

# The post-school youth

## CHAPTER 9

# 9

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Up to the 1950s, the study of the period now known as adolescence was rarely distinguished as a separate phase in the human life-cycle. The only phases recognized were childhood and the adolescent period up to puberty. This was followed by the full responsibility of adulthood. Often there was some form of preparation for a profession, but this was undertaken as an adult.

Stanley Hall's book *Adolescence: Its psychology and its relation to physical growth, anthropology, sociology, sex, crime, religion and education* appeared in 1906. He described the 'new' phase and clearly, as the title shows, he saw it as having an impact in each of these fields. Once Hall had defined adolescence, there was no further doubt about the existence of such a phase, though the debate about its inception and duration was to last for a long time.

After the Second World War the school population exploded all over the world. The post-war child, growing up in a technological or technocratic age of affluence, mass consumption, television and the atom bomb, had a different outlook on life. Because of affluence – and the greater professional demands made by technological development – the years of education were extended. A youth leaving school is not ready for a profession, and increasing demands in all professions and trades mean an ever longer period of professional or tertiary training. So many post-school youths find themselves in this transitional period between secondary school and a profession that it has to be seen as a distinct developmental phase.

Most youths between the ages of 18 and about 24 are in colleges and universities or in the army. It is this group that will show us the distinguishing marks we are looking for. Their impact on society is unmistakable.

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### 9.1 IDENTIFICATION OF A YOUTH

Up to the twentieth century the period now known as adolescence was rarely distinguished as a separate phase in the human life-cycle. The only phases recognised were babyhood and the childhood period up to puberty. This was followed by the full responsibility of adulthood. Often there was some form of preparation for a profession, but this was undertaken as an adult.

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ble. Student unrest at the Sorbonne and many other universities in the Western world has initiated a new social problem. A Gallup poll in the USA in June 1970 listed 'campus unrest' as the nation's problem number one.

This real social shift casts doubt on all established customs, methodologies and technology. Mass communication and ultrasonic speeds bring expanding masses of people ever closer together, intensifying all social, technological and professional problems. The new generation not only reflects its epoch but also reacts to it.

In many ways the youth is an independent adult. He has the vote and a driver's licence and he is subject to army service where he defends his country. On the other hand he is economically dependent, and at the level of tertiary education some provision is made for student facilities and guidance. This extended period of dependence *has forced the post-school youth into the area of pedagogical concern*. Pedagogics, and in particular empirical education, must define the characteristics of this group as incipient adults. A new balance is struck between educational help and independent self-realisation. Active overall assistance declines and becomes more specialised, and the emphasis shifts to self-actualisation and personal responsibility. Help to this group cannot be defined as andragogic support: they are still dependant in too many ways and cannot be saddled with full responsibility. The empirical educationist considers that they fall within his field of study.

We agree with the definition Keniston (Guardo 1975, p. 305) gives of young people in this transitional stage: 'My answer is to propose that we are witnessing today the emergence on a mass scale of a previously unrecognized stage of life, a stage that intervenes between adolescence and adulthood. I propose to call this stage of life the stage of *youth*, assigning to this venerable but vague term a new and specific meaning.' We accordingly define *youth* as the stage of development between adolescence, as typified by the senior secondary school student, and adulthood. This imparts a highly specific content to the term *youth*. The post-school youth or late adolescent is distinguished and defined as a *youth* in contrast to the secondary school pupil. Large concentrations of youths are found at tertiary institutions and in the army.

Empirical education endeavours to determine how a child develops to adulthood, even when the child has become a youth. We are still concerned primarily with self-actualisation; with the educator and education we are concerned by implication only. The youth's self-actualisation proceeds by way of various relations. There is a natural continuation of the adolescent's relations, which we shall note only in so far as they exhibit new characteristics. We must remember that relations are formed by a constant assignment of meaning. The youth's life-world expands and deep-

ens, demanding intensive involvement, showing clear portents of the greater functionality found in the life-world of an adult.

## 9.2 SOCIAL RELATIONS<sup>1)</sup>

When a youth forms relations with society, his self-identity is very much to the fore. This is natural, since he (his identity) forms one pole of the relationship. The adolescent struggles to identify himself – to answer the question *Who am I?* The youth, on the other hand, has consciously accepted his self-identity. This enables him to see the possibility of conflict inherent in his emergent self and the existing social order. He is thus not so much concerned with: *Who am I?* anymore, but with: *What am I?*

Successful self-actualisation always calls for integration between individuation and socialisation (May 1970). For the youth there is an irksome ambivalence between maintaining personal integrity and achieving effectiveness in society. He would like to assert his self-identity fairly autonomously by insisting on his own opinions, taste, style of dress, etc., which militate against conformity. At the same time he wants greater social involvement. The inability to reconcile the two is often a youth's central problem.

A juvenile delinquent once said, 'You can't live if there's nothing to push against' (Bettelheim in Winter and Nuss 1969, p. 19). He meant that a youth cannot evaluate his own worth, dignity, vigour and vitality if what he is matching himself against is a vacuum or a social order that yields too easily and is therefore less mature than the youth. He wants a social order and educational limits that are clear, positive and not subject to doubt. He sets a collision course against this social order because it is his securest testing-ground. His aim is a secure, internally stable self-identity. Neither rigidity nor the absence of a hierarchy of values is 'an attractive goal for the young man trying to emerge from his state of uncommittedness into one of inner stability' (Bettelheim in Winter and Nuss 1969, p. 20). This confusion, particularly at the beginning of the period of youth, gives rise to an identity crisis. Dedication to study in the senior years of study produces a new identity with occasions for self-realisation. Ambivalence derives from a conflict between social involvement and self-assertion.

To reconcile this tension, the existing order is carefully sounded. A deficient attitude is used to determine the vulnerability, strength and integrity of the social order. A youth often manifests criticism, rebellion,

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1. Cf. K. Keniston, 1970. *Youth and dissent*, New York, Harcourt.

rage and disappointment, not so much on account of political activism as because he expects disappointment where he hopes to find honour, integrity, decency and insistence on values. He attempts to evaluate the weaknesses, strengths and vulnerability of his self-concept to see whether he (his self-image) can survive socialisation – what society will permit him and what it will demand. Intense self-concern, though on a different level from that of the adolescent, characterises the youth period also. Self-actualisation as individuation – the realisation of potential – gives the youth a feeling that nothing is beyond his reach – from the realisation of his own potential to the reform of the political and social order. This self-concept is one of power, of courage of convictions, and judgment is passed on the social order and on the moral and religious life of parents. Improvements are suggested. The youth feels strong and competent; he says with conviction: 'I know how far I can go in my sexual relationships or in the use of liquor'. A lack of experience often causes the strongminded youth to stumble, as the incidence of drunkenness and pregnancy shows. The counterpoise to the feeling of power is an experience of powerlessness, isolation, absurdity and frustration that can cause a youth to cut loose from society – hence depression and 'Weltschmerz'.

If he sees the social system as a threat to his self-identity, individuation may become so potent that socialisation and acculturation alike are refused. This leads him to try and break away from cultural norms, and identities peculiar to youth come into being, e.g. *hippies*. The youth may know this to be a transitional phase, but it none the less enables him to test his own strength by breaking away from existing society. He then feels more confident in moving in new, socially acceptable directions.

The dominant tendency in youth is to look for a better future with clear-cut values for which one can fight and with which one can identify.

### 9.3 RELATIONS WITH SELF

The youth finds himself in a community in which he must inevitably participate. Identity and role supplement one another. The role requires a specific person, who in turn must identify himself with the role. In the interaction between individual and community, identity will be the dominant consideration for the individual himself. His self-identity, and therefore his self-concept, may be enhanced by the role, e.g. the role of a star athlete or beauty queen in a student society. Such roles do not usually continue into maturity. If the self-concept is built on it, the ending of the role may badly damage self-identity. The youth's role in

his community will complement his self-concept. Keniston (Guardo 1975, p. 307) expresses the importance of a student's role-taking as follows: 'Some such youth-specific identities may provide the foundation for later commitments'. Although this roletaking in the limited community is temporary – since a student does not remain a student – it contributes to his self-actualisation, e.g. if he should be a member of the Student Council.

The self-concept becomes fairly stable during these years, and this autonomous self comes into conflict with the effort at social effectiveness. Much of the critical and self-critical attitude of youth must be seen as an effort to reconcile individuation with social integration which, if successful, leads to a more realistic self-concept.

At the start of this period, fear, anxiety, guilt feelings and the like are strongly present and are intensely experienced at the slightest provocation. This idiosyncratic heritage from adolescence must inevitably change, and greater self-reliance is the result. Other parts of the heritage from childhood and adolescence are preserved, but these are deepened and stabilised.

The youth's total self-concept may become either more positive or more negative as a result of new experiences – particularly the academic self-concept based on success or failure as a student, and the social self-concept which changes when identification with a given ideal figure ends or according to whether social relationships prosper or not.

## 9.4 RELATIONS WITH PARENTS

This relationship, too, contributes to the youth's further becoming. The adolescent has already discovered that his parents have feet of clay and is sharply aware of their faults. The youth begins to see them as equals and to understand that they live in a complex world. He stands alongside them and knows that they must conform to the same norms as himself; but this does not mean that he is not frequently uncertain and confused. Often he feels a great need to communicate with his parents.

Sometimes the parents now begin to feel threatened. Their child as a youth is now seen as a 'Gegenüber', a fellow-adult who is a threat to them. The parent has to justify a wide range of convictions on matters such as parental authority, prohibition and command, religion, fashion, eating and drinking. The youth's questioning (often heavily critical) arises mainly because he needs certainty and wants to test his provisional answers. Often a parent cannot provide a factual answer in matters concerning faith, trust and emotional experience; he may then become angry or take refuge in parental authority. Friction is inevitable.

ble. The youth is entitled to his doubts – unless he has them, he will not achieve his own convictions or values. It is not primarily rebelliousness or a rejection of established custom that prompts the questioning: it is the need for certainty. The adult who is always expatiating about the good old days and the badness of present-day youth is merely trying in a feeble way to maintain his authority: he tries to base behavioural codes on figments of his own imagination. Much of the so-called generation gap is caused by this.

Parents should be *quick to concede* on the pedagogical level, but *intervention* must take place on a different level than before. The youth's maturity level must be respected, and dialogue and argument must be used to effect a change of mind if necessary.

## 9.5 HETEROSEXUAL RELATIONS

Relationships between boys and girls enter a new dimension in the post-school period. Greater or less success is experienced in obtaining a partner of the opposite sex, and the experiences of the preceding period – adolescence – are an important factor in this. The youth enters this period without sufficient knowledge because:

- (a) Adolescents get most of their information on sexual matters from their peer group. Such information is inadequate and inaccurate in quality as well as quantity, and it hopelessly confuses the adolescent's attitudes and expectations.
- (b) Sex education from parents and teachers is usually limited, unsatisfactory and too late. No detail is given about the function and meaning of sexual relationships. Most of the guidance given concerns the role of sex in procreation.
- (c) Sex education is usually confined to a lecture. Information is given, but open discussion is rare. The adolescent is rarely encouraged to discuss his own problems, particularly in regard to heterosexual relationships. Misunderstandings, fear and confusion are usually left untouched. Moralising often replaces meaningful dialogue which might provide real answers.
- (d) Educators often lack any clear idea of what they hope to achieve by their guidance. They have only the vaguest notion as to how the information they provide will keep the youngsters out of 'trouble' (usually illegitimate pregnancy).

Guidance on sexual relations and the implications of pregnancy is only one facet of the problem. The main purpose of sex education is to provide the knowledge and insight needed for correct decisions and responsible control in the area of the sexual impulse, the integration of the

sexual into a balanced life pattern rather than its denial or its identification as the central problem of social relations.

There are a number of reasons for sex education during youth and even after maturity.

- (a) Its importance is accentuated by a wide range of sexual problems such as frigidity, impotence, and the sexual maladjustments in marriage that are an important factor in many divorces. If young people could enter into marriage with real and relevant knowledge, the advice columns of magazines would not be so full of questions in this area. Marital experience does not imply knowledge.
- (b) The youth experiences his problems intensely. These problems range from heterosexual relationships at tertiary institutions to homosexual relations when young men are together in the army. In our time sex is heavily emphasised in literature, advertisements, clothing fashions, etc. The youth whose heterosexual relationships have progressed beyond the erotic and experimental stage to real attraction and love is uncertain about the role of the sexual element at this stage. Apart from the experience of love, he wants a rational assurance that sex is really important. Society's attitude to sex may not be a real symbol of maturity – it may be more like a neurotic compulsion to erotic stimulation, as Kirkendall and Calderwood (Winter and Nuss 1969, p. 106) describe it: 'Our so-called "openness" is not a healthy acceptance of sex and its place in social context, but merely a continual titillation of the mental erogenous zones.' Since there is considerable truth in this diagnosis of 'so-called adult society', this implies that the youth has to orient himself to a sick society. Clearly he needs guidance and support from mature adults if he is to construct a value system governed by religious and moral considerations.
- (c) Research and technology have revolutionised disease control, life expectancy and so forth. The entry of women into the labour market, birth control and the control of pregnancy have blurred the distinction between masculine and feminine roles. The youth encounters further problems like marriages across the colour line, pre-marital sex, abortion, etc. These are moral decisions, and that is why specific training is needed in order to take and implement them.

Heterosexual development in youth is a problematic and confusing affair, but it cannot be ignored. Continued guidance in the complex field of sexuality is no easy matter, particularly in this age of scientific and technological change, free choice and plural societies.

## 9.6 YOUTH PROBLEMS

The large numbers of youths that congregate at tertiary educational institutions make these the places *par excellence* where youth problems manifest themselves. It is not easy to distinguish problems unique to this phase of development. The problem as such will occur during adolescence and/or adulthood also, but the spectrum is specific. The following aspects may be mentioned in arbitrary order:

- (a) *Acceptance*. The youth's self-concept is becoming stable and also more realistic. Those who start this phase with a strongly positive self-concept are in the favourable position of being able to forget themselves and become absorbed in whatever academic or social task they have chosen. They assume that others will accept them as they accept themselves and can give their attention to their studies and to relationships with lecturers and with peers of both sexes.

The youth with a weaker self-concept cannot forget himself. He is threatened in his studies and in relations with lecturers and friends. Self-protection is paramount. There is little question of neutrality in social relations: the polarisation effect is as strong as ever. In social relations he experiences *rapprochement* or estrangement as acceptance or rejection. Some students experience acceptance by peers of both sexes, and this helps to compensate for practical problems. Such popularity may clash with academic commitments, but they are at least happy on the campus. When a student is noticed, addressed by name and engaged in conversation by his lecturers, this proves that they accept him. Such acceptance not only promotes successful study, it is a precondition. The student who is not accepted, experiences rejection. In many situations which objectively appear to be neutral, a student with a poor self-concept and a sense of rejection will imagine that he detects discrimination against him as regards the marking of papers, friendliness and so forth. This results in withdrawal, despondency, loneliness and anxiety. Many other problems are related to a student's self-concept and particularly his experience of acceptance. A study cited by Blaine and McArthur (1971, p. 58) mentions the following directly complementary problems:

- (b) The student who cannot study and complains of incapacity.  
(c) The lonely student who claims that he cannot make friends.  
(d) The student who just cannot bring himself to ask questions or take part in discussions.  
(e) The student without a sense of vocation.

- (f) The student who habitually evades study and tries to prevent others from studying.
- (g) The student in conflict with his family, particularly his parents.
- (h) The student with physical or psychological (neurological) handicaps.

Any of these problems, if continuous and intense, will produce tension, restlessness and anxiety.

A typical problem, particularly for serious students, is what Erikson calls an identity crisis. The student comes into contact with views and philosophies that strongly appeal to his intellect, and this calls for a decision on whether to be a Committed Christian, atheist, evolutionist, communist, capitalist, or whatever. This cognitive sorting-out and commitment provides a vantage point, the achievement of a self-identity he himself can accept and esteem.

Some problems are superficial and ephemeral; others, closer to the core of the personality, have a deeper influence on the self-concept and the person's willingness to become involved in university life.

## 9.7 SUMMARY

One of the concerns of pedagogics is responsibility for supporting an educand to enable him to actualise his potential. As the years go by, the proportion of educational help to independent selfrealisation changes. A parent's help to a pre-school, primary school or secondary school child differs in scope and quality. Educational help to the post-school youth at the other end of the scale will take yet another form.

Only as the problems and longings of a maturing youth are understood, can his needs for support be assessed. We have been looking at the youth period as a developmental phase and have described some key features of a youth's relationships with others, his heterosexual relations, relations with parents and with himself. If the supporting adult is aware of these problems, the support is the more effective.

# The teacher-educator

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## CHAPTER 10

### The teacher-educator

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### THE ADULT AS AN EDUCATOR

We shall begin to consider the teacher's relationship with himself, the social concepts, with parents and their parents, and with the subject matter. The social and material support is specific and logical and requires special attention.

It is primarily the educator's task to structure the educational process. The pedagogical relationship, which should be spontaneous, is his responsibility. He must take the child as a pedagogical encounter; no matter how eager the child is to enter contact with his teacher, this can happen only if the teacher expressly seeks him. The teacher's willingness to achieve this contact, which is directed at education, improvement and progress towards the norm, is determined by the measure in which he accepts responsibility for the educated. His specific action, whether silent or reprimand, illustrates once again that total involvement is ne-

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# The teacher-educator

### 10.1 INTRODUCTION

Empirical education is concerned with the participants in the educational act. So far we have focused our attention on the educand in an attempt to answer the basic question our subject poses: **HOW DOES AN EDUCAND BECOME AN ADULT?**

We saw, firstly, that the child cannot become an adult by his own efforts. He needs the support of an adult who will take responsibility for his development to adulthood. The child wants to understand, to orient himself, to be adult. He takes the initiative in these matters, and the educator's function is to fulfil his specific needs. This relationship – when the educator offers help and the child responds to it – makes the child an educand and the adult an educator.

In this chapter we shall be concerned with the adult as educator, and we now reformulate the question as follows: **what characterises THE ADULT AS AN EDUCATOR?**

We shall need to concentrate on the educator's relationship with himself (his self-concept), with pupils as educands, with their parents, and with the subject matter. The teacher's educational support is specific and topical and requires specific attention.

It is primarily the educator's task to structure the educational process. The pedagogical relationship, which should be spontaneous, is his responsibility. He must take the initiative in pedagogical encounter: no matter how eager the child is to make contact with his teacher, this can happen only if the teacher comes to meet him. The teacher's willingness to achieve this contact, which is directed at education, improvement and progress towards the norm, is determined by the measure in which he accepts responsibility for the educand. His specific action, whether assent or reprimand, illustrates once again that total involvement is ne-

cessary. The person who educates non-stop does not educate at all (Van Praag 1950); and so we need to stress the importance of companionship.

## 10.2 THE TEACHER'S RELATIONS WITH HIMSELF

The teacher in his professional capacity is always an educator. But in himself he is always a person, and it is by being a person that he accomplishes his task as an educator. The teacher's self-concept lies at the core of his personality (Vrey 1974). This self-concept directs his tendencies to action, so that the teacher's relations with himself – his self-concept – will inevitably influence his performance as an educator.

The teacher must impart meaning to the subject matter, and his task must be meaningful to him – a meaningfulness that can be achieved only by intense and active involvement. He can never be a casual baby-sitter, nor a tape-recording played back for the pupil's benefit. Good teaching, let alone education, calls for personal interaction, and the intensity of the encounter is a deeply affective matter.

The teacher who encounters the child and is prepared to enter into a relationship with him, must be prepared to disclose himself (Jourard), to *expose* himself so that others – particularly the educands – may see him as he really is, thinks, feels and believes. No one likes to listen to or take advice from a nonentity. The teacher must be *somebody*, a person who accepts and esteems himself. Educands cannot respect a teacher unless he can accept and bypass himself so as to meet them with spontaneous authority. If the teacher has problems with regard to self-acceptance, self-assertion and self-esteem, communication is so disrupted that the encounter becomes forced and artificial and authority has to be physically enforced with a greater or lesser measure of success. Pupils are not impressed by a teacher's academic achievements or degrees: they take it for granted that he is qualified to teach them. They are concerned with the person, and one of the things they expect from him is that he should be able to impart his knowledge. Such a teacher becomes an important person to his pupils, and what he teaches them is also considered important.

All this flows from a positive self-concept. The teacher must see himself as adequate – as having actualised or realised himself. After comprehensive research into what constitutes a good teacher, Combs (1967, p. 70) describes the adequate personality as follows:

- (a) He sees himself positively – accepts himself as important, successful, esteemed, dignified, a person of integrity who is liked by others.
- (b) He regards himself realistically and without self-deception and

looks at his world equally frankly with a minimum of distortion and defensiveness.

- (c) He perceives and empathises with others in their circumstances and problems. This identification manifests itself as a feeling of oneness with people in different situations.
- (d) He is well-informed. A person with an adequate self has a rich and functional perceptual field.

This adequate self is essential in a good teacher. Independent studies by Gooding (1964) and Hildeman (1967), comparing successful and unsuccessful teachers, pinpointed the same qualities in good teachers.

We conclude that researchers lay great stress on a positive self-concept as a personal quality of the good teacher. The teacher must have a realistic self-image which he himself can accept and esteem and which does not need constant defence. It is not easy for a beginner to disclose, expose and forget himself while helping his pupils with their own self-actualisation. The basically adequate teacher can expose himself to criticism without feeling threatened. He can discipline himself, concede viewpoints and modes of behaviour without feeling that he is sacrificing a cardinal part of himself.

Teacher training must stress this component of personality growth so as to encourage the realistic self-perception that is fundamental to a positive self-concept.

### 10.3 THE TEACHER IN HIS SOCIAL RELATIONS

As an adult, the teacher must assert himself in relation to colleagues, parents and society. In his relations with society he must be seen as fully adult.

He should communicate with reasonable ease. This entails acknowledging the dignity, integrity and importance of others rather than seeing them as insignificant or as a personal or professional threat.

That is the ideal situation. In practice the teacher is not always accepted as a specialist. Parents with higher qualifications who take an active part in their children's education are often critical of teachers and school administration. Parents may feel threatened if their children prefer teachers to themselves as models. They may also feel that they are being held responsible for their children's shortcomings: *problem children have problem parents*. Teachers, again, may feel that parents are poaching on their professional preserves and are emotionally involved with the children's performance, entailing unjustified demands for higher achievement.

These unnatural expectations and attitudes between parents and

teachers cause anxiety in both. The result is a lack of spontaneity, a common situation today and one that inhibits free communication and cooperation in the child's interest. It is aggravated by the fact that the teacher derives his authority from the parent (Coetzee 1953, p. 358). Effective teacher/parent communication will always be essential if the child is not to suffer. The parent must feel free to discuss the child's problems with the teacher without fear of discrimination or unjust treatment. If the child's progress is unsatisfactory, the teacher in his turn must feel free to discuss the problem with the parent in a mature, responsible way.

## 10.4 THE TEACHER'S RELATIONS WITH CONCEPTS

Adequate knowledge in a teacher is a prerequisite for good teaching. Half a century ago a teacher could still acquire enough knowledge during initial training to last him his whole teaching life; but the contemporary technology and knowledge explosion has brought about such a mushrooming of information in all spheres that no teacher can ever consider his training complete. This does not necessarily mean formal study. Even a grade 1 teacher may find that television and other mass media have taught her pupils more about spacecraft or conditions on the moon than she knows herself. Every teacher's basic problem is to keep abreast.

No subject matter is automatically important: it has to be meaningful to the class. A teacher cannot simply collect facts or – worse – require pupils to reproduce a host of facts. His task is to find meaning in these facts, to structure and then to present them. The pupil's task is to grasp and assimilate the logical meanings potentially significant to him from his own functional cognitive structure. The teacher, then, must be able to separate and select essentials from a multiplicity of facts and to organise and expose the essentials in the relevant structures.

The attribution of meaning is essential if the child is to orient himself and to mature. Involvement is essential if this is to happen. Attribution of meaning and involvement as such are anthropological categories; the mature teacher must continue to attribute meaning if he is to actualise himself. The escalation of knowledge in the modern world forces him to understand and to assign meaning before he can select and structure. This entails intense involvement, in the subject concerned and in other relevant fields. So high is the premium placed on adequate, up-to-date knowledge that a teacher – especially a secondary school teacher – has little time for outside or extra-curricular activities. The effect of the successful Russian Sputnik mission on American educational planning is a

case in point. In South Africa, too, constant updating is necessary so that the proven core may be retained while keeping pace with the data explosion. This state of affairs places a permanent responsibility on the teacher and is reflected in extended and expanded teacher training courses. A higher initial training level is essential, but this is only a beginning. The academic demands on the practising teacher who wants to keep abreast of things are hardly less exacting than on the practising doctor. The doctor, in fact, has an advantage in that research laboratories will provide him with new drugs, which he can simply prescribe; while the teacher receiving new research data must himself understand and assimilate it and then adapt it to the Standard 8 or Standard 10 pupils to whom he is to teach it. This takes up a good deal of his so-called free time.

Hence the teacher must know the factual content of his subject, the general knowledge thrown up by a progressive culture, and the correct method of teaching (studied as Didactics). Most important he must know his pupils as educands.

## 10.5 THE TEACHER'S RELATIONS WITH HIS PUPILS AS EDUCANDS

The educand wants to mature. Whatever his innate abilities and motivation, which are obviously important, he cannot realise his potential if his need for adult support is not met. Every normal healthy child has this need for and willingness to enter into a relationship with a supportive adult.

The educator's first task is to take notice of and encounter the educand, whom by virtue of his vocation he has to help, support, accept and encourage and to whom subjects have to be taught so that the educand can achieve self-actualisation in society. Goethe declared that whoever takes a person for what he is, diminishes him. Similarly, while the educator must see and accept the educand as he is, warts and all, he must do so **ONLY** to support him in his growth towards adulthood so that his full potential may be realised.

The teacher must initiate the relationship, by steering pedagogical fellowship into pedagogical encounter, before assent or intervention become possible. We shall have to take a closer look at concepts such as encounter, some aspects of the child as a learner, the child's personality and the broader categories of educational help. When the teacher is seen as an educator, the child becomes an educand and what passes between them is pedagogical teaching. Educational assistance helps the

child to become involved and to understand, to realise his potential and to accept himself. His affective experience adds a deeper dimension to the relationship.

## 10.6 THE ENCOUNTER BETWEEN TEACHER AND PUPIL

Before teaching can take place, teacher and pupil must meet on a personal level. The encounter takes place in terms of the subject matter as a part of the cultural heritage to be imparted. It is a dynamic relationship and the polarisation effect is not constant. There may be a host of jarring factors – the teacher's health or personal problems, the pupil's laziness or indifference – but the total effect, the dominant polarisation effect must be one of rapprochement and intimacy. As Langeveld says, the child cannot be pedagogically helped if he is not encountered. If attraction is the hallmark of the relationship, then closeness, trust, belonging and accessibility (Landman, 1977) become possible. The pedagogical encounter can succeed because the child feels secure and is aware that the educator is willing to be with him and intends looking after him (Landman 1977, p. 27).

The question is, *how to bring about this positive relationship?* We shall touch on only a few of the important factors under the teacher's control.

## 10.7 THE TEACHER'S PERSONALITY

In the USA there has been much empirical research, involving thousands of scholars, on 'good' and 'bad' teachers (Hart 1934, Witty 1947, Bousefield 1940, Sears 1963, Cogan 1958, Reed 1962, Spaulding 1963). It seemed that the following personality traits in teachers made for the most effective encounter:

- Friendliness and considerateness towards each individual
- Patience
- Broad interests
- Attractive appearance
- Fairness and impartiality
- A sense of humour
- Good nature, consistency
- Interest in the pupil and his problems
- Flexibility
- Recognition and praise
- Teaching competence

The following broad categories of personality traits were also stressed:

Warmth

Patience

Tolerance

Interest in the pupil and his problems

Flexibility

Hamachek (1968) summarises it as follows: 'I think the evidence is quite clear when it comes to sorting out good or effective from bad or ineffective teachers on the basis of personal characteristics. Effective teachers appear to be those who are, shall we say, 'human' in the fullest sense of the word. They have a sense of humor, are fair, empathetic, more democratic than autocratic and apparently are more able to relate easily and naturally to students on either a one-to-one or group basis. Their classrooms seem to reflect immature enterprise operations in the sense that they are more open, spontaneous and adaptable to change.' Because he is human, this teacher respects the child as a person and it would not occur to him to make unkind remarks on the child's appearance or any other characteristic close to the core of the child's personality about which he might be sensitive.

Since the teacher must encounter his pupils, he must be prepared to do so – and, for this, spontaneous fellowship is essential. The teacher with a poor self-concept requiring constant defence will not risk exposing himself. Poor self-acceptance makes it difficult for him to by-pass his self and meet the child's need, particularly if the child is lazy, aggressive or rebellious. The teacher must take the initiative. We have mentioned a few personality traits that promote the encounter. Clearly, their opposites would impair it: sarcasm, fault-finding, ill-temper, favouritism, touchiness, unfriendliness, aloofness (ignoring pupils outside the classroom), etc. While one teacher finds it easy to encounter his pupils spontaneously, another may find it a considerable effort to avoid pitfalls. It is the teacher as a person who encounters the educand, and for that reason the teacher's personality is a precondition for effective teaching.

## 10.8 THE TEACHER'S KNOWLEDGE OF HIS PUPILS

We shall consider later *how* a teacher knows his pupils. We want to establish, first of all, the *fact* that the teacher must know his pupils before authentic encounter becomes possible. We have classified the child's becoming to maturity into a pre-school, primary school, secondary school and post-school or youth period. It stands to reason that a grade

one child is not encountered in the same way as a matriculant. These categories are too broad to provide for all encounters with pupils. The problem of individual differences makes it virtually impossible for the teacher to know all his pupils. This is aggravated by children's relational, domestic, emotional, health and self-acceptance problems – and many more. Even if optimal personal knowledge of each pupil is out of reach, there must still be a willingness to know the children – even if it takes a concerted effort by the whole teaching staff. Practices such as home visits and coaching in sport, which add to their knowledge of the child, are valuable. Once the teacher knows the child, he will no longer regard all apathy, skimmed HOMEWORK OR POOR CONCENTRATION SIMPLY AS LAZINESS; Involvement of this order requires an encounter which in turn requires personal knowledge of the child. If this is lacking, encounter suffers.

## 10.9 THE TEACHER'S KNOWLEDGE OF THE MATERIAL

The teacher's specific task is didactical. Subject matter must be explained at the child's level, and he must be led right up to it so that he may assign his own meaning to it. To encounter the pupil via the subject matter, the teacher must be familiar with it. This seems self-evident, but there are teachers who err in this respect. That is why intensified efforts to raise essential teaching qualifications and to recognise supplementary qualifications are fully justified. A dynamic culture means an escalation of knowledge on all fronts, but also enhanced technical and technological aids to improve teaching methods. The once well-informed teacher must study, formally or informally, just to keep abreast of his subject and method. Specific help in this area will be dealt with later.

If the teacher has encountered his pupils as educands, he will not need autocratic methods to enforce order. A friendly teacher who respects his pupils, listens to their problems and knows his subject, will have few problems in the area of encounter and even fewer in actual teaching, whether by assent, intervention or explanatory teaching.

## 10.10 HELP FROM THE TEACHER TO THE LEARNER

### 10.10.1 Introduction

From our present perspective we see the learner in the process of learn-

ing; the learner who still needs to know and attain a vantage point from which he can eventually say with conviction, 'I know' or 'I can'. We shall be dealing with the actual process of learning. It consists of a number of stages – the will to learn, types of learning, initial success, establishment of success, recall and application or transfer. This is the common route from *can't* or *don't know* to *can* and *know*. Not every step is a formal one, nor are they equally strenuous; but that is the route – whether it entails manual skills, verbal concepts, attitudes or behaviour that is being learnt. Verbal learning is so important at school that we shall pay special attention to educational help in this area.

### 10.10.2 Expository teaching

There is considerable conflict in contemporary education between learning by discovery and learning by expository teaching. Some claim that a learner who learns after having the material explained to him is merely memorising rotely: meaningful learning results from personal discovery only. We cannot list all the arguments for both points of view but you will have to be content with a factual statement of our own approach.

The relevant empirical-educational categories are attribution of meaning, involvement and experience. Amongst other motivations, the child learns because he wants to orient himself – an impossibility unless he gets involved with the subject matter. To orient himself, he must learn so as to understand. Learning is therefore a way of attributing meaning. To be able to repeat whole sections verbatim without understanding them is not to have 'learnt', because to learn is to assign meaning, and this is the sole objective of all verbal learning.

Most verbal learning consists of concept formation and/or assimilation. Such concepts are not concrete natural entities but 'inferences' or 'constructs' set up by human minds to facilitate understanding and use. Each concept implies a meaning. Meanings cannot be passively absorbed. As Woodruff (Clarizio et al 1970, p. 239) says: 'Meanings cannot be transmitted. Meaningful sets of symbols can . . . Each person has to make his own concepts.' A teacher cannot dish up instant meanings to his class. Only by personal involvement can the learner understand or discover meanings, because these have to be correlated with

relevant anchoring ideas in the existing cognitive structure, which forms the learner's unique functional knowledge.

It is, of course, quite possible to memorise the linguistic symbols of concepts without understanding them, but this is not a necessary outcome of expository teaching. The teacher discloses the material to the learner by a process of double disclosure (Klafki) because he must also *disclose* the learner to the material, i.e. activate and sensitise the necessary anchoring ideas in the learner's cognitive structure. It then remains for the learner to assign meaning through his own involvement. The type of learning induced by expository teaching is called receptive learning (Ausubel 1968) and is, as we have seen, by no means passive but charged with significance.

Learning by discovery is certainly meaningful, but in our present set-up the individual learner does not always have time to arrive at knowledge by the route of discovery. Where the teacher has to assist by partial explanation, Ausubel says (1968, p. 504): 'The most efficacious type of guidance (guided discovery) is actually a variant of expository teaching that is very similar to Socratic questioning.'

Expository teaching is necessary. The subject matter must be explained at the child's cognitive level of development. It then becomes logically meaningful, and potentially meaningful to the learner. The relevant anchoring ideas must be isolated so that the new meaning can be fitted into the comprehensive structure. If no anchoring ideas exist, combinatorial relationships are possible: and when these are not properly effected, the learner will learn by rote. Both these cases give rise to unstable meanings that soon fade. Expository teaching remains an essential didactical activity with vitally important psychopedagogical implications. To teach in this way, the teacher must have mastered both the subject matter and the method of exposition. He must also be aware that he is not engaged in a mere logical exposition that will automatically result in understanding for the whole class. Exposition is done for the pupil's sake: some understand readily, others not. This phenomenon persuaded Carroll (1970) that aptitude is simply the time a learner needs to complete a learning task. When a large number of individual pupils have understood, successful teaching has taken place. As Bloom says (Block 1971, p. 52): 'The main point to be stressed is that quality of instruction must be developed with respect to the needs and characteristics of individual learners rather than groups of learners.' The teacher must always be aware that his expository teaching is intended to kindle understanding in individual learners.

He must make allowances for differences in cognitive style, which may be analytical or non-analytical in varying degrees. Where one learner has a substantial cognitive structure, that of another may be diffuse and not very functional, so that one needs more time than another to understand.

These differences are crucially important. Analytical and non-analytical children will behave differently in the class-room. The non-analytical child is more impulsive: he wants immediate answers and relies more on contributory factors (field dependent) than the analytical child, who can concentrate for longer periods, try various solutions and work on his own without being influenced by what is going on around him (field-independent) (Gordon 1966, p. 27). Tests exist to distinguish between analytical and non-analytical children (Kagan, Moss & Sigel 1963), but these are not always effective in the class-room. It is better for the teacher to remember that the analytical child will break up a situation into its components and will differentiate between them, while the non-analytical child tends to interpret the meaning of the interrelationships between components while not necessarily being aware of all the components.

The quality of the cognitive structure is equally important. If one child does not know a given concept while another does this is not a sign of lack of ability. He may simply lack relevant experience. If a core concept is missing, the child will be handicapped in thinking that involves this concept. Quite apart from the possible absence of some concepts, Ausubel (1968) emphasises that all concepts in the cognitive structure must be clear, unambiguous and stable. Only then can we speak of an organised body of knowledge. One child may of course be content with vague, diffuse meanings while another takes the trouble to form clear, unambiguous ones. The problem is that the first child is convinced that he, too, knows the work. The onus is on the teacher to differentiate between the two and to bring them to the same level of comprehension before continuing.

The third crucial factor is for the teacher to be aware that some pupils need more time than others to complete a task. Carroll (1963) (J.H. Bloxk 1971, p. 50) goes so far as to assert that '... aptitude is the amount of time required by the learner to attain mastery of a learning task.' Perseverance may be seen as the time the learner is prepared to devote to the task. The emphasis is on the individual: it is he who must learn and know. It is highly desirable that each pupil should be allowed all the time he needs to master a given learning task.

### 10.10.3 Educational help as help in learning

Expository teaching assumes that the pupil has to be helped or supported. There are various steps in learning, and this means that we shall have to look at the categories in respect of which the learner needs help.

#### *10.10.3.1 Help in motivating the pupil*

A teacher is specifically responsible for motivating a pupil to learn. The problem is to bring the child and the subject matter into active dialogue. It comes naturally to a child to want to know, to want to orient himself, to associate with people, to belong and to be recognised and accepted in his own right. He has the urge to realise his potential but does not know where this potential lies. It is up to the teacher to formulate these possibilities as a series of significant and concrete objectives. To do this, he has to consider the child's unique possibilities. High marks in mathematics will prepare one child for medical school, another for engineering, etc. The child must be enabled to direct his psychic vitality towards an objective that is meaningful and attainable to him. To this end he needs help, also the praise that will assure him that he is on the way to achieving his objective. Motivation calls for constant encouragement from each objective to the next. In the pedagogical context, academic excellence is never an aim in itself; it can, at most, support the child's self-actualisation by placing developmental aims within his reach.

Getting a child involved in a learning task is mainly a matter of meaningful formulation of goals (for the child) and of activating and intensifying the will to attain these goals. There must also be a linking-up with existing interests and an encouragement of interest. The experience of success, and recognition and praise for success, mean more to the child than threats, punishment and anxiety because they assure the learner that the path he has chosen will lead to his goal (Roth 1959, p. 84) and because they enhance his self-esteem.

#### *10.10.3.2 Help in selecting types of learning*

It is clear at a glance that there are different types of learning (see chapter on this subject). The goal of learning, for the learner, is to assimilate a given portion of the subject matter or verbal or symbolic formulation. Involvement is a prerequisite. Such involvement, with understanding and assimilation as a goal, manifests itself in a type of learning adopted as a method. Sometimes the degree of involvement will also be reflected

in the method itself. The type of learning as an action – whether physical (typing) or psychological (multiplication tables) or, differently put, perceptual – motor, perceptual and conceptual – comprises type as well as quality. Cognitive style and psychic vitality plus meaningful psychological and physical action underlie the types of learning advocated here. Learning is the comprehensive idea including all learning tasks. The following learning tasks must be noted and remembered:

- (a) Names, discrete objects, dates, etc.
- (b) Self-evident concepts and statements.
- (c) Concepts to be formed.
- (d) Concepts to be assimilated.
- (e) Problems (convergent and divergent) to be solved.
- (f) Physical skills.

Some learning actions may involve repetition, such as names (e.g. botanical), or dates (in history) which require exact reproduction, whereas in other cases it is the formulation and assimilation of understood concepts that must be remembered. In the case of physical skills much practice is needed before automatisms can come into play.

Teaching always consists of the facilitation of learning. Our interest here is less in the method than in the nature of the educational help involved in the various types of learning. Too many learning tasks are learned by rote. The teacher must know how a given learning task can be assimilated by a given learner. It is true, too, that some teachers give credit only for literal reproductions. The result is the mechanical memorisation of subject matter that should have been understood. Mnemonics has its place, but it must not be used to reproduce mechanically what should have been understood.

If the teacher is to give proper prominence to meaning and to comprehension by the learner, he must be mindful of the incorporation of meanings into the cognitive structure. New concepts, to be formed mainly by induction, must be made familiar by plenty of examples so that the pupil, with or without help from the teacher, can make the necessary generalisations. Concepts to be incorporated into the cognitive structure need to be fitted into the relevant superordinate concepts. To this end, the right anchoring ideas in the pupil's cognitive structure must be activated and sensitised. In didactical terms this is called an aspect of the actualisation of pre-knowledge.

In expounding and disclosing subject matter, the teacher must guide the pupil so that he will not try to memorise what must be understood. Understanding does not ensure automatic recall. Even when he understands, the pupil may still have to put much time and effort into making it his own. This kind of repetition means that the pupil understands the material and *remains involved* by meaningful practice. Some will take

more time than others before their understanding is adequate. It is the teacher who must help the child to find the appropriate type of learning for the task.

### *10.10.3.3 Help in achieving insight*

Success in learning indicates that the right solution has been found or that insight has been achieved. Something must strike the pupil, whereupon it must dawn on him (Roth 1959, p. 97). Insight, inspiration, the 'Aha experience' are terms indicating that the learner has discovered something that was relatively new to him. In the writer's view, insight can occur only *when the learner is involved with the problem or task*. The degree of involvement is less important at this stage; but whether the pupil is involved in learning by discovery, problem solving, assimilation of concepts or receptive learning, involved he must be if insight is to dawn.

An insight is never a bolt from the blue. The learner's experience and objectives play an important part: insight is built on preknowledge and on orientation to goal achievement. The pupil must tackle the difficulty himself, think and find for himself and be co-responsible for the solution. Some pupils will achieve insight sooner than others: it is not governed by mechanical principles.

The teacher's clear task is to lead his pupils to insight. He must expound to that end and provide opportunities for involvement so that insight may follow. Even in learning by discovery, the teacher guides pupils towards insight. He must be aware of the need for patience, because time is needed for real, independent solutions. As Roth (1969, p. 109) puts it, the sudden perception of the implications of an insight may also be experienced when the teacher has provided the full solution, but the liberating force of the insight must, with the teacher's help, be fully experienced, and this is only possible when they have been wrestling with the problem together. Van Hiele (undated) agrees. For insight to emerge, there must be adequate structuring and an effective use of language. It follows that learning with insight is the fruit of teaching with insight (Van Hiele -, p. 17). It is therefore the teacher's responsibility to guide the pupil in such a way as to induce insight.

### *10.10.3.4 Educational help in establishment or consolidation*

When insight first dawns, a learner cannot claim that he really knows

the subject matter. Often, insight is transformed into authentic knowledge only when it has been acted upon. Even when the pupil has understood and even successfully completed an example of division, square root extraction, multiplication by logarithms or whatever, he will have to wrestle with many such examples before he can claim to know the work. Pupils often fail to solve problems at home where they have no difficulty in class. And teachers often ascribe such failures to laziness, to the considerable annoyance of both parties. Roth (1969, p. 114) puts it this way: once the insight has been achieved, the teacher will spontaneously initiate the active phase so that insight through action may be established. He will see to it that the insight is applied, so that insight by experience may be added to intellectual insight.

A clear responsibility of teachers is to guide pupils by way of adequate and effective action (physical and/or psychological) to authentic knowledge. Only in this way can establishment take place (and one wonders whether establishment is not sometimes impaired by overloaded curricula).

#### *10.10.3.5 Educational help in actualising learning results (recall)*

One learns to know and to remember what one has learnt. We are assuming that the pupil has achieved insight and that insight has been reinforced by action. He must be able to recall or actualise this knowledge after a lapse of time. Such knowledge cannot be measured: only when the consciousness is directed at it will it become evident how much a particular pupil can recall. At school this normally happens by way of tests and examinations.

The teacher's job is to ask the right questions to enable a pupil to recall what he has learnt. A memory trace is actualised only when there is a connection between the actual situation (question) and the learning result. The objective is not merely to diagnose or categorise pupils: that, says Gordon (1969, p. 27) '... is a dead-end, meaningless operation. The goal here ... is increased insight into the child, so that learning situations can be constructed to foster his intellectual development'. In other words, tests are not set to evaluate a pupil's academic achievement. The marks obtained do have some use for evaluation, but the main objective is to enable the teacher to support the pupil by way of guided actualisation to self-actualisation.

### 10.10.3.6 *Educational help in transfer*

Transfer describes the influence of knowledge mastered by the learner in one situation on his achievement in another situation. The influence may be negative as well as positive but we are concerned with positive transfer. The significance of learning according to Bruner (Clarizio, 1970 p. 294) is: 'It matters not what we have learned. What we can do with what we have learned: this is the issue.'

Research (cf. Clarizio et al. 1970, p. 282 ff.) has shown that teaching methods are vitally important. Teaching must be aimed at the transfer of knowledge. If mathematics is taught to help the pupil to think or to solve physics problems, or whatever, mathematical principles must be constantly and explicitly applied to this end. The same is true of any other subject. The possibility of transfer determines the teaching method and also the selection of material with a view to application.

Transfer does not take place automatically, and the teacher has a grave responsibility to teach in such a way that the pupil's knowledge will be functional in new situations.

## 10.11 SUMMARY

The teacher is an adult and a citizen. He relates socially to other adults. Sport and other leisure-time activities are determined by his own interests. This is vital if he is to be a balanced, mentally sound person. But we are explicitly interested in him as a professional person. Little can be said about this except within the framework of education and teaching. Whatever the teacher's developmental level, he is responsible for the children or youths entrusted to him, whom he must both teach and educate. This responsibility will be manifested very differently at different academic levels, from pre-school to post-school, and so will his teaching and educational involvement. We have been looking at some vital aspects of the professional teacher from the perspective of teaching and education.

We see the teacher as a person with a realistic self-image who communicates spontaneously with both parents and pupils. He must know his subject(s) but must also have wider intellectual interests. Since he is teaching pupils, not subjects, he must know his pupils at every level of their development. He must understand the mechanics of learning if he is to give effective help to learners. All this should be done without getting entangled in didactical problems as such. The teacher remains the person who must effect an encounter with the educand, intervene or assent where necessary and withdraw control discreetly so that the desired self-actualisation can take place.

# Learning and the learning process

# 11

## Learning and the learning process

Reading and learning are interactive and interdependent. The world that children see in the world around them with his potential and an innate drive and determination to grow up.

He is surrounded with problems and situations that need to be resolved. At the same time these present a challenge in that he still needs to learn to grasp or reach for things, to handle them, to walk, run, write and a whole host of physical skills. As first he only a child handle things and subjects at this activity to his own's content. Later on he starts to know why. The unknown try to be learned him, which leads to a state of "why" that were not most adults, probably state he continues to be uncertain before he has figured out answer to the first question. He perceives a broad spectrum of unknown realities in respect of which he has to find his bearings. He has to see, hear, understand, differentiate, integrate etc. He must learn language in order to communicate and the same time words have to convey concepts. At school he has to be taught the necessary skills to master — not by forcing him (or obstructing it if it is not) but by way of supplying his share for knowledge. He needs to know and must know. A small child will lie on the ground in a tantrum, hitting out aggressively at everything things. He must learn to control his emotions in accordance with cultural norms. He must learn how to control himself. This includes table manners, sitting at table, behaviour on the sport field, in church, treat his superiors and towards his inferior.

The whole of life is a swing into hierarchy of authority. In western society the attitude and acceptance of authority, however, democratically, can never be argued away. Ultimately, the authority of culture has mandatory force. As far as the child is concerned, the parent represents the moral and is the bearer of authority. He must learn to submit to the authority of parents and teachers. In this way he learns to obey moral and cultural norms.

## CHAPTER 11

### Learning and the learning process

Becoming and learning are interactive and interdependent. The small child embarks on the world armed solely with his potential and an insatiable urge and determination to grow up.

He is confronted with problems and obstacles that need to be overcome. At the same time these present a challenge in that he still has to *learn* to grab or reach for things, to handle them, to walk, run, write and a whole host of *physical skills*. At first he only wants to handle things and indulges in this activity to his heart's content. Later on he wants to know why. The unknown begins to fascinate him, which leads to a spate of 'why's' that wear out most adults, particularly since he continues his interrogation before he has digested the answer to the first question. He perceives a broad spectrum of unknown realities in respect of which he has to find his bearings. He has to see, hear, understand, differentiate, reintegrate, etc. He must learn language in order to communicate. At the same time words serve to convey concepts. At school he has to be taught the relevant *subject matter* – not by forcing him (or drumming it into him), but by way of satisfying his thirst for knowledge. He wants to know and orient himself. A small child will lie on the ground in a tantrum, hitting out aggressively and breaking things. He must learn to control his *emotions* in accordance with cultural norms. He must learn how to *conduct* himself. This includes table manners, sitting at table, behaviour on the sport field, in church, towards his superiors and towards his inferiors.

The whole of life is a composite hierarchy of authority. In western society the exercise and acceptance of authority, however democratic, can never be argued away. Ultimately the authority of norms has mandatory force. As far as the child is concerned, the parent represents the norm and is the bearer of authority. He must learn to submit to the *authority* of parents and teachers. In this way he learns to obey moral and cultural norms.

This empirical survey of the various fields of learning demonstrates that it is not purely a matter of teaching, i.e. of cognition. To the adult teaching which enables a child to learn successfully is an educational issue, to the child it is a matter of becoming and as such a human problem. In each child the urge to improve himself, the aspiration to higher things is present in the form of a desire to know what he does not know, to master what he cannot do. This innately human desire is designated by various names. Some scholars (like Maslow) prefer *self-actualisation*; others (e.g. White) like *competence*, yet others (e.g. Allport) settle for *becoming*, while authors like Langeveld refer to *being someone in one's own right*. Speaking of the child's realisation of his potential, Coetzee (1953, p. 139) comments that the intellect comes first and is always a factor. Intellect precedes other forms of mental expression, so that Coetzee (1953, p. 139) refers to becoming as *rational self-determination*. In this he agrees with Frankl's dictum that man's search for meaning is a primary force in his life. We accordingly isolate the child's cognitive drive as a primary force operative in all mental activities. This drive and its manifestations will develop progressively in interaction with these activities.

To become more adequate, the child must learn continually. The child in his totality becomes increasingly involved with learning, a process in which his rational or intellectual faculties take precedence over other psychological activities. He lives in a world of information and meanings, values, explanations of the rational norm in every sphere; at the same time he must discover for himself the meaning contained in this information that is fed to him. Combs writes: 'Information will affect a person's behaviour only in the degree to which he has discovered its personal meaning for him' (Read and Simon 1975, p. 125).

Attribution of meaning – whether it entails emotional control, perfect behaviour or a second-degree algebraic equation – is attained through LEARNING. As we have pointed out, effective learning requires involvement with the process of learning or attribution of meaning, something that is possible only through the intentions of the individual. In simple terms this intention can be formulated as *'the child's conviction that successful learning of an assignment will make him grown-up, or at least more grown-up and more adequate'*.

Even though a particular component of the adequate self needs to be actualised, it involves the person in his totality so that self-actualisation is in fact rational self-determination. Success will intensify the quality of meaning. One need only think of the radiant face of a small child who is applauded when he takes his first few steps, or does his first sums correctly. In becoming and learning, attribution of meaning, involvement and experience remain as triad a valid category, while self-concept is a

contributory factor and the whole process revolves around self-actualisation.

We can distinguish certain *logical steps in the learning process*. Attribution of meaning through learning is assured only if there is a clear intention or learning goal. The child will learn only if he wants to realise this goal. A detailed analysis of such *volition in the sense of motivation* is justified.

Depending on the goal, the learning act or attribution of meaning will be accomplished in a variety of ways. Sometimes it will be predominantly physical as in the practice of such motor skills as cycling, at others it tends towards the mental, such as grasping the concept of specific gravity. Sometimes learning is little more than repetition in context, as in enumeration. Hence we should take due note of different *types of learning*.

Since the individual has to discover the significance of a concept, act or mode of behaviour for himself, he must be able to appreciate connections and relationships. *Insight as initial success* therefore deserves attention.

Experience has shown that early success rarely assures lasting competence. This is as true of the first correct leap from a horse in gymnastics as of personal victory over aggression through self-control and the successful solution of a trinomial into factors. Such successful acts *must be reinforced* so that they can be attained consistently in order to achieve *permanence* in successful learning.

One can only speak of success once a learner is able to recall the learning that has been consolidated. This is a matter of *retention or memorisation* and *recall or memory*, which have to be dealt with as such.

Once a learner can apply his knowledge in new situations, this indicates that it has become functional. Application of knowledge in new situations is known as *application or transfer*, which is the final proof of successful learning and therefore worthy of note.

If from infancy the child finds that his efforts secure only moderate success, he will, irrespective of the reason for this, develop a *style of learning* that expects only moderate success. This reduces involvement to correlate with mediocre results. Despite countless individual differences, this trend is manifested by children who cry out in frustration: 'What is the use of trying? I'll never come first in athletics or in class or earn my teacher's approbation or recognition for my efforts!' The effect of this is a learning style that integrates involvement with low expectations. We shall also examine motivation as the will to learn, types of learning, initial success, consolidation and transfer. These various logical steps in the course of learning are known as the learning process. In any particular learning assignment some of these steps will feature more

prominently, while others will be omitted. There is nothing inevitable about it. Successful completion of each step depends on the necessary educational and/or teaching assistance.

To sum up, one could say that a child learns the following:

- (a) Physical and motor skills
- (b) Attitudes and behaviour
- (c) Knowledge in the form of concepts and ideas
- (d) Acceptance of his self-identity
- (e) Moral and religious norms

Successful learning always involves man in his totality, and understanding plays a greater or lesser part throughout. Hence learning may be defined as an action whereby new relationships are established or existing ones improved. In what follows, the emphasis will be on meaningful verbal learning.

# The child wants to learn (motivation)

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## CHAPTER 12

# The child wants to learn (motivation)

### 12.1 INTRODUCTION

The child's learning is directly concerned with his growing up. He learns in order that he may grow up and each level of becoming poses new demands or obstacles which require learning. The child learns what he does not know or cannot accomplish; otherwise he learns to handle more effectively what he has already partially mastered. In the learning situation one observes individuals who learn reluctantly or eagerly or with a measure of concentration falling somewhere between these extremes. When a child learns, there is always some goal or intention, something the learner does not know or cannot do. This goal is important enough for him to want to achieve it. His involvement in the learning act, which will depend on various factors, definitely determines his success. Since the degree of involvement varies so much, we are justified in asking what determines its intensity. *This intensity of involvement is also known as motivation.* Earlier (see involvement) we pointed out that involvement implies a goal to be realised, one to which meaning has been attributed and which is significant.

The fact that a particular goal is preferred indicates a deliberate volitional decision. The learner wants to realise this goal. Hence he is involved because he chooses to be involved. We also mentioned that involvement is defined in terms of psychic vitality. The learning child must understand the goal of learning and rate it as important enough to want to realise it. His volition must moreover be activated, to which end psychic vitality is essential. An individual shows vitality when he wants to realise a meaningful goal in his situation. The child is always in a situation where he forms relations, hence we could say that he is always related. This raises the question as to what determines the quality or intensity of involvement. In other words, what circumstances or factors

decide or help to decide the person's desire to achieve his goal, and what impairs it.

## 12.2 THE INDIVIDUAL AND HIS VITALITY

In this context man as an individual must be seen in relation to his world and in his orientation 'that guides and directs the person's whole existence as an individual being-in-the-world' (Reeves 1977, p. 155). He assumes responsibility for himself and his world. The task of the will in the sense of basic intentionality (May) is to regulate and integrate his relations with self and world while remaining directed at the actualisation of potential. Volition is not simply a choice between alternatives. It is the individual's conscious, decisive action aimed at a value in the sense of a goal. As a conscious act, volition means that the individual is aware of something, inclines to it 'and (it) has within it, no matter how latent, some push toward a direction for actions' (May 1970, p. 230). *This driving force towards a goal* is the primary centre of interest in this section. Drive or motivation is a component of volition and is best expressed in volitional acts (see involvement) with their attributes –

- (a) *a cognitive dimension*: all relevant aspects are known (as are the alternatives and the implications of personal involvement);
- (b) *goal aspect*: not only are the various goals known, but also their relevance to the ultimate objective of self-actualisation and oneness with the community; and
- (c) *accountability for choice*: meaningful goals are ranked in order of priority so that the choice is made responsibly and the individual is accountable for it.

*The execution of a volitional act will reflect the driving force or psychic vitality.* In contrast with instantly accomplished decisions, such as the decision not to crib in an examination, we have the choice of a particular course at a university, which will take years to complete.

## 12.3 INSTINCTS AND IMPULSES AS DRIVING FORCES

Human beings have instincts such as the urge for food, the sexual drive, etc. These obviously move him to act: when one is hungry, one will look for food. In his theory of instinct McDougall distinguished some eighteen instincts that are innate psycho-physical dispositions. The striving to act is born and culminates in specific behaviour. In the same way Freudian drive theory, which distinguishes a life wish and a death wish,

explains all behaviour in these terms. Von Monakow posits a primeval drive or primeval norm expressed in the following instincts: Instinct for self-preservation, sexual instinct (libido), social instinct and cosmic instinct (which includes everything with which the individual comes into contact apart from the first three aspects).

Apart from instincts, man's primary needs also move him to action. Thus we have A.H. Murray's 20 psychogenic needs, each of which constitutes a motive for a specific act. Maslow's six needs, because of the order of satisfaction, are placed in hierarchy of prepotency. The impulse as primary act is also important. It requires unintentional and instant responses such as fear-flight; fatigue-sleep; injury-tears; attack-defence. Although impulses are conscious and require spontaneous action, they are complex and not easy to control.

What we have said about instincts, impulses and needs as motives constitutes an incentive to action, but we do not pretend to account for all action in terms of instinctual motives. In this regard we subscribe to May's view (Reeves 1977, p. 27): *'The simpler is to be understood in terms of the more complex.* Given the reality of self-consciousness, the human being does not merely engage in reproducing his own species, for example, but consciously assumes an attitude to his own sexuality and exteriorizes meaning through it.' In the same way a hungry man will not proceed blindly to snatch and steal food. His orientation to cultural norms and his own ideals, expectations, etc. will help to determine the nature of his hunger-satisfying behaviour. This ranges from Ghandi's hunger strikes, when he refused food for long periods, to women who consider their weight and count every calory before they decide to eat.

It is a common phenomenon that an individual may be bored, apathetic and listless but will suddenly perk up and be full of energy if anything happens to excite his interest. He will then devote himself to the new task with full dedication. Sometimes a mother with a sick infant will drop off to sleep in sheer exhaustion, but when the child coughs after a couple of minutes she will be wide awake, active and busy, showing little or no sign of fatigue. *The psychic vitality that prompts action derives from the meaning attributed to the situation in hand, which in turn coincides with the person's subjective Sinnqanze (total meaning). This relationship of meaning appeals to the individual to act appropriately and responsibly.* There is not much psychic vitality involved when a person is deliberately resting or relaxing. Psychic vitality presupposes confrontation with a situation or obstacles that the individual wants to overcome, or a goal – either immediate or remote – that he wants to attain. Meaning is attributed to the total situation, a process in which not only the cognitive but also the affective and conative functions are concerned. Attribution of meaning implies involvement and experience. Since the individual himself wants

to attribute meaning he assumes responsibility for acting appropriately. Depending on the seriousness of the situation (as evaluated) the individual will behave with greater or lesser seriousness, dedication and energy (physical and/or mental) in order to realise the goal.

## 12.4 VOLITIONAL INTENTIONS

The supreme goal of education is undoubtedly adulthood, but this is readily divisible into three categories, viz. the individual's world of meaning in which he is oriented, belonging as an attribute of his complex relations with significant others, and an adequate self that assures him of an accepted identity and the awareness that he possesses certain powers and knowledge. Self-actualisation takes place along with participation in the sense of co-existence with other people. An adequate self will only emerge if the individual experiences effective relationships with other people, things, ideas and himself. Various authors describe these distinct (if integrated) goals as self-enhancement. Cattell speaks of self-assertion; Stern, Von Monakow and Ausubel of self-enhancement, while Rogers calls it self-realisation and Maslow self-actualisation. As self-identity develops, the *will* to maintain and improve this growing self becomes progressively more cogent. This seriousness and urgency persuaded Combs and Snygg (1959) that the individual's total involvement with self-preservation and self-development is the anthropological arche-type of all motivation.

Following on the conclusions of these two authors we shall clarify the concept in more detail.

## 12.5 SELF-MAINTENANCE AND SELF-DEVELOPMENT AS MOTIVES

Some present-day investigators link the idea of basic motives mentioned above with the assertion that the "self" is the central factor in learning events. Probably the most important of these investigators are Combs and Snygg.

The primary point of reference from which the child perceives his life space and thus attributes significance to it is his evolving self-concept. He himself is the centre of every relationship that he establishes with the objects, ideas and people in his life space. Since we are here dealing with relationships, there can be no question of cause and effect. The person himself is thus the central factor in his own development. "As we have seen, Combs, Snygg and Rogers believe that the maintenance and

enhancement of the perceived self is the motive behind all behavior" (Purkey, 1970, p. 12).

By the time he goes to school the child knows a good deal about himself, other people, his physical-cultural environment and his language. At this stage he already has a kind of dual image of himself. He has learned many things about himself – his appearance, his abilities and his behaviour – from the actions of other people towards him and from his own feelings about their actions. This knowledge provides him with a concept of his perceived-self-in-the-world. In the course of his association with his educators he hears a great many "do's" and "don'ts" relating to ideals, values, expectations and developmental potentialities. The self-image, at first vague and diffuse, becomes more distinct as time goes by and as it is identified with aims and values. Thus the child develops a concept of an adequate self which is what he thinks he ought to be. Neither concept – that of himself in the world and that of his ideal self – is necessarily realistic.

This dawning of consciousness, and the processes of significance attribution and acquiring knowledge are largely cognitive in character; but the relationships thus established in the life space acquire greater and more permanent meaning through affective experience.

Because the self-concept and its development constitute so powerful a force in human actions, Beatty and Clark (1968, p. 165) prefer to speak of a motivational situation or state: "A motivational state is the necessity to make congruent some discrepancy in the self-system." A motivational state develops whenever there is any difference of any kind between the perceived-self-in-the-world and the concept of the adequate self. There is often a high degree of correspondence or harmony between the *is* and the *ought to be*; but great differences are not uncommon and they may be very significant and important to the person concerned. As soon as the person (whether child or adult) notices a discrepancy or gap between his perception of himself and what he believes he could and should be, he tries to eliminate the difference. *He is then motivated to embark on a course of action which he believes will eliminate this difference.* The action must be one which he is capable of carrying out successfully, and successful execution must mean an increased realisation of his adequate self or ego ideal as he sees it.

Every motivational state requires that the person (whether child or adult) should engage in perception and significance attribution, and that he should be totally involved in these activities. Meaningful relationships are intensified and consolidated by the quality of the person's experience.

If for example a child who cannot read sees his adequate self as a person who can read well, he is in a motivational state in which he de-

mands of himself the endeavour to read. If he sees himself as someone who can read well enough, that is, well enough to accord with the ideal he has set himself, he will not be motivated to improve his reading. If a pupil sees himself, according to his marks, as a 50 percenter but conceives of himself ideally as a first-class matriculant, he is motivated to work harder. The student's seriousness, dedication, application and perseverance will indicate the degree of difference between his perception of himself at the moment and his perception of his adequate self. *The quality of the pupil's involvement in learning activities, as manifested in characteristics such as serious-mindedness, attentiveness, advertency, interest, devotion, willingness to work and perseverance, will indicate the intensity of the perceived discrepancies which create the motivational state.*

One person will see his adequate self as a rugby Springbok, another as a doctor, another as a research worker, etc. This shows that perceptions of this nature are loaded with values and valencies.

The activities by means of which the above-mentioned discrepancies are eliminated may be described as providing personal gratification or satisfaction. As the horizons of his life space expand in consequence of new sensations and awarenesses, significance attribution and the construction of more comprehensive and more complex relationships, the child or student becomes aware of new dimensions in his concept of an adequate self. As he becomes more involved in physical and cultural values his satisfactions become more complex. If a woman feels hungry, she does not simply go ahead and eat in order to satisfy this physiological need. The manner of satisfaction depends upon her perception of herself: it is this that determines *what, how much, and when* she eats.

Curiosity and the fact that he is developing cause the child to identify with adults and with his own idea of adulthood; at the same time however, he sees himself as a child lacking knowledge and abilities. He believes that he will be able to realise his adequate self at school, the place where people learn. This is the relatively vague and diffuse motivational state which urges the child to participate and to learn, and which rewards every small achievement with the sense of satisfaction that is so necessary for progress. When he recognises a word, spells a word correctly, knows the right answer to a question, gains full marks in a test, he experiences a feeling of satisfaction, for he sees himself coming closer to his concept of an adequate self. Definite objectives and the experience of success are indispensable with regard to this feeling of satisfaction, the feeling that one has made sufficient progress towards the realisation of an adequate self.

Repeated and regular failures mean that the child experiences little or no satisfaction. In such cases the motivation to study the subject con-

cerned will dwindle and disappear, even if it was adequate at the outset. From the child's point of view, his study of the subject is not helping him to elevate his self-image. In order to maintain himself he will choose some other means of self-actualisation.

## 12.6 OBSTACLES TO VOLITIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Even though an individual may have attributed meaning to a particular goal, he might encounter obstacles that restrain him – completely or partially – from the volitional action required to realise it. There is a wide range of such obstacles, including cultural and religious norms, environmental limitations, family influences, biological handicaps and psychological experiences that thwart the will to attain the ideal. Practical examples abound, so that a single illustration will suffice. A child who loses his foot in an accident is no longer able to realise his ideal of becoming a champion sprinter. Because of the child's total personal involvement with his world he must attribute meaning to his possible goals in a responsible way. Some will be rejected, others will be restricted or modified. Although the dynamic ultimate objective remains orientation or belonging or adequate self (even if the content is adjusted), and this objective retains its valence, the way towards it may be altered to suit the circumstances.

To anyone, including the child, a negative self-concept constitutes the greatest single obstacle to the realisation of a goal. It thwarts motivation.

## 12.7 SUMMARY

The human problem of volition has remained unchanged through the ages, viz. a struggle between what man is and what he surmises that he can or ought to be. The goals that are beacons on the way must be understood, as well as the implications of actions towards realising these goals. *The necessary psychic vitality is obtained from the individual's responsible attribution of meaning to goals, both immediate and remote, and to the relevant volitional acts.* This driving force or motivation is reflected by the quality of his involvement. Since he has to find his own way to an adequate self, only total psychic involvement will indicate motivation and prompt, impede or direct action. Educational help will assist the child in understanding his goals, modifying them and attempting more effective behaviour.

## 12.8 EDUCATIONAL FACTORS RELATED TO MOTIVATION

As we have indicated, motivational states develop hand-in-hand with the child's development and his growing curiosity about and involvement in his experiences of previous and new situations, and his attribution of significance to these. There are thus a number of factors which are related to and which exercise an influence upon the motivational state or situation. *The activation of a person's motivational state to heightened functioning with a view to achieving an aim or aims – whether this is done by himself or by another person – is called motivation.*

An alteration of a person's motivational state (by himself or under the influence of some other person) will be effective only if he is able to see both himself-in-the-world and his adequate self as potentially different from what they are at present. Factors that may exercise an influence in this connection include the following:

### 12.8.1 Interest

A person cannot take an interest in things if he knows nothing about them. The small child attributes significance to the things around him in terms of his own needs. But this senso-pathic significance attribution is transferred to other levels for the will to know, to understand and to be able to do things is inborn. Thus life space or the world that is meaningful for him expands. This expansion means that he pays attention to and takes an interest in an everwidening range of things. Interest is directly related to what the person can do and what he has already learned.

Interest has a personal-subjective character and is therefore related to values. A person can never be indifferent to a matter or an object in which he is interested. Interest implies a deliberate direction of attention, and is therefore a completely voluntary attitude. The more interested I am in any subject, the more alert I will be in connection with it and the more I will remember about it. Interest means that I will notice only a limited portion of all the data present in any given situation. Because there is this connection between interest and advertency Kuypers' (1963, p. 86) remark on the latter is equally true of interest: "(wij) hebben in de opmerkzaamheid te doen met een daad van het ik". Interest is extremely important with regard to motivation, because the direction of a person's interests determines the nature of his adequate self. And the intensity of the interest indicates the urgency of his need for self-actualisation in that particular direction.

Empirical studies (Jersild and *Tasch*, 1949) (Sawrey & Telford, 1968,

p. 307) indicate a high positive correlation between interest in school subjects and achievement in those subjects. Of course interaction is involved here, because a high level of achievement in a subject tends to increase one's interest in it. The experience of success elevates the self-concept and indicates that it will be possible to realise an adequate self in the field concerned.

### **12.8.2 Co-operation and competition**

The child can meet the demands of society only in co-existence with other people. Reactive education (Brandenburg, 1970) and the guidance provided by adults must proceed in a spirit of participation. Democratic co-operation between teacher and pupils in the classroom is conducive to successful learning.

By co-operating with a few people, the child can complete a greater number of tasks more easily than would otherwise be possible. If a good spirit of co-operation exists the pupil feels encouraged to make his own contribution and therefore studies harder and with more inspiration.

By competition we mean both individual self-competition and general mutual competition among the pupils. A certain amount of strain and competition have a motivating effect if the possibility of success is within the reach of all participants. An even balance between competition and co-operation seems to provide the most effective motive activation.

### **12.8.3 The role of success**

If a pupil has a clear concept of his adequate self and is applying himself to his work, success provides him with additional motivation, for it represents the fulfilment of his expectations and convinces him that he really has acquired knowledge – a conviction which in itself enhances his self-concept. Success gives the pupil a feeling of personal achievement: he feels that he has a securer hold on reality, that his horizons have expanded, and that his expectations as regards his adequate self are being fulfilled. Kurt Lewin (1944) showed that the aspiration level rises after every success and that definite hinderances tend to disappear as the test subject gains confidence in his own powers and abilities. Cronbach (1954) found that the more intense feeling associated with success, the greater the subsequent rise in the level of aspiration. Sears (1940) was able to show that children who had experienced success in a particular subject and who had thus gained confidence, set themselves

higher, though not unrealistic, aims in respect of that subject than they did in respect of subjects in which they had been less successful. Once their aspirations had been raised (altered) their self-concepts were also revised, for aspirations are closely related to the self-concept and any alteration means that the person feels nearer to or farther from the adequate self. A reasonable measure of success is always necessary if interest is to be maintained and involvement ensured. Cronbach (1954, p. 423) says: "Success leads to heightened interest and effort." When success reflects learning competence, therefore, the motive for learning is reinforced. Coopersmith's (1967) penetrating study of self-esteem revealed that academic success was one of the factors that raise people's self-esteem.

#### **12.8.4 Cultural and family influence on motivation**

The motivation towards learning, as revealed by the percentage of pupils who go on to complete a university or college course, differs considerably from one cultural group to another. There are also motivational differences among the sub-cultures distinguished from one another by differences in status. Gordon (1958) found among other things, that an aversion to school attendance was more common among lower-class than middle-class children.

Social and religious influences reach the child mainly through the medium of the family. The child's eventual achievements and the educational level he reaches correspond very largely with the expectations of the parents. Encouragement in the home is a necessary condition for continued study. Halsey (1961) investigated learning motivation in two groups of students. The test subjects came from the same community, had comparable intellectual capacities, and similar financial resources. One group consisted of university students and the other of young people who had not undertaken university studies. The difference in motivation was ascribed to the encouragement given by the parents of the university students. Children sometimes rely too heavily on parental encouragement for motivation towards study. Teahan (1963) (Sawrey & Telford, 1968, p. 299) found that this excessive dependence can lead to failure or under-achievement at the university level. In such cases extrinsic motivation has not been converted to intrinsic motivation.

#### **12.8.5 The teacher and motivation**

The teacher takes the lead in many of the events that occur in the edu-

educational situation. He can therefore exercise a tremendous influence on the motivation of the pupil, i.e. on his will and willingness to learn. The following aspects merit attention:

### 12.8.5.1 Aim

By an aim we mean a clear cognitive awareness of what is being sought. In the process of learning it is difficult, indeed almost impossible, for the pupil to imbue remote aims with immediate content. Vague aims therefore cannot activate him towards the realisation of his adequate self.

The teacher should help the child by formulating aims – both immediate and remote – which hold significance for him and which relate to the realisation of his adequate self. Klausmeier and Goodwin (1966, p. 441) refer to studies which resulted in the following conclusions regarding aims and motivation:

- (a) a learning task may be so difficult that the pupil cannot set himself a realistic goal for the achievement of success;
- (b) a learning task may be so easy that success requires very little effort and thus has no motivational effect;
- (c) children who trust their teachers and who have secure points of reference set themselves realistic goals with regard to exploration and significance attribution. They also show more perseverance in trying to reach these goals;
- (d) low aims are often associated with a deep-seated need to avoid failure;
- (e) people who are very unsure of themselves experience a feeling of success if they formulate goals that can never be reached;
- (f) the class group influences the aims of the individual.

Since the achievement of aims represents successful learning as far as the individual is concerned, and thus points the way to his adequate self, the teacher can offer valuable support in this regard.

### 12.8.5.2 The atmosphere in the class

Purkey, (1970, p. 50) mentions the following six factors as conducive to a classroom atmosphere that will tend to elevate the self-image and thus to heighten motivation:

- (a) *Challenge*. Any challenge should be realistic, and should be issued only when there is a reasonable chance of success;
- (b) *Freedom*. Self-respect can hardly develop in an atmosphere in which freedom of choice is lacking. Freedom of choice should be per-

- mitted in an atmosphere free from threats and anxiety;
- (c) *Respect*. The pupil or student should be treated as a person, and with respect. "Whenever we treat a student with respect, we add to his self-respect, and whenever we embarrass or humiliate him, we are likely to build disrespect in him both for himself and for others" (p. 52);
  - (d) *Warmth*. A learning situation in which the learner experiences psychological safety and security is conducive to the elevation of the self-concept;
  - (e) *Control or authority*. An educational situation which has clear educational boundaries favours heightened *Self-respect*. Permissiveness leads to a lowering of self-respect (Coopersmith, 1967);
  - (f) *Success*. The teacher can create situations in which the conscientious student can be successful. The ultimate goal of learning activities is an adequate self, and "People learn that they are able, not from failure but from success".

## 12.9 CONCLUSION

In every child the will to know is coupled with a will to learn. Through learning about things and attributing significance to them, the child creates his own life space. The will to learn is a necessary precondition for learning. We are therefore dealing with learning as a deliberate act. A learning motive is the driving force behind an act of learning. The motives for learning rest upon a sub-structure of more basic drives which may be described as their anthropological basic forms.

These basic forms are drives that are largely unconscious. Various motives may be distinguished from differing perspectives. In conformity with the view that man is a physical-psychic-spiritual being, we may regard the concept of self-maintenance and self-enhancement as a primary motive for the act of learning as well as other human actions.

Various factors influence and determine the student's motivational state. Some are wholly intrinsic and others are extrinsic; but the latter are effective only when the student himself makes them intrinsic.

The child will want to learn if he sees learning as a possible means of realising his adequate self. The adequate self has to be constructed, and this can be done only in an inter-personal world in which the person can identify himself with attitudes, ideals and values.

Effective learning always means a gradual increase in the child's capabilities and powers, an improvement which manifests itself in development. Through significance attribution based on learning, it becomes possible for the child to realise the ideal represented by his perceived adequate self.

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