

CHAPTER TWO

DESIGNING AN EDUCATIVE TEACHING SITUATION

1. INTRODUCTION

The work of a first-year student, as described in Chapter One, for the most part, concerns a **formal essence analysis** of an educative teaching situation in a classroom. This situation is a **second order design** which has its foundation in the primary educative teaching situation in the family. Since children cannot make a journey to an adult world alone, in school **help in becoming** is needed from an **adult teacher**.

The work of the second-year student, described in this chapter, deals with **designing an educative teaching situation in a classroom**. **Designing** a situation there by a teacher and pupils occurs in terms of learning contents, and appropriate didactic-pedagogic **criteria**, **didactic ground forms**, and **teaching methods**. Usually, one would begin with the didactic ground forms, and methods because one surely must have a design before there can be an evaluation. There must always be “something” which can be evaluated. In this chapter, however, the authors first describe didactic-pedagogical criteria. The reason is that the authors are duly aware that, in a school, there is “work” with **children**. When there are interventions with **children**, as far as is humanly possible, there must not be errors committed or haphazard ways of working. With each situation designed in a classroom with the pupils, a teacher, as expert regarding “giving instructions”, must have an **aim** in view which he/she will reach with them. Because preventing is better than curing, he/she will make use of **certain criteria** which can be applied as **criteria or guidelines** to allow a child’s **becoming** to take place as it **should**. A teacher is interested in the various **ways of child learning**, as ways of exceeding themselves or as ways of breaking away and making their personal becoming possible. **These criteria are used to judge and evaluate the nature, and quality of the various modes of learning such as perceiving, remembering, and thinking.**

At the same time, these criteria also illuminate whether a teacher continually follows his/her plan of work and is on the **proper** course to the **destination** he/she aims for with his/her pupils. Thus, a teacher **evaluates** each educative teaching situation he/she is going to design with the pupils, according to what is **didactic-pedagogically** desired (i.e., in terms of didactic-pedagogical criteria) to determine if he/she designs authentically. A child's course of becoming must continually be **directed**, and **guided** by a teacher, in the direction of a child's own adulthood. There is no escaping the fact that the progress of a child's becoming will be favorable or unfavorable.

Now a teacher must know precisely **when** and **for what reason** he/she must intervene, **why** he/she rejects certain things the pupils do and commends other things. The criteria discussed later ought to help a teacher direct his/her own and his/her pupils' participation to obey the **demands of propriety**. These criteria can only be **distinguished** but never **separated** because they overlap each other in educative teaching situations. In no sense is there a claim of completeness because there are many more criteria which can be brought up, if a situation is viewed from other perspectives. In each case, it is indicated that the criteria discussed in the following sections express an educative teaching situation itself, and they are closely related to the general characteristics of this situation in a classroom discussed in Chapter One.

2. SOME DIDACTIC-PEDAGOGICAL CRITERIA

2.1 Responsibility as a criterion

The task of **persons** is to **accept and bear responsibility**. A teacher's responsibility is great, precisely because he/she works with children who he/she may neither fail, nor use haphazard methods with. The concept "responsibility" is a **fundamental category** of an **educative event** which has been elaborated in detail in fundamental pedagogics. However, here responsibility is a **category** with evaluative significance (i.e., as a criterion) for evaluating the progress of an educative teaching event in a classroom. Since a teacher's teaching activities must be viewed as correlated with the pupils' learning activities, this principle also is discussed from the

perspective of the teaching activities of a teacher, and from the perspective of the learning activities and destination of a child in an educative teaching situation.

(a) **Responsibility as a criterion, seen from the teaching activities of a teacher**

A teacher with a strong sense of **responsibility** awakens the trust of his/her principal, colleagues, the parents, and his/her pupils. As initiator of an educative teaching situation in a classroom, he/she bears responsibility for its **design, beginning, progression, and results**. He/she gives **direction** to the progression of an educative teaching situation (see section 4.3.2 (d) in Chapter One), evaluates his/her own participation, as well as that of the pupils, and feels responsible to him/herself, and to his/her authority for what is done. **Characteristic of a responsible teacher, when he/she rouses and directs, teaches, guides, evaluates, and advances his/her pupils** are qualities such as being **playful, orderly, punctual, authentic, and fair**.

When the criterion of responsibility is a teacher's yardstick and guideline, in his/her teaching practice, he/she gives evidence that he/she **anticipates**, and **reflects** on his/her activities. In connection with the criterion of forming, discussed below, a teacher offers becoming and educative help because his/her relationship with his/her pupils always implies an open possibility as futurity. Each problem the pupils have mastered, enables them to solve an approaching subsequent one. A responsible teacher also learns from the mistakes he/she has made, corrects them, and enriches him/herself, and his/her teaching practice.

(b) **Responsibility as a criterion, seen from the learning activities and destination of a child**

A teacher expects that as he/she **teaches**, the pupils will **learn**. Further, he/she expects a **sensible and meaningful** response from each child to the appeal he/she directs to him/her. When he/she guides, the children must assimilate, adapt, exercise, and apply and, when he/she evaluates, they must be accountable for their participation in a situation. In addition, these meaningful responses

refer to the awakening of a **learning conscience** in a child, which implies accepting, and bearing responsibility, on a child level, until he/she will accept his/her own life task of responsibility independently. This criterion of responsibility also must appeal to him/her to make it a yardstick, or guideline of his/her own **schoolwork, behavior, and personal becoming**. He/she must, on his/her own responsibility, increasingly set high demands for him/herself, until a teacher becomes superfluous because he/she now has become an adult him/herself, with all this implies.

2.2 Forming as a criterion

There are obsolete opinions, and theories about forming a child, such as the view that a child is someone who has all kinds of “abilities” or “functions” at his/her disposal, such as **perceiving, imagining, remembering, thinking, willing**, etc. With correct and diverse subject teaching, these “abilities” and “functions” seemingly can be formed, as when one exercises muscles by participating in sports and by training. For example, by performing difficult mathematical problems, the **intellect** can be exercised. Because this view of forming contains no pedagogic pronouncements, because it is too mechanistic, and [supposedly] occurs according to a fixed lawfulness in which a child has little or no role, it is rejected.

With a person, however, the matter is stated differently. A child is openness (See Chapter One, section 4.3.3.1 (d)). By virtue of his/her **openness, and subjectivity**, he/she is someone who can **choose, decide, deny, think, be involved** with reality, and **even**, on his/her own initiative, he/she can bring about changes in him/herself, and the world. According to this axiom, **a child is someone who wants to be and to become someone him/herself**. Thus, he/she carries out his/her obligations and responsibilities, or he/she neglects them. He/she is a being who lives according to **norms**, can accomplish something, and continually builds his/her own **future**. With the help of a teacher, he/she participates in, and has a role in his/her own **forming, or becoming**, by him/herself creating situations, and giving meaning and sense to things. These relationships involve him/her with:

- (a) Him/herself,

- (b) other children, and adults,
- (c) God, and
- (d) nature.

By designing these relationships, sense and meaning arise for him/her by which he/she becomes different. A child shapes, and designs his/her own world, e.g., by **listening, perceiving, thinking, acting**, etc. With the acquisition of **language**, he/she now can **talk** about his/her **sensible, and meaningful world**, and concrete things no longer must be present, and this accelerates a child's forming, and becoming. For him/her, **language is** a means of encountering, thinking, and grasping meanings (For a further explication of language, see the criterion of communication described in the following section).

Considering what is described above, following Landman, forming is **designing a comprehensive personal world of meaning, by which a child continually comes closer to a new future, and by which his/her conversation with the world gradually occurs on a higher level.** For Bollinger, forming is personal becoming because of his/her own increasing reality (Seinsmehrung). Since a child cannot prevent his/her growing up, and cannot remain a child, he/she will **learn, act, and build on his/her own personal becoming**, or if he/she explores in a negative direction, he/she will even **degenerate**. Therefore, an **adult teacher** is necessary to help, and support a child in school, so that he/she explores in **positive** directions and, in doing so, becomes **formed**. A teacher helps a child, in terms of learning contents (subjects), to design meaningful relationships. In this way, child potentialities **unfold**, and he/she **becomes** in the direction of adulthood. This forming, or personal becoming occurs, along with moments of **exploration, emancipation, coming of age, and adulthood**, guided by the **educative teaching** of a teacher, as necessary help in becoming. Once again, this emphasizes the huge task of a teacher, and he/she must be aware of this criterion to meaningfully design an educative teaching situation. This criterion is closely related to the aim of educating and the destination of a child.

It is important that a teacher, who him/herself will venture with the life and future of a child, must know with what he/she is involved.

By teaching, correcting, punishing, evaluating, valuing, or whatever activities a teacher performs, he/she promotes or retards a child's course of becoming. To a kindly disposed reader, it ought now to be clear that an adequate understanding, and application of the criterion of forming is a powerful yardstick by which a teacher can **evaluate** his/her own participation, as well as that of his/her pupils. The discussion of other didactic-pedagogical criteria below will throw additional light on the formative aspect of educative teaching situations in a classroom.

2.3 Communication as a criterion

2.3.1 Introduction

The word communication is derived from the Latin *communicare*, which means to share with, or divide out. With this concept, an indication is given of how it is that one person can influence another. Whoever says person, in fact, says **fellow persons, indicating that a person is an encountered, and encountering being.** Now the question is what deeper meaning is contained in the phenomenon of communication between, and among persons? This concerns, as it were, the core of all forms of human **relationships and, particularly, a teacher-pupil relationship.**

The concept "communication" stems from the general human category of co-existence or being together. In other words, it arises from co-human involvement for which the fundamental concept "openness" is the absolute precondition. All human existence occurs within a situation of association. In addition, this situation of association creates the form, or ground from which many other types of situations can arise, such as religious, educative, social, **teaching, and learning** situations.

There are many familiar **forms** of communication, such as broadcasting news items, reporting, making propaganda, spreading rumors, advertising, preaching, educating, **teaching**, etc. These **forms** of communication **require** certain **means** of communicating, such as the human body: gestures, mimicry, bodily attitudes, drawings, and **language**. In the following chapter, more modern

aids in a school are dealt with, such as the press, radio, film, television, etc.

2.3.2 Communication in school

Although communication covers a wide field, the present authors only keep in view communication as a criterion in a classroom.

Truth and knowledge come into being within a dialogue, conversation, or interaction between persons (Karl Jaspers). This same Jaspers differentiates **three** forms of communication which have far-reaching consequences for all human **association**, encounter, dialogue, etc., which the authors have put in didactic-pedagogical perspective below.

(a) Vital communication

By means of bodily attitudes, and movements, such as showing, reaching, grasping, gesturing, and mimicking, by the human glance, certain facial expressions, attitudes, etc., persons **communicate** with each other. Each movement or gesture is **purposive**, i.e., it has an **aim** and, with this, a **meaning** which must be grasped by other persons. The meanings are **in the activities themselves** and, thus, a teacher can see, in the bodily **attitudes**, movements, and expressions of his/her pupils, whether they are interested, intensely involved in their work, or perhaps if they explore negatively by hiding something in their desks, if they copy from their classmate's work, etc.

It is inevitable that **vital communication** occurs in a classroom between teacher and pupils. By gesturing with his/her hands, with bodily attitude, and facial expression, a teacher can captivate and actively involve his/her pupils in his/her lessons.

Dramatization and child play also are examples of vital communication. It is warned that there must be good planning with **dramatization**, particularly with young children, otherwise a lesson can be a failure. By means of gesture, mimicry, suitable prints, drawings, emotionally loaded words, the pupils can become emotionally involved in a lesson. Closer contact, or communication

is achieved in a lesson by an emotional rather than by a purely intellectual way of learning.

If a teacher has the emotional participation of his/her pupils, he/she can go further with confidence because this ensures the pupils' active involvement, confidence, and **being together**. The older the children, the more the emphasis will fall on the intellectual moments of child participation. However, it is indicated that the affective-appreciative always underlies the involvement. Next, the second form of communication, i.e., intellectual communication, is elucidated.

(b) Intellectual communication

This form of communication has an important place, and function in the senior classes in an elementary school, but this form especially is taken on by lessons in a high school. Here language builds a bridge between the children and reality. **Language** is the thinking, and categorical form of ordering. Here, then, a teacher also must help the children master the various concepts of the different subjects. Helping a child in becoming, also includes a teacher giving support in the **acquisition of language**, if the children **accept**, and trust a teacher. So viewed, the **emotional**, also in intellectual communication, forms the ground or bedding of child participation. If a child does not **believe**, or **trust** his/her teacher, he/she will not desire to explore and become positively involved in his/her own becoming a person.

(c) Spiritual or existential communication

According to Jaspers, this is the highest form of human communication. **This is a form of communication where two or more persons accept full responsibility for each other because of their personal concern for each other, and make decisions in each other's interests.** They share and co-experience values, norms, ideals, and truths. An example of this is the harmonious parent-child, and teacher-pupil relationships.

2.4 Active involvement and help in exploration as criteria

There are many theories about the essence of child participation in an educative teaching situation. Child activities in school are identified with the **learning activities** of the children. If it is **known how** a child learns, this knowledge of **child ways of learning** can be applied in a didactic-pedagogic situation. The numerous psychological theories about **how** children learn, e.g., that of Gestalt psychology, the psychology of thinking, behaviorism (stimulus-response scheme), and others, now are beginning to fall into disfavor because they are artificial, foreign to reality, and they are not always pedagogically accountable. Consequently, child participation, as a criterion, will not be grounded in and discussed in terms of any psychological theory.

The point of departure for this criterion is that child participation always is **intentionality**, or **meaning giving**, and **meaning experiencing**. A child can **move him/herself, act, explore, design relationships** with things, plants, animals, other children, adults, with God, and the learning contents. In **school** this proceeds to harmonious relationships with the above-mentioned aspects of reality, under the guidance and initiative of an adult teacher. The children design their worlds emotionally, and intellectually, with the help and support of a teacher in a classroom. The children are always open **for** and directed **to** various things, but not always to what a teacher wants to require them to be directed to. Then, it is said that they do not take note, and pay attention. That is, they do not **give sense** and **meaning** to and appreciate what a teacher wants to require them to do. Then, they design another world, and are not involved with their own becoming a person, as desired, but with possible **degeneration**. Child participation in a classroom situation must result in meaningful personal **achievements**. For example, these achievements can be **play achievements, manual achievements**, such as writing, drawing, arts and crafts, and **thought achievements**, such as computations, writing compositions, mastering various concepts, etc.

The individual differences of children, the nature of the subject, the different learning contents or topics, the space available, the temporal aspect, etc. determine the **nature of child participation**. Although the **individual** participation of a child is a **precondition** for his/her own **exploring, working, learning, and experiencing**

together, must not be viewed as less important for the harmonious course of a child's becoming. **Self-participation has a meaningful place in an educative teaching situation in a classroom.** Thus, the **active involvement** of each pupil must be directed to acquiring the valuable aspects of an adult world, which are introduced into a classroom in the form of different subjects, because this is the destination of each child.

2.5 Ordering experience as criterion

2.5.1 The concept experience

There are many perspectives on how a person arrives at knowledge, or experience. A few of these are discussed.

(a) The empirical perspective

According to this theory, an object (the known) alone contributes to knowledge and experience. The subject (knower) is a *tabula rasa*, a blank sheet of paper, or sounding board upon which objective reality imprints its representations. Thus, by means of certain mechanism, called associations, the impressions are linked up with thoughts. The contributions of the subject to knowledge and experience are minimal because all knowledge and experiences come from outside. Thus, a person only reacts to stimuli and adapts him/herself to nature, as plants, and animals adapt to it.

This simplistic concept of experience is unreal and does not tally with reality. A person's spontaneity, his/her freedom, his/her possibilities of giving, and experiencing meaning are not acknowledged by this theory.

(b) The idealistic perspective on how a person knows and experiences

A person who takes this standpoint has the opposite view of an empiricist. According to this view, all that a person can **know** or **understand** of the outside world is what he/she him/herself can **imagine** or **think**. All knowing and experiencing come from "within", and are expressed in terms of the **subject** or **knower**. Just as with the previous view, this view is **one-sided** because the

contributions of the object to knowledge are forced. Here, human **reason** is an all-powerful explanation. This view, as is the other one, is rejected regarding the **origin of our experiences** because both isolate a human being from his/her world.

(c) **The perspective of the subject-object- relation**

A person and his/her world assume each other. To know a person, his/her world must be known. All things and matters are only part of a person's experience, as soon as he/she **has given meaning to them and has experienced** them as meaningful. Each person him/herself creates or designs his/her world of meaning, as a world-for-him/her. In this person-world relationship, **both the subject (knower) and the object (the known) contribute to the knowing or experiencing**. As described above, teaching by a teacher, and learning by a pupil means that a child must be **helped** to create his/her own meaningful world. To **experience**, then, means to create **meanings**. Thus, what is meaningful for a teacher must become meaningful for a child whereby a child then becomes involved in the world of a teacher (adult). This means that if a child does not understand something, then he/she gives a meaningless meaning to it. Then, all meaning which the "something" has for a child is that it is strange, and the child is threatened. **Therefore, all teaching must be charged with making meaningful experiencing possible, as the personal achievement of each pupil**. Only in this way can a child construct a personally meaningful world, and thereby involve him/herself in **becoming** in the direction of adulthood. Now, what is ordered experiencing?

2.5.2 **Ordering experiencing**

(a) **Introduction**

The curriculum, syllabuses for each subject, work schemes, and lesson schemes are systematic categorizing, and ordering. To ensure an orderly progressing during a lesson, a teacher must him/herself categorize, order, and schematize the learning contents beforehand for a lesson in a class period.

(b) **The origin of the subject matter**

In the first chapter it is indicated that all subjects have their origin in the lifeworld, as the integrated experiential life of persons. The lifeworld is the totality of everything which is **understandable**, and **meaningful** to a person. The meaningful and understandable things are not experienced as chaotic, but as an ordered whole. In school the meaningful world of a child is ordered into subjects with the help of **language**. There are syllabuses compiled on each aspect of the lifeworld, which are then brought into a school where they are interpreted again by a teacher and pupils and, in doing so, they become part of a child's meaningful world. All gradually give the pupils the same sense and meanings of things, as what teachers give them. In this way, the children change.

(c) **The foundation of the criterion of ordering experiencing**

The emphasis on child conversation **in school** falls on the **intellectual modes of learning**. This assumes an increasing application of the **abstract form of language**. An intellectual association with reality is a more distanced way of associating, with the help of **language** and **symbols**. Therefore, in school, the children are introduced to the **categorical ordering systems** of the various subjects by which reality is brought into a classroom. These categorical ordering systems help a child to acquire an **intellectual grasp** of things. Thus, for example, with a child in the lower grades, concrete things are ordered, along with their names. This ordering of a sensible and meaningful world is a very difficult and demanding task for a child. Therefore, if he/she will succeed in his/her work, a teacher must pay attention to the **foreknowledge**, and **existing meaningful world of each child**, the **nature of the learning contents**, the **potentialities of each child**, etc. A danger can exist that the pupils can learn the concepts without knowing what they mean. This is not dealt with further here under the criterion of ordering experiencing because it is a specific field of study of subject-didactics.

2.6 **Differentiation as criterion**

2.6.1 **Introduction**

This criterion rests on the experiential fact that children are not alike but differ from each other. Physically and psychically, children differ greatly from each other regarding their world relationships (i.e., regarding their sensible and meaningful worlds, they differ from each other even more). The explanation which follows is only meant as an introduction to the problematic of differentiation, and in no sense makes the claim of completeness. To put the problematic of the criterion of differentiation in perspective,, it is discussed under the following headings.

2.6.2 Differentiated teaching in school

- (a) In many places in the world there are schools for a variety of types of pupils. Thus, there are schools for the high ability, for poorly endowed, for deviancies, for toddlers, for a variety of vocations, etc.
- (b) The size of the school determines the type of differentiation and **how** the pupils can be divided according to ability groups.
- (c) The **nature of the pupils** also will determine the sizes of the classes. For example, more pupils will be placed in a class of average ability than when they are of lower or poor ability.
- (d) This also will influence the personnel provided because subjects are paired with teachers who are well prepared in a specific subject and teach it well.

2.6.3 The differentiation criterion and classroom practice

For classroom practice and differentiation to succeed on a desired level, they are discussed under the following headings:

(a) A teacher and differentiation

When various subjects are taught to the pupils as they should be, a teacher makes use of didactic-pedagogical criteria, ground forms, differentiated teaching methods, etc. Moreover, a teacher makes use of differentiated syllabuses and aids applicable to each subject. Assignments, tasks, and tests are compiled from easy to difficult. and complex to evaluate the progress and competencies

of the heterogeneous pupils with the aim of further dividing or promoting them.

(b) The participation of a child, and the criterion of differentiation

Because a gifted child is handicapped in his/her becoming adult by the presence of weaker pupils, and the less gifted suffer, each child must compete with him/herself in classes which are as homogeneous as possible. Therefore, a teacher usually uses certain criteria when he/she divides the pupils in his/her class or in different classes of the same grade level. Some of these criteria are:

1. Age uniformity.
2. Intelligence.
3. School readiness.
4. Parental choice.
5. The actual achievement of the pupils.
6. The talent and interests of the pupils.
7. Certain personality factors, such as dedication, persistence, social attunement, and work tempo.

In doing this, they can enjoy more individual attention. For example, by making use of a variety of differentiated modes of learning, learning aids, work aids, etc. the pupils can be guided to each participate in their own becoming. The more gifted pupils can then help the less gifted because there never is a homogeneous division of pupils in ability groups because each pupil, nonetheless, will differ from each other, even in the most homogeneous class.

(c) The learning contents and the criterion of differentiation (formally viewed)

Among other things described in Chapter One, the lifeworld (sensible and meaningful world) of persons is ordered in various subjects, each with its own categorical ordering system, and then they are brought into the classroom as syllabuses, work schemes, lessons etc. Thus, a variety of differentiated syllabuses are compiled to satisfy the needs of the various groups. This suffices regarding

the criterion of differentiation, and there is reference to additional reading material at the end of the chapter.

2.7 Integration as criterion

To allow the learning activity to occur as it should, differentiation in teaching must always be followed by integration. Where with the differentiation criterion, there is more differentiating and dividing up, with the integration criterion, there is again a working back to the whole, and the parts are taken together to preserve a perspective on the whole. Thus, a child must give evidence of a command of the **categorical ordering system of each subject**, give evidence of his/her **proficiency** to engage in communicating with various aspects of reality, preserving **continuity**, etc.

A few comments follow regarding the proficiency with the categories and concepts of each subject. To make an accountable exercise of the learning contents possible, and to acquire an intellectual grasp of them, certain slices of the lifeworld are divided into subjects and sciences. If a pupil or student is to find his/her way in a subject, he/she must understand, correctly use, apply, and, in general, master the **concepts, and categories** of that subject. Thus, for example, if a pupil or student is to progress in a subject such as mathematics, he/she must master concepts such as quadratic and square root. In a subject such as chemistry, he/she must understand concepts such as atom, proton, electron, react, and oxidize, to progress in this subject. One of the greatest tasks of a teacher and lecturer is to explain the **concepts** if a pupil or student is to have success in his/her studies.

The following are mentioned regarding the proficiency of the student or pupil:

- (a) He/she must give evidence of **proficiency** in the harmonious design of relationships with parts of reality such as things, plants, animals, and persons.
- (b) He/she must be **proficient** in solving problems and formulating his/her thoughts well.
- (c) He/she must be dexterous and proficient in reading, be able to write, talk, figure, draw, and spell well.

- (d) He/she must be proficient and supple in participating in discussions without consulting books, etc.
- (e) He/she must be proficient in the acquisition of knowledge, and categorizing, and schematizing it, etc.

It is relevant to indicate that all acquisition and exercise of proficiency occur in terms of values and norms in the life of persons.

Finally, the idea of continuity is discussed

The problematic of this matter is broached by mentioning two matters. The concepts of each subject in a school, and in colleges and universities remain the same as with what, in school, a beginning has already been made. Regarding these subjects, there is continuity between the schools and colleges. Therefore, sometimes many students progress poorly at first, with a subject such as education, which is not begun in school.

A teacher ought to look closely at the syllabus of the subject he/she is going to teach so he/she knows precisely what the children ought to know when they come to him/her, and what must be introduced in the subsequent classes. Continuity in teaching is very important. Sometimes this criterion is greatly neglected, and sometimes omitted in practice, when a school changes many teachers, or when parents move around a lot because of work circumstances.

2.8 Authority as criterion in an educative teaching situation

Since this criterion is discussed fully in the course on fundamental pedagogics, here attention is only given to the participation of a teacher and child in a classroom from a didactic-pedagogical perspective.

2.8.1 A teacher and the criterion of authority in an educative teaching situation

A child has need for help on his/her way to becoming adult to be able to become a **proper** adult. This need is responded to by an adult, which implies **authority**. Immediately, it is indicated that this

is only a **borrowed authority with** which a teacher is invested. Because of his/her need for sympathetic, authoritative guidance, a child is not resistant to authority. It gives him/her a feeling of safety and security. Since he/she does not yet know what he/she may or may not do, he/she yearns and longs for authority because, if it is lacking, he/she feels insecure and uncertain. A teacher receives this borrowed authority because, on his/her own, he/she independently places him/herself under the **demands of propriety** to take the place of a parent, as the original bearer of authority. In addition, he/she also places him/herself, as an **adult**, under the authority of the knowledge, and **truth** of adulthood. He/she accepts responsibility for the orderly course of things in an educative teaching situation to help the children reach their destination. To be able to do this, a teacher must possess a thorough knowledge of the subject matter because, if he/she has not mastered his/her subject, the situation of authority will come to naught.

2.8.2 A child and the criterion of authority in an educative teaching situation

A child has need for an adult teacher because he/she quickly discovers the uncertainty, lack of preparation, etc. of a teacher. Then, the relationship of trust suffers greatly. Through an adult teacher, whose authority is recognized by a child, and who gives a child more freedom over time, according to the responsibility he/she can bear, a child comes to the profound realization that he/she also must gradually take up and carry on the common culture of his/her group, if he/she is to respond to the demands adulthood places on life.

2.9 Emancipation as criterion in an educative teaching situation

All the criteria discussed so far are preconditions for this criterion. Because a **child is someone who will be someone him/herself**, eventually he/she must emancipate him/herself from his/her being a child, and this implies a loss of his/her not knowing, ignorance, insecurity, his/her own neediness, etc. Where a child loses the above matters, he/she has explored in the direction of adulthood. In this way, he/she must acquire his/her adulthood, which then invests him/her with designated rights and powers to place his/her

life in his/her own hands regarding matters such as his/her own choice of vocation, marriage, voting, and faith. This criterion has an additional connection with the fact that, eventually a child ought to be able to **him/herself give sense and meaning to the relationships he/she establishes with the various aspects of reality**. When a child has free choices available to act, he/she is held answerable for his/her deeds. So viewed, freedom is an absolute condition for responsibility. A teacher who intervenes in a responsible way with a child, must always keep a child's destination in mind. Thus, the criterion of emancipation is a moment during a child's becoming in the direction of **adulthood**.

3. FUNDAMENTAL DIDACTIC-PEDAGOGICAL FORMS (of teaching)

3.1 Introduction

In the previous section, some criteria are discussed. In the following, the design of an educative teaching situation is continued with the help of some didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms. The criteria discussed above must give direction to the embodiment of the fundamental forms in a classroom practice. In designing the fundamental forms, the criteria now must be clear, otherwise a design will not proceed as it should. The criteria are commonly used in designing the fundamental forms to evaluate their meaningfulness, and to judge whether the participation of the pupils is steered in the **right direction**. The few didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms which are now discussed, overlap each other in an educative teaching situation in a classroom. They are discussed separately to acquire a better intellectual grasp of them, but they never can be divorced from each other, and be used as separate recipes. These fundamental forms express the situation itself and are closely related to the general characteristics of an educative teaching situation, which are discussed in Chapter One.

Before the few fundamental forms are discussed, there is a decisive answer to what is meant by fundamental forms. To understand what these forms mean, there is reference to the analysis of an educative teaching situation made in the previous chapter. Among other things, it is indicated that a teacher, as adult, represents an

adult world. Further, it is indicated that a child, as “not-yet” adult, must be helped to come over from a child-world to an adult-world. It also is indicated that this “coming over” always occurs in terms of “something”. In the language of schooling, this “something” is known as learning contents (learning material). The selected learning materials provide “beacons” to a child and serve as a referential framework to help him/her on his/her way to adulthood. As a non-adult, a child cannot yet design his/her own lifeworld independently, and on his/her own account, but must be **helped** to do this. It is important to note that, nevertheless, a child must do this **him/herself**, and that no one can do this for him/her. The teacher only gives **help** and **support because** he/she knows both worlds. Involuntarily, now the question arises of how a child can contact reality with the help of a teacher. It is precisely these fundamental forms which make this encounter with reality possible. To make the course of a child’s becoming possible, **and to steer it in the right direction, the above didactic-pedagogical criteria must be manifested, or arrived at in didactic-pedagogical fundamental forms.** A teacher, who still always is a guide, planner, and initiator, in this type of situation, now will consider all educative teaching possibilities so that, from his/her insight into a concrete situation, he/she will make a choice of the appropriate fundamental form(s) for each specific design. Consequently, **didactic-pedagogical fundamental forms can be described as the ways or manners by which a child can encounter the reality which is brought into a classroom in the form of learning contents.** Such ways of encountering are **play, conversation, example (or exemplar), and assignment.** These didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms [i.e., didactic ground forms] are employed in a primordial situation, i.e., the family situation, or lifeworld from which the learning contents come. In a **school**, as a second order establishment, these ground forms are there, but only as a redesign of those already existing in a primary, family situation. Now they have a formal nature because they are used formally as **forms in which the learning contents are made accessible to the pupils.** In a family, these ground forms are informal because, ordinarily parents continually are conversing with their children, making matters clear for them by giving examples to them, giving assignments, etc. The **anticipation** of a teacher’s didactic-pedagogical planning is found in the choice of the appropriate ground form which he/she makes, as an adult, and

initiator of a classroom situation. There is always an **intuitive moment** included in this because a teacher must continually anticipate. This educative teaching situation, which a teacher anticipates, now must be embodied in appropriate ground forms to bring about an adequate design.

These appropriate didactic-pedagogical ground forms mentioned above [i.e., play, conversation, example, assignment] must not be viewed as specific systems with fixed limits. They only provide **teaching possibilities** which a teacher can use, separately or together, to implement a learning situation, to the best of his/her ability. In other words, all of reality cannot suddenly and at once be placed in the landscape of a child. Therefore, these forms of living (ground forms) are used to unlock reality for a child. Indeed, from the nature of the matter, concrete learning situations are influenced by a great variety of factors such as **the nature of the learning content, where it is located, classroom circumstances, insight and planning of a teacher, teaching and learning aids, and ways or methods of teaching**. This is why the usability of teaching methods, to be discussed later in this chapter, and the didactic criteria, already discussed, must always be seen, along with certain ground forms, in relation to concrete learning situations. This is why learning situations are most effective if a teacher **plans and anticipates correctly** and, as initiator, fulfills with insight his/her task about which he/she has thorough knowledge. Consequently, the didactic-pedagogical ground forms cannot be fixed prescriptions for various learning situations. The most appropriate ground forms, in a teacher's judgment, now are used within which didactic criteria, or the teaching methods flowing from them acquire form in specific ways. To be able to design an educative teaching situation, a teacher must take note of certain important ground forms. The descriptions of life forms which follow are not complete, and the aim of the expositions is only directed to orienting the student in Didactic Pedagogics with respect to a teaching practice which he/she necessarily must understand if he/she will make a success of it. Each of these forms of living, or ground forms now is discussed, and the student must judge for him/herself whether they are didactically meaningful.

3.2 PLAY as a didactic-pedagogical ground form

To at all understand play as a ground form, an analysis of its reality is made. This will lay bare the **essence** of play. To understand any reality, its essence must be gauged. In the following section an attempt is made to illuminate some **essential characteristics**.

3.2.1 Play as a way of being a child

Here the point of departure is **openness**, as a general condition of a child. As openness, he/she is also **open for**, and **directed to the world of play**. The phenomenon of play is a primordial reality and is **given with being a child**. The most authentic or natural way of being-in-the-world for a child is **being-in-the-world-playing**. A child and his/her world assume each other. The natural world of a child is his/her world of play. Thus, to be able to know a child, one must know his/her world of play. **Initially**, things are in the world of play independent of a child, and they are only part of a child's lifeworld as soon as he/she has given them meaning and has **experienced** them as meaningful. For a child, play is the most natural and authentic way of **knowing** things, i.e., making them meaningful for him/herself and, in doing so, his/her **own** sensible and meaningful world arises. Thus, he/she unlocks (opens) him/herself for reality and becomes involved with his/her own forming. Therefore, play, as a form of living, is very important, especially for those old enough to enter a school world. This is also the reason the method of play is so important for a younger child in a classroom. A child and his/her world form a unity and, therefore, each utterance, and behavior of a child constitutes part of his/her being-in-the-world. Hence, play, for a child, is a means of communicating, and forms the most important part of his/her conversation with the world. In this way, reality is unlocked for him/her if he/she throws him/herself open and, consequently, his/her own **becoming a person** is made possible. This is why it is asserted that play is the most natural way of child-being-in-the-world. A teacher seizes this essential characteristic because, in doing so, he/she brings a child into contact with reality in spontaneous, and natural ways. This also is the purpose of each form of living which is brought into a classroom as a ground form. Seen in this light, a child's **playing is essentially** his/her conversing with his/her world.

A child explores with his/her play, as a means or way whenever he/she establishes relationships, in natural and spontaneous ways, with him/herself, other persons (adults and children), things, plants, animals, and toys. The serious involvement of a child, when he/she plays, is an authentic way in which he/she situates him/herself in the world, and by which he/she breaks through situations, to again become involved in new ones. The way a child plays determines the relationships he/she designs with the various aspects of reality. Langeveld believes that play “is the most essential business of a secure child with his world, as is evident to all.”¹ Further, he says a child lives in open communication with the play-world. Thus, a relationship can only be established if a child takes the initiative and does so from situation to situation. Examples of the play method are dealt with about this. In the first chapter, a situation is described as a totality of concerns and relationships in which a person finds him/herself and which, at the same time, he/she establishes or designs. Therefore, it is inferred that, in any situation, there is **action**. Now, if Linschoten’s description of a situation, as mentioned above, is applied to play, one can talk of a play situation as a situation in which a child enters communication with reality by means of his/her body. In this way, he/she communicates with the world by means of play. Hence, to understand a child, his/her world of play must be understood. Among other things, by this playing, a child gives expression to his/her own child lived experiencing, affective as well as normative. **Through play, a child relates his/her own story to an adult who will listen.** Therefore, today, it is recognized that play is a means of expression, as well as of projection. It offers an opportunity for educating in terms of knowledge, beacons, and norms from a child’s lifeworld. As a didactic-pedagogic ground form, play requires the **necessary** presence of a teacher, as initiator of the play situation, because he/she knows the “way”, and can provide sympathetic, authoritative guidance. In this connection, a parent and teacher also must **guide** and **emulate**. A child must design a play situation, and with the help of a teacher, give meaning to it. It is emphasized again that a child him/herself must choose and decide. Since a child and his/her world of play assume each other, a child, with all

¹ Langeveld, M. J.: **Ontwikkelingspsychologie**, p. 51 et seq.

his/her difficulties, potentialities, lived experiences, etc., is a welcome presence in his/her play situation.

3.2.2 The meaning of play as a ground form in a classroom

As already described above, play is a natural way a child can proceed to reality. Then, it is no wonder that a teacher will implement this original life form of a child in a more formal way, especially in the beginning classes of a primary school, to help unlock reality for him/her. In Chapter One, it is indicated that aspects of reality are brought into a classroom in the form of learning contents. These learning contents relate to God, a child him/herself, fellow persons, plants, animals, and things. By **formally** using play as a didactic-pedagogical ground form, a teacher helps a child establish harmonious relationships with the above-mentioned aspects of reality. Thus, provision is made for various play materials such as clay, drawing material, and various types of toys to comply with the various life realities. These life realities must **comply with the types** of learning contents which are chosen to design play situations in a classroom. This is done with the various methods of play, play tasks/assignments (Froebel).

This ground form discussed here culminates in the method of play. This is described later in this chapter under teaching methods. Without play, as a life form, the relationships with the above-mentioned aspects of reality would remain out of focus, and diffuse because they are totally strange to him/her. With the help of this ground form, and a teacher's guiding and demonstrating, gradually a small child also acquires a **more intellectual** grasp of the reality and, at the same time, acquires concepts. This enables him/her to begin to categorically order and master the above-mentioned reality. A teacher aims for a greater grasp of the learning- and life-reality of a child, not only pathically (affectively), but also intellectually, because these relationships must come into the life of each person, as his own **life relations**. Thus, a teacher, as initiator, makes use of a play situation to help a child orient him/herself in the meaningful world of an adult and, thus, proceed to constitute his/her own world. This is sufficient for play as a ground form because the aim of this explanation is an introduction to the problematic of play, as a didactic-pedagogical ground form. For

additional reading, the student is referred to the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

3.3 CONVERSATION as a didactic-pedagogical ground form

The conversation, as a ground form is given with being-human and is manifested in its purest form in family life. In a family home, as the primary educative institution, **conversation** is used **informally** to chat with each other, to clarify something for each other, to learn something from each other, to ask questions of each other, etc. **Language** is an essential characteristic of conversation and, *par excellence*, is a means of communicating, expressing, and thinking. A person doubles, as it were, his/her reality in language. In the present book, this must do more with the use-value of language in constituting a conversation as a ground form, by which access to reality becomes possible by unlocking it.

Van den Berg asserts that conversation is determined by the nature of human **being-with**. According to S. J. Gous, being-with means for an adult and a child, as conversational partners, to realize together their being-there, to establish a landscape and meaningful world together, to change together in the realization of norms and values, and to transcend their common situation together. The authors agree wholeheartedly with Gous when he asserts that, in the above sense, a conversation is the **merging of two or more meaningful human worlds**. In school, where this original form of living (ground form) between, and among persons, is **formally** brought up, this means that a child must enter the landscape of a teacher, and to make this possible, the latter must encounter a child within the meaningful framework of a child's own landscape to bridge or overcome the distance between the two landscapes.

This **common world** between teacher and pupils must arise for a conversation, as the unlocking [of reality] by a teacher, and its access to a child to occur in a proper and meaningful way. During a conversation, where a merging of worlds must occur, things, the ins and outs of matters and events are unraveled, illuminated, explained, ordered, and classified. In this way, common meanings become linked together. During this conversation, the children discover what they know and don't know, and, on the other hand, a

teacher again acquires access to a child's world. Through an authentic conversation, as a ground form, access is permitted to what was hidden from another. Mutual acceptance, security and, a safe space always remains preconditions for unlocking, by a teacher, and access to reality, by a child.

There must always be secrets remaining between conversational partners, otherwise a child will no longer be able to learn from an adult. During a conversation, a child continually is invited to participate with meaningful questions. If a pupil correctly formulates a question, he/she already has insight into that aspect of reality with which the question deals. On the other hand, if the formulation is vague and unclear, the questioner gives an indication that he/she has not yet mastered that aspect of reality. Thus, Socrates made use of this aspect of a conversation as a ground form to determine if his/her audience could master the concepts he wanted to bring home to them. Since then, the question has served as an important aspect of conversation as a ground form. If a question is correctly and clearly formulated with the use of the appropriate categories regarding a certain reality, the answer already is implicitly locked in the question. Seen in this light, it is very important that questions asked of pupils be very clear and understandable. Thus, a good question can **summons** pupils to reflect and participate, and will help them to answer it in a responsible way. Questioning also has the advantage that a teacher can further interrogate the pupils in a learning situation, even if only about the concerned facts dealt with in a classroom in a specific lesson. Thus, further questioning provides them with an opportunity to investigate, in independent ways, the questions in books at home, and elsewhere and, thus, answer them exhaustively.

The relation between the questioner and the one questioned must always be preserved. Essentially, a pupil is someone who wants to know. If he/she meets certain realities which are foreign to him/her, he/she asks questions about them. Because a child asks questions, a teacher can find out precisely what he/she knows, and does not yet know, what his/her problems are, etc. Also, pupils can ask their fellow pupils questions. Besides helping them to acquire insights, this also helps them establish good interpersonal relationships. Here well- formulated questions can be used as

models for other pupils. Through poorly asked questions, a teacher discovers the sources of errors which he/she can correct.

The aim of the question is to determine how far the pupils have progressed on the path to the adult world. It also is an important means for determining if the specific reality which is dealt with is already unlocked for them. There is reference to subject methodology, if the student wants to know how the conversation is used with his/her ways of presenting lessons with specific learning contents, such as a learning discussion, or a class discussion. Later in this chapter, under teaching methods, the learning discussion, the class discussion, the question-and-answer method, and others are discussed where they are used as modes, means, or ways to help pupils attain their aim. The above-mentioned methods emanate from conversation, as a ground form. This serves to indicate that the above explanations are only meant to be an **introduction** to the conversational form of teaching, as a didactic-pedagogical ground form, and in no sense is there a claim of completeness. The student is referred to the bibliography at the end of this chapter if he/she wants to know more about this matter.

3.4 EXAMPLE (exemplar) as a didactic-pedagogical ground form

Exemplary teaching is used as a ground form because reality is so comprehensive and cannot be unlocked for a child all at once. If reality were brought into a classroom, human potentialities could not grasp it, and the pupils would be confused. When a pupil's lifeworld is cut up to a degree, he/she can acquire a better intellectual grasp of that part brought into a classroom as an exemplar or example. This means that the use of an appropriate example must contribute to the unlocking of reality, to making possible its access to the pupils, and to advancing them in the direction of their destination.

In a family, ordinarily this ground form is implemented **informally**. If the parents want to help their children to learn something, they do this in terms of a specific example. It also serves us to refer to the use of Likenesses by Christ when He wanted to bring something home to simple fishermen to learn so they could understand. Thus,

an appropriate example can be used to unlock generalities or universals for persons.

In a classroom, the events of the family life and of the Revelations, such as the Savior gives us in the Scriptures, by means of his/her appropriate Likenesses are only a **reconstitution** of them. Now, this occurs **formally**. The following are two examples for elucidating the above description. What is universal or general can be read off a good example of a matter, such as using a good example of a statesman, or giving a proof in a natural science by an example. By an application of this ground form, e.g., the Sahara Desert is presented as an exemplar of warm deserts on earth. A teacher deals with it under headings he/she considers to be good, such as location, rainfall, climate, temperature differences, plant growth, etc. After he/she has **explained, ordered, and systematized** these learning contents about the Sahara Desert under the mentioned headings so the pupils can understand and meaningfully master them, he/she refers the pupils to another warm desert which they, on their own responsibility, must learn, using the Sahara Desert as an example they have already handled. Thus, the pupils become oriented to deserts in general. A teacher can orient the pupils in several other realities by using an exemplar or example of a specific reality.

By making use of what is universally true, an exemplar can be taken from a specific reality. For example, instead of all the harbors in the world, one harbor, e.g., Durban, is taken as an example or exemplar, and as representative of all harbors on earth. Now, the pupils will understand the **essentials of harbors**, and identify, recognize, and master all harbors in terms of the concepts which are descriptive of the Durban harbor. This does not mean that they will know precisely how each harbor on earth will function or appear, any more than they would know precisely how the Kalahari Desert appears from a full knowledge of the Sahara Desert. In the sense of the above description of an exemplar, the understanding and mastery of the example makes it possible for a child to explore this reality further on his/her own initiative.

3.4.1 Some ways an aspect of reality can be brought into a classroom as an example

Before discussing some of these ways, there is reference to the following. The primary aim of a didactic-pedagogical presentation is that the reality brought into a classroom must be unlocked for a child. Initially, this reality is extensive and diffuse for a child, and is not simply accessible to him/her. In fact, the totality of this reality, in contemporary life situations, no longer is completely accessible for adults. Therefore, many presentations of classroom learning activities are carried out by using **specific examples**. This holds for all subjects, especially for the early grades in a primary school. All subject areas do not lend themselves equally to applying an example. The learning contents of mathematics and the natural sciences lend themselves better to implementing this ground form than is the case with the human sciences. The following are some ways aspects of reality can be brought into a classroom as an example.

(a) **Reality can be brought into a classroom as a concrete example**

Whenever possible, it is always best to bring a concrete example of reality into a classroom. This type of example is used to help a child give the same sense as an adult does to this part of reality to help a child constitute an authentically sensible and meaningful world. There must be care, whenever one begins with concrete examples, that **language**, as a symbolic rendering of reality, appears. This preferably can be done stepwise on a chalkboard so the pupils can make this reality an integrated and meaningful part of their lifeworld.

(b) **Reality can be brought into a classroom in the form of representation as an example**

When concrete examples are not available, **representations** of reality can be brought into a classroom. These representations must refer to a specific case which, as generally valid, can be an elucidation of the greater reality it represents. For example, here one thinks of prints, drawings, signs, models, maps, symbols, and more. As examples for elaborating on this, the use of models in physics, architecture, and music are mentioned, where a model serves to

make an abstract aspect of the subject more realistic, and more accessible. Here one especially thinks of **representations** of atomic models in physics, and construction models in architecture. These few examples are sufficient because this topic is dealt with more fully in the next chapter with respect to implementing aids in educative teaching situations.

(c) **Reality can be brought into a classroom by the objectivized verbal culture**

If the conversation (language), previously dealt with in this chapter, were not available as a means of communication between a teacher who teaches and pupils who must learn, an encounter between them would not be possible, or it would be an extremely limited form of being together. With the living word, a teacher can make a bit of reality present. Think here of a good history teacher who, with his/her verbal explanations, and rich descriptions of, e.g., the Great Trek, places this event from the past clearly in the present. The living word remains one of the most powerful aids for explaining a matter to pupils, especially to those in the higher classes. A “book” is a **distanced conversation** which a child conducts with the author. Here it is noted that the pupils must be helped to master the concepts, categories, norms (rules, definitions, etc.) which might appear there. Later, they can do this independently.

3.4.2 **Some advantages of exemplary teaching as a didactic-pedagogic ground form**

- (a) This ground form discloses the essential points of an area of knowledge in a specific way. With this foreknowledge, the pupils then can do further research themselves. In doing this, a child develops a way of thinking which allows him/her to insightfully investigate other similar or related aspects of reality **themselves**.
- (b) Related to the above, this means that the pupils can acquire fundamental concepts and, in doing so, to penetrate to the essentials or fundamentals of an area of learning content.

- (c) This also allows the children to have a greater participation in the learning event. With this independent learning by the children, along with the necessary help and support of a teacher, his/her lifeworld is broadened, and he/she is quickly on the path to an adult world. Thus, exemplary teaching is **orienting** in nature because such a learning climate cannot prevent a child from taking a position.
- (d) Presentation with the exemplary ground form is not merely the transfer of knowledge, as such, but it also will involve the child as a **person**. Here he/she has an opportunity to **choose** for him/herself, sit in judgment, experience meanings, etc. In doing this, he/she is involved in his/her becoming adult because when a teacher has formally presented an exemplar of reality, his/her concentration is on his/her own investigation, with the help of literature and textbook study.
- (e) Wegman indicates that, with the exemplary, as ground form, the whole, in terms of a part, the general in the light of a particular, is understood, and that the initial vagueness of what is comprehensive, becomes clearer and understandable in the light of what is limited.
- (f) The example (or first image) [of adulthood] also is **exemplified** by the parents and teachers because, in doing so, the idea of adulthood is **embodied** for the children.

3.4.3 Some disadvantages of exemplary teaching as a didactic-pedagogical ground form

- (a) If a teacher, as guide, as one who prepares, and as a person who must guarantee the correct orientation of the pupils, is not capable of the above, this ground form will be of little help in bringing about a learning situation in a classroom.
- (b) A teacher, who always must have perspective, must prevent knowledge and insights acquired by this ground

form to **continue to exist as separate unities**. There must always be a concern for the logical relations.

- (c) One must always guard against trying to understand the whole only in the light of one or more parts.
- (d) Not everything can be used as an example to illuminate what is common and essential to a phenomenon. One thinks here of exceptional [one-time] forms of reality, such as the coming of Christ, His ascension, etc.

3.5 ASSIGNMENT as a didactic-pedagogical ground form

A parent or teacher giving an assignment to a child is a form of teaching. Selected aspects of reality are brought into a classroom in, the form of learning contents, and are unlocked for a child. By the right assignments, a child is **appealed to** to step into that reality and, thus, to prepare him/herself for a life which is expected of him/her, and which qualifies him/her for an adult human life. An assignment from a parent or teacher to a child includes the deep ring of a life calling. Because a child always must be involved with reality, and must be there by and with things, the calling by an adult in the form of an assignment can imply the following: “Be involved and concerned with reality, enter the reality which is unlocked for you, know that you yourself want to, can, and ought be someone, and take an active part yourself in your becoming in the direction of your own coming of age, and adulthood.”²

An assignment must be implemented in relation to an adult, and never can occur without the guidance and accompaniment of an adult. At the same time, this will result in a child’s accepting his/her own personal life task that he/she has been given, as an assignment, to meaningfully work on.

To understand the sense and meaning of the assignment in an educative teaching situation in a school, one must return to the spontaneous lifeworld of a person to see how, in his/her activities, the relationship between person and reality acquires a form. A person never accepts reality as it is but is continually involved in

² See Gous, S. J.: **Verantwoording van die didakties-pedagogiese** {Justifying the didactic-pedagogic}. Unpublished D. Ed. dissertation, Univ. Pretoria, 1969, pp. 126-127.

changing and revising it into a world-for-him/her. A very important aspect of changing reality into a world for a person is that he/she is busy **working** at it. By working, he/she masters reality, and will know **how** and **why** each person must engage in meaningful work, or a vocation to authentically orient him/herself in the world. Meaningful work by the pupils helps them to become in the direction of their destination. It now also is understandable why parents and teachers place so much emphasis on accepting and completing assignments, as ways of encountering reality.

In a classroom, an assignment assumes various forms, such as programmed teaching, project teaching, individual and group work. It also can assume the form of class work, the ordering of learning contents by the pupils, tests, examinations, homework, self-studies, ones own reading and research work, etc. Each of the above forms of assignment, as a ground form will not be gone into further because this then will be too voluminous and there is not enough space in this textbook to do so. There is little doubt that assignment, as a ground form, with all its appearances, is a conscious attempt to break away from the traditional idea of class teaching and allow s child to explore and help him/her to emancipate him/herself in his/her becoming toward adulthood. Considering the above description, assignment as a didactic-pedagogical ground form, along with play, conversation, and exemplar is particularly relevant for unlocking reality for a child, and it cannot be thought of apart from the vocational orientation, and vocational choice within which he/she eventually finds him/herself.

4. SOME TEACHING METHODS

4.1 Introductory comments

By way of concluding this chapter on designing an educative teaching situation, the place and function of some teaching methods are indicated from a few perspectives which can provide direction to the design and course of a practice. The didactic-pedagogical **ground forms**, and **criteria** now give direction to the methodical activities, as ways for both a teacher and children to participate and, in doing so, to ensure an **effective** course of becoming, and **adequate**

help in this becoming. In other words, the methods to be discussed later in this chapter must always be **accompanied** and **guided** by the didactic-pedagogical criteria and ground forms if an authentic educative teaching situation is to be designed.

To be able to teach, a teacher must make use of certain **methods**. There are various distinguishable teaching methods which, depending on circumstances, can be applied, or implemented. The origin, and use of many of the acknowledged and usual stock methods are discussed below under a separate heading. Students ought to be well acquainted with the **meaning, use, and aim** of the various teaching methods because the effectiveness and success of teaching depends largely on the successful implementation of methods. Thus, it is expected of education students that, during the preparation of their **lessons** for practice teaching, they must also thoroughly plan the teaching methods they intend to use during their lessons.

4.2 The sense and meaning of teaching methods in an educative teaching situation

4.2.1 What is meant by method?

Where there are persons, there is activity. Persons act with an aim in view which they want to attain. Consequently, a teacher also considers **ways** and **means** to attain his/her aims in didactic-pedagogic situations in a classroom. These **means** and **ways** are known as the **methods** or procedures which he/she follows to attain them. Once again, it is relevant to indicate that, to the extent that the methods are concerned with actualizing his/her teaching, they have emanated directly from the didactic-pedagogical criteria and ground forms, and are anchored in and have been finalized by them. In addition, it is indicated that these methods cannot be considered in isolation from a person's **activities**, and their **aim**. A method is not taken as the aim itself, but it leads to the aim. There is always a close connection between **means** (way) and **end** (aim). An aim can never be attained properly if a non-accountable way is followed. The methods discussed later can never be the final word about methods because a teacher continually creates or designs his/her methods to attain his/her aims for each lesson.

As with the ground forms, all teaching methods eventually have their anchor and ground in the lifeworld. For example, the **formal** method of question-and-answer, which so often is used in an educative teaching situation in a classroom, has its anchor and origin in **family life** where children **informally** ask their parents questions, and just the reverse. Here it is seen that a teacher's methods are closely connected with his/her helping the pupils in their becoming. With reference to the above comments about teaching methods, the choice and application of the different methods in an educative teaching situation is a pedagogical matter. Indeed, there are **weak** and **good methods**, and effective and less effective ones, which can be implemented. Thus, the **choice and ways of utilizing** a method, determine the success or failure of a lesson. Because a classroom event is such a complex matter, teaching methods cannot be prescribed and used as recipes. These methods must be anticipated and designed by a teacher to involve the meaningful participation and co-experiencing of the pupils in an educative teaching situation. In doing so, the methods used not only make possible the pupils' exploration of, and dialogue with a facet of reality, but also has the aim of **elevating** the dialogue he/she has with that aspect of reality.

4.2.2 The existence and application of various teaching methods

Teachers have various methods for presenting different lessons in different subjects in different classes. Thus, methods used in mathematics differ from those used in history, and Afrikaans. Methods in the different classes in an elementary school differ from those in a high school.

Also, methods differ in the same subject from teacher to teacher. For example, one history teacher gives a lesson and illustrates his/her presentation with the help of diagrams, wall maps, atlases, and prints; another will work only by reading from a textbook, yet another will dictate, so the pupils will copy it, etc. There are many ways or manners in which a teacher can design and use his/her methods. There also are reasons why there are a variety of teaching methods. Some are discussed in the next section.

4.2.3 Some reasons there is such a diversity of teaching methods

(a) **Teacher's personalities differ from each other**

Therefore, the choice of a method will always remain a personal matter. No person can, even with the same aims, attain them in precisely the same ways. It would be disgraceful to force all teachers to apply a method in precisely the same way. If this were to occur, one would **canalize** and **methodologize** the teaching, and offend a teacher's dignity and uniqueness.

(b) **The nature of the method also is determined by the nature of a child**

When a method is planned, the level of progress of a child must be considered.

(c) A teacher must choose his/her method in accordance.

with the **nature of the learning contents**, and even for each specific lesson. Some subjects and themes require different methods to attain the aim in view.

(d) The choice and implementation of a method also is determined by the **degree of success** obtained with it in the past. One teacher can have great success with a method, while another has failed with the same method. In such a case, one must not persist with a method which has failed, but ought to try another method.

(e) **Methods also must be changed to prevent weariness.**

(f) **The nature of the methods** also is determined by the different **ways a person associates with reality, and where the learning contents are located**. Here one thinks of concrete, visible objects, schematic representations, and information in abstract language.

(g) A method also is determined by the **aim** a teacher will attain with a theme. If a teacher is attuned to the pupils merely learning facts, a certain method which lends itself to this will be preferred (e.g., the **drill method**). If, in contrast, a teacher wants to form a child as a person and offer him/her an opportunity to arrive at a personal decision, the **learning conversation**, e.g., can be used as a method.

Finally, it is indicated that a teacher must always be critical about his/her methods, and the degree of success he/she achieves with them because everything, including the way or procedure he/she follows is always a **matter of what ought to be**. **Therefore**, as initiator, and one who actualizes situations in a classroom, he/she must **evaluate each** method, and **each** lesson. To try to bring any sense of **order** to the multiplicity, and diversity of teaching methods, they should be approached from other perspectives.

4.2.4 The approach to different teaching methods

Methods are seen in a different light when the emphasis is shifted from a teacher to a pupil. or to a teacher's organization of them. Paired with this is a shift in function and meaning. However, here it must be very carefully noted that, even if the emphasis temporarily falls more specifically on the **participation** of the pupils, the **activities** and **participation** of a teacher must continually correlate with those of the pupils. For example, the pupils must **listen** if a teacher **communicates**. This also holds for methods where the emphasis particularly falls on the participation of the **pupils**, such as the **method of play**, which is described later in section 4.2.4.3 of this chapter. In the method of play, a teacher also has a role, even if here the emphasis is more on the participation of a child.

Now, there are discussions of various methods from a few additional perspectives.

4.2.4.1 Some methods viewed from a teacher-pupil perspective

A person is always in relation, and this also is true in the school world. In an educative teaching situation in a classroom, a teacher, pupils, learning methods, learning contents, etc. are related to each other. For example, a teacher establishes a situation by engaging in **teaching** activities in it, while, at the same time, a child designs his/her **learning** activities. There is always a relationship which must be maintained. If one of the components in a situation disappears, the situation declines. In the following, a few methods are discussed from the **teacher-pupils** relationship.

(a) The class teaching method

In the first place, a teaching situation in school is a **group event**. Among others, this group consists of **teacher** and **pupils**. This relationship is always preserved in class teaching. Now, what does the class teaching method really mean? The class teaching method is described as a method for a group of learners who are dealt with as a “unity”, particularly with respect to the **way** the learning contents are presented and assimilated. In this method, all members of the same class, in accordance with the same timetable, with the help of the same learning and teaching aids, simultaneously assimilate the same learning contents. Perhaps this method arose from Pestalozzi’s endeavor to make teaching possible for everybody (public education). Thus, so-called “mass-education” arose where large groups of children are placed in the care of one teacher. In practice, this amounts to grouping several pupils of approximately the same level in a class, so there can be **common instruction**. This amounts to the fact that, always, a teacher is in complete control of the course of matters, and continually takes the lead. Thus, **specific activities** of a teacher **evoke certain activities** of the children. Hence, in this method teacher and pupils are in conversation with each other in terms of specific learning contents, and cannot be considered as unconnected from each other in this situation. In the following, there is a review of some of the **advantages** and **disadvantages** of the class method, to determine how this method is or isn’t a successful way to help a child come over from his/her child world to that of an adult.

(1) Some advantages of the class method

- (i) As far as considerations of a practical-organizational nature are concerned, the **factor of time** is a less serious problem. More learning contents can be offered within a particular time.
- (ii) It promotes a **feeling of community** because teacher and pupils working together direct a continual appeal to both parties within the class as a group.

(iii) Group work, as a class idea, is of great significance for the didactic-pedagogic event in the classroom.

(iv) That a teacher, as adult, initiates the situation is of great importance because he/she continually stimulates and directs the children, as non-adults, in the context he/she wants them to explore.

(v) Because class teaching excludes the possibilities of endless repetition, teacher boredom is largely curbed.

(2) Some disadvantages of class teaching

(i) A big objection to this method is the excessive authority attributed to a teacher. It appears as if a teacher, in the class method, cannot appeal sufficiently to each child to actively participate in the educative teaching situation.

(ii) Thus, the uniform learning contents, and the various learning tempos of the pupils are not sufficiently seen.

(iii) As a consequence of often large classes, not enough consideration can be given to the

individual

differences of the children.

(iv) It is easier to present the learning content in this way, but a child's acquisition of an adult world is kept to a minimum.

(v) A child who changes schools a great deal, because of the work circumstances of his/her parents, is most disadvantaged because he/she must continually be integrated into a new group.

(b) Individualized methods

This method must be viewed against the **background** of a **specific opposition**. Individualizing is in **opposition** to the danger of multitude, and technique, in the sense of a pedagogic collectivism. The opposition really amounts to an opposition against a school's

abuse of persons, and the **lack of respect for them**. This method follows from the anthropological fact that persons differ. These differences among persons are not only with respect to ability or intelligence, but also regarding their emotional lives, their volitional lives,, and other personality structures. So viewed, individualization, as a didactic-pedagogic method, rest on the fundamental fact that children differ as persons, and not only in a few “facets” of their personality structure, such as intelligence.

All activities of persons and, thus, the learning activities of a child bear an **individual character** because no two children interpret reality in precisely the same way. Thus, the learning act is one of acquiring with respect to its discovering exploration and experimentation. Because this often involves a specific problem of a **specific child** in a specific learning situation, the moments of a teacher providing help largely are supported by the method of individualization. A teacher who uses this method of teaching in his/her didactic-pedagogic design of **allowing** learning to occur, also must take note of its advantages and disadvantages.

(1) Advantages

- (i) Individualizing considers, as far as possible, the fact that a child is a **unique person**.
- (ii) The fact that a teacher considers this fact in designing **teaching events** allows for a greater possibility that each pupil will participate in the **learning act** according to his own ability.
- (iii) Failing, an objection leveled against class teaching, largely is diminished by individualized teaching because a child does not work against other children’s learning tempos, but follows his/her own potentialities to **learn**, and recognizes his/her person, and the milieu in which he/she lives.
- (iv) The method of individualization lends itself to a great variety of didactic possibilities.

(2) **Disadvantages**

(i) The danger is not excluded that individualization mainly is concerned with intellectual differences, instead of **qualitative** differences

(ii) There are many **practical objections** to the method of individualization, such as:

- (a) **a financial-economic nature.** It is very expensive to use the **method of individualization.** The only possible solution is to make the number of pupils entrusted to a teacher as few as possible.
- (b) **an organizational nature.** Each form of individualization also has a **class**, and school organization as a foundation. If there is individualization in the group, the teacher will continually search for **ways and means** of individualizing in a class context because only then is it possible to help a child to unfold all his potentialities for fulfilling his life task.
- (c) **a problem of time.** Individual and individualized teaching require much time and practically is very difficult to accomplish.

Instead of the teacher placing the class and individualized methods in opposition to each other, he must acquire a parallel vision of them. This means that in practice, within a class set-up, he must find ways to allow the idea of individualization to thrive as much as possible. With this, the teacher arrives at the

problematic of ways and forms of individualization as a didactic-pedagogic method in the classroom. To understand this aspect thoroughly, the following gives attention to **forms of individualization**, i.e., to a **looser class context**.

(c) Looser class context

A looser class context has arisen from a search for a **synthesis** of the individual form, and the traditional class form of teaching. A looser class context, thus, does not mean that discipline must be loosened, but that it is an organizational form of a class where the structure is determined by the formation of differentiated learning situations. Here, the point of departure is that a child and the learning contents must be viewed according to their own nature, so there can be a breaking away from the old class method of teaching with its uniform learning situations. In this form of classroom organization, there is a search for individualization in terms of differentiated learning situations.

In the discussions of the teaching methods so far, it is indicated that individualization is much broader than merely intellectual differences. In an educative teaching situation, a child must be involved as a **person**, with **everything** this involves, because the continual concern is with a child's **becoming** on the path to an adult world. The following forms of appearance of a looser class context now are discussed.

(1) **Group work as a method.** In the social life of persons, it is expected that they work **together**. Modern social life offers many fewer opportunities for children to learn **to work together**. Even school, as an extension of the home, seldom makes adequate provision for a continuous experience of **working together**. Burton describes **group work** as a way in which pupils relate to each other within a group context, and simultaneously work together toward a common aim. Mursell views this as a fundamental principle for **socialization** in a classroom. According to him, an individual does things better in a group than he/she does alone outside a group. In

group work, as a method, there is a striving to maintain a balance between the work of an individual and the collaboration of the group so that members of the group complement each other, and a common achieving together is the crown of individual efforts. Since this must always be seen in a class context, group work is intended to be a special form of organization within parts of a class community, a synthesis, in a class context, and a summary by a teacher. Control always occurs at a class level. Thus, group work provides an opportunity for individual work within a class context. Thus, it considers a child as an individual with respect to his/her potentialities, interests, and needs.

(a) Some possible reasons why group work is not used more in educating

- (i) Group work requires cooperative planning between a group and teacher. Thus, this is a big organization, and is less familiar to a teacher who is accustomed to class teaching, where each child assimilates the learning content him/herself.
- (ii) A teacher is usually attuned to the individual work of each child, and is not attuned to the pupils discussing their work, looking at each other's work and, thus, perhaps, learning from each other. We are accustomed to always know what a **child** is capable of by his/her own efforts. Modern insights regarding children's acts of learning show that an individual becomes more capable if open discussions, comparisons of work, and critiques are permitted.
- (iii) There are contentions that this takes too much time, and even is a waste of time.
- (iv) A logical construction of the learning event easily falls through the cracks with group work.

(b) Some arguments in favor of group work as a method

- (i) Among other things, life requires that adults **collaborate**. If a teacher now teaches a child to

collaborate, he/she is involved in helping him/her on his/her way to adulthood.

(ii) An opportunity offered to a child to test his/her ideas with those of others, to plan together, to experience successes, and setbacks together, etc. are more **authentic to the lifeworld of persons** than is continually work in isolation.

(iii) A child would rather venture in an intimate group of peers and, in doing so, this gives him/her security and safety, and allows his/her self-confidence to increase before again entering the larger class group.

(iv) The fact that the pupils themselves must formulate their thoughts in front of their classmates promotes their **control of language**.

(v) Group work promotes his/her **insights** into the **relationships** among subparts, and leads him/her to accept his/her responsibility as a necessary contributor to the success of the whole.

(vi) It is obvious that group work prevents a child from being evaluated purely based on intellectual achievements. Knowledge of a child is not merely intellectual, but embraces his/her entire experiential world.

As to precisely **how** group work occurs in practice, students must ask the instructors involved in the various subject methodologies which are offered. The following is a discussion of the class discussion, as a teaching method, and as one of the forms of a looser class context.

(2) Class discussion as a teaching method. The class discussion, as a variation of conversation as a ground form, is a conversation which is **conducted mutually by the pupils**. Class discussion is more a group discussion in which talented students often appear as leaders, while a teacher is more in the background. A teacher regulates a class discussion by providing a suitable theme, and if the discussion deviates from it, to lead them back to the theme of the discussion. As an example of a class discussion, here, one thinks of a lesson in natural science about the preparation of hydrogen in a standard

seven (10th grade—USA) class. When the pupils have carried out their assignments, have written down their observations, and come to conclusions, a class discussion is held in the following session. Now they can discuss in class the results of the experiment they did. As the class discussion progresses, a teacher organizes the correct findings, and indicates the incorrect ones. Thus, this method contributes to a continual dialogue elevation. By this, there is a forming of the correct attitude toward each other, dispositions in the pupils, and mutual respect for each other's findings, and conclusions. Thus, this method promotes good human relationships which are conducive to the harmonious survival of any society.

(3) A learning discussion. The essence of a learning discussion entails various **methods of solution** being compared so each pupil, according to his/her own nature, and talent, can choose the solution method with which he/she can obtain the greatest success. This is explained as follows. It is known that everyone uses **certain methods** when they **learn**, but experience also teaches that all learning methods are not equally effective, and adequate. Thus, the **learning methods** of some pupils are very primitive, and those of others are better because they lead to better learning results. It is generally known that there is a close connection between the learning method a person uses, and the **achievement** he/she attains by applying **his/her** learning method. It also is established that better learning methods can be **acquired**, and their application makes better achievement possible. The aim of a learning discussion, in the first place, is the discovery and acquisition of **better methods of learning**, i.e., how to learn more effectively, and not primarily to learn the mere facts of a subject.

The following is an example of how a teacher can organize a learning discussion so the pupils can discover each other's methods of learning and can learn from each other which methods are the best. For example, a teacher handles some learning content with the pupils, provides them with duplicated notes, etc., and requests that they learn it. Now, when they go about learning this at home, each pupil in a class applies his/her own learning methods. Then, a teacher, as initiator, guide, and counselor in each educative teaching situation, constructs a balanced test of what the pupils now must show. He/she corrects the test, and makes the results known. It is

evident that some children will obtain high scores and other low scores. After that, a teacher designs and initiates a **learning discussion** in which it is expected that the pupils will tell how they had applied themselves to obtain their achievements. During the learning discussion, questions are asked, and a teacher directs the discussion. From what the pupils tell, it is evident that they have used various methods, and that certain methods have led to higher achievements, while others were less successful. Now the good methods are highlighted, and the faults of the weak methods are indicated. In this way, the pupils acquire **insight** into the **meaning**, and the **application of the better methods**. Now, a teacher **influences** the pupils to try to apply the **better methods**. It is evident that, especially the achievement of the weaker pupils, has improved. A teacher sees to it that the pupils with “weak” methods are guided to realize, for themselves, where the methods’ weaknesses lie, and why they are weak. This amounts to a person **learning how to learn effectively**.

(4) **The question-and-answer method.** According to Socrates, truth is only discoverable if the **right** questions are asked of the reality which must be disclosed. From Socrates to today, the question has never lost its place in teaching; indeed, today, it figures more prominently than ever before as a way, or procedure to enquire about reality to obtain the right answers and, thus, to try to know it. Wegmann calls the question a frontal grasp of human activity. This amounts to the fact that a question discloses or makes contents “real”. In question-and-answer, as a method, an adult recognizes a child’s going out to the world, as one of **questioning**, to which he/she expects an answer. The answer by the pupils to the question asked by a teacher often is a response to an appeal to venture, and master. In a learning situation in a classroom, it is expected of a teacher that he/she correctly ask about the specific learning content, which is appropriate to ask with the question-and-answer method, and tactfully evaluate the answers the pupils have given. A teacher must ascertain that his/her questions are clearly stated, and correctly formulated so he/she can obtain correct answers from the pupils. Thus, it is important to give much attention to the **way** to ask a question. Many examples have appeared in the life of adults regarding how a question that was stated in a way which had given

rise to wrong answers, and even serious misunderstanding. This holds even more so with children.

A teacher must never ask a question without thoroughly ascertaining the **meaning and aim** he/she has in view with his/her question. The aim of a question ought to be to help gradually bring a child from a state of “not knowing” to a state of becoming acquainted with what, for him/her is still strange learning contents. The problem of the types and essences of questions ought to be forced upon a teacher. Aimless questions are harmful and are a form of wasting time. Indeed, the aim of a question will be different, e.g., depending on whether a teacher is involved with the introduction, the presentation, or the application of a specific lesson in a specific subject. A few of the types of questions which can be asked of the pupils are questions related to value-assignment, memory and thought questions.

(5) The textbook method. The didactic-pedagogical problematic of the textbook, with respect to types, demands, and their use is a “field of study in itself”.³ Therefore, the details cannot be gone into here, so the problematic is only broached. The **textbook method**, as a form of appearance of a looser class context, must be viewed as a **form of individualization**. The argument made has to do with the help a teacher offers the pupils so that later they can help themselves. A few comments on a textbook follow.

(i) **The meanings are fixed in symbols.** In these meanings, which are fixed in symbols, also lies the book’s risk, because they open a space of the world for the pupils which already is out dated, and of another place, and not yet one they are acquainted with.

(ii) **The textbook and the library.** One aspect of the textbook which requires attention in connection with providing help, is its relationship with the school library. A library must link up with the work in a classroom and continue the work of a teacher. The work done in a library, later is again looked at in a classroom so that the pupils can be responsible for doing their reference work. At the same time ,the pupils are given an opportunity to deal critically with what appears in print and, thus, also to build up a sense for a

³ See: Davis, S. E.: Self Improvement, p. 232.

critical judgment of the textbook. The **basis for self-study lies** in this. Thus, it appears as if a library, with all this implies, will figure more prominently in schools in the future.

(iii) **The textbook and its use.** With any method and, thus, also with the textbook method, the mutual involvement of teacher and pupils must always remain unscathed if there will be mention of authentic projects. A child cannot yet acquire an adult world on his/her own responsibility, but must be helped, and supported by a teacher. Therefore, a teacher ought to disclose the structures of the book for the pupils. The main structures must be disclosed such that they can understand the unfamiliar concepts and structures. It is more difficult to carry on a “conversation” with a book where the conversational partner (author) is not at hand, than with direct communication. If the pupils do not understand the structures the author uses in the book, it can threaten them. On the other hand, the textbook method can be a good way to help a child design a world him/herself, if the structures and concepts which are used in the book are understandable, and reasonable to him/her. Then this allows him/her to feel safe and secure.

(iv) **The textbook and a philosophy of life.** In textbooks which claim to be scientific, a philosophy of life, a metaphysics, or religion (belief) is not a theme. In scientific textbooks, **categories** are used which arise from that aspect of reality itself to allow that specific aspect to appear, because correct categories are preconditions for the appearing of that reality.

[In South Africa] Where a teacher holds a particular philosophy of life, he/she must fill the universal forms used in the textbook with the specific contents of his/her religious beliefs, and he/she must design his/her educative teaching situations according to them to give these generally valid, universal forms “blood” and “life”. Thus, a textbook cannot merely be left to the pupils because, in many cases, this will do them more harm than good. The deeper **post-scientific** views must be brought forward by an educator.

(6) **The topical discussion method.** This heading implies what this method is. It amounts to an actual and appropriate topic being assigned to the pupils to study at home, and to be fully discussed later under the guidance of a teacher. This method can be used when the topic links up with the situation of the pupils in a special

subject. This might also serve to let a child **step up to** a reality which, at this stage, is still unknown to him/her, or the topic might arise from finished work which all the pupils have not yet mastered completely. The learning discussion, class discussion, debating, or free discussion are closely linked with this method, and can be integrated into it. A teacher aims for each pupil to enter reality, and takes care that there is a high level of discussion. The method will only succeed if a teacher has completely mastered the learning content. Only in doing this, will he/she continue to be a respected, and inspiring guide. As the initiator of the discussion, he/she encourages **all** the pupils to be independent, and confident, and they are made to participate in the discussion. Further, he/she takes care that the pupils take their own notes, takes care that there is a favorable atmosphere, shows an appreciation for well formulated thoughts in well worded language, and takes care that self-discipline is exercised. It also is desirable that, after the discussion, a teacher put on the chalkboard a summary in the form of an appropriately organized chalkboard scheme which suits the subject. Since each pupil him/herself must become toward adulthood, this method offers a golden opportunity for social cooperation, group awareness, own initiative, politeness, responsibility, consideration, self-control, active involvement, and more.

(7) **Fieldwork as a method.** This is a method which can be used especially in the natural sciences. This amounts to the fact that, in most cases, the perception of **concrete reality** provides for a child a greater quantity of **visual experiences** than when an aspect of reality is brought into the classroom in the form of prints, symbols, or language. Thus, for example, a biology teacher can ask the children to do fieldwork before he/she gives a lesson on a specific theme. The pupils, who now bring real examples from nature into a classroom, are more interested, and also understand, and experience the reality better. After the lesson is handled in a class, e.g., with the help of these examples, the pupils again can do follow-up work to perceive further how what they have learned appears in life reality.

(8) **The study tour method.** In the fieldwork method, it is indicated that the perception of concrete reality always is a greater visual

experience for the pupils than a “copied reality”. The pupils have a better understanding when they can examine the specific reality itself, than when it is presented to them in an objectified culture of words (which is a distanced reality). Thus, a study tour can more quickly and speedily enlarge the pupils’ **scope of reality**. Pupils who have taken many tours, often have progressed farther in the adult world than pupils who only were in school, and have only made use of other teaching methods.

This method can be applied more easily and alternated with other methods. Once again, it seems that, although the methods are described separately, they never can be separated from each other. The activities of a teacher must always be viewed in relation to the activities of the pupils, if there is to be effective teaching.

The following is a discussion of some methods **viewed from the perspective of the activities of a teacher**.

4.2.4.2 Some methods viewed from the perspective of a teacher’s activities

Although the methods viewed in terms of the **activities of a teacher** are discussed, at the same time, a teacher presents the learning contents **to the children** in a presentation method, he/she asks questions of the pupils in the question-and-answer method, he/she shows the pupils what they **themselves** must do in the showing method, he/she demonstrates in the demonstration method, he/she presents problems to the pupils in the method of stating problems, and he/she gives tasks to the pupils in the method of giving assignments, which they then must carry out. Thus, the mutual involvement between teacher and pupils continually remains in existence. In the following sections, the emphasis is **focused** only on the **activities of a teacher** with the aim of giving his/her **contribution greater intensity** and, in doing so, to better see **his/her activities** in an educative teaching situation.

(a) The communication or presentation method.

Above and beyond the fact that this method is called the presentation method of teaching, it also is called the narrative, or telling method. By narrating, asking questions, talking, etc., a

teacher imparts meaning to the pupils. The method of narration is a variation of conversation, as a ground form.

When a teacher will unlock a certain reality for the pupils, when they have little or no foreknowledge of it, and when they cannot acquire this experience themselves, the **living word** is an obvious means for allowing them to **adequately enter** that specific reality. Making use of the right categorical ordering systems, which they do not yet know, and cannot find out for themselves, must be **imparted** to the pupils. Here the pupils listen judgmentally, and attentively so they can anticipate the required situations, can think together, can pass judgment, and can **experience, appreciate, and assimilate** the narrations as meaningful.

To involve the pupils in this way, a teacher must be well prepared in the art of narration, and he/she must use good articulation, appropriate gestures, facial expression, and voice intonation. His/her narrating requires a thorough preparation, and he/she must have an appropriate beginning, and climax. Wegmann calls narrating a communicating which is comparable to word-painting, a describing with soberness, clarity, conciseness, illumination which is clearly delimited, etc. The personality of a teacher speaks especially in a spoken lesson. His/her controlled voice, his/her conviction, and enthusiasm, the secure climate created, his/her way of accepting and understanding a child, as a person who eagerly wants to be someone him/herself, knowing that the human-way-of-being is an encountering- and being-encountered-way-of-being, a child can design his/her experiential world as it should be, because he/she is open **for** and **directed to** what a teacher narrates.

(b) The question-and-answer method.

This method is a variation of conversation, as a ground form described previously in this chapter. It is discussed thoroughly in section 4.2.4.1.c.4 from the perspective of a **teacher-pupil-relationship**, but in this section, there is reference only to a few guidelines to **emphasize the activities of a teacher**. From this perspective, this method can be used by a **teacher, as initiator** of an educative teaching situation to involve the pupils such that they will enter the reality he/she wants them to deal with to satisfy their

curiosity. Under the **initiative of a teacher, well-formulated** questions can help fellow pupils to enter the specific reality.

(c) Showing as a method.

It is essential that a teacher masters the categories (truisms, essences) of various aspects of reality to be able to teach a child with the aim of his/her categorical forming. There certainly are learning contents which the pupils cannot make their own, merely by perceiving, thinking, etc. Then, a teacher uses **showing as a method** in an educative teaching situation. A teacher can place this reality which he/she has mastered conceptually, at a child's disposal, open it up, clarify, or unlock it so it becomes clear and understandable to a child for whom this meaningful world was initially totally or partly closed. As a didactician, a teacher does this by prompting, exemplifying, explaining, and showing.

In modern family life, these **showing activities** sometimes go wrong because both parents often work, and correct **showing**, or **exemplifying** is left to baby sitters, or even is totally neglected. **Showing** assumes a teacher's proximity so that he/she can help when needed, and when he/she must, otherwise there can be no mention of helping a child become. If this **showing** activity has already gone wrong in the family, a child arrives at school with a handicap. A teacher aims with the **showing** to give direction to the child entry into a reality by pointing out dangers, and deficiencies. In addition, with his/her showing activities he/she aims to bring a child to **be able to him/herself do, and ought him/herself to do** something and, in this way, to involve him/her in the life, and reality of an adult. It is a fact of life that a child can learn, and do something by **him/herself**, he/she can make decisions and choices by **him/herself**, he/she can participate in life, and reality by **him/herself**, and he/she can accept responsibility for his/her own **emancipation**, his/her coming of age, being formed, and his/her adulthood, as being morally self-defining. This **self-doing and imitating** by a child can only occur if first **exemplified** by a teacher. Only when pupils can do things **by themselves**, on their own responsibility, can this **showing** by a teacher abate, and there can be talk of teacher and pupils **acting together**. Then the pupils possess a degree of emancipation, which allows them to proceed on their own responsibility, under the guidance of a teacher.

(d) Demonstrating as a method.

From an early age, a child learns by watching how another acts. Thus, e.g., a little one with a problem will go to his/her mother and, by watching how she demonstrates or shows a solution step by step, he/she learns how to do it him/herself. Demonstration, indeed, is one of the ways of making reality visible. However, the question arises about the extent to which this reality can be made visible, and must be put into words. This method lays the foundation of the earliest didactic event because it implies imitation. In a classroom, it has earned an important place where a teacher demonstrates such that his/her pupils are allowed to learn. In this connection, Colvin writes, "Demonstration may be considered as that form of illustration which is employed when a process as distinguished from a thing is to be exemplified".⁴ According to Van der Stoep,⁵ especially three aspects of demonstrating must be kept in mind:

1. Demonstration changes from situation to situation. Certain learning contents lend themselves much better to it than others.
2. Demonstration does not necessarily involve a visual presentation, but can also be directed to an intellectual image.
3. It is not a mere showing, but the pupil also will have a role in the progress of the event.

(e) Stating the problem as a method.

By formulating an appropriate problem, the pupils are placed in the right context for thinking and, in doing so, there is an appeal to them to respond in a responsible way. If possible, the pupils themselves must arrive at a solution to a problem, and only be helped and supported by a teacher, as adult, when needed. If a problem is solved for a child, a teacher ousts him/her, as it were, from this reality, and deprives him/her of an opportunity to come to a solution him/herself. Then, he/she remains dependent too long, lingers unnecessarily long in a child world, and does not progress as desired to an adult world. This method links up very

⁴ Colvin, S. S.: An introduction to high school teaching, p. 256.

⁵ See Van der Stoep, O. A.: Die aandeel van die onderwyser aan die didaktiese situasie. Unpublished D. Ed. dissertation, University of Pretoria, 1967, pp. 257-260.

closely with the textbook method because, generally, the pupils research the problems themselves in the library as a source of information.

(f) Giving assignments as a method.

This method is a variation of assignment as a ground form, and links up nicely with the previous method, because any assignment given to a child, also brings his/her problems to the fore. A teacher, who has an aim in view with a child, uses the method of giving assignments to unlock reality for a child so he/she can enter it him/herself. This assignment from a teacher to a child contains the deep sound of a life appeal, I.e.: Child, actualize the there, of your being-there; be involved with, and concerned about the things with which you are confronted; show that you **want, can, and ought** to be someone **yourself**; enter the reality which is presented to you, and involve **yourself** in your **own** becoming human, in the direction of your own exploration, emancipation, and coming of age.

Now, it also is understandable **why** parents and teachers place so much emphasis on **accepting** and **completing** assignments given to children. In a classroom, assignment assumes various forms. It can assume the form of a task, group work, or individual work. It can assume an oral or written form, the form of class work, or homework, self-study, one's own reading, and research work, one's own ordering of the learning contents, etc.

This suffices for this perspective, and a child perspective follows in its turn.

4.2.4.3 Some methods seen from the perspective of the pupils' activities

The perspective considered in this section is that viewed from the activities of the **pupils**. This is done only to acquire a better grasp of the participation of a **child** and, hence, **to understand better his/her activities, and their aims**. Once again, it is emphasized that the mutual involvement between teacher and pupils must always remain unscathed if there will be an educative teaching situation. The following is a discussion of six methods from the above-mentioned perspective.

(a) **The play method.**

The play method is a variation of play as a ground discussed previously in this chapter. The significance of child play in connection to various realities has enjoyed special attention because a study of child play offers an access to understanding child learning. By means of the play method, aspects of reality are gotten into his/her landscape in natural and spontaneous ways because, in authentic ways, he/she designs situations where harmonious relationships become possible with **him/herself, other persons, toys, etc.**

In accordance with Vermeer's division of a play world, in the beginner classes, provision is made for material, toys, etc. to comply with various life realities. Various realities are represented by the learning contents chosen to design play situations in a classroom. The following are some examples of how the **play** method can be implemented in a study environment of the early classes.

(1) Although the emphasis is on a **child**, a **teacher** still is the initiator of the play method; otherwise, it deteriorates as a method in an educative teaching situation. Thus, he/she provides a dollhouse for the children as a learning aid, which is completely equipped with a doll family. Apart from this "family", there also are dolls which "must be dressed and undressed, bathed, and fed". The aim of these **teaching** activities is to invoke certain **learning** activities by the children. When the little ones now dress and undress, "bathe and feed" these dolls they **experience** it as reality. Now, if a child wrongly dresses a doll with a skirt, spills water with the bath, and incorrectly "feeds" the dolls, a teacher, as embodiment of norms, indicates **how** this must be done **correctly**. This play world which a child designs, with the help of a teacher, has an aim in view. In these play situations, a **child learns** to know an adult world, e.g., that there is a room in the house where one **bathes**, a room where one **sits**, and one for **eating**. In addition, in these ways they learn that everything **normative** occurs in **human** activities, e.g., how to sit in a chair when eating, chat with each other, etc. This is all done with the dolls in play situations. By means of these play situations, a child learns to orient him/herself

correctly in the world by, e.g., dressing him/herself **correctly**, washing and eating properly. Thus, this has as an aim, his/her cleanliness, his/her concern for, and maintenance of his/her own clothing. The harmonious relationships which he/she has designed in his/her world (play world) have taught him/her how to get along with others. In these ways, he/she has **experienced** that **norms** and **standards** always must be obeyed. Thus, the demands of propriety are learned in the associations and encounters with fellow persons, and articles of daily use. This is what is meant when there is mention of **entering reality** with the help of play situations in the method of play.

(2) Orienting the pupils, e.g., to the **reality of traffic**, and the **meaningful use of various traffic regulations** can be done by a teacher doing the following. On a large table in a beginning class, a miniature city can be laid out in the form of streets, one-way and two-way streets, traffic lights, dead-end streets, etc. Each pupil or group of pupils, with the help of a toy car, can have an opportunity to participate by “driving” on a “busy” street. In this way of acting, they **learn** their specific traffic regulations such as keeping to the left (in South Africa), signaling when he/she will stop, obeying the traffic light, etc. In doing so, the pupils also learn the **terminologies** of the traffic reality by associating with them in the play world. The terminologies are anchored in **language**, and a child **signifies** for him/herself an adult world as his/her own sensible and meaningful world, and cultural world. The method of play, which is **correctly** used in a classroom, *par excellence*, is a medium of becoming for a child.

The above examples are used only to illustrate how the play method can be used.

(b) The listening method.

This method also can be called the **hearing** method. When a teacher addresses the pupils, this means that he/she speaks to them with words. Only what someone talks about (names with words) is part of his/her lifeworld. An essential feature of being a child is his/her **dependence** on being helped by a teacher in his/her need to become.

A child is very **influence-able**, and **listens** or **hears** as a teacher addresses him/her. As the pupils **listen to** what is told to them, this implies that they are **influenced** in a certain direction. If the pupils **distrust** their teacher, there is little chance of entering reality. Then everything becomes hostile, and threatening for a child's survival.

A child is very **impressionable**. In being addressed by a teacher, a child, as a becoming person, **hears** or **listens to** these impressions. Because a child is so susceptible to impressions, a teacher must be very careful with his/her educative expressions so that wrong impressions are not brought home to a child. A child hears not only the wrong truisms, but **experiences** these impressions, and because they are impressions, they are of a lasting nature. This less familiar **listening** or **hearing** method is of extreme importance for helping a child, who still must acquire an adult world in **language**, in his/her becoming adult. Often, all the comments which a certain person has **stressed** in the address he/she has delivered are **heard**. The main task of a teacher is to **stress** the addressing of becoming adult. By his/her **listening with understanding**, the dialogues he/she carries on are continually elevated. Because of a child's **impressionability**, he/she experiences a teacher's address or communication as a **heard influencing** from the outside.

In an educative teaching situation, **responsibility** is of fundamental significance. Therefore, a teacher must make time for **addressing-listening** in conversing with a child. Only in an **addressing-listening situation** can responsibility arise to a great degree. Listening to a teacher's words makes them understandable to him/her, the conceptual system of each subject matter is clarified, and the dialogue he/she carries on with that aspect of reality is elevated. In this way, reality is broadened for him/her, he/she learns, and becomes different from what he/she was. This amounts to the fact that a child who is actively involved, by an intensive understanding of what he/she listens to, elevates his/her dialogue with that aspect of reality to that of the teacher. Thus, the listening method, if used properly, can be an important way to help a child reach his/her aim.

(c) **The heuristic (discovery) method.**

This method also is known as the self-discovery, problem stating, or self-forming method. This amounts to the pupils **themselves** establishing relationships with the learning contents with as little help as possible from a teacher. This method is more appropriate in the secondary school, and institutions of higher education because these youths have progressed more toward adulthood, and are more able to make choices **themselves**, to act and to accept responsibility. Also, this method provides a youth with more opportunity to formulate and organize his/her thoughts. When youth are ready for this method, then they master much better that aspect of reality dealt with. Some of the most primary forms of learning of the heuristic method are the following:

1. **Questions posed by the pupils.**

The pupils are given an opportunity to ask questions of each other, and of a teacher.

2. **The learning discussion as a heuristic form of learning.**

It is known that all persons follow **certain methods**, ways, or procedures when they learn, and that not all learning methods are effective, or adequate. Thus, the pupils learn **better** methods of learning from each other. Hence, it also is the aim of the learning discussion, as a heuristic form of learning, that they learn how to learn effectively.

3. **The class discussion as a heuristic form of learning.**

Here the pupils are given an opportunity, as a group, to arrive at a solution to a problem. (See section 4.2.4.1.c.2 where the class discussion is dealt with fully).

4. **Self-experimenting as a heuristic form of learning.**

The heuristic method is applied in its purest form in the natural sciences where the pupils **independently** must carry out assignments by **independent** perceptions, their own experiments, and drawing their own conclusions. If the pupils have carried out an experiment **themselves**, have themselves arrived at insights after thinking things through, have **themselves** enjoyed the pleasures of successfully coaching, in terms of their **own** value preferences, **experience**, and **judgments**, later they can use such learning contents for their life contents in similar or relevant situations. This **personal** and independent design of one's **own** world on one's **own** responsibility always is the **task** and **calling** of each person. This way of teaching makes this possible for each child, and prepares

him/her for it. The great educative value of the heuristic method lies in this.

(d) The self-study method.

As the name implies, the self-study method is a purposeful, independent involvement with the learning contents assigned to the pupils. It can be done in a classroom or at home. Usually, it assumes the form of homework. This method is applied fruitfully with older pupils. Very preferably, this must be interchanged with other methods because a child cannot continually proceed alone, and on his/her own responsibility. Of all the methods discussed so far, this one agrees most with the heuristic and textbook methods because all three can promote the pupils' independence.

(e) The observation method.

Just as with the active involvement of a child, the concept observing more and more has **acquired a prominent place** in contemporary didactics. The basic idea is that concrete examples or representations with respect to the learning material are an important factor in the learning activity by accelerating it, or by insuring a greater degree of success to the learning. Today, many teachers still think that if the pupils have **observed** examples, then they are in complete compliance with the concept of observing. However, observing cannot be limited only to a purely visual concept, but directs an appeal to all **senses** to promote concept formation, and conceptual activity. It is more than perceiving and imagining. Perceiving doesn't exist without thinking. Also, **language** plays a very important role in thinking and, thus, also in perceiving. The word creates order, directs attention, aids in the analysis and synthesis of the aspect of reality which is "observed". The concept is connected to the whole and to the inner relations of the parts of the aspect of reality which is observed. Observing is not an end itself, but rather a means, a way, or method to attain an aim. Where the relations of the pupils still are vague, various means of observation can be used to make these relations more clear, sensible, and meaningful.

(f) The practice method.

Opinions differ greatly about this method, but the fact remains that much of the research which summarily rejects practice, or drill

work, is the result of unwarranted conclusions. Here volumes could be written denouncing this method. A teacher-didactician must decide for him/herself, in his/her planning, of teaching situations in a classroom, to what degree this method is usable in a specific learning situation.

However prominent the advantages and disadvantages of this method might be, it is accepted that certain skills, and a degree of ready knowledge of the learning event, and its further progress, indeed, cannot be undervalued. However, one must be vigilant against **not** giving the learning phenomenon a mechanical flavor. In other words, in the sense of **purposeful practice**, drill work, as a method is usable, but as a form of meaningless mechanization, it is decidedly harmful. Experience teaches us that an adult has a **task**, and also must have **knowledge** of his/her task. Without the correct implementation of this method, the relationships the pupils have established with the various aspects of reality grow dim, and even in failing to repeatedly give clear form to them, eventually they possibly disappear. In addition, it must be indicated that their permanency is going to be paired with the correct methods of individual study. Successful practice of appropriate learning contents can be a precondition for further learning events in a classroom. With this, the discussion of this method is considered sufficient. In the last section of this chapter, some methods are described, as viewed from the organization by a teacher.

4.2.4.4 **Some methods viewed from the perspective of the organization by a teacher.**

Any situation must be thoroughly **planned, reflected on, and organized**. Even more so, educative teaching situations require extraordinary planning, purpose, and organization to justify and make possible their origin and existence. To attain the aims in view, ways and means must be found to offer possible tasks and problems. The following procedures and methods are discussed, as viewed from the **organization** of such educative teaching situations.

(a) Heterogeneous and homogeneous methods of grouping.

The criterion of individualization, already discussed, gives rise to these forms of organization. There are many problems in designing

educative teaching situations because pupils differ greatly from each other with respect to their world-relationships, personality structures, intelligence, etc. Each pupil, because of his/her human dignity, is entitled to the maximum development, and realization of his/her unique, and distinctive potentialities. The following forms of grouping possibly can offer a solution for the background, attunements, potentialities, etc. of the pupils.

1. The heterogeneous form of grouping.

Here the pupils in the **same** classes are classified irrespective of gender or level of ability. Also, there can be big differences in age in the same class. Reasons such as the size of schools, and classes, social circumstances of the community, parental choice, school readiness possibly are responsible for such classifications. In class teaching, it is extremely difficult for a teacher to do justice to the course of becoming of each pupil in the direction of their **own** emancipation, coming of age, and adulthood. This has given rise to the design and organization of differentiated syllabi, teaching methods, and aids, as well as differentiated pupil classifications in various ability groups, and differentiated measuring, testing, and evaluating. Individualization can be very difficult to carry out in a heterogeneously organized class. This has given rise to a homogeneous grouping within the so-called heterogeneous classes.

2. The homogeneous form of grouping.

Here pupils are divided into so-called homogeneous classes according to their intelligence, achievement, talent, etc. in the heterogeneous classes. Heterogeneity is the first rule and absolute homogeneity does not exist. This can preferably be stated as: groups only are made less heterogeneous. Both heterogeneous and homogeneous groupings place demand on a teacher, as well as the pupils regarding the application of teaching and work methods. If a teacher stands before a heterogeneous class, he/she must divide his/her pupils with respect to his/her teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic. In each heterogeneous class, there are pupils who are good, average, or poor at computing. In every case, **each pupil**, in **each group** must receive his/her rightful help. The method a teacher is going to use must be implemented so the aims in view can be attained. The same principle holds for the homogeneous division

of classes. These, and other similar problems have given rise to within class methods of grouping, as forms of organization.

(b) Within class methods of grouping as a form of organization.

It is evident that within-class groups must be divided differently in dealing with each subject or theme. For example, there will be a different division for reading than for computing because good readers sometimes are poor at computing and the reverse. A teacher will approach each group differently in his/her attempts to individualize.

(c) The inter-grade grouping method.

For example, after the “reading age” of all the pupils in the different grades is scientifically determined, good, average, and poor readers in different schools are grouped two or three times a week with the aim of special and advanced reading instruction. It is possible that during such a reading period, pupils from grades 4, 5 and 6 can be in the same class in terms of their relative **uniformity in reading**. The various reading methods then are adapted for the various reading groups, with rather noteworthy results. It can happen that a pupil’s reading level is so improved that he/she can be transferred to a stronger reading group. This procedure also can be used with other subjects. However, here, a great deal of planning, and organization are needed.

There are many variations of this method of grouping, such as, e.g., where **group** classes, such as grades one and two, grades 3, and 4, and grades 5 and 6 are grouped in small elementary schools such as the **one-teacher school** of old, where a teacher must cope with all grades in one class.

Finally, team teaching, as an organization is discussed.

(d) Team teaching.

This method of organization is when three to seven teachers have joint responsibility for teaching between 75 and 255 pupils in one or more grades, and age groups.⁶ Woodring understands the following regarding team teaching: “Team teaching is an effort to

⁶ See Potgieter, F. J.: Skool- en klassorganisasie, p. 107.

improve instruction by the reorganization of personnel in teaching. Two (or more) teachers are given responsibility, working together, for all or a significant part of the instruction of the same group of students”.⁷

This method of organization amounts to a group of teachers separately teaching a group of pupils: At the head of each group of pupils is a leader and sub-leaders who together with their helpers (teaching assistants) discuss and plan the teaching of a specific group of pupils. Provision is made in the organization of the teaching which a **specific teacher** will be responsible for teaching a certain subject or subjects, or aspects of those subjects. The leader plans, with the help the others, the necessary assignments, teaching, and learning aids, etc. The pupils can gather in a large hall where all together or in groups they can listen to the lesson, or they can remain in separate halls where they follow the lesson on a television screen. As the lesson is clearly given, the pupils carry out the assignments under the supervision of their own class teachers, but under the general supervision of the leader or subject head. To make individualization possible, the group often is divided into smaller groups. There is not as much emphasis on examinations as on the completion of pieces of work, assignments. and their application.

1. Some advantages of team teaching

(i) Teachers have the time and opportunity to prepare better. For example, they can go more deeply into one or two subjects and ,in doing so, be a specialist in those subjects.

(ii) This is a deviation from the old traditional class teaching method, and individualization can occur more easily when the pupils are divided into smaller groups.

(iii) Here a teacher works on a broader and more comprehensive basis than what the syllabus prescribes.

⁷ Woodring, P.: American Education Today, p. 211.

(iv) Young and inexperienced teachers quickly are engaged, which avoids frustrations and failures.

(v) Pupils are not delivered to the mercy of a weak teacher.

2. Some disadvantages of team teaching

(i) It requires much planning and organization, which takes lots of time.

(ii) Teachers must be abreast of their subject content and be able to give a good lesson.

(iii) Less able teachers actually are pushed out of the lesson program and will only concentrate their attention on collecting and ordering information, planning aids, and correcting the work of the pupils.

5. SUMMARY

In Chapter One the essential characteristics of an educative teaching situation are discussed fully. In this chapter, attention is given to **designing** an educative teaching situation. This design is only possible in terms of certain didactic-pedagogical criteria, ground forms, and methods. It is indicated that the criteria give direction and guidance to the ground forms, otherwise, the designing does not occur authentically. In addition, it is emphasized that the ground forms from the beginning are used in the family situation, and that they are ways or manners by which reality in the form of learning contents is brought into a classroom, can be encountered, or by which it becomes accessible to the pupils.

Further, the didactic-pedagogical ground forms, and criteria must give direction to the methodological activities. Each of these methods is viewed and discussed from a variety of perspectives. It is additionally indicated that to be able to teach, a teacher must make use of certain methods as means, ways, or procedures to attain his/her aim, since the effectiveness, and success of teaching depend, to a great degree, on the successful implementation of

teaching methods. In the following chapter, the prospect of the **course** or progress of an educative teaching situation is described.

ADDITIONAL READING MATERIAL

1. Van der Stoep, F. and O. A.: Didaktiese Orientasie.
2. Sonnekus, M. C. H.: Die leerwereld van die kind as betekeniswereld.
3. Vermeer, E. A. A.: Spel en Spelpedagogiese problemem.
4. Van der Stoep, O. A.: Die aandeel van die Onderwyser aan die didaktiese situasie. Unpublished D. Ed. dissertation, UP, 1967.
5. Mursell, J. L.: Successful Teaching.
6. Potgieter, F. J.: Skool- en Klassorganisasie.
7. Van der Stoep, F.: Didaktiese Grondvorme.
8. Woodring, P.: American Education Today.
9. Klausmeier, H. J.: Learning and Human Abilities.
10. Gous, S. J.: Verantwoording van die Didakties-Pedagogiese. Unpublished D. Ed. dissertation, UP, 1969.
11. Van Dyk, C. J.: Vanaf Vorming (Bildung) tot Eksemplaariese Onderrig en Leer: 'n Didakties-pedagogiese Strukturering, 1969.
12. Basson, N. J. S.: Leerstofordening in die Lessituasie. **English translation:** <http://www.georgeyonge.net>
13. Van der Stoep, F. et al.: Die Lesstruktuur. **English translation:** <http://www.georgeyonge.net>