CHAPTER TWO

DESIGNING AN EDUCATIVE TEACHING SITUATION

1. INTRODUCTION

The work of the first-year student, as described in Chapter One, for the most part concerns a **formal essence analysis** of the educative teaching situation in the classroom. This situation is a **secondary design** that has its foundation in the primary educative teaching situation in the family. Since children cannot make the journey to the adult world alone, in school particular **help in becoming** is needed from an **adult teacher**.

The work of the second-year student, described in this chapter, deals with **designing an educative teaching situation in the classroom.** **Designing** a situation there by the teacher and pupils occurs in terms of learning contents and appropriate didactic-pedagogic **criteria, fundamental didactic forms** and **teaching methods.** Usually one would begin with the fundamental didactic forms and methods because one surely must have a design before there can be an evaluation. There must always be "something" that can be evaluated. In this chapter, however, the authors first describe didactic-pedagogic criteria. The reason is that the authors are duly aware that in the school there is "work" with **children.** When there are interventions with **children**, as far as is humanly possible there must not be errors committed or haphazard ways of working. With each particular situation designed in the classroom with the pupils, the teacher, as expert regarding "giving instructions", must have an **aim** in view that he will reach with them. Because preventing is better than curing, he will make use of **certain criteria** that can be applied as **criteria or guidelines** to allow the child's **course of becoming** to take place as it **should.** The teacher is interested in the various **ways of** child **learning**, as ways of exceeding themselves or as ways of breaking away and making their personal becoming possible. **These criteria are used to judge and evaluate the nature and quality of the various modes of learning such as perceiving, remembering and thinking.**

At the same time, these criteria also illuminate whether the teacher continually follows his plan of work and is on the **proper** course to the **destination** that he aims for with his pupils. Thus, the teacher **evaluates** each educative teaching situation that he is going to design with the pupils according to what is **didactic-pedagogically** desired (i.e., in terms of didactic-pedagogic criteria) to determine if he designs authentically. The child's course of becoming must continually be **directed** and **guided** by the teacher in the direction of the child's own adulthood. There is no escaping the fact that the progress of the child's course of becoming will be favorable or unfavorable.

Now the teacher must know precisely **when** and **for what reason** he has to intervene, **why** he rejects certain things the pupils do and commends other things. The criteria to be discussed later ought to help the teacher direct his and his pupils' participation to obey the **demands of propriety.** These criteria only can be **distinguished** but never **separated** because they overlap each other in real educative teaching situations. In no sense is there a claim of completeness because there are many more criteria that can be brought up if the situation is viewed from other perspectives. In each case it must be indicated that the criteria to be discussed in the following sections express the educative teaching situation itself and they are very closely related to the general characteristics of this situation in the classroom discussed in Chapter One.

2. SOME DIDACTIC-PEDAGOGIC CRITERIA

2.1   Responsibility as a criterion

The task of **persons** is to **accept and bear responsibility.** The **teacher's** responsibility is great precisely because he works with children who he may neither fail nor use haphazard methods with. The concept "responsibility" is a **fundamental category** of the **educative event** that has been elaborated in great detail in fundamental pedagogics. However, here responsibility is a **category** with evaluative significance (i.e., as a criterion) for evaluating the progress of the educative teaching event in the classroom. Since the teacher's teaching activities must be viewed as

correlated with the pupils' learning activities, this principle also is discussed from the perspective of the teaching activities of the teacher and from the perspective of the learning activities and destination of the child in the educative teaching situation.

(a) Responsibility as a criterion seen from the teaching activities of the teacher

The teacher with a strong sense of **responsibility** awakens the trust of his principal, colleagues, the parents and his pupils. As initiator of the educative teaching situation in the classroom he bears responsibility for its **design, beginning, progression and results.** He gives **direction** to the progression of the educative teaching situation (see section 4.3.2 (d) in Chapter One), evaluates his own participation as well as that of the pupils and feels responsible to himself and to his authority for what is done. **Characteristic of a responsible teacher when he rouses and directs, teaches, guides, evaluates, and advances his pupils** are qualities such as being **planful, orderly, punctual, authentic,** and **fair.**

When the criterion of responsibility is the teacher's yardstick and guideline, in his teaching practice he gives evidence that he **anticipates** and also **reflects** on his activities. In connection with the criterion of forming, to be discussed below, the teacher offers becoming and educative help because his particular relationship with his pupils always implies an open possibility as futurity. Each problem that the pupils have mastered puts them in a position to solve an approaching subsequent one. A responsible teacher also learns from the mistakes he has made, corrects them and enriches himself and his teaching practice.

(b) Responsibility as a criterion seen from the learning activities and destination of the child

The teacher expects that as he **teaches** the pupils will **learn.** Further, he expects a **sensible and meaningful** response from each child to the appeal he directs to him. When he guides, the children must assimilate, adapt, exercise and apply and when he evaluates they must be accountable for their participation in the

situation. In addition, these meaningful responses refer to the awakening of a **learning conscience** in the child that implies accepting and bearing responsibility on a childlike level until he will accept independently his own life task of responsibility. This criterion of responsibility also must appeal to him to make it a yardstick or guideline of his own **schoolwork, behavior and personal becoming**. He must, on his own responsibility, increasingly set high demands for himself until the teacher becomes superfluous because he now has become an adult himself with all that this implies.

2.2   Forming as a criterion

There are obsolete opinions and theories about forming the child such as the view that a child is someone who has all kinds of "abilities' or "functions" at his disposal such as **perceiving, imagining, remembering, thinking, willing**, etc. With correct and diverse subject teaching these "abilities" and "functions" seemingly can be formed as when one exercises muscles by participating in sports and by training. For example, by performing difficult mathematical problems, the **intellect** can be exercised. Because this view of forming generally contains no pedagogic pronouncements because it is too mechanistic and occurs according to a fixed lawfulness in which a child has little or no role, it is rejected.

With a person, however, the matter is stated differently. The child is openness (See Chapter One, section 4.3.3.1 (d)). By virtue of his **openness** and **subjectivity** he is someone who can **choose, decide, deny, think, be involved** in reality and **even** on the basis of his own initiative, he can bring about changes in himself and the world. According to this axiom **the child is someone who wants to be** and **will become someone himself**. Thus, he carries out his obligations and responsibilities or he neglects them. He is a being who lives according to **norms**, can accomplish something and continually build his own **future**. With the help of the teacher he participates in and has a role in his own **forming** or **becoming** by himself creating situations and giving meaning and sense to things. These relationships involve him with:

(a)   himself,
(b)   other children and adults,
(c)   God and
(d)   nature.

By designing these relationships, sense and meaning arise for him by which he becomes different. A child shapes and designs his own world, e.g., by **listening, perceiving, thinking, acting**, etc. With the acquisition of **language**, he now is able to **talk** about his **sensible and meaningful world** and concrete things no longer have to be present, and this accelerates the course of the child's forming and becoming. For him, **language is** a means of encountering, thinking and grasping meanings (For a further explication of language see the criterion of communication to be described in the following section).

In light of what was described above, following Landman, forming is **designing a comprehensive personal world of meaning by which a child continually comes closer to a new future and by which his conversation with the world gradually occurs on a higher level.** For Bollinger, forming is personal becoming as a consequence of his own increasing reality (Seinsmehrung). Because a child cannot prevent his growing up and also cannot remain a child, he will **learn, act** and **build on his own personal becoming** or if he explores in a negative direction he will even **degenerate.** Therefore, an **adult teacher** is necessary to help and support the child in school so that he explores in **positive** directions and in doing so becomes **formed.** The teacher helps the child in terms of learning contents (subjects) to design meaningful relationships. In this way childlike potentialities **unfold** and he **becomes** in the direction of adulthood. This forming or personal becoming occurs along with moments of **exploration, emancipation, coming of age** and **adulthood**, guided by the **educative teaching** of the teacher as necessary help in becoming. Once again, this emphasizes the huge task of the teacher and he must be aware of this criterion to meaningfully design an educative teaching situation. This criterion is closely related to the aim of educating and the destination of the child.

It is important that the teacher who himself will venture with the life and future of a child must know with what he is involved. By teaching, correcting, punishing, evaluating, valuing or whatever activities the teacher performs, he promotes or retards a child's course of becoming. To the kindly disposed reader it ought now to be clear that an adequate understanding and application of the criterion of forming is a powerful yardstick by which the teacher can **evaluate** his own participation as well as that of his pupils. The discussion of other didactic-pedagogic criteria below will throw additional light on the formative aspect of educative teaching situations in the classroom.

2.3 Communication as a criterion

2.3.1 Introduction

The word communication is derived from the Latin *communicare*, that means to share with or divide out. With this concept, an indication is given of how it is that one person can influence another. Whoever says person, in truth, says **fellow persons, indicating that a person is an encountered and encountering being.** Now the question is what deeper meaning is contained in the phenomenon of communication between and among persons? This concerns, as it were, the core of all forms of human **relationships and, in particular, the teacher-pupil relationship.**

The concept "communication" stems from the general human category of co-existence or being together. In other words, it arises from co-human involvement for which the fundamental concept "openness" is the absolute precondition. All human existence is a reality that exists within a situation of association. In addition, this situation of association creates the form or ground from which many other types of situations can arise such as religious, educative, social, **teaching** and **learning** situations.

There are many familiar **forms of** communication such as broadcasting news items, reporting, making propaganda, spreading rumors, advertising, preaching, educating, **teaching**, etc. These **forms** of communication **require** certain **means** of

communicating such as the human body: gestures, mimicry, bodily attitudes, drawings and **language**. In the following chapter, more modern aids in the school are dealt with such as the press, radio, film, television, etc.

2.3.2 Communication in school

Although communication covers a wide field, the present authors only keep in view communication as a criterion in the classroom.

Truth and knowledge come into being within the dialogue, conversation or interaction between persons (Karl Jaspers). This same Jaspers differentiates among **three** forms of communication that have far-reaching consequences for all human **association**, encounter, dialogue, etc. that the authors have put in didactic-pedagogic perspective below.

(a) Vital communication

By means of bodily attitudes and movements such as showing, reaching, grasping, gesturing and mimicking, by the human glance, certain facial expressions, attitude, etc., persons **communicate** with each other. Each movement or gesture is **intentional**, i.e., it has an **aim** and with that a **meaning** that must be grasped by other persons. The meanings are **in** the **activities themselves** and thus the teacher is able to see in the bodily **attitudes**, movements and expressions of his pupils whether they are interested, intensely involved in their work, or perhaps if they explore negatively by hiding something in their desks, if they copy from their classmate's work, etc.

It is inevitable that **vital communication** occurs in the classroom between teacher and pupils. By gesturing with his hands, with bodily attitude and facial expressions a teacher can captivate and actively involve his pupils in his lessons.

Dramatization and child play also are examples of vital communication. It must be warned that there must be especially good planning with **dramatization**, particularly with young children, otherwise the lesson can be a failure. By means of gesture,

mimicry, suitable prints, drawings, emotionally loaded words, the pupils can become emotionally involved in a lesson. Closer contact or communication always is achieved in a lesson by an emotional rather than by a purely intellectual way of learning.

If a teacher has the emotional participation of his pupils, he can go further with confidence because this ensures the pupils' active involvement, confidence and **being together**. The older the children, the more the emphasis will fall on the intellectual moments of childlike participation. However, it must be indicated that the affective-appreciative always underlies the involvement. Next, the second form of communication, namely intellectual communication, is elucidated briefly.

(b) Intellectual communication

This particular form of communication has an important place and function in the senior classes in the elementary school but this form especially is taken on by lessons in the high school. Here language builds the bridge between the children and reality. **Language** is the thinking and categorical form of ordering. Here, then, the teacher also must help the children master the various concepts of the different subjects. Helping the child in becoming also includes the teacher giving support in the **acquisition of language** if the children **accept** and trust the teacher. So viewed, the **emotional,** also in intellectual communication, forms the ground or bedding of child participation. If a child does not **believe** or **trust** his teacher he will not desire to explore and become positively involved in his own becoming a person.

(c) Spiritual or existential communication

According to Jaspers this is the highest form of human communication. **This is a form of communication where two or more persons accept full responsibility for each other as a consequence of their personal concern for each other and make decisions in each other's interests.** They share and co-experience values, norms, ideals and truths. An example of this is the harmonious parent-child and teacher-pupil relationships.

2.4 Active involvement and help in exploration as criteria

There are many theories about the essence of childlike participation in an educative teaching situation. Child activities in school are identified with the **learning activities** of the children. If it is **known how** a child learns, this knowledge of the **childlike ways of learning** can be applied in a didactic-pedagogic situation. The numerous psychological theories about **how** children learn, e.g., that of Gestalt psychology, the psychology of thinking, behaviorism (stimulus-response scheme) and others, now are beginning to fall into disfavor because they are artificial and foreign to reality and they are not always pedagogically accountable. Consequently, child participation, as a criterion, will not be grounded in and discussed in terms of any psychological theory.

The point of departure for this criterion will be that childlike participation always is **intentional** or **meaning giving** and **meaning experiencing**. A child can **move himself, act, explore, design relationships** with things, plants, animals, other children, adults, with God and the learning contents. In **school** this proceeds to harmonious relationships with the above-mentioned aspects of reality under the guidance and initiative of an adult teacher. The children design their worlds emotionally and intellectually with the help and support of the teacher in the classroom. The children always are open **for** and directed **to** various things but not always to what the teacher wants to require them to be directed to. Then it is said that they do not take note and pay attention. That is to say, they do not **give sense** and **meaning** to and appreciate what the teacher wants to require them to do. Then they design another world and are not involved with their own becoming a person as desired but with possible **degeneration**. Childlike participation in the classroom situation must result in meaningful personal **achievements**. For example, these achievements can be **play achievements, manual achievements** such as writing, drawing, arts and crafts and **thought achievements** such as computations, writing compositions, mastering various concepts, etc.

The individual differences of children, the nature of the subject, the different learning contents or particular topics, the space available, the temporal aspect, etc. will determine the **nature** of **childlike participation**. Although the **individual** participation of the child is a **precondition** for his **own exploring**, **working, learning and experiencing together** must not be viewed as less important for the harmonious course of a child's becoming. **Self-participation has a meaningful place in the educative teaching situation in the classroom.** Thus, the **active involvement** of each pupil must be directed to acquiring the valuable aspects of the adult world that are introduced into the classroom in the form of different subjects because this is the destination of each child.

2.5 Ordering experience as criterion

2.5.1 The concept experience

There are many perspectives on how a person arrives at knowledge or experience. A few of these are discussed briefly.

(a) The empirical perspective

According to this theory the object (the known) alone contributes to knowledge and experience. The subject (knower) is a *tabula rasa*, a blank sheet of paper or sounding board upon which objective reality imprints its representations. Thus, by means of certain mechanisms called associations the impressions are linked up with thoughts. The contributions of the subject to knowledge and experience are minimal because all knowledge and experiences come from outside. Thus, a person really only reacts to stimuli and adapts himself to nature as plants and animals adapt to it.

This simplistic concept of experience is unreal and does not tally with reality. A person's spontaneity, his freedom, his possibilities of giving and experiencing meaning are not acknowledged by this theory.

(b) The idealistic perspective on how a person knows and experiences

The person who holds this standpoint has the opposite view of an empiricist. According to this view all that a person can **know** or **understand** of the outside world is only what he himself can **imagine** or **think**. All knowing and experiencing come from "within" and are expressed in terms of the **subject** or **knower**. Just as with the previous view, this view is **one-sided** because the contributions of the object to knowledge are forced. Here human **reason** is an all-powerful explanation. This view, as is the other one, is rejected regarding the **origin of our experiences** because both isolate the human being from his world.

(c)   The perspective of the subject-object- relation

A person and his world assume each other. To know a person, his world must be known. All things and matters only are part of a person's experience as soon as he **has given meaning to them** and has **experienced** them as meaningful. Each person himself creates or designs his world of meaning as a world-for-him. In this person-world-relationship **both the subject (knower) and the object (the known) contribute to the knowing or experiencing**. As described above, teaching by a teacher and learning by a pupil means that a child must be **helped** to create his own meaningful world. To **experience**, then, means to create **meanings**. Thus, what is meaningful for the teacher must become meaningful for the child whereby the child then becomes involved in the world of the teacher (adult). This means that if a child does not understand something then he gives a meaningless meaning to it. Then, all meaning that the "something" has for a child is that it is strange and the child is threatened. **Therefore, all teaching must be charged with making meaningful experiencing possible, as the personal achievement of each pupil.** Only in this way can a child construct a personally meaningful world and thereby involve himself in **becoming** in the direction of adulthood. Now, what is ordered experiencing?

2.5.2   Ordering experiencing

(a)   Introduction

The curriculum, syllabuses for each subject, work schemes and lesson schemes more or less are systematic categorizing and ordering. To ensure an orderly progressing during the offering of a lesson, the teacher must himself categorize, order and schematize the learning contents beforehand for a particular lesson in a particular class period.

(b)   The origin of the subject matter

In the first chapter it was indicated that all subjects have their origin in the lifeworld as the integrated experiential life of persons. The lifeworld is the totality of everything that is **understandable** and **meaningful** to a person. The meaningful and understandable things are not experienced as chaotic but as an ordered whole. In school the meaningful world of the child is ordered into subjects with the help of **language**. There are syllabuses compiled on each aspect of the lifeworld that are then brought into the school where they are interpreted again by the teacher and pupils and in doing so they become part of the child's meaningful world. All gradually give the pupils the same sense and meanings of things as what the teachers give them. In this way, the children change.

(c)   The foundation of the criterion of ordering experiencing

The emphasis on childlike conversation **in school** falls on the **intellectual modes of learning**. This assumes an increasing application of the **abstract form of language**. An intellectual association with reality is a more distanced way of associating with the help of **language** and **symbols**. Therefore, in school the children are introduced to the **categorical ordering systems** of the various subjects by which reality is brought into the classroom. These categorical ordering systems help the child to acquire an **intellectual grasp** of things. Thus, for example, with the child in the lower grades, concrete things are ordered along with their names. This ordering of a sensible and meaningful world is a very difficult and demanding task for the child. Therefore, if he will succeed in his work, the teacher must pay attention to the **foreknowledge** and already **existing meaningful world of each child**, the **nature of the learning contents**, the

potentialities of each child, etc. A danger can exist that the pupils can learn the concepts without knowing what they mean. This is not dealt with further here under the criterion of ordering experiencing because it is a specific field of study of subject-didactics.

2.6   Differentiation as criterion

2.6.1   Introduction

This criterion rests on the experiential fact that children are not alike but differ from each other. Physically and psychically children differ greatly from each other regarding their world relationships (i.e., regarding their sensible and meaningful worlds they differ from each other even more). The explanation that follows is only meant as an introduction to the problematic of differentiation and in no sense makes the claim of completeness. To put the problematic of the criterion of differentiation somewhat in perspective, it is discussed briefly under the following headings.

2.6.2   Differentiated teaching in school

(a)   In many places of the world there are schools for a variety of types of pupils. Thus, there are schools for the high ability, for poorly endowed, for deviancies, for toddlers, for a variety of vocations, etc.

(b)   The size of the school determines the type of differentiation and **how** the pupils can be divided according to ability groups.

(c)   The **nature of the pupils** also will determine the sizes of the classes. For example, more pupils will be placed in a class of average ability than when they are of lower or poor ability.

(d)   This also will influence the personnel provided because subjects are paired with teachers who are well prepared in a particular subject and teach it well.

2.6.3   The differentiation criterion and classroom practice

In order that classroom practice and differentiation will succeed on a desired level, they are discussed briefly under the following headings:

(a) The teacher and differentiation

When various subjects are taught to the pupils as they should be, the teacher makes use of didactic-pedagogic criteria, fundamental forms, differentiated teaching methods, etc. Moreover, the teacher makes use of differentiated syllabuses and aids applicable to each subject. Assignments, tasks and tests are compiled from easy to difficult and complex to evaluate the progress and competencies of the heterogeneous pupils with the aim of further dividing or promoting them.

(b) The participation of the child and the criterion of differentiation

Because the gifted child is handicapped in the course of his becoming adult by the presence of weaker pupils and the less gifted suffer, each child must compete with himself in classes that are as homogeneous as possible. Therefore, the teacher usually uses certain criteria when they divide their pupils in their classes or in different classes of the same grade level. Some of these criteria are:

1. Age uniformity.
2. Intelligence.
3. School readiness.
4. Parental choice.
5. The actual achievement of the pupils.
6. The talent and interests of the pupils.
7. Certain personality factors such as dedication, persistence, social attunement and work tempo.

In doing this they can enjoy more individual attention. For example, by making use of a variety of differentiated modes of learning, learning aids, work aids, etc. the pupils can be guided to each participate in their own course of becoming. The more gifted pupils can then help the less gifted because there never is an

absolutely homogeneous division of pupils in ability groups because each pupil nonetheless will differ from each other even in the most homogeneous class.

(c)   **The learning contents and the criterion of differentiation (formally viewed)**

Among other things described in Chapter One, the lifeworld (sensible and meaningful world) of persons is ordered in various subjects, each with its own categorical ordering system and then they are brought into the classroom as syllabuses, work schemes, lessons etc. Thus, a variety of differentiated syllabuses are compiled to satisfy the needs of the various groups. This must suffice regarding the criterion of differentiation and there is reference to additional reading material at the end of the chapter.

2.7   Integration as criterion

To allow the learning activity to occur as it should, differentiation in teaching always must be followed by integration. Where with the differentiation criterion there is more differentiating and dividing up, with the integration criterion there is again a working back to the whole and the parts are taken together in order to preserve a perspective on the whole. Thus, a child must give evidence of a command of the **categorical ordering system of each subject**, give evidence of his **proficiency** to engage in communicating with various aspects of reality, preserving **continuity**, etc.

A few comments follow regarding the proficiency with the categories and concepts of each subject. To make an accountable exercise of the learning contents possible and to acquire an intellectual grasp of them, certain slices of the lifeworld are divided into subjects and sciences. If a pupil or student is to find his way in a particular subject, he must understand, correctly use, apply and in general master the **concepts and categories** of that subject. Thus, for example, if a pupil or student is to progress in a subject such as Mathematics, he must master concepts such as quadratic and square root. In a subject such as Chemistry he must understand concepts such as atom, proton, electron, react and oxidize in order to progress in this subject. One of the greatest tasks

of the teacher and lecturer is to explain the **concepts** if the pupil or student is to have success in his studies.

The following are mentioned regarding the proficiency of the student or pupil:

(a)   He must give evidence of **proficiency** in the harmonious design of relationships with parts of reality such as things, plants, animals and persons.

(b)   He must be **proficient** in solving problems and formulating his thoughts well.

(c)   He must be dexterous and proficient in reading, be able to write, talk, figure, drawn and spell well.

(d)   He must be proficient and supple in participating in discussions without consulting books, etc.

(e)   He must be proficient in the acquisition of knowledge and categorizing and schematizing it, etc.

It is relevant to indicate that all acquisition and exercise of proficiency occur in terms of values and norms in the life of persons.

Finally, the idea of continuity is discussed briefly

The problematic of this matter is broached by mentioning two matters. The concepts of each subject in the school and in the colleges and universities remain the same as with what in school a beginning already has been made. Regarding these subjects, there is continuity between the schools and colleges. Therefore, sometimes many students progress poorly at first with a subject such as Education that is not begun in school.

A teacher ought to look closely at the syllabus of the subject he is going to teach so he knows precisely what the children ought to know when they come to him and what must be introduced in the subsequent classes. Continuity in teaching is very important. Sometimes this criterion is greatly neglected and sometimes omitted in practice when a school changes many teachers or when parents move around a lot because of work circumstances.

2.8 Authority as criterion in the educative teaching situation

Since this criterion already was discussed fully in the course on fundamental pedagogics, here attention is given only to the participation of the teacher and child in the classroom from a didactic-pedagogic perspective.

2.8.1 The teacher and the criterion of authority in the educative teaching situation

A child has need for help on his way to becoming adult in order to be able to **properly** become adult. This need is responded to by the adult, which implies **authority**. Immediately, it must be indicated that this is only a **borrowed authority** that the teacher is invested with. Because of his need for sympathetic, authoritative guidance, the child is not resistant to authority. It gives him a feeling of safety and security. Since he does not yet know what he may or may not do, he yearns and longs for authority because if it is lacking he feels insecure and uncertain. The teacher receives this borrowed authority by virtue of the fact that on his own he independently places himself under the **demands of propriety** in order to take the place of the parent as the original bearer of authority. In addition, he also places himself, as an **adult**, under the authority of the knowledge and **truth** of adulthood. He accepts responsibility for the orderly course of things in the educative teaching situation in order to help the children reach their destination. To be able to do this, a teacher must possess a thorough knowledge of the subject because if he has not mastered his subject the situation of authority will come to naught.

2.8.2 The child and the criterion of authority in the educative teaching situation

A child has need for an adult teacher because he quickly discovers the uncertainty, lack of preparation etc. of a teacher. Then the relationship of trust suffers greatly. Through the adult teacher, who's authority is recognized by the child, and who gives the child more freedom, in the course of time according to the responsibility he can bear, the child comes to the profound realization that he also

gradually must take up and carry on the common culture of his group if he is to respond to the demands that adulthood places on life.

2.9 Emancipation as criterion in the educative teaching situation

All of the criteria discussed so far are preconditions for this criterion. Because a **child is someone who will be someone himself**, eventually he must emancipate himself from his being a child and this implies a loss of his not knowing, ignorance, insecurity, his own neediness, etc. Where a child loses the above matters, he has explored in the direction of adulthood. In this way he must acquire his adulthood that then invests him with designated rights and powers to place his life in his own hands regarding matters such as his own choice of vocation, marriage, voting and faith. This criterion has an additional connection with the fact that eventually the child ought to be in a position to **himself give sense and meaning to the relationships that he establishes with the various aspects of reality**. When a child has free choices available to act, he is held answerable for his deeds. So viewed, freedom is an absolute condition for responsibility. A teacher who intervenes in a responsible way with a child must always keep the child's destination in mind. Thus, the criterion of emancipation is a moment in the course of a child's becoming in the direction of **adulthood**.

3. DIDACTIC-PEDAGOGIC FUNDAMENTAL FORMS (of teaching)

3.1 Introduction

In the previous section some criteria were discussed. In the following the design of an educative teaching situation is continued with the help of some didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms. The criteria discussed above must give direction to the embodiment of the fundamental forms in the classroom practice. In designing the fundamental forms, the criteria now must be clearly evident otherwise the design will not procede as it should. The criteria are commonly used in designing the fundamental forms in order to

evaluate their meaningfulness and also to judge whether the participation of the pupils is steered in the **right direction**. The few didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms that are going to be discussed overlap each other in the actual educative teaching situation in the classroom. They are discussed separately in order to acquire a better intellectual grasp of them but they never can be divorced from each other and be used as separate recipes. These fundamental forms express the situation itself and are closely related to the general characteristics of the educative teaching situation that were discussed in Chapter One.

Before the few fundamental forms can be discussed there must be a decisive answer to what is meant by fundamental forms. To be able to understand what these forms mean there must be brief reference to the analysis of the educative teaching situation made in the previous chapter. Among other things, it was indicated that the teacher as adult represents the adult world. Further, it was indicated that the child as "not-yet" adult must be helped to come over from the child-world to the adult-world. It also was indicated that this "coming over" always occurs in terms of "something". In the language of schooling this "something" is known as learning contents (learning material). The selections of learning materials provide "beacons" to the child and serve as a referential framework to help him on his way to adulthood. As a non-adult the child cannot yet design his own lifeworld independently and on his own account but must be **helped** to do this. It is important to note that, nevertheless, the child must do this **himself** and that no one can do this for him. The teacher only gives **help** and **support** because he knows both worlds. Involuntarily, now the question arises of how the child can make contact with reality with the help of the teacher. It is precisely these fundamental forms that make this encounter with reality possible. In order to make possible the course of the child's becoming **and to steer it in the right direction the above didactic-pedagogic criteria must be manifested or arrived at in particular didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms**. The teacher, who still always is the guide, planner and initiator in this type of situation, now will consider all educative teaching possibilities so that on the basis of his insight into the concrete situation he will make a choice of the appropriate fundamental form(s) for each specific design. Consequently,

didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms can be described as the ways or manners by which the child can encounter the reality that is brought into the classroom in the form of learning contents. Such ways of encountering are **play, conversation, example (or exemplar) and assignment.** These didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms are employed in the primordial situation, namely the family situation or lifeworld from which the learning contents come. In the **school,** as a secondary establishment, these fundamental forms are there but only as a redesign of those already existing in the primary family situation. Now they have a formal nature because they are used formally as **forms in which the learning contents are made accessible to the pupils.** In the family these fundamental forms are informal because ordinarily parents continually are conversing with the children, making matters clear for them by giving examples to them, giving assignments, etc. The **anticipation** of the teacher's didactic-pedagogic planning is found in the choice of the appropriate fundamental form that he makes as an adult and initiator of the classroom situation. There always is an **intuitive moment** included in this because the teacher continually must anticipate. This educative teaching situation that the teacher anticipates now must be embodied in appropriate fundamental forms in order to bring about an adequate design.

These appropriate didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms mentioned above [i.e., play, conversation, example, assignment] must not be viewed as specific systems with fixed limits. They only provide **teaching possibilities** that the teacher **can** use, separately or together, in order to implement the learning situation to the best of his ability. In other words, all of reality cannot suddenly and at once be placed in the landscape of a child. Therefore, these forms of living (fundamental forms) are used to unlock reality for a child. Indeed, from the nature of the matter, concrete learning situations are influenced by a great variety of factors such as **the nature of the learning content, where it is located, classroom circumstances, insight and planning of the teacher, teaching and learning aids and ways or methods of teaching.** This is why the usability of teaching methods, to be discussed later in this chapter, and the didactic criteria, already discussed, always must be seen along with certain

fundamental forms in relation to the concrete learning situations. This is why learning situations are most effective if the teacher **plans and anticipates correctly** and, as initiator, fulfills with insight his task about which he has thorough knowledge. Consequently, the didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms cannot be fixed prescriptions for various learning situations. The most appropriate fundamental forms, in the teacher's judgment, now are used within which didactic criteria or the teaching methods flowing from them acquire form in particular ways. To be able to design an educative teaching situation, the teacher necessarily must take note of certain important fundamental forms. The descriptions of life forms that follow are not complete and the aim of the expositions only is directed to orienting the student in Didactic Pedagogics with respect to the teaching practice that he necessarily must understand if he will make a success of it. Each of these forms of living or fundamental forms now is discussed briefly and the student must judge for himself whether they really are didactically meaningful.

3.2 PLAY as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form

To at all understand play as a fundamental form, a brief analysis of its reality is made. This will lay bare the **essence** of play. To understand any reality, its essence must be gauged. In the following section an attempt is made to illuminate some **essential characteristics.**

3.2.1 Play as a particular way of being a child

Here the point of departure is **openness** as a general condition of the child. As openness he also is **open for** and **directed to** the **world of play**. The phenomenon of play is a primordial reality and is **given with being a child.** The most authentic or natural way of being-in-the-world for a child is **being-in-the-world-playing**. The child and his world assume each other. The natural world of a child is his world of play. Thus, to be able to know a child one must know his world of play. **Initially,** things are in the world of play independent of the child and they only are part of a child's lifeworld as soon as he has given them meaning and has **experienced** them as meaningful. For a child, play is the most natural and authentic way of **knowing** things; i.e., making them

meaningful for himself and in doing so his **own** sensible and meaningful world arises. Thus, he unlocks (opens) himself for reality and becomes involved with his own forming. Therefore, play, as a form of living, is very important especially for those old enough to enter the school world. This also is the reason why the method of play is so important for the younger children in the classroom. The child and his world form a unity and therefore each utterance and behavior of a child constitutes part of his being-in-the-world. Hence, play for a child is a means of communicating and forms the most important part of his conversation with the world. In this way reality is unlocked for him if he throws himself open and as a consequence his own **becoming a person** is made possible. This is why it is asserted that play is the most natural way of child-being-in-the-world. The teacher seizes this essential characteristic because in doing so he brings the child into contact with reality in spontaneous and natural ways. This also is the purpose of each form of living that is brought into the classroom as a fundamental form. Seen in this light, a child's **playing** essentially is his conversing with his world.

A child explores with his play as a means or way whenever he establishes relationships in natural and spontaneous ways with himself, other persons (adults and children), things, plants, animals and toys. The serious involvement of a child when he plays is an authentic way in which he situates himself in the world and by which he breaks through situations to again become involved in new ones. The **way** a child plays determines the particular relationships he designs with the various aspects of reality. Langeveld believes that play "is the most essential business of the secure child with his world, as is evident to all."[1] Further, he says a child lives in open communication with the play-world. Thus, a relationship only can be established if the child takes the initiative and does so situation to situation. Examples of the play method will be dealt with about this. In the first chapter a situation is described as a totality of concerns and relationships in which a person finds himself and which, at the same time he establishes or designs. Therefore, it can be inferred that in any situation there is **action**. Now if Linschoten's description of a situation, as mentioned above, is

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[1] Langeveld, M. J.: **Ontwikkelingspsychologie**, p. 51 et seq.

applied to play, one can talk of a play situation as a particular situation in which a child enters into communication with reality by means of his body. In this way, he communicates with the world by means of play. Hence, to understand a child, his world of play must be understood. Among other things, by this playing the child gives expression to his own childlike lived-experiencing, affective as well as normative. **Through play a child relates his own story to an adult who will listen**. Therefore, today it is recognized that play is a means of expression as well as of projection. It offers the opportunity for educating in terms of knowledge, beacons and norms from the child's lifeworld. As a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form, play requires the **necessary** presence of the teacher as initiator of the play situation because he knows the "way" and can provide sympathetic, authoritative guidance. In this connection, the parent and teacher also must **guide** and **emulate**. A child must design the play situation and with the help of the teacher give meaning to it. It must be emphasized again that the child himself must choose and decide. Since the child and his world of play assume each other, the child with all of his difficulties, potentialities, lived-experiences, etc. is a welcome presence in his play situation.

3.2.2   The meaning of play as a fundamental form in the classroom

As already described above, play is a natural way a child can procede to reality. Then it is no wonder that the teacher will implement this original life form of a child in a more formal way, especially in the beginning classes of the primary school, to help unlock reality for him. In Chapter One it was indicated that aspects of reality are brought into the classroom in the form of learning contents. These learning contents are connected with God, the child himself, fellow persons, plants, animals and things. By **formally** using play as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form, the teacher helps a child establish harmonious relationships with the above-mentioned aspects of reality. Thus, provision is made for various play materials such as clay, drawing material and various types of toys to comply with the various life realities. These life realities must **comply with the types** of learning contents that are chosen

to design play situations in the classroom. This is done with the various methods of play, play tasks/assignments (Froebel).

This fundamental form discussed here culminates in the method of play. This is described later in this chapter under teaching methods. Without play as a life form the relationships with the above-mentioned aspects of reality would remain unsurveyable and diffuse because they are totally strange to him. With the help of this fundamental form and the teacher's guiding and demonstrating, gradually the small child also acquires a **more intellectual** grasp of the reality and at the same time acquires concepts. This puts him in a position to begin to categorically order and master the above-mentioned reality. The teacher aims for a greater grasp of the learning- and life-reality of the child, not only pathically (affectively) but also intellectually because these relationships must come into the life of each person as his own **life relations**. Thus, the teacher as initiator makes use of the play situation to help the child orient himself in the meaningful world of the adult and thus proceed to constitute his own world. This must be sufficient for play as a fundamental form because the aim of this explanation is an introduction to the problematic of play as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form. For additional reading, the student is referred to the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

3.3 CONVERSATION as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form

The conversation as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form is given with being-human and manifests itself in its purest form in family life. In the family home, as the primary educative institution, **conversation** is used **informally** to chat with each other, to clarify something for each other, to learn something from each other, to ask questions of each other, etc. **Language** is an essential characteristic of conversation and, par excellence, is a means of communicating, expressing and thinking. A person doubles, as it were, his reality in language. In the present book, this has to do more with the use-value of language in constituting a conversation as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form by which access to reality becomes possible by unlocking it.

Van den Berg asserts that conversation is determined by the nature of human **being-with**. According to S. J. Gous, being-with means for the adult and the child, as conversational partners, to realize together their being-there, to establish a landscape and meaningful world together, to change together in the realization of norms and values and to transcend their common situation together. The authors agree wholeheartedly with Gous when he asserts that, in the above sense, a conversation is the **merging of two or more meaningful human worlds**. In school where this original form of living (fundamental form) between and among persons is **formally** brought up, this means that a child must enter the landscape of the teacher and to make this possible the latter must encounter the child within the meaningful framework of the child's own landscape in order to bridge or overcome the distance between the two landscapes.

This **common world** between teacher and pupils must arise for the conversation as the unlocking [of reality] by the teacher and its access to the child to occur in a proper and meaningful way. During the conversation where the merging of worlds must occur, things, the ins and outs of matters and events are unraveled, illuminated, explained, ordered and classified. In this way, common meanings become linked together. During this conversation, the children discover what they know and don't know and, on the other hand, the teacher again acquires access to the child's world. Through an authentic conversation, as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form, access is permitted to what was hidden from another. Mutual acceptance, security and a safe space always remain preconditions for the unlocking by a teacher and the access to reality by a child.

There must always be secrets remaining between the two conversational partners, otherwise the child will no longer be able to learn from the adult. During the conversation a child continually is invited to participate with meaningful questions. If a pupil correctly formulates a question, he already has insight into that aspect of reality with which the question deals. On the other hand, if the formulation is vague and unclear, the questioner gives an indication that he has not yet mastered that aspect of reality. Thus, Socrates had already made use of this aspect of a conversation as a fundamental form to determine if his audience could master the

concepts he wanted to bring home to them. Since then, the question has served as an important aspect of conversation as a fundamental form. If a question is correctly and clearly formulated with the use of the appropriate categories regarding a certain reality, the answer already is implicitly locked in the question. Seen in this light, it is very important that questions asked of pupils be very clear and understandable. Thus, a good question can **summons** pupils to reflect and participate and will help them to answer it in a responsible way. Questioning also has the advantage that the teacher can further interrogate the pupils in a learning situation even if only about the concerned facts dealt with in the classroom in a specific lesson. Thus, further questioning provides them with the opportunity to investigate in independent ways the questions in books at home and elsewhere and thus answer them exhaustively.

The relation between the questioner and the one questioned must always be preserved. Essentially, a pupil is someone who wants to know. If he meets certain realities that are foreign to him, he asks questions about them. Because a child asks questions, the teacher can find out precisely what he knows and does not yet know, what his problems are, etc. Also, pupils can ask their fellow pupils questions. Besides helping them to acquire insights, this also helps them establish good interpersonal relationships. Here well-formulated questions can be used as models for other pupils. Through poorly asked questions the teacher discovers the sources of errors that he can correct.

The aim of the question is to determine how far the pupils have progressed on the path to the adult world. It also is an important means for determining if the specific reality that is dealt with is already unlocked for them. There is reference to subject methodology if the student wants to know how the conversation is used with his ways of presenting particular lessons with specific learning contents such as a learning discussion or a class discussion. Later in this chapter under teaching methods, the learning discussion, the class discussion, the question-and-answer method and others are discussed where they are used as modes, means or ways to help pupils attain their aim. The above-mentioned methods emanate from conversation as a fundamental form. This serves to indicate that the above explanations only are meant to be an

introduction to the conversational form of teaching as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form and in no sense is there a claim of completeness. The student is referred to the bibliography at the end of this chapter if he wants to know more about this matter.

3.4   EXAMPLE (exemplar) as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form

Exemplary teaching is used as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form because reality is so comprehensive and cannot be unlocked for a child all at once. If reality as a whole were brought into the classroom, human potentialities could not grasp it and the pupils would be confused. When a pupil's lifeworld is cut up to a degree, he can acquire a better intellectual grasp of that part brought into the classroom as an exemplar or example. This means that the use of an appropriate example in one or another way must contribute to the unlocking of reality, to making possible its access to the pupils and to advancing them in the direction of their destination.

In the family, ordinarily this fundamental form is implemented **informally**. If the parents want to help their children to learn something, they do this in terms of a specific example. It also serves us to refer to the use of Likenesses by Christ when He wanted to bring something home to simple fishermen to learn so they could understand. Thus, an appropriate example can be used to unlock generalities or universals for persons.

In a classroom the events of the family life and of the Revelations such as the Savior gives us in the Scriptures by means of his appropriate Likenesses only are a **re-constitution** of them. Now this occurs **formally**. The following are two examples for elucidating the above description. What is universal or general can be read off of a good example of a matter such as using a good example of a statesman or giving a proof in a natural science by an example. By a particular application of this fundamental form, e.g., the Sahara Desert is presented as an exemplar of warm deserts on earth. The teacher deals with it under headings he considers to be good such as location, rainfall, climate, temperature differences, plant growth, etc. After he has **explained, ordered** and **systematized** these learning contents about the Sahara Desert

under the mentioned headings so the pupils can understand and meaningfully master them, he refers the pupils to another warm desert that they, on their own responsibility, must learn using the Sahara Desert as an example they have already handled. Thus, the pupils become oriented to deserts in general. The teacher can orient the pupils in a number of other realities by using an exemplar or example of a specific reality.

By making use of what is universally true, an exemplar can be taken from a specific reality. For example, instead of all of the harbors in the world, one harbor, namely Durban, is taken as an example or exemplar and as representative of all harbors on earth. Now the pupils will understand the **essentials of harbors** and identify, recognize and master all harbors in terms of the concepts that are descriptive of the Durban harbor. This does not mean that they will know precisely how each harbor on earth will function or appear any more than they would know precisely how the Kalahari Desert appears from a full knowledge of the Sahara Desert. In the sense of the above description of an exemplar, the understanding and mastery of the example makes it possible for the child to explore this reality further on his own initiative.

3.4.1   Some ways an aspect of reality can be brought into the classroom as an example

Before discussing some of these ways, there is brief reference to the following. The primary aim of a didactic-pedagogic presentation is that the reality brought into the classroom must be unlocked for a child. Initially this reality is extensive and diffuse for a child and is not simply accessible to him. In fact, the totality of this reality in contemporary life situations no longer is completely accessible for adults. Therefore, many presentations of classroom learning activities are carried out in terms of **specific examples**. This holds for all subjects, especially for the early grades in the primary school. All subject areas do not lend themselves equally to applying an example. The learning contents of mathematics and the natural sciences lend themselves better to implementing this fundamental form than is the case with the human sciences. The following are some ways aspects of reality can be brought into a classroom as an example.

(a) Reality can be brought into the classroom as a concrete example

Whenever possible, it always is best to bring a concrete example of reality into a classroom. This type of example is used to help a child give the same sense as an adult does to this part of reality in order to help the child constitute an authentically sensible and meaningful world. There must be care, whenever one begins with concrete examples, that **language** as a symbolic rendering of reality appears. This preferably can be done step-wise on the blackboard so the pupils can make this reality an integrated and meaningful part of their lifeworld.

(b) Reality can be brought into the classroom in the form of representation as an example

When concrete examples are not available, **representations** of reality can be brought into the classroom. These representations must refer to a particular case that, as generally valid, can be an elucidation of the greater reality that it represents. For example, here one thinks of prints, drawings, signs, models, maps, symbols, and more. As examples for elaborating on this, the use of models in Physics, Architecture and Music are mentioned where a particular model serves to make an abstract aspect of the subject more realistic and more accessible. Here one especially thinks of **representations** of atomic models in Physics, and construction models in Architecture. These few examples are sufficient because this topic is dealt with more fully in the next chapter with respect to implementing aids in educative teaching situations.

(c) Reality can be brought into the classroom by the objectivized verbal culture

If the conversation (language), previously dealt with in this chapter, were not available as a means of communication between a teacher who teaches and pupils who have to learn, an encounter between them would not be possible or it would be an extremely limited form of being together. With the living word, a teacher can make a bit of reality present. Think here of the good history teacher who

with his verbal explanations and rich descriptions of, e.g., the Great Trek places this event from the past clearly in the present. The living word remains one of the most powerful aids for explaining a matter to pupils, especially to those in the higher classes. A "book" is a **distanced conversation** that a child conducts with the author. Here it is noted that the pupils must be helped to master the concepts, categories, norms (rules, definitions, etc.) that might appear there. At a later time they are able to do this independently.

3.4.2   Some advantages of exemplary teaching as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form

(a)   This fundamental form discloses the essential points of an area of knowledge in a particular way. With this foreknowledge the pupils then can do further research themselves. In doing this, the child develops a particular way of thinking that allows him to insightfully investigate other similar or related aspects of reality **themselves.**

(b)   Related to the above, this means that the pupils are able to acquire fundamental concepts and in doing so to penetrate to the essentials or fundamentals of an area of learning content.

(c)   This also allows the children to have a greater participation in the learning event. With this independent learning by the children, along with the necessary help and support of the teacher, his lifeworld is broadened and he is quickly on the path to the adult world. Thus, exemplary teaching is **orienting** in nature because such a learning climate cannot prevent a child from taking a position.

(d)   Presentation with the exemplary fundamental form is not merely the transfer of knowledge, as such, but it also will involve the child as a **person.** Here he has the opportunity to **choose** for himself, sit in judgment, experience meanings, etc. In doing this he is involved in the course of his becoming adult because when the teacher has formally presented an exemplar of reality his concentration is on his own

investigation with the help of literature and textbook study.

(e) Wegman indicates that with the exemplary, as fundamental form, the whole in terms of a part, the general in light of the particular, is understood and that the initial vagueness of what is comprehensive becomes clearer and understandable in light of what is limited.

(f) The example (or first image) [of adulthood] also is **exemplified** by the parents and teachers because in doing so the idea of adulthood is **embodied** for the children.

3.4.3 Some disadvantages of exemplary teaching as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form

(a) If the teacher, as guide, as one who prepares and as a person who must guarantee the correct orientation of the pupils, is not capable of the above, this fundamental form will be of little help in bringing about a learning situation in the classroom.

(b) A teacher, who always must have perspective, must prevent knowledge and insights acquired by this fundamental form to **continue to exist as separate unities.** There must always be a concern for the logical relations.

(c) One must always guard against trying to understand the whole only in the light of one or more parts.

(d) Not everything in reality can be used as an example in order to illuminate what is common and essential to a particular phenomenon. One thinks here of exceptional [one-time] forms of reality such as the coming of Christ, His ascension, etc.

3.5 ASSIGNMENT as a didactic-pedagogic fundamental form

A parent or teacher giving an assignment to a child is a particular form of teaching. Selected aspects of reality are brought into the classroom in the form of learning contents and are unlocked for the

child. By the right assignments a child is **appealed to** so as to step into that reality and thus to prepare himself for a life that is expected of him and that qualifies him for an adult human life. An assignment from a parent or teacher to a child includes the deep ring of a life calling. Because a child always must be involved with reality and must be there by and with things, the calling by the adult in the form of an assignment can imply the following: "Be involved and concerned with reality, enter the reality that is unlocked for you, know that you yourself want to, can and ought be someone and take an active part yourself in your becoming in the direction of your own coming of age and adulthood."[2]

An assignment must be implemented in relation to an adult and never can occur without the guidance and accompaniment of an adult. At the same time this will result in the child's accepting his own personal life task that he has been given, as an assignment, to meaningfully work on.

In order to understand the sense and meaning of the assignment in an educative teaching situation in the school one must return to the spontaneous lifeworld of a person in order to see how, in his activities, the relationship between person and reality acquires a form. A person never accepts reality as it is but is continually involved in changing and revising it into a world-for-him. A very important aspect of changing reality into a world for a person is that he is busy **working** at it. By working he masters reality and will know **how** and **why** each person must engage in meaningful work or a vocation to be able to authentically orient himself in the world. Meaningful work by the pupils helps them to become in the direction of their destination. It now also is understandable why parents and teachers place so much emphasis on accepting and completing assignments as particular ways of encountering reality.

In the classroom the assignment assumes various forms such as programmed teaching, project teaching, individual and group work. It also can assume the form of class work, the ordering of learning contents by the pupils, tests, examinations, homework, self-studies,

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[2] See Gous, S. J.: **Verantwoording van die didakties-pedagogiese** {Justifying the didactic-pedagogic]. Unpublished D. Ed. dissertation, Univ. Pretoria, 1969, pp. 126-127.

one's own reading and research work, etc. Each of the above forms of assignment as a fundamental form will not be gone into further because this then will be too voluminous and there is not enough space in this textbook to do so. There is little doubt that the assignment as a fundamental form with all of its appearances is a conscious attempt to break away from the traditional idea of class teaching and allow the child to explore and help him to emancipate himself in his course of becoming toward adulthood. In light of the above description, assignment as a particular didactic-pedagogic fundamental form along with play, conversation and exemplar is particularly relevant for unlocking reality for a child and it cannot be thought of apart from the vocational orientation and vocational choice within which he eventually finds himself.

4. SOME TEACHING METHODS

4.1 Introductory comments

By way of concluding this chapter on designing an educative teaching situation, the place and function of some teaching methods must be indicated from a few perspectives that can provide direction to the design and course of a practice. The didactic-pedagogic **fundamental forms** and **criteria** now must give direction to the methodical activities as particular ways for both the teacher and children to participate and, in doing so, to insure an **effective** course of becoming and **adequate** help in becoming. In other words, the methods to be discussed later in this chapter must at all times be **accompanied** and **guided** by the didactic-pedagogic criteria and fundamental forms if an authentic educative teaching situation is to be designed.

To be able to teach, a teacher must make use of certain **methods**. There are various distinguishable teaching methods that, depending on circumstances, can be applied or implemented. The origin and use of a number of the acknowledged and usual stock methods are discussed below under a separate heading. Students ought to be well acquainted with the **meaning, use** and **aim** of the various teaching methods because the effectiveness and success of teaching depends largely on the successful implementation of methods. Thus, it is expected of education students that during the

preparation of their **lessons** for practice teaching, they also thoroughly plan the teaching methods they intend to use during their lessons.

4.2   The sense and meaning of teaching methods in the educative teaching situation

4.2.1   What is meant by method?

Where there are persons there is activity. Persons act with an aim in view that they want to attain. Consequently, a teacher also considers **ways** and **means** to attain his aims in didactic-pedagogic situations in the classroom. These **means** and **ways** are known as the **methods** or procedures that he follows to attain them. Once again it is relevant to indicate that to the extent that the methods are concerned with actualizing his teaching, they have emanated directly from the didactic-pedagogic criteria and fundamental forms and are anchored in and have been finalized by them. In addition, it also must be indicated that these methods cannot be considered in isolation from a person's **activities** and their **aim**. A method is not taken as the aim itself but it leads to the aim. There always is a close connection between **means** (way) and **end** (aim). The aim never can be attained properly if a non-accountable way is followed. The methods to be discussed later can never be the final word about methods because a teacher continually creates or designs his methods to attain his aims for each lesson.

As with the fundamental forms, all teaching methods ultimately have their anchor and ground in the lifeworld. For example, the **formal** method of question-and-answer that so often is used in the educative teaching situation in the classroom has its anchor and origin in **family life** where children **informally** ask their parents questions and just the reverse. Here it is seen that the teacher's methods are closely connected with his helping the pupils in their becoming. With reference to the above comments about teaching methods, it can be seen that the choice and application of the different methods in the educative teaching situation is a pedagogic matter. Indeed, there are **weak** and **good methods** and effective and less effective ones that can be implemented. Thus, the **choice and ways of utilizing** a particular method determine the success

or failure of a lesson. Because the classroom event is such a complex matter, teaching methods cannot be prescribed and used as recipes. These methods must be anticipated and designed by the teacher to involve the meaningful participation and co-experiencing of the pupils in an educative teaching situation. In doing so, the methods used not only make possible the pupils' exploration of and dialogue with a particular facet of reality but also has the aim of **elevating** the dialogue he has with that aspect of reality.

4.2.2 The existence and application of various teaching methods

Teachers have various methods for presenting different lessons in different subjects in different classes. Thus, methods used in mathematics differ from those used in history and Afrikaans. Methods in the different classes in the elementary school differ from those in the high school.

Also, methods differ in the same subject from teacher to teacher. For example, one History teacher gives a lesson and illustrates his presentation with the help of diagrams, wall maps, atlases and prints; another will work only by reading from a textbook, yet another will dictate so the pupils will copy it, etc. There are innumerable ways or manners in which a teacher can design and use his methods. There also are reasons why there are a variety of teaching methods. Some are discussed briefly in the next section.

4.2.3 Some reasons there is such a diversity of teaching methods

(a) Teacher's personalities differ from each other

Therefore, the choice of a particular method always will remain a personal matter. No person can, even with the same aims, attain them in precisely the same ways. In reality it would be disgraceful to force all teachers to apply a particular method in precisely the same way. If this were to occur one would **canalize** and **methodologize** the teaching and offend the teacher's dignity and uniqueness.

> **(b)** **The nature of the method also is determined by the nature of the child**

When a method is planned, the level of progress of the child must be taken into account.

> (c) The teacher must choose his method in accordance with the **nature of the learning contents** and even for each specific lesson. Some subjects and themes require different methods to attain the aim that **is** in view.

> (d) The choice and implementation of a particular method also is determined by the **degree of success** obtained with it in the past. One teacher can have great success with a method while another has failed with the same method. In such a case one must not persist with a method that has failed but ought to try another method.

> (e) **Methods also must be changed to prevent weariness.**

> (f) **The nature of the methods** also is determined by the different **ways a person associates with reality and where the learning contents are located.** Here one thinks of concrete, visible objects, schematic representations and information in abstract language.

> **(g)** A method also is determined by the **particular aim** that the teacher will attain with a particular theme. If a teacher is attuned to the pupils merely learning facts, a certain method that lends itself to this will be preferred (e.g., the **drill method**). If, in contrast, a teacher wants to form the child as a subject and offer him the opportunity to arrive at a personal decision, the **learning** conversation, e.g., can be used as a method.

In closing this section it must be indicated that the teacher always must be critical about his methods and the degree of success he achieves with them because everything, including the way or procedure he follows always is **a matter of what ought to be.** **Therefore**, as initiator and one who actualizes situations in the classroom, he must **evaluate each** method and **each** lesson. To try to bring any sense of **order** to the multiplicity and diversity of teaching methods, they should be approached from other perspectives.

4.2.4   The approach to different teaching methods

Methods are seen in a different light when the emphasis is shifted from the teacher to the pupil or to the teacher's organization of them. Paired with this is a shift in function and meaning. However, here it must be very carefully noted that even if the emphasis temporarily falls more specifically on the **participation** of the pupils, the **activities** and **participation** of the teacher continually must correlate with those of the pupils. For example, the pupils must **listen** if the teacher **communicates**. This also holds for methods where the emphasis particularly falls on the participation of the **pupils** such as the **method of play** that will be described later in section 4.2.4.3 of this chapter. In the method of play the teacher also has a role, even if here the emphasis is more on the participation of the child.

Now there are brief discussions of various methods from a few additional perspectives.

4.2.4.1 Some methods viewed from the teacher-pupil perspective

A person always is in relation and this also is true in the world of the school. In an educative teaching situation in the classroom the teacher, pupils, learning methods, learning contents, etc. always are related to each other. For example, a teacher establishes a situation by engaging in **teaching** activities in it while at the same time a child designs his **learning** activities. There is always a relationship that has to be maintained. If one of the components in the situation disappears the situation declines. In the following, a few methods are briefly discussed from the **teacher-pupils** relationship.

(a) The class teaching method

In the first place, the teaching situation in school is a **group event**. Among others, this group consists of **teacher** and **pupils**. This relationship always is preserved in class teaching. Now, what does the class teaching method really mean ? The class teaching method is described as a method for a group of learners who are dealt with as a "unity", particularly with respect to the **way** the learning contents are presented and assimilated. In this method all members

of the same class, in accordance with the same timetable, with the help of the same learning and teaching aids, simultaneously assimilate the same learning contents. Perhaps this method arose from Pestalozzi's endeavor to make teaching possible for everybody (public education). Thus, so-called "mass-education" arose where large groups of children were placed in the care of one teacher. In practice this amounted to grouping a number of pupils of more or less the same level in a class so that there could be **common instruction**. In reality this amounted to the fact that at all times the teacher was in complete control of the course of matters and continually took the lead. Thus, **particular activities** of the teacher **evoked certain activities** of the children. Hence, in this method teacher and pupils are in conversation with each other in terms of specific learning contents and cannot be considered as unconnected from each other in this situation. In the following there is a review of some of the **advantages** and **disadvantages** of the class method in order to determine how this method is or isn't a successful way to help a child come over from his child world to that of the adult.

(1) Some advantages of the class method

(i) As far as considerations of a practical-organizational nature are concerned, the **factor of time** is a less serious problem. More learning contents can be offered within a particular time.
(ii) It promotes a **feeling of community** because teacher and pupils working together direct a continual appeal to both parties within the class as a group.
(iii) Group work, as a class idea, is of great significance for the didactic-pedagogic event in the classroom.
(iv) That the teacher as adult initiates the situation is of great importance because he continually stimulates and directs the children as non-adults in the context that he wants them to explore.
(v) Because class teaching excludes the possibilities of endless repetition, teacher boredom is largely curbed.

(2) Some disadvantages of class teaching

(i) A big objection to this method is the excessive authority attributed to the teacher. It appears as if the teacher in the class method cannot appeal sufficiently to each child to actively participate in the educative teaching situation.

(ii) Thus the uniform learning contents and the various learning tempos of the pupils are not sufficiently seen.

(iii) As a consequence of often large classes, not enough consideration can be given to **individual differences** of the children.

(iv) It is easier to present the learning content in this way, but the child's acquisition of the adult world is kept to a minimum.

(v) A child who changes schools a great deal, because of the work circumstances of his parents, is most disadvantaged because he continually must be integrated into a new group.

(b) Individualized methods

This method must be viewed against the **background** of a **particular opposition**. Individualizing is in **opposition** to the danger of multitude and technique in the sense of a pedagogic collectivism. The opposition really amounts to an opposition against the school's abuse of persons and the **lack of respect for them**. This method follows from the anthropological fact that persons differ. These differences among persons are not only with respect to ability or intelligence but also regarding their emotional lives, their volitional lives and other personality structures. So viewed, individualization, as a didactic-pedagogic method, rest on the fundamental fact that children differ as persons, and not only in a few "facets" of their personality structure such as intelligence.

All activities of persons and, thus, the learning activities of a child bear an **individual character** because no two children interpret

reality in precisely the same way. Thus, the learning act is one of acquiring with respect to its discovering exploration and experimentation. Because this often involves a specific problem of a **specific child** in a specific learning situation, the moments of a teacher providing help largely are supported by the method of individualization. The teacher who uses this method of teaching in his didactic-pedagogic design of **allowing** learning to occur also must take note of its advantages and disadvantages.

(1) **Advantages**

(i) Individualizing takes into account, as far as possible, the fact that a child is a **unique person.**

(ii) The fact that a teacher takes this fact into account in designing **teaching events** allows for a greater possibility that each pupil will participate in the **learning act** according to his own ability.

(iii) Failing, an objection leveled against class teaching, largely is diminished by individualized teaching because a child does not work against other children's learning tempos but follows his own potentialities to **learn** and takes into account his person and the milieu in which he lives.

(iv) The method of individualization lends itself to a great variety of didactic possibilities.

(2) **Disadvantages**

(i) The danger is not excluded that individualization mainly is concerned with intellectual differences instead of **qualitative** differences

(ii) There are many **practical objections** to the method of individualization such as:

(a) **a financial-economic** nature. It is very expensive to use the **method of individualization.** The only

possible solution is to make the number of pupils entrusted to a teacher as few as possible.

(b) **an organizational** nature. Each form of individualization also has a **class** and school organization as a foundation. If there is individualization in the group, the teacher will continually search for **ways and means** of individualizing in a class context because only then is it possible to help a child to unfold all of his potentialities for fulfilling his life task.

(c) **a problem of time**. Individual and individualized teaching require much time and practically is very difficult to accomplish.

Instead of the teacher placing the class and individualized methods in opposition to each other, he must acquire a parallel vision of them. This means that in practice, within a class set-up, he must find ways to allow the idea of individualization to thrive as much as possible. With this, the teacher arrives at the problematic of ways and forms of individualization as a didactic-pedagogic method in the classroom. In order to understand this aspect thoroughly, the following gives attention to **forms of individualization**, namely, to a **looser class context**.

(c) Looser class context

A looser class context has arisen from a search for a **synthesis** of the individual form and the traditional class form of teaching. A looser class context, thus, does not mean that discipline must be

loosened but that it is an organizational form of a class where the structure is determined by the formation of differentiated learning situations. Here the point of departure is that the child and the learning contents must be viewed according to their own nature so there can be a breaking away from the old class method of teaching with its uniform learning situations. In this form of classroom organization, there is a search for individualization on the basis of differentiated learning situations.

In the discussions of the teaching methods so far, it is indicated that individualization is much broader than merely intellectual differences. In an educative teaching situation a child must be involved as a **person** with **everything** that this involves because the continual concern is with the child's **becoming** on the path to the adult world. The following forms of appearance of a looser class context now are discussed.

(1) Group work as a method. In the social life of persons it is expected that they work **together**. Modern social life offers many fewer opportunities for children to learn **to work together**. Even the school, as an extension of the home, seldom makes adequate provision for a continuous experience of **working together**. Burton describes **group work** as a way in which pupils relate to each other within a group context and simultaneously work together toward a common aim. Mursell views this as a fundamental principle for **socialization** in the classroom. According to him an individual does things better in a group than he does alone outside of a group. In group work, as a method, there is a striving to maintain a balance between the work of an individual and the collaboration of the group so that members of the group complement each other and a common achieving together is the crown of individual efforts. Since this always must be seen in a class context, group work is intended to be a special form of organization within parts of the class community, a synthesis in a class context and a summary by the teacher. Control always occurs at the class level. Thus, group work provides the opportunity for individual work within a class context. Thus, it takes into account the child as an individual with respect to his potentialities, interests and needs.

(a) **Some possible reasons why group work is not used more in education**

(i) Group work requires cooperative planning between the group and teacher. Thus, this is a big organization and is less familiar to our teacher who is accustomed to class teaching where each child assimilates the learning content himself.

(ii) The teacher usually is attuned to the individual work of each child and is not attuned to the pupils discussing their work, looking at each other's work and thus, perhaps, learning from each other. We are accustomed always to know what a **child** is capable of by his own efforts. Modern insights regarding children's acts of learning show that an individual becomes more capable if open discussions, comparisons of work and critiques are permitted.

(iii) There are contentions that this takes too much time and even is a waste of time.

(iv) A logical construction of the learning event easily falls through the cracks with group work.

(b) **Some arguments in favor of group work as a method**

(i) Among other things, life requires that adults **collaborate**. If the teacher now teaches a child to **collaborate** he is involved in helping him on his way to adulthood.

(ii) The opportunity that is offered to a child to test his ideas with those of others, to plan together, to experience successes and setbacks together, etc. are more **authentic to the lifeworld of persons** than is continuous work in isolation.

(iii) The child would rather venture in an intimate group of peers and in doing so this gives him security and safety and allows his self-confidence to increase before again entering the larger class group.

(iv) The fact that the pupils themselves must formulate their thoughts in front of their classmates promotes their **control of language**.
(v) Group work promotes his **insights** into the **relationships** among subparts and leads him to accept his responsibility as a necessary contributor to the success of the whole.
(vi) It is obvious that group work prevents the child from being evaluated purely on the basis of intellectual achievements. Knowledge of a child is not merely intellectual but embraces his entire experiential world.

 As to precisely **how** group work occurs in practice, students must ask the instructors involved in the various subject methodologies that are offered. The following is a discussion of the class discussion as a teaching method and as one of the forms of a looser class context.

(2) Class discussion as a teaching method. The class discussion, as a variation of conversation as a fundamental form, is a conversation that is **conducted mutually by the pupils.** Class discussion is more a group discussion in which talented students often appear as leaders while the teacher is more in the background. The teacher regulates a class discussion by providing a suitable theme and if the discussion deviates from it to continually lead them back to the theme of the discussion. As an example to illustrate a class discussion, here one thinks of a lesson in natural science about the preparation of hydrogen in a standard seven (10th grade—USA) class. When the pupils have carried out their assignments, have written down their observations and come to conclusions, a class discussion is held in the following session. Now they have the opportunity to discuss in class the results of the experiment they did. As the class discussion progresses, the teacher organizes the correct findings and indicates the incorrect ones. Thus, this method contributes to a continual dialogue elevation. By this there is a forming of the correct attitude toward each other, dispositions in the pupils and mutual respect for each other's findings and conclusions. Thus, this method promotes good human

relationships that are conducive to the harmonious survival of any society.

(3) The learning discussion.   The essence of the learning discussion entails various **methods of solution** being compared so that each pupil, according to his own nature and talent, can choose the solution method with which he can obtain the greatest success. This is explained briefly as follows. It is known that everyone uses **certain methods** when they **learn**, but experience also teaches that all learning methods are not equally effective and adequate. Thus, the **learning methods** of some pupils are very primitive and those of others are better because they lead to better learning results. It generally is known that there is a close connection between the learning method a person uses and the **achievement** he attains as a result of applying **his** learning method. It also is established that better learning methods can be **acquired** and their application makes better achievement possible. The aim of a learning discussion, in the first place, is the discovery and acquisition of **better methods of learning**, i.e., how to learn more effectively and not primarily to learn the mere facts of a particular subject.

The following is an example of how a teacher can organize a learning discussion so the pupils can discover each other's methods of learning and can learn from each other which methods are the best. For example, a teacher handles some learning content with the pupils, provides them with duplicated notes, etc. and requests that they learn it. Now, when they go about learning this at home each pupil in the class applies his own learning methods. Then the teacher, as initiator, guide and counselor in each educative teaching situation, constructs a balanced test of what the pupils now must show. He corrects the test and makes the results known. It is evident that some children will obtain high scores and other low scores. After that the teacher designs and initiates a **learning discussion** in which it is expected that the pupils will tell how they had applied themselves in order to obtain their achievements. During the learning discussion questions are asked and the teacher continually directs the course of the discussion. From what the pupils have to tell, it is evident that they have used various methods and that certain methods have led to higher achievements while

others were less successful. Now the good methods are highlighted and the faults of the weak methods are indicated. In this way the pupils acquire **insight** into the **meaning** and the **application of the better methods**. **Now the teacher influences** the pupils to try to apply the **better methods**. It is evident that especially the achievement of the weaker pupils has improved. The teacher sees to it that the pupils with "weak" methods are guided to realize for themselves where the methods' weaknesses lie and why they are weaknesses. Ultimately this amounts to a person **learning how to learn effectively**.

(4) The question-and-answer method. According to Socrates truth only is discoverable if the **right** questions are asked of the reality that must be disclosed. Since Socrates until today, the question has never lost its place in teaching; indeed, today it figures more prominently than ever before as a way or procedure to inquire about reality in order to obtain the right answers and thus to try to know it. Wegmann calls the question a frontal grasp of human activity. This amounts to the fact that a question discloses or makes "real" particular contents. In question-and-answer, as a method, the adult recognizes the child's going out to the world as one of **questioning** to which he expects an answer. The answer by the pupils to the question asked by the teacher often is a response to an appeal to venture and master. In the learning situation in the classroom it is expected of the teacher that he correctly ask about the specific learning content, which is appropriate to ask with the question-and-answer method, and tactfully evaluate the answers that the pupils have given. The teacher must thoroughly ascertain that his questions are clearly stated and correctly formulated so he can obtain correct answers from the pupils. Thus, it is important to give much attention to the **way** to ask a question. Many examples have appeared in the life of adults regarding how a question that was stated in a particular way had given rise to wrong answers and even serious misunderstanding. This holds even more so with children.

The teacher must never ask a question without thoroughly ascertaining the **meaning** and **aim** he has in view with his question. The aim of a question ought to be to help bring a child gradually from a state of "not knowing" to a state of becoming

acquainted with what for him is still strange learning contents. The problem of the types and essences of questions ought to be forced upon the teacher. Aimless questions are harmful and are a form of wasting time. Indeed, the aim of a question will be different, e.g., depending on whether the teacher is involved with the introduction, the presentation or the application of a specific lesson in a specific subject. A few of the types of questions that can be asked of the pupils are questions related to value-assignment, memory and thought questions.

(5) The textbook method. The didactic-pedagogic problematic of the textbook with respect to types, demands and their use is a "field of study in itself".[3] Therefore, the details cannot be gone into here so the problematic is only broached. The **textbook method** as a form of appearance of a looser class context must be viewed as a **form of individualization.** The argument that is made has to do with the help the teacher offers the pupils so that later they can help themselves. A few comments on what can be said about a textbook follow.

(i) **The meanings are fixed in symbols.** In these meanings that are fixed in symbols also lies the book's risk because they open a space of the world for the pupils that already is out dated and of another place and not yet one they are acquainted with.

(ii) **The textbook and the library.** One aspect of the textbook that requires particular attention in connection with providing help is its relationship with the school library. The library must link up with the work in the classroom and continue the work of the teacher. The work done in the library later is again looked at in the classroom so that the pupils can be responsible for doing their reference work. At the same time the pupils are given the opportunity to deal with what appears in print on a critical basis and thus also to build up a sense for a critical judgment of the textbook. The **basis for self-study lies** in this. Thus it appears as if the library, with all that this implies, will figure all the more prominently in the schools in the future.

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[3] See: Davis, S. E.: Self Improvement, p. 232.

(iii) **The textbook and its use.** With any method, and thus also with the textbook method, the mutual involvement of teacher and pupils always must remain unscathed if there will be mention of authentic projects. A child cannot yet acquire the adult world on his own responsibility but must be helped and supported by the teacher. Therefore, the teacher ought to disclose the structures of the book for the pupils. The main structures must be disclosed such that they can understand the unfamiliar concepts and structures. It always is more difficult to carry on a "conversation" with a book where the conversational partner (author) is not at hand than with direct communication. If the pupils do not understand the structures the author uses in the book, it can threaten them. On the other hand, the textbook method can be a good way to help a child design a world himself if the structures and concepts that are used in the book are understandable and reasonable to him. Then this allows him to feel safe and secure.

(iv) **The textbook and a philosophy of life**. In textbooks that claim to be scientific, a philosophy of life, a particular metaphysics or Religion (belief) is not a theme. In scientific textbooks **categories** are used that arise from that aspect of reality itself in order to allow that specific aspect to appear because correct categories are preconditions for the appearing of that reality.

[In South Africa] Where a teacher holds a particular philosophy of life, he must fill the universal forms used in the textbook with the particular contents of his religious beliefs and he must design his educative teaching situations according to them in order to give these generally valid, universal forms "blood" and "life". Thus, a textbook cannot merely be left to the pupils because in many cases this will do them more harm than good. The deeper **post-**scientific views must be brought forward by the educator.

(6) The topical discussion method. This heading implies what this method actually is. Briefly, it amounts to an actual and appropriate topic being assigned to the pupils to study at home and to be fully discussed later under the guidance of the teacher. This method can be used when the particular topic links up with the particular situation of the pupils in a special subject. This might also serve to let a child **step up to** a reality that at this stage is still unknown to him or the topic might arise from finished work that all

of the pupils have not yet mastered completely. The learning discussion, class discussion, debating or free discussion are closely linked with this method and can be integrated into it. The teacher aims for each pupil to enter reality and takes care that there is a high level of discussion. The method will only succeed if the teacher has completely mastered the learning content. Only in doing this will he continue to be a respected and inspiring guide. As the initiator of the discussion, he encourages **all** of the pupils to be independent and confident and they are made to participate in the discussion. Further, he takes care that the pupils take their own notes, takes care that there is a favorable atmosphere, shows an appreciation for well formulated thoughts in well worded language and takes care that self-discipline is exercised. It also is desirable that after the discussion, the teacher put on the blackboard a brief summary in the form of an appropriately organized blackboard scheme that suits the subject. Since each pupil himself must become toward adulthood, this method offers a golden opportunity for social cooperation, group awareness, own initiative, politeness, responsibility, consideration, self-control, active involvement, and more.

(7) Fieldwork as a method. This is a method that can be used especially in the natural sciences. This amounts to the fact that in most cases the perception of **concrete reality** provides for a child a greater quantity of **visual experiences** than when an aspect of reality is brought into the classroom in the form of prints, symbols or language. Thus, for example, a biology teacher can ask the children to do fieldwork before he gives a lesson on a specific theme. The pupils who now bring real examples from nature into the classroom are more interested and also understand and experience the reality better. After the lesson is handled in the class, e.g., with the help of these examples, the pupils again can do follow-up work to perceive further how what they have learned appears in life reality.

(8) The study tour method. In the fieldwork method it is indicated that the perception of concrete reality always is a greater visual experience for the pupils than a "copied reality". The pupils have a better understanding when they can examine the specific reality itself than when it is presented to them in an objectified

culture of words (that actually is a distanced reality). Thus, a study tour can more quickly and speedily enlarge the pupils' **scope of reality**. Pupils who have taken many tours often have progressed farther in the adult world than pupils who only were in school and that have only made use of other teaching methods.

This method can be applied more easily and alternated with other methods. Once again it seems that although the methods are described separately they never can be separated from each other. The activities of the teacher must always be viewed in relation to the activities of the pupils if there is to be effective teaching.

The following is a discussion of some methods **viewed from the perspective of the activities of the teacher.**

4.2.4.2 Some methods viewed from the perspective of the teacher's activities

Although the methods viewed in terms of the **activities of the teacher** are discussed, at the same time the teacher presents the learning contents **to the children** in the presentation method, he asks questions of the pupils in the question-and-answer method, he shows the pupils what they **themselves** must do in the showing method, he demonstrates in the demonstration method, he presents problems to the pupils in the method of stating problems and he gives tasks to the pupils in the method of giving assignments that they then must carry out. Thus, the mutual involvement between teacher and pupils continually remains in existence. In the following sections the emphasis is **focused** only on the **activities of the teacher** with the aim of giving his **contribution greater intensity** and in doing so to better see **his activities** in the educative teaching situation.

(a)   **The communication or presentation method.**
Above and beyond the fact that this method is called the presentation method of teaching it also is called the narrative or telling method. By narrating, asking questions, talking, etc., the teacher imparts meaning to the pupils. The method of narration is a variation of conversation as a fundamental form.

When the teacher will unlock a certain reality for the pupils when they have little or no foreknowledge of it and when they cannot acquire this experience themselves, the **living word** is an obvious means for allowing them to **adequately enter** that specific reality. Making use of the right categorical ordering systems that they do not yet know and cannot find out for themselves must be **imparted** to the pupils. Here the pupils listen judgmentally and attentively so that they can anticipate the required situations, can think together, can pass judgment and can **experience, appreciate** and **assimilate** the narrations as meaningful.

To involve the pupils in this way, the teacher must be well prepared in the art of narration and he must make good used of articulation, appropriate gestures, facial expressions and voice intonation. His narrating requires a thorough preparation and he must have an appropriate beginning and climax. Wegmann calls narrating a communicating that is comparable to word-painting, a describing with soberness, clarity, conciseness, illumination, that is clearly delimited, etc. The personality of the teacher speaks especially in a spoken lesson. His controlled voice, his conviction and enthusiasm, the secure climate created, his way of accepting and understanding a child as a person who eagerly wants to be someone himself, knowing that the human-way-of-being is an encountering- and being-encountered-way-of-being, a child can design his experiential world as it should be because he is open **for** and **directed to** what the teacher narrates.

(b) The question-and-answer method.

This method is a variation of conversation as a fundamental form described previously in this chapter. It was already discussed thoroughly in section 4.2.4.1.c.4 from the perspective of the **teacher-pupil-relationship** but in this section there is reference only to a few guidelines to **emphasize the activities of the teacher**. From this particular perspective, this method can be used by the **teacher as initiator** of the educative teaching situation to involve the pupils such that they will enter the reality he wants them to deal with to satisfy their curiosity. Under the **initiative of the teacher, well-formulated** questions can help fellow pupils to enter the specific reality.

(c) Showing as a method.

It is of essential importance that the teacher masters the categories (truisms, essences) of various aspects of reality to be able to teach a child with the aim of his categorical forming. There certainly are learning contents that the pupils cannot make their own merely by perceiving, thinking, etc. Then the teacher uses **showing as a method** in the educative teaching situation. The teacher can place this reality that he has mastered conceptually at the child's disposal, open it up, clarify or unlock it so it becomes clear and understandable to the child for whom this meaningful world initially was totally or partly closed. As a didactician, the teacher does this by prompting, exemplifying, explaining and showing.

In modern family life these **showing activities** sometimes go wrong because both parents often work and correct **showing** or **exemplifying** is left to baby sitters or even is totally neglected. **Showing** assumes the teacher's proximity so that he can help when needed and when he must, otherwise there can be no mention of helping the child become. If this **showing** activity has already gone wrong in the family, the child arrives at school with a handicap. The teacher aims with the **showing** to give direction to the childlike entry into a particular reality by pointing out dangers and deficiencies. In addition, with his showing activities he aims to bring the child to **be able to himself do and ought himself to do** something and in this way to involve him in the life and reality of the adult. It is a fact of life that a child can learn and do something by **himself**, he can make decisions and choices by **himself**, he can participate in life and reality by **himself** and he can accept responsibility for his own **emancipation**, his coming of age, being formed and his adulthood as being morally self-defining. This **self-doing** and **imitating** by a child only can occur if first **exemplified** by the teacher. Only when pupils can do things **by themselves**, on their own responsibility, can this **showing** by the teacher abate and there can be talk of teacher and pupils **acting together**. Then the pupils possess a degree of emancipation that allows them to proceed on their own responsibility under the guidance of the teacher.

(d) Demonstrating as a method.

From an early age a child learns by watching how another acts. Thus, e.g., a little one with a problem will go to his mother and by watching how she demonstrates or shows a solution step by step, he learns how to do it himself. Demonstration, indeed, is one of the ways of making reality visible. However, the question arises about the extent to which this reality can be made visible and must be put into words. This method lays the foundation of the earliest didactic event because it implies imitation. In the classroom it has earned an important place where the teacher demonstrates such that his pupils are allowed to learn. In this connection, Colvin writes, "Demonstration may be considered as that form of illustration which is employed when a process as distinguished from a thing is to be exemplified".[4] According to Van der Stoep[5] especially three aspects of demonstrating must be kept in mind:

1. Demonstration changes from situation to situation. Certain learning contents lend themselves much better to it than others.
2. Demonstration does not necessarily involve a visual presentation but also can be directed to an intellectual image.
3. It is not a mere showing but the pupil also will have a role in the progress of the event.

(e) Stating the problem as a method.

By formulating an appropriate problem the pupils are placed in the right context for thinking and in doing so there is an appeal to them to respond in a responsible way. If at all possible the pupils themselves must arrive at a solution to a problem and only be helped and supported by the teacher, as adult, when needed. If a problem is solved for a child, the teacher ousts him, as it were, from the reality and deprives him of the opportunity to come to a solution himself. Then he remains dependent too long, lingers unnecessarily long in the child world and does not progress as desired to the adult world. This method links up very closely with the textbook method because, generally, the pupils research the problems themselves in the library as a source of information.

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[4] Colvin, S. S.: An introduction to high school teaching, p. 256.
[5] See Van der Stoep, O. A.: Die aandeel van die onderwyser aan die didaktiese situasie. Unpublished D. Ed. dissertation, University of Pretoria, 1967, pp. 257-260.

(f) Giving assignments as a method.

This method is a variation of assignment as a fundamental form and links up nicely with the previous method because any assignment given to a child also brings his problems to the fore. The teacher, who has an aim in view with the child, uses the method of giving assignments to unlock reality for the child so he can enter it himself. This assignment from the teacher to the child contains the deep sound of a life appeal, namely: Child, actualize the there of your being-there; be involved with and concerned about the things with which you are confronted; show that you **want**, **can** and **ought** to be someone **yourself**; enter the reality that is presented to you and involve **yourself** in your **own** becoming human in the direction of your own exploration, emancipation and coming of age.

Now it also is understandable **why** parents and teachers place so much emphasis on **accepting** and **completing** assignments that are given to children. In the classroom, assignment assumes various forms. It can assume the form of a task, group work or individual work. It can assume an oral or written form, the form of class work or homework, self-study, one's own reading and research work, one's own ordering of the learning contents, etc.

This suffices for this perspective and the child perspective follows in its turn.

4.2.4.3 Some methods seen from the perspective of the pupils' activities

The perspective considered in this section is that viewed from the activities of the **pupils**. This is done only to acquire a better grasp of the participation of the **child** and hence **to understand better his activities and their aims.** Once again it is emphasized that the mutual involvement between teacher and pupils must always remain unscathed if there will be mention of an educative teaching situation. The following is a brief discussion of six methods from the above-mentioned perspective.

(a)   The play method.

The play method is a variation of play as a fundamental form that was discussed previously in this chapter. The significance of child play in connection to various realities has enjoyed particular attention because a study of child play offers a particular access to understanding childlike learning. By means of the play method, aspects of reality are gotten into his landscape in natural and spontaneous ways because in authentic ways he designs situations where harmonious relationships become possible with **himself, other persons, toys**, etc.

In accordance with Vermeer's division of the play world, in the beginner classes provision is made for material, toys, etc. to comply with various life realities. Various realities are represented by the learning contents chosen to design play situations in the classroom. The following are some examples of how the **play** method can be implemented in the study environment of the early classes.

(1) Although the emphasis is on the **child**, the **teacher** still is the initiator of the play method; otherwise it deteriorates as a method in the educative teaching situation. Thus, he provides a dollhouse for the children as a learning aid that is completely equipped with a doll family. Apart from this "family" there also are dolls that "must be dressed and undressed, bathed and fed". The aim of these **teaching** activities is to invoke certain **learning** activities by the children. When the little ones now dress and undress, "bathe and feed" these dolls they **experience** it as reality. Now if a child wrongly dresses a doll with a skirt, spills water with the bath and incorrectly "feeds" the dolls, the teacher, as embodiment of norms, indicates **how** this must be done **correctly**. This play world that the child designs with the help of the teacher has a particular aim in view. In these play situations the **child learns** to know the adult world, e.g., that there is a room in the house where one **bathes**, a room where one **sits** and also one for **eating**. In addition, in these ways they learn that everything **normative** occurs in **human** activities, e.g., how to sit in a chair when eating, chat with each other, etc. This is all done with the dolls in the play situations. By means of these play situations a child learns to orient himself **correctly** in the world by, e.g., dressing himself **correctly**, washing and eating properly. Thus, this has as an aim his cleanliness, his concern for and maintenance

of his own clothing. The harmonious relationships that he has designed in his world (play world) have taught him how to get along with others. In these ways he has **experienced** that **norms** and **standards** always must be obeyed. Thus, the demands of propriety are learned in the associations and encounters with fellow persons and articles of daily use. This is what is meant when there is mention of **entering reality** with the help of play situations in the method of play.

(2) Orienting the pupils, e.g., to the **reality of traffic** and the **meaningful use of various traffic regulations** can be done by the teacher doing the following. On a large table in a beginning class, a miniature city can be laid out in the form of streets, one-way and two-way streets, traffic lights, dead-end streets, etc. Each pupil or group of pupils, with the help of a toy car, can have the opportunity to participate by "driving" on a "busy" street. In this way of acting they **learn** their specific traffic regulations such as keeping to the left (in South Africa), signaling when he will stop, obeying the traffic light, etc. In doing so the pupils also learn the **terminologies** of the traffic reality by associating with them in the play world. The terminologies are anchored in **language** and a child **signifies** for himself the adult world as his own sensible and meaningful world and cultural world. The method of play that is **correctly** used in the classroom, par excellence, is a medium of becoming for a child.

The above examples are used only to illustrate how the play method can be used.

(b) The listening method.
This method also can be called the **hearing** method. When a teacher addresses the pupils, this really means that he speaks to them with words. Only what someone talks about (names with words) is part of his lifeworld. An essential feature of being a child is his total **dependency** to be helped by the teacher in his need to become.

A child is very **influence-able** and he **listens** or **hears** as the teacher addresses him. As the pupils **listen to** what is told to them, this implies that they are **influenced** in a certain direction. If the

pupils **distrust** their teacher there is little chance of entering reality. Then everything becomes hostile and threatening for the child's survival.

A child is very **impressionable**. In being addressws by the teacher the child, as a becoming person, **hears** or **listens to** these impressions. Because a child is so susceptible to impressions the teacher must be very careful with his educative expressions so that wrong impressions are not brought home to the child. A child hears not only the wrong truisms but **experiences** these impressions in reality and because they are impressions they are of a lasting nature. This less familiar **listening** or **hearing** method is of extreme importance for helping a child, who still must acquire the adult world in **language**, in his course of becoming adult. Often all of the comments are heard that a certain person has **stressed** in the address he has delivered. The main task of the teacher is to **stress** the addressing of adult becoming. By his **listening with understanding**, the dialogues he carries on continually are elevated. Because of a child's **impressionability** he experiences the teacher's address or communication as a **heard influencing** from the outside.

In the educative teaching situation **responsibility** is of fundamental significance. Therefore, the teacher must make room for time for **addressing-listening** in conversing with a child. Only in an **addressing-listening situation** can responsibility arise to a great degree. By hearing or listening to the words that the teacher makes understandable to him, the conceptual system of each subject matter is clarified, and the dialogue he carries on with that aspect of reality is elevated. In this way reality is broadened for him, he learns and becomes different from what he was. This amounts to the fact that the child who is actively involved, by an intensive understanding of what he listens to, elevates his dialogue with that aspect of reality to that of the teacher. Thus, the listening method, if used properly, can be an important way to help a child reach his aim.

(c) The heuristic (discovery) method.
This method also is known as the self-discovery, problem stating or self-forming method. This amounts to the pupils **themselves**

establishing relationships with the learning contents with as little help as possible from the teacher. This method is more appropriate in the secondary school and institutions of higher education because these youths have progressed all the more toward adulthood and are more in a position to make choices **themselves**, to act and to accept responsibility. Also, this method provides the youths with more opportunity to formulate and organize their thoughts. When the youth are in a position for this method then they master much better that aspect of reality dealt with. Some of the most primary forms of learning of the heuristic method are the following:

1. **Questions posed by the pupils.**
The pupils are given the opportunity to ask questions of each other and of the teacher.
2. **The learning discussion as a heuristic form of learning.**
It is known that all persons follow **certain methods**, ways or procedures when they learn and that not all learning methods are effective or adequate. Thus, the pupils learn **better** methods of learning from each other. Hence, it also is the aim of the learning discussion as a heuristic form of learning that they learn how to learn effectively.
3. **The class discussion as a heuristic form of learning.**
Here the pupils are given the opportunity as a group to arrive at a solution to the problem. (See section 4.2.4.1.c.2 where the class discussion is dealt with fully).
4. **Self-experimenting as a heuristic form of learning.**
The heuristic method is applied in its purest form in the natural sciences where the pupils **independently** must carry out assignments by **independent** perceptions, their own experiments and drawing their own conclusions. If the pupils have carried out an experiment **themselves**, have themselves arrived at insights after thinking things through, have **themselves** enjoyed the pleasures of successfully couching, on the basis of their **own** value preferences, **experiences** and **judgments**, later they can use such learning contents for their life contents in similar or relevant situations. This **personal** and independent design of one's **own** world on one's **own** responsibility always is the **task** and **calling** of each person. This way of teaching makes this possible for each

child and prepares him for it. The great educative value of the heuristic method lies in this.

(d) The self-study method.

As the name implies, the self-study method is a purposeful, independent involvement with the learning contents assigned to the pupils. It can be done in the classroom or at home. Usually it assumes the form of homework. This method is applied fruitfully with older pupils. Very preferably, this must be interchanged with other methods because a child cannot continually proceed alone and on his own responsibility. Of all of the methods discussed so far, this one agrees most with the heuristic and textbook methods because all three can promote the pupils' independence.

(e) The observation method.

Just as has with the active involvement of a child, the concept observing more and more has **acquired a prominent place** in contemporary didactics. The basic idea is that concrete examples or representations with respect to the learning material are an important factor in the learning activity by accelerating it or by insuring a greater degree of success to the course learning. Today many teachers still think that if the pupils have **observed** examples then they are in complete compliance with the concept of observing. However, observing cannot be limited only to a purely visual concept but directs an appeal to all **senses** in order to promote concept formation and conceptual activity. It is more than perceiving and imagining. Perceiving doesn't exist without thinking. Also **language** plays a very important role in thinking and thus also in perceiving. The word creates order, directs attention, aids in the analysis and synthesis of the aspect of reality that is "observed". The concept is connected to the whole and to the inner relations of the parts of the aspect of reality that is observed. Observing is not an end in itself by rather a means, a way or method to attain an aim. Where the relations of the pupils still are vague, various means of observation can be used to make these relations more clear, sensible and meaningful.

(f) The practice method.

Opinions differ greatly about this method but the fact remains that much of the research that summarily rejects practice or drill work is

the result of unwarranted conclusions. Here volumes could be written denouncing this method. The teacher-didactician must decide for himself in his planning of teaching situations in the classroom to what degree this method is usable in a particular learning situation.

However prominent the advantages and disadvantages of this method might be, it must be accepted that certain skills and a degree of ready knowledge for the learning event and its further progress indeed cannot be undervalued. However, one must be vigilant against **not** giving the learning phenomenon a mechanical flavor. In other words, in the sense of **purposeful practice**, drill work as a method is usable, but as a form of meaningless mechanization it is decidedly harmful. Experience teaches us that an adult has a **task** and also must have **knowledge** of his task. Without the correct implementation of this method the relationships that the pupils have established with the various aspects of reality grow dim and even, in failing to repeatedly give clear form to them, eventually they possibly disappear. In addition, it must be indicated that their permanency is going to be paired with the correct methods of individual study. Successful practice of appropriate learning contents can be a precondition for further learning events in the classroom. With this, the discussion of this method is considered sufficient. In the last section of this chapter some methods are described as viewed from the organization by the teacher.

4.2.4.4   Some methods viewed from the perspective of the organization by the teacher.

Any situation must be thoroughly **planned, reflected on** and **organized**. Even more so, educative teaching situations require extraordinary planning, purpose and organization in order to justify and make possible their origin and existence. In order to attain the aims in view, ways and means must be found to offer possible tasks and problems. The following procedures and methods are discussed briefly, as viewed from the **organization** of such educative teaching situations.

(a) Heterogeneous and homogeneous methods of grouping.

The criterion of individualization, already discussed in this chapter, gives rise to these forms of organization. There are many problems in designing educative teaching situations because of the fact that pupils differ greatly from each other with respect to their world-relationships, personality structures, intelligence, etc. Each pupil, because of his human dignity, is entitled to the maximum development and realization of his unique and distinctive potentialities. The following forms of grouping possibly can offer a solution for the particular background, attunements, potentialities, etc. of the pupils.

1. The heterogeneous form of grouping.
Here the pupils in the **same** classes are classified irrespective of gender or level of ability. Also there can be big differences in age in the same class. Reasons such as the size of schools and classes, social circumstances of the community, parental choice, school readiness possibly are responsible for such classifications. In class teaching it is extremely difficult for a teacher to do justice to the particular course of becoming of each pupil in the direction of their **own** emancipation, coming of age and adulthood. This has given rise to the design and organization of differentiated syllabi, teaching methods and aids as well as differentiated pupil classifications in various ability groups and differentiated measuring, testing and evaluating. Individualization can be very difficult to carry out in a heterogeneously organized class. This has given rise to a homogeneous grouping within the so-called heterogeneous classes.

2. The homogeneous form of grouping.
Here pupils are divided into so-called homogeneous classes according to their intelligence, achievement, talent, etc. in the heterogeneous classes. Heterogeneity is the first rule and absolute homogeneity does not exist. This can preferably be stated as: groups only are made less heterogeneous. Both heterogeneous and homogeneous groupings place particular demands on the teacher as well as the pupils regarding the application of teaching and work methods. If a teacher stands before a heterogeneous class he must divide his pupils with respect to his teaching reading, writing and arithmetic. In each heterogeneous class there will be pupils who are good, average or poor at computing. In every case **each pupil** in **each group** must receive his rightful help. The method the teacher

is going to use must be implemented so the aims in view can be attained. The same principle holds for the homogeneous division of classes. These and other similar problems have given rise to within class methods of grouping as forms of organization.

(b) Within class methods of grouping as a form of organization.

It is really evident that within-class groups must be divided differently in dealing with each subject or theme. For example, there will be a different division for reading than for computing because good readers sometimes are poor at computing and the reverse. The teacher will approach each group differently in his attempts to individualize.

(c) The inter-grade grouping method.

For example, after the "reading age" of all the pupils in the different grades is scientifically determined, good, average and poor readers in different schools are grouped two or three times a week with the aim of special and advanced reading instruction. It is possible that during such a reading period pupils from grades 4, 5 and 6 can be in the same class as a result of their relative **uniformity in reading**. The various reading methods then are adapted for the various reading groups with rather noteworthy results. It can happen that a pupil's reading level is so improved that he can be transferred to a stronger reading group. This procedure also can be used with other subjects. However, here, it is clear that a great deal of planning and organization are needed.

There are many variations of this method of grouping such as, e.g., where **group** classes such as grades one and two, grades 3, and 4 and grades 5 and 6 are grouped in small elementary schools such as the **one-teacher school** of old where a teacher must cope with all grades in one class.

Finally, team teaching as an organization is discussed briefly.

(d) Team teaching.

This method of organization is when three to seven teachers have joint responsibility for teaching between 75 and 255 pupils in one

or more grades and age groups.[6] Woodring understands the following regarding team teaching: "Team teaching is an effort to improve instruction by the reorganization of personnel in teaching. Two (or more) teachers are given responsibility, working together, for all or a significant part of the instruction of the same group of students".[7]

This method of organization amounts to a group of teachers separately teaching a group of pupils: At the head of each group of pupils is a leader and sub-leaders who together with their helpers (teaching assistants) discuss and plan the teaching of a specific group of pupils. Provision is made in the organization of the teaching that a **particular teacher** will be responsible for teaching a certain subject or subjects, or aspects of those subjects. The leader plans, with the help the others, the necessary assignments, teaching and learning aids, etc. The pupils can gather in a large hall where all together or in groups they can listen to the lesson, or they can remain in separate halls where they follow the lesson on a television screen. As the lesson is clearly given, the pupils carry out the assignments under the supervision of their own class teachers but under the general supervision of the leader or subject head. To make individualization possible, the group often is divided into smaller groups. There is not as much emphasis on examinations as on the completion of pieces of work, assignments and their application.

1. Some advantages of team teaching

(i) Teachers have the time and opportunity to prepare better. For example, they can go more deeply into one or two subject and in doing so be a specialist in those subjects.

(ii) This is a deviation from the old traditional class teaching method and individualization can occur more easily when the pupils are divided into smaller groups.

(iii) Here the teacher works on a broader and more comprehensive basis than what the syllabus prescribes.

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[6] See Potgieter, F. J.: Skool- en klassorganisasie, p. 107.
[7] Woodring, P.: American Education Today, p. 211.

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(iv) Young and inexperienced teachers quickly are engaged which avoids frustrations and failures.

(v) Pupils are not delivered to the mercy of a weak teacher.

2. Some disadvantages of team teaching

(i) It requires much planning and organization that takes lots of time.

(ii) Teachers must be abreast of their subject content and be able to give a good lesson.

(iii) Less able teachers actually are pushed out of the lesson program and will only concentrate there attention on collecting and ordering information, planning aids and correcting the work of the pupils.

5. SUMMARY

In Chapter One the essential characteristics of an educative teaching situation are discussed fully. In this chapter attention is given to **designing** an educative teaching situation. This design only is possible in terms of certain didactic-pedagogic criteria, fundamental forms and methods. It is indicated that the criteria give direction and guidance to the fundamental forms, otherwise the designing does not occur authentically. In addition, it is emphasized that the fundamental forms from the beginning are used in the family situation and that they are ways or manners by which reality in the form of learning contents is brought into the classroom, can be encountered or by which it becomes accessible to the pupils.

Further, the didactic-pedagogic fundamental forms and criteria must give direction to the methodological activities. Each of these methods is viewed and discussed from a variety of perspectives. It is additionally indicated that to be able to teach, the teacher must make use of certain methods as means, ways or procedures to attain his aim since the effectiveness and success of teaching depend, to a great degree, on the successful implementation of teaching methods.

In the following chapter the prospect of the **course** or progress of an educative teaching situation is described.

ADDITIONAL READING MATERIAL

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2. Sonnekus, M. C. H.: Die leerwereld van die kind as betekeniswereld.
3. Vermeer, E. A. A.: Spel en Spelpedagogische problemen.
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6. Potgieter, F. J.: Skool- en Klassorganisasie.
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8. Woodring, P.: American Education Today.
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12. Basson, N. J. S.: Leerstofordening in die Lessituasie. **English translation:** http://www.georgeyonge.net
13. Van der Stoep, F. et al.: Die Lesstruktuur. **English translation:** http://www.georgeyonge.net