

CHAPTER IV• CHILD BECOMING

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1. INTRODUCTORY ORIENTATION

In chapters II and III, there is frequent reference to the concept “becoming”. Further, it is indicated that learning and becoming are equally primordial structures or potentialities of the psychic life of a child-in-educating. As such, they are jointly actualized. It is emphasized that a child’s becoming is primarily concerned with his/her becoming a proper adult. Becoming adult is gradually realized in parallel with learning, and it cannot occur unless he/she learns; as he/she learns, he/she becomes adult. Conversely, becoming is entwined with learning, in the sense that, as a child becomes or changes, he/she learns.

Indeed, a child has his/her own role in actualizing the events of learning and becoming. That is, he/she him/herself learns and becomes and, unlike a plant or an animal, he/she is not left to external and internal factors determining his/her learning and becoming. The question is *how* this participation occurs; *how* he/she participates in the events of becoming and learning?

In chapter III, detailed attention is given to how a child participates in his/her learning, and later in the present chapter, attention is given to the ways he/she participates in his/her own becoming.

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Also indicated is the role of educating and teaching in actualizing learning and becoming in a child's psychic life. He/she cannot learn and become adequately on his/her own but must be accompanied in these events by an adult. At the same time, how important this accompanying is depends on a child him/herself deciding to learn and become adult.

The aim of this chapter is to penetrate, reflect on, and describe the essences of child becoming, as a realization of his/her psychic life-in-educating. While pursuing this aim, it is kept in mind that the event of becoming is a unitary event which always involves learning. Also important in this becoming is his/her own role, as well as that of adults. Primarily, in actualizing his/her becoming and learning, a child is on his/her way to proper adulthood. Here, it is stressed that we are alluding to the aim of educating, i.e., proper adulthood. Thus, educating and educative teaching are aimed at *proper adulthood*. This means that, in realizing his/her becoming, he/she must be accompanied by adults in his/her striving to elevate his/her level of becoming. Thus, actualizing becoming includes a *continual changing* in which he/she participates under the accompaniment of adults, in the direction of a betterment or elevation in the level of living on which he/she lives at any given time. Of the question how such adulthood is attained and what is meant by it, there is reference to various yardsticks or criteria as disclosed by fundamental pedagogics (See the works of Landman and colleagues). Becoming adult is primarily a normative matter in that certain norms are held before him/her by adults to bring him/her up (educate him/her) in a certain direction. Thus, this involves a confrontation with values, or value-preferences presented and exemplified to a child by the adults. Then, these norms must be realized by a child him/herself, and gradually his/her becoming adult takes form. Examples of these values, or value-preferences, which also are yardsticks, or criteria for becoming adult are: responsibility, moral independence, morality, propriety, and, stated generally, a way of living worthy of an adult human being. These criteria are not considered because they are the concern of the area of fundamental pedagogics.

Rather, in psychopedagogics, the question is *how*, i.e., in what *way* or *ways* this educative aim of adulthood is realized. More particularly, concerning the learning and becoming of a child, the question is how a child actualizes his/her own learning and becoming in his/her being-on-the-way-to-adulthood. In other words, what is a child's own role, and how is it realized in the event known as becoming adult. It also is asked what a child's role is in making his/her own appropriating these norms by giving meaning to them, and to an adult's role in accompanying him/her in this event.

The core question is what becoming means, when seen as becoming adult, how the role of a child appears during its course, and what the task of educating (which necessarily includes teaching) ought to be to offer him/her the maximum support to adequately become adult.

In various contributions in psychology and, more specifically, in developmental psychology, much is written about the development of a child. There is even mention of the development of a child to adulthood. At the same time, there is consideration of the development of plants and animals, and even reference to adult plants and animals. Thus, as far as a child's becoming adult is concerned, clarity must be acquired regarding the preference given to the concept "becoming" instead of to "development".

Thus, in what follows, attention is first given to a developmental psychology perspective. Thus, the aim is to investigate examples of the standpoints of some developmental psychologists regarding a child's development. The acceptability of the concept development and, more specifically, the various standpoints of developmental psychology about a child becoming adult, now viewed as a child-in-educating, deserve closer attention. The aim is not to give a complete picture of developmental psychology, but to only consider a few familiar examples of some important exponents, with an eye to the implementation-value of these standpoints, now viewed in terms of their usefulness regarding the actualization of the psychic life of a child-in-educating.

In the following sections, there are brief considerations of digressions from child becoming, as described thus far, and are merely sketched via encyclopedic examples of developmental psychology, with the aim of later evaluating them psychopedagogically. After this, in the third part of this chapter, there is a return to child becoming, as an event of actualizing the psychic life of a child-in-educating. Toward the end of the chapter, a summarizing synthesis is arrived at concerning the contrasts between development (and with that, developmental psychology), and child becoming, as seen from a psychopedagogical perspective.

2. A CHILD AS A CHANGING BEING: SOME DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

2.1 The concept “development”

The concept development is very well known in the everyday idiom. Thus, e.g., there is general talk of the physical, psychic, spiritual, intellectual, emotional, social, as well as personality “development” of a child. These variants of the concept of development arise from the natural sciences and, thus, “development” is a biological concept which is incorrectly used for psychic, as well as spiritual events which are actualized in and by a child. Even so, the concept has been so driven home that one area of psychology is known as developmental or child psychology. The purpose of this branch of psychology is to study and describe the development of a child.

The question is what is meant by development? Essentially, it means growth and, thus, biological growth. This growth is seen as a physical, psychic, or spiritual process. Additionally, it occurs quantitatively, i.e., in terms of changes in growing up, in physical growth, or the size of a child, as a physical being, or it can be seen in terms of psychic processes, such as intellectual development, by which it is meant that a child’s intelligence, also known as an I.Q., will grow and develop to a certain age, after which it can remain constant.

In addition, this concept of development points to maturation, which also means a biological growth process. The concept “maturation” is also well-known in teaching and, more particularly, in terms of the familiar notion of school maturity, which means that a child grows biologically until he/she is mature enough to go to school. For example, various functions are differentiated which, alone or in combination, must undergo a process of growth to reach a level of maturity by which a child then be taught formally. Examples are motor or kinesthetic, physical, intellectual, social, visual maturity by which is meant that he/she is physically mature enough to perceive acoustically, which means he/she can learn effectively.

Two good examples of exponents who have experimentally studied the quantitative development of a child, now viewed as maturation, or growth, or development are Charlotte Buhler and Arnold Gesell, both well-known child psychologists. At the same time, it is noted that they have mainly viewed a child as consisting of processes of maturation, by which they explain the processes of learning, play, and development, or maturation.

This development or maturation concept dates to Darwin, the famous evolutionist, i.e., it is a product of evolution. This biological approach is expanded further in psychology, specifically in the psychology of learning of E. L. Thorndike, known for his animal studies, Wolfgang Kohler, with his ape studies, Karl Buhler, as a child psychologist and, in the early years, by the American animal psychologist, Harlow, who is highly honored for directly applying monkey behavior to a mother-child relationship, now viewed as social development. For Harlow, this study of animal behavior is seen by some as a child psychology.

Known in teaching circles, Jean Jacques Rousseau is a great advocate for natural development. In his famous “Emile”, he holds the position that the natural development of a child is so important that he/she must even be protected against the influences of the environment or society, so he/she can grow as Nature has meant he/she grow. Rousseau introduced the well-known standpoint that optimal conditions for growth must be created so a child’s growth and development are promoted such

that his/her natural characteristics unfold optimally. J. B. Watson is added to this framework; he is the father of behaviorism, which has especially emphasized the processes of physical and neurological growth. Also, Pavlov is mentioned as the advocate and creator of the learning theory of classical conditioning. In terms of biological growth and development, Pavlov, who is a physiologist, from his conditioning experiments with dogs, emphasizes that a person's growth and development can be conditioned by external stimuli, whose development is influenced in this way. In contrast to Rousseau, who believes Nature is exclusively responsible for the physical growth and development of a child, if optimal conditions for growth are provided, Watson, the behaviorist, and especially Pavlov, believe this natural development of a child can be stimulated and conditioned to modify it from the outside. Both cases are concerned with a natural process of growth in which the child him/herself, as well as educating, has no essential role.

In closing this section on the concept of development, the famous French-Swiss child psychologist, Jean Piaget is mentioned, whose many books have been published on various aspects of child development. Although Piaget, as is shown below, works experimentally with children, he borrows concepts and ideas especially from biology, and, by analogy, he uses them to explain the development of a child's psychological growth processes. For example, he compares the processes of assimilation and accommodation in his description of the development of intelligence to the evolution of such processes in the amoeba. Piaget's standpoints are returned to later.

For the time being, these comments on the concept of development in its different dimensions is sufficient. Toward the end of the chapter, this concept is returned to with reference to its unacceptability, as viewed in contrast to the concept "becoming".

2.2 Determinants of development

2.2.1 *The theory of Nativism*

This is one of the earliest theories of psychological development, and it takes the one-sided standpoint that development is determined exclusively by inborn characteristics, thus, by hereditary influences.

2.2.2 Theory of Empiricism

This theory is in exact opposition of Nativism, claiming that psychological development is determined solely by environmental factors.

2.2.3 The convergence theory of W. Stern

As far as is known, Stern's convergence theory is the first modern theory of developmental psychology, or psychological development, and by 1914, he asserts that it is altogether wrong to try to determine whether it is hereditary or environmental factors which have the greatest influence on psychic development. Thus, Stern has the view (a point of view which today is still accepted in many circles) that both hereditary and environment have an influence on the overall development of a child. The question of which has the greater influence is not of importance to him.

Also, he asserts it is meaningless to try to determine this. It is important to him that both factors have a joint role in a child's development. It is emphasized that the influence of hereditary and environmental factors both are seen as defining or determining development. There is also the mention of hereditary and environmental mechanism, which must be seen in a causal context as defining or determining a child's psychological development.

There is still no clarity today as to which of these series of factors has the predominant influence on this development.

Furthermore, in section 2.4, we return to some exponents who today express their views on the influence of one or both these factors.

2.2.4 Characteristics of development

Following De Wet and Van Zyl, in their Introduction to Educational Psychology, the following characteristics of development are mentioned:

- Development occurs through the interaction of heredity and environment.
- Development occurs gradually and continuously rather than in leaps.
- Development follows a definite pattern.
- Certain features in the beginning develop faster than others.
- Most characteristics of development correlate with each other.
- The relative tempo of development remains constant.
- Development is a process of differentiation and integration.
- In development, there are individual differences among children resulting from hereditary and environmental factors.
- Development and decline occur simultaneously.
- Development follows certain predictable patterns.

These remarks on the determinants of development are sufficient at this stage. Further on in this chapter, an evaluation of this point of view is made when development as such, is contrasted with the events we call becoming.

2.3 Phases of development

Developmental psychology refers to developmental stages, or phases. This means that, from birth to adulthood, the life of a child is divided into specific life phases or periods. These phase classifications differ from author to author, especially with respect to the names and boundaries of such phases. Despite the problems with such classifications, most authors still make use of some sort of phase classification since they have practical value.

The value of such phase classifications is that, in each phase, a child exhibits certain typical characteristics. These characteristics can even be predicted for a phase.

Also, the bases for these phase classifications arise largely from a child as a growing biological organism, where his/her growth or

maturation is manifested by a child tending to exhibit certain typical characteristics in each phase, e.g., a toddler will exhibit certain typical characteristics, such as certain ways of playing, stubbornness, resistance, etc. Another typical example, often referred to, is the age of puberty, where girls, on the one hand, and boys, on the other, exhibit certain typical characteristics. These characteristics can be physical, which are related to physical and bodily growth, as well as the sexual development of a pubescent, while there also are developing psychic characteristics, such as the critical attitude of a pubescent, unstable emotions, where those in puberty sometimes are moody and sometimes more introspective, etc.

For convenience, the following phases are useful, from a practical psychopedagogical point of view:

2.3.1 *The infant phase*, also known as the suckling phase, from birth to the end of the first year.

2.3.2 *The toddler phase*, which includes the period from approximately the beginning of the second year to and with the end of two and a half years.

2.3.3 *The preprimary school phase*, usually considered as beginning from three to approximately five and a half or six years.

2.3.4 *The phase of a primary school child*, from about six or six and a half years to twelve or thirteen years. This phase also can be divided into a junior group, consisting of a school beginner up to and including Standard I, and a senior group consisting of Standard II up to and including Standard V. Today, Standard V is also being classified as part of high school for practical purposes.

2.3.5 *The secondary school or puberty phase* from thirteen to seventeen years.

2.3.6 *Adolescence*, a period from seventeen to about twenty-one.

(These latter two phases are often classified as adolescence).

These phases and their advantages and disadvantages are not discussed here. In this regard, it is only mentioned that developmental psychology wants to indicate with these phase classifications that, at certain ages, a child exhibits typical physical as well as psychological characteristics. It is even more important to point out that there is a “causal” relationship between physical and psychic characteristics. By this is meant that, when physical characteristics occur in a phase because of growth or maturation, certain psychic characteristics parallel them. Thus, specific physical characteristics do, in fact, give rise to a child exhibiting a psychic behavioral pattern or patterns. One example is when characteristics of puberty are present: when a child exhibits certain bodily, physical, or sexual characteristics resulting from biological growth, a consequence is that he/she also will tend to exhibit a certain behavioral pattern or patterns, such as being moody, critical, or in conflict with parental norms, etc. These statements suffice, and later there is a critical analysis of some phase classifications and their underlying perspectives.

2.4 Developmental psychological views

2.4.1 *Psychoanalytical views:*

The intention is not to discuss the views of psychoanalysis fully. On the contrary, it is only intended to mention the Freudian position with respect to the development of a child. It also is realized that these psychoanalytic views are very specific views which are not widely accepted. Nevertheless, it is important to note what has been expressed about psychic development by a series of leading exponents.

When Freud expresses himself about psychic development, he means the development of the organization of the libido which, on the one hand, means the development of energy, as crystallized from a child’s biological growth and, on the other, it means the development of a sensuality, also known as feelings of desire. Freud’s well-known pleasure principle is in the foreground, and he sees child development, particularly in its early stages, as a development of feelings of lust or sensual pleasures. The intention is not to fully discuss these stages

indicated by Freud. He distinguishes the following stages in the development of the organization of a child's libido:

* The oral phase.

Freud means by this phase that, during a suckling's feeding, he/she, by means of the sucking instinct, with his/her lips and tongue, finds him/herself in a sensual phase of oral or mouth contact. This oral phase occurs during the suckling years and is characterized by a feeling of sensual desire which he/she experiences through exercising the instinct to suck and taste.

** The phase of erotic skin. This phase progresses in connection with the oral phase, although Freud says skin contact now comes into the foreground. Here, a suckling reveals a need for contact where, in the form of a feeling of desire, he/she wants to have physical contact with his/her mother through skin contact.

* The anal erotic phase.

According to Freud, a child's second year is characterized by an organization of the Libido focused on the mucous membrane of the anus. Thus, these young infants experience bowel movement, as well as holding it in. It is also claimed that, while an infant experiences his/her anality as a feeling of desire and, at the same time, there are periods of aggressiveness in which the feeling of desire can take the form of rebellion and stubbornness, as well as destructiveness and aggression.

* The genital or gender phase.

According to Freud, sensuous pleasure stimuli are maximized between the fourth and fifth years. This sensuality is directed at parents, caregivers, older siblings, etc. During this phase, a toddler discovers his/her genitals and again seeks lustful satisfaction in terms of sexual curiosity. Gender differences now come to the fore and have a major role.

* The Oedipal phase.

During this phase, which occurs between about four and five years, a son mainly seeks his mother, while a daughter seeks her father. Freud also argues that these opposite oedipal tendencies are even characterized by a desire for sexual intercourse.

Typically, however, there is jealousy, where a son is very jealous of his father and, conversely, a daughter of her mother. It also is possible that an oedipal complex may occur in this phase, as well as in later ones. This means that a sexual bond between son and mother and between daughter and father can appear to such an extent that it can lead to behavioral problems.

**** The phase of being affectively bonded.**

According to Freud, this affective bonding is a characteristic which

appears as a phase arising from the oedipal phase, i.e., a child's striving for contact, via touching, with father or mother. Here touching means physical as well as psychological or affective touching. With this contact, or touching phase there is an emphasis on desire.

With this, Freud means a need to satisfy sensuality, as well as satisfaction from contact and, therefore, it also is known as a need for contact. In summary, with this development of child sensuality, i.e., with the various cravings to satisfy desires which a child reveals, such as the oral,

erotic skin, the anal, the genital as well as the oedipal desire, satisfactions of sensuality, these also are accompanied by a need

for contact. This means that the satisfaction of sensuality also is

related to a striving for contact, which is not purely and only a satisfaction of his/her own desires.

*** The latency period.**

Freud shows that, above the age of six, these libido expressions and feelings infrequently come to the fore, i.e., now a child is in a phase of being closed or turned inward. According to Freud, in this phase, different fantasies or imaginations can occur, possibly even fantasies of nakedness, in which older boys or girls, and even adults, can play a role. This also would mean a phase of sexual games which occur in a child. Freud says even masturbation or infantile sexuality may occur during this phase. The fantasies also are colored with questions about the secret of birth, e.g., where do babies come from?

It appears that Freud and, thus, psychoanalysis, contributed little to the next phase, which extends from five to eight, or even to ten years. In the next section, it is pointed out that, especially Charlotte Buhler has specific views of this phase.

** The phase of Ego-discovery.*

Freud divides human personality into three structures, i.e., the Id, the Ego, and the Super-Ego. Without going into detail, the Id represents the primal organization of energy, the Ego represents the I, which must master or control the Id, or primitive cravings, lusts or libido-organizations, and the Super-Ego represents the norms and values arising from an identification with the parents. Thus, the Ego or I, in “consultation” with the Super-Ego regarding the normative, must then restrain the Id.

Following Freud, the Ego or the I is discovered, beginning with the tenth or eleventh year or even puberty, which means it can occur two or three years later. With respect to its libido- or energy-organization, the Ego needs a surplus of energy, because it is caught between the demands of the Id (which presents the cravings or primitive desires) and of the Super-Ego, with respect to which it must be able to choose and act. The Super-Ego which, in some sense, means “educating”, can help the Ego exercise control over the Id.

For now, this very brief exposition of the personality structure postulated by Freud suffices.

It is sufficient to point out that the discovery or development of the Ego (the I) is so important in psychological development that he also speaks of Ego-strength, as well as -weakness. This relates to his theory of neurosis which is not considered. What is mentioned is that, with the onset of a neurosis, there is a collapse of the Ego because it then succumbs to the demands of the Id, when the Super-Ego places these demands too high, or when the Ego is not able to carry them out. In this case, the Ego collapses, and therapeutic efforts must be made to increase the strength of the Ego.

A second reason it is necessary to address this structure of Freud, is his reference to *identification* and to *regression*. With respect to identification, as far as is known, Freud deserves the honor of being the first person to use it. This term is widely used today, even in the modern pedagogical literature, where it means a child identifying with the norms of an adult on his/her own initiative, i.e., intentionally.

Even today, educating through identification is discussed widely, by which is meant that a child, on his/her own initiative, identifies him/herself with educating or exemplifying, also normative exemplifying by an adult. Also, educating occurs, or can occur without an adult intending it. That educating, and, thus, becoming adult, can be realized by way of identification cannot be denied, and should be emphasized. At the same time, one should be aware that by identification, Freud does not mean educating. As previously noted, to Freud, identification means that the Ego identifies itself with the Super-Ego, in so far as the Super-Ego is the provider of the normative, or sometimes it is called the provider of conscience, or even representing conscience.

As far as psychic development, but also becoming, is concerned, it is accepted that identification is an important event which must be actualized to promote a child's becoming adult. However, identification is seen as an event which is realized on a child's own initiative, but now within the reality of educating, i.e., within a parent-child or adult-child relationship. Conversely, if a child identifies with norms of a downward trend, also "negative" norms, educating would not be realized, and a child's becoming would be skewed.

Also, the concept *regression* is referred to. By regression, Freud means a reversal or relapse could occur in a child's psychic development. So, e.g., for whatever reason, a child may relapse from a phase (e.g., the Ego-discovery, or even the latency phase) to one of the earlier stages (e.g., the genital or even the anal phase). This means there can be a temporary relapse such as a return to poor personal hygiene, despite age (e.g., eight to ten years). Nor can it be denied that this does occur in practice, but

not as mechanistically as Freud interprets it. Also, Freud's well-known oedipal complex can occur in a child's life and may also represent a regression or relapse. Regarding the *period of puberty*, details are not elaborated on here because other experts, such as Freud, and including Charlotte Buhler, Stern, Spranger, Langeveld, are recognized as experts of this period of life.

The phases: phases are mentioned only to serve as an example of Freud's psychoanalytic views on the development of a child. Indeed, the period of puberty is discussed in detail elsewhere, especially when viewed as the time for completing high school and, more specifically, with reference to a child's learning and becoming.

2.4.2 The contribution of Charlotte Buhler:

Charlotte Buhler is known as one of the most famous child psychologists in the history of the field. It also should be recognized that she made an enormous contribution to child psychology. See her world-renowned book, "From birth to maturity", which first appeared in 1935, and has been reprinted many times.

Charlotte Buhler had several co-workers, only two of which are mentioned, i.e., Dr. Lotte Danzinger and Hildegard Hetzer. She started her work in Vienna, Austria, and continued it later at the University of Southern California in the United States of America.

It is not the intention, nor is it possible to list all the contributions of her and her co-workers, and a few words suffice: she, like Piaget, is known for carefully observed children at different ages from birth and has made notes regarding their behavior. Her outstanding child psychology does not qualify as pedagogics, or even psychopedagogics. At the same time, she made valuable observations which, within an educative relationship, require attention for re-appreciation, and re-evaluation. However, there is a danger in a pure application of her observations, and Piaget's to an educative relationship.

Charlotte Buhler's observations range from notes regarding a child's grasping movements in the first year of development,

where she indicates that, in the first year, a child already shows a desire to deal with objects. In other words, a relationship between a child and objects already exists in the first year of life. She points out the importance of language and speech in the second year, as well as a tendency to make contact, or, as she mentions, a child's social exploration. The important place of language and speech is returned to when the contributions of M. J. Langeveld are considered. As she expresses it, the years between five and eight occupy a very important place in a child's fantasy development. She emphasizes the value of the effective handling of and involvement with work material. This means developing a work-consciousness, which then leads to an entirely new relationship with the world, and she emphasizes the value of materials such as blocks for developing creativity, and a feeling of being creative in a young child. Her work with Hildegard Hetzer is well known in their design of developmental tests based on these work materials, e.g., their tower building tests. Buhler is one of the first to point out that thought is already present in a very young child. She argues that seeing the relationship between objects signifies the beginning of thinking. The development of a child's observational abilities means he/she also can detach him/herself from other subjects, i.e., other children and, thus, can think about the world in which he/she finds him/herself. This is how the world becomes structured, and, in a phenomenological sense, he/she begins designing a world.

Another important contribution is her views on the so-called realistic or reality phase, which comes after the sixth year of life. This means that, after the age of six, a child tends to want to experience and to know reality or what is real. With this, the fairytale phase, or the period of fantasy and magic is over and, thus, the fairytale has served its purpose. Now a child tends toward reality itself and, in this, she sees the basis for natural scientific objectivity. By about the tenth year, a child tends to move toward scientific objectivity as a highpoint in his/her development. A very important and obvious task arises from this, i.e., to confront a child in his/her development with experiences from reality.

2.4.3 The contribution of Jean Piaget:

As in the case of Charlotte Buhler, and other child psychologists, Piaget made one of the most extensive studies of child behavior and, thus, made a major contribution to child psychology. Piaget's views are still accepted as valid in many circles today and are applied as such, in educative and teaching situations. At the same time, from a pedagogical point of view, specifically a psychopedagogical one, there are serious objections to directly applying his views. Later in this section on Piaget, a brief criticism is made based on the views of Langeveld and Schmidt, among others, regarding his method and his underlying philosophical child anthropology, as well as his direct application and transfer of his child psychological views to situations of educating and teaching. From a psychopedagogical point of view, more specifically a pedagogical view of becoming, there also is serious criticism of his views which are considered in the second section of this chapter where attention is given to the actualization of becoming, as actualizing the psychic life, viewed from a psychopedagogical perspective.

In the following overview of Piaget's contributions, there is no attempt at completeness. At most, there is a discussion, in broad strokes, of his most important points of departure and contributions with a view to evaluating them. His contributions are likely to have great value when reassessed and reevaluated from within an educative and teaching situation, as is the case with the contributions of other child psychologists. In no way does this mean a direct transfer or application of these ideas, but rather an evaluation or reevaluation of them by means of pedagogical and, especially psychopedagogical criteria.

Piaget's works and, thus, his contributions, can be divided in three major ways: first, attention is given to his contribution to describing the process of the intellectual development of a child, with emphasis on its interaction with the environment as a child develops through the different phases or periods of life. The second part of his work is based on the underlying developmental processes, also referred to as the biological roots of intellectual development. These are the most important factors which underlie the developmental processes as Piaget sees them. The third section of his works is directed more to their application or

transfer to a child's educative situation. In certain circles, this part of his work is known as the psychology of learning.

The following is a brief consideration of the most important divisions of the views in Piaget's contributions.

2.4.3.1 The process of intellectual development

First, the terminology used by Piaget regarding intellectual development indicates he proceeds from the view that it is a process of intellectual growth, as well as a division of intellectual development into specific chronological phases; although he considers this phase division only as guidelines which should not be seen as exact boundaries:

* The development of sensory-motor thinking: from birth to two years.

In his observation of infants from birth to two years, Piaget focuses specifically on an infant's understanding or knowledge of the world around him/her. He assumes that, at birth, an infant has several sensory-motor systems which receive sensations from environmental stimuli which result in certain responses. He studies an infant as a being in which it is assumed that development is a process of interaction between heredity and environment. This interaction means that certain stimuli emanate from the environment to which a child responds in a sensory-motor way and, thus, develops. It is emphasized that, according to Piaget, this interaction displays reflexive patterns during its development; that is, patterns of behavior, such as the grasping reflex, sucking reflex, and other physical activities. Further, an infant satisfies his/her internal needs by exercising his/her reflexes as reactions, and consequently, behavioral patterns arise in reaction to environmental stimuli. In this way, an infant shows new behavioral patterns or adaptations from his/her interaction with stimuli from his/her environment.

Piaget arrived at these insights into this stage by carefully observing infants in their environment. In summary, development, in this short phase of about two years, means that, at birth, an infant has no knowledge of the world, or of him/herself. His/her internal patterns of behavior are shaped

according to the environmental stimuli exerted on him/her, and the reactions he/she displays accordingly. In this way, his/her sensory-motor systems become coordinated. Gradually, he/she builds up internal action models with respect to the objects from the environment around him/her via his/her actions or reactions to the stimuli impinging on him/her. This is also an enormous beginning of the intellectual progress of this young child. On the other hand, this progress is limited, e.g., by the influence of only the objects and events known to him/her during these two years. Thus, he/she only acquires practical knowledge of the ways he/she deals with the objects. Consequently, his/her thinking is imprisoned in his/her own sensory-motor reactions, or patterns of reacting, which are unique to a child. The knowledge acquired also is subjective and is not a generalization of knowledge, as is found in other children.

Language still plays a limited role, and at this stage, his/her knowledge is not transmitted to him/her via linguistic communication. His/her world is basically one of handling or of handled objects and, thus, he/she develops a pattern of behaving according to the stimuli and objects which act on him/her and to which he/she reacts.

* The development of symbolic thinking: pre-conceptual thinking; from one and a half years to five.

Here Piaget emphasizes preconceptual thinking, particularly the relationship between child and mother. He emphasizes that the image a child forms of his/her mother has an extremely prominent role in his/her sensory-motor scheme of the things around him/her. His/her mother satisfies his/her most pressing needs and, thus, she also imprints the most prominent impressions on her child's image of her, and of the surrounding world. In addition, a child forms symbols based on his/her experiences with the environment, i.e., on forming sensory-motor images. This means by accruing symbols or impressions, he/she builds up in his/her acting with and reacting to the environment. The following example illustrates what Piaget means by this symbol forming, as preconceptual thinking: When a child eats, he/she builds up experiences of eating. For example, in this phase, a child gradually can transfer the experience of eating, in

terms of a preconcept or symbol, to eating as an action directed to a doll, e.g., a teddy bear. He also emphasizes that, from previous experience, a child can imitate, such that the action he/she has gained via experience up to and including two years of age (the previous phase), now is imitated, and transferred to other situations. For Piaget, this preconceptual thinking represents a symbolic form of thinking whereby symbols from the past, from experience, now acquire meaning for the future, and for additional experiences he/she gains.

Also, he emphasizes the value of language acquisition or development, and its symbolic significance in this phase. Piaget's views on language are not discussed in detail because Langeveld's contribution is viewed as a special contribution to this issue and is discussed below. The most important concepts used by Piaget regarding language development are noted, with a few clarifications of what he means by them. Furthermore, based on Langeveld's views, we return to these concepts with a critical view:

First, Piaget makes use of the concept transduction, meaning that concept formation which occurs in a child's thinking during this period, which is strongly associative, and refers to concepts which are bound to certain concrete situations. Thus, concepts remain strongly bound to certain situations in which a child has acquired or formed this as a symbol, e.g., hot water refers to shaving because a child associates them, while shaving, as a concept, is not yet understood in various concrete situations. Transduction also refers to a child's beginning concept forming, or also conceptual thinking, but this concept forming or thinking is still strongly bound to concrete situations.

Two concepts used jointly by Piaget are juxtaposition and syncretism: To him, these terms are two ways of thinking, which are strongly associated with the nature of the symbols a child has thus far formed for him/herself, or with the nature of his/her preconcepts. Of course, this also refers to transductive thinking.

Juxtaposition and syncretism are ways in which a child expresses him/herself and, especially in the ways he/she explains the behavior of things, e.g., according to the law of cause and effect.

Hence, these are a matter of collecting objects or bringing them together without seeing a connection, or coherence, or having real insight into relations. It seems that this is a static form of thinking where certain objects are described by their functions, but where the relationship between different objects, e.g., the different parts of a bicycle (wheels, chain, etc.) are not yet realized, and can have a certain symbolism for him/her.

An additional concept, and with it a process of development, described by Piaget is the egocentrism or egocentricity of a child in this phase, where there is an emphasis on his/her subjectivity in contrast to objectivity. According to Piaget, a child in this period cannot distinguish between subjectivity and objectivity. Consequently, everything revolves around self-gratification and satisfying his/her own needs. In other circles, a subject-object split also arises in this phase. That is, he/she moves in the world in terms of the “law” that all toys belong to him/her, as do mother and father, hence, he/she is not inclined to share these toys and privileges with others. An underlying reason for this egocentrism is the affective nature of his/her worldview. He/she primarily deals with the world physically or affectively. Because he/she is primarily in this emotional relationship, he/she appropriates the world for him/herself as an egocentric way of being.

In summary, a child’s symbol formation in this phase also shows a definite development with the help of language development. He/she assigns certain symbols for him/herself in terms of his/her experiencing the world of objects. These symbols are closely related to his/her sensory-motor world of experiencing. However, he/she is still in a phase of preconceptual thinking, and this represents processes such as transduction, juxtaposition, syncretism and, especially egocentrism.

* The development of articulated, or intuitive thinking: From

4 to 8 years.

Piaget calls this period the threshold to operational thinking. That is, the limitations of a preconceptual phase of thinking

gradually disappear and make way for more specific operational thinking.

The process of social interaction and, especially the role of language in it, is emphasized. Also, a child is now more able to engage in mutual contact and social interaction, and the exchange of thoughts with others promotes the disappearance of preconceptual forms of thinking.

Thus, Piaget emphasizes that the processes of transduction, of preconception, of juxtaposition, and syncretism, as well as of more static forms of thinking and egocentrism now are gradually disappearing. Through language, this social interaction especially influences decentralization in a child's image of the world. There is a gradual reorientation in his/her mental or intellectual model, or systematization of the environment. However, his/her understanding of space and time is still problematic, mostly because both are invisible.

** The development of operational thinking: concrete operational: from seven to twelve years.*

Piaget views these operational thought processes or actions carried out by a child's mental development which now occurs via rationalized actions in the form of an integrated whole. A mental or cognitive operation no longer is regarded to be a single operation, but rather a group of operations which can be dependent on each other and be in relation to each other. Once again, these represent internally integrated physical actions in response to environmental stimuli. Now a child develops, by means of operational thinking, to a level of mental reactions combined with actions.

He emphasizes that now a child can, or at least potentially can operate with language and number symbol systems. As far as number symbols are concerned, his/her understanding of relations and basic arithmetical or mathematical processes of addition and subtraction are especially emphasized. However, the concrete nature of this operational thinking is emphasized continually.

** Advanced concrete operations: from nine to twelve years.*

Piaget views this phase as the threshold or transition from concrete operations or concrete thinking to more formal forms of abstract thinking operations. The concrete operations of the previous phase now are becoming more flexible. There is transferrable thinking from one given situation to another. Careful observing accompanies such concrete thinking and makes it possible. Classification at a concrete level, thus, is possible as are comparisons of specific classifications.

** Development of logical, formal operations of thinking; from eleven years to adolescence.*

Piaget means by this phase of thinking or intellectual development that systematic, logical, as well as abstract thinking now emerge strongly, as is also the case during puberty. Schematic thinking, but also more abstract thinking, i.e., conceptual thinking, now is emerging. Additional views of Piaget in this regard are not discussed further.

2.4.3.2 Biological foundations and the nature of intellectual development.

** Intellectual development is a process of adapting.*

In the following, Piaget's entire view of intellectual development is based on a process of adaptation, meaning a balance between, or equilibrium between biological growth and environmental influences. His basic principle, as well as underlying [philosophical] child anthropology, for this process of adaptation in a child's intellectual or cognitive development are expressed by the following three points:

- i. There is complete interdependence between a living organism and the environment in which it lives.
- ii. An organism and its environment are enmeshed in a continuous process of reciprocal action and reaction.
- iii. There must be a balance or equilibrium between the biological growth emanating from the organism and its environment. That is, Piaget is focused completely on the interaction between organism and environment, by which he means a stimulus and response process.

He calls this a process of biological adaptation, and views intellectual development as fully biological adaptation. Specifically, he qualifies intelligence as follows: Intelligence means adaptation. This adaptation occurs between a biological growing organism and stimuli emanating from the environment to which the organism responds. Living and, thus, developing, means that an increasingly progressive balance or equilibrium arises between the two. Further, intellectual development is a process of biological adaptation by which Piaget means a process of organizing structures as an organism responds to the environment.

More specifically, Piaget describes this process of intellectual adaptation in terms of two other processes called *assimilation* and *accommodation*, i.e., two interacting processes which occur continually between organism and environment from which balance or equilibrium arises. Specifically, he mentions that this adaptation is analogous to an amoeba in its environment; with this, the biological aspect of Piaget's developmental psychology has been established essentially.

The two processes of assimilation and accommodation are discussed briefly: Assimilation means that, from stimuli emanating from the environment, new experiences are built up in an organism. However, the intellect will not absorb all experiences because some do not fit in with its current experiences. When new experiences which fit in with existing experiences are absorbed, the intellect modifies or transforms them to fit in with the already existing structure of experience. This process of acting and reacting to stimuli from the environment results in a new model in the intellect, and Piaget calls this assimilation. Therefore, intelligence is assimilating to a level at which it will incorporate all given environmental data, or experiences from within an already existing frame of reference.

By accommodation, he understands the following: With each new experience which the intellect absorbs to fit in with its existing structure of experiences, it is necessary for the intellect to adapt or modify its existing structure for the new experiences, originating from the environment as stimuli, to be received or fit

in with the structure, i.e., to accommodate them. In this way, the existing intellectual structure will be continually changed. This process, in which the intellect constantly adapts to accommodate new experiences and, thus, establish a new model from the new stimuli, is a process of accommodation.

These two processes together mean the intellect constantly adapts to the environment at any time during the process of psychic development. From this interacting assimilating and accommodating, a state of balance, equilibrium, or adjustment arises as the product of this interaction.

** Intellectual structures and equilibrium.*

It is emphasized that, as far as the formation of this balance or equilibrium arising from the interaction between organism and environment is concerned, Piaget emphasizes that the process of *assimilation* is the basic principle underlying psychic development, and the development of psychic life content. In other words, it is emphasized that the stimulus action from the environment, and the building up of experiences based on those stimuli, as an adaptation within the existing structures of experience are, for Piaget, fundamental for psychic development, as a process of mutual assimilation. This process of mutual interaction of assimilation and accommodation must continually be in balance.

However, this balance also can be disturbed when the processes of assimilation and accommodation are not in balance. Thus, e.g., when assimilation is dominant, the environmental influences (i.e., stimuli) become subject to the influence of the intellect, or the intellect dictates to the environment and, thus, to the stimuli influencing him/her. Conversely when accommodation is dominant, the environment (stimulus actions) exerts a dominant influence on the intellect and dictates to it. Piaget claims that this disturbance of balance can occur in any period of life or phase of a child's development.

** The influence of social factors on intellectual development.*

Piaget mentions the following four important environmental factors which influence a child's development:

- i. The language spoken in the environment.
- ii. Values of the environment.
- iii. Existing concepts which are maintained in the environment.
- iv. The mutual relationships among members of the community in the environment.

He views this series of four social factors as possible causal factors which can influence what he calls structural development. In this regard, he also distinguishes three types of influence these environmental factors can have on an organism:

- i. The maturation of the central nervous system.
- ii. Experiences gained in interacting with the physical environment.
- iii. Influences of the social milieu.

In addition, this means that the central nervous system cannot be seen as a formless plastic entity which can be shaped simply by social pressures, or influences based on the quality of the physical world. Nor can it be viewed as an entity with a “crystalline” quality, or nature which only grows according to its own biological structures. Piaget emphasizes that the intellectual or psychic structure has a balance or equilibrium which is always ready to respond to its own growth and, thus, to its own internal stimuli. This occurs by producing new behaviors which are adaptive as well as by responding to the results which these new behaviors have on the social or physical world.

In summary, psychic development, specifically intellectual development, is the result of a balance or equilibrium arising from the processes of assimilation and accommodation as a total process of adapting to the environment. On the other hand, the environment contributes to the entire organization of the structural development of the intellect; also, the organism responds in its own way, i.e., in a newly structured way from new experiences, stimuli and reactions of the environment, and work on the environment as such.

2.4.3.3 *Some applications of Piagetian developmental psychology*

From the many works of Piaget on psychological development, particularly a child's cognitive, knowing, or intellectual development, it appears that applications from this developmental psychology mainly are made in two areas:

- * Applications from the interaction between intellect and environment to a learning situation.

Here Piaget mentions the following possible applications from his theories discussed above. The process of adapting, i.e., intellectual development, viewed as a process of adaptation; the influence of physical actions with and reactions to the environment; social cooperation, acting together and language. It is claimed that these aspects of his developmental psychology can be relevant for educating, or teaching, or didactic pedagogics, and for organizing a learning situation for a child.

- * Applications from Piaget's views of the phases of development and, especially the succession of different characteristics as they occur in the various phases, e.g., the development of thinking or steps of thinking as distinguished in the different phases coupled with environmental influences in each phase. This aspect of his developmental psychology also is seen as relevant to the organization of curricula for different life stages.

It should be noted that Piaget tries to explain how a child learns, especially cognitively, but nowhere does he indicate how he/she should be taught. Consequently, at most his applications are speculative.

Secondly, it is noted that the applications are of his views of the processes of assimilation, accommodation, and learning and their implications for teaching.

Thirdly, Piaget emphasizes the balance or equilibrium between environmental and biological influences which are actualized in the form of growth and development in an organism. In the case of equilibrium or balance, special care must be taken against its loss, which will damage the adjustment between a child and his/her environment. Also, whenever such a loss of balance

occurs, for whatever reason, it must be restored in a learning situation, and this will direct an appeal to teaching.

Fourthly, it is emphasized that every learning situation involves a process or processes of assimilation. This implies that a child can only absorb or take in new experiences by changing them in his/her organization of intellect so they will fit in with his/her existing model of experiences of the world. At the same time, the presence of these new experiences gained through assimilation, as initiated by stimuli from the environment, will change his/her existing model of knowledge; hence, every learning situation is a situation in which there is a process of accommodation.

Some of Piaget's followers even point to the issue of a child giving meaning, e.g., the process of assimilation can only make sense to a child in terms of a new experience he/she is acquiring. This will occur when he/she can incorporate a new experience into his/her existing intellectual model of organization. In other words, all new experiences must be related to his/her already existing experiences, i.e., all new learning must be based on existing old learning experience and will only make sense to him/her to the extent that he/she can assimilate it.

Regarding the process of accommodation or adaptation to an environment, it is noted that adaptation and development are of primary importance in a learning situation. For example, one of the most primary purposes of a teacher in teaching should be to confront a child with situations requiring him/her to adapt to his/her already existing experiences. Thus, a teacher is supposed to provide a child with adaptation situations and, within them, to support and help him/her on his/her path of development. Viewed in this way, it is emphasized that a child must see a learning situation from his/her already existing past experiences, while, as part of his/her task, a teacher must see the accommodation of his/her existing knowledge with a child in a current situation. Thus, a teacher is seen as an organizer of learning situations where old existing experiences can be accommodated to new experiences with which a child now is confronted. Now a teacher's aim will be to encourage a child to apply his/her existing knowledge and experiences to new,

previously unknown situations and, at the same time, to encourage him/her to carry over familiar responses or reactions and apply them in unfamiliar situations. Also, a child must adapt to new situations.

2.4.3.4 Preliminary critical evaluation of Piaget's developmental psychology

In the following argument, the critical views of M. J. Langeveld, among others, are used with our own.

Firstly, Piaget does not work phenomenologically in his viewing a child, or his/her development. Thus, his point of departure is not the reality of educating, i.e., the reality in which a child is found to be a child-in-educating in his/her relationship to an adult. Therefore, Piaget, at most, brings forth a child psychology in which a child, as child, or his/her psychological development, is described in isolation from this primordial situation, i.e., from his/her educative reality, as upbrininging. Langeveld adds that Piaget views a child's psychological development from a natural science, deterministic, or biological point of view. Piaget's phase divisions speak clearly of this. Furthermore, he works retrospectively, and not prospectively, i.e., he interprets a child's psychological development from an end state [adulthood] back, and, thus, views a child's genesis retrospectively. Consequently, he fails to see a child as a totality, or as a totality-in-function in his/her world relationship.

Secondly, it is noted that, regarding learning and teaching situations, he is an advocate of applied psychology, where he wants to apply the psychology he has established to a child's learning or teaching situation.

Thirdly, Langeveld finds Piaget's method of questioning unacceptable, where he asks children leading questions, and makes use of their answers.

Fourthly, Langeveld, well-known in the field of child language, states that Piaget postulates language only as a means of communication. This is not discussed further at this point because Langeveld's views on child language are discussed later.

In the fifth place, Langeveld points out that Piaget's developmental psychology has a highly cognitive flavor. Hence, he draws attention to intellectual development and everything which goes with it, but he clearly leaves out child intelligence. At the same time, one of his findings is egocentricity, or egocentrism in child development. Langeveld points out that this egocentrism is not acceptable, especially because Piaget does not distinguish between affective development and reflective, cognitive development. At the same time, he does express himself about social relationships with a child without substantially looking at the affective. Langeveld calls Piaget's approach "an intellectualistic use of the affective-emotionally determined child self". He also indicates that Piaget proceeds to a complete conceptualization of a child's thinking, and considers this to be natural scientific thinking.

There is no additional evaluation of Piaget's contribution here. Furthermore, a critical point of view on his contribution, as well as other child psychologists, appears in the second part of this chapter, where child becoming is considered within its/her pedagogical context.

It is sufficient to indicate, with reference to a few points of criticism by Langeveld, that an approach such as Piaget's, with his connotation of direct application, must be rejected entirely by psychopedagogics. The reader should understand this psychopedagogical view against the background of the previous chapters, where there is a search for an independent perspective, based on his/her own conceptual system, with a view to an independent illumination and understanding of the psychic life of a child-in-educating. Piaget's contribution in no way qualifies as pedagogics, since he had not observed a child in an educative reality.

At the same time, it is pointed out that whenever the contribution of Piaget, or any other child psychologist is rejected, this means that it cannot be applied directly as such, in educative or teaching situations. On the other hand, it is emphasized that such a contribution has a strong appeal directed to psychopedagogics,

with a view to a possible reevaluation, re-understanding, and reinterpretation, but as seen from a child's educative situation. This should be done, e.g., from the psychopedagogical perspective mentioned, i.e., in terms of psychopedagogical criteria or yardsticks. Here, a reader is referred to chapter II, in which the psychic life of a child-in-educating is discussed.

2.4.4 The contribution of Eduard Spranger:

The inclusion of a section on Spranger's contribution to developmental psychology aims to introduce a new ring to the psychic development of a person, via Spranger's views. To this point, exemplary contributions from developmental psychologists are focused mainly on psychic development as a product of inherited and environmental factors. Reference has been made to W. Stern's well-known convergence theory, in which he points out that psychic development is the product or result of both heredity and environment. He adds that it makes no sense to try to figure out how large the contribution of each is. The fact is that development includes a convergence of both factors.

Eduard Spranger makes various contributions from the early twentieth century to and including the mid-twenties. He is particularly interested in the psychology of youth, also known as the psychology of puberty. It is even noted that he is the first writer in Germany in the 1920s to bring a true psychology of youth to light. The question arises of where the basis of his different, or newer approach lies, in comparison with current developmental psychology. The answer is that he immerses himself in the total situatedness of pubescence. In this way, he also arrives at a typology of puberty.

Secondly, in describing the phenomenon of puberty, he includes the totality of the personal becoming of these youth. For him, personal becoming means becoming self-aware, e.g., puberty includes being able to detach oneself from institutions of authority, including parents. This entails that a youth must distance him/herself from the emotional bonds which so far have determined the child-being of a pubescent. Furthermore, Spranger goes so far as to talk about Ego-discovery, or being yourself, or to discover oneself during the time of puberty. Also,

these events now are known as self-becoming, or one's own share in self-becoming, and already is important to Spranger.

Thirdly, against this background, the most important principle to emerge from Spranger's work is the principle of attributing meaning, i.e., during puberty, in which a puber feels him/herself confronted by these various self-discoveries, and self-feelings, indeed, he/she is involved in giving them meaning. Thus, a pubescent, in fact, is searching for values by which he/she gives meaning to what is discovered, and in which he/she, as a person, has a stake.

Fourthly, it is noted that Spranger arrives at a decidedly different [child] anthropology. By this is meant that he is concerned with personal becoming, also meaning personal actualization, implying that this becoming occurs in terms of value preferences. Thus, a youth gives sense and meaning to what he/she encounters, what he/she discovers, or what happens to him/her. According to Spranger, a developing or becoming youth has a definite role in his/her becoming self-aware. Maturing, according to him, means becoming aware of him/herself and of the environment. Becoming self-aware also means that the unique life plan which is laid out before him/her to be taken hold of, and test him/herself on existing cultural forms, i.e., cultural values, and make these norms his/her own. All of this implies that the meaning of puberty is a period of personal becoming.

It is emphasized that Spranger is moving away from a biologically oriented, naturalistic developmental psychology, among which Charlotte Buhler is a well-known exponent in her early works. Spranger's contribution also can be understood as moving into a world of values, i.e., a child in puberty is confronted with a world of values to which he/she must give sense and meaning. Hence, puberty is a period of person-forming, self-discovery, self-delineation, and value experience, which also give sense and meaning to a puber's person-becoming, to the extent that he/she assumes his/her own share in this/her becoming.

This brief reference is sufficient to address Spranger's contribution to a new human science-oriented [child]

anthropology. Langeveld speaks with great appreciation of Spranger's earlier contributions, as someone who paved the way to a more human or personologically oriented [child] anthropology, or a human science, against the background of which such an important event as psychic development can be penetrated.

2.4.5 The contribution of M. J. Langeveld:

The aim is not to go into detail about the extremely important contributions which Langeveld has made to developmental psychology. A few observations are devoted to introducing Langeveld's newer philosophical child anthropology, as a personological oriented one, mentioned by Spranger, and launched by Langeveld, who became a phenomenologist, in the full sense of the word. He explicates his child anthropology phenomenologically and intertwines it with child development.

By a "phenomenological approach" is meant that, in the words of Husserl, one returns to the matter itself, i.e., in the case of a child, there is a return to the reality of educating where he/she is found in his/her primordial givenness, or primordial situatedness, as he/she is, where he/she faces an adult who has the deliberate purpose of providing him/her with help and support on his/her way to proper adulthood.

From the results of his phenomenological studies, he discloses two very important [child] anthropological truths, i.e., (i) a child is someone who wants to be someone him/herself, and (ii) he/she is committed to being educated [brought up].

Briefly, this means that a child announces him/herself as an open possibility, i.e., someone who is open to external impressions, to educating, or accompaniment by an adult. But, because he/she is a child, i.e., a human being and, thus, also intentionality, i.e., in his/her consciousness, he/she is directed to the world, now viewed as an open possibility, and is someone who must take his/her own part in his/her own becoming adult. As far as is known, since 1954, when his important "Developmental Psychology" first appeared, the matter of psychological development has been placed in an entirely new light.

With these two issues, Langeveld brings forth two very important new child anthropological truths, i.e., psychic development not only involves hereditary processes, i.e., biological growth and environmental influences but, in the case of a child who, in finding him/herself in an educative situation, takes his/her own part in his/her becoming. This participation occurs because he/she wants to be someone him/herself. In addition, in his criticism of W. Stern, Langeveld claims that *environment* is used far too broadly to mean “natural environment”, and that, in the case of a child, there also is an educative environment, in the sense that educating has a deliberate influence on a child’s psychic development.

In our more detailed discussion of child becoming, in the next part of this chapter, more specific attention is given to these two extremely important child anthropological truths and their implications for becoming.

Next, four basic moments are referred to which are dynamisms, or principles of a child’s psychic development. First postulated by Langeveld in 1954, they are:

- The biological moment,
- the principle of helplessness,
- the principle of security, and
- the principle of exploration.

Langeveld accepts that, in the case of psychic development, there is a biological moment, i.e., a child is present as a biologically developing bodiliness. This biological moment reflects a child’s health, physical growth, whether growth is being promoted or hindered, whatever the reason, any biological deficiencies, or disabilities, etc. Furthermore, this biological moment is inextricably linked to the dynamic and harmonious course of the other three principles which, similarly, are coherently intertwined with each other.

As for the principle of helplessness, Langeveld points out that, compared to a newborn animal, at birth a human being is the most helpless creature. However, he emphasizes that, because of

his/her wanting to be someone, a helpless child is attuned to overcoming his/her helplessness and acquiring security, by which his/her helplessness gradually disappears. As the principle of security is realized, so too will the principle of exploration, which includes Langeveld's principle of emancipation, i.e., he/she will increasingly realize his/her wanting to be someone him/herself.

The coherence of the four principles is evident. Conversely, it also is true that whenever one or another of these principles is deficient, e.g., security, helplessness, or the biological moment, the adequate course of the entirety of his/her psychic development is restrained or hindered.

Now, the most important views of Langeveld stemming from these four principles, are considered:

** Psychic development and the discovery of language.*

Langeveld gives a special place to the discovery of language for psychic development. He also emphasizes the discovery character of language, i.e., a child discovers his/her language in an environment, then moves on to speaking, and gives sense and meaning to his/her environment via language. Thus, language does not mean a process of growth, but an event of discovery and, thus, via language, he/she discloses a world of objects and things.

** The significance of child play for psychic development.*

In addition to the discovery character of language, Langeveld emphasizes child play as an event of discovery. Thus, he says a child's play is his/her most important activity. It is important that Langeveld places language and play, as events of discovery, in direct relation to the four principles of psychic development. This is especially true of play, as a means of overcoming a feeling of helplessness. Similarly, as a child plays and overcomes his/her helplessness, he/she rises to a higher level of play, and as he/she acquires a feeling of security, he/she shows other forms of play. By way of illustration, "handling play" involves the mere handling of toys, e.g., which can make room for more "constructive play", where something is constructed, created, or built. Also, his/her form of play, coupled with the acquisition of security, proceeds to what Langeveld and Vermeer call "illusory or fantasy play."

In fantasy play”, there are four essential sequences present, i.e., that firstly, a child gives his/her play a name, such that it has a theme, secondly, that the play or theme unfolds and develops into a story and, thirdly, playing with toys takes the form of a scene. Finally, a child designs, unfolds, or constructs a play scene.

Conversely, it is equally important to note that an insecure child, regardless of age, is unwilling or unable to proceed to this highest level of play, called illusory play. Rather, such a child would prefer more to sit alone in a corner with toys around him/her, but he/she simply will handle them without moving to truly creative, illusory or fantasy play. Also, play and language take their course hand in hand, in that both are used as ways of discovering or giving meaning to the environment in which he/she finds him/herself. On the other hand, play and language serve as possibilities for signifying, expressing, or projecting and, on the other hand, he/she expresses his/her feelings or also projects him/herself emotionally about how he/she experiences things and what they mean to him/her. In addition, he/she also signifies his/her thoughts in a specific form through play, and language. Thus, play and language projections and expressions occur hand in hand, and are extremely important ways of expressing or signifying in the world of a young child.

** Child expression and psychic development.*

Langeveld emphasizes the significance of child expression, which can appear in different forms. It is pointed out that language and play are forms of child expression through which he/she expresses him/herself emotionally, but also cognitively or knowingly. It is also emphasized that child expression can occur in the form of drawings, finger paintings, or by using media such as modeling clay, finger paint, etc. Here there is only brief reference to various child psychologists who have studied children’s drawings intensively, such as the well-known studies by Goodenough. Child drawings or expressions are also used today as extremely important diagnostic media, e.g., media to give a child an opportunity for self-expression or self-projection, the results of which are then examined and interpreted by an orthopedagogue. This matter is not discussed further.

It is sufficient to conclude this section by pointing out that child expression by means of drawings and other media, occupies an extremely important place in the psychic development of a child. Therefore, children must experience ample opportunities and have ample media to be able to actualize this extremely important mode of psychic development.

** Emotional development as psychic development.*

Emotional development can be deduced from Langeveld's four developmental principles, or dynamisms. For example, a child's emotional development is closely entwined with his/her biological composition, whatever its extent. On the one hand, a feeling of helplessness, with which a child comes into the world, means a certain emotional lability, but a child must overcome this feeling by acquiring security and safety. Simultaneously, exploring and emancipating, other forms of emotional development, occur which include emotional stabilization. Similarly, there is reference to the important place which language discovery, child play, and child expression hold in his/her entire emotional development. In contrast to Piaget, e.g., who focuses almost exclusively on cognitive, knowing, or intellectual development, Langeveld focuses largely on the place a child's emotional development has.

One of the reasons for this is the place educating has in Langeveld's developmental psychology. Thus, he addresses the emotional educating of a child. Later in this chapter, there is a discussion of *affective accompaniment*, which also means affective educating.

Here, it is important to emphasize that with this, Langeveld addresses a very important principle, i.e., that so-called emotional unfolding or development of a child does not include processes of growth, as advocated by many other well-known child and developmental psychologists. Here one especially thinks of the instinct doctrine of McDougall, and the related doctrines of emotions, or temperaments, etc. Without denying the share of heredity in, e.g., a child's temperament, Langeveld stresses that, indeed, the emotional life of a child is shaped and "educated" by

deliberate educating by parents, teachers, and other adults. We return to this important matter when more detailed attention is given to child becoming.

2.4.6 The contribution of D. P. Ausubel:

Ausubel is one of the most modern and respected American exponents of developmental psychology. His contributions began in 1952, followed in 1954, and later in 1957 regarding various aspects or phases of the development of a child, or adolescent. In an exemplary view, such as the present one, by no means is it possible to offer extensive appreciation, or criticism of his contributions. Nevertheless, every student of developmental psychology, as well as psychopedagogics, should take note of his important contributions. As in the case of Piaget, and other exponents in this field, in his various contributions, Ausubel offers different opportunities, also for a student of psychopedagogics, to reevaluate and reappraise certain of his views, also seen from the perspective of a child's becoming.

A critical attitude regarding Ausubel's various contributions to meaningful currents in developmental psychology are noted. It is appropriate to mention that Langeveld is acknowledged to be one of the most modern Continental exponents of developmental psychology. However, he is essentially a phenomenologist, and a pedagogician, while Ausubel, irrespective of his many contributions and penetrating work, remains a developmental, or child psychologist. The basic difference between Langeveld's pedagogical approach and Ausubel's psychological approach, thus, is relevant. The implication of this is clear, particularly regarding the point of departure of these two exponents. Langeveld chooses the reality of educating as his point of departure, with a direct participation in the occurrences of educating a child on his/her way to adulthood, while Ausubel, because he remains a developmental psychologist, is committed to the application connotation of developmental psychology for educating. He wants to acquire his insights as a developmental, or child psychologist, and then apply them to a developing child, a point of view with which we cannot agree.

However, the following should be mentioned in a cursory appreciation of Ausubel's most important contributions. At the outset, it is noted that he has a particularly critical attitude against the prevailing naturalistic views of child development. For example, he draws a direct comparison between a laboratory situation, in which psychic development is studied, and a lifeworld situation, where a child will be found in his/her natural lifeworld. Among the latter, he deliberately includes a parent-child relationship. Ausubel also criticizes the experimental method, seen as a laboratory method, which also refers to Piaget and Charlotte Buhler, who are discussed earlier. He points to the artificiality of experimental and laboratory methods compared to the lifeworld situations in which a child finds him/herself, and which he calls "real-life situations". A laboratory situation oversimplifies the life situations within which a child develops naturally.

Ausubel provides a historical overview in his book, *Theories and problems of child development*. Thus, e.g., he distinguishes the well-known Tabula Rasa approach, as one which concentrates exclusively on environmental influences, and where a child is seen as a blank slate upon which influences from the environment constantly act, as opposed to the preformist, or pre-determinist approach, where endogenous, or internal factors, as hereditary, are emphasized more. He rejects the pre-determinist approach which, because of hereditary factors, is strongly attuned to determining a child's development in advance, i.e., wants to predict his/her development. In this respect, he points to the contribution of Arnold Gesell, with his theory of maturation. To him, Gesell is an exponent of an embryological model, which means all development, seen in its different phases and properties, is the product of physiological development. Ausubel points out the contribution of genetics and his great appreciation of it, so much so that he favors a more complete study of it, and its contributions to a child's heredity, and the consequent development which follows. On the other hand, he is equally harsh in his criticism of the Tabula-Rasa approach, a well-known exponent of which is John Locke.

An interesting point of view found in Ausubel is that of so-called humanistic and related views: Among other things, he refers to what he calls a humanistic view which holds that a person him/herself, e.g., a child who is developing, has his/her own share in his/her development. In addition, he takes the view that, for him, this is an acceptable and defensible position, provided it can be qualified by the actual psychological capacities at the disposal of a human being. At the same time, he dismisses this view by claiming that too often it is shown to be an unqualified philosophical view. He rejects this humanistic view for himself.

Without going into greater detail on these remarks by Ausubel, it is noted that it is very important when he says that there are “humanistic” views which acknowledge and emphasize that a person has a share in his/her own development. Yet this does not appeal to him, and he looks for more acceptable “psychological capacities of human beings”. In our view, Ausubel is correct in seeking what he calls *a more accountable view of a person’s psychic life*, something in which both developmental and child psychology have failed so far. This search for what the essence of the psychic life entails, and specifically in the case of a child, the psychic life of a child-in-educating, which is precisely the theme or area which is studied by psychopedagogics, and which is found throughout this work. However, the above suffices for now, and is returned to later when child becoming is discussed.

After considering several contributions from the history of developmental psychology, Ausubel decides that the pre-determinist approach, based on a more endogenous or hereditary view of development, as well as the Tabula Rasa approach, where environmental influences are emphasized, are both equally unacceptable. He also takes the view that the interactional approach, i.e., Stern’s convergence doctrine, is acceptable under certain circumstances. For Ausubel, the task of modern developmental psychology is in making a more intensive and penetrating study of the interaction between heredity and environment. The following quotation illustrates his view: “The pseudo-issue underlying the controversy can only be eliminated by specifying in more precise and detailed fashion how the interaction takes place and the relative weight of each factor in

determining the course and outcome of particular kinds of development". In short, this means he accepts the idea of interaction, where both heredity and environment have an influence and, for him, this is particularly about the *nature of the change* which occurs in a child's development because of these two series of factors, and he even speaks of their interdependence which will determine a child's development.

In conclusion, in his search for this interaction, Ausubel takes the view of "psycho-social characteristics" which would develop in a child because of the interaction and interdependence of these two series of factors. This psycho-social aspect is well-known in the contemporary literature and must be rejected from a pedagogical point of view, particularly a psychopedagogical one. This is a typical psychological approach which is representative of the point of view which amounts to applications from psychological development to the psychic development of a child and, with this, also to educating and teaching a child.

2.4.7 B. F. Nel's psychology of becoming:

In this section, a concise image is offered of B. F. Nel's contribution to a psychology of becoming. It is well known that he is a strong opponent of the practice of applying, i.e., where psychology is merely applied to educating and teaching a child. In many of his publications, he also shows that he takes a phenomenological perspective on educating as his point of departure for an exploration of a psychology of becoming. Despite his long list of publications, only a brief account is given of his approach to a pedagogically accountable psychology of becoming. He mainly follows in the footsteps of Langeveld, who is considered earlier. In addition, he makes use of contributions from Buytendijk, Portman, De Klerk, Perquin, etc.

When an appreciation is shown of his contributions, it is done from a view of positive appreciation, as well as making a critical evaluation. Positively, his contribution is in the fact that he assumes the views of persons who have a phenomenological point of view, as well as those who are strongly pedagogically oriented in their approach. Evidence of this is his frequent use of the concept "pedagogical", as well as "becoming" in its combination

with psychology, i.e., a psychology of becoming. Nel also criticizes the idea of development occurring in phases, and the contribution of Arnold Gesell's strict phase divisions with their strong biological foundation.

Nel's use of the compound "psychic-spiritual" becoming as a unitary event, stems from Heidegger's well-known notion of Dasein. In short, this is to state the idea of totality, even a totality which he calls a bodily, psychic, spiritual becoming, i.e., the totality of a person's becoming in relation to his/her world.

Building on this, with certain reservations, he outlines a phraseology of development from the first year of life up to and including puberty. In this sketch, he continually makes use of the contributions of various exponents, including Kohnstamm, Spranger, Calon and others. These contributions are not discussed further here.

Of some critical remarks regarding his approach to a psychology of becoming, the following deserve attention: First, his unaccountable use of the concept psychology of becoming is pointed out. With this, Nel shows that, indeed, he considers the actualization of becoming as a psychological matter. Irrespective of his criticism of applying developmental psychology to a child's educating and teaching, in many of his publications, his approach remains in a psychologically oriented one, and he merely links this psychology with the term becoming. As such, this concept composition is not accountable. Second, in following the views of Langeveld, and other exponents who also make this same mistake, he continues to talk about the developmental psychology of a child. Thus, it seems that, in his approach and choice of concept combination, there are certain contradictions in his arguments. His use of "psychic-spiritual", as well as "physical-psychic-spiritual", and "spiritual becoming" as unitary events is not acceptable. Despite his critique against psychology and psychological approaches, at least he distinguishes, if not separates, psychic-, spiritual-, and even physical-becoming. The most important criticism of Nel's argument and approach is that there is no consideration of the *actualization of the psychic life* as a totality, i.e., as a totality-in-function or in communication [with

his/her world]. He fails in establishing a psychopedagogical perspective on the actualization of the psychic life of a child-in-educating. The reasons for these deficiencies are not discussed here.

2.4.8 *The contribution of W. H. O. Schmidt:*

The foregoing examples of orientations in developmental psychology concludes with the contribution of W. H. O. Schmidt, as contained in his 1973 publication, "*Child development: The human, cultural and educational context*". It is significant to note that Schmidt is a former South African, and currently is at the University of Alberta, Canada. This book is written within the framework of the Anglo-American world. This publication also includes a meaningful preface by M. J. Langeveld. Although not of great scope, it is not possible to offer a complete evaluation of his work; even so, it is worthy of being brought to the attention of all educators, especially psychopedagogues.

Schmidt indicates he is looking for a frame of reference for studying child development by which he can evaluate various contributions, some of which have received attention in this chapter. In short, he also finds the prevailing views in developmental psychology unacceptable, especially as is reflected in Ausubel's works, where development is considered simply to be the product of heredity and environment. Thus, for example, regarding a search for a frame of reference, he says, "It does not mean, however, that he must have his own frame of reference, which enables him to assess what is relevant and in what way." With this, Schmidt refers to contributions from naturalistic psychology, or educational psychology. This means that he is not simply ready to accept any contributions which do not have defensible frames of reference, or points of departure.

In his critique of various contributions of this kind, one view must be pointed out, i.e., that a child is not recognized as having his/her own share in his/her development. This point of view is pointed out earlier and receives careful attention later in this chapter when we discuss child becoming. Schmidt emphasizes this participation in terms of a child's learning, i.e., a child takes an active part in his/her own development by learning. This view

largely agrees with those addressed in this chapter and, especially in chapter II. In addition, Schmidt emphasizes the role of parents, as educators, and such adults should not be seen merely as schoolteachers. Perhaps most importantly is Schmidt's reference to a child anthropology, where he searches for an understanding of being a child, as well as a child's attribution of meaning to his/her part in his/her development. The following quotation from Schmidt deserves mention: "and enables the child [to give] meaning to the world that impinges on him and to transform it, or some part of it, into his world." Here he refers to an adult influence on a child, but emphasizes, as appears in the quote, that a child still must give meaning to these influences on him/her own and, indeed, he/she must transform them into part of his/her own world.

In his further argument, Schmidt accepts the Latin term "Animal Educandum" proposed by Langeveld, i.e., someone who has been committed to educating. In this approach, once again, he first seeks an anthropology of the child, i.e., a view of a child as a human being. For example, he asks what the child anthropology of Freud, of Skinner, or of Rogers is. Once again, it is necessary to mention the following quotation, "The anthropology of the child deals with conceptions and assumptions concerning the child in the process of becoming." It is pointed out that, in this sense, Schmidt no longer speaks of *development* but of *becoming*.

The following quotation from him sums up particularly well his further argument regarding child development, and is quoted fully here, "The term animal educandum implies more than that the child, by virtue of his plasticity, is educable; it implies that the child is a being that must be *educated*. There are two aspects to this. The one concerns his *humanization*, his development to a specifically human being with human characteristics. The other concerns his development as an individual person who needs educational help within the matrix of the specific society and culture into which he is born. He needs this to create for himself a meaningful life in commitment to but not enslavement to, his own society and culture."

Schmidt also emphasizes the two extremely important components of child becoming, to which we refer later, i.e., a child's own share, as well as the part played by educating.

These remarks on Schmidt's approach are sufficient, and his contributions are not discussed further, except to mention that he gives priority to the place of *language development* in a child's psychic development. For example, he speaks of "man as 'Animal Symbolicum'." In this, he mainly follows the approach of the well-known philosopher Ernst Cassirer, as well as that of Langeveld.

2.4.9 *Synthesis*

The foregoing presents images of different developmental psychological conceptions regarding a child as a changing being. Brief attention is paid to the concept of development and its determinants, after which some examples of contributions from some developmental psychologists are presented. No claim of completeness is made, but rather the purpose is to show, by examples, how child development has been viewed historically by developmental psychology. Comments are made of the contributions without making penetrating criticisms because, in the next section, there is a discussion of a child's becoming as an actualization of his/her psychic life-in-educating. Critiques emerge which highlight the gaps in developmental psychology.

3. CHILD BECOMING AS ACTUALIZING THE PSYCHIC LIFE-IN-EDUCATING

3.1 *What is becoming?*

In chapter II, and at the beginning of this chapter, there is reference to becoming, and it is provisionally described as involving a change of meanings in the life of a child on his/her way to adulthood. Also, it is emphasized that a child has his/her own share in actualizing his/her becoming. It is a given original structure of the psychic life of a child. This becoming is realized via the share a child takes in it, as well as the accompaniment by an adult, including parents and teachers.

Also, it is pointed out that there is an extremely close relationship between becoming and learning, which are distinguishable but

inseparable original givens in a child's psychic life. In the same way, he/she also must actualize this act of learning in and through his/her becoming, in which he/she has a definite role, and is coherent with the total actualization of his/her psychic life.

In chapter II, the coherence of becoming and learning is indicated by noting that a child's becoming is possible only if he/she learns. On the other hand, a child continually learns as he/she becomes an adult. This coherence is not discussed further since it is covered fully in chapter II.

In addition, various modes of becoming are shown, i.e., ways of growing up within a child's actualizing his/her psychic life. These modes are:

3.1.1 Exploring

3.1.2 *Emancipating*

3.1.3 *Distancing*

3.1.4 *Differentiating*

3.1.5 *Objectifying*

It is emphasized that a child's actualization of these ways of becoming is possible because he/she learns. Also, in and through learning (see chapters II and III), a child actualizes his/her psychic life via these modes.

Thus, e.g., *exploring* means a child takes the initiative to go out to the world to explore and to discover it, etc.

Emancipating is a child's way of living to increasingly become someone him/herself. In other words, it is a child's initiative to want to be independent. For example, increasingly, he/she gives indications that he/she wants to do things him/herself and not be a passive spectator who watches others do things, or also who simply anticipates or pretends to do things as he/she ought to.

By *distancing* is meant a way, in a child's becoming, in which he/she gradually takes the initiative to distance or detach him/herself from the influences of his/her parents and other adults and, in doing so, he/she wants to stand on his/her own two

feet. In addition, in this distancing, he/she is becoming independent and gives indications of becoming more independent in his/her own growing up.

Differentiating means that, as a child becomes adult, he/she increasingly shows an ability and willingness to distinguish between several matters. This possibility of distinguishing is increasingly differentiated in a child's initiative, which may be more intellectual, i.e., increasingly he/she acts more critically, thoughtfully, and distinctively in investigating, and in weighing different possibilities against each other. He/she also shows more and increasing differentiation in his/her emotional life. For example, as he/she grows up, he/she shows more ways of making distinctions on higher levels of his/her emotional decisions. Hence, a younger child might feel uncertain in his/her emotional decisions, while an older child more likely acts calmly in his/her decisions, which is evidence of a more advanced emotional level of differentiation.

Objectifying occurs in close connection with the preceding modes, as is the case with each mode; hence, in no way should their actualization be thought of as separate. Objectifying is the possibility which appears in a child's initiative to step outside him/herself and remain objective, without trying to be too *subjective*. Thus, objectifying is a child's possibility to detach or distance him/herself from a matter but, at the same time, from him/herself to judge a matter as it is in its objective presence. In other words, objectifying is a more matter-of -attitude toward life without one's own subjective opinions always being decisive. Of course, this requires a degree of mental maturity, or cognitive refinement, which occurs mostly in an older child.

This elucidation of the modes of becoming is sufficient.

Now we return to the question: *What is becoming?* Becoming itself, is described against the background of the concept development, discussed earlier while referring to a few contributions from developmental psychology. Efforts also are made to outline a child's own share, as well as that of adults, including teachers, during a child's becoming. Hopefully the

anticipated critique of the concept of development is clear. At the same time, the connection between becoming and developing [development] regarding the share of heredity and environment is discussed. Now there is a concise discussion of what is meant by becoming, as viewed in its pedagogical and psychopedagogical contexts. However, before doing this, the psychopedagogical perspective discussed in detail in chapter II, is examined more thoroughly in section 3.2.

A few years ago in South Africa, exponents of fundamental pedagogics(See Landman and his collaborators), indicate that becoming is an elevation in the meaning of and dialogue with the world as a child becomes adult. The psychopedagogical question regarding this elevation is considered in chapter II in terms of the question, *how is this elevation in level, as elevation in meaning, realized in a child's becoming adult?* In other words, how is this level elevation realized via a child actualizing his/her psychic life?

Also, what share does a child him/herself have in this level elevation, as well as what is the role of an adult? Another question is what is the place of heredity in this elevation of level? The same question is raised regarding the claims of developmental psychology regarding environmental influences on this level elevation in a child's becoming adult.

In summary, this primarily involves a pedagogical perspective on the concept of becoming. More specifically, it is about a psychopedagogical perspective on the actualization of becoming but now viewed as the actualization of a child's psychic life-in-educating. The view is held that a child is not someone who simply develops, i.e., who is handed over to processes of growth and maturation, *on the one hand*, and environmental factors, *on the other hand*. Thus, a child, unlike a plant or an animal, is not merely subjected to hereditary and environmental factors and influences, i.e., growth conditions determined by internal and external factors. Level elevation in dialogue and meaning is an elevation in a child's becoming adult to a higher level. Dialogue elevation is an increase in level of a child's dialoguing or conversing with his/her world, including his/her parents, teachers, others, and things he/she encounters or interacts with.

This conversation is a child's response to the appeals going out to him/her from the world.

Such dialoguing with the world always occurs regarding something, i.e., content. In the broadest sense, this content is cultural content since it is representative of the world around him/her. In a school situation, this content is presented through the different subjects, syllabi, or curricula a child must master. Thus, while becoming adult, he/she attributes more multiple and higher meanings to the content of reality.

Here it is emphasized that, with respect to a child becoming adult, now viewed as level, or meaning elevation, the *aim* of *educating* comes to the fore. Perhaps, this is the first radical difference between becoming and its actualization, as level elevation, and development, as a process of growth and maturation, on the one hand, and a product of environmental influences, on the other hand. In pedagogics, the purpose of educating is generally accepted to be a child's proper *adulthood*. Thus, a child's becoming a proper adult is directly related to the aim of educating.

Immediately, the question arises about what is understood by adulthood. The essences of normative adulthood are presented fully in the literature of fundamental pedagogics dealing with the aim of educating. Here the normative essences disclosed by Landman and his coworkers are:

- Meaningfulness of existence
- Self-judgment and self-understanding
- Worthiness of being human [human dignity]
- Morally independent choosing and responsible acting
- Norm-identification
- Philosophy of life.

In summary, if becoming a proper adult is the aim of educating, these essences of adulthood must be attained in a child's growing up or becoming adult. In other words, at some stage in his/her growing up, he/she must gradually come to a more meaningful existence, as well as a higher regard for him/herself and others,

self-judging, on a higher level, as well as his/her morally independent choosing and acting, to identify with norms and a philosophy of life.

These essences of adulthood cannot arise from a biological process of growth, on the one hand, or from mere environmental influences, on the other hand, especially when environment is seen as a natural environment in which plants and animals also live. On the contrary, here environment includes adult educative support and guidance to a child in actualizing values and norms on a higher level. The psychopedagogical question is *how* this is accomplished when it is seen as an essential for a child to actualize his/her psychic life.

A child's becoming presupposes essences which can only be properly realized under the influence of an adult, which means a direct educative influencing, as well as a child's own participating. Hence, while being educated, a child is gradually confronted with the values mentioned, which he/she must appropriate for him/herself and give them meaning. Also, a child may reject these educative influences, i.e., the values or norms an adult present or exemplifies. Then, an elevation in level and meaning will not occur as it should. On the contrary, there is a degenerating, or declining "becoming", which is not authentic becoming.

Hence, the psychopedagogical question is how a child makes these presented norms and values his/her own. This understanding of a child becoming adult is radically different from viewing him/her as an organism primarily undergoing a biological process of growing, developing, or maturing.

To place the above fundamental pedagogical views of adulthood in a more psychopedagogical perspective, the following is added: A child presents him/herself as a changing human being with potentialities. That is, he/she possesses potentialities of becoming which have yet to be actualized in the direction of proper adulthood, thus, in the direction of the aim of educating, as well as in the direction of the criteria (yardsticks) of normative adulthood. This realization of these potentialities of becoming occur by a child's own share, along with that of an adult, i.e.,

under the influence of educating. From a psychopedagogical point of view, this means a child must proceed to self-actualizing (realizing) his/her potentialities of becoming while being accompanied in this self-actualization by an adult. For example, *heredity*, which is seen by developmental psychology merely as a process of biological growth, should be seen as given potentialities, including hereditary physical potentialities, which indicate a child's physicality, such as performance in sports. On the other hand, he/she also has psychic or spiritual potentialities, such as knowledge or intelligence, and still others, such as talent, etc.

However, these potentialities are functionalized or actualized by a child. Anthropologically speaking, a child, as a given intentionality (Husserl), has the potentiality to direct him/herself to the world, and does so through his/her own share. In terms of the modes of becoming, he/she actualizes his/her hereditary potentialities by exploring, emancipating, distancing, differentiating, and objectifying. However, this is not necessarily accomplished, i.e., this is not a process-like, or mechanical occurrence. On the contrary, it occurs under the direct influence and accompaniment of an adult, as an educative influence in terms of norms and values which must be presented to a child. However, he/she is not handed over to these presented values and norms and, in his/her becoming adult, he/she gradually and continually comes to decisions on different levels of actualizing his/her given (also inherited) potentialities. In this context, even though a child has potentialities, there is no guarantee that he/she will succeed in realizing them. Thus, a child is not handed over to his/her inherited potentialities and can, despite whether those potentialities are limiting or allow for giftedness, make his/her own choice regarding their self-realization. That is, a child is not merely driven by inherited potentialities. The same is true regarding educative influences emanating from an adult. Now the question is *how* this *self-actualizing* occurs. At this stage, it is only noted that for a child, it occurs on his/her level and meaning elevation by giving meaning. In other words, what is meaningful to a child in his/her growing up, or becoming adult is appropriated for him/herself as meaningful self-made possessed experience. (See a full explication of this in chapter II).

In the next section, we return in greater detail to the ways in which a child him/herself realizes his/her potentialities by attributing meaning.

Lastly, it is emphasized that, with self-realizing his/her given potentialities of becoming adult, there is no causal connection between inheritance and becoming. In this regard, the view of developmental psychology is that such a causal connection does exist. Then, *because* a child possesses certain inherited traits, this limits him/her to developing in specific ways. For now, consider the age of puberty: A general view of developmental psychology is that, because a child enters puberty at a certain age and, thus, will exhibit certain physical changes or characteristics at this age, necessarily he/she also will show certain psychic characteristics accordingly, such as moodiness, a critical attitude, etc. For now, it is only noted that this view is one-sided and, within the context of becoming to be discussed, there is much more justification that, within an educative context, a child must not show a typical pattern of behaving during puberty, or at any other age, just because, with growth and maturation, certain physical characteristics appear.

In concluding this section on the views of phases or periods in a child's becoming held by developmental psychology, these phases of growth and maturation do, indeed, appear. At the same time, a child, seen from the point of view of becoming and, especially a psychopedagogical view, is never merely handed over to this phraseological course of development. Thus, within each separate phase, he/she is still free to decide about the actualization of his/her given potentialities, as well as the educative influences within a phase which go out to him/her from an adult.

These expressed views of the concept of becoming are sufficient, and in the following section, the question is *how becoming, as an elevation in level, occurs, now seen as a child actualizing a his/her psychic life.*

3.2 ACTUALIZING BECOMING

3.2.1 Psychopedagogical perspective

The question of what is understood by a psychopedagogical perspective is addressed sufficiently in chapter II. There, a psychopedagogical perspective is considered as a scientific illumination which discloses and describes the essences/categories of actualizing the psychic life. That is, the categories of experiencing, willing, lived experiencing, knowing, and behaving, which must be seen as a coherent unitary structure, which also co-determines a child's possessed experience. Proceeding from this categorical structure, the psychic life of a child is actualized as a totality-in-function, via his/her given equally primordial structures or potentialities of learning and becoming.

In the previous chapter, a complete picture is given of how learning occurs in terms of the psychopedagogical essences mentioned. It is repeatedly pointed out that there is a close connection between learning and becoming, in that a child only becomes if he/she learns. Becoming also is the outcome of a child's learning, seen in actualizing the psychopedagogical essences of experiencing, willing, lived experiencing, knowing, and behaving, which culminate in broadening and deepening a child's possessed experience. In other words, possessed experience is meaning imbued experience of content or, in terms of becoming, it is a child's meaningful experiences from his/her dialogue or conversation with his/her world. Also, possessed experience is a hierarchy of meanings, i.e., meanings on a lower or higher level of significance or quality. This hierarchy is not only one of level of meaning but one of preference or disapproval in terms of a hierarchy of values assigned to content and appropriated via dialoguing with reality.

Finally, it is noted that a child's existing possessed experience is of essential significance for his/her future behaving, since it determines his/her level of living. It is deduced from this that the way in which a child behaves, which is largely reflected in the state of his/her learning and becoming. Thus, it is accepted that the coherence of learning and becoming, in actualizing his/her psychic life, culminates in his/her behaviors. These behaviors

become more evident when he/she actualizes his/her learning and becoming.

3.2.2 Modes of behaving as actualizing and elevating level of becoming

Behaving, as it springs from a child's experiencing, willful choosing, lived experiencing, his/her knowing, and eventually the important role of possessed experience is expressed in actualizing his/her becoming. Additionally, this actualization occurs by means of the modes of becoming, i.e., exploring, emancipating, etc. In other words, a child's *behaving* is reflected in his/her exploring, emancipating, etc.

The aim is to provide a psychopedagogical illumination of the *way* or *ways* in which becoming is actualized.

In a discussion of the essences of *lived experiencing* in chapter III, it is pointed out that there are three moments or ways which occur in a child's actualizing his/her psychic life, i.e., pathic-affective (emotional), gnostic-cognitive (understanding, knowing), and normative (attributing sense and meaning). These are important in a child actualizing his/her psychic life as essentially involving ways of giving meaning. Thus, he/she gives and lived experiences meaning in emotional ways (pathic-affective ways), in knowing or cognitive ways (gnostic-cognitive ways), and in normative ways which, more particularly, involve norms and values a child appropriates for him/herself in lived experiencing meaning.

There are coherent relationships among these three moments of lived experiencing. For example, where there is an increasing stabilization in pathic-affective lived experiencing, which is a condition for the flourishing of gnostic-cognitive lived experiencing, a leap from stabilized pathic-affective to orderly cognitive lived experiencing occurs much more easily if emotional stability precedes it. In chapter III, it is pointed out that sensing is a pathic or affective mode of learning, and pathic-affective lived experiencing must be stable for cognitive modes of learning to be facilitated, such as perceiving, thinking, and remembering. On

the other hand, the coherence of gnostic-cognitive lived experiences and the pathic-affective also must be indicated.

If a child, for whatever reason, e.g., good teaching or good textbook study, is on a systematic, orderly knowing or cognitive level of lived experiencing, it has a reciprocal influence on pathic-affective lived experiencing, in the sense that such a [cognitive] lived experiencing enables him/her to lived experience security, trust, and safety, which enable emotional lived experiencing leading to increasing emotional stability. Such reciprocity is seen when there is emotional lived experiencing of lability, insecurity, and uncertainty, which restrain a shift to gnostic-cognitive lived experiencing, as ordered or systematic, which then becomes global-diffuse, i.e., weak or lacking in orderliness, which inhibits lived experiencing emotional stability. Then, a child lived experiences emotional lability.

Both pathic-affective and gnostic-cognitive lived experiencing indicate the ways in which a child lived experiences meaning. The modes of becoming reflect a child's level of lived experiencing. In principle, if a child continually lived experiences lability in his/her emotional life, as well as [gnostic/cognitive] global diffuseness, or a lack of order, this leads to lived experiencing normative meaninglessness.

The aim, thus far, is to indicate the way in which a child, in actualizing his/her learning and becoming, attributes meaning and lived experiences this meaning as normative lived experiencing.

In the following section, we return to child becoming as level actualizing and elevating. This raises the question: *how is becoming actualized as a given potentiality of the psychic life of child-in-educating as elevating its level and meaning.*

The actualization of a child's psychic life eventually results in *behaving* on different levels. Hence, his/her becoming is actualized via the ways of *becoming*, as *behaving on different*

levels. The question is how this *becoming, as behaving*, occurs, when viewed as actualizing and elevating its level:

Actualizing the *level* of becoming, occurs in two ways, i.e., pathic-affectively, and gnostic-cognitively. Each of these ways or moments has its own structural hierarchy.

Pathic-affective lived experiencing has a structural hierarchy from lability to stability. On the other hand, gnostic-cognitive lived experiencing displays a hierarchical structure varying from global-diffuse to analyzing and synthesizing, now seen as a stronger synthesizing to a more systematic or ordered structure.

On the question of how *level is actualized and elevated* in terms of a child's *becoming*, now viewed as *behaving resulting from the entire actualization of the psychic life*, via the different modes of becoming, the pathic-affective elevation can be actualized on three levels of behaving. In order of increasing stabilization, they are:

- (i) A senso-pathic level.
- (ii) A pathic level.
- (iii) An affective level.

Regarding the gnostic-cognitive actualization and elevation of level, three levels of behaving also are distinguished, now seen in the increased degree of cognitive or knowing order, i.e.:

- (i) A senso-gnostic level.
- (ii) A gnostic level.
- (iii) A cognitive level.

These distinctions are separated to describe the structures in terms of which the behaviors in actualizing and elevating the level of becoming occur.

An explanation of why the terms pathic and gnostic are used is helpful: First, the sense in which “pathic” is used in the context of affective becoming means a more vital, physical, or motor becoming, as well as a greater degree of impulsivity or lability, while “affective” refers to a greater degree of stability. These concepts are chosen merely to make distinctions and for practical purposes. For the same reason, a distinction is made between “gnostic”, meaning knowing or mental globalizing, while cognitive

is on a higher level of cognitive behaving, where there is synthesizing, but particularly where behaving is more ordered or systematic. The concept “senso” refers to the more sensory or physical or vital-pathic in the compound senso-pathic, as well as in the compound senso-gnostic.

It is possible that any child can actualize his/her psychic life on any of the three levels of the pathic-affective and/or gnostic-cognitive moments of becoming. Thus, a child’s *actualization of his/her psychic life* by *becoming* via his/her exploring, emancipating, distancing, differentiating, or objectifying *behaviors*, can occur on the pathic-gnostic as well as affective-cognitive level. Thus, it is expected that actualizing becoming increasingly occurs in the direction from senso-pathic or senso-gnostic, via or through the pathic and gnostic to the affective and cognitive level.

In terms of age, biological maturation, or development, specifically with reference to developmental psychology, it is argued that a younger child is more inclined to actualize his/her becoming on senso-pathic or senso-gnostic levels, with which we agree. Also, it is expected that, as he/she grows up, he/she actualizes his/her becoming on a more pathic and/or more gnostic level, as well as at an even later age, e.g., puberty or adolescence, on an affective-cognitive level.

However, one is warned against a mechanistic or automatic connotation being given to the actualization of these levels, and how this occurs on the way to adulthood. Psychopedagogically, this becoming involves a more distinctive normative actualization as giving and lived experiencing meaning, which are not deterministic or automatic. On the contrary, becoming involves a child actualizing his/her psychic life, i.e., his/her own role by *exploring, emancipating, distancing, differentiating, and objectifying*, thus, actions as *acts of becoming* or *behaving* which are made possible by a child’s learning. That is, the entire actualization of his/her psychic life, in the form of behaving, occurs on a senso-pathic, senso-gnostic, pathic, gnostic, or affective, cognitive level. Hence, this is much more about a child’s *psychic life actualization*, as eventual *normative* (willed or

arbitrary) behaving on the different levels of becoming. Finally, this means behaving, in terms of the meanings he/she gives and lived experiences, as different levels on which his/her psychic life is actualized. It is understandable that a young child (toddler or a preschooler) willingly and knowingly actualizes his/her psychic life on a senso-pathic as well as senso-gnostic level. Gradually, he/she distances him/herself from a sensory-vital-physical level of becoming to a more pathic or gnostic level. The same is true regarding the higher levels of affective or cognitive becoming actualized by a puber, adolescent, or adult.

At the same time, this explication of structure regarding a child's actualizing and elevating the level of becoming does not necessarily follow "this pattern". Rather, this is a "normal" progression which is influenceable by certain factors. Specifically, it is noted that educative influences, a child's own physical existence with everything this entails (e.g., hereditary factors, etc.), can be responsible for a different pattern of level actualization of a child's becoming.

Of course, a degeneration, relapse, or regression (Freud) while becoming are possible: Irrespective of age, endogenous and exogenous circumstances can give rise to certain degenerations or relapses [or accelerations] in actualizing becoming. A few examples are a child who feels insecure or tense finds it very difficult to actualize his/her becoming on an elevated level; i.e., he/she cannot distance him/herself from the senso-pathic to the pathic, or even affective levels\ of behaving. Also, a child in puberty, because of a possible confusion in sexuality, can fall back to a labile level, or to a pathic or senso-pathic level of behaving. Educative influences can play an important role here. The same can be said about gnostic-cognitive behaving. A tense child also might find difficulty in elevating, in actualizing the cognitive moment of his/her psychic life and, perhaps, might be inclined to fall back to a more senso-gnostic or a more concrete perceptual level of becoming or behaving.

In summary, there may be degeneration or relapse in becoming, or mobility, or an inadequate course in actualizing his/her

becoming. A psychopedagogical perspective on the matter of becoming adult is only attuned to showing the *way* or *ways* in which this occurs. This becoming adult, as level actualization and elevation, whether done adequately or inadequately, becomes visible in a child's behaviors. Thus, these *behaviors* are visible in the ways or modes of becoming, i.e., exploring, emancipating, distancing, differentiating, and objectifying.

4. THE ROLE OF EDUCATING AND TEACHING IN ACTUALIZING A CHILD'S PSYCHIC LIFE AS ACTUALIZING BECOMING

In the previous sections, an adult's educative influence, including that of parents, teachers, and other adults, has a direct role in the ways a child becomes.

Thus far, there is special reference to a child's actualization of his/her psychic life as he/she takes the initiative, by him/herself actualizing his/her psychic life, via its different essences. Also, this occurs through the different modes of becoming. In psychopedagogics, this is known as a child's self-actualizing his/her becoming, seen as self-actualizing his/her psychic life.

The specific aim of this section is to indicate the *share of an adult's* educating, in this *actualization of becoming*. When there is educating or educative influencing, this always involves teaching. The reason is that. Though distinguishable, educating and teaching cannot be separated. (See the works of F. van der Stoep and collaborators). The view is that educating is realized in teaching, and teaching is found in a primordial educative situation where, from the beginning, a mother teaches her child. Thus, in her teaching, she continually educates him/her.

The purpose of this section is to indicate different modes of educating and teaching, from a psychopedagogical perspective.

From this perspective, there are three moments of educating and teaching, known as modes of accompaniment:

4.1 Affective or emotional accompaniment

4.2 Cognitive or knowing accompaniment

4.3 Normative accompaniment

These modes are also referred to as modes of accompanying a child to self-actualizing his/her psychic life while becoming.

The origin of this three-fold distinction is in a child's self-actualizing his/her becoming, as level elevation just discussed. For his/her self-realizing them, a child needs corresponding adult educative accompaniment.

Thus, a psychpedagogical discussion of this three-fold distinction of educating and teaching or accompanying follows.

Affective or emotional accompanying also means emotional communicating, conversing, dialoguing, interacting between an adult and a child. Essentially,, this involves an emotional contact, atmosphere, or climate between them. This contact can show a physical or sensory side, where a mother physically pampers or handles her young child. Another example of emotional accompaniment, especially with a young child, is a mother's smile. Still other examples from an ordinary family situation are kindness, sympathy, encounter, trust, association, etc. between parent and child. A friendly smile, mussing up hair, or a friendly conversation are examples of emotive accompaniment. Regarding this, fundamental pedagogics discloses a relationship structure of trust. (See the works of W. A. Landman and collaborators).

In conclusion, it is emphasized that emotional or affective accompaniment is an initiation of an *emotional readiness of an adult* to want to teach a child. This is about an adult being open to encountering a child, and to go further with him/her on his/her way to adulthood. This is a willingness and readiness to accept, encounter, educate, and teach him/her. For a child, this emotional climate or atmosphere is felt. In a school lesson situation, there is a lesson greeting, by which there is an emotional acceptance and readiness, or an invitation conveyed to pupils to emotionally open themselves to teaching, but it also is very important for them to respond emotionally to this invitation with a willingness to learn.

Regarding actualizing becoming, as level elevation and, more specifically, the role of educating, teaching, and accompanying, now it is emphasized that, by emotionally or affectively accompanying a child, an adult directs an appeal or invitation to him/her and, in doing so, his/her emotional or affective self-realizing his/her becoming is visible in his/her *affective behavior*. Thus, via affective accompaniment, an appeal is directed to him/her to open him/herself and “declare” his/her willingness to self-actualize in a pathic-affective way, such that there is a level actualization and elevation in becoming.

Depending on how an adult launches this emotional accompaniment, a child lived experiences such accompaniment and behaves accordingly. That is, if a child experiences and lived experiences an adult’s accompaniment as labilizing, or stabilizing, he/she will *behave accordingly in actualizing his/her becoming*. These ways of accompanying speak directly to a child’s ways of actualizing his/her emotional, affective becoming and behaving. A good example is that if, while under the affective or emotional accompaniment of an adult, a child lived experiences him/herself as insecure, uncertain, or does not have sufficient confidence in an adult’s decisions, he/she does not feel ready to actualize him/herself to affective, emotional stability, e.g., to an elevation in level. The reverse is also true that, when a child lived experiences this adult accompaniment as stabilizing, i.e., as trustworthy, he/she responds by actualizing his/her learning and becoming, such that this stabilizes the actualization of his/her psychic life. If the way an adult accompanies a child affectively or emotionally, from day to day, or if there is an inconsistency between father and mother, two different teachers, etc., this can result in a child feeling insecure, and his/her *behaving* can *relapse* from stability to lability.

In addition, this affective or emotional accompaniment can influence a child’s predisposition to actualize his/her gnostic-cognitive becoming, as an elevation in level. That is, an increased stabilization in actualizing the pathic-affective level prepares the way for an elevation to the gnostic-cognitive.

What has been stated so far about affective or emotional accompaniment and its effect on a child's actualizing his/her affective or emotional becoming is equally true of an adult's *gnostic-cognitive accompaniment*, e.g., when an adult accompanies a child with respect to his/her intellect, being logical, his/her reasoning, thinking, and conceptualizing. In a family educative situation, e. g., this can occur by parents explaining logically what it is they are presenting to their children in educating them. Thus, this is not merely about the fact *that* a parent educates his/her child normatively, i.e., by exemplifying or saying what is right or wrong, but also by *explaining why* something is right or wrong. Another example is that, when a child is punished, it should be explained to him/her why. A child in puberty or adolescence also shows a great need for cognitive or knowing accompaniment, especially when he/she questions adult norms because of his/her critical attitude. Educating occurring at home also shows cognitive or knowing accompaniment in an *open conversation* or *dialogue* between child and parent. This open conversation originates in the well-known *child question*, which first appears at about three- or four-years of age when, e.g., a young toddler incessantly asks his/her mother questions which she might find difficult to always answer. This questioning is a clear sign and evidence that a child is asking for cognitive or knowing accompaniment. Hence, a parent is always obligated to answer these questions in the best possible and clearest way. A child's question, thus, runs through his/her entire actualization of becoming in which he/she has an important part at any level of educating. A reticent child is possibly not cognitively and knowingly involved in actualizing his/her becoming as an elevation in level.

In school, cognitive or knowing accompaniment is more conspicuous. The reason is that a teacher's task is to teach and educate a child via content, more generally known as subject matter. Also, a teacher is continually explaining, telling, or asking questions, or answering a child's questions. In didactic pedagogics (see the works of F. van der Stoep and collaborators), there are many examples of didactic accompanying which correspond to cognitive accompaniment. This important mode of

educating, teaching, or accompanying, and its place in a lesson situation, as well as in teaching practice, are not discussed here.

In addition, as with affective accompaniment, cognitive accompaniment, whether by parents, teachers, or other adults, directly influences the cognitive or knowing actualization of his/her becoming, now seen as an elevation in level. Thus, an adult intervenes directly via his/her cognitive accompaniment until he/she self-actualizes his/her becoming and, thus, to the possibility of an elevation in the level of his/her *becoming* and *behaving*.

With respect to the ways a child can self-actualize his/her psychic life by experiencing, willing, lived experiencing, knowing, and behaving in their coherence with his/her possessed experience, it is mentioned that this cognitive and knowing accompaniment directly influence a child's *cognitive lived experiencing* and, thus, his/her cognitive behaviors, as reflected in the actualization of the level of his/her becoming. This also means that this cognitive accompanying is reflected in a child's cognitive lived experiencing as this becomes visible in his/her exploring, emancipating, distancing, differentiating, and objectifying. In addition, however, if gnostic-cognitive actualization of becoming, as level elevation occurs, the realization of gradually *increased order* in its coherence with globalizing, analyzing, synthesizing, and systematizing, this kind of accompaniment will directly influence whether this increase in ordering occurs. This also makes demands on how an adult accompanies a child cognitively, i.e., to the extent that a child meets the demands of ordering and understanding, this results in a corresponding lived experiencing by a child. An additional result is *cognitive self-actualizing* and, thus, *the actualization of becoming on a higher level of behaving*.

The reciprocal connection between the pathic-affective and gnostic-cognitive actualizing of becoming, as self-actualizing, now is viewed in terms of the gnostic-cognitive or knowing accompaniment by an adult. In practice, e.g., an *ordered, systematic, or conceptual cognitive accompaniment* can stabilize a child's *affective becoming as elevation in level and behaving*. Conversely, an *unsystematic, disordered, poorly planned knowing*

or cognitive accompaniment can labilize, or destabilize a child's actualization of his/her becoming and behaving. A practical example is when a teacher accompanies in unordered ways in his/her educating and teaching, his/her explanations, board work, etc. This gives rise to little self-confidence and, correspondingly, labilizes emotionally his/her experiencing, willing, lived experiencing, possessed experience, and behaving, as ways of actualizing the affective elevation of his/her becoming.

Normative accompaniment is probably more familiar because all educating and teaching is normative. That is, accountable educating and teaching are engaged in by an adult with an educative aim in mind. The psychpedagogical question is *how* this normative accompaniment proceeds. The ways in which a child gives and lived experiences meaning and, thus, elevates the level of his/her becoming adult is via affective and cognitive self-actualization. The path of normative accompaniment proceeds via affective as well as cognitive accompaniment. This is not a matter of merely presenting or exemplifying a norm. Rather, viewed psychpedagogically, the question is the way or ways a norm is presented or exemplified affectively and cognitively to a child.

This three-fold way of accompanying proceeds as a unity. In presenting a norm to a child during an adult's accompaniment, he/she is doing it affectively, which can be labilizing or stabilizing. At the same time, he/she is involved in presenting or exemplifying a norm in a systematic, orderly, and conceptual way, or on the contrary, in a global-diffuse, disorderly way. Thus, as a totality event, this accompanying, in its different moments, ought to progress in the most accountable way to best serve a child's potentiality of elevating the level of his/her becoming.

5. SYNTHESIS: CHILD BECOMING

This chapter has two main parts; the first deals with development, as a concept generally accepted by proponents of developmental psychology, as well as with child becoming, as an acceptable and accountable concept for pedagogics and for psychopedagogics. A few descriptions of development or developmental psychology are

presented after which the positions of a few exponents are indicated as examples.

In the second part, attention is given to the concept becoming, viewed as becoming adult and, thus, the importance of an educative aim and criteria of being adult are the points of departure. The role of psychopedagogics in this discussion of becoming is mainly in its contribution to the question how becoming is actualized, now seen as an actualization of the level of a child's becoming. The role of a child in his/her own becoming is emphasized, as are the ways in which his/her self-actualization occurs as an elevation in level. Also, considered is an adult's role, i.e., the ways of accompanying, by which an adult has a direct influence on the ways in which a child's becoming is actualized.

Hopefully the critique made by pedagogics and psychopedagogics of the concept development, and some of the findings of developmental psychology, have been illuminated, and that there is greater clarity of the concept becoming and, especially, the entire matter of actualizing becoming, as an event which occurs within the actualization of the entire psychic life of a child-in-educating.

In addition, viewed psychopedagogically, child becoming is actualized via different ways *of behaving*, which are inseparable. It is important that these behaviors are performed in accordance with criteria (yardsticks) and, thus, are *normative* ways by which a child *gives meaning* in his/her *behaving*, which are performed normatively in terms of the essences of becoming adult.

Child becoming is realized in and through behaving, which also requires the affective, cognitive, and normative educative accompaniment of a child by an adult. It is noted that here there is both a horizontal and vertical mobility which, in the actualization of becoming, point to a reciprocal hierarchical structure in the actualization of becoming.

Finally, this actualization of becoming cannot occur without learning. Becoming and learning are related directly in that

becoming is possible because a child learns. Thus, the *actualization of learning*, as it is embodied in *behaving* is expressed in the *actualization of becoming* and, in this way, directly influences a child's *becoming adult*.

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