

# Life history, lived temporal facts and adult education Hervé Breton

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Hervé BRETON Professeur des universités

Université de Tours, EA7505, France herve.breton@univ-tours.fr https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3536-566X

# 8 Life history, lived temporal facts and adult education

9 Issue 142 of the journal *Éducation Permanente*, published in 2000, contained a transcript of the 10 discussions that took place at a round table entitled " What can be done with life stories? A look back at 11 fifteen years of practice ", which brought together Pierre Dominicé, Vincent de Gaulejac, Guy Jobert and 12 Gaston Pineau. It is on this occasion that Pineau proposes to define life stories in the following way: 13 "For me, the best definition of life story is 'the search and the construction of meaning from experienced temporal facts", integrating the idea of meaning to the sensitive, the direction and the significant 14 15 (Dominicé et. al., 2000, p. 237). It is from this definition that the axes contained in this text may be 16 unfolded. It is from this definition that the axes contained in this text may be unfolded. In fact, it is a 17 matter of thinking about the links between the narrative processes activated by adults in the context of 18 life history sessions in training and the formative dimensions of this inquiry on the facts lived which is 19 conducted in the first person perspective by the narrator. The reflection formalised in this article intends, 20 therefore, to structure a theoretical framework whose challenge is to characterise the formative dimensions 21 of the self-writing, from two aspects: the notion of what are "lived temporal facts"; the narrative 22 composition of the autobiographical text. There are several stages to the discussion presented in this text: 23 the first section is devoted to formalising the current trend of life stories in training, the aim being to 24 specify the singularity of the approach, and to specify the place taken by research on 'lived facts' in this 25 context of adult training. The second part of the text aims to characterise the notion of facts, then that of 26 temporal facts, then that of lived temporal facts. In the third part, we will use the notions of narrative 27 regimes and narrative kinetics to specify the effects on comprehension and self-education processes. The 28 fourth and final section brings together and integrate the theories of narrative that have been invoked, 29 examining them from a phenomenological and hermeneutic perspective.

### 30 The life story paradigm in adult education

31 "Training through self-narration" may be one way of characterising the singularity of life stories 32 in training, both theoretically and methodologically. The point is to consider that narrative work, 33 whether oral or written, generates formative effects for the subject who engages in it. However, in 34 order to examine this proposition, we need to characterise what is meant by the term 'narrative', 35 and then specify the processes associated with the training development of the narrator.

In the context of life stories, different types of narratives are activated, in succession:
 self-writing, expression of the narrative within groups, circulation of narratives and experience
 of reception, collective thematisation, etc. This succession of times is not produced at

40 random in the devices. It is part of a strategy aimed at gradually immersing adults in 41 training in the work of storytelling. Immersing oneself in the work of recounting one's 42 experience requires the narrator to give himself time to access the memories, to allow himself to 43 be impregnated by the retentions that become present again as a result of the exploration of the 44 lived experience during the evocation. These operations cannot be produced simply by 45 volunteering (Ricœur, 1949). In order to be achieved, they presuppose that learning takes place, 46 so that gestures such as disengagement, the ability to remain

- 47 available, the possibility of allowing oneself to be impregnated by the memory, can take place 48 upstream of putting things into words and putting them into narrative. This narrative activity 49 has been theorised as a test by Baudouin (2010), which is defined, in relation to the work of 50 Bakhtin (2017), on the basis of three fields of strength: putting experience into words (1), putting 51 lived experience into narrative (2), and accessing the narrative to the community (3). 52
- 53 Taking these three dimensions into account in thinking about the narrative work carried out ine 54 adult education training enables us to sort and classify the operations and sub-operations 55 included in the life history approach.

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- 57 **Putting experience into words** involves various gestures that must be performed and learnt: 58 disengagement, evocation, awakening of the memory, presentification, semantic filling, lexical 59 retrieval, etc. The transition from experience to language involves accessing memories 60 (Vermersch, 1994), remaining attentive to the lived effects associated with the microprocessual 61 awakening of retentions (Depraz,
- 62 2014), finding the way to name (Cance and Dubois, 2015), structuring statements, etc. (Depraz, 63 2014). making it possible to contain the experience in stabilised, meaningful terms... The 64 performance of each of these operations mobilises gestures that need to be practised, 65 accomplished, their mastery having the effect, no less, of generating an ability to transform the 66 connection with the embodied experience which, from being passively sedimented, becomes 67 graspable, expressive, thematisable.
- This first field comprises dimensions concerning narrative research and is situated at the
   crossroads of experiential phenomenology and the language sciences. The second field concerns
   more specifically contemporary narratology and hermeneutic phenomenology.
- 73 Storytelling involves processes that are both compositional (Ricœur, 1983) and narrative 74 tension (Baroni, 2007). Composition, because, as Ricœur points out, in order to appear 75 complete, the narrative must integrate the major events and lived facts in the life story unit. 76 Tense, because the narrative's diegesis includes a tonal and sensitive substance that must 77 correspond to the experience of the lived experience that has been transferred to language and narrated as a story. Producing a first-person narrative therefore means, as far as 78 79 the work of composition is concerned, accessing the facts of the experience, grasping them in 80 their singularity, ordering them in time, then associating them logically so that, as Ricœur puts it, a transition can take place: from the episodic to the logical. This process, which Ricœur 81 82 associates with plotting, combines temporalisation and configuration: the ordering of lived facts 83 and the configuration of events in relation to each other. These processes remain dependent 84 on wording the experience, which makes it possible to preserve the vital charge of the 85 experience in the narrative text, which gives it its tension. We need to examine, however, what the facts experienced are, insofar as they are the objects of the work of temporalisation and 86

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configuration. From it, the narrator is expressing point of view, and therefore the modes ofinterpretation, on his existence and his way of living.

- 89 The third field described below has a social and political dimension. Indeed, it questions the
- 90 places and spaces that open up the right to self-expression and, more broadly, the conditions
- 91 of circulation of first-person narratives in the social world.92

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93 The story's access to the community. The third component of the test lies in the format granted 94 for the socialisation of the story. The term format can refer to a material medium (the print 95 medium, paper or digital), but also to the time available to the narrator(s). It also, and perhaps 96 above all, refers to the attentional resource of the person or community providing the 97 attentional experience, this resource being a factor in the capacity to take into account and 98 understand the singularity of the narrative. This format can also be apprehended insofar as it 99 is governed by what Foucault (1972) identifies as the taboo of the object, the rituals of the 100 circumstance, and the rights conferred (or denied) to the subject who speaks. Access to the narrative thus seems uncertain, because of the elements that can potentially stand in the way: 101 102 distraction, temporal urgency, prescription on what is to be said, etc. The possibility of a "true 103 parole", from the subject's point of view, may be hindered or blocked as the composition asserts 104 itself. However, the strength of the narrative depends on it, as the ethopoetic capacity (as a mode of transformation of the subject's modes of existence) is dependent on the expression of truth, 105 106 from the narrator's point of view.

108 Examining the processes generated by narrative work, seen as a test, makes it possible to 109 characterise the formative dimensions of storytelling, without, however, attributing mechanistic 110 relationships to them that make it possible to predict the concretisation of effects over time. 111 Indeed, although learning can be identified when an adult engages in a process of expression, 112 description, oral or written narration of the story, the origin of this learning cannot be directly or 113 strictly associated with the operations of composing or reviewing the self-narrative. What is 114 generated by the narrative is not the acquisition of knowledge, but the ability to understand. From 115 a hermeneutical perspective (Finger, 1984), this involves learning to question the narrative structures and habits of interpretation that organise the self-narrative, in order to open up the 116 scope for interpreting lived experience, and thus gain access to understandings that have 117 118 remained unnoticed, ungrasped, or obstructed by the forms of evidence that seem to have been 119 imposed. This questioning can also lead to freedom from inherited discourses, as the subject 120 emancipates themselves from the identities assigned to them by their history, background or 121 social class (de Gaulejac, 2012).

123 Numerous parameters therefore deserve precise examination in order to characterise what 124 contributes to the emergence of new understandings, the transformation of interpretation habits, 125 and the evolution of the subject's modes of existence. For this article, the focus is on the 126 subject's activity of composition, based on the identification of lived events, their temporal 127 ordering and their logical configurations. This line of research, which focuses on the modes of composition of the self-narrative, is not conducted independently of the processes of putting the lived experience into words, or of the formats that make it possible to express the narrative to the community. The main aim of this study is to focus on these processes, insofar as they form part of the current of life stories in training.

# 132 **Temporal facts and narrative composition**

133 As was said at the start of this text, Pineau's proposal for defining life histories in training is: 134 "the search for and construction of meaning on the basis of lived temporal events". Three 135 blocks can be distinguished: "the search", "the construction of meaning" and "based on lived temporal facts". These three blocks can be associated with the dynamics of narrative 136 137 composition, especially in relation to Ricœur's theory of plot (1983). This involves a tension 138 between two operations: the temporal ordering of lived facts (i.e. the operation of 139 temporalisation); and the association of facts with each other according to a set of inferences 140 whose logical connections can oscillate between the possible, the probable or the certain (i.e. the operation of configuration). In Ricœur's theory, then, there is a focus on lived facts insofar as facts 141 142 are the organisers of the chronology of the subject's history. In other words, the facts of life 143 constitute the temporal milestones that stand out within experiential continuity, and these 144 moments of salience are constituted as elements that can be grasped in order to make sense of 145 them. 146

However, several points need to be made clear. Firstly, the content taken into account by the 147 subject in the life history work is lived experience. The addition of the term "lived" appears 148 149 decisive here. Without it, the story could end up in literary studies, fictionalised biography or 150 historiography. In life history work, the subject is led to remember and then to grasp the facts that 151 he has experienced himself. So it's not a question of documenting the facts of the period using a historiographical approach, or inventing facts to augment history or imagine alternative 152 153 scenarios. Rather, it is a matter of becoming aware of what is given in the form of significant facts and which, precisely because of this gift, influences and generates the work of interpretation 154 that is part of the configuration and is accomplished in the constitution of the history from which 155 the subject thinks of itself in time. As Ferrarotti (2013) points out, this logic of enquiry does 156 157 not preclude, at a later stage, the crossover between lived experience and social facts. 158

However, several points need to be made clear. Firstly, the content taken into account by the 159 narrator in the life history approach is the lived experience. The addition of the term "lived" 160 appears decisive here. Without it, the story could end up in literary studies, fictionalised 161 biography or historiography. In the life history field, the adult is led to remember and then to 162 163 grasp the facts that he or she has experienced. So it's not a question of documenting the facts of 164 the period using a historiographical approach, or inventing facts to augment history or imagine 165 alternative scenarios. Rather, it is a matter of becoming aware of what is given in the form of significant facts and which, precisely because of this donation, influences and generates the 166 work of interpretation that participates in the configuration and is accomplished in the 167 168 constitution of the history from which the subject thinks of itself in time. As Ferrarotti (2013) 169 points out, this logic of inquiry does not preclude, at a later stage, the crossover between lived 170 experience and social facts.

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This differentiation between facts and lived facts clarifies the notion of research mentioned by 172 Pineau. The search for meaning involved in grasping lived experienced facts can be thought of in 173 174 relation to the dynamics of configuration as presented by Ricœur (1983). According to this 175 perspective, the person involved in the work proposed in the life story sessions is led to 176 become aware of the geography of the personal facts which form the ground for interpretation 177 and which participate in the hermeneutics of the self. To be meaningful, this proposition needs to be examined from two angles: that of the notion of fact itself (1); and that of the ways in which 178 179 facts are grasped (or selected) by the narrator (2).

As Françoise Lavocat shows in her book (2016), the precise definition of what constitutes a fact 181 in narratology, psychoanalysis, cognitive science or literature is problematic. The same applies 182 183 to the field of experiential hermeneutics from which life stories in adult education originate 184 (Fabre, 1994). When the adults take attention to their lived experience, they get in contact 185 with moments that appear with random precision and clarity. The exploration of lived experience, which can be thought of as a mode of first-person inquiry in which the subject 186 187 engages in order to understand himself, and which takes place through the conversion of the view, 188 is governed by a microdynamic process of awakening memory. This means that the narrator who 189 turns to his or her experience is led to realise that he or she comes into contact with past 190 moments of life when he or she makes himself or herself available, without to be able to lead 191 these lived donation memory. In short, the facts of life that enter into the story are given with the force of evidence to the narrator who works with them during the process of interpretation 192 193 and configuration. Similarly, the perimeter of the fact, and the boundary that separates it from the realm of fiction, to use Lavocat's terms (2016), appear to be neither clear nor definitive. 194 195 The observation of these dynamics makes the firm characterisation of lived events problematic. Or, more precisely, it makes the boundary between the operation of temporalisation and that of 196 configuration porous. In short, we can say that the work of wording lived experienced facts into 197 temporal order, even if it respects the principle of succession (Brémond, 1963; 1966), which 198 199 includes an historical dimension, is partly part of a logic of interpretation, since to select an 200 event is to bring out a salience within the continuity of the experience.

202 Consideration of this issue, combined with the very definition of what constitutes an experience, 203 raises questions about the processes involved in selecting lived experienced facts. This is 204 relatively easy to improve it.

If I make myself available for recollection by thinking, for example, of a learning moment that occurred in the course of my life, several of these moments come to mind, in an apparently spontaneous way. From a certain point of view, I am led to consider that these moments appear to compete with each other. How, then, do I go about sorting out the facts, selecting those that seem to me to stand out the most? Should I capture them all? But where do I draw the line? What would be, to use a classic notion of forms of enquiry in the social sciences, the line at which the data begins to saturate?

The above passage aims to give an account of the complexity of the operation enabling access to 215 the facts during the awakening of the memory, recollection and differentiation of the moment 216 217 within experiential continuity. At this scale, that of the recalled moment, other factors need to 218 be deliberated: what is the relevant time span for apprehending the experienced event? What 219 level of detail should be used when putting it into words? At the level of the story, it is 220 the criterion of completeness (Ricœur, 1983) that is interrogated: in order for the narrative 221 to appear complete from the narrator's point of view, there are facts that cannot remain on 222 the margins of the story, as forbidden from the narrative. From this perspective, an unspeakable fact that cannot be put into words or made to make sense (Pollak, 1990) weakens the structure of 223 224 the self-narrative, making it appear irremediably incomplete from the narrator's point of view. This criterion of completeness may therefore be constrained by the non dicible dimension of the 225 events experienced. It may also be constrained by the format imposed on the narrative, the 226 227 temporal compression associated with the biographical narrative regime (Breton, 2022) having the effect of limiting the number of facts that can be included in the story. What criteria should be 228 229 used to decide whether a succession can take place, when all the facts cannot find the place they 230 need, from the narrator's point of view, because of the necessarily constrained format in which 231 the narrative is expressed? The format also has a constraining effect on the level of detail 232 associated with the description of the facts, which may require, again from the narrator's point of 233 view, detailed wording that is both aspectual (Adam, 2015) and profound (Petitmengin, 2010).

235 Making sense of the temporal events we have experienced therefore requires us to engage in a process of composition, which entails its share of trials and tribulations: grasping the key events, 236 arranging them according to a principle of succession, integrating moments left out of the story, 237 238 producing inferences, manifesting a logic. This dynamic of composition cannot be dissociated from the organic dimension of self-narratives, which must be thought of as living matter, or even 239 as an entity with a vitality of its own. Baroni (2007), in examining the aggregating and tensional 240 241 processes of expectation, curiosity and surprise, emphasises the strength of the sensitive insofar as these dimensions form the tonal and ambient foundation (Bégout, 2020) of the narrative, through 242 243 which the composition produces an intrigue that inscribes the narrative as a human 244 understanding (Delory-Momberger, 2009) integrating the logical and the sensitive.

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# 246 **Experiential phenomenology and the kinetic regime of texts**

As already mentioned, in the context of life stories in training (Breton, 2019), support is offered to a group of adults in training so that they can experience self- narration on a biographical scale. To achieve this, the program is structured in phases, alternating between periods of theoretical and methodological input, periods of immersion in the narrative, and periods of expression and circulation of narratives within the group. A second sequence is also organised. Its purpose is to generate variations in temporal scales for the capture of experiences brought to language and integrated into the narrative.

The expression "temporal fact experienced" contains the notion of duration. The narration of a period of life covers a longer period of existence than the narration of a moment or an instant. Given a constant format for expressing lived experience, the fact that the narrator is led to bring to language experiences of varying duration means that he has to adjust his compositional procedures, and to realise that this variation in procedures has effects on the manifestation of the

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experiential phenomena experienced in the narrative. It is this variation that generates the oscillations in the kinetic regime of the narrative, i.e. the phenomena of acceleration or slowing of the speed of the passage of time experienced during first-person narration. This variation in processes can result from a deliberate action on the part of the narrator, who decides to regulate the kinetics of the narrative according to criteria that are stabilised and explicit from his point of view, depending on what he considers relevant or decisive to convey in language.

However, a concrete examination of the narrator's activity in the context of a life history training session shows that the kinetics of the narrative are given to the subject in the form of a force of evidence, without the elements governing this gift being made conscious or thematised. This donation must be seen here as a force that produces a constraining effect on the mobilisation of the processes on the basis of which the composition of the narrative is organised. In other words, in the context of first-person narration, the narrator is moved by a force which, from a hermeneutical perspective, is quasi-destinal:

"Experience can be said, it asks to be said. To bring it into language is not to change it into something else, but, by articulating and developing it, to make it become itself" (Ricœur, 1985, p. 62).

279 This destinal character can, however, be reflected upon from a hermeneutic point of view, based 280 on the configured dimension of the narrative, the level of strength of the interpretative structures 281 and the associated inferential dynamics. From this point of view, the narrator's involvement in the 282 process of composition enables us to bring out, in a discourse or text, the version of the narrative 283 that has been constituted with the "force od the evidence" from the narrator's point of view, a means in the course of experience, and which nevertheless generates modes of existence and ways 284 285 of inhabiting the world of life. This process can be set in motion when writing or speaking, when 286 rereading, or when receiving the life stories of others. It proceeds from a logic of rupture with the sedimented version, this rupture being made possible by the disengagement from the 287 288 habits of interpretation that have generated a quasi-naturalised meaning that prefigures the modes of interpretation and participates in the structures of relevance of the world of life (Schütz, 1987). 289 290 The emergence of a gap in meaning can therefore result, in the context of the "life stories in 291 training" sessions, from the dialogical process associated with the experience of reception during the circulation of life stories. This breach can also be provoked by the variation of kinetic 292 293 regimes, by the slowing down at certain moments, and by the entry into the regime of 294 microphenomenological description during certain phases of the narrative. 295

The entry into a microphenomenological regime corresponds to a phase of the narrative that proceeds from an extreme slowing down of the speed of kinetic speed of the naration. Examples of this can be found in literature, particularly in Proust's writings, where descriptive passages are characterised by a quasi-suspension of time (Esnault, 2019). In the case of autobiographical texts, i.e. those written in the first person, this process of slowing down has the effect of extending the space given to certain moments of the life course in the text, with the effect of generating a 302 detailed description of these moments. These phenomena of kinetic variation appear 303 spontaneously to the narrator. They can, however, be induced and then produced methodically. In 304 this case, the narrator, in the course of his narrative, proceeds in a regulated way, in the course 305 of putting it into words, in order to transfer to language the microprocessual and sensitive 306 dimensions of the lived experience. This activity of regulated description (Petitmengin et al, 307 2015) has been documented in Vermersch's two main works (1994; 2011), and then in work on 308 microphenomenological description (Depraz, 2020). It has been the subject of specific study, in 309 relation to the 'strata' of lived experience (Petitmengin, 2010).

311 This practice of description, conducted in a regulated manner during the course of the narrative activity, does not have the exclusive function of intensifying the depth of the diegesis. Its 312 function is also, and above all, to elucidate the preconfigured dimensions of the narrative that 313 314 result from the inferences that generate the interpretive processes that underpin the narrative structure of the self-narrative. In other words, slowing down and detailing engages the narrator in 315 316 the work of elucidating the interpretive processes that generate the meaning conveyed by the 317 experience, and these processes may occur without the narrator's knowledge, i.e. without him or 318 her resorting to any voluntary work. Describing, in this case, means suspending the system of 319 interpretation that takes place along the way, in order to question and widen the range of possible 320 ways of signifying the experience:

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To describe is to put aside the formulation of the causes of phenomena in favour of an account of what is noticed. Hence the preference given to the 'how' rather than the 'why' or the 'what', i.e. the ways of being, the modalities of presence, the qualities of lived experience and the processes by which phenomena emerge (Depraz, 2014, p. 136)

327 For this description to appear in the narrative in a regulated way, it presupposes the development 328 of narrative capacities (Breton, 2019). During self-writing, as Baudouin (2010) shows, the 329 variation in kinetic regimes in autobiographical texts is spontaneously given to the narrator. It is 330 therefore indicative of narrative tension: the testing of moments, the non-dicibility of 331 experiences...). It is during the rereading period that the narrator can see whether he has 332 decided to emphasise a quasi-unawareness of past experiences, by noting the ways in which he 333 has been able to narrate, the space that has proved necessary for the narration, and the forms 334 of organisation that have proved relevant to temporalisation. Conversely, to tell, to say and to 335 describe in a regulated way is to establish, in the course of expression, whether written or 336 oral, a dynamic of transformation of the rapport to experience. The ability to describe in fact 337 generates this capacity for elucidation, not in the aftermath of the expression and socialisation 338 of the narrative, but in the course of its refiguration during the constitution of the text.

# 339 Expetiential fermeneutics as a paradigm for adult education

As it has been said said, the life stories in adult education uses the practice of storytelling as a means of self-formation. It is part of the philosophical tradition of hermeneutics, and finds its contemporary extensions in the fields of experiential training, self-formation and Bildung (Fabre, 1994). The relationship between hermeneutic philosophy, narrative theories and self-formation has yet to be formally documented. Numerous works have been published on the place of narrative in the field of adult education (Dominicé, 2007; Pineau and Legrand, 2019; Josso, 1991; Villers, 2002), as well as in the field of biographical research in education (Deloy- Momberger, [PREPRINT] **Breton, H**. (2023). Life history, lived temporal facts and adult education. *Linhas Críticas*, 29, e47892. <u>https://doi.org/10.26512/lc29202347892</u>

347 2005) and the clinical narratives (Niewiadomski, 2012). These works are the result of real-life 348 experience for the researchers, observations made during life story sessions with groups of 349 adults in training. They make it possible to establish a paradigm in education, training 350 and research (Delory-Momberger, 2019). Studies are still needed, however, to characterise the 351 processes involved in understanding, broadening the scope of meaning, and overcoming the 352 habits of interpretation that preconfigure the narrative without the subject's knowledge.

"I will understand hermeneutics as a theory of interpretation, concerned with the operations necessary for understanding a text. Also, it is always good to warn anyone who resit a little lost here since the summary, and references to authors studied, I deal here with textual hermeneutics...." (Souza, 2022, p. 29)

This then leads him to specify the singularity of the hermeneutic of the self in the field of adult education and training:

Interpretation is, in the end, for Ricœur (2011), an act of self-understanding. The appropriation in the sense proposed by the author leads the reader to a hermeneutics of himself, a form of analysis by the subject of his existence, by inserting in the way he sees himself other concepts and other possible worlds as a horizon of possibility for existing. (Matos-de-Souza, 2022, p. 36)

Training from a hermeneutical point of view is part of a tradition that seems to run counter to 368 conceptions of adult education that focus on the logic of skills, the acquisition of know-how and 369 370 the stock of technical and procedural knowledge. The effects generated by the narrative are in 371 fact to be located on the scale of understanding, i.e. the way in which the person makes sense of the experience over time, according to a longitudinal perspective, this making sense 372 373 participating in a process of forming which takes place in one or more modes of existence. From 374 this perspective, the reflexive grasp and elucidation of the processes involved in interpreting lived 375 experience and prefiguring connections with experience have both a hermeneutic and an ethical dimension: hermeneutic, because self-understanding cannot be separated from the dynamics of 376 inter-understanding with others, but also with the living world, or even the ecological 377 environment as a whole (Pineau, 1989); ethical, because the training processes generated move 378 away from the processes of adapting to the workstation, of acquiring knowledge alienated from a 379 singular technique, to resituate the processes of making sense on the scale of existence. 380 Experiential hermeneutics leads to a training process that lasts: the time it takes to acquire 381 382 knowledge, the time it takes to integrate a practice, the time it takes to form a subject, the time it 383 takes to affiliate and belong to one or more collective(s) or community(ies). The ethical dimension is also embodied in facts, lived temporal facts. From this point of view, despite the 384 385 sometimes arduous vocabulary used, hermeneutics and experiential phenomenology have a 386 concrete, embodied, incorporated dimension. This concrete dimension of hermeneutics is evident 387 in the work of Ricœur (1986). It can also be grasped in phenomenology, notably in the work 388 of Depraz (2012) and Varela and Shear (1999).

# 389 **To conclude**

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390 The aim of this study was to clarify the place of 'lived temporal facts' within life history training 391 systems and practices. To do this, it drew on theories of narrative rooted in hermeneutics, 392 phenomenology and narratology. Engaged in sometimes heated debates with sociology for whom, 393 notably according to Bourdieu (1986), biographies could neither constitute robust and valid 394 research approaches nor means of emancipation from cultural and social determinants, the 395 consideration given to contemporary work from experiential phenomenology and contemporary 396 narratology appears to be little visible. Research that mobilises life stories as a means of 397 qualitative research in the domain of the humanities and social sciences (Breton, 2023), or those that aim to characterise the forms of stories and accounts as a means of examining their effects 398 from both scientific and formative perspectives, must necessarily be open to disciplines situated 399 400 at the intersection of narratology, hermeneutics, phenomenology and even the cognitive sciences. 401 There are still many areas to be studied, including the narrative unconscious activity, the rhythmic 402 unconscious (Alhadeff-Jones, 2020), forms of description in the self- narrative, and the 403 circulation of first-, second- and third-person narratives (Depraz, 404 2014b).

406 These disciplinary and interdisciplinary horizons can be mobilised in the context of narrative research, as in the field of adult education and training. In the context of narrative research, the 407 408 crossover between training and research appears to be maximal. In the course of this article, it 409 was pointed out that narrative constitutes a practice of the self, in other words a practice of selfformation mobilising narrative practices. It has also been said that narrative is a means of 410 qualitative inquiry in the human and social sciences. However, it would be more accurate to 411 412 that narrative research makes the research and training processes inseparable. In fact, say 413 initiating research using narrative practices presupposes experiential knowledge of its effects, for ethical reasons, but also for reasons of relevance and effectiveness. Having an experiential 414 415 knowledge of storytelling, of the processes involved and of the effects generated over time, 416 means that it is getting possible to structure systems and to support others in their narrative work by adjusting to the flow of expression, of putting words into words and of narrative 417 418 composition. Conversely, learning through storytelling means developing a familiarity with a 419 mode of knowledge, including its logical and narrative structure, which has the ability to make manifest phenomena that are otherwise blind. 420

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