The Communication in the Educational Field

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Abstract: In the field of education, the production of speech affects the determination of the conditions of a communication system and the conditions of the statutory order. The study analyzes the factors and conditions of performance of communication in the field of education. The methodology is interdisciplinary, at the border between psychology, pragmatism and discourse analysis. The intention of the research is to define the rules which the success of an educational discursive operation depends on.
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Introduction

In the educational space, the production of the discourse aims to determine the communicative conditions, which relate to the stage and the support of the discourse, and the statutory conditions related to the status and role of the actors involved and to the communication agreement between them. The social actors in this field interact, the communication of which may be monologic or dialogical, direct or technologically mediated, contained in several standardized communication contracts of *production conditions*, by which we understand the set of factors determining the specificity of a discursive situation [1]. The delimitation of these factors was made in the discourse analysis [2] on the basis of the *discourse concept*, which designates a socio-historical conditional communication device [3]. Under these conditions, the discursive genre delimits a relatively autonomous ensemble of conditions that provide an identity within a society, in a particular social place. Thus, a text is specifically produced under the discourse genre because, in the "phenomenon of understanding other's words, we know since the beginning, from the first words, predicting of the genre, guessing the volume (the approximate length of a whole discourse), the given compositional structure, foreseeing the final, in other words, from the beginning, we are sensitive to the entire discursive ". [4]

1. What Factors are affecting the Educational Context?

For Maingueneau, a type of speech is instantiated by communicative and statutory requirements [5]. The first expresses the idea that each genre of discourse is associated with a specific moment and place of enunciation. This ensemble will be analyzed in two dimensions: the support and the scene of the speech. The concept of *support* designates the environment through which a discourse is transmitted: paper, sound, radio, electronic environment. Each of these has particular characteristics that affect the type and the discursive genre. In the case of education, support is predominantly given by the direct communication channel, face to face. Thus, any text occurs in a determined, ritualized social situation that involves a legitimate way of creating signs.

By *scene*, we will be able to understand institution or ensemble of organizations legitimately responsible of producing a type of speech at a given time. For example, a university course is a kind of public discourse in which the legitimate production scene is an amphitheater of the university and which consists in transmitting current information to students through direct communication, with the support of sound waves. Scene features affect communication: circular layout facilitates dialogue as

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opposed to classic layout on straight lines; open, cheerful colors create a tonic mood; the air level, oxygen content, agglomeration, distance between teacher and students, the chair in front of the class, the comfort, all create the interaction.

Statutory requirements set the legitimacy conditions related to the situation of the enunciating context because it defines the roles and the specific contracts between the actors of the discourse. Recognizing these implicit conditions attached to a genre depends on the possibility of receiving the discursive act appropriately. Thus, any discourse implies a transmitter and receiver, as well as an intention of discursive intervention, by virtue of which the whole is organized. Hence, the determinants of statutory terms are: *the actors* involved in the construction of the discourse; *the communication contract* related to the situation of the enunciating context.

Who are the social actors in the educational field? The natural answer to the above question is the educators and the educated, namely teachers and students. If the latter can be defined operationally as any person who attends the courses of an institution, thus bearing the name of student, educators can be hardly enumerated: obviously, they are teachers, but also trainers, coaches, even anyone explaining a technique or technology that he masters. However, it is important that they have the legitimate right to be in that position. For example, teachers should have higher education degrees, psycho-pedagogical training and a legally-qualified legal competition. For trainer or coach, however, the explicit, legal conditions are much less, for instance, the existence of a specialized training course, but the implicit requirements are related to the expertise in the field. But things get complicated for those who explain a technique, art or technology. Can you teach others how to make sculptures if you master them, but what legal conditions do you impose? Having a specific school? In conclusion, if the professions in the educational system (teacher, educator, etc.) have developed legitimation frameworks, the rest of the specific conditions are less reglemented. This is where charlatans and people who do not perform at the promised level appear, but these issues are mostly subject to the market test.

On another level, beyond the class level, the actors in the educational field interact with the system, the latter consisting of the whole of the educational institutions. Everyone comes in contact with the kindergarten, the general school, the high school, possibly the faculty, but fewer with the school inspectorates or the ministry of education. If educators explain the formal curriculum, the institutions teach hidden curriculum: the set of written rules, but above all repetitive behaviors that explain the true values of an organization. Thus, the existence of cases of favoritism in school sends a message about the values of that school. For example, many teachers bring their children to the institutions they work in, hopefully (not in vain) that they will be better treated by colleagues. However, there were many cases where the asymmetry between the pupil's performance and grades was so high that the other students were aware of it. Yes, parents have achieved better formal outcomes, but they have been put at the risk of stigma and social isolation. Was it worth it?

In other news, each organization develops a specific atmosphere, more or less beneficial to education. Rosenberg distinguishes between dominant and life-giving organizations [6] using three criterias: purpose, motivation, and evaluation. The purpose of a dominant organization is to demonstrate who is right and who is not, to get what you want or to submit to authority. Motivation refers to punishment, reward, guilt, shame, obligation or duty, and the evaluation is done through labels and judgments. By contrast, life-oriented organizations aim to achieve a more beautiful life, everybody to have what they need, to develop opportunities to connect with themselves and others. The motivation is related to the contribution to others' welfare, the voluntary remuneration of the community. The evaluation is done by items such as: what does the human need meet and what does not? What can make your life and mine to be more beautiful? Rosenberg describes the contrast between the two types of organizations. In an organization dedicated to the fulfillment of life, we get what we want, but not to the detriment of someone else, because getting what we want at the expense of someone else can not meet our needs. Our goal in such a structure is more beautiful, it is to express our needs without condemning others and listening with respect the needs of others. No one has to give up anything and no one has to give in to someone else. This creates an equality in the relationship between people, through which the

needs of each can be satisfied. Of course, very few institutions are like the one described, most of them hanging between extremes. Questions remain: In what type of institution did you learn ?; Where would you like to learn?

By *contract of communication* we understand the set of constraints codifying socio-linguistic practices and from which result the conditions of production and interpretation of a social place. For Patrick Charaudeau, this concept implies that the "individuals belonging to the same body of social practice are likely to agree on the discursive representations of these social practices" [7]. This contract starts from a certain socio-linguistic status of the various discursive protagonists, which subordinate their statements and which is based on the above-mentioned idea of the joint construction of meaning by the participants in a communication act. Although communication variations in the educational space are potentially infinite, we can identify two paradigmatic situations: teaching and evaluation.

The communication contact for the teaching lesson is: the teacher conveys information or forms a new competence, useful for the students, in a convincing or persuasive manner. The delimitation of deviations is important because it also highlights the reasons for the failure of the educational act.

Thus, teachers' attributable deviations may be:
- lack of novelty, in which case students are bored;
- too much novelty, in which case students do not understand;
- lack of utility, in which case students are not motivated;
- lack of utility, in which case students are not motivated;
- lack of persuasive arguments, in which case students do not develop attachment to the field;
- replacing the teaching with hilar content, personal or non-academic, in which case everyone loses time.

From the student's point of view, his / her attributable deviations may be:
- lack of attention and interest;
- refusal to cooperate in classes;
- lack of preparation and effort during and after class,

The communication contact for evaluation is: the teacher measures the distance between the expected standard and the pupil's performance in an objective manner announced in advance. Where appropriate, the assessment may be either oral or written, theoretical or practical, punctual or based on the systematic observation of student activity and behavior; retrospective (what he has learned so far) or prospective (his performance when doing an investigation, a project, a protozoa), external or self-evaluation. In the Romanian system, the evaluation ends with a grade, ideally ending with feedback. Feedback is a qualitative assessment, as a description of the effect of teaching or assessment on psychological indicators (thoughts, emotions, attitudes). Assertively formulated, it contains the confession of a negative or positive emotion *(I feel sad; I am proud of you)*, behavior (*when I see that you did not understand the concept; because you adapted your old knowledge to the new situation*) and the consequences of the behavior concerning the person (*because I imagine I did not explain well, and I'm not worth it; because that's how you can pass the baccalaureate*).

In the evaluation, teachers' attributable deviations may be:
- not responding to a standard so that the grades will not correctly measure assimilation of information or skills;
- the level is too high or too low and the students will be confused, not knowing if they are too good or too weak; A good evaluation leads to a dispersion of the results after the Gauss curve (some very large notes, some small, the majority between);
- wrong standardization, in which case false or irrelevant items are correctly measured;
- double, preferential, discriminatory standards, so some students will be frustrated;

- marking on the basis of interest for those with connectionss or having private classes with the teacher;
- the exclusive use of only one evaluation method, so that the same type of skill is always measured;
- incorrect evaluation tool, inappropriate for age, subjects or profile, or simply wrong;
- absence of feedback, in which case the student will not understand what is wrong and hence will not be able to self-correct.

From the student's perspective, attributable deviations may be:
- copying, test fraud;
- refusal to cooperate on the exam.

2. How Do We Perform in Didactic Communication?

On the educational level, communication is marked by communication support, scene, actors and communication contracts specific to each social site. Given the ritualized character of teaching communication, marked by rules, it will perform as the actors involved will focus on the creative and effective use of available resources. So, the success depends on how educators and educators interact. Generally, human interactions are some psychic processes: sensory (sensations, perceptions, representations), cognitive (thinking, memory, imagination), affective (emotion, feeling, mood and passion), regulatory (will, attention, motivation). The human psychic system, from birth to the moment of HERE and NOW, has recorded experiences that have remained in the constitution of our being and are activating under similar environmental conditions. For example, strong parental rejection, abandonment, humiliation or injustice on a man's map of interference interfere with the act of communication currently taking place. Trauma leads to loss of objectivity in coding and interpreting the verbal, non-verbal or para-verbal responses of the interlocutor. A glance, a gesture, a word can have another meaning for a student with the trauma of rejection, rather than one would have without this experience. A traumatized teacher will also be marked by the loss of objectivity in interpretation. Physical needs of security, love or of personal value which is unconscious or unfulfilled will also interfere in message and form. Behind each behavior can be a conscious, formal purpose, and an unconscious need of importance, security or influence. So all these psychic processes are latent or manifested in communication.

The things highlighted above leave signs in human communication, inversely proportional to the degree of conscious control of manifestations. It is an analysis of interdependencies of verbal levels (with the help of words), para-verbal (voice tones and inflections, speech rhythm, pauses, verbal tics) and non-verbal (gestures, mimics). Two people who speak the same text in front of the same audience will achieve different results, as it is possible to support *the primacy of para-verbal and non-verbal levels over the the verbal one*. If a person speaks something and the body language says the opposite, the receiver considers the second message to be credible, since it is more closely related to the unconscious, uncontrollable dimensions of the individual's manifestations. Verbal language is easier to control and educate than non-verbal expressions.

Studies on these levels reflect Albert Mehrabian's contributions, which he put under the names of verbal, vocal and visual (3V) [8]. The author is probably best known for the "Total = 7% verbal + 38% Vocal + 55% visual" equation. He stated that "this equation or other about the relative importance of verbal or non-verbal messages is derived from experiments on communication regarding attitudes or feelings (pleasant, unpleasant). Unless a communicator talks about his own attitudes or feelings, these equations are not applicable" [8, 231]. Beyond the establishment of approximate percentages, the importance given to other dimensions of communication other than strictly verbal is also important. Verbal, para-verbal and non-verbal levels aim at constructing a discourse that, on this dimension, must fulfill the desideratum of *credibility*, since it requires a consistent language with the indications and spatiality of the body. Interaction between them transforms the message. A dull speech, linguistically speaking, becomes credible and exciting through non-linguistic spectacularness. The agreement between the levels of language must also be followed with regard to the various discursive situations in which an educational actor transposes. Some

teachers awaken sympathy when entering another discursive register than the strictly educational one. Such extra-school manifestations and criticism, but sometimes examples of personal life can have a persuasive effect.

There is a first requirement: *messages sent on the three levels must be coherent* [9]. If the audience sees a contradiction between the words ("I'm open") and the rest of the messages (crossed legs, elusive look, uncertain tone, etc.), then the entire discourse lacks credibility.

The verbal level involves a system of two-way limitations. On the one hand, the lack of expressive dimension leads to a technically predictable and dull, sometimes even boring, speech. On the other hand, the abuse of rhetorical figures leads to the absence of meaning. Thus, fixing the "right measure" in the construction of the discursive shell is difficult to achieve, but *the verbal language must avoid the extremes delimited above*. In this line, in the footsteps of Herbert Paul Grice [10], we can state that the main rules for the expressing of ideas are: tell the truth; avoid the lie; any claim must be supported by sufficient evidence; expose ideas as needed: neither too much nor too little; be relevant; speas to the subject; tel new things in accessible language; be clear, precise and concise; avoid ambiguity; be well-ordered.

Is possible for a didactic communication to be conscious of all human psychic complexity, traumas, general human needs and projections inherent to each conversational act? We can introduce here the distinction between two forms of communication, depending on the degree of empathy towards the interlocutor: object-subject, when the interlocutor's psychic content is canceled through evaluative communication, control, manipulation, indifference or superiority; topic-subject, when psychic content is expressed without attacking the interlocutor, being a way to take care of the other, to open communication even on subjects with potential conflict [11]. The second form can be achieved by observing principles of assertiveness. Thus, it is important to:
- be aware that personal experience is related to us and not to the trigger stimulus;;
- explain what we see, hear, feel;
- understand that certain behaviors may be negative, but not the person;
- describe and do not criticize nor evaluate;
- be aware of the difference between empathic communication and the one centered on one's own needs;
- exist a consonance between verbal, para-verbal, non-verbal levels, as well as thinking, emotion and language.

3. What Type of Discourse Is the Educational One?
Identifying a possible educational discourse would simultaneously lead to two consequences. First of all, we might describe its specificity and, subsequently, the performance criteria. Secondly, we might exclude from his field the unspecific manifestations that parasite him, with a direct effect on the success of the educational act.

Among the first interested in providing a solution to a taxonomy of the types of discourse was Charles Morris. He, attracted by the numerous specializations of language, has made a classification of the uses of natural languages. "Over time, varied specializations of the common language have arisen according to the way in which certain purposes could have been more appropriately fulfilled. Such language specializations are called speech types "[12]. Starting from here, Morris resorts to two criteria for their systematization: the way of signification and the mode of use. By *way of signification* it's understood the signs' ability to provide the receiver with a description of the denoted object. Depending on the significance dimension, the signs are divided into: 1. designative (give the receiver a description of the denoted object); 2. prescriptive (provides the receiver with a description of how to behave with the object or the denoted situation for effective action); 3. appreciative (provides a description of the object's qualities in relation to their satisfaction value); 4. formative (like "neither ..., nor", "if ... then") [12, 140-171]. *Through the use of signification*, Morris refers to the relationship between the sign and its effectiveness in achieving the purpose of the action, so it refers to the link between the receiver and the sign in the sense that the receiver uses the sign to reach the purpose of

the action. From this point of view, we obtain the following categories of signs: 1. informative (the interpreter is informed about the properties of the object); 2. incitative or injunctive (the interpreter is encouraged to improve the object's processing properties); 3. evaluative (refers to the appreciation of the satisfaction properties of the object); 4. systematic (organization of signs for producing the action) [12, 172-184].

It should be added the fact that Charles Morris distinguishes, on the significance scale, between the dominant signs and the dominant signs of a discourse, the type of discourse being determined by its tone, that is, by dominant signs. On the dimension of usability, it distinguishes between the primary and secondary use of signs, the first term of the dichotomy referring to the direct adhesion's capture of the signs to the object's qualities, while the secondary use is mediated in the reciver's consciousness by means of deductive processes. This latter criteria leads directly to intentionality, the way of use is, in fact, how the speech's message affects the receiver's intent for communication. If we add to this the assumption that the ways of signification are used according to the goals the speaker wants to achieve results, from the combination of the two criteria, sixteen kinds of speech, each with its communicative intent:

Table no. 1 Types of discourse, classified by Charles Morris by the preponderance of the types of writers

The use of language / The ways of signifiance through language	Informative	Evaluative	Incentive	Systematic
Designative	Scientific	Fictive	Legal	Cosmological
Appreciative	Mythical	Poetic	Moral	Critical
Prescriptive	Tehnological	Political	Religious	Propagandistic
Formative	Logical-matemathical	Rethorical	Grammatical	Metaphysical

An activity that takes a lot of people's time (for most, twelve classes, for many, three more - for a license, five - for a masters degree, or at least 8 more) one would expect from education to correspond to a specific speech. The types of speech's table do not reflect such a specificity. It would seem that the educational discourse would be a scientific one, but education is not just about passing objective, tested information. Education also means setting attitudes, so moral discourse. It also means a systematic influence of individuals in order to assume values and behaviors, that is, propaganda. Paradoxically, educational activity finds elements from all of the above taxonomy.

Conclusions
Education is therefore, when an eclectic composed inter-discourse on the dominance of a type of speech, when a meta-discourse, which analyzes the other speeches in a specific manner. In other words, on Wittgenstein's line of thought who believes that the boundaries of our language are the boundaries of our world, education is about the whole reality, not just about a specific field. This translates, in the context of concrete communication, into the absence of a specific didactic discourse and in a loan of genres and communication contracts in other types of discourse. This is also an asset and a risk. The first is the creativity and effervescence that always appears at the boundaries between disciplines. The risk arises, however, from the possibility of imposing the dominance of a type of discourse on the educational space. For example, education is always in the spirit of values accepted by the state, in institutionalized structures of influencing individuals and groups. But that's the definition of propaganda. And when propaganda gains too much weight in the educational space, it loses its scientific and critical character, becoming ideological.

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