CHAPTER 4
FORMS OF TEACHING

1. INTRODUCTION

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

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

In this same sense, educating also involves form. It is important to note that the forms of the original experience of educating do not differ essentially in various historical epochs or in different cultures. Wherever there are people, they educate their children and the form of this original experience is more or less universal. In the original experience of educating the didactic form gives a functional structure to particular aims (that always are particular) so that the effect of the contents can be realized.

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

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

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

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

origin. The original experience unquestionably shows that "letting a child learn" is the way an adult, in educating, proceeds to realize particular aims. It this respect, it is justifiable to say that the didactic ground-forms are the forms of actualizing "letting a child learn".

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

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

2. DIDACTIC FORMS AND FORMS OF LIVING

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

A brief discussion of how these didactic ground-forms are identified will help the reader to understand them more clearly. The reader is also reminded that the meaning of the teacher's didactic design lies

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

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

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

A valid question is if there are particular ground-forms a teacher can use in the school situation that will directly appeal to these

spontaneous learning categories of perceiving, experiencing and objectifying. Of course, a child's learning activities are not bound to the formal school situation and he learns whether he goes to school or not. The same can be said of the teaching or help that a child receives by an adult spontaneously intervening with him in the life world; that is, a child also is taught outside of the formal school situation. This means that for an adult to teach is just as primary or primordial a form of living as learning is for a child. However, it is clear to the parents that, in the spontaneous teaching situations in the family, they cannot properly orient their child to the differentiated and complex reality within which he must eventually live as an adult. For this reason they establish schools. The schools continue the educative work and teaching interventions that the child has already experienced at home.

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

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

context, the spontaneous learning intention (as a form of expression of the consciousness of achievement) is directed by cultural contents (i.e., learning contents, learning material).

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

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

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

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

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

It is clear from the above that the didactic ground-forms are not merely variations of teaching methods. They are forms of living (existing) that reveal themselves in learning- and teaching-activities and, as such, ought to be known by anyone who wants to be involved in educating and especially in formal teaching. Because teaching method is of considerable importance in a teaching situation, it is important to identify and describe teaching methods in their own right by taking the didactic ground-forms as the point of departure.

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

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

2.1 Play

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

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

concerned, his play is life fulfilling in itself. In this context this means that a child views labor, insofar as it appears in his world, as play. Where an adult always sees a specific aim in his playing, for a child his playing itself is the aim. In this sense, one can say that a child exists as a totality in his playing activities.

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

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

As a form of existence, play is especially important to a didactician because it offers the possibility of designing a didactic situation in which the learning activity can be realized and the spontaneous learning of a child can be effectively directed. In this regard, the relationship between playing and learning is of special significance to the didactician. Various didacticians have indicated that playing is not simply a playful (frivolous) form of learning but that it really precedes the learning activity because a child also "plays to learn" or "learns by playing". Although the playing activities of a child are seldom explicitly directed at gaining knowledge and skills, they offer many opportunities for effective learning and for the mastery of knowledge. One observes that a child imitates situations in his play

and exercises certain activities in order to polish particular skills that later will have significance for his lifestyle. In this sense, learning by playing is seen as exercising opportunities that create a fertile basis for intellectual and other activities a child will later be called on to perform.

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

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

The activities in the play situation radiate out from a point. In this way a child is offered the opportunity to deepen his learning because his playing involves him in reality with increasing intensity. Although not consciously striven for, there is ample evidence of greater levels of achievement in the play situation. If a child is directly aimed at achieving in his play (playing marbles) the clear description of the rules to ensure fair play is of utmost importance. It is important for a teacher that a child plays in this manner because, as a consequence, he gives direction and meaning to a child's play. If the playing is organized by rules, the presence of a teacher who will know what is to happen, who can give form to the playing concerning specific knowledge, skills, attitudes, etc. and in terms of which a child can be formed is quite acceptable. As we know, a child can play this role (of teacher) in the spontaneous play

situation of children. In this sense, forming, as a didactic category, can be effectively realized in the play situation.

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

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

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

It is clear that a child's learning intention is realized in a play situation; therefore, it is considered to be a way that teaching occurs or is a didactic way of doing. It also has a demanding character. It is understandable that the way a teacher leads a child's learning in organized play situations will depend on the aims he hopes to achieve by this form of teaching. As a didactic ground-form, it must always contribute to the aims of a teacher as well as to evaluating

the effects of teaching and learning. Whenever a teacher uses play, there always is an obligation; the child *must* play. That is, play becomes an imperative in the didactic situation. The participants do not play for the sake of play; they play in order to learn. For a child here playing is work. In this way teaching makes an important contribution to changing a child's normal, spontaneous learning activities.

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

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

From the above, the didactic value of play is briefly summarized as follows:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.2 Conversation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In addition to the fact that conversation is an ordinary human form of living it also is an art that can be mastered by practice and concentration. Because conversation, as a form of living, is continually involved in the practice of teaching, as a teaching form, it makes special demands of a teacher: it requires those skills necessary to use conversation effectively—this is apart from his narrative ability or his ability to dramatize a situation. The ways in which conversation, as a didactic ground-form, are realized by means of specific methods in the classroom is explained later in this chapter.

2.3 Example (exemplar)

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

The original experience of educating shows that an example is used to give a course to an educative situation. In the spontaneous, original educative situation the use of an example makes a discussion possible about a particular matter because it makes a

large number of facts available for analyses, analogies and syntheses. It is here, however, where an adult unlocks an example for a child in terms of demonstrations and illustrations. Irrespective of this and other possible methods, the principle of the example stands. In the formal didactic situation the example is valid to the extent that a very large portion of classroom teaching is done by means of it as a ground-form.

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

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

On the basis of various aspects of reality that examples represent, they can function in various respects in a didactic situation. Where

a simple object is used as an example it can be an exemplar of a particular type. One comes upon this function of the example especially in biology when monocotyledons, self-pollination, cross-pollination, etc. are unlocked for the children.

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

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

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

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

Because the exemplar is implemented so harmoniously in the learning activities of a child, its use by a teacher cannot merely be spontaneous. For this reason, the use of an example or exemplar is a weighty matter. At this stage it is clear that the exemplar or example is closely connected with a child's perceiving in the act of learning.

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

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

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

concrete example and to reach the level of generality (by language or other symbolic forms).

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

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

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

In unlocking the example or exemplar, a teacher also is directed to providing a child with an example of the methods by which the ground structures of this particular content of the represented life- or subject-area can be sought. On the basis of this knowledge of

methods, it now becomes possible for a child to acquire insight into the ways of studying a particular aspect of reality and, in this way, to investigate and understand the totality of life reality. In this case, the unique nature of a particular subject area that is unlocked in school is going to have a say. Each subject area avails itself of its own methods. This means that a teacher implements a particular example in such a way that the methods of the subject that it represents also are taken up in it and become clearer to a child.

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

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

From these essences that are unlocked by the exemplary for a child there can be a move to a higher level of scope and complexity of the matter represented by the exemplar. In this sense, therefore, the exemplar serves to concentrate on the contents and to set aside what is incidental. The exemplar also has an important residual influence, i.e., it works or comes into function to the extent that a teacher can concentrate on or explain it with the aim of a child's imitation (post-disclosure) of the teacher's own insights and mastery. A teacher uses the example to make even more clear and lucid what ought already to be clear and lucid in reality. Also, he uses the example to explicate what is clear in its cause and effect with the aim of better understanding general matters in terms of the particular phenomenon. By implementing the example, a teacher creates a situation that actualizes, in the purest way, imitation by a child in the learning act.

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

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

2.4 Assignment (Giving instructions)

Just as was done with the previous didactic ground-forms, once again a didactican must turn to the spontaneous human life world to examine "assignment" as a didactic ground-form. From a penetration of the spontaneous life world it is seen that the relationship between person and reality is expressed in the activities that he carries out. A human being does not accept reality as it is; he is continually involved in changing it into a life world for himself. Changing the world into a world for himself is seen clearly in the fact that a person is involved in working with reality. When a person acts in reality he always is involved in reality; this also means he is occupied with educative- and teaching-interventions. This working involvement of a person with reality can only be understood properly if one examines the anthropological grounds of work or labor. Therefore, taking the primary form of living of "labor" as the point of departure, a didactician searches for a didactic ground-form that is applied daily in practice. However, "assignments" cannot be equated with the concept labor or work, and yet one cannot clearly understand the sense and meaning of assignments the adult gives in educating a child if one does not take the activities that culminate in labor into account.

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

The essential difference between play and labor in constituting a unique life world is thai play is directed to a lighter facet of being human while labor essentially is a serious matter directed at a conscious mastery of reality. It is for this reason that labor makes possible a clear judgment of how a human being is involved in reality. In this regard, it also is important to note that labor

essentially is a personal matter; work is always performed by a person irrespective of whether he does so in a group or individually.

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

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

Even the most superficial penetration of a child's spontaneous involvement in the world indicates that he involves himself heart and soul in activities. The fact that a child experiences his parents' labor allows him to understand labor as a positive power in the everyday course of daily life. He experiences that his parents' labor makes new situations possible by constituting them. A child sees in his parents the value of labor, its creations and achievements and its realizing aims. In addition, he sees that diligent labor and its fruits give meaning to his existence. It is in this sense that a child sees labor as a basic aspect of adulthood. This is the reason a child identifies himself with the labor of adults and why he imitates labor in his play, why he repairs things in his life world himself, why he takes things apart and reassembles them, etc. When a child imitates the labor of adults in his play, he is involved in imitating the use of the implements the adult uses in his work or he actually uses them himself. In this way a child learns to know functional objects like a

hammer, a saw, scissors, etc. In addition, he not only learns various forms of work but he learns to participate in work; he also must begin to work himself. In his life world, a child often confuses play and work. However, this does not mean he can ignore the injunction (mandate) to work.

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

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

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

vocation. As far as work or assignments are concerned, in this context they are a means to an end, namely to give a child the opportunity to learn practical aspects of the life world in concrete situations. They also provide him with the opportunity to construct a knowledge-structure out of the practical-concrete data that the life world offers a child daily. This knowledge-structure is essentially abstract and even theoretical but it contributes to elevating a child's insight into his own situations. Consequently, concrete and practical situations provide a child with greater mobility in life situations and that an adult can give a child certain assignments with the aim of realizing certain educative and teaching aims.

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

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

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

The description of these four ground-forms is aimed at a clearer understanding of the ways a teacher can involve children in

learning activities in a classroom. Because today we are so overwhelmed by educational technology and technical teaching methods, a description of the didactic ground-forms can help reduce teaching activities to their essences and origins so that they can be understood in terms of the spontaneous life world of a child. At this stage it should be clear that the life world of a child reveals his spontaneous involvement with reality and this implies an adult's spontaneous support and aid to him in this respect.

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

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

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

The didactic ground-forms in the original life world of persons are not necessarily a matter of unlocking or disclosing reality. One uses these forms to try to realize the aims that go with them. Even so, the didactic ground-forms are important to a didactician because

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

It is obvious that a certain method (such as narrating or free-activity) does not refer only to a specific ground-form. In the practice of teaching it is obvious that any ground-form can be the basis of any teaching method or combination of methods in a specific situation where contents are exposed. Choosing a ground form and a certain teaching method largely depends on the nature of the contents, the readiness of a child, the learning aims that the teacher hopes to achieve in a specific lesson, the time available, etc. This relationship will become clearer if the most important and

certainly the most conspicuous teaching methods are explained briefly.

3.1 Narrating

The method of narrating is certainly the most common in all teaching; it is in general use from pre-primary teaching through the tertiary level. It is often described as a "monologue" to emphasize that a teacher initiates the activity and that a child is supposed to listen. The narrative method also is described as word painting, describing, explaining, verbally illustrating and detailing that, perhaps, better state the possibilities of this method.

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

3.2 Questioning and answering

In the early history of teaching, and certainly from the earliest of times, the method of questioning and answering has played an important role. The reason is that teachers have always been

involved in helping children unravel and solve problems, in fostering clear and logical thinking and in guiding them to formulate their ideas accurately. Although the question and answer method is prevalent in all teaching, it is not always recognized that it makes particular demands of a teacher. However, it is one of the most common teaching methods because it is so central to a normal dialogue between people.

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

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

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

3.3 The textbook

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

If one closely examines the practice of teaching and the way the textbook functions in it, it is clear that assignment, as a ground-

form, is the basis for using this method. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that in exemplary teaching, especially in the natural sciences, the written text plays an important and meaningful role as a teaching method. Practice shows that the example, as a ground-form, and the assignment often flow into each other. It is especially in the second phase of the exemplary method (where pupil and teacher work through an example together) that the textbook fulfills a particularly important function. For example, when a teacher is involved in handling examples of the climate zones of the world in geography, it is clear that the textbook is indispensable.

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

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

3.4 Free activity

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

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

Free activity is often realized by discussion in more advanced classes. In this context one thinks of free discussion where the aim is to provide a child with the opportunity to use language freely;

this is especially important in second-language teaching. Because free activity can easily disturb classroom order, it makes particular demands on a teacher's initiative and skill. To effectively use free activity in a lesson, the teaching aims must always be clearly stated beforehand. In the higher classes where teaching is more formally structured and where teaching is based on assignment and example, free activity has a less important place.

3.5 Demonstrating

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

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

In other situations, a teacher literally shows a child a procedure and asks him to do the same thing in order to teach him certain skills by carrying out certain assignments. Demonstrating is also especially relevant where skills in any practical aspect of teaching is the aim, e.g., in teaching art, in using a microscope in a natural science class, in a geomorphology lesson in geography, etc. It is quite clear that using examples in these situations is equally important. As a method, it cannot be coupled with one particular ground-form; even its origin cannot be found in a particular ground-form. The fact is, the ground-forms jointly constitute the ways of actualizing this

method in a didactic situation and thus each of the ground-forms possesses in itself the possibility of demonstrating. The crux of the matter is that in every case of demonstrating, a teacher must possess the necessary skills, continually assess its effectiveness and continually practice all of the skills associated with it.

3.6 Experimenting

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

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

3.7 Drill work (practice, exercise)

The mere fact that a child understands certain contents is no guarantee that his insight will be lasting. For this reason, a teacher uses the drill or practice method in an attempt to guarantee that a child's grasp of facts and skills become a part of him, enabling him to apply insights and skills in the further course of the didactic situation as well as in other similar circumstances or problem situations. Ordinary classroom teaching shows that the drill method can be the outcome of all four didactic ground-forms. In the pre-primary and junior-primary school drill or practice often takes the form of games (play). With older children the example and assignment are more prominent. Most contemporary mathematics and science syllabi make use of the example but sufficient drill work and exercises are provided for a specific theme to ensure the effective transfer of insights to related or succeeding themes. An experienced teacher knows that drill work and exercise very often manifest themselves in particular assignments that, in this respect, are a familiar aspect of a didactic situation. Here one can think of memorizing the times tables and practicing algorithms. The usefulness of drill work in the ground-forms of play, example, and especially assignment are even clear when the drill activities of an adult are viewed.

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

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

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

Ordering contents is dealt with in Chapter 5 that deals with contents and in Chapter 7 that describes the lesson structure; therefore, here the aim is to briefly examine the principles in terms of which learning contents can be ordered and the effect that a particular ordering will have on a lesson, as such. The principles dealt with, therefore, must serve only as examples because the topic cannot be treated comprehensively at this stage.

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

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

Where the contents are abstract or removed, a teacher will probably use different examples to identify as a problem, illustrate and clarify the matter he is involved with. This implies that a teacher must understand that the problem of ordering contents is already present during his own initial involvement with the learning contents. Therefore, he must consciously consider the most effective, meaningful and functional ways of ordering the contents in terms of the composition of the class he is to teach as well as the learning

aim he intends the children to achieve during the course of a lesson. It is on this basis that his entire presentation is planned.

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

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

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

is a fundamental pedagogic condition for a pupil to experience security regarding the contents.

At this stage two aspects are identified that will influence a teacher's ordering contents. On the one hand, the children's readiness to understand and accept the contents is of exceptional importance; on the other hand, the nature and structure of the subject from which the teaching theme is drawn will equally influence the ordering. Each subject has its own inherent order that a teacher must take into account when preparing his lesson. This is a matter of particular importance in insuring that a child will fully understand and grasp the meaning of the contents.

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

4.1 Chronological ordering

As its name indicates, this principle of ordering teaching contents is concerned with organizing them in terms of time. Various subjects or parts of subjects have a historical nature. This means that they reflect the course of history and that they essentially have a time-orienting function and meaning. Many human activities, traditions, aspects of lifestyle, the economy, etc. are developed in time. The succession of these aspects represents the culmination of human history, for instance Greek and Roman civilization, the Renaissance, Gothic architectural style, the emergence of the natural sciences, and the first voyages into space. There also are sequences within the different occurrences that are, e.g., political, economic and social. The Middle Ages occurred before the Renaissance, the Portuguese Empire before the British Empire, steam locomotives

before electric trains, etc. It is only logical that ordering these contents in teaching is according to the time they occurred. Understanding one period is often a precondition for understanding the next. For example, it is very difficult to understand the Reformation if one does not understand the situation of the Church during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance.

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

4.2 Symbiotic ordering

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

Because the ordering occurs on the basis of what is actual for a child, i.e., within the framework of reality as life reality, the concept of the "principle of actualization" also is applicable to this ordering. The idea behind this particular ordering possibly can be clearly expressed with the example of a teacher dealing with the theme of

"types of leaves". One possibility is to deal with this theme in class with prints and drawings or to take the children out of the classroom, refer them to various trees and give each child the opportunity to pluck a leaf off that he then studies later in greater detail. By its nature, the symbiotic principle refers to the second possibility.

4.3 Linear ordering

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

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

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

The crux of this approach is that the features, characteristics, preconditions, etc. that describe a particular matter in its essences eventually are united or integrated into a totality-image. What is said here regarding the correlation between the linear form of ordering and example as a ground-form also holds for play as a ground-form, and in particular with experimenting that, as a method, is rooted in play. Where there is experimenting, a teacher

and pupil are going to work analytically. The same can also be said about the didactic ground-forms of assignment and conversation where contents also are naturally broken up and then can be integrated into a totality-image. The deduction is that the linear way of ordering does not necessarily imply only one of the didactic ground-forms for unlocking the contents.

4.4 Divergent ordering

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

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

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

4.5 Spiral ordering

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

As noted above, spiral ordering and the concentric principle of teaching are closely related. Concentric teaching takes into account that a child is not capable of fully understanding all of the aspects of a theme at a certain age. Hence, the idea is to expose a child repeatedly to certain aspects of, for example, history or mathematics, in accordance with his level of readiness. In this way a teacher tries to insure that the degree of complexity of the contents is spread over a number of years as the child becomes affectively and intellectually ready to deal with greater complexities.

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

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

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

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

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

5. METHODOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES

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

5.1 The inductive principle

Socrates' question-method is probably the origin of the inductive approach. Although he made use of other methodological principles, the method he primarily used was inductive in nature.

Comenius later revived this idea by initiating the ordering of contents according to the principle “from the known to the unknown” because the inductive method proceeds from the parts to the whole. The concept “synthesis” is closely related to the inductive approach. As a methodological principle it understandably has many possibilities for teaching.

The best known of these possibilities are those in which the results of an occurrence are examined to establish their causes. In this case, the point of departure is the known or directly present or concretely observed; from here one proceeds to the unknown or abstract. Because the procedure is to move from the known to the unknown, it also is called the principle of discovery. The advantages of this approach are self-evident. Because inductive teaching follows a step-by-step approach, it is a safe method of discovery for a child. If also offers an opportunity to clearly understand different points of view and this in turn makes it possible to apply new knowledge and insight accurately.

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

There are, however, certain disadvantages to this approach. In the first place, it has a slow tempo. It is also obvious that this approach relies on a child’s observation and his ability to follow a teacher’s analysis. A child must also be capable of placing the identified essence in a synthesis in the sense that he must eventually understand the generalization. The inductive principle also relies on a teacher’s exceptional skill during his preparation as well as his

handling of the contents in the class. This is especially true as far as the eventual integration of the new contents with a child's prior knowledge is concerned.

5.2 The deductive principle

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In addition, it was indicated that the ordering influences the form of a lesson in such a way that the course of unlocking the contents proceeds differently with different orderings of the contents. Apart from ordering the contents, the point of departure in presenting the contents, as such, is important in the sense of the point from which

a teacher present them. In other words, the principle or approach regarding this is investigated because the approach taken also gives a particular course and form to a lesson. Consequently, the inductive and deductive principles or approaches were discussed successively.

Various theoretical aspects of teaching have been discussed in the different chapters: the relationship between didactics (teaching) and pedagogics (educating) (Chapter2), didactic theory, as such, (Chapter 3) and the form of teaching (Chapter 4). In each of these discussions it is repeatedly argued that contents are an aspect or constituent of didactic activities in both the spontaneous and formal teaching situations. For the further orientation of the reader, it now is necessary to focus on a full description and explication of learning contents as a didactic matter. This is the theme of the next chapter.