

## CHAPTER 3 DIDACTIC THEORY

### 1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, an explanation is given of the relationship between educating and teaching, and the reciprocal meaning, as well as the structural relationship between the two, is indicated. A brief description also is given of the phenomenon of educating as it appears in the human lifeworld. It is also stressed that educating is given with being human and, to the extent that a person is involved in everyday reality, educating is a common phenomenon. When describing the relationship between teaching (didactics) and educating (pedagogics), it is noted that educating is actualized only by teaching. Further, it is indicated that the [primary, but not sole] meaning of teaching is found in educating. An additional deduction made from this relationship is that the contents presented in teaching must serve educative aims. That is, any contents which are unlocked in a didactic situation are primarily the norms and values descriptive of adulthood and must be presented in a systematic and orderly way.

This chapter deals with didactic theory, i.e., the phenomenon of teaching as it appears in the human lifeworld, and this means there must be a penetration to the real essences of teaching, and that the descriptions of it must result in findings which are universally valid (true for all persons and all times).

It is only possible to meet the scientific demands of universality if a common (joint) and accountable point of departure can be found for analyzing and describing “teaching”. This common point of departure is the original experience of educating. In this phenomenon (first givens), the inseparable unity of educating and teaching is shown. The task of the didactician is to look for this original experience so that, eventually, he/she can postulate its fundamental essences or categories. That is, he/she must first delimit, and then describe the phenomenon, but in such a way that

his/her description can pass the test of validity. The scientific grounding and categorical description of the phenomenon “teaching” are a relatively new problem in didactics because, in the past, didacticians used other sciences, e.g., psychology and biology, as the explanatory grounds for the didactic act. Apart from the fact that these sciences do have important insights to offer, it is not possible to explain the phenomenon of teaching by means of these or other sciences.

To avoid this scientific dilemma of traditional didactic theorizing, the didactician must go back to the phenomenon itself. Therefore, he/she must look for the phenomenon of teaching in the human lifeworld and arrive at its essentials (categories) which disclose what is didactic regarding its origin, nature, and functionality. He/she must do this to extract from human experience the structure of what is known as “didactics,” and scientifically formulate it in words.

It is important to emphasize again that where adults and children are involved with each other in a situation, whether this is in school or at home, the pedagogical categories hold unconditionally. In other words, when an adult and child are involved with each other, there is both educating and teaching. The aim of this involvement is primarily recognizable on two levels: on the one, there is emotional forming in terms of particular values and norms, which emphasize the religious and moral life of the child and, on the other, there is a teaching-directed intervention which is focused more on the conscious life of the child, and by which there is involvement with contents of the human lifeworld, so that the child can establish his/her own lifeworld in terms of them.

The manifestation of the forming of a child’s emotional and conscious life possibly is the reason for the traditional separation between teaching and educating. The danger is that pedagogical categories (which are viewed more closely later in this chapter) and didactic categories are placed alongside each other, and that both are valid because they are a description of reality and, in this respect, they do not exceed this reality. The phenomenon of learning bridges their separation.

Learning is dealt with more broadly in Chapter 6. What is of relevance here is that, in each didactic situation, there is at least one person involved in the situation by learning. In the previous chapter, where the relationship between educating and teaching is described, the phenomenon of learning is indicated. It is noted that educating shows that a child must unconditionally obey the authority of the norms he/she has learned. This means that the norms really can be appropriated and lived (this also holds for codes of behavior, attitudes, attunements, etc.) only if a child has learned. In this respect, learning is a condition for educating.

This implies that the scientific analysis and description of the original didactic event also must include the learning phenomenon. This description eventually results in establishing the categories (essences) of the phenomenon of learning (this does not merely have to do with learning results). In their mutual influence and meaning, the categories of learning and of didactics must lead to the unveiling of didactic criteria or yardsticks by which the image of didactics becomes clearer.

A summary of the above argument can only serve to improve the reader's insight into what follows: Didactic categories are directed to bringing about the phenomenon of teaching, as knowable and scientifically describable. The function of didactic criteria is to provide yardsticks by which a situation described as a didactic one can be recognized and, if necessary, repeated. In other words, didactic categories are directed to disclosing the essences of the didactic, while didactic criteria are attuned to evaluating the course of the didactic activity. That is, didactic criteria are used to evaluate the quality of learning in terms of its effect.

In the light of the didactic categories and criteria, the teacher now can answer for and evaluate his/her practice. He/she can use the categories to recognize the origin of his/her teaching practice, and to understand its fundamental nature. By using didactic criteria, he/she can assess the quality of the effect of learning of the children in his/her class and, in turn, this provides him/her with important insights for his/her future planning. However, categories and criteria do not provide him/her with an explanation of the way he/she must teach in the lesson situation to do so effectively.

Therefore, it is the task of the didactician to search for ground-forms in the original experience of educating which are spontaneous and fundamental ways by which a person, and particularly a child, enters reality. The lesson situation in the school then can be designed in terms of these forms so that the school, as a formalized lifeworld of the child, and teaching, as formalized educating, reflect the spontaneous pre-scientific lifeworld as closely as possible.

Fundamental didactic ground-forms are dealt with fully in a later chapter. However, here it is important to indicate that, in investigating the didactic ground-forms, the didactician should carefully attend to the possibilities which methodology offers him/her. This can help to put the didactic ground-forms in clearer focus. The ground-forms offer indications of the various methods which can be used in countless ways by a teacher in the classroom. In this way, it is possible to identify and meaningfully systematize and order general didactic, subject didactic, and methodological factors which can help the teacher to better understand the nature of his/her daily teaching practice.

The primary problem which must be investigated in this chapter is a careful analysis of the phenomenon “didactic” as it shows itself in educating. The aim is to disclose didactic categories and criteria. To the extent that insight into the didactic is considered in this chapter, it is important to investigate the meaning of pedagogical categories in the context of didactic theory. In addition, the systematizing and ordering which are relevant to describing didactic categories and criteria can reveal didactic principles. Within this framework, an aspect which must be focused on is the significance of the teaching contents, because they primarily influence the didactic form and, therefore, have relevance for theoretical didactic statements.

## **2. PEDAGOGICALL CATEGORIES AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE FOR DIDACTIC THEORY**

In the previous chapter, it is repeatedly indicated that a child is committed to an adult for support and help on his/her way to adulthood. This helping and supporting intervention and involvement of child and adult is called educating.

It also is indicated that this relationship between child and adult is a primordial one and, therefore, is not reducible to any other explanatory basis. It is given with being human. It also is emphasized that educating is actualized in terms of contents; these contents serve the aim of gradually, and to the degree that a child is ready, realizing a particular life view image of proper adulthood. These contents are brought about by teaching and serve as the boundary and point of orientation within which an adult directs a child's movement to adulthood. As boundary and point of orientation, these contents serve both adult and child on the latter's path to adulthood.

These contents, which primarily are typified as norms and values, are especially directed to forming a child emotionally. A child must create his/her own lifeworld in terms of them. However, this does not mean that educating is to be described in terms of the structure of the contents as such. To describe educating in a scientifically accountable way, the investigator must make the categories of the phenomenon knowable. The categories, as essences, used to investigate the phenomenon and which lead to valid descriptions, provide the beacons or focal points in terms of which educating ought to be reflected on, if one does not want to abandon the field of pedagogics and its findings.

Also, the categories and structures for reflecting on the phenomenon are seen as a specific pedagogical matter which clarifies the possibility of a phenomenon such as educating. In this chapter, there is not so much a detailed explanation of the pedagogical categories as such; they are only drawn into the discussion to answer the question of whether pedagogical categories, from the nature of the matter, also have validity in the didactic situation and, if so, what is the nature of such validity.

Some of the pedagogical categories which are relevant here are futurity, normativity, freedom, responsibility, expectation, security, adulthood, and authority. The question which must be answered is whether educating can appear in its essentials if these categories are not disclosed. A thorough description of all these categories is not a

realistic aim here and, therefore, futurity is briefly handled as an example for reflecting on the others.

The child is not yet where he/she must and can be. This means that he/she cannot yet live his/her own adulthood, but this is where the path he/she is on is going. Therefore, adult life is in his/her future. Now it is true that a child is someone who-wants-to-become-someone and, for this reason, he/she wants one day to be a grownup. In this sense, he/she is future directed, and he/she is futurity; the educating by an adult must provide help so that one day he/she will reach his/her adulthood. If the adult's intervention with a child does not show that he/she continually orients him/her so he/she can realize him/herself in the future, then there is no educating. This means that an adult's intervention in such a case does not help a child give meaning to values and norms, and that these values and norms have no meaning for his/her future adulthood. In this way, the phenomenon of educating is knowable and describable in terms of the category of futurity.

Now the question is: Is this category necessarily valid in a formally established didactic situation such as is found in a school?

For the sake of clarity, it is justified to also use the pedagogical category of futurity as an example for testing and evaluating the course of the didactic event. This category implies that a child is dynamically on the path to adulthood. That is, he/she is involved in exploring and trying to acquire a future and the world of the adult. This activity implies learning, in the sense of "learning to know" and "learning to command". Learning to know and to command are peculiar to a child's activity in school. Thus, school is a place where the future is established. This means the school contents place the future within a child's reach.

The contents which are relevant here, in addition to their usefulness, value- and norm-meaning, which extend wider than what is immediately discernible. This is the basis for the school always holding an ideal out as a prospect, which ordinarily is known as a teaching aim. In this way, the contents in school represent the entirety of a child's future adulthood. From the nature of the matter, these contents include a religious-moral orientation, social

forms, and work-directed activities. Today, this matter is especially important in view of the complexity of the reality within which a child must one day stand as an adult.

In the family, parents guide their child on his/her way to adulthood, and this guiding speaks of security. In the same way, in the school, a teacher offers a child secure guidance toward his/her future. The conclusion is that one cannot reflect otherwise on the school and didactic activities if the category of futurity does not appear in the situation. In this respect, the school is an extension of the intervention of parents with their child in the family, where there is vigorous teaching intervention to guide their child on his/her path to adulthood. In school, this guiding is carried on systematically and fulfilled to a certain degree.

The reader must continually keep in mind that here, the concern is with the didactic-pedagogic, i.e., situations in which an adult and a child, in spontaneously or formally established situations, establish relationships or enter with each other into the surrounding reality. Since this situation is a didactic-pedagogic one, it is difficult and scientifically impossible to implement categories other than the ones mentioned when reflecting on and describing the situation. Also, in the light of the indissoluble unity of educating and teaching, it is justifiable to accept that the pedagogical categories have relevance in establishing pedagogic-didactic situations, such as in a school. Because this is a purely didactic-pedagogic situation, findings about the validity of the pedagogical categories are justified only for this situation.

This means that a didactic situation in which only adults are present cannot be described by these pedagogical categories. In other words, pedagogical-didactical categories are not necessarily relevant to a purely adult [andragogic] didactic situation.

A summary of the above possibly can bring the matter of didactical categories in didactical theory building more clearly to light:

- a) The didactic assumes that reality, irrespective of its nature, must be thrown open (unlocked) or presented by an adult.

- b) This presenting or unlocking of reality for a child can occur only because a child, since he/she is a child, is attuned to learning. This means that each child shows an intention directed to learning. Therefore, all teaching is directed to helping a child, with the aim that he/she can reach his/her destination (adulthood) as a person.
- c) The indissoluble unity between educating and teaching means that it is only possible to show a distinction between them. Considering that educating emphasizes more the emotional forming of a child, and teaching stresses more consciousness forming, there also is mention of forming, as such. Therefore, educating, teaching, and forming are a unity, and always have a coordinated relationship to each other.
- d) The educating in the educative intervention with a child eventually falls aside when a child can properly command reality him/herself as an adult. This means that the formative teaching of an adult has its own autonomous identity which, although it cannot be radically different from childhood teaching, still is different because the moral moment is not unconditionally involved there.
- e) The essential relationship between teaching and forming also must show an essential relationship between the categories of forming and teaching. This implies that the didactical categories must have validity in the formative situation in the same way that the pedagogical categories have validity in the pedagogic-didactic situation. This means that the didactical categories also must be categories of the forming of adults. The implication of this is that there are pure didactical categories which have validity outside the educative categories, simply because teaching and forming still occur long after educating has become superfluous.

### 3. DIDACTICAL CATEGORIES

Before systematically explaining and clarifying didactical categories, it is necessary to make a few introductory observations. During the past two decades, the search for didactical categories has resulted in the systematization of concepts. The search for didactical categories

in didactic pedagogics is not odd or new, but their formulation, indeed, is new. It is remarkable that the didactic literature contains many examples of didacticians who take the didactic situation as their point of departure in searching for their categories. Such a point of departure is understandable, as is taking the school as a point of departure, because the didactic so obviously appears there. In addition, the choice of the school as a point of departure for didactical theory, also is understandable because didactic pedagogics is a discipline of pedagogics which must, among other things, make pronouncements about the school. In this way, and from this point of departure, several “characteristics” of the didactic school situation are described. The fundamental idea of this work is that the didactician investigates and inquires about the practice of school teaching to improve it. It also is conspicuous that this search for didactic “characteristics” does not stem from a rigorous scientifically accountable point of departure but is based on the researcher’s intuition. Consequently, the meanings of the “characteristics” described are formal.

When the formalized didactic situation (school) is taken as the point of departure for didactic theory, the spontaneous and naïve human lifeworld, and especially that of a child, is lost sight of. Today, didacticians view and think about the didactic situation against a pedagogical background. Thus, didactics is didactic pedagogics. It also involves much more than principles and methods of teaching.

Didactical categories are much more than didactic characteristics. Didactical categories must describe the totality of facts such that the activity (situation) emanating from them can be understood and expressed in words. This means that didactical categories are more fundamental than didactic characteristics. In thinking through the didactic-pedagogic situation, however, it is conspicuous that many of the so-called didactic “characteristics” really do refer to the original pedagogic-didactic situation as we find it in the home. They refer to the original situation, in the sense that they do not only have a connection with the second order, formal didactic situation (school), but they also qualify as didactical categories.

The fact is that didactic activities do not occur or appear for the first time in the school. In the original situation of educating, a

child learns spontaneously, i.e., he/she spontaneously involves him/herself with or turns him/herself to the reality surrounding him/her. This spontaneous involvement with reality directs an appeal to the parent, equally spontaneously (i.e., not formally), to create for the child situations within which he/she can learn.

The correlated spontaneous activity of the parent also can be characterized as naiveté. The parents spontaneous creation of a learning situation is naïve, in the sense that the parent does not necessarily have formal training in didactics. Therefore, didactic categories must be relevant to this spontaneous, naïve, and original situation. They must be essences of the human lifeworld. This implies that didactical categories must describe the essences of the profession which we know as didactics. In addition, this implies that they also must describe the didactic school situation in its essences. The reason for this simply is that, essentially, the formal school situation is a reconstitution of events which began long before schools were thought of.

The “characteristics” of the school situation mentioned earlier, even though they do not describe the totality of the didactic situation, still are particularly relevant for didactical theory. Because the didactician also must describe and be able to guarantee the reconstitution of the learning activity in the school, the description of the school’s characteristics is used to help formulate didactical criteria. This is discussed more fully later.

From what has been said, the reader will recognize the prominence of unlocking reality, learning, and forming as necessary for the didactic activity. Because they are so prominent, they are dealt with first. However, it is important to note that one didactical category is not more important than another. All didactical categories are equally valid and important because they describe the totality of what is called teaching. The following explanation is merely one possible systematization. Hence, it is not the only systematization possible, because didactical categories can be arranged according to certain criteria or ways of grouping. It also is important to note that the names of the didactical categories can differ. If a didactician prefers to use other terminology, in that he/she gives a particular category a different name, this does not mean he/she has created a

different category or has supplanted one category with another comparable one.

### **3.1 Unlocking (presenting) reality**

The explanation of categorical forming given in the previous chapter stresses the importance of unlocking (presenting) reality, which is fundamental to teaching. Unlocking reality implies that a person who knows and commands certain aspects of the lifeworld, unlocks the contents for the benefit of one who does not yet know, and does not yet command the contents. This activity underlies the teaching intervention of an adult with a child. The aim is to aid the child to achieve a firmer grasp of reality so that he/she feels secure in exploring reality on his/her own.

Unlocking reality is an essential category of the original relationship between adults and children—even a cursory examination of any classroom confirms this. The fact that an adult unlocks reality for a child cannot be explained on other grounds or referred to other reasons than an adult's educative intervention with a child. This activity of unlocking is given with being human and, therefore, is fundamental to describing the didactic event. It also is noted that unlocking reality refers primarily to the role of the teacher or adult in the teaching situation.

The theory of categorical forming also states that the person who must be formed must open him/herself to reality. This implies that, in unlocking reality, the didactician throws open and unlocks an aspect of reality so the child, who does not know that reality, can investigate and master it. The task of the teacher is that he/she must be able to account for the contents, the form of unlocking, and his/her aim in unlocking contents. In addition, he/she must be accountable regarding the way he/she invites a child to unlock him/herself for reality, for the nature and quality of a child's opening him/herself to reality and, ultimately, for his/her interpretation of the contents (elementals) so that the child can experience them as meaningful and, in doing so, to transform them so they become an authentic part of him/herself (fundamentals).

### **3.2 Learning**

The didactician's primary role in the lesson situation is in his/her unlocking reality. However, if a child does not learn, then the teacher's unlocking is meaningless. When the original didactic situation is examined, it is conspicuous that a parent only unlocks contents for his/her child which he/she can understand, and for which he/she is ready.

This category is not concerned with the ways a child learns (this is explained broadly in another chapter), but with the fact that a child learns. A child's learning activity in the lesson situation is of primary importance during the situation and, as such, it is a category of the structure of teaching. A child learns because he/she is a human being and because, for him/her, the learning activity is a spontaneous mode of existence. Thus, it is meaningful for an adult to direct a child's spontaneous learning toward his/her eventual adulthood—his/her eventual destination. The fact is that a child also learns outside the didactic situation and, therefore, teaching is not a condition for him/her to learn. The learning intention is given as an original moment of human existence. An adult uses a child's learning as an opportunity for the child to achieve greater independence and adulthood.

To realize this category, a teacher must present reality in such a way that it will stimulate a child's spontaneous learning intention. Then his/her spontaneous learning can be directed by the teacher's unlocking contents.

### **3.3 Forming**

Unlocking reality is the help an adult offers a child with the aim that the child will reach adulthood. In this respect, the child's relationship to reality is formed. This implies that the teaching offered to a child must primarily be formative. In its essence and effect, teaching is formative in nature for the following reasons: the help which an adult provides a child in the didactic situation eliminates the child's purposelessness and reservations about a given aspect of reality. The effect of forming, namely, being formed, means that a child emancipates him/herself with respect to reality, and that he/she can establish his/her own position in it.

Furthermore, there is the creation of a new, comprehensive interiority (inner life) which results in a broader and deeper experiencing. This amounts to the didactic situation providing a child with the opportunity to acquire broader experiences and, in this way, to expand them. These two moments of the category of forming increase, and progressively realize a child's potentiality to become acquainted with a larger and broader reality. To the degree that a child is formed in the didactic situation, his/her relationship to reality changes. This change is evident in a broader (more encompassing) and deeper relationship to reality. In this respect, there is a more adequate relationship to reality.

### **3.4 Orienting**

It is not possible that reality can be unlocked for a child without him/her simultaneously becoming oriented to it. An adult cannot unlock the broad and encompassing reality if the child does not have fixed points in terms of which he/she can determine his/her position in the newly unlocked reality. Therefore, the didactical meaning of orienting is that a child must determine his/her own position in terms of known, fixed points. These fixed points are normally the contents in the didactic situation. The didactician presents aspects of reality in his/her unlocking of it, which the child can understand because of his/her readiness. A child uses the unlocked reality to orient him/herself in it. This orienting provides him/her with the opportunity to enhance and enlarge his/her mobility in and familiarity with reality. Without this orienting, reality remains chaotic and undifferentiated for him/her.

Without orientation, it is not possible for the didactician to guarantee a child's passage to adulthood. If orienting is not in the situation, it cannot be typified as didactic, and it is not a situation within which a child's path reaches to adulthood.

### **3.5 Accompanying (guiding)**

During the unlocking of reality, and the related giving direction to a child's learning, the didactician does not leave the child to his/her own devices. The didactician is continually involved with the child;

he/she indicates direction, checks mistakes, tests insights, repeats aspects of his/her unlocking, allows the child to rehearse certain activities, etc. He/she does all this to ensure that he/she is steadily improving. This accompanying is central to the course of the didactic activity because it emphasizes that the didactician is continually trying to meet the child in the situation. Didactic activity cannot exist without this category.

A teacher in the classroom also is continually observing the child to ensure that he/she is progressing properly, according to expectations. In addition to the accompanying providing the child with stability and security, which are indispensable for the didactic and learning acts, at the same time, it serves to indicate direction for the child, and to affirm to him/her that he/she is on the right course.

### **3.6 Objectifying or distancing**

Unlocking reality, learning, forming, orienting, and accompanying imply that, during didactic activities, a certain distancing or objectifying arises between person and reality. Without this distancing or objectifying, one cannot acquire a proper perspective on reality. Since parents and teachers are adults, they already have established a standpoint or perspective on reality. This means that the adult has distanced him/herself from reality to the extent that he/she can now view it objectively. The fact that a person can talk about a reality means that he/she is not stuck affectively in it. This objectifying or distancing is necessary before a teacher can properly teach a child about reality. The aim is that the child must attain the same objectivity about it. Objectifying reality by the child is of cardinal importance to the teacher because it is a precondition for an impartial judgment of it.

This does not have to do with **objectivism**—after all, [philosophical] objectivism can never be a pedagogically accountable didactic aim. Objectifying essentially means that a child can distance him/herself from the immediate contents in such a way that he/she can identify their essences (elementals) and their relationships with each other. The aim is to enable the child to make sound judgments in terms of which he/she can evaluate the contents and accept or even discard

them. Objectifying, in this sense, is not only confined to educating, but it also gives quality to a person's lifestyle. If objectifying does not appear in the didactic situation, a child loses him/herself in [the contents of] reality to the extent that he/she is not able to place reality in a surveyable order and, therefore, he/she will be incapable of making decisions about the contents.

### **3.7 Imperatively (demanding)**

The didactic is always concerned with progress. In the didactic situation, certain demands are made of a child which he/she cannot ignore. This does not mean that these demands are always met. The fact that demands are made in the didactic situation cannot be ignored. When the expected level is not reached, the adult repeats the situation until he/she is satisfied that the child has adequately met the demands. The unlocking by a teacher is never diffuse or uncertain; it is specific and direct. In this respect, specific demands are made of the child, and the adult expects him/her to improve in certain ways, in response to the didactic imperative (unavoidable demands).

All the previous categories are meaningless if the imperative nature of the situation is not recognized. Even when a child is learning on his/her own (e.g., when doing homework or working independently with a program), the imperative still retains its authority as a didactic category. This is because auto-didactic situations cannot be authentically realized if a child does not answer the demands which are placed on him/her.

### **3.8 Anticipating**

Indeed, the future is continually realized in the teaching situation. In this context, the didactic activity is always directed to realizing the future; it is a human involvement directed to the future. If the future must be realized in the present, there necessarily is anticipation. In this sense, the relationship between the categories of anticipation and imperativity is clear. The demands made of a child in the didactic situation have a strong bearing on the structures of his/her future activities with respect to reality. If a teacher anticipates a child's future in the classroom, this implies

that he/she has an image or idea of this future which he/she (the teacher) considers to be important.

If there is no anticipation, this means that a teacher presents or unlocks contents which do not necessarily have a direct consequence for a child's future. The basic meaning of the curriculum is that it clearly spells out what a child must do now to enable him/her to eventually have some quality of mastery of reality. Anticipating does not mean that a teacher must be a futurologist. It means that he/she must anticipate a child's course of life to prepare him/her for the realities of life which he/she will encounter one day. The didactic event cannot be thought of without the category of anticipation.

### **3.9 Formalizing**

The didactic activity is aimed at realizing certain skills and a child's mobility regarding specific aspects of reality. Skills and mobility culminate in better insight, greater efficiency, and more independence. However, because these qualities of a child's learning are not necessarily achieved with the first unlocking, the teacher must repeat the didactic situation to present the essences of the learning contents again. This means that he/she restructures a certain didactic situation so a child can demonstrate his/her insights and skills with respect to a particular reality, exercise them or even have a new opportunity to acquire the contents.

Therefore, a teacher must formalize the situation to be able to repeat it in its essentials. In this context, it is important to differentiate between "formalizing" and "formalism". In this context, formalism implies that a teacher casts his/her lessons in only one form (and no other)—this leads to a rigid use of recipes. Experience shows, however, that formalism in a didactic situation is not possible; a child simply does not learn according to recipes, and each didactic situation is essentially unique.

Formalizing, as a didactic category, pushes to the foreground the matter of the immediate and mediate character of the didactic, in the sense that a teacher must be aware that a situation must be constructed which can function in two ways: firstly, to offer an

opportunity for a better and more purposeful orientation to reality and, secondly, to offer an opportunity for a better appropriation of reality. Formalizing enables a teacher to again present a child with contents previously exposed. Formalizing and accompanying, as didactic categories, are closely related: formalizing provides the didactic structure within which accompanying can be realized.

### **3.10 Socializing (i.e., a social situation)**

The didactic situation is essentially a social situation in both the spontaneous, naïve family situation and in the more formal school situation because, in each, there is involvement with reality in which an adult and a child are present. The quality of their joint presence speaks of an interpersonal involvement which is specifically social in nature. Thus, there is always a specific social relationship between them in a didactic situation. The learning activity of a child during his/her learning involvement with reality is a matter of social intercourse, of norms (codes), and of activities (behaviors) which ensure the positive direction of his/her learning.

The didactic category of socializing [and, here, not socialization] influences not only the course and direction of teaching it is an essential part of it because it cannot exist as an activity without social relationships, and because its outcome or effect cannot be visualized without the category of socializing. It is simply the case that a child cannot plan his/her own way through reality and the world, and through life without the help and support (i.e., accompaniment) of an adult and still emerge at the other end without being harmed. In addition, for a child, reality is only meaningful to the extent that it is a human reality. A child experiences reality as meaningful to the extent that he/she identifies him/herself with the person of the adult, and that he/she can form a positive relationship with him/her. This course of involvement with reality has a clear social tendency. When the social is not realized in the didactic situation, it cannot be described as a didactic one.

### **3.11 Delimiting (demarcating)**

Demarcating and reducing, the next category, are closely intertwined, but they are distinguished because delimiting primarily involves time and form, [while reducing is a matter of content]. In the family situation, where educating is originally experienced, a parent sets limits regarding the time to be used for the teaching activity, and to the form in which the situation is cast.

Concerning time, an adult chooses when he/she will present certain contents to a child. He/she does this in accordance with his/her evaluation of the child's ability to understand it, and what he/she thinks a child should know at this stage. The course of the didactic situation also is demarcated by time—the parent is not continuously involved in teaching his/her child. In the more formal didactic situation of the school, the question of time is so important that extensive research has been done about dividing time in relation to the subject structures of the school.

The same applies regarding form—the parent chooses forms for his/her unlocking or explaining, which consider his/her child's readiness, as well as the quality of the contents he/she unlocks for him/her. If time and form are not demarcated, the didactic situation is diffuse and even chaotic, which is not the case in the practice of teaching which is orderly and defined, and they are important considerations in its reconstitution in the classroom.

### **3.12 Reducing**

Where demarcating primarily involves time and form, reducing is concerned with the contents involved in the didactic situation. This involves reducing the contents to what is important and essential. In a child-parent relationship in the spontaneous lifeworld, the adult strips certain contents of everything which is secondary or incidental. The essences which remain are the point of departure for constructing an initial framework within which a child can move with reasonable security. By reducing the contents, a parent recognizes his/her child's tendency to become lost in details. This has the danger that the child will not be able to arrive at the essences if he/she is left on his/her own. Reducing contents to essences offers a child the opportunity to simplify complex structures. This enables him/her to explore reality with the

necessary security. Reducing to essences implies that an adult must be able to account for the ways in which he/she systematizes (the essences of) the contents, and for what he/she views as essences.

### **3.13 Achieving**

In discussing the category of “imperativity,” it is noted that the didactic situation essentially has a demanding and progressive character. Achieving is also mentioned because an adult expects a certain level of attainment from a child regarding the reality unlocked. Thus, an adult will control [monitor] and evaluate a child’s achievements in the didactic situation. If the adult does not do this, then this means that he/she ignores the demands placed on him/her by the category of “accompanying”. Controlling and evaluating are essential aspects of the “forming” which he/she has aimed for, and to which he/she directs him/herself in his/her didactic intervention. At the same time, this enables a child to judge and criticize his/her own participation. This underlies the possibility that the child can taste the fruits of success or experience the disappointment of inadequate participation. Both aspects can be positively employed to motivate a child in later learning activities. Controlling and evaluating are used for the greater and more responsible participation of a child in the didactic situation. Controlling and evaluating qualify as such only if they are paired with sympathy and are orienting in nature. They only have meaning if they support the child with security on his/her way through reality.

### **3.14 Progressing**

There is an ascending and continuous line which indicates didactic progress. The simplicity of a child’s world relationship must make room for the complex world relationship of an adult. Thus, the exposition of the contents must be progressive with respect to an increasing complexity and scope of learning material. The previous categories each have a progressive character regarding the quality and nature of a child’s progress and advancement in the didactic situation.

The progressive character of the didactic is closely related to the increasing differentiation of the aims which an adult has in view in creating a didactic practice. A child's role in the didactic situations must be progressive, otherwise eventual adulthood cannot be attained.

At this stage, it is seen that these categories (separately and together) retain their validity in every situation which can be described as didactic; they also apply to situations where only adults are involved in didactic activities, i.e., where educating as such, in no way is implied.

In describing each of the didactic categories, it is noted that the didactic situation must be periodically repeated if a child does not reach the desired level of mastery after his/her initial involvement with the contents. In this context, it is meaningful and important to be able to recognize the structures. However, to be able to repeat this situation, the didactician must make use of certain criteria to enable him/her to repeat the situation purposefully and accurately. When repeating the previous situation, the form, the contents, and the duration of the new situation must correspond as far as possible to the earlier one. The aim is to realize the essences of the previous situation as closely as possible. Repeating the structure of the situation is not possible without applying didactical criteria.

#### 4. DIDACTICAL CRITERIA

\*\*\*[This was written at a time when the distinction between category and criterion was still being worked through at Pretoria. At this time, a category and a criterion were thought of as different though related in so, way. Later, it was realized that criteria are derived directly from categories by changing categories to questions. For example: the constituting category "unlocking reality" and the evaluative criterion, "is unlocking reality present and, if so, what is its quality?" To reconstitute or repeat a didactic situation, to ensure that a situation and its repetition have the same structure, the categories must be present in both cases. Also, it might be that an inadequately actualized category is a possible reason for a situation needing to be repeated. The following categories don't seem

helpful, even though they express desired results from a didactic situation. –G.D.Y., translator].\*\*\*

Didactical categories must provide an answer to the question: What *is* or what *constitutes* the didactic situation? Therefore, didactic categories provide the beacons or points of departure for thinking about the didactic phenomenon, as well as the beacons in terms of which a didactician can describe the didactical. However, when designing didactic criteria, the aim is different in that they have to do with determining the requirements for constituting a situation as a didactic one; the didactician knows that, as a type of situation, it must be realized through repeating it. This also involves determining how such a situation can be assessed and evaluated. Evaluating the didactic situation implies that the contribution of the didactician in the situation must be clearly identified in terms of criteria. In addition, didactic criteria must determine how a desired didactic situation can be effectively repeated.

There is a close relationship among didactical categories, didactical criteria and didactical principles. Most didactical categories directly give rise to didactical criteria and, in this respect, it is difficult to think about didactical criteria without didactical categories. However, it must be kept in mind that didactical criteria are not primarily used to evaluate the people involved in the situation; they must serve to recognize, evaluate and, when necessary, repeat the activities in the didactic situation.

It is possible to deduce didactic criteria directly from didactical categories by asking, for example, whether unlocking reality is truly present in a specific situation. This question and answer can serve as a didactical criterion. However, the aim of didactical criteria is not to evaluate the validity of the didactical categories, but to evaluate the quality of the teaching activity. Where didactical categories emerge from the origins of the phenomenon, they are the result of a logical analysis of the didactic situation, as such. Didactical criteria are concerned with the quality of the teaching activity, and not with the fact of the activity.

#### 4.1 Perspective

Perspective involves placing matters in their prominence within the landscape of insights. Experience and scientific examination of the didactic situation show that no one can determine the priorities of reality for another person—each person must decide this for him/herself. This means that each person, in accordance with his/her insights, conceptions, value-judgments and intuitive feelings furnish his/her own experiential and knowing horizon, and views certain things as more important and more prominent than others regarding specific content. The educator can, however, aid and support a child in this deciding by placing his/her own insights, conceptions, etc. at the child's disposal, with the aim of aiding him/her to orient him/herself. Any new knowledge which a person encounters will change his/her perspective on it in one way or another. Qualities and values which are contained in the contents, such as truth, beauty, and utility, will change the emphasis and prominence of these contents in a child's horizon of knowledge.

Because a child is still becoming adult, this ordering of contents and the resulting change regarding his/her possessed knowledge is more important and radical than it is for an adult. Thus, the structures of knowledge a child masters will influence his/her perspective on reality. If the category of forming is not realized in the didactic situation, it can be asked whether a child's perspective on life reality has flourished, because forming assumes change in the sense of an improving, broadening and deepening. Improving, broadening, and deepening assume a perspective on reality, and without perspective the category of forming will necessarily fail. Thus, this criterion serves as a gauge for determining if a child's perspective on reality has progressively acquired form.

## **4.2 Constituting**

If a didactic activity has progressed formatively, a child necessarily has constituted or created a new reality for him/herself. No person is born with a full mastery of reality. The meaning of the didactic activity, indeed, is that a learning person will establish or create a unique reality for him/herself. If it is determined that the learning person in a didactic situation has benefited from the activity, constituting obviously is of importance here. A teacher who uses

constituting as a didactic criterion, in the first place, searches for the fact of the constituting and not necessarily its scope.

### **4.3 Relationality**

In a child's relationship to reality, also in a social relationship, this involves an "introduction" to reality. This introduction is observable in a changed relationship to reality. A person's life progresses in a solidary way (i.e., a person establishes a particular relationship with the reality outside him/herself) and a solitary way (a person establishes a relationship with him/herself) and, therefore, the task of the individual establishing a relationship to reality is an important didactic criterion. Thus, the didactic act is focused on helping a child establish a relationship with the reality outside him/herself and with him/herself. These relationships which he/she establishes result in his/her being in a changed relationship to reality and to him/herself. In this sense, relationality is present and is very similar to the category of orienting, which refers to a person in the teaching situation arriving at a particular and valid determination of his/her own standpoint in life. Relationality, as a didactic criterion, focuses a teacher's attention on the need to evaluate continuously a child's growing and changing relationship to reality.

### **4.4 Self-discovery**

The fact that the didactic activity is realized in the solitariness of a child implies that he/she discovers him/herself in the situation. A child must exceed his/her limits, break down resistances, solve problems, and attain certain levels of achievement. To be able to do this, he/she needs the help of adults.

If there is no evidence of self-discovery, this means that categories such as anticipating, and futurity are not adequately realized in the didactic situation. The didactic situation also is aimed at the child eventually discovering a unique disposition and position in surrounding reality and the lifeworld. Thus, a teacher's task is to help him/her to discover his/her dispositions because he/she must help him/her to become what and who he/she can and ought to be.

## 4.5 Emancipation

If there is evidence of the child constituting a personal world, changing his/her relationship to reality and self-discovery, this also is evidence that the adult increasingly is made superfluous because the child is increasingly capable of making his/her own decisions and willing to accept full responsibility for his/her decisions. A child explores reality from a position of security in the educative situation, to the extent that he/she is emancipated from the adult, in that the adult's aid and support become unnecessary. A child who learns effectively also emancipates him/herself from the learning contents. There are qualitative changes apparent in the way a child is involved with reality (the learning contents). Essentially, this qualitative change includes a greater self-reliance and willingness to approach a problem him/herself.

The basic attitude which makes emancipation possible is a child's ability and willingness to venture into, and be exposed to situations, even new ones and to adequately meet the demands of such situations him/herself. One notices this at an early age when a child insists on dressing him/herself and, later, tying his/her own shoes. During puberty and adolescence, the willingness to accept responsibility is sufficient proof that a child is prepared to act in accordance with his/her conscience. Therefore, emancipation is always concerned with discovering and accepting values, norms, and judgments in terms of which one lives as he/she ought to because he/she chooses to unconditionally subject him/herself to the authority of norms and values.

## 4.6 Expectation

In the discussion of futurity, as a pedagogical category, and anticipating reality, in a didactic connection, it is indicated that the future must be met. Because a child is someone who wants to become someone him/herself, the criterion of expectation can be raised. In teaching the unknown, the evocative, the adventurous, the beautiful, rights, and similar perspectives are continually presented.

The appeal which goes out to a child from these contents is primarily directed to his/her spontaneous and natural eagerness to learn. A teaching situation is seen particularly when a teacher continually awakens expectations in a child regarding contents which are still beyond his/her reach. In this way, a teacher uses the contents to appeal to a child to participate in the teaching situation. A child is continually and cumulatively enlarging his/her experience because an adult continually confronts him/her with important and meaningful aspects of reality. Within this frame of reference, confronting a child with learning content fulfills his/her expectations. In this regard, the adult is involved in helping a child make a future, and this future which they create together evokes a particular expectation in the child regarding it.

#### **4.7 Rationality (rational command of reality)**

It is only reasonable to expect that an adult's systematic reduction of content in the teaching situation should elicit a child's rationality, as his/her contribution. Therefore, rationality involves a child's more objective (clearer) insight into his/her own situation in his/her involvement with the world and the things within it. This means that a child's intellectual insight enable him/her to view reality with greater clarity. This does not mean that the intellectual ability of the child is the most important or only aspect to be considered in teaching; the teaching aim is to create a harmony between a child's emotional and intellectual command of reality. A child's rational control of reality greatly elevates his/her hyper-naiveté and spontaneity in this regard, and strengthens his/her grasp of reality.

#### **4.8 Security**

A child must be encountered in an atmosphere of stability, security, safety, and acceptance in a didactic situation before he/she can really venture in the situation. Here security especially means bringing the child to rest and stabilizing his/her affective disposition. Thus, from time to time, a learning child must be brought to rest and given the opportunity to reflect on what is being taught. This is not a choice, but an imperative. Security in the teaching situation is a fundamental precondition for a child to realize the teaching aims

by mastering contents. Without stability and an atmosphere of safety, the child becomes uncertain and doubtful; his/her desire to venture into the unknown is diminished to the extent that the quality of his/her involvement with the learning contents is seriously impaired.

#### **4.9 Transcending**

When a human being involves him/herself with reality, in one way or another, he/she transcends that reality. Transcending literally means overcoming the physical and visual and entering the realm of the metaphysical and abstract. In this sense, metaphysical means the realm of what is more than the physical. In the teaching situation, transcending means that the life and worldview of the educator provide a bridge for a child spanning his/her own lifeworld and the world above and beyond being human. A child must transcend the physical world to recognize the hand of the Creator in the lifeworld [of the believer].

This is surely the final meaning of the reality a child is confronted with in his/her education. A child's deepest convictions, his/her most fundamental experience of meaning and his/her greatest appreciation of reality are formed in transcending that reality. Where transcending does not occur, experience can easily lead to skepticism and even nihilism. Neither is a positive educative influence or aim. Teaching which does not help a child transcend reality is not educative in its effect.

As mentioned previously, a teacher must be able to repeat the teaching situation. A child is not always intensively involved in the teaching situation; he/she does not necessarily reach the desired level of competence after his/her first exposure to new learning contents. Didactic criteria must enable the teacher to evaluate the quality of the teaching situation he/she has designed, as well as the quality of the child's involvement. His/her aim is to improve his/her teaching.

### **5. DIDACTICAL PRINCIPLES**

#### **5.1 General principles**

### 5.1.1 Sympathy

The word sympathy literally means to feel together. In everyday usage, sympathy means to share someone's feelings. It has a broader meaning in the didactic situation. Here, it means that the parent or teacher will have the insight to look for the child where he/she is, and not where one thinks he/she ought to be. An adult does this because the aim of the didactic situation is to help the child. Sympathy here involves an attitude, a way of approaching and entering the situation. He/she places him/herself at the disposal of the child.

At the same time, sympathy requires the stake or attitude of the child. The difference, however, is that an adult is accountable, and remains responsible for initiating or establishing the didactic situation. The fact that, in the didactic situation, a teacher takes the initiative, but, from time to time, expects the child to take the initiative, confirms and describes the real nature of initiative as a didactic principle. That is, the adult has the primary responsibility for initiating or establishing a climate or atmosphere in the teaching situation in which mutual trust and acceptance are evident. The teacher's design of a didactic situation means that he/she places certain contents at the disposal of a child in such a way that it reflects his/her sympathetic initiative. A child's welfare is a teacher's primary concern, whether a child understands and appreciates the teacher's educative aims or not. Where there is no sympathetic initiative, the teaching practice is, without exception, rigid and formalistic. By its nature, such a teaching-style will inhibit the smooth development of the situation, and, at the same time, the child will experience insecurity. In its turn, the quality of the demands made of the child, and the quality of the support given by the teacher are determined by sympathy. Where sympathy is absent, the teaching practice can hardly form a child adequately.

It must be stressed that sympathy does not mean an undisciplined, loose association between adult and child. Where the teaching situation is undisciplined, in that the adult has no authority, educating and its aims cannot be achieved, and the situation degenerates into an arbitrary and chaotic one.

### 5.1.2 Clarity

The didactic situation is always directed at aims. Irrespective of the immediacy of the contents, adult and child in the situation are jointly involved in creating a future. If the situation must be repeated to acquire a firmer and better grasp of reality, the principle of clarity cannot be omitted. A teacher must be able to state clearly where he/she will go, precisely what he/she aims for, how he/she is going to attain specific aims, what he/she expects of a child in a situation, how he/she is going to evaluate the results of the didactic situation, etc.

Therefore, this deals not so much with a clear presentation because a clear presentation is a result of clear aims, clearly ordering the contents, well thought out application of specific methods and controls, etc. This does not deal merely with a half-formulated lesson presentation. The didactic principle of clarity is a question of didactic insight rather than of a good narration, a demonstration, or an interesting experiment. It is possible that the narration, demonstration, and experiment are fluent, interesting, and clearly executed, but have nothing to do with the ultimate aim. Clarity means insight into the didactic situation.

### 5.1.3 Tempo

The principle of clarity implies clarity of purpose: the teacher knows what he/she wants a child to achieve. Wherever movement (from a position of childhood to a position of adulthood) is of the essence, there is always tempo. Tempo is of particular importance in the didactic situation because a child can so easily fall behind. Each human being has his/her own tempo, for example in eating, reading, and walking—and in learning. It is also generally accepted that each person has his/her own life tempo. Therefore, it is only logical that a child will reflect his/her life tempo in his/her learning activities. As in everyday life, the tempo of teaching will also partly determine the speed and rhythm of the progress of teaching.

Tempo is one of the most important and difficult problems facing a teacher: he/she must try to maintain a balanced tempo to ensure

that the quicker children are not bored and, at the same time, that the slower children are not left behind. A few aspects are important in this context: firstly, we know that a child must reach a certain level of achievement within a certain period. This is illustrated by the finality of examinations at the end of the academic year. The tempo or pace of a teacher has a general and a specific aspect. On the one hand, it has a bearing on his/her teaching as a whole; on the other, it has a direct bearing on the lesson. The tempo a teacher maintains has an important influence on the life tempo of the child as well as on his/her eventual lifestyle as an adult. In this sense, tempo is closely related to the attitude toward life, especially where a child is expected to learn to live in accordance with the demands the adult world will one day make on him/her. This is something very few teachers think of, and which is generally underestimated when planning and assessing teaching tempo. If tempo is not realized harmoniously in the teaching situation, the children become bewildered, dismayed, discouraged, or bored; one can even expect frustration and aggression as a reaction.

#### **5.1.4 Dynamism**

The didactic situation is preeminently one of movement. Dynamism, in didactic terms, is more concerned with the quality of the attitude, the enthusiasm, and the zeal of the participants. It gives the movement in the situation the character one expects of effective and enriching teaching, a character of dynamism.

A teacher's enthusiasm and attitude directly influence the quality of a child's enthusiasm and attitude. A teacher expects a child to take part in the teaching situation, according to his/her ability, with enthusiasm and dedication; these attitudes and qualities of participation are of decisive importance. For this reason, the dynamism of the teacher qualifies as a principle of teaching to achieve good results. If the teacher is not dynamic, the class soon becomes listless and bored, and the effect of teaching is not what it should be.

#### **5.1.5 Balance**

Because formal teaching must follow a precise timetable, a teacher is often tempted to overemphasize a certain didactic or pedagogic aspect to the detriment of other equally important aspects. This kind of teaching is unbalanced and inharmonious. A teacher who subjects everything in his/her teaching to discipline or to freedom creates an unbalanced or inharmonious situation. Furthermore, it is important for a teacher to ensure balance as far as time is concerned (its effective use), as far as form is concerned (its variation) and as far as contents are concerned (their choice). Balance ensures the harmony without which an accountable and meaningful dialogue between teacher and child (each according to his/her rightful participation) cannot take place. Without balance, neither a teacher nor a child can contribute meaningfully to the teaching situation.

The meaning of the general principles is found in planning the course of activities in the didactic situation over a long period of time to draw guidelines for an accountable practice. They especially serve an important aim in constituting a desired practice.

## **5.2 Particular principles**

### **5.2.1 Stating and formulating the lesson problem**

The general experience of teaching indicates that learning is activated and directed by a meaningful problem. Psychopedagogical research supports this everyday experience. As far as a child is concerned, this statement is particularly true. Because a teacher plans a specific learning activity in the teaching situation, he/she tries to formulate the lesson problem in such a way that the child can't help being absorbed by it. This does not mean that a teacher merely announces the problem. Announcing a problem does not mean that a child will experience it as a problem or that he/she considers the problem as his/hers to solve. The problem should evolve out of the actualization of a child's prior knowledge (foreknowledge) concerning the subject.

Thus, a teacher must question a child's relevant prior knowledge in such a way that the child starts asking questions to try to rectify his/her inadequate knowledge by solving the lesson problem. In

this way, a climate is created conducive to accepting and solving problems.

This aspect of teaching requires special skill: the implication is that a teacher must effectively involve a child with the contents, but in such a way that the child experiences the contents as a worthwhile challenge. Stating the problem, therefore, serves as a functional introduction to the teaching activity, as well as an examination of the circumstances in which to effectively launch the lesson.

### **5.2.2 Planning**

The formal teaching activity is seldom, if ever, the result of intuitive or spontaneous activities by a teacher. A teacher must plan every lesson because the activities in the school are formalized to the extent that careful planning is a precondition for success.

Stating the problem and planning are closely related. Planning includes such aspects as selecting learning contents, introducing teaching and learning aids, choosing and using certain teaching methods, to mention only a few. Planning also includes the total of a teacher's preparation because, in his/her planning, he/she intends to identify a structure in terms of which he/she can anticipate teaching situations. This is of central importance: the design a teacher makes in his/her planning is literally a preview of what is to happen in a lesson. A teacher certainly does not allow the situation to develop incidentally. Hence, he/she does not only plan the lesson form, but also its development and the course it must take, as well as the way in which the pupils must master the contents. His/her planning also includes provision for possible learning difficulties and problems. The detail implied by the criterion of planning is dealt with more fully when the structure of teaching is described in a later chapter.

### **5.2.3 Illustrating**

All teachers know from experience that illustrating contents (reality) in the didactic situation is of exceptional importance to ensure its effective progress. Illustrating does not only mean the introduction of visual materials in the didactic situation. In fact, illustrating is

the medium for realizing a child's perceptual ability, as a form of learning. This means that the contents must be made accessible to a child's perception, especially because of the very important role perceiving plays in learning. Because the presentation of contents to ensure effective perceiving is of decisive importance, inefficiency, in this regard, hampers the progress of the lesson to the extent that any success or learning effect is quite incidental.

#### **5.2.4 Systematizing and ordering**

In the first place, systematizing and ordering refer to a teacher and the quality of his/her activity in the class; in this respect, systematizing refers to a teacher's attitude and ordering to his/her skillfulness.

A teacher's attitude and skills are related factors which largely determine the fluency of the didactic situation. This holds true for the form (method) as well as the contents (learning contents). At the same time, this also is a matter of delimiting the situation in so far as using the time available to the teacher and the role of the pupil is concerned, which influence the rhythm of the lesson's progress. Systematizing and ordering are guarantees against aimless teaching, careless designs, inaccurate evaluation, and listless participation by the children. Systematizing and ordering are conspicuously related to the didactic principles of planning and illustrating.

#### **5.2.5 Surveyability**

If a teacher does not have a surveyable [comprehensive] and objective view of the didactic situation, the possibility of repeating the situation in its essences is not realizable. Surveyability concerning the structure of teaching is a precondition for effective preparation and meaningful reflection. A teacher must be able to give a surveyable [comprehensive] account of the teaching situation he/she has prepared and put into motion. A child must also achieve a surveyable command of the contents, otherwise he/she remains immersed in detail and finds it very difficult to synthesize the various aspects of the contents. This influences the quality of

his/her objective judgment; only if a child has a surveyable view of the contents, is there successful learning.

### **5.2.6 The scientific character**

A teacher's responsibility in establishing a didactic situation is mainly two-fold: on the one hand, he/she must be able to be accountable for his/her didactic design, i.e., for matters such as methodological principles, the particular methods and ground-forms he/she is going to select to establish a particular situation and, secondly, he/she must be able to be accountable for the contents he/she has in view for this situation. The scientific quality of his/her didactic design is visible in the way he/she reduces contents to their essences (elementals), and the way he/she assesses and helps a child reach the same level of command of the contents. The reduction of contents to their essences is discussed fully in a later chapter.

At this stage, a few introductory remarks are important. The contents have their own nature because they must reflect the nature of the subject from which they are taken. This nature refers to a scientific structure, e.g., physics, history, linguistics, geography, mathematics, etc. which, as sciences, contain their own methods in terms of which they can be unlocked. A teacher must account for this scientific nature of the different school subjects, and he/she must be able to harmonize them with his/her teaching methods. An understanding of the harmony between the nature of the subject and the method of teaching determines the harmony between contents and form in the lesson design. If there is no harmony between form and contents, the learning effect is endangered. The teaching of chemistry is a good example of a teacher's options in this respect. He/she can either treat the various topics theoretically by using textbooks, or he/she can vitalize his/her teaching by providing the pupils with the opportunity to carry out experiments which will inevitably lead the child to a clearer understanding of the nature and scientific methods of chemistry.

### **5.2.7 Controlling (monitoring)**

The meaning and importance of guiding and controlling in the didactic situation have been touched on generally in the description of didactic categories. Without guiding and controlling [monitoring] there is no accounting or responsibility for teaching activities; also, there is no evaluating or basis for identifying a child's problems in the learning situation. In addition, without control, a teacher cannot critically assess his/her teaching and, therefore, he/she will not be able to improve it.

Often, a teacher will proceed with his/her teaching activities for quite a long time without controlling or assessing the quality of the pupil's participation and achievement. Also, quite often, he/she carries on his/her teaching activities without taking stock of him/herself or the way his/her teaching is developing. It is for these reasons that the didactic categories emphasize the importance of control. No teacher should ignore or minimize the importance of control. If it is lacking, teaching is carried on without criticism and, therefore, without accountability; this kind of teaching is unacceptable under all circumstances.

In terms of the above description of the didactic principles, it is important to note that their function is to focus mainly on two aspects of teaching. Firstly, the totality of the course of the didactic activity is brought into view with the aim of designing consecutive teaching situations. Secondly, these situations must be assessed to determine their effectiveness so that, if necessary, they can be repeated as specific types of situations. The means and aids a teacher uses in these situations must be evaluated in terms of their own criteria, for example, by means of the language the teacher uses, his/her attitude in front of the class, his/her attitude toward individual pupils and the class as a group, etc.

So far, this chapter has dealt with the theoretical description of didactic categories and criteria. Furthermore, the didactic principles have been explained, and the point has been stressed that their realization in the teaching situation ensures that a child experiences the didactic situation as meaningful.

However, in a theoretical treatment of teaching, it is necessary at this stage to examine certain factors which primarily influence the form of teaching.

## **6. FACTORS WHICH PRIMARILY INFLUENCE THE DIDACTIC FORM**

In the theoretical discussion of the didactic offered in this chapter, it is repeatedly said that the didactic situation is primarily involved with the help an adult offers a child to find his/her way to adulthood. It is also repeatedly stressed that this help or teaching offered by the adult must take a form, otherwise the teaching is left to haphazard success, which is unacceptable and unsatisfactory. Because teaching is a purposeful intervention, the didactic situation cannot be realized haphazardly. At least a teacher must be able to account for his/her management of the course of the situation. Because it is his/her task to account for his/her practice, he/she must plan the didactic situation accountably. To be able do this, he/she continually concentrates on various factors which provide possibilities and means to organize and consciously channel the help he/she offers a child, to enlarge and simplify his/her teaching, to increase or decrease his/her teaching tempo, to assess and evaluate, etc., all in terms of a child's actions in the situation.

A wide variety of factors are involved in these considerations. The aim is not to deal with each one fully at this stage. Only certain aspects are discussed to place the problem of didactic form (which is fundamental to the design a teacher is to make) in perspective. The other aspects are dealt with in the chapter on the structure of teaching.

### **6.1 Language**

Insofar as language is an intrinsic aspect of the form of teaching, it is seen primarily as a determining factor of perceiving, experiencing, and objectifying to which a child is attuned in the lifeworld. In the original experience of educating, parents concentrate on language and use it as a factor regarding the form of educating. One notices this in a wide variety of teaching situations common to all educating. Examples are naming objects; questions adults answer and ask of children; characteristics of objects, matters

and persons the adult systematizes; materials an adult places at the disposal of the children and arranges by means of language; stories which are repeatedly read or told to a child; events from various aspects of the lifeworld a parent dramatizes for his/her child; the clarification of phenomena, especially in nature; instructions given and explained in language; concepts, names, characteristics, etc. which an adult continually repeats for a child's benefit.

These important activities cannot occur without language. An adult also expects a child to follow him/her in each of these specific structures; for example, a child must repeat the words after the adult, must be able to act after the adult, must be able to follow the adult's actions in playing, etc. All of this is done with the intention that the child will eventually master these facts of the lifeworld independently. Each one of these activities reveals or discloses the reality surrounding a child and ensures his/her active involvement in life. They also enable him/her to take note of each of these aspects of reality and to provide evidence that he/she is capable of mastering reality in these terms.

## **6.2 Skills**

In the didactic situation, a teacher continually concentrates on the skills a child must master to become independent in the lifeworld. In this concentration on skills an adult seeks to create a harmony between a child's spontaneous, activity-directed life attunement, and the demands the surrounding world place on him/her in this regard. For this reason, an adult encourages a small child to carry out certain activities, knowing well that these activities are important for the acquisition of later skills such as reading and writing. It is also for this reason that parents encourage and stimulate the skills their child should master during their educative involvement. They also try to integrate these skills in, for example, a child's perceiving and attending. A teacher continues these activities of the parents in the school in a highly systematized manner.

Skills are very important in the school, and they are one of the most important aspects of a teacher's involvement with a child until the day he/she leaves school. These skills are refined and differentiated

in a wide variety of learning situations provided for in science laboratories, art classes, manual work centers, domestic science centers, etc. It is important for a teacher that a child possesses certain skills because they are the basis for him/her to eventually arrive at self-realization. Where skills are ignored in the teaching situation, the learning event is distorted. In this context, one must realize that a teacher is particularly interested in the quality and level of a child's skills when assessing and evaluating his/her progress.

Although skills are not necessarily the primary focus in the didactic situation, a child's insight into and thinking about the contents is largely carried or mobilized by the skills related to specific school subjects. It is also true that most pupils in the secondary school will eventually find employment in the technological culture outside the school where specialized skills are of decisive importance. This means that the school must literally undertake prevocational training to equip this child adequately for the vocational world. For this reason, the focus of vocationally directed schooling is on the harmony between knowledge and skills which are directed to a child's eventual independence. Didactic form cannot be considered in isolation from the conscious and direct planning for improving skills in the didactic situation.

### **6.3 Social discipline**

A child exists and lives as a person and a human being among other people. In this sense, he/she finds him/herself in a social situation from the day of his/her birth. As he/she becomes older and larger, his/her social world expands and, in addition to family members, other persons also are in his/her experiential world. The social or societal factors which, in time, become more prominent in his/her lifeworld are subject to a certain hierarchy or order. It is expected of the members of a certain society to obey its norms and values to preserve the order of the community.

The implication of the above for a child is that he/she is a human being who lives with other people who have the same rights, and, for this reason, his/her actions may not harm other members of the group, including in the family or classroom. This means that a

child, on his/her way to adulthood, is continually confronted with the norms of the community which he/she eventually will obey unconditionally. During a child's educating, the adult continually confronts him/her with religious-moral, social-cultural, and judicial-economic norms. However, because he/she moves outside these norms during his/her childhood, (he/she has not yet attained adulthood), it is the task of a teacher, and adults generally, to orient him/her in terms of the demands of these norms. Because the school represents the lifeworld outside the home, the demands of the norms are especially valid in the school.

The form of teaching cannot be considered without considering the social discipline to which a child is subjected. In the final analysis, this is very closely related to the totality of the aims of educating. The implication is that the didactic form used by a teacher is not meaningful outside the question of social discipline. This holds in helping a child to unconditionally obey authority—also the authority of the learning material because ultimately this content is reality. A teacher's possibilities of choice of form are somewhat limited by this when he/she makes didactic designs, but on the other hand, this also prevents arbitrary mutual relations among the pupils and among the group of pupils and the teacher him/herself which might arise. Therefore, it is not possible for a teacher to act in the didactic situation without social discipline. Thus, a teacher is obligated to present in responsible ways particular contents to a child.

#### **6.4 Expression**

It is essential that, in the didactic situation, a child is given the opportunity for self-realization. This means that he/she must have the opportunity for self-expression. In terms of what is said above about social discipline, a child must be able to express his/her knowledge, experiences, perceptions, and objective point of view without overstepping the boundaries (demands) of social discipline. In this way, he/she broadens and deepens his/her relationship to reality, and both qualities become evident in his/her expression.

Where a teacher creates opportunities for expression, he/she, in fact, closely relates his/her teaching to a child's lifestyle, as well as

to his/her spontaneous tendencies to act. Because a teacher chooses specific forms of teaching to give a child the opportunity to express him/herself, the circumstances are created for variations in teaching for vitalizing the situation and, especially, for providing a child with the opportunity for direct experience. Teaching activities in the school are aimed at the eventual self-realization of the child; it is obvious that this is important. To offer a child the opportunity to express him/herself in a didactic form means to close the distance between him/her and the teacher, which all too often exists in the classroom. One must understand that the form in which expression is realized is not only seen in forms of activity: language is always the most important form of expression.

However, one must guard against using language as the only form of expression (for example, the narrative method). Overuse leads to a soul-destroying practice which only offers a child a limited opportunity to express him/herself. The very real danger is that a teacher can give too much prominence to the forms of expression in the adult world. The usual result is that a teacher's presentation becomes rigid and that his/her presentation, furthermore, is beyond the children's understanding. The implication is that a teacher must identify forms intrinsic to a child's lifeworld which can conveying the child's expression.

## **6.5 Intentionality**

A child's directedness to learning, which is awakened and directed by the parents in the home, is purposefully striven for and refined in the school. As far as this is concerned, forms of teaching must be designed for the didactic situation which will help a child realize his/her eagerness to learn, as well as give direction to his/her learning intention (directedness to learn). For this reason, a teacher chooses certain forms of teaching which will strongly appeal to a child's eagerness to learn. When a teacher uses didactic criteria at the end of the lesson, or at the end of a series of lessons to evaluate a child's achievements, the quality of his/her teaching also is evaluated by the didactic criteria. However, when it happens that a teacher does not evaluate his/her didactic forms in terms of didactic criteria, and where self-criticism in this regard is absent, he/she repeats a particular form of teaching throughout his/her entire

career. Such a teacher, at his/her retirement, has had only one year of teaching experience [repeated numerous times]. This means that a teacher continually evaluates and chooses contents to present to a child in such a way that his/her intentionality to achieve can, thereby, be stimulated and directed. A child's learning intentionality should be the basis for a teacher's lesson design because (taking the nature of the learning subjects into consideration) it is the most important single factor which will help determine his/her progress in the teaching situation.

These five factors are not the only ones influencing the form of teaching. Because the other factors have been extensively described in the didactic literature, these five have been chosen as examples of what a teacher considers when choosing specific forms of teaching.

## 7. SUMMARY

This chapter provides an overview of the primary aspects of didactic theory. It is indicated that the point of departure for such a theory is of decisive significance, since the pronouncements made from such a theory must satisfy the demand of universality. This point of departure is the original experience of educating. A view of the essences of this original experience discloses categories which describe didactic practice in its essences. The didactic categories bring to light the essences of the didactic situation. Because the point of departure is the original experience of educating, the relationships of the pedagogical categories with the didactic ones are indicated. However, if the didactic situation must be repeated, a necessity, especially of the formal didactic situation, is that it must be evaluated such that it can exist.

From the didactic categories, certain yardsticks are derived which can be used to evaluate the situation. In this way, didactic criteria are brought to the fore.

The didactic categories express what is constitutive of (essential to) the didactic situation, while didactic criteria evaluate its course and effect. Irrespective of the didactic categories and criteria, a penetration of the original experience of educating shows that, with respect to activities, as such, there are principles which can

somewhat guarantee their quality. The principles disclosed in this way are offered as examples and are called didactic principles.

In later chapters, the general and specific didactic principles (as discussed in this chapter) are considered again. In the lesson structure, the didactic principles give a flavor to putting the didactic course into motion.

Ordering and classifying the didactic principles discussed here can be done in terms of the broader concepts of activity, individualizing, socializing and tempo-differentiation. In this respect, the accent of the didactic principles is on establishing a harmony between the child and reality in terms of a course of teaching. Because contents are continually mentioned theoretically, the question of learning material is merely mentioned in this chapter. During this discussion there is continual reference to the relationship and harmony between form and contents, and there also is reference to the immediate function of the contents in the teaching situation, whose ultimate meaning is in the pedagogical.

Because the form is an aspect of the harmony mentioned, the factors which primarily influence the didactic form also are briefly broached in this theoretical discussion. Though not the only ones, the five factors essentially influencing didactic form are considered to orient the reader about considerations in choosing a particular form, which then must fill a specific function in the didactic situation. With this, the point is reached where somewhat formal pronouncements are made regarding the structure of the possible didactic ground-forms. This is the theme of the following chapter.