

## CHAPTER 4

### FORMS OF TEACHING

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

In the various chapters of this work, it is repeatedly mentioned that the point of departure for an accountable didactic pedagogics is the original experience of educating. The idea is that an explication of the didactic ground-forms requires the investigator to take his/her point of departure in the original experience of educating [in a parent-child relationship]. In other words, to be able to recognize and describe the didactic ground-forms, it is necessary to take the original experience of educating as one's point of departure.

The original experience [of being-in-the-world], i.e., as a factor in the lifeworld, is not exclusively related to educating. It is much more varied. There is no predominant tendency or manifestation in the original relationship of a person to reality; there are different ways in which he/she, as participant, becomes involved with reality. Each of these ways is differentiated and recognizable in terms of a unique order and relationship. Variants of the original experience [of existing], thus, are forms of the ways a person's involvement with reality occur. These variants have contents in common (which are essentially particular) as well as the form in which these contents are cast. These forms are actual because they are the modes by which experiencing takes its course. The forms of each variant or tendency of the original experiencing are unique. They expose what is universally human and become visible in a person's lifestyle. They include activities such as praying, waging war, conducting trade, leisure activities, etc.

In this same sense, educating also involves form. It is important to note that the forms of the original experience of educating do not differ essentially in various historical epochs or in different cultures. Wherever there are people, they educate their children, and the form of this original experience is universal. In the original experience of educating, the didactic form gives a functional

structure to aims (which are always particular) so that the effect of the contents can be realized.

From the above, the contents of the original experience [of existing] are actualized through their forms. Thus, the forms of experience are just as original as the experience itself. This also means that the original experience of educating has the same character as any other primary involvement of persons with reality. Thus, to conduct trade is not more primary or original than educating the young. However, because the school is a derived or second order structure in a person's lifeworld, here the didactician's task is to reestablish the original experience of educating in a formal structure.

Teaching in the school must, at least, aim at those objectives made possible by the contents chosen for that purpose which eventually realizes a desired life and worldview. The didactician cannot account for the form in which the contents are going to be presented if he/she cannot also account for the forms in the original experience of educating. He/she must ferret out and describe these forms where educating takes place in the lifeworld. Thus, his/her accounting for these original forms of educating is the basis of his/her accountability of the ground-forms of his/her teaching practice, i.e., of didactic ground-forms.

Naming these didactic ground-forms is the result of a theory about the practice occurring in the original experience of educating, insofar as educating is realized in teaching. At the same time, it is an evaluation of the possibilities of implementing these ground-forms in the second order, derived school situation.

The training of artisans is another kind of situation. Even though it is not a pedagogic situation, it is a didactic one and, therefore, the didactic ground-forms are equally valid there. Once again, it is emphasized that a theoretical view of didactic form takes the original experience of educating as its point of departure. The point of departure is not one or another perspective on the original experience of educating, such as the learning activity, even though it is true that the forms of teaching are strongly directed to the forms of learning. That is, the forms of teaching are strongly directed to the ways the learning activity is manifested in the

educative event. But learning refers to the aim of educative teaching and not to its origin. This original experience unquestionably shows that “letting a child learn” is the way an adult, in educating, proceeds to realize aims. In this respect, it is justifiable to say that the didactic ground-forms are the forms of actualizing “letting a child learn”.

In conjunction with the categorical structure of the didactic, the didactic categories have certain consequences for any consideration of didactic form. Didactic categories have individual and collective validity in describing didactic ground-forms. Didactic categories must arise from the experience itself, and not merely to clarify their meaning, but to describe their original manifestation in the practical educative situation. However, it must be born in mind that categories as such, do not establish a practice; in fact, they make the description of the form of the practice possible. A final consequence is that the categorical structure of didactics serves to establish a criterial basis for evaluating the form in accordance with its appearance in the original experience of educating.

This brief explication must be read in connection with Chapters 2 and 3 to understand the scientific approach followed here in describing the didactic ground-forms.

## **2. DIDACTIC FORMS AND FORMS OF LIVING**

In the discussion of contents, as learning contents, it is indicated that they must meet the criteria of being true to life and to educating. The necessary consequence of these criteria is that learning contents must be contents of living (life contents). To anticipate the matter of didactic ground-forms, it is said that, just as learning contents are life contents, didactic forms are forms of living. However, these didactic forms are not just any forms of living but those specific forms which refer to the didactic activity. In other words, they are human forms of living capable of supporting the learning activities of a child in the teaching situation.

A brief discussion of the ways these didactic ground-forms are identified will help the reader to understand them more clearly.

The reader also is reminded that the meaning of the teacher's didactic design lies in his/her unlocking reality for a child. Reality includes everything with which a person can become involved. The variations of the appearance of its many aspects are extremely wide. Some of these aspects are directly available for observation in immediate experience and for objective control, like certain natural phenomena, so that the child can participate directly and immediately in them. On the other hand, they can be remote, i.e., not directly available to observe, experience, or objectify. If a teacher is to expose or unlock these latter kinds of contents for a child, it literally means he/she must represent them (make them available) in such a way that he/she can learn them.

Apart from the nature of reality or contents, a second aspect is of equal importance is that a teacher must make the contents available to a child by means of certain forms so that he/she can effectively unlock them. Naturally, in the school situation, this reality is the learning contents or learning material. In Chapter 5, they are characterized as the knowledge of cultural and natural phenomena possessed by persons. There is no guarantee that a child will master this knowledge by him/herself. Hence, it is the task of an adult (teacher) to present these contents to him/her before teaching can occur in any way. This presentation of contents in the school demands of both the teacher and the child that specific tasks are carried out in the didactic situation.

On the other hand, the teacher and child are involved with each other via the learning contents serving as, e.g., conversational contents for them. On the other hand, the aim of this activity becomes apparent, i.e., that the child must learn. In this instance, there is a harmony between the contents unlocked and the forms (e.g., discussion) which make it possible for the child to learn. This harmony results in a child acquiring a firmer grasp of reality. Also, a child's involvement with reality can be typified with the concept "learning" which, in the original lifeworld, is actualized as perceiving, experiencing, and objectifying. Perceiving, experiencing, and objectifying, as categories of learning, are unified by language and thinking.

A valid question is if there are specific ground-forms a teacher can use in the school situation which will directly appeal to these spontaneous learning categories of perceiving, experiencing, and objectifying. Of course, a child's learning activities are not bound to the formal school situation, and he/she learns whether he/she goes to school or not. The same is said of the teaching or help a child receives by an adult spontaneously intervening with him/her in the lifeworld; i.r., a child is also taught outside the formal school situation. This means that for an adult to teach is just as primary or primordial a form of living as learning is for a child. However, it is clear to the parents that, in the spontaneous teaching situations in the family, they cannot properly orient their child to the differentiated and complex reality within which he/she must eventually live as an adult. For this reason, they [society] establish schools. The schools continue the educative work and teaching interventions which the child has already experienced at home.

The primary aim of formal teaching in the school is to usher the child into this complex lifeworld by presenting specific contents in particular lessons to him/her. These contents are presented in terms of forms which a teacher gives to his/her presentation, which allows a child to become most effectively involved with them. To succeed at this, a teacher must thoroughly consider at least two aspects in his/her planning. Because the teaching forms must reflect a child's spontaneous expressions of learning, he/she must be thoroughly acquainted with the child's ways of learning. In addition, he/she must reflect on how he/she, in terms of his/her own talents, must establish the learning situation within which a child can realize, in these same spontaneous ways, his/her learning intention, and learning directedness in a school situation.

The teaching situation in the school primarily involves inviting children to take part increasingly and creatively in the event in the classroom by implementing forms of presentation. In other words, a child's spontaneous learning intention (so obvious in the spontaneous lifeworld) is realized positively in formal teaching situations. Also, a child's spontaneous learning puts a demand on a teacher's skill to create a learning situation as close as possible to the original experience of educating. It is for this reason that the form in which the presentation is cast is a determining factor in

establishing a harmony between the spontaneous learning intention of a child and cultural learning contents. Within this context, the spontaneous learning intention (as a form of expression of the child's achievement consciousness) is directed by cultural contents (i.e., learning contents, learning material).

The question now is whether the harmony between form and content of the didactic presentation or design does not constitute a ground-form of the didactic activity. Indeed, if there are didactic ground-forms, they must make provision for realizing the spontaneous fundamental categories of learning.

In terms of the above, the following question requires an answer: which of the general forms of living (forms of existence) have value for a teacher's presentation, in that they are directly related to the lifeworld of a child, as well as to his/her learning activities? To answer this question, the forms of appearance of spontaneous learning, or the forms in which an adult spontaneously offers guidance and help with a child's learning, must be penetrated. The results of this penetration, which are given in Chapter 6, are not now unnecessarily anticipated, although there must be reference to the following: one cannot consider spontaneous help and relate it directly to the lifeworld of a child (as well as the way a child's learning is expressed) if one does not closely examine the categories of the spontaneous and original learning activity of a child.

Extending this original educative situation to the formal school situation is impossible without insight into and understanding of the categories of spontaneous learning. In this regard, a teacher can do well to emulate the parent's spontaneous linking up with their child's forms of living (existing) and lifestyle when he/she directs his/her learning activities by forms of teaching. A teacher must also account for the possibilities which the forms parent for use in his/her teaching are naturally connected to the spontaneous lifeworld of a child—especially where a certain aspect of reality is directly (concretely) available to a child's perceiving or direct experiencing. However, often, a teacher's task is to represent contents which are not or cannot be made directly available by means of teaching forms. The question which arises from this

difficulty is whether the spontaneous activity between parent and child can be formalized.

This question indicates that there are two types of ground-forms which an adult can use in his/her teaching. The first are ground-forms which harmonize with the spontaneous learning and teaching found in everyday life, i.e., in informal educative situations between parents and children. The second are teaching forms or ground-forms which are consciously created with the aim of directing a child's learning intentionality in formal teaching situations. This means that a teacher can implement ground-forms to direct a child's spontaneous learning and the spontaneous teaching which one finds in the lifeworld. On the other hand, this means that a teacher can create or build up teaching forms out of the spontaneous help the parents give their child in ordinary educative situations. These forms can be used effectively in formal teaching situations.

Consequently, designing a didactic event can take the spontaneous learning activity of a child or the spontaneous support of the adult as its point of departure. These points of departure offer important insights into the concept "ground-form". If one broadly describes the major spontaneous learning activities of a child as observing, playing, speaking, imitating, fantasizing, working, and repeating, then the spontaneous adult support coinciding with these activities can be broadly described as pointing out, showing the child how to play, and playing with him/her, prompting, demonstrating, narrating, giving assignments, and repeating. [See Chapter 6 in this regard]. If one classifies these seven forms of giving support in the spontaneous teaching situation, they can be divided into four major categories. Because repeating is present in each one of these forms, we can ignore it as a distinct form for the time being. In this way, we arrive at four didactic ground-forms: play, conversation, example, and assignment.

These didactic ground-forms are not merely variations of teaching methods. They are forms of living (existing) which are revealed in learning- and teaching-activities and, thus, ought to be known by anyone who wants to be involved in educating and especially in formal teaching. Because teaching method is of considerable importance in a teaching situation, it is important to identify and

describe teaching methods by taking these didactic ground-forms as the point of departure.

For this reason, it is very important to carefully examine the four ground-forms so their meaning, as forms of living, are understood and described so the practice of teaching is described as accurately as possible. Accurate description fosters a better understanding of the practice of teaching which, in turn, makes the meaningful organization of everyday teaching possible. The four didactic ground-forms are dealt with separately before their relationship to and significance for teaching methods are explained.

Irrespective of a general orienting description of the four ground-forms which follow, there is a discussion of the four ground-forms in the light of the question of whether they really are forms of living, i.e., ground-forms of Dasein and, if they are didactically meaningful. If they are ground-forms forms of Dasein, this implies an ontological, anthropological, psychopedagogical, and even psychological analysis, which is not presented in an introduction of this nature. This question has been thoroughly investigated and corroborative results are in the subject literature. The interested student can consult the publications in the list of references. Concerning the second question, it is dealt with in the discussion of the didactic significance of play, conversation, example, and assignment, as forms of living (ground-forms of Dasein) by which teaching can be realized.

## 2.1 Play

When an adult plays, its nature is usually the opposite of his/her serious activities. In this respect, a child's play differs radically from the adult's because, for him/her play itself is a serious matter. For a child, there is nothing more serious than his/her playing.

Thus, a child's playing activities cannot be understood in terms of labor or work. In his/her playing, he/she is continually imitating or simulating the adult world. A child plays at waging war, conducting trade, building artifacts, playing "mother and father", etc. His/her aim is not actually to wage war or to conduct trade. One must be careful not to describe a child's playing only as the basis from which



adult work evolves. In essence, one must be careful not to understand a child's playing in terms of the adult lifeworld. As far as a child is concerned, his/her play itself is life-fulfilling. In this context, this means that a child views labor, insofar as it appears in his/her world, as play. Where an adult always sees a specific aim in his/her playing, for a child his/her playing itself is the aim. In this sense, a child exists as a totality in his/her playing activities.

The intensity of a person's involvement in surrounding reality is clearly seen in a child's playing activities. They are always related to some aspect of reality. As a matter of fact, play is one of the forms of a child's existence as being-in-the-world. Just as a person exists as such, in terms of his/her work, so a child exists in the world in terms of his/her playing activities. By playing, a child creates a real world for him/herself. If one examines these activities in their original appearance, then they are the realization of his/her existence. By playing, a child becomes involved in surrounding reality and, therefore, he/she learns to know those aspects which appear in his/her playing. For the child, play is a safe activity. Thus, he/she can venture into aspects of reality an adult considers to be extremely serious, like waging war. Didactically, a child's playing means he/she is given an opportunity to focus on certain aspects of reality, to consider those aspects to be important, to learn to master them, and to orient him/herself in space, to experience reality, etc.

In this respect, play is a ground-form of a person's relationship to reality. It is a ground-form which exists among other forms of human activity; it has its own identity and cannot be derived from or reduced to any other ground-form.

As a form of existence, play is especially important to a didactician because it offers the possibility of designing a didactic situation in which the learning activity can be realized, and the spontaneous learning of a child can be effectively directed. In this regard, the relationship between playing and learning is of special significance to the didactician. Various didacticians have indicated that playing is not simply a playful (frivolous) form of learning, but it precedes the learning activity because a child also "plays to learn" or "learns by playing". Although the playing activities of a child are seldom

explicitly directed at gaining knowledge and skills, they offer many opportunities for effective learning, and for the mastery of knowledge. One observes that a child imitates situations in his/her play and exercises certain activities to polish skills which later will have significance for his/her lifestyle. In this sense, learning by playing is seen as exercising opportunities which create a fertile ground for intellectual and other activities a child will later be called on to perform.

Experience shows that there is hardly any area of knowledge which cannot be learned by playing. Many play situations in a child's lifeworld are potential learning situations. Thus, learning by playing is not necessarily learning without awareness. Often, play situations show that a playing person knows what it is he/she is involved with.

In this light, a distinction now is made regarding a child's play. Play for the sake of the play, implies or indicates nothing else. This is described as intransitive play. On the other hand, there is transitive play where a child feels that his/her playing transcends the immediate reality. Intransitive play can also be coupled with the concept of "learning without awareness". With transitive play, contents are consciously provided. The learning activities in this situation are primarily concerned with recapitulation because the application of insight, practicing skills, practicing to understanding, etc. characterize the situation, irrespective of how haphazard the situation may become.

The activities in the play situation radiate out from a point. In this way, a child is offered an opportunity to deepen his/her learning because his/her playing involves him/her with reality in increasingly intense ways. Although not consciously striven for, there is ample evidence of greater levels of achievement in the play situation. If a child is directly aimed at achieving in his/her play (playing marbles), the clear description of the rules to ensure fair play is of utmost importance. It is important for a teacher that a child plays in this manner because then he/she gives direction and meaning to a child's play. If the playing is organized by rules, the presence of a teacher who knows what is to happen, who can give form to the playing concerning specific knowledge, skills, attitudes,

etc. and, in terms of which a child can be formed, is quite acceptable. As we know, a child can play this role (of teacher) in the spontaneous play situation of children. In this sense, forming, as a didactic category, can be effectively realized in the play situation.

If forming is involved in playing, it makes certain demands regarding the rules and the way the game (play) progresses. This fact is especially apparent when boys play marbles. If an improved achievement (skill) is sought, the game (play) makes a direct appeal to a child's attitude in the play situation and, in this sense, the situation is an ideal basis for learning. In addition, when a teacher organizes the playing, the need for a child to venture into the situation is intensified. Thus, the situation demands unconditional obedience to the rules (norms) of the game. The teaching possibilities, in this respect, are self-evident.

The play situation predisposes discovery to a marked degree. This quality is most important when play activities are organized for didactic purposes because discovery is an important didactic aim. Organized play makes exceptional demands on a child's willingness to venture into reality by venturing into the play situation. This willingness to venture is influenced by the quality of a child's experience, and by his/her feeling of security in the situation. These are factors of paramount importance in educating him/her, and they contribute to his/her eventual independence.

From an analysis of play as a didactic form, various didacticians have indicated that learning in a play situation is aimed at the following: physical skills, intellectual skills (applying knowledge), entire areas of knowledge, dispositions, and attitudes. The links between playing and learning which can be inferred from this are mainly the following: optic-acoustic oriented learning (i.e., visual-sensory, and hearing-sensory learning), method-directed learning (i.e., tactile-sensory, and manual dexterity), and creative learning.

Clearly, a child's learning intention is realized in a play situation; therefore, it is a way in which teaching occurs as a didactic way of acting. It also has a demanding character. It is understandable that the way a teacher leads a child's learning in organized play

situations depends on the aims he/she hopes to achieve by this form of teaching. As a didactic ground-form, it must always contribute to the aims of a teacher, as well as to evaluating the effects of teaching and learning. Whenever a teacher uses play, there is always an obligation; the child *must* play. That is, play becomes an imperative in the didactic situation. The participants do not play for the sake of play; they play to learn. For a child, here playing is work. In this way, teaching makes an important contribution to changing a child's normal, spontaneous learning activities.

A teacher must also realize that play can be a a ground-form if the didactic situation becomes too mechanical. The danger of mechanizing play is imminent, unless one remembers that playing is to take place within a specific space, with previously selected pupils in a specific group relationship, and in terms of specific contents or material. The character of achievement, so important in the didactic situation, becomes part of the didactic situation of play. A child's playing is going to be evaluated by the teacher. If the level of achievement does not meet his/her demands, the situation must be repeated to enable the children to reach the desired level.

Where play is introduced into a didactic situation, certain demands must be met before it can qualify as a didactic ground-form. Firstly, didactic play can never have an intransitive (spontaneous) character because it is always coupled with a definite aim. In a didactic play situation, material is always introduced between player and contents. In this respect, it is even possible that the playing can show a secondary character, in the sense that the free and spontaneous movement, as a way of existing, is not allowed. The following are always present when play is realized in a didactic situation: achieving, constituting, creating, differentiating, organizing, demarcating, controlling, actively developing the event, people and things relating, orienting, taking standpoints, deciding, etc. In fact, these are the factors which often bring play into motion. These didactic factors are essentially norms. The norms associated with play in a didactic situation refer to the didactic criteria mentioned in Chapter 3.

From the above, the didactic value of play is summarized:

- Play creates a bridge between the lifeworld of the child and of the adult because of the role- and rule-games in which the child participates;
- it also creates a bridge to the adult's attitude toward work because the child continually ventures into functional and constructive games;
- play also established a bridge to creative activities and achievements which are evident in all free and bounded forms of play.

In a play situation, a child discovers ways of exploring reality. This also offers opportunities for expressing physical and intellectual achievements in situations which are positive and formative. These situations also offer opportunities in which cultural techniques (e.g., reading, writing, and arithmetic) are placed within his/her grasp.

A child who is involved in play situations is involved in self-activities and, in this sense, he/she is involved in realizing the idea of independence. Because a child's activities in a play situation are such a fundamental part of his/her existence, the situation is true to life for him/her in that it does not constitute a foreign element. For this reason, a play situation is an authentic human situation for him/her. A child's spontaneous activities, and later even deliberate activities, make the introduction of contents chosen from his/her surroundings not only possible but also natural.

A play situation is not the only one in which a child is actively involved or in which he/she learns. Thus, it is important for a didactician to determine the boundaries of play. As far as a didactician is concerned, play, as a didactic ground-form, is important because it offers a child the opportunity to change his/her relationship to reality. In this sense, a play situation transcends the play activity itself; it makes a variety of activities possible.

Play is a natural point of departure to realize other forms of being-in-the-world (forms of existence) like language, fantasy, repetition, etc. Also, various aspects of a child's conscious life are brought into movement and given direction in a play situation and, because of

these conscious activities, play is continually transcended. It is important to note that such aims as observing, thinking, and imitating are as important, regarding a child's play activities, as they are the quality of his/her achievements.

As far as a teacher is concerned, using play as a ground-form means creating a situation which has its origin in a form of living (existence) which transcends the play situation by putting a broad range of aims within a child's reach. In this way, the differentiated reality can be put within a child's reach and, in this way, his/her relationship to reality is formed.

## 2.2 Conversation

Conversation primarily and fundamentally is peculiar to a human being's lifestyle since it is a way in which he/she establishes a relationship with reality. This form of living has its origin in the fact that a human being is the only being who possesses language. By means of language, it is possible for a person to talk about reality and, in this sense, the didactic category of objectivity in the learning and teaching situation is of vital importance. A person casts his/her observations, experiences, and feelings (including criticisms and judgments) in language. By means of language, as a disclosing medium, and even as a signifying function, a person can give meaning to his/her existence. In this context, the spoken word is a bridge between inner experiences of reality and the external, explainable phenomena in the surrounding world. Language enables him/her to transpose surrounding reality in such a way that it becomes a spiritual possession.

Human intentionality is clearly evidenced in language. In this sense, language is the form in which one's conscious striving to achieve (achieving consciousness), i.e., one's learning, is manifested. Language makes it possible to know, understand, and order a situation before one acts, or attempts to answer the appeal coming from the situation.

This explains why a child's mastery of language enables him/her to view the surrounding reality from a distance or objectively. Mastering language enables him/her to address reality

communicatively and, thus, the appeal of language is the basis of his/her thinking, i.e., of his/her conceptual world. This mastery increases his/her knowledge, in the sense that he/she can give order to things, repeat activities, recognize, and use objects and activities, plan an activity for the future, organize various aspects into a whole, etc. By means of language, a child can create reality for him/herself, even if it is an abstract reality. Mastering language provides a basis for him/her to become independently involved in surrounding reality.

At this stage, it is seen that language is of paramount importance during learning. In this respect, the most important aspects of language are: language is essentially informative; it discloses something of the contents and their importance in the lifeworld. For this reason, language also is orienting; it indicates both direction and fixed points in surrounding reality. Language bridges distances in the lifeworld and makes knowledge possible by means of experiencing and observing; absent reality is made present because a person can discuss it. Reality can be put in perspective by language so that it can be interpreted within established experiences, observations, knowledge, etc. In this sense, language can free one from the bonds and boundaries of the immediate and present reality or enable one to objectify it.

Language gives order to objects, happenings, expectations, anticipations, characteristics, etc. Order enables one to command reality. It is directed at coordinating aspects of reality which are the same and differentiating between aspects which differ from each other. Thus, the ordering quality of language becomes clear. By means of language, judgments are made, evaluations are done, motives are explained, etc.

It is important for a didactician to understand that conversation is the form in which language is cast as the vehicle of one's conscious striving for achievement. Because it is of utmost importance to realize the forms (forms of living) in which achieving consciousness can be realized in the lesson situation, it is justifiable to examine conversation as a form of living and, therefore, a teaching form.

When an adult implements conversation to unlock an aspect of reality, the realization of a “fruitful moment” is of considerable importance. A “fruitful moment” occurs when an adult manages to create a conversation of such quality that a child is eager to become involved in the reality under discussion. This entails effort, in the sense that a child is expected to try because the adult tries. Discussion, as a form of teaching, is a problematic matter for an adult because it is not easy to use, and it requires well-developed skill in its use in creating a spontaneous learning situation.

The conclusion arrived at in discussions (conversations) between adults, and between adults and children is that there is a resonance among the participants in the discussion. As soon as one partner’s attitudes, preconceptions, opinions, etc. are not tolerated, the discussion ceases to exist. Discussion is essentially a matter of differences of opinion.

This statement applies equally to teaching situations. The opinions and attitudes a child holds for him/herself about reality are matters of appropriating contents which are made conscious to his/her in some way. In a conversation, when an adult is consciously involved in explaining, giving an account, identifying, etc. it no longer is spontaneous. When an adult and a child become jointly involved in something, there is always a problem, an interesting phenomenon, an important insight, or task which introduces the conversation. If we recognize conversation as a form of living, and if we acknowledge its possibilities as a ground-form, then we must also accept that our approach to describing this didactic ground-form must always be seen in a pedagogical (educative) light.

Conversation, as a teaching form, has the following variations: in the first instance, there is the generally unbounded, open, or free conversation which occurs spontaneously between parents and children. This kind of conversation does not have a definite aim, but is carried on spontaneously while the parents and children are associating with each other. Contents are incidental because the conversation is about things which crop up incidentally, and which do not necessarily fall within the scope of the adult’s educative aims.



In contrast, a second form of conversation is highly structured, more bound, clearly directed, and restricted. It is consciously planned and initiated by an adult. It is an integral part of an adult's purposive intervention with a child. This kind of conversation, therefore, is preeminently an educative or a teaching conversation.

In terms of the nature of conversation, there are not many essential differences between the two forms, except that the teaching conversation is more restricted and bound to specific contents. It is understandable that the role of both child and teacher in a teaching conversation shows differences from an unbound conversation. In an unbound conversation, an adult or teacher has more of a guiding function, while in a bound or teaching conversation, he/she has more of a leading function, in addition to his/her guiding. In usual practice, it is evident that an unbound conversation can turn into a formal, more bound form to directly serve the aims of educating.

To summarize the above, conversation is always present when thoughts are shared between people. A conversation is quite different from chatting, because it always has a serious undertone. It deals with a specific theme or case, and it includes all questions concerning the topic, as well as all explanations and clarifications. The idea of a conversation is that, during its course, solutions to problems are examined, because it draws out the ideas of the participants in such a way that the specifics or details of the contents are systematically dealt with.

Conversation also involves differences. A variety of opinions, experiences, etc. serve as motivation only if at least one of the participants does not consider his/her opinions to be valid. In this context, the conversational participants are equal. Conversation implies that all participants must listen, but that they also must be able to understand. The implication for teaching is that a teacher must be able to hold back and wait for an opportune (fruitful) moment to initiate the conversation. This not only demands skill, but also sound judgment and the ability to formulate unambiguously and clearly.

In addition to the fact that conversation is an ordinary human form of living, it also is an art which can be mastered by practice and

concentration. Because, as a form of living, conversation is continually involved in the practice of teaching, as a teaching form, it makes special demands of a teacher: it requires those skills necessary to use conversation effectively—this is apart from his/her narrative ability or his/her ability to dramatize a situation. The ways in which conversation, as a didactic ground-form, is realized by means of specific methods in the classroom is explained later in this chapter.

### 2.3 Example (exemplar)

Didactic activity is always involved with unlocking reality for a child. However, reality is too extensive, and its contents are too finely differentiated for him/her to merely acquire a proper grasp of them. In addition, the totality of the surrounding reality is no longer manageable for an adult, simply because the scope of both the sciences and techniques developed are so vast that they require increasing specialization. What is true for an adult, in this regard, certainly is even more so for a child; the world and reality surrounding him/her cannot merely be presented to him/her. To overcome this problem, an adult selects parts or aspects of reality which, in his/her judgment, offer a valid and representative structure of the surrounding reality. In this way, the example is an indispensable aspect of a person's grasp of what surrounds him/her, and what can happen to him/her. In this regard, the example has a specific aim: it serves as the beginning and first ground for a person to be able to more clearly determine the essence of a particular matter. An example, selected in terms of specific criteria, must be a primary or first view of what belongs, in principle and in general, to the matter or theme. Irrespective of the fact that example is the beginning ground for presenting a theme or phenomenon, the principles of the matter must also appear clearly in the example.

The original experience of educating shows that an example is used to give a course to an educative situation. In the spontaneous, original educative situation, the use of an example makes a discussion about a particular matter possible, because it makes many facts available for analyzing, synthesizing, and analogizing. It is here, however, where an adult unlocks an example for a child by demonstrating and illustrating. Irrespective of this and other

possible methods, the principle of the example stands. In the formal didactic situation, the example is valid to the extent that a very large portion of classroom teaching is done by means of it as a ground-form.

If one eliminates the principle of the example from educating and, especially from teaching, teaching collapses. In this respect, the example is one of the ways a human being understands and interprets the reality surrounding him/her and, therefore, the way he/she makes reality available to someone who must still discover it. In this respect, the example qualifies as a ground-form for didactic acts, and a didactician must master the essence and function of this ground-form. Further, it is necessary for a didactician to thoroughly know the example as a didactic ground-form, otherwise the concept of exemplary teaching (see Chapter 12) will be wanting.

The general aspects of a matter are disclosed in the example. For this reason, an example has an introductory function in the lifeworld. Thus, the function of an example is to make understanding and insight regarding the general possible. Therefore, the first criterion for an example can make a universal matter visible. The facts or concepts can be directly “read from” the example itself. Hence, the example is the first image of a matter, and this involves the relationship of the particular to the general, by which concepts make insight into the structure represented by the example possible. It is for this reason that an adult selects a “particular case”, “model case”, etc. as the first image for a child, because this first image has general validity with respect to the reality it represents. Although an example can possibly be a particular case, still it contains the concepts, insights, etc., which make insight into the structure of what it represents possible. Thus, to qualify as an example as a particular case, it must be able to refer to what is generally valid.

Because of various aspects of reality which examples represent, they can function in many respects in a didactic situation. Where a simple object is used as an example, it can be an exemplar of a particular type. One comes upon this function of the example, especially in biology, when monocotyledons, self-pollination, cross-pollination, etc. are unlocked for the children.

The example also can demonstrate a particular rule. This is seen, e.g., in sentence analysis and mathematics. The theorem learned by a child in trigonometry is a particular case which demonstrates a rule. Any problem which arises later is a pure variation of the same rule which arises in different kinds of situations and structures and must be solved in terms of the example unlocked by a teacher for a child.

The example also can represent a particular type, among many possibilities, such as one comes across, especially, in music and art teaching. In this respect, one of Beethoven's symphonies is a type of the concept "symphony" because, although, it is not the only symphony, the structure of a symphony, as a type of music, can be deduced from it.

Often, the example serves as a model for the objective laws of science. This kind of example especially is observable in physics and subjects such as architecture and music, where a model serves to make a particular or abstract aspect of the subject visible and, in this way, understandable to a child. A globe (of the earth), models of atoms, and even construction models are variations of this kind of example. Examples can also be implemented to serve as criteria (norms) in terms of which a child then can gauge his/her own achievement. Any standardized test used as a norm for a teacher, as well as an examinee, is an example of this kind. Finally, the example also can be implemented as exercises to practice skills, methods, etc. as one finds in vocationally directed teaching. An example of this kind is when a model office or a filing cabinet is used in business teaching.

In Chapter 12, a full explication is given of various concepts which are closely related or analogous to the example: paradigm, exemplar, model, type, etc. For this reason, these meanings of the example and the affinities they show with the nature of specific contents are not discussed here.

Because the exemplar is implemented so harmoniously in the learning activities of a child, its use by a teacher cannot merely be spontaneous. For this reason, the use of an example or exemplar is

a weighty matter. At this stage, the exemplar or example is closely connected with a child's perceiving in the act of learning.

The example or exemplar lends itself excellently to demonstration because, usually, the function of a demonstration is directed to an example. The teacher places the exemplar between him/herself and a child to unlock a piece of reality and, in this way, the object or matter is visible to the child. The reason for this is that the example is not only concerned with an empirical reality but that, at least, it represents foreseeable reality. In this respect, using an example means that a teacher can literally place certain concepts or objects in a child's field of vision.

A deduction at this stage is that the example, and its variations, is used in a teaching situation to illustrate and make available to a child a certain abstract, removed, or concrete reality. In this context, the relationship between the example and experience, as a category of spontaneous learning, is noteworthy. The model, etc. offers a child the opportunity to undergo new experiences with the matter at hand. In this case, the example functions in such a way that it unites previous and new experiences and, thus, previous, and new insights can be integrated. In this case, the example functions reflexively because new experiences refer to previous ones.

Apart from the example placing previous experiences in a certain relationship with new experiences, anticipation (anticipated thinking) also is called upon to interpret new experiences represented by the example. In addition to the reflexive and anticipative possibilities of the example, it possesses possibilities for application, opportunities for conveying insights, skills, methods of solving problems, etc. by which the scope of experience can be broadened. Basically, this means that a teacher concentrates the example within the experience of a child. However, when a child is led to give meaning to the example, it serves as a concrete experience which enables him/her to transcend the particularity of the concrete example and to reach the level of generality (by language or other symbolic forms).

The aim of an adult in implementing an example in a teaching situation is summarized: in the first place, he/she wants to present

abstract reality by means of an example so this reality can be made visible or perceivable to a child. This case involves concretizing abstract reality and, in this way, delimiting concepts so a child can acquire an intellectual grasp of them. In the second place, an adult uses examples to limit the scope of the matter and make small explications available to a child which then will have a generally valid meaning. In this way, it is possible to bring abstract reality into a classroom situation that, in other ways, would not be possible and, in this way, to offer a child the opportunity for more experience.

In addition to the above aims of using the example or exemplar in a teaching situation, there are other aspects of a teacher's didactic work which can be effectively realized by the exemplary as a didactic ground-form. In unlocking a particular reality, a teacher continually searches for ways by which insights into this reality can be conveyed to a child. The converted learning content a teacher unlocks in the class as an example or exemplar, in a general sense, serves as the basis for establishing comparable themes for thinking (investigating, concept forming and practicing).

By means of exemplary unlocking, the independent mastery of other aspects or areas related to the learning content is made possible. In this sense, the last didactic aim is actualized in a general respect. The example or exemplar also must serve as a foundation or basis for establishing generally valid insights into a particular, but comprehensive structure because the meaning of the contents in the exemplar is not only valid for a particular case (example) but makes valid pronouncements about a greater or wider connection possible.

In unlocking the example or exemplar, a teacher is also directed to providing a child with an example of the methods by which the ground structures of this content of the represented life- or subject-area can be sought. Because of this knowledge of methods, it now becomes possible for a child to acquire insight into the ways of studying a particular aspect of reality and, in this way, to investigate and understand the totality of life reality. In this case, the unique nature of a particular subject area, which is unlocked in school, is going to have a say. Each subject area avails itself of its own methods. This means that a teacher implements a particular

example in such a way that the methods of the subject which it represents also are taken up in it and become clearer to a child.

Irrespective of this general possibility, unlocking the exemplar also serves a child's insight which an example can be fruitfully used in class and, in this sense, is meaningful for him/her. The usual course of classroom teaching shows a chronological accumulation of facts with the aim that, eventually, it will collectively expose a particular subject area as a totality. For children, this approach is often monotonous and without inspiration. In this connection, the example can establish steps or levels, rather than a linear chronological exposition. By means of the exemplary, insights can be established for a child to study a larger reality him/herself because the insights mastered in the exemplar are generally valid in nature, while the methods used to separate out the essences of the exemplar can be transferred to other areas. Thus, the aspect of the content unlocked for a child via the example makes possible his/her independent access to the parts not unlocked for him/her.

When a teacher uses an exemplar to solve a particular problem, he/she creates a situation. Outside his/her situation, a child cannot represent a real or actual reality. The same holds for establishing a problem and using an example to clarify it. In this respect, the example, which is spontaneously used in everyday classroom practice, also is situation-bound. Thus, the exemplar serves as a good way of realizing a fruitful moment, i.e., to didactically exploit the favorable moment, and even attain the general educative aim in this way. The exemplary is the focus of the unlocking in the class situation, in the sense that it has to do with unlocking and bringing about essential knowledge regarding the matter, rather than with the quantitative completeness of the matter. The relationship between the exemplar used in this way and the reduction of content to its essentials is clear.

From these essences, which are unlocked by the exemplary for a child, there can be a move to a higher level of scope and complexity of the matter represented by the exemplar. In this sense, therefore, the exemplar serves to concentrate on the contents, and to set aside what is incidental. The exemplar also has an important residual influence, i.e., it works or comes into function to the extent that a

teacher can concentrate on or explain it with the aim of a child's imitation (post-disclosure) of the teacher's own insights and mastery. A teacher uses the example to make even more clear and lucid what ought to already be clear and lucid about reality. Also, he/she uses the example to explicate what is clear in its cause and effect, with the aim of better understanding general matters in terms of a particular phenomenon. By implementing the example, a teacher creates a situation which actualizes, in the purest way, imitation by a child in the learning act.

Finally, a teacher implements a particular example in a teaching situation to limit him/herself in his/her presentation to a particular reality. The example must be continually tested against the reality which it represents. In this respect, it is important to indicate that the example protects a child from a teacher's wandering thoughts, simply because the example presents reality in a particular and perceivable way.

There has been repeated reference to the significance of the exemplar or example for a teacher in his/her presentation of contents. The question now is: What is the significance of the example for a learning child? The example gives a learning person the possibility of acquiring a grasp of the concepts of a matter because concrete relationships are exposed and presented by the example. At first, the abstract is actualized in the concrete, which can only be presented by an example so that an inductive penetration of the structure of the concepts themselves is given. In this way, the concepts of the matter are placed within a learner's reach, and this enables him/her to formulate general deductions. These general deductions, then, can be tested again by other examples. Lastly, it is indicated that there is exemplary teaching if a relationship of the general to the particular is clearly and validly expressed in the relationship of the particular case to a general law.

#### **2.4 Assignment (Giving instructions)**

Just as was done with the previous didactic ground-forms, a didactican must turn to the spontaneous human lifeworld to examine "assignment" as a didactic ground-form. From a penetration of the spontaneous lifeworld, it is seen that the



relationship between person and reality is expressed in the activities which he/she carries out. A human being does not accept reality as it is; he/she is continually involved in changing it into a lifeworld for him/herself. Changing the world into a world for him/herself is seen clearly in the fact that a person is involved in working with reality. When a person acts, he/she is always involved in reality; this also means he/she is occupied with educative- and teaching-interventions. This working involvement of a person with reality can only be understood properly if one examines the [philosophical-] anthropological grounds of work or labor. Therefore, taking the primary form of living of “labor” as the point of departure, a didactician searches for a didactic ground-form which is applied daily in practice. However, “assignments” cannot be equated with the concept labor or work, and yet one cannot clearly understand the sense and meaning of the assignments the adult gives in educating a child, if one does not take the activities which culminate in labor into consideration.

An adult primarily controls and commands, in his/her activities of labor. Because the concept “labor” refers to a person’s daily working activities, a variety of human activities fall within it, such as food processing, industrial production, and medical services. They are all aspects of the human being’s daily working activities. When examining labor (working) as a form of living, it is important to note that a person is not only concerned about the results or fruits of his/her labor; often, a human being labors by means of the tasks associated with it.

The essential difference between play and labor, in constituting a unique lifeworld, is that play is directed to a lighter facet of being human, while labor is essentially a serious matter directed at a conscious mastery of reality. It is for this reason that labor makes possible a clear judgment of how a human being is involved in family reality. In this regard, it also is important to note that labor is essentially a personal matter; work is always performed by a person irrespective of whether he/she does so in a group or individually.

When a person is engaged in labor, his/her involvement is anchored in the past, but also finds its justification in the future. The future

dimension of labor becomes clear if one understands that the appeal to work is an inevitable part of a person's involvement in the lifeworld. The aim of labor, the labor itself, and its results are intertwined, and are experienced and considered by a person to be a whole. In this sense, labor has a beginning, a course of activities, and an end; an individual experiences his/her laboring in these phases.

A relationship of labor to reality is not one-sided, in the sense that it merely evolves from reality to an aim of labor, but it also is rooted in the human being as the center of a matter-of-fact reality itself. Consequently, he/she creates opportunities and situations, but also implements to enable him/her to labor effectively. Both the situation and implement are meaningless if a person is not involved in the situation as a worker. To labor means to command reality and to employ knowledge and insight resulting from work activities to further disclose reality, and to establish him/herself in the world. This is of exceptional importance for teaching because labor has a formative value which a teacher cannot ignore in teaching.

Even the most superficial penetration of a child's spontaneous involvement in the world indicates that he/she involves him/herself heart and soul in activities. The fact that a child experiences his/her parents' labor allows him/her to understand labor as a positive power in the everyday course of daily life. He/she experiences that his/her parents' labor makes new situations possible by constituting them. A child sees in his/her parents the value of labor, its creations, and achievements, and its realizing aims. In addition, he/she sees that diligent labor and its fruits give meaning to his/her existence. It is in this sense that a child sees labor as a basic aspect of adulthood. This is the reason a child identifies him/herself with the labor of adults, and why he/she imitates labor in his/her play, why he/she repairs things in his/her lifeworld him/herself, why he/she takes things apart and reassembles them, etc. When a child imitates the labor of adults in his/her play, he/she is involved in imitating the use of the implements the adult uses in his/her work, or he/she uses them him/herself. In this way, a child learns to know functional objects like a hammer, a saw, scissors, etc. In addition, he/she not only learns various forms of work, but he/she learns to participate in

work; he/she also must begin to work him/herself. In his/her lifeworld, a child often confuses play and work. However, this does not mean he/she can ignore the injunction (mandate) to work.

Work and its inherent appeal to duty, as well as its formative value, have always interested educators. Pedagogues view work as one of the most fruitful ways of forming a child's emotional life, and of leading him/her to accept responsibility. The special value of work and assignments for a person is that they make a demand on his/her courage and perseverance to overcome obstacles. For this reason, it is understandable that what an educator says does not influence a child as much as what he/she does. As far as the pedagogical and, therefore, the didactical, is concerned, in the first instance, it is not specific skills and mastery which matter, but the appeal which observable reality directs to a person and to which he/she must respond in one way or another.

The way in which the learning activity of a child is intertwined with work and the assignment (appeal to duty) arising from it are of great importance to a teacher. Even though learning and working are not identical didactic concepts, a child learns while working. To understand the difference between learning and working, consider that learning is not always work, but it often is aimed at work. Learning, as such, deals with learning to know or be aware of something, while working as such, involves bringing something about, making something present, i.e., producing something. However, if a child learns when working, these differences are more closely intertwined. Both learning and working include effort, fatigue, and achievement. Because of this intertwining, every work activity can also include a learning activity without the work effort necessarily being directed to or aimed at learning.

As far as assignments are concerned, they assume that previously learned knowledge will be applied so the solutions to new problems can be found, and new knowledge can be mastered. In this context, work and assignments are ways of placing a child in concrete situations for him/her to have the opportunity to learn about practical aspects of the lifeworld; they are not necessarily aimed at his/her future vocation. As far as work or assignments are concerned, in this context, they are a means to an end, namely, to

give a child the opportunity to learn practical aspects of the lifeworld in concrete situations. They also provide him/her with the opportunity to construct a knowledge-structure out of the practical-concrete data which the lifeworld offers a child daily. This knowledge-structure is essentially abstract and even theoretical, but it contributes to elevating a child's insight into his/her own situations. Consequently, concrete and practical situations provide a child with greater mobility in life situations and that an adult can give a child assignments with the aim of realizing educative and teaching aims.

Just as with the other ground-forms, the assignment involves a child as an individual person, in the sense that it demands a certain achievement of him/her as a person. The assignment also has formative value in that it is always given in a serious situation, and because there is a level of achievement to be reached within a time limit. It is also a means of building a child's character.

When work and the resulting assignments appear in teaching, it is formative because a child is continually forced back to reality and, in this relationship to reality, a certain level of achievement is expected of him/her. The particular benefit which work, and assignment have in a teaching-educative situation is that they present concrete situations so that the demands made of a child are real and actual. Work and assignment involve the ground categories of perceiving, experiencing, and objectifying, and how they are actualized in the lifeworld of a child in his/her involvement in the world of work of the adult. In this involvement, he/she participates in this form of living and learns by doing so.

In the previous paragraphs, four didactic ground-forms are identified and briefly described. The forms of teaching of play, conversation, example, and assignment, as forms of living, make possible a child's spontaneous involvement with reality, but this involvement is characterized in such a way that learning occurs. Thus, these four forms of living qualify as didactic ground-forms.

The description of these four ground-forms is aimed at a clearer understanding of the ways a teacher can involve children in learning activities in a classroom. Because today we are so

overwhelmed by educational technology and technical teaching methods, a description of the didactic ground-forms can help reduce teaching activities to their essences and origins so that they can be understood in terms of the spontaneous lifeworld of a child. At this stage, it is seen that the a child's lifeworld reveals his/her spontaneous involvement with reality, and this implies an adult's spontaneous support and aid to him/her in this respect.

The description of the didactic ground-forms is a theoretical analysis of the origin and essences of the form of didactic activity. Granted, the didactic ground-forms give a particular flavor to a lesson situation, it also is true that the methods used in a lesson also give an emphasis to this form. The didactic ground-forms and their methodological possibilities have a specific relationship which is now investigated so that, at least, the guidelines derived from the theory can be interpreted for didactic practice.

### **3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIDACTIC GROUND-FORMS AND TEACHING METHODS**

When discussing the didactic ground-forms, it is repeatedly indicated that they are essentials of the human lifeworld. The didactic ground-forms stem from a person's involvement in everyday reality and are seen in the original experience of educating. They bypass school practices and views on methods. It is important to stress that the didactic ground-forms lead back earlier than a school situation in that school practice, which cannot disclose ground-forms for teaching, because the teaching situation in school is a second order, or derived structure. For this reason, there is a return to the lifeworld to disclose the ground-forms in it so that the second order school situation derived from it can be understood better. The task of describing the didactic ground-forms is not primarily to improve practice itself, but to better understand the practice of teaching in the school.

The didactic ground-forms in the original lifeworld of persons are not necessarily a matter of unlocking or disclosing reality. One uses these forms to try to realize the aims which go with them. Even so, the didactic ground-forms are important to a didactician because they provide the basis for understanding the ways which are or can

be followed for teaching in school. It is for this reason that the ground-forms refer directly to the question of methods (ways), and in this way, they build a bridge between the didactic categories and how teaching can make new aspects of life reality accessible to a child. In the original experience of educating, an adult uses forms of living (which later are described as didactic ground-forms) to bring a child to reality.

A summary of the above introductory remarks about didactic ground-forms and methodology indicates that the ground-forms have to do with the ways of actualizing teaching to attain the aims contained in them in a meaningful and true to life manner. Because this involves the realization of the didactic, the question of method or way is directly raised.

The question is whether each one of the ground-forms individually gives rise to introducing and using certain teaching methods (i.e., whether a certain method is coupled to a particular ground-form), and whether the ground-forms, as a totality, ground or underlie methodology.

To answer this question, it is wise to examine the original facts. Then, the methods and ground-forms are classified along side each other and, in the light of a teacher's knowledge of these two structures, he/she reaches a conclusion. Because the spontaneous activity of teaching derives its form from the four ground-forms of play, conversation, example, and assignment, they provide a possible ground plan for a general methodology which can be used in school to attain didactic aims. In their origin, the didactic ground-forms are forms of living, and thus offer a framework for the methods used in the classroom so that these methods will not be foreign to a child's experiences.

The ground-forms, as they appear in a person's life world, are closely related to the ways he/she is involved in life reality. This means that they represent ways of being involved in a reality which necessarily has pedagogical or even teaching significance. Play, conversation, example, and assignment, therefore, are not necessarily or obviously concerned with teaching, but they can become matters of teaching if an adult initiates an educative activity

with the direct aim of unlocking reality for a child. This means that, when ground-forms are actualized, contents are always involved. It is important to mention at this stage that, in addition to the relationship between the ground-forms and teaching methodology, there are other factors which can influence the form of a lesson, such as the way the learning contents are ordered (organized), the readiness of the child, his/her situation, etc. However, they cannot principally influence the relationship between the ground-forms and teaching methods and, therefore, they are put aside for the moment. What is important is that the nature of the contents gives a certain preference to a specific ground-form and can motivate using one or another method (or combination).

If one attempts to organize didactic ground-forms with certain teaching methods (more fully discussed below), the following classification provisionally clarifies the relationship between ground-forms and methods:

- **play:** free-activity, drilling, or practicing, experimenting, questioning and answering, demonstrating;
- **conversation:** questioning and answering, narrating, demonstrating, free-activity;
- **example:** experimenting, handbook (textbook), demonstrating, questioning and answering, drilling, or practicing;
- **assignment:** handbook (textbook), drilling, or practicing, experimenting, narrating, questioning and answering, demonstrating.

Thus, a certain method (such as narrating, or free-activity) does not refer only to a specific ground-form. In the practice of teaching, any ground-form can be the basis of any teaching method, or combination of methods in a specific situation where contents are exposed. Choosing a ground-form and a certain teaching method depends mostly on the nature of the contents, the readiness of a child, the learning aims the teacher hopes to achieve in a lesson, the time available, etc. This relationship is clarified when the most important and certainly the most conspicuous teaching methods are explained briefly.

### 3.1 Narrating

The method of narrating is certainly the most common in all teaching; it is in general use from preprimary teaching through the tertiary (college and university) levels. It is often described as a “monologue” to emphasize that a teacher initiates the activity, and a child is supposed to listen. The narrative method also is described as word painting, describing, explaining, verbally illustrating, and detailing which, perhaps, better state the possibilities of this method.

In practical teaching situations, the method of narrating easily moves to group activities. Group activities include dramatizing, fantasy playing, participating in competitive games, etc. and are used depending on the direction in which a teacher wants the situation to move or develop. Regarding the function of this method, its origin is in the conversational ground-form because language is so central to it. When a teacher uses this method, he/she speaks to children. In this sense, the so-called monologue can become a discussion. It is also true that narrating is not limited to conversation as a ground-form because giving assignments makes equal use of conversation. On the other hand, dramatization, as a method of teaching, is also not limited to this ground-form because it is easy for a teacher to change the ground-form; for example, by changing dramatization from discussion to play. [Note that the boundaries between the ground-forms are fluid—G.D.Y.]. This is often the case in teaching poetry, music, and sports. It also is possible for narration to change to another form in the same lesson. For example, when the theme of teaching is the narrative itself (as in a novel, a short story, or a ballad), the example, as a ground-form, will serve the teacher’s purpose effectively.

### **3.2 Questioning and answering**

In the early history of teaching, and certainly from the earliest of times, the method of questioning and answering has played an important role. The reason is that teachers have always been involved in helping children unravel and solve problems, in fostering clear and logical thinking, and in guiding them to formulate their ideas accurately. Although the questioning and answering method is prevalent in all teaching, it is not always



recognized that it makes demands of a teacher. However, it is one of the most common teaching methods, because it is so central to a normal dialogue between people.

In practice, this method is widely applied. Even in modern didactics, one encounters the questioning and answering method in computerized teaching, in learning and class discussions, in controlled discussions, etc. all of which are variations of the ground-form of conversation.

Because of its varied possibilities, this method also is suitable for use from the primary to the most advanced classes. Because of its suppleness and wide possibilities of application, this method is indispensable to teaching.

However, questioning and answering is not only limited to conversation as a ground-form. In computer assisted teaching, this method can easily become a variation of assignment. Depending on the nature of the contents, an example can be effectively introduced by means of the method of questioning and answering. In the practice of preprimary teaching, this method is very often implemented with the ground-form of play.

### **3.3 The textbook**

The textbook, reference book, or any other form of the written word is continually introduced in a functional relationship as a method during a teaching situation. It was previously thought that a textbook must be inserted between a teacher and a child, as a teaching aid to realize teaching aims. Today, the functional meaning of this method is emphasized, and is used to foster independent text study and analysis by a child. Therefore, the library, whatever its composition or scope, plays an important role in teaching when the textbook method is used.

If one closely examines the practice of teaching, and the way the textbook functions in it, assignment, as a ground-form, is the basis for using this method. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that, in exemplary teaching, especially in the natural sciences, the written text plays an important and meaningful role as a teaching method.

Practice shows that the example, as a ground-form, and the assignment often flow into each other. It is especially in the second phase of the exemplary method (where pupil and teacher work through an example together) that the textbook fulfills a particularly important function. For example, when a teacher is involved in handling examples of the climate zones of the world in geography, the textbook is indispensable.

To read from a textbook to the class does not mean that the textbook is introduced and used as a teaching method. The textbook method is aimed at most effectively introducing the written word as a means of realizing authentic learning by a child.

By way of summary, the textbook method functions particularly well with the ground-forms of assignment and example, and that it doesn't contribute to teaching cast in the ground-forms of play and conversation.

### **3.4 Free activity**

The most conspicuous use of free activity, as a method, is in preprimary and junior-primary teaching. At this level, free activity flows so naturally out of spontaneous play, as a didactic ground-form, that one can hardly overlook its importance.

The aims generally striven for in free activity can vary from free, creative expression, physical and, especially motor forming, to providing entertainment for the children. Because free activity has many creative possibilities, it is a very popular method for teaching subjects such as arts and crafts, modeling lessons, music, rhythmic movements, singing, etc. It offers both teacher and child the opportunity for spontaneous activity and free initiative.

Free activity is often realized by discussion in more advanced classes. In this context, one thinks of free discussion, where the aim is to provide a child with the opportunity to use language freely; this is especially important in second-language teaching. Because free activity can easily disturb classroom order, it makes special demands on a teacher's initiative and skill. To effectively use free activity in a lesson, the teaching aims must always be clearly stated

beforehand. In the higher classes, where teaching is more formally structured, and where teaching is based on assignment and example, free activity has a less important place.

### **3.5 Demonstrating**

The basis of any demonstration is that it offers a learner the opportunity to observe how someone else has planned and completed a certain task or project. As a method, it is as old as being human, and it is observable in the original experience of teaching. In modern times, especially from Pestalozzi's theory of direct observation, demonstrating has gained an important place in the methods for teaching all school subjects. In addition, the development of natural sciences and related technologies, which are reflected in the school curriculum, have made this method indispensable in many teaching situations.

Demonstrating, as a teaching method, has a uniquely important functional possibility for play, conversation, example, and assignment. Consequently, it is not possible to determine which one of these ground-forms underlies it. In practice, demonstrating can be recognized in each one of the ground-forms. In music teaching and sport training, demonstrating, imitating, and repeating are generally common; in these cases, the ground-form is play.

In other situations, a teacher literally shows a child a procedure and asks him/her to do the same thing, to teach him/her certain skills by carrying out certain assignments. Demonstrating is also especially relevant where skills in any practical aspect of teaching are the aim, e.g., in teaching art, in using a microscope in a natural science class, in a geomorphology lesson in geography, etc. It is quite clear that using examples in these situations is equally important. As a method, it cannot be coupled with one ground-form; even its origin cannot be found in a particular ground-form. In fact, the ground-forms jointly constitute the ways of actualizing this method in a didactic situation and, thus, each of the ground-forms possesses the possibility of demonstrating. The crux of the matter is that, in every case of demonstrating, a teacher must possess the necessary skills, continually assess its effectiveness, and continually practice all the skills associated with it.

### 3.6 Experimenting

Aristotle maintained that all scientific proof is provided by means of the inductive method. His reasoning led to the establishment and prominence of the experiment as a method. Apart from this formidable support, the idea of experimenting has gained even more support because of the conviction that it has exceptional validity if a child is given the opportunity to experience reality directly in a learning situation. If one includes the principle of discovery (heuristics), the interest in and application of experimenting, as a method in modern didactics, are quite understandable.

As far as the origin of experimenting is concerned, in relation to the didactic ground-forms, it is possible to relate it directly to the example. In fact, experimenting mainly involves the discovery of reality by means of a specific example to eventually arrive at a generally valid pronouncement concerning the phenomenon or object. For this reason, experimenting is especially prominent in such subjects as physics, biology, and geography. Apart from the example, as the basis for experimenting, it also can be identified in certain expressions of play and assignment. Good examples of this are in teaching art and music (play as ground-form) and agricultural education (assignment as ground-form). If technical apparatus is introduced from conversation, as a ground-form, in language teaching, it is possible to speak of the experimental method even in this kind of subject. One hesitates to indicate conversation as a ground-form, because implementing a technical apparatus refers much more to the exemplary approach than to conversational teaching.

### 3.7 Drill work (practice, exercise)

The mere fact that a child understands certain contents is no guarantee that his/her insight will be lasting. For this reason, a teacher uses the drill or practice method to try to ensure that a child's grasp of facts and skills become part of him/her, enabling him/her to apply insights and skills in the further course of the didactic situation, as well as in other similar circumstances or

problem situations. Ordinary, classroom teaching shows that the drill method can be the outcome of all four didactic ground-forms. In the preprimary and junior-primary school, drill or practice often takes the form of games (play). With older children, the example and assignment are more prominent. Most contemporary mathematics and science syllabi make use of the example, but sufficient drill work and exercises are provided for a specific theme to ensure the effective transfer of insights to related or succeeding themes. An experienced teacher knows that drill work and exercise very often manifest themselves as assignments which, in this respect, are a familiar aspect of a didactic situation. Here, one can think of memorizing the times tables, and practicing algorithms. The usefulness of drill work in the ground-forms of play, example, and especially assignment is even clear when the drill activities of an adult are viewed.

It is important to note that the ground-forms, as such, are not determined by the possible forms of ordering learning contents, but that the ground-forms do offer the way for possible variations in organizing contents. One thinks here of the chronological, symbiotic, and progressive ordering of contents. The implication is that the ground-forms are not a curtailment of a teacher's initiative. Each ground-form provides room for the forms of ordering learning contents, separately, and together. The forms of ordering contents are always a matter of didactic reasoning for the sake of reconstituting reality in formal situations. This means that ordering learning contents, as such, does not have a primary structure, but is meaningful in so far as it exposes contents in the second order structure of the school. Thus, the principles of ordering learning material cannot have a primary influence on the theory of the ground-forms, while the ground-forms, as the basis of a general methodology, create room for forms of ordering.

The way in which learning material is ordered for specific children in particular lesson situations, however, has an important influence, in that the organization of the content can accelerate a child's grasp of it. In this respect, ordering the learning material deserves the reader's interest.

#### 4. PRINCIPLES OF ORDERING (ORGANIZING, ARRANGING) LEARNING CONTENTS

Ordering contents is dealt with in Chapter 5, and in Chapter 7, which describes the lesson structure; therefore, here the aim is to briefly examine the principles in terms of which learning contents can be ordered, and the effect which a particular ordering has on a lesson. The principles dealt with, therefore, must serve only as examples because the topic is treated comprehensively at this stage.

No contents can function meaningfully in planning the aim of a lesson if they are not ordered meaningfully. As far as a child is concerned, unknown contents are hazy and nebulous. A teacher must try to create order in his/her attempt to guarantee that a child will have a lasting grasp of the contents. The value of ordering the contents is closely associated with the value of the contents.

If the theme of a lesson has a direct bearing on the natural surroundings of a child, a teacher must take the child's knowledge of his/her surroundings as his/her point of departure. He/she does this to formulate a problem and to order the contents in terms of directly experienced reality.

Where the contents are abstract or removed, a teacher will probably use different examples to identify as a problem, illustrate, and clarify the matter he/she is involved with. This implies that a teacher must understand that the problem of ordering contents is already present during his/her own initial involvement with the learning contents. Therefore, he/she must consciously consider the most effective, meaningful, and functional ways of ordering the contents in terms of the composition of the class he/she is to teach, as well as the learning aim, he/she intends the children to achieve during a lesson. It is on this basis that his/her entire presentation is planned.

When a teacher plans his/her lesson, the contents of the lesson are announced for him/her in the scheme of work (curriculum). As indicated elsewhere, the scheme of work is a reduction from the general curriculum which is compiled for a particular school or type of school. The theme which appears in the scheme of work is the

learning contents for a particular subject for a particular grade level. In the scheme of work, a complete series of themes is indicated with respect to a particular subject. Therefore, a teacher knows what the children already know about the contents, and where the relevant lesson contents will be later introduced. A teacher's first aim, therefore, is to integrate his/her own knowledge of the contents, teaching skills, experience, and knowledge of the children before him/her to design the most effective ways in which the contents can be meaningfully unlocked for each child. In penetrating the contents, a teacher searches for centers of gravity within the contents, key concepts, and even points of view which clearly indicate where possible points of access to the contents are, as well as where particular bottlenecks can arise for a child. In this penetration of the contents, a teacher is directed to allowing their essences to appear. Then, he/she can take up in a problem all these specific essences in the light a child's foreknowledge of them. In this way, a teacher can ensure that a child receives the full benefit of his/her preparation and planning.

These are the primary responsibilities concerning contents which a teacher must be able to account for. However, he/she must also take into consideration the children for whom the lesson is intended. His/her main aim is to clearly identify the most dependable and effective means of helping a child grasp the contents. Hence, he/she also orders the contents in such a way that a child can follow the line of thought which is carried through the design of the lesson.

If the contents are not ordered in terms of a child's possibilities, he/she easily wanders from the correct course for solving the problem. If the pupils examine and discover the essences of the contents with a teacher, an ordering of them is of great importance for providing a clearly defined course for a child's learning activities to follow. This is a fundamental pedagogic condition for a pupil to experience security regarding the contents.

At this stage, two aspects are identified which will influence a teacher's ordering contents. On the one hand, the children's readiness to understand and accept the contents is of exceptional importance; on the other hand, the nature and structure of the

subject from which the teaching theme is drawn will equally influence the ordering. Each subject has its own inherent order which a teacher must consider when preparing his/her lesson. This is a matter of particular importance in ensuring that a child will understand and grasp the meaning of the contents.

In terms of these aims, a teacher must establish whether the children can follow an abstract discourse or explanation. Further, he/she must establish whether they can proceed from the known to the unknown by means of a steep spiral, as it were, or whether they are only capable of following him/her along a smooth, level horizontal line of reasoning. These factors are of equal importance with respect to ordering the contents. It is in the light of these questions that a teacher schematizes the contents and seeks the most appropriate and effective didactic ground-forms, as well as the effective methods for introducing the contents in a lesson situation.

#### **4.1 Chronological ordering**

As its name indicates, this principle of ordering teaching contents is concerned with organizing them in terms of time. Various subjects or parts of subjects have a historical nature. This means that they reflect the course of history, and that they essentially have a time-orienting function and meaning. Many human activities, traditions, aspects of lifestyle, the economy, etc. are developed in time. The succession of these aspects represents the culmination of human history, e.g., Greek and Roman civilization, the Renaissance, Gothic architectural style, the emergence of the natural sciences, and the first voyages into space. There also are sequences within the different occurrences which are, e.g., political, economic, and social. The Middle Ages occurred before the Renaissance, the Portuguese Empire before the British Empire, steam locomotives before electric trains, etc. It is only logical that ordering these contents in teaching is according to the time they occurred. Understanding one period is often a precondition for understanding the next. For example, it is very difficult to understand the Reformation if one does not understand the situation of the Church during the Middle Ages, and the Renaissance.



When a teacher orders the learning contents according to the course of history, he/she is using the chronological principle of ordering. The value of the narrative teaching method is obvious in this form of ordering. A teacher who is a gripping storyteller can vitalize the contents for the children, whether the theme is the history of Richard the Lion Heart or the history of atomic theory.

## **4.2 Symbiotic ordering**

The concept “symbiotic” literally means to live together. Therefore, subjects with a symbiotic nature have their origin in life, as such (e.g., biology), but also includes subjects which have their origin in human society (e.g., economics). Symbiotic ordering, therefore, is inherent in those subjects which directly reflect the relationship between person and world, which means the relationship between persons and their surroundings (nature, persons, and fellow persons, etc.). The point of departure in symbiotic ordering is reality itself: the fountain, the manufacture of clothing, or the cultivation of agricultural products. Here the contents are ordered symbiotically, a teacher’s aim is to bring a child into direct contact with reality as far as this is possible. The idea is that a child must understand his/her existence in the surrounding world. Symbiotic ordering is not confined only to a single lesson, or series of lessons; it is equally valid in designing a curriculum. In this case, the curriculum is not designed in terms of several school subjects, but in terms of the nature of the contents as they appear in concrete reality.

Because the ordering occurs in terms of what is actual for a child, i.e., within the framework of reality as life reality, the concept of the “principle of actualization” also is applicable to this ordering. The idea behind this ordering possibly can be clearly expressed with the example of a teacher dealing with the theme of “types of leaves”. One possibility is to deal with this theme in class with prints and drawings or to take the children out of the classroom, refer them to various trees, and give each child the opportunity to pluck a leaf off, which he/she then studies later in greater detail. By its nature, the symbiotic principle refers to the second possibility.

## **4.3 Linear ordering**

A teacher often treats the contents analytically by strictly reducing them to their essences in order, for example, to explain causality by means of several sequential facts. In this manner, one fact leads to the next as a result or a cause. The facts pertaining to cause-effect are dealt with in a consecutive or linear way. One fact is not more or less important than another, they are all on the same level of importance to explain the phenomenon.

Linear ordering of learning contents is arranging them in a consecutive, related sequence of facts, from the first to the last, by means of which a certain structure, experiment, or military battle, e.g., forms a complete whole. It is only logical that the integration of consecutive facts into a meaningful whole is an important final phase in teaching for both teacher and child, because both must create a synthesis out of the analysis.

The linear form of ordering is clearly correlated with example as ground-form. An example serves as the point of departure to isolate or generalize the specific characteristics of an object or phenomenon. We see this clearly in botany. In other school subjects, the experiment and related teaching methods are equally dependent on linear ordering. Here, the aim is to systematize the sequence of facts clearly and unambiguously.

The crux of this approach is that the features, characteristics, preconditions, etc. which describe a particular matter in its essences eventually are united or integrated into a totality-image. What is said here regarding the correlation between the linear form of ordering and example, as a ground-form, also holds for play, as a ground-form and, particularly, with experimenting which, as a method, is rooted in play. Where there is experimenting, a teacher and pupil are going to work analytically. The same can also be said about the didactic ground-forms of assignment and conversation, where contents also are naturally broken up and then can be integrated into a totality-image. The deduction is that the linear way of ordering does not necessarily imply only one of the didactic ground-forms for unlocking the contents.

#### **4.4 Divergent ordering**

In addition to the symbiotic, chronological, and linear forms of ordering, the divergent form is differentiated. Divergent ordering means that a teacher gives a systematic account of a topic by taking his/her point of departure from a certain center, which then is expanded from all sides to include various areas of knowledge related to the theme. By ordering a theme in this way, it then is possible to arrive at other themes which can be integrated with it.

This ordering is especially important in project teaching, where contents usually are constructed around a specific theme. An example is a project such as “providing water for a city”. Apart from such aspects as sources of water, geomorphology, water requirements for the economy, water pollution, technical problems in providing water, water purification, etc., the theme expands to include other themes such as the industrial development of the city, preparing personnel for the industries, the question of housing, the provision of other services, etc.

Divergent ordering makes it possible to move naturally from one theme to another, provided they are contextually related. As a form of ordering learning contents, its main aim is to remove the boundaries between the contents. Perhaps the point of departure for this ordering is the notion that a child, as a totality, can experience the surrounding cultural and material world as a unity. In this respect, the principle of integration, included in divergent ordering, tries to maintain the unity of reality.

#### **4.5 Spiral ordering**

The final form of ordering considered is spiral ordering. This ordering is used especially when a teacher aims at working concentrically, i.e., when he/she leads a child from a general and uniform understanding of a theme to a more complex level. Thus, his/her point of departure is the simplest aspect of a theme or problem in terms of which he/she then leads a child to a mastery of its more involved and complex structures.

As noted above, spiral ordering and the concentric principle of teaching are closely related. Concentric teaching presumes that a

child is not capable of fully understanding all the aspects of a theme at a certain age. Hence, the idea is to expose a child repeatedly to certain aspects of, for example, history or mathematics, in accordance with his/her level of readiness. In this way, a teacher tries to ensure that the degree of complexity of the contents is spread over several years as the child becomes affectively and intellectually ready to deal with greater complexities.

In practice, spiral ordering normally culminates in grouping children according to age, and this is the basis of the learning readiness of the children in a particular group or grade. To repeat an example, which is used from time to time in this text, the spiral ordering of the theme “climatology” could be the following: because the climatological factors of location and geomorphology have such an elementary relationship in equatorial climatic regions, a teacher will deal with this topic first. In terms of the relationship between these factors, he/she will then consecutively deal with the savannah region, the warm deserts, the warm east coast regions and eventually the Mediterranean region. The reason is that the interplay of factors producing, e.g., the winter rainfall region is much more complex than that of those producing the equatorial climatic region.

The principles of ordering contents briefly discussed are by no means exhaustive or the only ones. They are selected only because they are generally familiar to everyday teaching. However, it is the primary task of subject didactics to describe the principles of ordering contents in accordance with the nature of a specific subject, and to indicate the various ordering possibilities for themes within that subject.

At this stage, it is important to emphasize that the way the contents are ordered also gives a lesson a certain flavor or shape. For example, where chronological ordering is used, the sequence of the contents is presented in accordance with the time in which they occurred. This is different from a spiral ordered lesson, where a teacher proceeds from the easy to the more complex, and where the original theme is related to relevant ones. The symbiotic form is perhaps the most conspicuous, in the sense that it involves a child directly with reality.

The conclusion so far is that the didactic ground-forms, the specific methods used to present contents, as well as the ways in which the contents are ordered, all significantly determine the form of a lesson.

A final aspect which influences the form of a lesson is the methodological principles used in teaching. By methodological principles is meant the inductive and deductive representation of contents. Since the relationships among the didactic ground-forms, teaching methods, ways of ordering the learning contents, and the methodological principles influence the form of a lesson, a brief description of the methodological principles now is helpful.

## **5. METHODOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES**

The inductive and deductive methods are dealt with in the didactic literature. Because they have fundamental significance in a lesson situation, it is more accurate to speak of them as methodological principles or approaches. In normal teaching, there is often an interchange in using the principles of induction or deduction in the same lesson. Therefore, it is quite correct to speak of an inductive-deductive or deductive-inductive approach in the same lesson.

### **5.1 The inductive principle**

Socrates' question-method is probably the origin of the inductive approach. Although he made use of other methodological principles, the method he primarily used was inductive in nature. Comenius later revived this idea by initiating the ordering of contents according to the principle "from the known to the unknown", because the inductive method proceeds from the parts to the whole. The concept "synthesis" is closely related to the inductive approach. As a methodological principle, understandably, it has many possibilities for teaching.

The best known of these possibilities are those in which the results of an occurrence are examined to establish their causes. In these cases, the point of departure is the known, or directly present, or concretely observed; from here, one proceeds to the unknown, or

abstract. Because the procedure is to move from the known to the unknown, it also is called the principle of discovery. The advantages of this approach are self-evident. Because inductive teaching follows a step-by-step approach, it is a safe method of discovery for a child. It also offers an opportunity to clearly understand different points of view and, this, in turn, makes it possible to apply new knowledge and insight accurately.

Furthermore, this principle makes certain demands of a child, especially regarding his/her observation and judgment. In this sense, the idea of induction rests on the responsibility of a child in the learning situation. Discovery, which is so conspicuous in learning, is effectively reflected in the discovery so basic to the inductive approach. Certain subjects, such as elementary science, grammar, and even arithmetic, can be understood effectively by means of the inductive approach. This is an important approach, especially for younger children, because the exploration is carried out or directed by a child's spontaneous-affective attunement or approach to the surrounding reality. A child's practical-active form of living is clearly reflected in the quality of generalization, which is so characteristic of the inductive approach.

However, there are certain disadvantages to this approach. In the first place, it has a slow tempo. Also, this approach relies on a child's observation and his/her ability to follow a teacher's analysis. A child must also be capable of placing the identified essence in a synthesis, in the sense that he/she must eventually understand the generalization. The inductive principle also relies on a teacher's exceptional skill during his/her preparation, as well as his/her handling of the contents in the class. This is especially true as far as the eventual integration of the new contents with a child's prior knowledge is concerned.

## **5.2 The deductive principle**

Aristotle was probably the first major exponent of the deductive approach. Long after induction had been accepted as a principle in scientific thinking, deduction was still evident in teaching.

As with the inductive, various concepts are also associated with the deductive principle. Deduction is based on a syllogism, i.e., a statement is made, a comparison is made, and a conclusion is reached.

The analysis associated with this approach is very important because its point of departure is a general rule or a whole. The analysis is then directed at identifying the particulars or parts before assembling them in a synthesis. In contrast to the inductive approach, the deductive approach has its origin in a generalization (rule or law) in terms of which the particulars are systematized to prove the validity of the generalization.

The most important advantage of the deductive principle for teaching is that it makes an accelerated teaching tempo possible. A child does not discover the answer; it is given to him/her, and his/her task is to prove the validity of the answer by analysis. Consequently, the deductive approach is more effective for more advanced children.

Disadvantages of the deductive approach include the following: as far as a child is concerned, it is generally a more rigid approach than the inductive. The generalization and analysis which must be made are not necessarily part of a child's horizon of knowledge or a part of his/her previous experiences. If a child does not clearly understand the general law or rule which is taken as the point of departure for learning, this can easily give rise to memorization, learning without insight, or even faulty conclusions. It is also noteworthy that the character of discovery, so prominent in the inductive approach, is entirely absent in the deductive principle.

Because the inductive and deductive principles function in particular ways in unlocking the contents, a teacher must carefully consider the use of these methodological principles in designing each lesson. Since the nature of the learning contents, the readiness of the child, the teaching conditions, the available teaching and learning aids, the time available, etc. are all factors which influence teaching, a teacher's choice of one of the two, or a combination of the two methodological principles is of particular importance. The

correctness of his/her choice will depend on his/her didactic insights.

The discussion of the forms of teaching presented in this chapter emanate from the forms of living of persons in the lifeworld which have didactic meaning in the original experience of educating. The ground-forms distinguished (play, conversation, example, and assignment) are forms of teaching or forms in which teaching can be realized because parents use them to direct their child's spontaneous going out to reality. It is important for a teacher to take note of this so that, at least, he/she can explain the form of his/her practice and, in addition, can account for (justify) his/her practice, because teaching in a second order situation (school) does not necessarily or generally proceed spontaneously. Hence, a teacher must take responsibility for consciously and purposefully creating a didactic situation, as well as for its good course and results.

Aside from the didactic ground-forms, the teaching methods used also color the form of the lesson. It is indicated that any ground-form in terms of any general method or combination of methods can serve as the foundation of a particular lesson situation. Because contents always arise directly in a didactic situation, the way the contents are ordered is also investigated, and it is concluded that the choice of a particular ordering is the result of a teacher's reflection on the unique nature of the subject and the readiness of the child for whom the teaching is intended.

In addition, it is indicated that the ordering influences the form of a lesson in such a way that the course of unlocking the contents proceeds differently with different orderings of the contents. Apart from ordering the contents, the point of departure in presenting the contents is important, in the sense of the point from which a teacher present them. In other words, the principle or approach regarding this is investigated because the approach taken also gives a particular course and form to a lesson. Consequently, the inductive and deductive principles or approaches are discussed successively.

Various theoretical aspects of teaching are discussed in the different chapters: the relationship between didactics (teaching) and



pedagogics (educating) (Chapter 2), didactic theory, as such, (Chapter 3), and the form of teaching (Chapter 4). In each of these discussions it is repeatedly argued that contents are an aspect or constituent of didactic activities in both the spontaneous [family] and formal [school] teaching situations. For the further orientation of the reader, now the focus is on a full description and explication of learning contents as a didactic matter. This is the theme of the next chapter.