

CHAPTER VI*

PERSONAL ACTUALIZATION IN THE CLASSROOM

1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the learner's self-actualization by attributing meaning via the various modes of learning and their respective modalities or functions. But this self-actualization needs to be guided by an adult for it to lead to "proper" adulthood. This guidance is education and its most obvious manifestation is a parent (adult) teaching a child something. However, in a changing and technologically complex world, reference to an adult is not merely to the parent as primary educator.

Because of the increasing complexity of the world, the school arose as an institution to complement the parent in educating and preparing his child so that he as easily as possible can move into the modern, complex adult life world. Thus, the school's task is continuing and completing the educating originating in the home as well as taking the responsibility for interpreting, unlocking and clarifying the complex structures of reality for a child to enable him to eventually become a meaningful adult member of this reality. That is, for a child, schooling is a way to adult life (Langeveld) or is a bridge between the world of the child and the world of the adult (Van der Stoep). This chapter deals with the personal actualization of a child in the classroom. The focus is on how the adult guides a child's self-actualization as this occurs in school. Thus, it is meaningful to briefly consider the relationship between educating and teaching. Van der Stoep (1973, p 12) says that educating a child is possible only by means of teaching. If so, educating is actualized in teaching. Hence, the meaning of teaching is in the event of educating itself (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 12).

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One who is familiar with the structure of contemporary pedagogics knows that it is didactic pedagogics, one of its part-disciplines, that primarily is responsible for studying the practice of giving lessons in school. This pedagogic discipline aims to understand the nature of the teaching situation and to describe its structure. Thus, its task is to discern and describe what generally holds true for any lesson situation. When these essential activities of a lesson are described and are structured in terms of their inherent relationships, there is mention of a lesson structure or teaching model (Basson et al., 1983, p 2). It is for this reason that Van der Stoep (1973, p 26) and Louw (1992, p 71) say that any didactic theory leads to a lesson structure or teaching model that is really a guideline for designing a particular teaching situation.

Basson (Basson et al., 1983, p 3) states that the lesson structure or teaching model has to be functional by providing realistic guidelines for designing a lesson. According to him, the following four aspects should be considered individually, as well as in their relatedness, in designing a lesson:

1. Subject contents

Subject contents need to be reduced to their essentials and learning aims formulated;

2. Aims of the phases of a lesson

The reduced subject contents now are ordered according to the specific teaching aims to be achieved during the course of a lesson;

3. Lesson modalities

Teaching and learning activities as well as the supporting teaching and learning aids need to be thoroughly planned. That is, the ways in which teaching and learning are to be actualized have to be specified and planned.

4. Lesson form

The form of a lesson is determined by anticipating and planning which teaching method(s) are to be actualized in coordination with which didactic ground forms. The choice of specific methodological principles as well as certain ordering principles gives a final touch to the form of the lesson.

These four aspects are the basis for designing any lesson. Planning a lesson as a coordinated teaching and learning event includes

reflecting on the contents, form and the didactic modalities to be brought into play during the presentation of a lesson. Didactic guidance (teaching) by the teacher is directed to unlocking reality for a child in such a way that he will understand it and on this basis establish a meaningful life world for himself. Such guidance clearly is directed to the learning effect he is to achieve. Teaching and becoming adult (personal actualization) thus are an unbreakable unity in an educative teaching situation.

From a didactic-pedagogic perspective, for effective teaching and learning to occur, in designing a lesson the teacher needs to create a harmony between its form and content (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1984). Without considering this matter further, from the above, it is clear that didactic-pedagogics has erected a very comprehensive and effective structure that is a scientific description of teaching as well as a structural basis (i.e., guideline) for designing any lesson.

Since personal actualization of a child-in-education is the area studied by psychopedagogics, if it tries to offer anything about the practice of designing and presenting a lesson, the possibility of exceeding its domain or of unnecessary overlapping with didactic pedagogics arises. However, in this connection teaching and giving a lesson are not a focus only for didactics and subject-didactics, but, as phenomena of educating, their coordinated illumination by all part disciplines of pedagogics is implied (Sonnekus, 1977, p 2). Indeed, the possibility of a pedagogic part-discipline overstepping its terrain does not exist. This is because each part discipline has as its area of study the totality of the reality of educating and the main difference among them is the particular questions each asks of that reality.

Because psychopedagogics is one of the foundational part disciplines of pedagogics (along with the part-discipline of fundamental pedagogics), and, as such, it does not have its own practice, it might seem that it only has a general (theoretical) value and thus cannot contribute directly to the practice of teaching. Thus, a question is whether psychopedagogics can really contribute to improving the practice of teaching. Stated otherwise, it also can be asked in what ways does personal actualization occur by means of teaching in the classroom. However, it is important to emphasize

that the aim of psychopedagogics in this connection is not to prescribe to didactic pedagogics but rather to supplement didactic-pedagogic insights with psychopedagogic ones within the lesson structure.

2. PSYCHOPEDAGOGICS AND LESSON PRACTICE

Stated in broad terms, the aims of teaching are that:

- * a child learn the contents that are taught; and
- * his becoming adult will prosper accordingly.

From these aims it is clear that teaching, learning and becoming adult are not separate from each other; this also is because teaching does not make sense without a child learning. Therefore, the effect of teaching is observable in a child's learning (Sonnekus, 1977, p xiii).

Learning and becoming, which are the aims of teaching, also are ways in which the psychic life of the child-in-education manifests itself and this is the area studied by psychopedagogics. Consequently, it does have a responsibility regarding the practice of teaching, and its insights not only are relevant but even necessary.

From the above, it is clear what the aims are of teaching in the classroom. In addition to the overarching aims mentioned, each particular lesson has a specific lesson aim and learning aim (Van der Stoep, 1973, pp 27-30) that specify, respectively, what is going to be taught and what is going to be learned. The lesson aim refers to what the teacher is responsible for and to what he is going to do with the learning contents so the learning aim can be attained. The learning aim refers to the learning activities that the teacher plans for the learners; it refers to what the learners themselves ultimately will be able to do if they appropriately master the particular learning contents (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 29).

However, what these aims often do not make clear is how one ought to set out to reach them. Merely formulating the aims in terms of what is to be attained is insufficient if there is not already an indication of how one can proceed. It is precisely with regard to

this matter of how that psychopedagogics makes a particular and necessary contribution to teaching practice.

Since psychopedagogics is interested in the ways (how) things occur in the educative situation, in the ways a child learns and becomes, its task and responsibility are to contribute to teaching practice with respect to learning and becoming. It is clear that psychopedagogic findings regarding the ways a child learns should be taken into consideration, especially in planning the lesson modalities. Only then can didactic-pedagogic and psychopedagogic insights converge to bring about a scientifically accountable teaching practice.

However, implementing psychopedagogic insights should not be separated from the following aims of presenting a lesson (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, pp 310-313):

- * ultimate educational or teaching aims:
 - from a psychopedagogic perspective, the eventual aim of all educating is to guide a child to proper adulthood via the adequate personal actualization of his psychic life;
- * intermediate teaching and guiding aims:
 - to guide a child to:
 - stabilized affective lived-experiences
 - ordered cognitive lived-experiences
 - attributing sense and meaning via normative lived-experiences.
- * immediate (specialized) learning aims:
 - affective guidance to:
 - adequate sensing
 - adequate attending
 - cognitive guidance to adequate:
 - perceiving
 - thinking
 - imagining and fantasizing
 - remembering
- * immediate (specialized) aims of becoming:
 - guidance to adequate:
 - exploration

- emancipation
- distantiation
- differentiation
- objectification

Thus, it is apparent that psychopedagogics, along with the teaching aims formulated by didactic pedagogics, and the educative aims of fundamental pedagogics, each contributes their own series of aims to the practice of teaching. This, again, raises the question of whether psychopedagogics is overstepping its bounds. But the aims of psychopedagogics cannot be essentially different from the aims of the other two part-disciplines mentioned. The difference is in the fact that psychopedagogics does not say what ought to be achieved but rather how it can be attained. Thus, psychopedagogic aims are not so much directed to an end result as they are to a way of doing. For this reason, it has another type of contribution to make to the practice of teaching than do the other part disciplines of pedagogics. If it indicates the way, then attaining these psychopedagogic aims is a precondition for reaching the didactic- and fundamental-pedagogic aims.

From the above, the necessity for formulating psychopedagogic aims is clear. Omitting, ignoring or haphazardly taking them into account in preparing a lesson will, at most, lead to attaining the educational and teaching aims by chance, and, thus, such a practice does not rest on scientific grounds. This strategy can succeed but if it fails, the teacher is unable to give an account to himself of why it failed (Basson et al., 1983, p 3). Thus, psychopedagogic insights should not be taken into account in a haphazard way when designing a lesson. Provision has to be made for formulating such psychopedagogic aims and goals, and their purposeful attainment has to be planned.

Unfortunately, practice shows that there is seldom a real integration of didactic and psychopedagogic insights. Indeed, it is especially the student teacher who often does not yet have the skills to allow the contents and insights of the different pedagogic part disciplines to converge in practice.

The problem or question that this raises is how can psychopedagogic findings be taken into account in natural ways by the teacher and student teacher in designing a lesson? To address this question, first it is necessary to ask and answer another question: what is the aim of designing and presenting a lesson? Often it seems that a lesson is designed only with the aim of being able to present a “good” lesson. Certainly, in itself, there is no fault with this provided it is kept in mind that ultimately the quality of a lesson is not in the way it is presented but rather in the effect it has on the learners. If this is not taken into account, there is the danger that preparation only will be done for the sake of the teaching (the presentation). The implication of this is that teaching for the sake of teaching occurs and, consequently, it becomes an end in itself, and this ignores its real purpose.

Since the purpose of teaching is the learning effect aimed for, this aim has to be taken into account in preparing the lesson. The primary aim of teaching in school is that a child learns effectively. Hence, teaching can be qualified as good, meaningful or effective only if a child has learned effectively. Therefore, designing and presenting a lesson needs to result in adequate learning. Following Kachelhoffer (1983, p 10), in the teaching situation the emphasis shifts from a teaching or instructional approach to a studying or learning approach. What the teacher does during teaching is not as important as what the pupils are able to do afterwards.

However, because the significance of teaching is in the learning effect, it is only after the lesson is presented and its learning effect is evaluated that its success and meaningfulness can be determined. The dilemma, of course, is that at the time the evaluation is done, it often is too late to make any corrections if the teaching has not had the desired effect. In order to anticipate this problem as far as possible, there needs to be purposeful planning for effective learning while designing the lesson. To be able to do this requires a sound understanding of the ways a child learns (see Chapter V).

2.1 Psychopedagogics and designing a lesson

A lesson is given in terms of purposefully selected contents with the aim that a child learns, masters and makes them his own (Sonnekus

and Ferreira, 1987, p 286). Thus, the lesson situation has a clear aim. Above and beyond the overarching aim of a child's proper adulthood, there also are distinct, specialized fundamental pedagogic, didactic-pedagogic and psychopedagogic aims. Teaching in a lesson situation is a pedagogic (i.e., educative) activity and, therefore, it implicates the perspectives on education (and thus on teaching) taken by all of the other part disciplines of pedagogics (Louw, 1992, pp 48-50). Although the aims of the various pedagogic disciplines are distinguished from each other, in practice, their joint attainment is striven for. In this way, there is an attempt to guide a child to attain greater mobility regarding the contents, to increase his skills, and competence to act, choose and judge. Thus, the aim of teaching is that a child learns to strengthen his grasp of reality (contents) in order to establish a meaningful life world for himself. If this learning aim is achieved, an elevation in the level of his behaving occurs, his becoming is actualized and he gradually progresses in the direction of adulthood.

Presenting a lesson should not be haphazard or spontaneous. It is a purposeful and planned activity that requires thorough preparation by the teacher and is directed to a child's learning activities. Preparing a lesson implies that the teacher plan to create a harmony between form and content (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1984, p 40) as well as between teaching and learning (Sonnekus, 1977, pp 55-56). Thus, in his preparation, he is accountable for his interpretation of both his academic subject knowledge and his didactic-pedagogic knowledge in light of the demands that the practice of teaching place on him (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1992, Chapter 5).

Since he designs the situation and initiates teaching, the teacher is responsible for the events in the classroom. The core of this responsibility is to disclose the meaning of the contents to the pupils. Thus, the lesson contents are central both to preparing and presenting a lesson.

The choices of a theme, the correlated contents and especially the ways the teacher deals with these contents largely determine the success or failure of the lesson. In this connection, there are three matters (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 32) that should not be lost sight of in designing a lesson:

- * reducing the contents;
- * stating the problem that the teacher identifies;
- * ordering the contents.

It is obvious that the teacher needs to have substantive subject knowledge in order to disclose the implicit or inherent meaning of the contents to his pupils. To do this, the contents have to be reduced so that only the essential facts (elementals, key or “big” ideas) that carry their sense and meaning remain. In light of the learning aim, the facts need to be “purified” so the pupils can be guided to learn the core of the matter. In order to put the contents, and especially their meaning, within a child’s reach, they have to be reduced to their essentials (elementals) and expressed in language understandable to him. This requires mobility and flexibility on the part of the teacher regarding his subject knowledge as well as his knowledge of his particular pupils, their possessed experiences or foreknowledge and the quality of their insights (Gouws, 1984, p 128).

Reducing the learning material requires that in the search for essentials there is a return to the origins of the learning contents, that is, a return to the ways they appear in the life world of a child; therefore, the essentials in terms of which the lesson is designed should at least be an implicit part of a child’s foreknowledge or possessed experience (Sonnekus, 1977, p 26).

The selection and reduction of the contents for the lesson theme do not mean that the pupils to whom the lesson will be presented necessarily are interested in this theme. Van der Stoep (1973, p 38) points out that learning is most effective when a theme is presented in the context of a problem. Although the themes themselves are not problems, they contain inherent problems that need to be brought to light in such a way that for the pupils they become meaningful, important questions worth answering. Stating the problem should place the lesson contents in the child’s life world. Then this will awaken his willingness to search, under the guidance of his teacher, for a solution to the problem and also for the meaning of the contents.

Further, the teacher should explicitly order the contents because their meaningfulness to the learner is closely related to how they are ordered or organized (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 41). Of particular importance in this connection is that ordering the contents link up with a child's own cognitive, order-directed lived-experiences because this link promotes learning.

In addition to reflecting on how he should deal with the contents of the lesson, it also is necessary that he considers and plans the form of the lesson. It is the didactic ground forms (play, conversation, example, and assignment), the methodological principles (inductive and deductive), the principles of ordering the learning material (e.g., linear, chronological, symbiotic) and the teaching methods (tell, relate, question-and-answer, free activity, demonstration, etc.) that give form to the lesson. Also, it is the didactic modalities, the modes of learning and the learning aids that put the lesson into motion and that, therefore, need to be planned for each of the six phases of a lesson (Gouws, 1984, p 129). These phases are considered below.

It is especially with respect to planning which modes of learning are to be actualized that psychopedagogics can and should contribute to the lesson practice. The following discussion of this issue assumes that the teacher (reader) has a thorough understanding of how a child learns (see Chapter V).

According to Louw (1992, pp 88-91), the form in which the contents are presented not only depends on their nature but also on the nature of a child to whom it is presented. Therefore, the form of a lesson should be in harmony with the ways a child learns. Consequently, the teacher should try, through his teaching activities, to complement a child's learning. In designing a lesson, the teacher should not leave the question of the modes of learning to chance (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 55) and, therefore, he has to have a good understanding of the ways it occurs. (Again, see Chapter V).

A child learns by means of a variety of modes of learning, each of which fulfills a number of learning functions. Thus, teaching directed to a child's learning requires that, in preparing a lesson, opportunities be created to fulfill the functions or modalities of the

relevant modes of learning. To insure adequate learning, as far as possible, the first question the teacher should consider in designing a lesson is not about his way of presenting but rather about the ways his pupils will learn the particular subject contents. After selecting the contents the teacher decides which modes of learning and their functions will achieve the desired learning effect. For example, when perceiving (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, pp 115-119) is prominent in the learning event, then provision should be made for globally identifying, analyzing, synthesizing and ordering (i.e., for the modalities of perceiving) during the presentation of the lesson. When thinking (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, pp 119-122) is the mode of learning by which the best learning effect can be attained, opportunities should be created for stating and solving a problem, concept formation, abstracting and ordering. Only after the teacher has ascertained the relevant learning modes and functions can he further plan the lesson.

The reduction and ordering of the contents, stating the problem, as well as the choice of basic forms, methodological principles, teaching methods, etc. should not rest solely on the unique nature of the subject but they also should be based on the modes and modalities of learning that are to be actualized in each phase of the lesson. Only then will the pupils' needs, potentialities and levels of becoming (development) be considered in planning the lesson, thereby increasing the possibility for its success (Crous, 1984, p 23).

The success of teaching is not measured by a teacher's activities but rather by the quality of the learning effect achieved by the pupils (Kachelhoffer, 1983, p 12). Thus, an overarching aim of teaching is adequate learning and, therefore, in formulating the lesson and learning aims there should be an indication of the modes and functions (modalities) of learning that can be actualized. For this reason, it is necessary to formulate the learning aims in terms that can be operationalized as practical, feasible learning activities. From such formulated learning aims, the precise modes and modalities (functions) of learning as well as the complementary teaching activities can be indicated.

The following learning aims illustrate the above exposition (Slabbert, 1983):

At the end of this period, the pupils ought to be able to:

- * name, write down and draw different parts of a flower;
- * identify the different parts of a flower;
- * describe the function of each part of a flower;
- * dissect a flower to show each of its parts.

With such a formulation of the learning aims, the learning activities that the pupils have to carry out are revealed and in this light the modes and functions (modalities) of learning and the teaching activities are inferred. The above is tabulated as follows:

Learning	Mode of learning	Learning modality (function)	Teaching activity
Name	Remember	Make present	Prompt, tell, repeat, ask questions
Write down	Remember	Make present	Prompt, tell, repeat
Draw	Imagine	Creatively represent	Demonstrate
Identify	Perceive	Globally identify	Point out

Describe	Remember	Make present	Narrate, explain
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Dissect	Perceive	Analyze	Demonstrate
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Show	Perceive	Globally identify	Point out
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Hence, perceiving, remembering and imagining figure prominently in a lesson having the above learning aims. Consequently, the lesson design should revolve around the functions of these ways of learning. When a lesson modality is designed, it should be planned in such a way that the learning activities and the teaching activities are brought into harmony. In light of the above, this harmony between teaching and learning can be accomplished via the modes of learning and their modalities (functions). An additional advantage of correctly formulated learning aims is that they not only direct the pupils' learning but they also serve as guidelines for evaluation. According to Kachelhoffer (1983, p 13) correctly formulated aims are the basis for evaluation because during evaluation the pupils are expected to do what the learning aims require of them.

Ultimately the lesson design is set into motion through teaching or guiding in the classroom. By first determining the relevant modes of learning, it also can be deduced how his guidance ought to proceed. Thus, he can determine when he needs to guide affectively (affective modes of learning--sensing and attending) and when cognitively (cognitive modes of learning--perceiving, thinking, imagining, fantasizing, remembering). Further refinement also is possible. When thinking is to be actualized, the teacher might plan his guidance primarily around a number of questions while when perceiving is to be actualized, he might plan to demonstrate, to analyze, to elucidate and to clarify.

After the contents that are going to be presented are delimited, the lesson design ought to have its point of departure in the ways the child is going to learn the particular contents. If this is the point of departure, the rest of the design and ultimately also its presentation will be in harmony with a child's learning.

2.2 Psychopedagogics and presenting a lesson

Psychopedagogics not only offers information about how a child learns but also about how he should be guided so he can learn adequately. As already indicated, there is a direct relationship between the ways the teacher guides and the ways a child gives meaning and thus learns. For this reason, while designing a lesson, these ways of guiding the learner are planned and then implemented when the lesson is presented.

The lesson design that takes its point of departure from the modes of learning and is further constructed around the phases of a lesson provides the teacher with a structure in terms of which his teaching can progress. However, in presenting the lesson, this structure needs to be set into motion and this can be done only by the teacher's guidance and the child's active participation or self-actualization. Within each of the six phases of a lesson, the particular way or ways of guiding (affective, cognitive, normative) most relevant for actualizing learning should be implemented.

According to Basson et. al. (1983, p 21), the following aims of the phases of a lesson are distinguished:

- * actualizing (recalling) foreknowledge;
- * stating and formulating the problem;
- * exposing (presenting) the new subject contents;
- * actualizing (controlling) the new subject contents;
- * functionalizing (applying) new insights;
- * evaluating insights.

Each of these aims is an important aspect of planning the course of instruction. The aim of each phase is a teaching aim that the teacher should strive for and in terms of his pupils need to show particular achievements. Each one of these aims is now elucidated primarily from a psychopedagogic perspective but also from a didactic pedagogic view. (With respect to the didactic pedagogic insights on this topic, there is no claim of completeness and the reader is referred to the existing literature--see, e.g., Basson et al, 1983, pp 21-28; Van der Stoep, 1973, pp 171-182).

2.2.1 Actualizing foreknowledge

Didactic pedagogics unanimously views actualizing foreknowledge as the beginning or first phase of a lesson. During this phase, the pupils are made aware of their existing knowledge of relevance to the lesson theme or contents. The aim is to stimulate them and awaken their interest by linking up with what they already know. Thus, at this stage of the lesson, the teacher searches for meaningful relationships between foreknowledge and the (yet to be presented) new knowledge in order to insure that adequate meaning will be attributed to the new contents.

The teacher should not merely assume that previously presented themes or topics exist explicitly as foreknowledge. Therefore, his first task is to assist the pupils to become confident and flexible with respect to such possessed knowledge (Basson et al., 1983, p 22). On the basis of his reduction of the new contents, he identifies and anticipates a relevant field of foreknowledge that he can take as his starting point and by which meaningful relationships can be made between the existing and the new knowledge. The foreknowledge actualized in this phase need not be subject contents but it ought to be familiar to the pupils from their experiences. That is, this first phase of the lesson should begin with the pupils' everyday life world and this primarily involves "life contents" and not so much "learning contents".

To insure success in his aim of actualizing foreknowledge, the teacher should actively involve his pupils in this phase as much as possible. Only then will he be able to decide if they have the relevant foreknowledge at their disposal. If they do not, he has to attend to the gaps that have come to light (Basson et al., 1983, p 22).

The above indicates what is expected from the actualization of foreknowledge viewed from a didactic pedagogic perspective. However, from a psychopedagogic perspective, an answer has to be provided to the question of how such relevant foreknowledge can be actualized. The lesson is set into motion by the teaching and learning activities; therefore, the ways the teacher guides his pupils and how they actualize their learning should be taken into account.

Since this phase involves recalling foreknowledge, it is logical to expect that by means of remembering the pupils will make the relevant foreknowledge from their possessed experience present (Sonnekus, 1977, p 57). Since remembering is a cognitive mode of learning, in this respect the teacher's cognitive guidance plays a prominent though not exclusive role. Consequently, the teacher should direct an appeal to the modality of remembering called "making something present", e.g., by asking questions, by naming a familiar example, or by recalling particular facets of previous themes. The aim is to put in the foreground the relevant life world contents with which his pupils are well acquainted and, in this way, to awaken in them feelings of confidence and stability. Therefore, he should guard against this lesson phase degenerating into an evaluation of his pupils' knowledge of a previous lesson. Such a strategy might have the exact opposite effect, especially when it is evident that they do not have at their disposal the necessary or expected mobility with respect to the contents. Thus, it is clearly evident that the teacher's affective guidance to stabilize his pupils' emotional lived-experiencing is his immediate psychopedagogic aim in this phase of the lesson. This is because the resulting emotional stability creates a learning readiness in his pupils and the way then is paved for their cognitive involvement with the new contents.

However, it is not only remembering that is relevant to this first phase of the lesson. By the teacher's direct questions, narration, etc., his pupils' remembering is actualized and certain contents, matters, and events from the past again are placed in his pupils' awareness. Thus they become aware of a particular slice of reality and in this way their wondering, astonishment, interests, etc. are awakened and if their sensing is stable, the course of adequate cognitive learning is initiated and supported (see Chapter V).

From the totality of the pupils' possessed experiences, what is relevant to the new contents to be presented is referred to as foreknowledge and it is this foreknowledge that he selects for his pupil's to remember. In this way, attending (as a selective activity) is activated and directed to the new contents (as a sharpened intention to learn). Thus, especially sensing and attending are prominent in this phase of the lesson and are foundational to and

sustaining of remembering, the mode of learning at the core of this phase of a lesson. However, once again all of the modes of learning are at a child's disposal at any time and function as a totality (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 298).

Since the primary aim of this first phase of a lesson is to make the pupils ready to actualize all of their modes of learning, the teacher also should take care to create an atmosphere conducive to this. In this regard, even the way he greets his pupils and his attitude and disposition during the lesson can promote or impede the teaching event. Therefore, it is necessary that he establish a warm, intimate, and trusting lesson climate within which his pupils experience the emotional stability that makes adequate learning possible.

2.2.2 Stating and formulating the problem

From a didactic pedagogic perspective, the transition from one phase of the lesson to the next should be natural; also, the lesson eventually should form a meaningful whole and not be a number of discrete phases. Therefore, it is important that stating and formulating the problem connect with and flow from the foreknowledge phase.

As already indicated, effective learning occurs best when pupils are confronted with a problem that gives rise to a meaningful, conspicuous question that is worth the trouble of answering (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 38). From the previous lesson phase and the familiar content remembered within it, the pupils need to be guided so that they are faced with something that is problematic for them. This is because a problem makes them aware of the incompleteness of their existing knowledge or understanding of it (Basson et al., 1983, p 23).

At the beginning of the lesson, the point of departure is familiar and known life contents, and it is from them that the problem should arise. That is, as far as possible, the problem should have its origin in the pupils' life world. By stating the problem, the learning contents are placed at the center of the pupils' life world. In this way, stating the problem is the intersection, as it were, between the

familiar (old) and the new as well as between life- and learning-contents.

Unfortunately, it is common practice merely to announce the theme at the beginning of a lesson (e.g., “today we will learn how to borrow in subtraction”) and the teacher merely assumes that the problems inherent to such a theme speak to the pupils and that they necessarily are interested in them. Announcing the theme often offers them no personally meaningful problem and then they have no desire to learn anything more about it. Consequently, in stating the problem, the teacher should formulate the learning aim in such a way that it is experienced by the pupils as a meaningful problem or question the answer to which they are motivated to know because of the tension arising from their awareness of the discrepancy between what they know and what they need to know (i.e., the incompleteness of their knowledge about the topic).

However, this does not mean that they merely experience the problem the teacher has formulated as a question. It ought to be formulated so that it is slightly above their level of becoming but still within their field of interest, i.e., within their zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1986, p 187). By discovering their deficiencies in what they know, they will begin to ask questions and adopt the problem as their own; consequently, when possible, they should formulate the problem in their own words (Basson et al., 1983, p 23). This is how an attempt is made to awaken their willingness and desire to search for a solution to the problem.

From a psychopedagogic perspective, stating the problem awakens the pupils’ will and especially connects the goal-directed function of willing (motivation) to the learning aim. However, a precondition for this is that they experience emotional stability because such stability supports their willingness to learn (sensing), and consequently, sharpens their learning intention (attending) such that they can proceed to solve the problem by thinking.

The psychopedagogic aim during this phase of the lesson is to actualize the pupils’ willingness while attending and thinking, as cognitive modes of learning, are actualized. The pupils now are directed to attend to and think about the problem. In the following

phase of the lesson all of the modes of learning are focused on solving the problem.

2.2.3 Exposing the new subject contents

According to didactic pedagogics, after the problem is stated by the teacher and is experienced as a real problem by the pupils, this phase of the lesson aims to lead to a solution of the problem. This phase entails presenting or exposing the essentials (the elementals) of the new subject contents that the teacher arrived at in reducing these contents. Thus, the aim of exposing the new contents is to present the pupils with what they need to know to solve the stated problem (Basson et al., 1983, p 24). Here the teacher should not be impatient; further, he should let his pupils use their own devices in searching for a solution. Also, he should monitor whether they feel prepared and ready to open themselves further in order to learn to know and to control the new contents (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 301).

During actualizing foreknowledge (the first phase of the lesson), there is a great reliance on the pupils' possessed experiences, and, consequently, their everyday life world is the point of departure. Stating the problem (the second phase) also has its origin in their life world and it is a point of contact between the old and the new contents. Now, during this exposition phase, a transition from life contents to the learning and subject contents should occur. For this reason, the teacher has to unlock the new essentials for his pupils in such a way that the solution to the problem gradually becomes evident to them (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 174). At this point, an example or examples can be demonstrated by the teacher or there can be a joint demonstration with the pupils to facilitate the solution of the problem. In this way, he helps his pupils to quickly and effectively reach a solution to the problem (Basson et al., 1983, p. 24). During this phase, the methods of question-and-answer, class discussions, etc. often are used in order to guide the pupils to form concepts (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 174).

During this phase of the lesson, the pupils' active involvement is necessary since they themselves have to attain cognitive control of

the new contents. That is, they have to learn how to be involved with these contents.

From a psychopedagogic perspective they should be guided by the teacher to learn on a cognitive or conceptual level (Gouws, 1984, p 141). By the teacher intensifying their attending, they can proceed to a cognitively ordered lived-experiencing of the new contents. Then all of the modes of learning can be focused on their learning the new contents that also are the solution to the problem. In this way the pupils experience the new contents and by attributing meaning to them they become integrated into their existing possessed experience as something meaningfully related to a real problem that they have accepted as their own.

Although it is the pupils themselves who learn, and, therefore, self-actualization is very prominent, the teaching activities (guided actualization) should be in harmony with the specific modalities (functions) of the modes of learning actualized at each particular moment of the lesson. All activities as well as all teaching and learning aids that might be used should purposefully be directed to effective learning. Thus, the cognitive modes of learning will be prominent during the exposition phase and, therefore, the teaching activities of the teacher ought to be characterized as ordered, cognitive guidance.

There is no doubt that the teacher should display a great deal of care and thoroughness in planning this phase of the lesson. Even so, there is no guarantee that the pupils will arrive at an insight into the new contents or that they will be able to independently solve similar types of problems. Therefore, the aim of the following phase is to control (check) if they have acquired the desired insights and if not to immediately remedy this.

2.2.4 Actualizing (controlling) the new subject contents

From a didactic pedagogic perspective, the aim of exposing the new contents is to provide the pupils with what they need to know in order to solve the previously stated problem. However, it should not merely be assumed that all of the pupils have reached this aim. According to Basson et al. (1983 p 25), in general, it will be found

that most of the pupils have broken through to insight and that they can proceed to further exercise (practice) this insight with respect to new and varied problems. However, there also is the possibility that some of the pupils have not yet attained insight and, therefore, they need to be given the opportunity to practice to insight.

Thus, this phase also involves checking the pupils' insights into the essentials of the contents, i.e., the immediate learning effect (Gouws, 1984, p 142). At this point, it has to be determined whether they understand and whether they are able to solve the problem in terms of the new contents that have just been unlocked for them. Consequently, in this phase there is mention of the pupils reviewing the essentials, summarizing and schematizing them, as well as practicing of insight and practicing to insight (Sonnekus, 1977, p 63). The control (checking) can be done during or after the presentation through asking questions, through gradually completing or filling in a prepared piece of work, etc. (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 176). However, one needs to guard against confusing question-and-answer as a method of presentation with this same method as control. The aim of control, or actualizing the new subject contents, is to check on the teaching effect of the presentation (Basson et al., 1983, pp 25-26). It has to be made certain that all of the pupils have attained the desired level of insights since future themes often are built on them. Without the desired or expected insights, there cannot be a transition to functionalizing (see the next phase). Thus, checking for individual insights into the essentials of the new learning material is characteristic of this phase of the lesson (Gouws, 1984, p 142).

According to Sonnekus (1977, p 63), for psychopedagogics this phase has to do with controlling (checking on) the entire course of the lesson to this point. In particular, this involves a control of (check on) the stability of the pupils' emotional lived-experiencing as well as the orderliness of their cognitive lived-experiencing to determine the state of their lived-experiencing of meaning. For this reason, any review of the essentials or practicing of and to insight cannot amount to drill work, repetition, or forming associations. Rather, the teacher should try to insure that his pupils experience the contents as meaningful and that they become integrated into their possessed experience. In this light, it is clear that

remembering will figure prominently in this phase and therefore the modalities (i.e., putting in the present and integrating) of this mode of learning have to be taken into account. Thus, the relationship between the new learning material and possessed experience becomes resolved.

2.2.5 Functionalizing new insights

For didactic pedagogics, the aim of this phase of the lesson is to firm up and to put into functional use the insights the pupils have acquired through the exposition of the new contents (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 177). Functionalizing ultimately implies application and, therefore, it involves the formative value of the learning contents with the view of transferring and applying them to new situations (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 304).

According to Basson et al. (1983, p 26), the pupils should now be helped to free themselves from a dependence on the particular example or examples used during the exposition phase. Where initially examples were shown by the teacher or jointly with the pupils, now the pupils themselves have to practice, apply, and achieve. By integrating the old and the new, they are able to attain greater mobility and confidence with respect to the contents. Thus, it is expected that they will transfer and apply their acquired insights and knowledge to areas and problems other than the examples by which they originally acquired them. In contrast to the control of the new contents, in this phase there is an attempt to evaluate the pupils' insights and proficiencies in new situations (Basson et al, 1983, p 27).

Viewed psychopedagogically, functionalizing implies that the degree to which the pupils have come to lived-experience meaning now is embodied in their behaviors. Against the background of the new structures (meanings) now integrated into their possessed experience, all modes of learning are mobilized to explore related areas and to solve new problems. The pupils themselves need to productively and creatively actualize their learning potentialities, and, in this way, their lived-experience of meaning is broadened and deepened and once again integrated into their possessed experience.

2.2.6 Evaluating insights

According to didactic pedagogics evaluating (testing) the pupils' insights and understanding of the essentials of the learning material after the end of the theme or after a lesson or series of lessons is a necessity. The pupils' own thoughts, creations, activities, or experiences regarding the contents need to be evaluated, and the teacher should provide for this evaluation beforehand in his lesson design. The aim of evaluating is to compare the achievement of the pupils as well as to provide them with the opportunity to discover for themselves.

Evaluating helps the teacher form an image of his pupils' work. Problems of individual pupils and problems experienced by the whole class regarding a particular part of a work possibly can be indicated by a test (Basson et al., 1983, p 27).

By evaluating, the teacher determines:

- * the pupils' readiness for further progress in the subject;
- * the quality of his presentation (unlocking);
- * which pupils need remedial help (Van der Stoep, 1973, p 180).

Evaluation has the additional advantage of providing the pupils with the assurance that they have attained the expected level of achievement or that it is still lacking. Irrespective of the form of the evaluation, the teacher should be confident that it reflects the pupils' insights into and handling of the essentials of the learning material (i.e., that the evaluation is valid).

During evaluation, the pupils are given the task of solving particular problems, making particular applications, searching for certain relationships or drawing conclusions by means of self-activity, all by virtue of their insights (Gouws, 1984, p. 144). Thus, they have to give evidence that they can manage the learning contents without the teacher's assistance and guidance. In light of the above, it is clear that evaluation is necessary since it is the only way to determine if the aims of the lesson or series of lessons have been attained.

Since giving meaning is a matter central to the pupils throughout the lesson, evaluation, from a psychopedagogic perspective, refers to the meaningfully lived-experienced learning contents that have become integrated into their possessed experience. This implies that the ways in which the psychic life and learning have been actualized during the course of the lesson are taken into account. Evaluation aims to determine the elevation in level of the pupils' personal actualization and thus in the elevation of their learning and becoming. In other words, this involves an evaluation of the pupil's behaviors resulting from their learning and becoming (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 306). It is clear that evaluation does not merely involve determining a score or percentage on a test or examination but that it involves determining the meanings the pupils' have attributed or given to the lesson contents.

3. SUMMARY

Designing and presenting a lesson requires a convergence of didactic pedagogic and psychopedagogic insights. Since teaching aims at the child's effective learning, while designing and presenting a lesson there necessarily is a close linking up with insights into the ways pupils learn. Thus, the modes and modalities (functions) of learning are an integral part of designing a lesson. Also, during the presentation of a lesson, a harmony between the teaching activities of the teacher and the learning activities of the pupils continually has to be striven for. A lesson that is purposefully designed and presented in this way ought to promote the pupils' adequate attribution of meaning and thus his adequate personal actualization.

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