specificities of the languages involved. Deaf children use visual strategies to learn to read and write (Miranda, 2019; Paula, 2023; Silva, R., 2023).

Many consider that the slow progress of many deaf children in developing writing and reading skills is related to limited knowledge of sounds and do not believe that learning can occur through visual resources; however, research advances and proves that visual elements assist in the writing production of deaf children (Paula, 2023).

In studies, McQuarrie and Parilla (2009, as cited in Kuntze et al., 2014, p. 205) identified that deaf readers were insensitive to the phonological structure of words. Supported by sign language, they used visual strategies (images, gestures, spelling, code-switching) and thus based their learning on these. In the investigation conducted by Silva (2023), the author pointed out that using comics as a cultural artifact of the deaf community is a relevant proposal to engage deaf students in

reading and interpreting images, and it can offer possible pathways for deaf students to reach writing proficiency.

Building the idea of the image as a prerequisite for literacy³, we have, in modern times, the perspective that not only verbal language (oral/written) produces knowledge, but other discursive modes (image/sound/colors/signs) contribute to the construction of meaning.

Researchers Gesueli and Moura (2006), in the article "Literacy and Deafness: The Visualization of Words," present some authors who advocate for the appropriation of images as a support for writing:

Sofiato (2005) discusses the uses and meanings of the image in this context, stating that writing has its origin and that from a very early age, we learn to read these images—visual messages. Hughes (1998, as cited in Reily, 2003) focuses on visual literacy, considering it a mistake to think that the appropriation of visual literacy happens intuitively in school. This author shows that the school does not value visual language's role in constructing language (reading-writing) and numerical knowledge. Reily (2003, p. 164) proposes visual literacy in the school curriculum and considers that "the image has been used in school with a primarily decorative function, in such a way as to dilute the tedium caused by the visually uninteresting writing of texts" (Gesueli & Moura, 2006, p. 112).

For Strobel (2008, p. 41), deafness is experienced visually and means using vision in "total substitution for hearing" as a means of communication. The visual experience goes beyond linguistic issues and represents individual significance. The deaf person is a visual subject, and teaching and learning practices must prioritize the visual experience.

Ana Regina Campello, in the article "Pedagogia visual" (Visual Pedagogy), already addressed the importance of expanding the production of didactic materials that utilize more visual resources. Thus, she emphasizes: "This is called image semiotics, a new study, a new visual field where we insert deaf culture, the visual image of the deaf, deaf perspectives, visual and didactic resources" (Campello, 2008, p. 106).

Researchers need to investigate the premise better by referring to the possible learning method for deaf students through images. However, researchers such as Kuntze, Golos, and Enns (2014, p. 203), in their studies, prove that visual modes are natural elements that help deaf children (regardless of auditory diversity) achieve tremendous success in writing and reading L2. From this perspective, they assume that images, sign language, and writing represent different discursive modes that complement and assist in understanding and executing the exercise.

Thus, from this angle, for deaf students, the relationship between the image and the written text will always be visual. Skliar argues that deafness means a visual experience, and this means that "[...] all mechanisms of information processing, and all ways of understanding the surrounding universe, are constructed as a visual experience" (1998, p. 28).

IV. FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

We begin by revisiting the central reflection: In a teaching and learning methodology for writing and reading for deaf students, it is essential to emphasize the introduction of sign language into school spaces as early as possible. Sign language facilitates these students' understanding of a spoken language in its written form.

Deaf students need not be balanced bilinguals to learn from these instructional strategies. However, bilingual and fluent teachers are more effective in articulating between the languages and become more insightful about the methods that help deaf children improve in both sign language and written language (Andrews & Rusher, 2010, p. 421).

Thus, educators and researchers must look more realistically at different language learning spaces for deaf children and reflect on how they can promote language teaching and learning for these children. When deaf education begins to focus on the specific elements of deafness, as advocated here—visual resources—the proposal for teaching a second language, in its written form, changes its configuration and starts to present visual and cultural characteristics of deaf students (Silva, 2008, p. 37).

Finally, studies on developing writing and reading for people who are deaf or hard of hearing should focus on environments that build linguistic skills, which means providing visual perspectives to deaf students. We must set aside the conventional assumption that written language follows the spoken language and consider the independent possibilities of spoken language. Deaf children thrive and organize the world mainly through their eyes. After all, more than a century ago, Veditz (1912), a deaf educator, said: "Deaf people are the first, last, and all the time, people of the eye" (Kuntze et al., 2014, p. 217).

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: G
LINGUISTICS & EDUCATION
Volume 24 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Literature: An Essential Tool in Language Teaching

By May Ann D. Dio

Abstract- Literary texts are a rich source of linguistic input that can assist learners practice speaking, listening, reading, and writing in addition to illuminating grammar rules and introducing new vocabulary. Additionally, it has been discovered that literary texts can engage students with various learning styles and offer chances for multisensory classroom experiences. Furthermore, this paper intends to highlight the use of literature as a popular method for teaching both basic language skills and language areas in our times. Reasons for using literary texts in foreign language classroom as well as the main criteria for choosing appropriate literary texts in foreign language classes are stressed to familiarize the reader with the underlying motivations and standards for language teachers when using and selecting literary texts. Also, the relationship between literature and the teaching of language skills, the advantages of various literary genres for language learning, and the difficulties faced by language teachers while teaching English through literature are also taken into consideration.

Keywords: *english; language teachers; language skills; language areas.*

GJHSS-G Classification: *LCC: PE1128*



LITERATUREANESSENTIALTOOLINLANGUAGETEACHING

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I. INTRODUCTION

Literature is certainly a great media for teaching and learning language since the language used in literature is exceptionally rich in vocabulary, well-organized and consistent. Literature has not only many functions, but power. According to Kelly (1996), among the key values of (children's) literature are enjoyment, aesthetics, understanding, imagination, information and knowledge, cognition, and language. And this power is recognized by many experts. Additionally, it nourishes readers' creative process by stimulating and stretching their imagination, offering new information, viewpoints, and ideas so that readers can envision the possibilities and elaborate on original ideas. In this way, it expands readers' ability to convey imagination in words and images.

Literary programs not only enhance language abilities, but also promote the development of better reading and writing skills. Also, a variety of grammatical constructions and lexicons are cleverly illustrated and employed in literary texts, which undoubtedly influences students to better comprehend grammar and expand their knowledge of the language, especially English. Further, limiting students' exposure to language resources and grammar rules will likely prevent them from speaking naturally and smoothly because they

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won't have enough opportunities to develop both their written and spoken communication abilities. Thus, the aim of this paper is to make the point that literature is an important element to deciphering all the codes and secrets of foreign languages and encourages general linguistic awareness among the students while simultaneously improving their ability to communicate in the target language.

II. DISCUSSION

a) *Review of the Two Approaches to Literary Analysis for Language Teaching*

The field of literary analysis has a long history; various theories exist on how to use it to assess and teach literature and language. The reader-response method and the language- based method are two approaches to literary analysis that are commonly debated for language teaching.

i. *Approach 1: Reader-response*

The major aspects of the reader-response approach include emphasizing the reader's participation and process-oriented approach to reading literature. This allows students to use their own perspectives, ideas, and emotions in interpreting literary works. Dias and Hayhoe (1984) pointed out that "it is precisely the role of the reader in the act of reading that has not been sufficiently and properly addressed." The reader-response approach addresses this problem by involving the students actively in the learning process. Rosenblatt's theory of literary reading, which outlines the transactional relationship between a reader and a literary work, explains the fundamental link between the reader and the text. Events in a literary work occur at a particular time and location, and readers respond to these events in various ways based on their individual interests and experiences. Every reader associates his or her own unique interpretation with a piece of literature. In fact, the reader-response method significantly advances language learning by demystifying literature and relating it to personal experience. Researchers and teachers in the field of language learning support making literature more accessible by engaging students' prior knowledge so they may better predict and decode the language and themes of literary texts. Emotional reactions from reading a story, poem, or play can be harnessed for classroom instruction (Bleich, 1975). Activating students' schemata in reading literature is important and



personalizing the learning experience boosts engagement and motivation. These are the core principles of CLT that are recognized to promote learning through student-centered and process-oriented activities.

ii. Approach 2: Language-based Approach

The language-based approach emphasizes awareness of the language of literature, and it is the fundamental stage for language learners. This approach facilitates students' responses and experience with literature and is considered quite accessible for language learners. The language-based approach also calls for a variety of language instruction activities, such as brainstorming to activate prior knowledge and make predictions, rewriting story endings or summarizing plots, using closed procedures to build vocabulary and comprehension, and incorporating jigsaw reading to enable students to work collaboratively, form opinions, and engage in spirited debates. Thus, literature is a great platform for CLT methods that results in developing language skills through interaction, collaboration, discussion, and collective learning. Apparently, the teacher's role is not to enforce interpretation; rather, to introduce and clarify difficult and technical terms, to prepare and suggest appropriate classroom procedures, and to intervene as needed to provide prompts or stimuli. The language-based approach responds to language students' needs in studying literature: They receive the skill and technique to make texts more accessible and develop sensitivity to various genres so they may enjoy a piece of literature that relates to their lives. Moreover, this approach satisfies students' needs in learning a language more effectively; they communicate in English to improve their language competence, develop the necessary skills of working in groups, and become active learners. Most educators believed that the language-based approach is motivating, as it helps students handle a text, enhances their enjoyment and interest in literature, fosters their independence, and improves their learning of English.

b) Reasons for Using Literary Texts in Foreign Language Classes

According to Collie and Slater (1990), there are four main reasons which lead a language teacher to use literature in the classroom. These are valuable authentic material, cultural enrichment, language enrichment and personal involvement. In addition to these four main reasons, universality, non-triviality, personal relevance, variety, interest, economy and suggestive power and ambiguity are some other factors requiring the use of literature as a powerful resource in the classroom context.

c) Valuable Authentic Material

Literature is authentic material. Majority of literary works are not written primarily with the intention

of teaching a language. Recent course materials provide numerous real-world examples of language usage, such as travel schedules, city plans, forms, pamphlets, cartoons, advertising, and newspaper or magazine articles. Thus, in a classroom context, learners are exposed to actual language samples of real life/real life like settings. Reading literary texts exposes students to a variety of linguistic forms, communicative functions, and meanings because they also have to deal with language intended for native speakers.

d) Cultural Enrichment

For many language learners, a visit or an extended stay in the nation where the target language is spoken would be the best approach to improve their grasp of verbal and nonverbal aspects of communication is just not feasible. Although a novel, play, or short story takes place in a fictional setting, it nonetheless provides a rich and vivid backdrop in which characters from various socioeconomic and geographic backgrounds can be described. The reader can learn more about how the characters in these literary works perceive the outside world (i.e., their ideas, feelings, habits, traditions, belongings; what they purchase; what they believe in; what they fear; what they love; how they speak and behave in different setting) through visual literacy of semiotics. Employing visual semiotic literacy, this vibrantly produced environment can immediately assist the foreign student in getting a sense of the codes and preoccupations that shape a real culture. Perhaps the best way to think about literature is as a supplement to other resources used to deepen a foreign learner's awareness of the nation whose language is being acquired. Additionally, literature significantly enhances the learners' cultural grammar.

e) Language Enrichment

Learners may encounter a large variety of distinct lexical or syntactic elements in literature. Students become familiar with many features of the written language, reading a substantial and contextualized body of text. They learn about the syntax and discourse functions of sentences, the variety of possible structures, and the different ways of connecting ideas, which develop and enrich their own writing skills. When students start to recognize the range and depth of the language they are attempting to acquire and start utilizing some of that potential themselves, they also become more productive and adventurous. As a result, individuals develop their communication and cultural competency through the real texts' naturalness and richness.

f) Personal Involvement

Literature can aid in language learning since it encourages the reader's personal involvement. After reading a literary work, the learner starts to inhabit it. He becomes absorbed in the text. It becomes less

important to understand the meanings of lexical terms or phrases than to focus on the story's progression. As the story's conclusion approaches, the student becomes eager to learn what occurs because he feels a connection to certain characters and understands their feelings. The entire process of learning a language may benefit from this. It is clear at this point how important it is to match the students' needs, expectations, and interests with the right literary work. In this process, he can remove the identity crisis and develop into an extrovert. Maley (1989) lists some of the reasons for regarding literature as a potent resource in the language classroom as follows:

1. Universality
2. Non-triviality
3. Personal Relevance
4. Variety
5. Interest
6. Economy and Suggestive Power
7. Ambiguity

1. Universality

Because we are all human beings, the themes literature deals with are prevalent across all cultures despite their various approaches of dealing with them- Death, Love, Separation, Belief, Nature etc., the list is familiar. These experiences all happen to human beings.

2. Non-triviality

Many of the more familiar forms of language instruction inputs tend to trivialize texts or experience. Literature does not trivialize or talk down. It is about things which mattered to the author at the time he wrote them. It may offer genuine as well as merely "authentic" inputs.

3. Personal Relevance

Since it deals with ideas, things, sensations and events which either constitute part of the reader's experience or which they can enter into imaginatively, they are able to relate it to their own lives.

4. Variety

Literature encompasses within it all possible varieties of subject matter. In fact, it is a list of subjects for ELT. Within literature, we can find the language of law and of mountaineering, of medicine and of bull-fighting, of church sermons and nursery talk.

5. Interest

Literature deals with themes and topics which are intrinsically interesting, because part of the human experience, and treats them in ways that draw readers' interest.

6. Economy and Suggestive Power

One of the great strengths of literature is its evocative power. It urges us to look beyond what is explicitly expressed to what is implied, even in its most basic forms. Literature is excellent for sparking linguistic

discussion since it conveys many concepts in few words. A low input can frequently lead to a maximum output.

7. Ambiguity

Literature quietly conveys diverse meanings to different people due to its strong suggestive and associative qualities. It is uncommon for two readers to respond to a text in precisely the same way. In teaching, this has two advantages. The first advantage is that each learner's interpretation has validity within limits. The second advantage is that an almost infinite fund of interactive discussion is guaranteed since each person's perception is different. The tension required for a true exchange of ideas is established by the fact that no two readers will have completely similar interpretations.

Apart from the above-mentioned reasons for using literature in the foreign language class, one of the main functions of literature is its sociolinguistic diversity. The use of language varies from one social group to another. Likewise, it changes from one geographical location to another. A person speaks differently in different social contexts like school, hospital, police station and theatre (i.e. formal, informal, casual, frozen, intimate styles speech). The language used changes from one profession to another (i.e. doctors, engineers, economists use different terminology). To put it differently, literature helps students become more proficient in the sociolinguistic aspects of the target language by exposing them to a wide range of linguistic variants, such as sociolects, regional dialects, jargon, and idiolects. Consequently, incorporating literature into a foreign language teaching program as a powerful source for reflecting the sociolinguistic aspects of the target language gains importance.

g) Against Literature in EFL/ESL

Taking into account the advantages of literature in EFL/ESL, there are some researchers who have suggested that there may also be drawbacks. The criticisms made include:

i. Syntax

Reading is a challenging endeavor due to the intrinsic syntactic complexity of literary texts. This is one of the primary criticisms of EFL/ESL literature. McKay (1982) and Savvidou (2004) contend that literary texts deviate from the conventions of Standard English standards, and hence can induce problems for language learning purposes. It is argued that literary texts are loaded with complex structures sometimes miles away from Standard English. The irregularity of syntax is particularly evident when it comes to (old) poetry. Poems are typically written in a way that deviates from the norms of speaking or even writing, making it difficult for readers to comprehend them. Bearing all these arguments in mind, we should remember that this complexity itself can serve as a source of practice



especially for the learners at the intermediate and the above levels. In other words, above intermediate levels should be given syntactic complexity so that it can be used as a tool for language practice.

ii. *Lexis*

Some argue that lexical difficulty of the literary texts adds fuel to the fire. As per Robson (1989) literature is thought to be able to do "little or nothing to help students to become competent users of the target language" due to its syntactic and lexical complexity. Others contend that literary texts are teeming with archaic and outdated vocabulary not practiced in today's English. Words such as "thee and thou" are not normally found in today's English. Again, there is a counterargument that this is only working in old literature such as that of Shakespeare. Teachers are not required to simply use classic literature. There are many contemporary literary works that can be used as a source of inspiration, such as short tales by Hemingway and others that are more closely aligned with Standard English.

iii. *Phonetics and Phonology*

Similarly, some experts believe that literature is filled with instances where there is a deviation from standard phonetic and phonological system. Some words have gone through minor or significant alterations in their pronunciation which may cause misconceptions. Language learners may struggle with these issues. An example is the word 'love' which was pronounced as /lūv/ in old English. Authors do contend that our language learners can find even these variations fascinating, and that eventually making them aware of these phonetic or phonological shifts is instructive.

iv. *Semantics*

The word "gay" is one of many that have undergone semantic modification. For language learners, such shifts in meaning can be problematic. As a result, some experts view this as a weakness in literary texts. However, we also state that these semantic modifications are seen as an addition to the learners' prior knowledge rather than a block to it. As long as they are not impeding language learning, no harm is expectant from these semantic variations. Nevertheless, the primacy of learning these words should be attended to.

v. *Selection of Materials*

It might be challenging for teachers and students to choose literary texts. To ensure that children or young adults are exposed to different types of literary texts than adult learners, teachers should be mindful of characteristics including the learners' age, gender, and background knowledge. When choosing the resources, consideration should also be given to the gender and educational background of the learners. Additionally, factors related to the text itself should be taken into account. For example, is the text old or modern, is it

from escape literature or interpretive literature, what is the genre of the work, who is the author, which dominant literary school does the work allude to, is it short or long, and other similar questions. Considering all the aforesaid problems built-in literary texts, Carter & Long (1991) argue that these problems can be overcome by selecting an appropriate text for an appropriate group of language learners.

vi. *Literary Concepts and Notions*

Unfamiliarity with certain literary genres and conventions might also bring about certain sorts of problems (Maley, 1989). An example is exposing the beginners to James Joyce's "Ulysses" which is abundant with stream of consciousness. Lack of familiarity with certain literary elements makes the writings confusing and difficult to comprehend. Eliminating difficult literary canons or introducing these new literary concepts and notions before having the students read the corresponding literary text are two solutions to this challenge. Another is to choose the texts that best fit the learners' existing and potential level of literary understanding.

vii. *Literature and Academic English*

Along with McKay (1987) argument, so many language teachers conclude that literature has little if anything to serve the needs of our learners in academic settings or specialized fields such as biology and zoology where educational goals are given priority over aesthetic values of literary texts. Maley (1989) subsequently emphasizes that this is not always the case because literature can be used as a motivational tool to encourage students to study various text types. Shang (2006) points out that literature can even be integrated in content-based instruction classes. Though literature cannot directly serve ESP/EAP courses' needs, it can be a positive catalyst for quickening language learning process.

viii. *Cultural Barriers*

In view of McKay (1982) claim, we can drive home the fact that literature is saturated with certain cultural concepts which hence makes understanding literature much frustrating. Currently language teachers and materials writers are on the horns of a dilemma about which culture to present, L1 culture or L2 culture. As Tomlinson (2001) maintains there is a need to humanize the textbooks and one way to actualize this want is to localize the textbooks with interesting L1 topics and themes. However, others (Brown, 2007) take side with the other camp and consider language as culture and culture as language where L2 culture is essential for EFL/ESL. With the rise of English as an International Language (EIL), this quandary has become more contentious. However, the authors believe that treating both L1 and L2 culture in a contrastive way will make the differences more elaborate and distinct for the learners. Capitalizing on contrastive cultural studies can

be very much illuminating for our language classes and hence respect both cultures. McKay (1982) offers three ways to wipe out the problems of linguistic and cultural complexity:

- Using simplified texts, i.e. texts which are simplified for language learning purposes.
- Using easy texts, i.e. texts which are by nature more readable than others and are appropriate to the level of the learners.
- Using young adult texts because they are stylistically less complex.

ix. Criteria for Selecting Suitable Literary Texts in Foreign Language Classes

When selecting the literary texts to be utilized in language classes, the language teacher should consider the needs, motivation, interests, cultural background and language level of the students. However, one important consideration is whether a particular work is able to reveal the kind of personal involvement by arousing the learners' interest and eliciting strong, positive reactions from them. Reading a literary text that is both significant and entertaining is more likely to have a lasting, positive impact on the learners' linguistic and extra linguistic understanding. Choosing books relevant to the real-life experiences, emotions, or dreams of the learner is of great importance. Another aspect to consider is language barrier. If the language of the literary work is simple, this may facilitate the comprehensibility of the literary text but is not in itself the most crucial criterion. Interest, appeal, and relevance are also prominent. Enjoyment; a fresh insight into issues felt to be related to the heart of people's concerns; the pleasure of encountering one's own thoughts or situations exemplified clearly in a work of art; the other, equal pleasure of noticing those same thoughts, feelings, emotions, or situations presented by a completely new perspective: All these are motives helping learners to cope with the linguistic obstacles that might be considered too great in less involving material (Collie and Slater, 1990).

III. CONCLUSION

This paper discussed the significance of literature in EFL/ESL classes. Both advantages and drawbacks of using literature for language teaching and learning purposes have been widely considered. The author of the present paper believes that literature, in spite of some weak points it might have as any language teaching material might possess, provides a stimulating drive for language learning and teaching due to its remarkable elements that are not easily found in other texts. After carefully examining the aforementioned arguments and previous studies, it is plausible to conclude that incorporating literary texts into language classrooms significantly aids students and fosters the

process of language learning. In the end, literature helps learners become more creative and critical thinkers while also improving their language skills. Furthermore, literature is the perfect place and platform, where all the linguistic phenomena and grammatical structures are well performed and practiced.

Meanwhile, the significance of bringing literary texts into language classes depends on the criteria for selecting the most appropriate literature and careful evaluation of the students' skills and responses to these literary works. It is crucial for foreign language teachers to carefully consider the literary material they want to include in their syllabus to avoid any eventualities in advance, because the level of the language, in which the literary texts are written, have to be entirely consistent with the students' language abilities, otherwise it would not bring about any improvements and would, instead lead to a chaos and complete waste of time and energy.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: G
LINGUISTICS & EDUCATION
Volume 24 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Ugly and Amputate Characters in the Woman who Wrote the Bible, by Moacyr Scliar

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Abstract- This article aims to discuss the importance of the characters in the book *A mulher que escreveu a Bíblia* by Moacyr Scliar. The characters analyzed are characterized as being ugly, and one of them has an amputated limb. They are the ugly, unnamed character, and the little shepherd who was beautiful at first. These characters coexist with others who are very beautiful. In this way she recounts her own existence from the time when she was only the daughter of the anonymous leader of a tribe until she became the wife of King Solomon. The aim is to verify how the attitudes of the ugly characters contrasts with the actions of the beautiful characters in the narrative. However ugliness is fundamental so that we can understand the work.

Keywords: ugly; little shepherd; *a mulher que escreveu a bíblia*.

GJHSS-G Classification: LCC: PQ9698.29.C576



UGLY AND AMPUTE CHARACTERS IN THE WOMAN WHO WROTE THE BIBLE BY MOACYR SCLIAR

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RESEARCH | DIVERSITY | ETHICS

Ugly and Amputate Characters in the Woman who Wrote the Bible, by Moacyr Scliar

Personagens Feios e Amputados na Obra *a Mulher Que Escreveu a Bíblia*, de Moacyr Scliar

Lemuel de Faria Diniz ^a, Ana Lúcia Marques de Melo ^a & Gislaine da Silva Ferreira ^b

Resumo- Este artigo tem como objetivo discutir a importância das personagens do livro *A mulher que escreveu a Bíblia* de Moacyr Scliar. As personagens analisadas têm como características serem feias, e uma delas tem um membro amputado. Tratam-se da feia, personagem sem nome, e do pastorzinho que a princípio era belo. Essas personagens convivem com outras que são muito bonitas. Desta forma ela narra sua própria existência, desde o período em que ela era apenas a filha do líder anônimo de uma tribo até se tornar esposa do rei Salomão. Tem-se o objetivo de verificar como as atitudes das personagens feias contrasta com as ações das personagens belas na narrativa, contudo a feiura é fundamental para que possamos compreender a obra.

Palavras-chave: feia; pastorzinho; *a mulher que escreveu a bíblia*.

Abstract- This article aims to discuss the importance of the characters in the book *A mulher que escreveu a Bíblia* by Moacyr Scliar. The characters analyzed are characterized as being ugly, and one of them has an amputated limb. They are the ugly, unnamed character, and the little shepherd who was beautiful at first. These characters coexist with others who are very beautiful. In this way she recounts her own existence from the time when she was only the daughter of the anonymous leader of a tribe until she became the wife of King Solomon. The aim is to verify how the attitudes of the ugly characters contrasts with the actions of the beautiful characters in the narrative. However ugliness is fundamental so that we can understand the work.

Keywords: ugly, little shepherd; *a mulher que escreveu a bíblia*.

INTRODUCTION

Na produção literária do escritor Moacyr Scliar (1937-2011) há mais de setenta livros de gêneros diferenciados, tais como romances, ensaios, crônicas, ficções infanto-juvenis e contos. O escritor gaúcho teve suas obras publicadas em mais de vinte nações e foi reconhecido quatro vezes com o "Prêmio Jabuti" (em 1988, 1993, 2000 e 2009). Um

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desses prêmios ele recebeu pelo romance *A mulher que escreveu a Bíblia*, livro que posteriormente foi adaptado para o teatro em 2007 com a atriz Inez Viana. Além de colaborador em vários órgãos da imprensa no país, como a *Folha de São Paulo* e o *Jornal Zero Hora* (RS), Scliar foi membro da Academia Brasileira de Letras a partir do ano 2003.

Moacyr Jaime Scliar nasceu em 23 de março de 1937, no Hospital da Beneficência Portuguesa, em Porto Alegre (RS). Seus pais, José e Sara Scliar, oriundos da Bessarábia (Rússia), chegaram ao Brasil em 1904. Filho mais velho do casal, que teve ainda Wremyr e Marili, desde pequeno ele demonstrou inclinações literárias. Desde sua infância Moacyr Scliar teve o papel do professor muito presente em sua vida, pois sua mãe era professora e o estimulava desde cedo à leitura de bons livros. O próprio nome Moacyr já é resultado dessa afinidade. Foi escolhido por sua mãe Sara após a leitura de *Iracema*, de José de Alencar (SCLIAR, 2007a, p. 36-40).

Devido à grande importância do escritor para a literatura brasileira contemporânea e graças à repercussão muito positiva recebida pelo livro *A mulher que escreveu a Bíblia*, nesse trabalho se pretende analisar as personagens feias, com o objetivo de verificar no que elas se diferem das personagens bonitas. Tem-se o objetivo de investigar como a narradora, que é feia, conduz a narrativa sob o prisma dos contrastes que permeiam a beleza e a feiura. Desse modo, tem-se a oposição feio x belo. A definição de feio é "sem beleza, cujo aspecto ou aparência é desagradável aos olhos" (Dicionário de língua portuguesa, 2009), ainda segundo esse mesmo dicionário, belo é "que tem forma ou aparência agradável, perfeita, harmoniosa", e este contraste entre belo/feio norteia toda a obra.

A personagem principal do livro *A mulher que escreveu a Bíblia* é identificada como a feia. O enredo da obra se passa em Jerusalém há quase três mil anos, onde uma mulher fez o trabalho dos escribas escrevendo eventos narrados na Bíblia, fato este que neste período histórico era destinado apenas a homens, a personagem principal é também a narradora. Ela não revela seu nome, identificando-se



apenas como “a feia”. É importante observar que essa mulher era desprovida de beleza somente no rosto, já que tinha “belas mãos”, “belos seios, belos quadris”, arrematando assim o seu “conjunto pessoal”: “sou da variedade paradoxal conhecida como feia-de-cara-mas-boa-de-corpo” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 23). Quanto ao seu rosto, ela assim o descreve:

Resumindo, era isso o que eu via: a) assimetria flagrante; b) carência de harmonia; c) estrabismo (ainda que moderado); d) excesso de sinais. Falta dizer que o conjunto era emoldurado (emoldurado! Essa é boa, emoldurado! Emoldurado, como um lindo quadro é emoldurado! Emoldurado!) por uns secos e opacos cabelos, capazes de humilhar qualquer cabeleireiro. O que o espelho me mostrava era algo semelhante a uma paisagem estranha, atormentada, na qual os acidentes (acidentes: muito apropriado, o termo) geográficos não guardavam a menor relação entre si. (SCLiar, 2007, p. 18)

O trecho acima mostra o quanto a protagonista se considerava feia, dentro do conceito de estética comumente aceito pela sociedade ao longo dos séculos. Ela descobre sua feiura aos dezoito anos, por meio de um espelho usado por sua irmã. Fica perplexa com a sua aparência e também com a percepção de que poderia ter descoberto sua fealdade muito antes: bastava ela se contemplar nas poças de água ou tocar sua face com as mãos. Além disso, ela fica admirada do fato de que sua família sempre omitiu a feiura dela. Diante da trágica revelação, ela deseja a cegueira. Depois pensou em suicídio, mas essa prática era algo malvisto (SCLiar, 2007, p. 22-24). Nesse contexto, ela afirma:

Não nego: pensei em me matar. Tudo o que eu tinha de fazer era galgar a montanha e jogar-me no abismo. Meu corpo se despedaçaria contra as rochas [...] Não me matei. Não tive coragem, em primeiro lugar. Depois, o suicídio, além de malvisto (e é incrível como mesmo as feias incorporam os conceitos da cultura dominante), não resolveria meu problema: eu deixaria de ser feia viva, mas quem garantia que a feiura não comprometeria também a caveira? Nada impediria que, no futuro, alguém, o membro de uma expedição arqueológica, desenterrasse o meu crânio e, fitando-o com espanto, dissesse a um companheiro: que coisa horrível deve ter sido essa mulher, isto não é rosto, isto é uma ofensa. A isenção científica não preclui o senso estético. (SCLiar, 2007, p. 24)

No fragmento acima se nota que o humor da feia acaba despertando o riso no leitor. Dessa forma, através do humor, a feia tenta lidar com um assunto tão angustiante: o que fazer com ela mesma diante de tanta feiura? Ela decide: “Não. Eu iria até o fim com a minha cara. Sozinha, decerto – não aguentaria olhares de horror, de espanto, de tristeza, de comiseração –, mas, iria, sim, até o fim.” Nesse momento desesperador, ela chega a pensar que nunca chamaria a atenção de nenhum homem, porém, num futuro não muito distante,

ela atrairia a simpatia do pastorzinho¹ (SCLiar, 2007, p. 24).

A explicação para a feiura da protagonista está na associação dela à caverna, pois as cavernas são escuras e essa escuridão é feia. Já no início do romance, ela revela que, quando gestante, sua genitora não cessava de olhar ansiosamente para a caverna onde estava o marido em ato de adultério que segundo a definição bíblica é pecado. Por isso, ao nascer,

a visão da montanha ficou impressa para sempre no meu rosto. [...]. Uma protusa rocha era o meu nariz; a escura entrada de uma das muitas cavernas correspondia à minha boca. Muitos veem faces em nuvens; eu via na montanha – monumento ao insólito – a reprodução de meu próprio rosto. (SCLiar, 2007, p. 16, 20, 21)

Pode se ter uma ideia do motivo de Scliar ter criado uma personagem feia quando se lê o depoimento do escritor do livro *Amor em texto, amor em contexto* (MACHADO; SCLiar, 2009). Nele se verifica o interesse do autor por personagens feios na literatura universal, como Pinóquio, que, segundo Scliar, tem o nariz grande que é considerado o ícone de sua feiura. Segundo Scliar, outro personagem feio que se tornou famoso foi Cyrano de Bergerac, “alguém que sabe dizer sobre coisas bonitas”. Ele é feio, mas ao falar, revela-se belo. Para o escritor gaúcho, a fealdade é uma questão que o fascina na sua criação literária. Com satisfação, Scliar afirma:

Publiquei um livro intitulado *A mulher que escreveu a Bíblia* que é uma história de uma mulher feia que consegue dar a volta por cima, superar esse entrave porque escreve a pedido do Rei Salomão, ela se põe a escrever a história do povo hebreu e, nesse processo vai crescendo como ser humano. O tema dessa intriga origina-se da observação dessa sociedade que valoriza a beleza que vivemos. (SCLiar, 2009, p. 25).

Pode-se notar essa superação ao longo da história, pois a protagonista consegue mostrar outras qualidades que superariam a sua feiura. A consequência de descobrir a feiura conduziu a protagonista para o isolamento. Ela dormia com a família, mas durante o dia corria para a montanha. Lá encontrou uma pedra ovoide com a qual passou a se masturbar frequentemente. É nessa mesma época que ela, já adulta, aprende a escrever por meio de um escriba que passava uns tempos na aldeia em que seu pai era o patriarca. Esse personagem era muito inteligente, “na aldeia, o escriba era olhado com respeito e temor: consideravam-no uma espécie de mago”. Porém, “era feio, o velho. Deus, como era feio. Diferença de idade à parte, em feiura nós nos equivalíamos. Daí talvez a ternura que por mim mostrava” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 29). Graças a esse

¹ “Agora eu era a feia, e tudo em minha vida seria condicionado por essa feiura. Homem algum gostaria de mim. Homem algum cantaria minha beleza em traços líricos. Minha vida amorosa seria tão árida quanto o deserto que nos rodeava” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 24).

personagem, a feia descobre um novo sentido para a vida – escrever para produzir beleza:

A mim pouco importava. *Tendo descoberto o mundo da palavra escrita, eu estava feliz, muito feliz. (...) bastava-me o ato de escrever.* Colocar no pergaminho letra após letra, palavra após palavra, era algo que me deliciava. Não era só um texto que eu estava produzindo; era beleza, a beleza que resulta da ordem, da harmonia. Eu descobria que uma letra atraí outra, essa afinidade organizando não apenas o texto como a vida, o universo. O que eu via, no pergaminho, quando terminava o trabalho, era um mapa, como os mapas celestes que indicavam a posição das estrelas e planetas, posição essa que não resulta do acaso, mas da composição de misteriosas forças, as mesmas que, em escala menor, guiavam minha mão quando ela deixava seus sinais sobre o pergaminho. (...) A única pessoa a quem eu tinha vontade de contar o que acontecia era o pastorzinho. Diria a ele que agora minha vida tinha sentido, um significado: *feia, eu era, contudo, capaz de criar beleza.* Não a falsa beleza que os espelhos enganosamente refletem, mas a verdadeira e duradoura beleza dos textos que eu escrevia, dia após dia, semana após semana – como se estivesse num estado de permanente e deliciosa embriaguez (SCLiar, 2007, p. 31, 32, grifo nosso).

A protagonista via sentido em sua vida através das palavras que lia/escrevia, assim ia vivendo se descobrindo e descobrindo o mundo. Nesse período em que passou a ir às montanhas ela também passou a conversar com o pastorzinho, um funcionário de seu pai com o qual até então ela tinha trocado poucas palavras. “Era um belo rapaz, alto, forte; numa voz muito bonita, entoava nostálgicas canções que falavam de amores impossíveis”. Tinha “fama de esquisito” e dele se dizia que “era um fodedor de cabras” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 25-26). A protagonista se interessava por ele sem saber que este está namorando secretamente sua bela irmã. O relacionamento é descoberto e proibido pelo pai da moça. O patriarca ordenou impiedosamente o apedrejamento do pastorzinho que desvirginou sua outra filha, essa prática era muito utilizada como punição para pecadores no período bíblico. O rapaz havia desvirginado a irmã da feia. O pai da moça atuou num “julgamento no qual ele foi o promotor e o juiz”. Esse cuidador de cabras foi condenado, sendo, então, amarrado a uma estaca e apedrejado. Depois, “quase morto, sangrando abundantemente, o rapaz foi desamarrado e expulso [da aldeia]”. O pai da feia disse: “Vai-te, [...] nunca mais quero te ver por aqui; se apareceres de novo serás apedrejado até morrer. Cambaleando, ele se foi”. As pessoas da aldeia não sentiram nenhuma culpa por tê-lo apedrejado, de maneira que ninguém falava mais nele, nem mesmo seus próprios pais. Somente a narradora “estava sofrendo – e sofrendo em silêncio”. “Com o pastorzinho,” ela afirma, “ia-se a minha esperança, absurda esperança que fosse, de amar e ser amada”. Esse incidente fez com que o pastor ficasse “com cicatrizes das pedradas que recebera”, tornando-se feio.

Desonrado, expulso da comunidade a que pertencia e agora na condição de feio, o pastorzinho é desprezado pela irmã da feia, que “já estava de olho em outro pastor”. “Esperto” o pai da moça “prometera a esse rapaz vinte cabras, com a condição de que assumisse a paternidade do bebê que estava por nascer” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 20, 21, 28, 142). Posteriormente, esse pastorzinho briga com os soldados do rei Salomão pois estes exigem que ele entregue uma carta da feia cujo conteúdo, suspeita-se, é uma conspiração contra o rei. Como o pastorzinho se recusa, as consequências são trágicas: “Os caras cortaram-lhe um braço. Só escapou da morte porque alguém cauterizou o coto com azeite fervendo. Aí [ele] voltou para a aldeia.” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 112, 144).² Em outra ocasião, o pastorzinho foi procurar a feia no palácio onde ela teve a oportunidade de enviar uma carta ao pai e, com o consentimento de um dos soldados, eles puderam conversar por quinze minutos. Quando a feia o vê depois de tanto tempo, fica surpresa: “Era um homem bonito que eu tinha diante de mim, não o garoto que conhecera no passado.” Contudo, além das cicatrizes do apedrejamento, o moço tinha uma expressão facial que expressava amargura. Esse amargor não era porque ele havia sido apedrejado e mutilado no passado, mas porque ele pretendia vingar-se do rei Salomão, que estava adorando a deusa Astarté em vez de adorar a Jeová. Por fim, bradou: “Salomão, nosso rei, não mais respeita a palavra do Senhor”. O pastor disse que seu mentor era o Mestre da Justiça, um ex-presidiário que, em sonhos, foi visitado pelo falecido irmão de Salomão. Nessa circunstância, o falecido assim incumbiu o Mestre: “Tu tens uma missão, anunciou, cabe-te limpar a nossa terra do pecado, da depravação”. O pastorzinho passou a ser um dos seguidores desse Mestre, que o recrutou na mesma caverna em que anteriormente o pastor praticava abominações, atos sexuais, com as cabras e com a irmã da feia (SCLiar, 2007, p. 142, 144, 145).

No que tange às personagens com partes do corpo mutiladas, isso não acontece apenas com o personagem do pastorzinho do livro em análise. Essa abordagem ocorre também em outros textos do escritor



² Na parte final do livro, o próprio pastorzinho dá à feia a sua versão do acontecido: “Agora quero te contar o que aconteceu. Como eu estava dizendo, naquele momento os soldados me surpreenderam. E foi aquilo que tu sabes. Queriam que eu lhes entregasse a carta, a carta que tu me havias confiado. Eu disse que não, que defenderia o pergaminho com minha vida se fosse preciso. Vieram para cima de mim, eu me defendi como pude, mas era uma luta desigual, espada contra punhal. Perdi o braço, cortado pelo chefe deles. Quase morri, mas felizmente uma alma caridosa me socorreu. Aleijado, saí a vagar de novo pelos caminhos, pedindo esmolas, passando fome.” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 144).



como o conto do “Torneio de Pesca”, publicado na obra *O carnaval dos animais*. No referido conto um grupo de amigos se aventurou em participar de um torneio de pesca na praia da Alegria. Tudo ocorria bem, até que chegou uma família bastante estranha, cujo líder se chamava Antônio, um homem de linguagens arrevesado, de “baixa estatura, tez bronzeada, olhos pretos e malignos, boca de lábios grossos guarnecidos de dentes de ouro e língua ferina: não passava por senhora ou senhorita sem proferir graçola”. Além disto, ele e sua família incomodavam o grupo que havia chegado antes, cujo líder era o desembargador Otávio. Este decide realizar uma expedição primitiva que, na prática, consistia em cortar os braços de Antônio com faca de pescador. Desde então Antônio não pode mais pegar os peixes vivos no rio: de longe via-se que Antônio tinha os membros superiores amarrados em trapos sangrentos ao tentar enfiar na água os cotos amputados “o frio fê-lo urrar de dor”. Nesse instante o grupo do desembargador ri de Antônio o qual havia rido dele anteriormente. De um modo geral, o conto sugere um embate entre um grupo dominante econômica e socialmente e um grupo de indivíduos pobres, desprovidos de educação (SCLiar, 2001, p. 40-42). Contudo há diferenças entre os textos apesar da mutilação dos personagens, pois em *A mulher que escreveu a Bíblia* Scliar enfoca que uma pessoa feia também pode ser amada por suas outras qualidades que não seja a beleza, e que ela pode ser passageira como ocorreu com o pastorzinho que era belo e ficou deformado após a mutilação sofrida.

Na sequência da narrativa, a feia é levada para o palácio do rei Salomão, para ser uma das suas muitas mulheres. Lá ela convive com belíssimas esposas do monarca, diante das quais esboça uma classificação em níveis de beleza: “havia as esplendorosas, muito lindas, razoavelmente lindas, agradáveis”. No paço real ela chegou a perceber algumas mulheres com narizes um tanto imperfeitos e bocas mal desenhadas, mas ela se sente a única completa e definitivamente desprovida de formosura devido sua deformidade facial (SCLiar, 2007, p. 42). Além disso, conhece Mikol uma das concubinas do rei, com a qual faz amizade. Sobre ela, afirma a narradora: “Ainda bonita, sensual, já não era, contudo, jovem; na verdade, fora das primeiras concubinas adquiridas por Salomão, numa época em que o mercado de mulheres estava saturado” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 119). A feia convive bem com ela. Embora esta seja formosa, nem por isso a feia a inveja. Mikol fica muito doente e, à medida que vai piorando, faz um último pedido: quer ter a última noite de amor com o rei Salomão, e pede para que a narradora providencie isso. A feia insiste para com o monarca, mas ele se diz muito ocupado com assuntos do reino. Por fim, quando decide ir vê-la, ela já estava em coma, morrendo uma semana depois. O falecimento dessa bela mulher “passou inteiramente

despercebido na corte. Ao enterro, compareceram meia dúzia de mulheres, incluindo uma irmã dela e eu [a narradora]. Salomão não deu o ar de sua graça.” A feia sofreu muito com essa separação, conforme narra: “Absorvida em minha dor, não conseguia pensar em nada. A ausência de Mikol era para mim insuportável e, pior, uma perda que eu não podia partilhar com ninguém” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 124-128).

Ao descobrir que a feia sabe ler e escrever muito bem Salomão a pede que ela elabore um livro no qual narre os acontecimentos desde a criação do mundo até os dias do seu reinado. Esse livro seria a Bíblia, que segundo o rei Salomão, relataria de gerações a gerações o que havia acontecido naquela época, o livro é uma obra tal como “uma semente que germina e se espalha pelo mundo”. O monarca reconheceu o talento da protagonista, ressaltando: “quero uma narrativa linda, tão bem escrita como essa carta que enviaste a teu pai. Quero um livro que as gerações leiam com respeito, mas também com encanto” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 88). O rei tocou sua mão e a convidou para escrever um livro. Ela desejou que seu casamento fosse consumado naquele instante, porém logo percebeu que o único pensamento do rei era obter o texto que contasse a vida dos seus antepassados até aquele momento, constatando também que Salomão não a queria como mulher. Surgindo assim mais decepção em sua vida, em vez de uma declaração de amor compartilhado, embora ela se sentisse lisonjeada por poder satisfazer seu rei com a escrita do livro, com isso ele demonstrava que ela tinha valor não o valor amoroso que ela desejava mas, o de confiança pois entregara em suas mãos algo de muito valor para ele, apesar de não ser isso que ela desejava, porque o que almejava consumar seu casamento com o rei e que ele a amasse, acreditando que se conseguisse elaborar o livro alcançaria o patamar mais alto: “Daí em diante, e de alguma forma, eu estaria a seu lado, o sábio rei e sua intelectual esposa” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 89).

Segundo consta na história bíblica Salomão foi um dos mais sábios reis da antiguidade. Agora a feia teria uma missão colossal em suas mãos, a de escrever uma obra para o sábio rei Salomão. Nesse instante se sentiu sem chão e se perguntou: por onde começar a escrever? Não poderia fracassar na escrita pois já não tinha consumado seu casamento por causa da sua feiura, teria que satisfazê-lo com a sua escrita, mas o rei na conversa lhe falava que não era para ela falar sobre ele ter talento de falar com os pássaros, queria que fizesse relatos simples dos seus antepassados, além de descrever a paixão dele pela sabedoria e a construção do grande templo em Jerusalém (SCLiar, 2007, p. 89). Nesse momento, ela relembrava o passado – onde morava – e quando subia para as montanhas. Vinha à lembrança o prazer proporcionado pela pedra, com a qual se masturbava. Agora tudo isso tinha ficado para trás, e ela se sentia muito infeliz.

Logo ao terminar a conversa, o rei lhe chamou para lhe apresentar uma coisa importante, levou-a a uma pequena porta um pouco escondida por cortinas grossas, quando ele abriu estava cheio de manuscritos, onde ficava seis anciões a escrever, mas discutiam tanto que não chegavam a nenhuma conclusão, ali era proibida a entrada de mulheres, mas como ela estava na companhia do rei, eles só observavam, não fizeram nenhum comentário. Enquanto caminhava, Salomão lhe falou que aqueles anciões já estavam há dez anos escrevendo a história do seu povo, mas não o satisfaziam com suas escritas, sendo que, posteriormente, a feia comprovou a má qualidade daqueles escritos: “O rei tinha razão: era uma mixórdia, aquilo, uma confusa mistura de lendas, fatos históricos, preceitos religiosos, tudo muito mal redigido, e até com erros de grafia” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 93).

Justamente por isso o monarca lhe pedira para escrever porque tinha gostado da forma com que ela relatava a seu pai como era o rei. Nesse momento ele riu e falou: “Aquilo estava muito bom. Quase me convenceste de que sou mesmo um vilão, [...]. Depois, escreves muito melhor que cada um deles, ou todos juntos. Tua carta é uma prova disto” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 90, 91). Contudo, Salomão também explica à feia que precisa que o texto seja aprovado pelos anciões do reino, pois eles eram considerados “os depositários da sabedoria do passado” e, devido às “suas poderosas conexões, eram personagens importantes. Ainda que não ocupassem cargos no governo, formavam uma espécie de supremo, e informal, conselho, que conferia à realeza uma parcela de sua legitimidade” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 97, 104).

Nesse contexto, enquanto escrevia o livro encomendado por Salomão, um dos anciões procurou a protagonista feia, um velho anão careca, que tenta assediar a feia, alegando que, na condição de revisor do que ela estava produzindo, sentiu-se excitado quando leu a parte em que a narradora descreveu Adão e Eva fazendo amor sobre o capim molhado. Nesse instante, ele abre a túnica e mostra seu pênis ereto. A feia acha aquilo muito engraçado e patético, mas se recusa a manter relações com aquele “duende decrépito”, pois “ser desvirginada por aquela figura lamentável – aquilo sim, era abominação:” “Era um pênis enorme, o dele, comicamente desproporcional à diminuta estatura do homenzinho, um vergalhão imenso que quase, eu diria, o desequilibrava” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 100-102).

O tempo passava lentamente, mas após demorar muito para recebê-la no leito nupcial, Salomão finalmente consentiu pois ela havia enviado uma carta ao pai reclamando a falta de consumação matrimonial. Antes de ser direcionada ao quarto salomônico, a guardiã das esposas do rei coloca um espelho diante da narradora e a reação de espanto da feia já serve para antecipar que o ato sexual não acontecerá

naquela noite: “Imagem que contemplei com receio. [...] a imagem que eu via ali era simplesmente medonha. Deus, como eu estava feia”. Ela teme o encontro com o rei, concluindo que “feias não predizem; feias aceitam o que lhes reserva a sorte” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 72). Em seguida, Salomão a recebe em seu quarto, mas não consegue ter uma relação sexual com ela, pois não consegue ter nenhuma ereção.

Na página 116 do livro, ela revela estar triste com o rei porque este não se deitava com ela, ainda que ela ainda estivesse escrevendo o livro solicitado por ele. Nesse momento, ela pensa em ir para o deserto: “Ali habitaria numa caverna, eu sozinha com minha dor e minha mágoa. E minha pedra”. O que se nota nesses trechos é que a protagonista demonstra preferência pela caverna, já Salomão, pelo palácio. Posteriormente, a feia se sente amedrontada e receosa de não conseguir produzir o livro encomendado pelo monarca e analisa: “Por que não me tinha deixado em paz, a vida? Eu estava lá quieta, refugiada na montanha, eu e minha feiura, eu e minha pedra; de lá havia sido arrancada para quê?” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 89). Depois disso, já tendo concordado em escrever a obra, ela pensa em seduzir o rei pela escrita do texto e devaneia: “Agora: se no caminho encontrasse uma caverna... E se o mestre Salomão quisesse entrar comigo naquela caverna...” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 92).

A situação da feia fica ainda mais tensa quando a Rainha de Sabá vem visitar Salomão. A narradora dedica um parágrafo inteiro para descrever minuciosamente a soberana:

Que mulher linda, santo Deus. Que mulher linda. Uma negra alta, esbelta, com um rosto de belíssimos traços, grandes olhos, boca cheia, sensual – lindíssima. Perto dela as setecentas esposas e as trezentas concubinas não passavam de tristes espécimes (de mim, nem falar). Os olhares invejosos que eu surpreendia davam testemunho desse constrangedor contraste. Procuravam algo, esses olhares penetrantes, algum defeito naquele rosto e naquele corpo; mas nada achavam, porque estávamos diante da perfeição absoluta. A cor, naturalmente, chamava a atenção; todas nós tínhamos a tez morena, mas nenhuma era negra. E daí? Com soberba, poderia a rainha dizer, sch' hora ani ve nava, banot lerushalaim, sou negra e também formosa, ó filha de Jerusalém. E as filhas de Jerusalém, bem como as filhas de qualquer outro lugar, teriam de se fechar em copas. (SCLiar, 2007, p. 134)

Salomão passa a dar atenção apenas para essa rainha estrangeira. Para a narradora a presença dela causa mais tristeza, pois o quarto da feia é ao lado do de Salomão, e ela ouve as tórridas relações sexuais do mais novo casal. Ela tenta se confortar por meio da escrita: “Escasso consolo – em vez de foda, escrita”, “o texto me consolava, me amparava, dava sentido à minha existência.” (SCLiar, 2007, p. 140, 148).

Ao destacar em sua essência a condição humana, a obra exibe as aparentes contradições da



vida. Talvez a principal delas seja a da feia que, depois de esperar tanto tempo por uma tão sonhada noite de amor com Salomão, mantém relações com ele, mas, após isso, parte ainda de madrugada atrás do pastorzinho. Num primeiro momento se poderia dizer que esse anônimo pastor em nada era superior ao rei hebreu. No quesito aparência, Salomão era exuberantemente lindo:

Que homem lindo, Deus do céu. Eu nunca tinha visto homem tão lindo. Um rosto longo, emoldurado por uma barba negra (com alguns fios prateados), olhos escuros, profundos, boca de lábios cheios, nariz um pouquinho adunco – o suficiente apenas para dar-lhe um charme especial. E o porte senhoril, e o ar másculo... Lindo, lindo. (SCLIAR, 2007, p. 45)

O fragmento acima traduz as primeiras impressões que a protagonista teve ao contemplar o soberano de Israel pela primeira vez. Ela teve até uma vertigem e precisou ser amparada pela encarregada do harém para não cair. “De imediato me apaixonei por ele. Uma paixão avassaladora”, menciona a própria feia. Mas as descrições da formosura salomônica persistem ao longo da narrativa. Logo ela reafirma a bela presença do filho de Davi ponderando que ele era um homem “cuja beleza chegava às raias do insuportável”. Mais adiante, ela revela que foi seduzida pelos “seus negros, fundos olhos” (SCLIAR, 2007, p. 44-45, 48, 91).

É a esse soberano belíssimo que a protagonista de *A mulher que escreveu a Bíblia* abandona para procurar o pastorzinho, um rapaz pobre e amputado. A celebração da união entre a escriba feia de rosto e o pastorzinho coto é o que coroa o desfecho desse belo livro. Na última página do romance, após a consumação do matrimônio com Salomão que já estava encantado com sua inteligência, a protagonista decide partir em busca desse antigo amor do passado, o pastorzinho, “e de suas enigmáticas, mas promissoras, cavernas” (SCLIAR, 2007, p. 162). O fato de ele ser coto não impede o amor da feia, pois, até mesmo ela correu o risco de ter suas mãos amputadas, já que vivia acariciando seus seios, e, em sua terra, cortar as mãos “era uma punição comum para ladrões e pervertidos sexuais” (SCLIAR, 2007, p. 23).

Também pode-se notar que a ausência de nome para a personagem principal poderá ser vista como um “modo” de destacar ainda mais a feiura da moça, pois faz com que o leitor esteja sempre relembrando sua feiura. Se se levar em conta o prefácio do livro, outro ponto importante é que na verdade o relato se baseia em memórias de regressão às vidas passadas (crenças à parte), sendo assim qual nome poderia ser dado a essa personagem? O de agora ou de outras vidas? Ou seria a obsessão do terapeuta por perder sua paciente por quem havia se apaixonado? Considerando tudo isso, não se pode deixar de analisar os efeitos que os personagens com feiura ou

amputados têm sobre os conceitos de beleza ideal, e também apresenta a oportunidade de autoanálise, pois existe sempre algo a mais nas pessoas do que apenas beleza física.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: G
LINGUISTICS & EDUCATION
Volume 24 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Empowerment and Student-Centered: How to Improve the Psychological Resilience of Higher Vocational Students?

By Zemei Xu

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GJHSS-G Classification: LCC: LC1481



EMPOWERMENT AND STUDENT CENTERED HOW TO IMPROVE THE PSYCHOLOGICAL RESILIENCE OF HIGHER VOCATIONAL STUDENTS?

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Abstract- How to improve the psychological resilience of higher vocational students in China has become a theoretical and practical issue that higher vocational colleges urgently need to answer. This article reiterates the "student-centered" concept, integrates the "empowerment" construct research framework, and tentatively interprets the practical situation of improving the psychological resilience of higher vocational students. On the one hand, we create a positive environment through six levels: individual, dormitory, class, family, department, and school. We implement a student-oriented approach and emphasize the importance of fostering external protective factors for psychological resilience. On the other hand, out of the three levels of empowerment, which are empowerment, self-efficacy improvement, and consolidation of the individual's inner self, we practice the concept of empowerment and focus on stimulating the internal protective factors of psychological resilience.

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I. EMPOWERMENT AND STUDENT-CENTERED: A NEW PERSPECTIVE ON IMPROVING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL RESILIENCE OF HIGHER VOCATIONAL COLLEGE STUDENTS

a) Empowerment

The concept of empowerment comes from "Black Empowerment: Social Work in Oppressed Communities" published in 1976 by the famous scholar Barbara Bryant Solomon. She described how black minorities in American society have long been subjected to negative evaluations from peer groups, advantaged groups and the macro-environment, so that they feel a deep and comprehensive lack of power. Xu Lijuan et al. (2020) believe that the concept of empowerment includes three elements, namely, the increase of abilities, the acquisition of rights and opportunities, and the improvement of self-efficacy. Xu Lijuan et al. (2020) believe that the concept of empowerment has three elements: the increase of abilities, the acquisition of rights and opportunities, and the improvement of self-efficacy.

b) Student-Oriented

The connotation of the "student-oriented" concept includes the following aspects: First, based on the all-round development of students, focusing on, caring for, and serving students, constantly improve

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students' ideological level, political awareness, moral quality, and cultural literacy, so that students can become virtuous and talented people talents with both skills and comprehensive development¹. The second is to protect the legitimate rights and interests of students. To implement student management, students' legitimate rights should be respected and protected, students should be educated and guided to assume their due obligations and responsibilities, and students should be encouraged and supported to practice self-management, self-service, self-education, and self-supervision². The third is to adhere to the all-round education of all staff and the whole process, and guide the ideological value throughout the entire process and every link of education and teaching, forming a long-term mechanism for teaching and education, scientific research education, practical education, management education, service education, cultural education, organizational education³.

c) Psychological Resilience

Psychological resilience refers to an individual's ability to adapt well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or other major pressures, that is, the ability to rebound from difficult experiences (Gao Yidan, 2022). Research shows that psychological resilience includes two main factors: intrinsic protective factors and external protective factors (Yang Mei, 2022). Intrinsic protective factors refer to the personality factors possessed by an individual, such as optimism about life, trust in others and other characteristics, which can regulate or mitigate the impact of crisis. External protective factors refer to factors in the individual's environment that can promote the individual's successful adjustment and improve the impact of the crisis. Family, school and society are the three main

¹ "Regulations on the Construction of Counselor Teams in General Colleges and Universities" (Order No. 43 of the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China), "Opinions on Further Strengthening and Improving the Propaganda and Ideological Work of Colleges and Universities under the New Situation"

² Article 5 of the "General Provisions" of the "Regulations on the Management of Students in Ordinary Colleges and Universities" (Order No. 41 of the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China)

³ "Opinions of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and the State Council on Strengthening and Improving Ideological and Political Work in Colleges and Universities under the New Situation" (Zhongfa [2016] No. 31)



external protective factors for students' psychological resilience, which plays an extremely important role in enabling them to maintain a positive attitude when encountering adversity (Huang Wenjuan et al., 2023).

d) The Analytical Framework for Improving Psychological Resilience

The "student-oriented" concept builds a student service system that is people-oriented, quality-oriented (Bai Shuxin, Li Maofu, 2015), it involves truly thinking and acting from the perspective of students, and guiding them to achieve comprehensive development in moral, intellectual, physical, artistic and labor. this concept has a leading and guiding role in shaping Qualified builders and reliable successors of socialism. Although there are some relevant literatures discussing methods, the specific work lacks real practicality (Qian Cheng, 2020; Sheng Qing, 2015). Empowerment emphasizes starting from the client (student), improving his ability, giving them rights and opportunities, and improving their self-efficacy to achieve their goals. From the perspective of higher vocational students, the two concepts have the same starting point. Both should start from the students' own needs and rights, emphasize

student participation and self-help, and encourage students to define their own blueprints; And the goals to be achieved are also the same, which is to reduce the sense of powerlessness caused by negative devaluation of individuals or groups in labeled or marginalized groups, and improve the individual's ability to rebound in the face of difficult experiences, thereby enhancing personal psychological resilience.

In view of this, this article attempts to integrate the two and construct a research framework for improving the psychological resilience of higher vocational students. On the one hand, it starts with the students' daily contact system, which includes six levels: individual, dormitory, class, department, family, and school; On the other hand, based on empowerment, the process of improving psychological resilience is specifically divided into three levels: ability improvement, opportunities acquisition, and self-efficacy improvement. Furthermore, these two interact to form a practical and theoretical framework for improving the psychological resilience of higher vocational students, as shown in Figure 1 below.

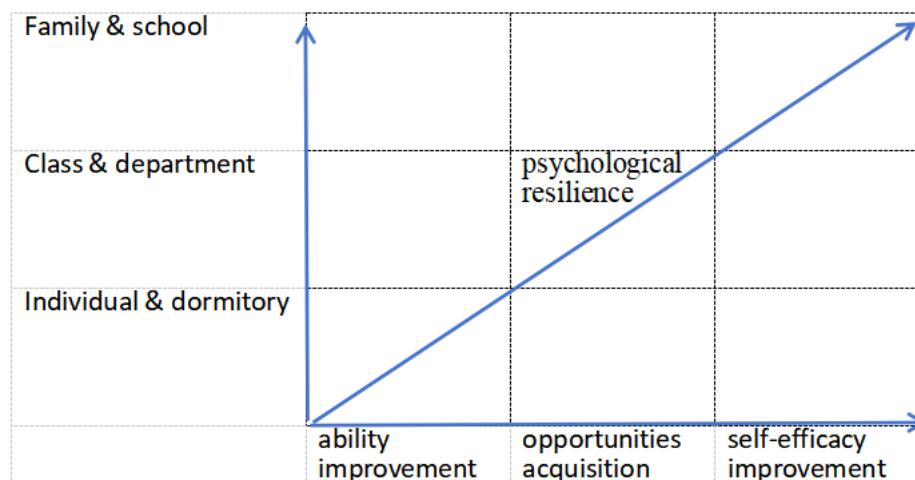


Figure 1: The Analytical Framework for Improving Psychological Resilience

II. THE PRACTICAL PROCESS OF IMPROVING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL RESILIENCE OF HIGHER VOCATIONAL STUDENTS

a) Case Background

Student Mr. Wang, 19 years old, majored in digital media and technology application at a higher vocational college. He is the eldest in the family and has a younger brother who is in college. He and his younger brother were raised by his grandparents since childhood. This year, his grandmother suddenly suffered from Alzheimer's disease. His parents are separated from each other all year round and work part-time jobs to earn money to support the family. The family's annual income is about RMB 40,000 to 60,000. Student Wang's

living expenses are RMB800 per month. Wang was injured during a long-distance running practice in elementary school (the hospital diagnosed him with a concussion). Wang believed that the injury caused him to think normally when his mental state was good, but when his mental state was bad, his thinking of brain was not normal. In October last year, his father injured his arm at a construction site and was hospitalized for more than a month. However, it was not until his father was discharged from hospital Wang learned that his father was injured. He blamed himself. He usually communicate with mother once a week, and with his father almost once a month. When he was in elementary school, he went to school with his younger brother. This experience has left a deep impression on Mr. Wang. He

described how he had taken his younger brother with him since he was a child, first sending him to the classroom, then going to the classroom himself, and giving him extra classes. Mr. Wang repeatedly said that he is proud of his younger brother; but when talking about his younger brother's current situation in college, he said that he communicates with his younger brother much less than before. There is a good friend A in junior high school who teaches Wang how to draw and runs a class blackboard newspaper together. However, A no longer goes to school due to family reasons, but he has always kept in touch with Wang. In high school, classmate Wang had a friend B who was a top student. B often explained academic problems to him, but since he went to college, they have almost lost contact. One month after entering X University, Wang transferred to the computer application technology major. It has been three months since He entered the new class. He is not familiar with roommates and classmates, and not made any close friends. At the same time, One of his teachers contacted me, She said that Wang came to talk to her and said that she felt empty in her heart and that she wanted to express herself but lacked self-confidence. Wang said that maybe as a science student in high school, mathematics courses in college are relatively easy. However, professional courses such as computer science are very difficult to learn. He feels that other students can learn it easily, but he looks like stupid in these courses. During a certain class cadre election, Mr. Wang submitted a competition application. However, on the day of the competition, he came on stage and said that he would not participate in the election and asked his classmates to choose someone else. This confused some students in the class. After getting to know his classmates, I found that Mr. Wang usually lives alone and seldom participates in group activities or interacts with other students.

b) Problem Identification

i. Basic Necessities of Life

Judging from the actual situation of the family, Mr. Wang's parents have to support two elderly people and two college students, and the family's per capita annual income is about RMB 10,000. MR. Wang and his younger brother had just entered college. Suddenly, their grandmother fell ill and their father was injured. The family's finances suddenly became difficult.

ii. Necessary for Interpersonal Communication

Judging from the experience described by Mr. Wang, he was accompanied by his younger brother in elementary school, by his good friend A in junior high school, and by classmate B who was the top student in high school. But after entering college, He suffered from having no close friends, feeling very lonely, mentally empty, and had a strong desire for interpersonal communication. But in actual situations, he wants to be

proactive in socializing and then retreat at the same time.

iii. Improvement of self-efficacy

Judging from Wang's learning situation, mathematics is relatively easy for him, while professional courses such as computer science are more difficult. In view of this, Mr. Wang has the need to learn more difficult content in mathematics; in computer and other professional courses, he has the desire to learn quickly like other students. Due to unreasonableness (self-attribution and labeling, for example, if he is not like other students, he is stupid, which is further related to the concussion and injury when he was in primary school), Wang expressed a sense of powerlessness during the interview.

iv. Construction of a Harmonious Environment

Judging from the communication with his roommates, Mr. Wang was used to living alone and did not participate in team building in the dormitory, so that he was no longer invited to the activities which was proposed by the other three people in the dormitory. From the exchanges with class cadres, Mr. Wang almost did not follow the rules to handle the assignments in certain courses. And she withdrew from participating in the class committee election, which confused everyone. At the same time, Mr. Wang almost never participated in class group activities, nor did he join any clubs. As a college student, dormitories and classes are critical micro-meso systems in students' campus life, but Mr. Wang is lacking in this aspect.

c) Intervention Strategies

Based on the above four levels of issues, starting from the analytical framework of improving psychological resilience, the counselor worked hard with Mr. Wang to create a six-level linkage platform of individual, dormitory, class, department, family, school to enhance his self-confidence and reduce his feeling of powerlessness, empower him, make him believe that he is capable and valuable, and work with them in the direction of solving problems to enhance their psychological resilience. The intervention strategy is described below:

i. The Micro-System of Psychological Resilience: Individual-Dormitory Level

This level focuses on the positive experience in which individuals feel they have the ability to influence or solve problems, they initially try to cooperate with others to solve problems, enhance their self-confidence, and stimulate internal protective factors of psychological resilience.

(1) Focus on "Problem", Clarify Unreasonable Attributions and Remove Labels.

Regarding the diagnosis of a concussion caused by a long-distance running injury suffered by Mr. Wang when he was a child, Mr. Wang believed that

when his mental state was good, his thinking in brain was normal, but when his mental state was bad, his thinking in brain was abnormal. The counselor discussed this issue in depth with Wang, and finally discovered that because the incident happened in elementary school, he could not remember it clearly, but he always kept repeating this cognition. First, parents are invited to recall together whether there has been a diagnosis of concussion; second, counselors consult doctors, Baidu, etc. to inquire about medical knowledge about concussions; third, Inviting professional doctors to discuss with Wang to confirm concussion medical knowledge. Then we reached consensus with Wang: He did have a concussion when He was a child, but the human body has the function of self-healing and has already recovered. But it is true that people's mental states will show different states such as good or not so good due to encountering certain things or not sleeping well. Finally, discussing ways with Mr. Wang to improve his mental state, such as regularizing work and rest, maintaining exercise, and actively interacting with classmates and teachers.

Regarding labeling himself as "stupid". After several in-depth conversations, it was discovered that after failing the college entrance examination, the frequency of contact had decreased between Mr. Wang and his brother and his good friend in high school. At the same time, Wang would "complain" that the knowledge taught in the advanced mathematics course is not as difficult as that in high school, and there is almost no new knowledge point. Such contradictions tore apart Mr. Wang, making him unable to objectively understand his abilities, resulting in a deep sense of powerlessness. First of all, I would like to acknowledge Mr. Wang's good performance in advanced mathematics. After the teacher's class, if you are still interested, you can buy exercises to do by yourself. At the same time, you can also pay attention to competitions such as mathematical modeling competitions, etc. Secondly, practical courses such as "Computer Application Fundamentals" are of the type that make perfect. As long as you practice more and operate it several times, you will definitely become proficient.

(2) Focus on "Positive Relationships" and Cultivate a Sense of Belonging.

The first is to leverage peer groups and encourage collective activities. Learn about dormitory life about Mr. Wang, such as daily schedule, spare time life, dormitory entertainment, everyone's getting along, life consumption, etc., and encourage Head of his dormitory to lead the dormitory students Participate in group activities such as the department's "Bedroom Culture Festival" to increase interaction with classmates. The second is to build personal initiative and set up tasks to understand classmates. Tell him that the

teacher is happy for him and that he has special and sincere friends at every stage of his life. Continue to keep in touch with his close friends and share daily study, life, etc.; Then assign him a task to understand a person who are not in the same dormitory as him, and discuss with him what types of classmates he can get to know, such as his deskmates in class, members of the course study group, and classmates who are as good as you in high mathematics. It is recommended that Mr. Wang start from a familiar field and gradually a less familiar place like a library to know about other person; The third is to clarify and understand Mr. Wang's psychological expectations of the task. Discuss with him what would happen if he communicated with others. One would be a particularly great communication experience, and the other would be a just so-so or bad conversation. If you encounter poor communication, you need to realize that this is one of the normal results, because the communication process is interactive and affected by many factors.

ii. *The Meso-System of Psychological Resilience: Class-Department Level*

This level focuses on the reconstruction of the medium and micro system environment (classes, departments) that has a key influence on individual empowerment, so that individuals can obtain more resources and power, and through interpersonal interaction and mutual assistance, they can have more experience in cooperation and communication with others. We also hope to create a sense of consciousness and capability in each other's life community, reduce their sense of powerlessness, and stimulate external protective factors for psychological resilience.

(1) Focus on Mental Health, Plan a Series of Themed Class Meetings, and Create a "Peer-Style" Growth Alliance.

In order to enhance mutual understanding among students, a series of themed class meetings such as "Speak Well Workshop", "Heart Healthy Heart Sunshine", and "Basketball Game" were held in the class. During this process, the class committee is encouraged to mobilize the entire class to actively participate in activities such as event planning, material purchase, venue layout, event hosting, game sessions, and venue cleaning after the event. Through encouraging students who are willing but inactive to participate, and even "imposes" some relatively simple tasks to them to a certain extent to make them feel more involved in the activities.

(2) Contact the Classroom Teachers to Establish a Student Learning System and Create a "Backup" Teacher-Student Relationship.

In order to make full use of the department's learning resources and enhance student-teacher

interaction, two non-class time student learning systems were established after communication between the counselor and the department head. Firstly, establish a Q&A system during non-class hours. Secondly, open an train & practice room during non-class hours to facilitate students to practice. At the same time, provide on-duty instructors for the train & practice room. And then, the relevant changes were announced to students through class meetings and informed to Mr. Wang. At the same time, he was invited to serve as an assistant in the train & practice room room to assist teachers with matters such as sanitation of the train & practice room during non-class hours, and received a small amount of work-study subsidies. After that, during non-class time every week in the future, Mr. Wang came to the train & practice room on time. A month later, in an interview with classmate Wang, he said, "I feel much better recently, and I feel like I am getting better at computers."

iii. *The External-System of Psychological Resilience: Family-School Level*

This level focuses on promoting individuals to understand the mobilization and utilization of opportunities and resources in their environmental context, while ensuring the provision of resources and the accessibility of the system needed by individuals. The focus is on changing or mediating immediate environmental stress situations, continuing to improve the individual's understanding of the environmental system, learning from teachers, friends, etc. how to communicate effectively with the system environment, improving individual self-efficacy, thereby stimulating the internal and external aspects of psychological resilience protective factor.

(1) Based on Objective Reality, Guide them to Apply for National Scholarships

Introduce the national financial aid policy for students from families with financial difficulties to the whole class, and guide students to apply. Finally Mr. Wang submitted his application, and awarded the second-class national financial aid, which solved Mr. Wang's difficulties in life to a certain extent and effectively alleviated the financial strain at home caused by his father's arm injury. He was also encouraged to study actively and strive to be eligible to apply for scholarships in the next academic year.

(2) Consolidate the Home-School Alliance Around Students' School Conditions

First of all, establish a list of key students and communicate with their parents on a regular basis. Parents are expected to encourage and praise good behavior and remind of poor behavior. Secondly, in order to enhance parents' understanding of the school's learning, life, entertainment, etc., each class publishes a "Class Events" manuscript every month. Third, establish a parent We Chat group to build a platform of trust between home and school. Through regular activities,

awards-winning notifications, class memorabilia and answers to parents' relevant questions, the communication channel between parents and the school is effectively opened and positive interaction is achieved.

III. INTERVENTION EFFECTIVENESS

A few months later, Mr. Wang came to me and said: Now my father's arm has basically recovered. Let me tell you quietly that I have also found a good friend in college. He joined one competitions Studio and tried to focus on learning the content of competitions. Occasionally he come to my office to help with some things and share some recent study and life situations. At the same time, he also actively participates in volunteer activities. Asked how he felt, he said he was more positive. In this case, The changes in students' behavior are visible. However, due to the short period of practice, many subsequent effects have not been reflected and cannot be predicted. This research takes efforts to theoretically explain and implement the intervention Strategies in higher vocational students from the perspective of empowerment and student-centered, and in the future more profound and systematic practical exploration requires more attention and advancement from more researchers.

IV. SUMMARY AND REFLECTION: STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE THE PSYCHOLOGICAL RESILIENCE OF HIGHER VOCATIONAL STUDENTS

a) *Build a Good Environment from the Six Levels of Individual, Dormitory, Class, Family, Department, School, and Focus on Stimulating External Protective Factors for Psychological Resilience*

The individual is only a subsystem in the "student-centered" system. The micro- and meso-environments (social and physical environment) also have an important impact on individual growth, and each subsystem interacts and influences each other. Therefore, practicing the student-centered concept lies in coordinating the relationship between various subsystems to make them more coordinated and harmonious, and jointly promote the improvement of students' psychological resilience.

b) *Consolidate the Individual's Inner Self from Three Levels: Ability Improvement, Opportunities Acquisition, Self-Efficacy Improvement, Focus on Stimulating the Internal Protective Factors of Psychological Resilience*

Empowerment is a work theory and method that pays more attention to an individual's self-esteem, self-confidence, sense of ability, etc., so that they can perceive their own value and self-efficacy. By effectively coordinating events at various levels such as individuals,



dormitories, classes, departments, families, schools, etc., we can maximize the individual's dominance and participation in various events, overcome the individual's addiction to inherent cognition and behavior, and focus on the social behavior level. The individual's internal cognition, emotion and behavior build a positive self-awareness, which ultimately enables the individual to move from empowerment to an improvement in self-efficacy, thereby stimulating internal protective factors for psychological resilience.

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This project was funded by Chongqing City Vocational College, Project No. XJSK202301006.

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21. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

22. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium through which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

INFORMAL GUIDELINES OF RESEARCH PAPER WRITING

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference material and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.



Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.



The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.



Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

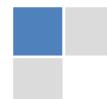
If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."



Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

THE ADMINISTRATION RULES

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**CRITERION FOR GRADING A RESEARCH PAPER (COMPILED)
BY GLOBAL JOURNALS**

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Topics	Grades		
	A-B	C-D	E-F
<i>Abstract</i>	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
<i>Introduction</i>	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
<i>Methods and Procedures</i>	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring
<i>Result</i>	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
<i>Discussion</i>	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring
<i>References</i>	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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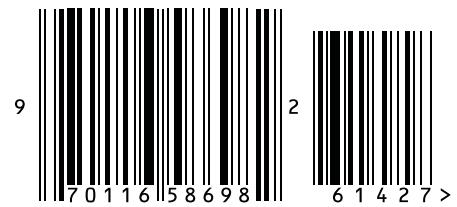


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ISSN 975587

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