CHAPTER VII

PERSONAL ACTUALIZATION DURING DIFFERENT PERIODS OF LIFE

1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous discussions and especially in Chapters II-IV, personal actualization is described categorically. That is, a description is given of personal actualization as it appears with all children and within all age groups and periods of life. For the aim of this study, and especially for the sake of the student teacher, it is necessary to refine and particularize the description of personal actualization as it appears over the entire range of becoming adult. For this reason, attention is given to a number of periods of life or "phases" through which a child moves on his way to adulthood. However, to avoid unnecessary repetition, each period of life is seen against the background of what has already been said about personal actualization. It has to be continually kept in mind that personal actualization takes place in terms of educative contents as well as the adult's guidance (education), on the one hand, and a child's own participation or self-actualization, on the other.

To acquire a more complete image, a child's progression to adulthood is divided longitudinally into a number of periods of life. However, these divisions should not be viewed as absolute. In the first place, age differences should not be viewed rigidly since not all children are in each phase at precisely the same age. In addition, these phases are not separate or independent. Also, the so-called "characteristics" of a particular phase are not precisely the same for all children. A variety of authors point out that although particular "characteristics" predominate in particular phases, this does not imply that everyone going through such a phase will show them. However, it also is true that persons of approximately the same age struggle with common problems and experiences; therefore, in each period of life, there is "homogeneity in heterogeneity" (Wiechers, 1977, p 50). Because of each child's uniqueness, there are large

individual differences in each of these periods. Consequently, the so-called "characteristics" manifested by a child should be seen as his behaviors resulting from the meaning he gives to his education. A child's behaviors are not merely his reactions to stimuli from his surroundings but rather they are his answering to or his attributing meaning to his education.

From this longitudinal view of a child's personal actualization, he is continually changing. Hence, the demands he places on his parents and teachers as educators also continually change. For this reason it is necessary to attend not only to his behaviors but also to the role of educating in each phase.

Because of each child's uniqueness, and since so many individual differences exist in each period of life, it is difficult to divide children into different phases or periods. However, considering that in school and the classroom children are related to collectively or in groups, such a classification into phases can lead to understanding them better and, therefore, it can be of particular value to the teacher. Also, there is not just one classification. Several authors have their own classifications and each establishes their own age limits to describe the different phases or periods.

For the purpose of further discussion, in this study personal actualization is divided into three broad phases, each of which has a number of sub-divisions:

*The preschool period
    **The baby or suckling: This period extends from birth until a child can walk, i.e., until approximately the end of the first year of life;
    **The toddler: This period is from approximately the end of the first to the third year of age;
    **The preschooler: This period stretches from approximately the third year until school entry.

*The primary school period:
    **The junior primary school child: This period is roughly from school entry until the end of standard I (third grade in the U.S.A.);

**The senior primary school child (puerile period) extends from standard II through standard V, i.e., from approximately nine to twelve years of age (or fourth through seventh grade).

*The secondary school period:

**Puberty and adolescence: This phase includes children between 12 and 18 years of age and in some cases can even extend to 22 years. The secondary school period is also known as adolescence and it includes puberty.

In light of the above, extreme caution should be exercised with any description of becoming adult based on divisions into periods or phases of life. The typical characteristics of each of these phases should not be seen as necessarily applicable to each individual child but rather as a manifestation of the ways he actualizes his potentialities.

2. THE PRESCHOOL PERIOD

2.1 The baby or suckling

A child's first year of life is widely known as the baby or suckling period and the latter refers mainly to the way he takes in his food. In Langeveld's terminology (1957, p 42), a child enters the world as a biological being. Initially the biological is in the foreground and it is the baby's physical development that is conspicuous. Rapid bodily growth, sensory development and movement are salient characteristics. During the first year of life, most babies also learn to smile, sit, crawl and even walk and say a few words. Viewed as a whole, fast development and the differentiation of physical potentialities are of great importance in this period. In this early stage of becoming adult, the baby cannot yet openly explore his world; he is mainly limited to his own body. His first interest is primarily directed to himself and from an early age he discovers and learns to know his own body. Although this learning occurs haphazardly in that he "plays" with his own body, it is very important for his becoming adult. Since his physical development is so prominent, most of the parent's intervention is directed to

feeding and physically caring for him. However, during this phase, the concern is not only with physical development since becoming is already taking place over the whole range of being a person.

Physical milestones such as sitting, crawling and walking are clear and concrete evidence of a child's progression toward adulthood. According to Sonnekus (1976, p 39) the baby's first smile is an important phase in his becoming adult. This first smile indicates that he has actualized his potentiality to make contact with someone else. In this way, he shows his strong need for bodily and emotional contact with others. In addition, when he begins to sit, he indicates that he has arrived at a very important period in his life because this gives him another perspective on his surroundings. When he is able to sit it is conspicuous that he looks around endlessly in order to attentively perceive his surroundings. Engelbrecht et al. (1982, p 46) indicate that a child who crawls experiences his world differently than the child who still is limited to his cradle. Initially, a child's world is limited to his "skin space", i.e., to what he immediately senses and perceives with his skin. In time this expands to a "grasping space" and "visual space". Some also conquer a "crawling space" or even a "walking space" in their first year of life. By achieving these physical milestones, a baby continually enlarges and expands his perspective on and grasp of the world and gradually progresses toward adulthood.

Certainly helplessness is a salient characteristic of a little baby. According to Langeveld (1957, p 42), he is more helpless than any other being. For him, the world is a "big, blooming, buzzing confusion" (James, 1890, p 488) of light, sound, color, movement, smell and taste within which he must gradually create order by giving sense and meaning. This helplessness directs an appeal to his parents to create, through loving care, a safe place for him that awakens in him feelings of being safe and secure. Also, a baby is completely dependent on his parents, and usually on his mother, for feeding and physical care. Hence, the first few weeks of life center mainly on establishing a satisfactory pattern of eating and sleeping. Thus, it is extremely important that a baby learns early to know regularity. This provides him with safety and security and in this way the first principle of discipline is also laid down (see Sonnekus, 1976, p 41).

Although a baby's physical care is very important, he is dependent on much more than this for his becoming adult. Equally as important as his need for food is his need for security. His mother's presence, her gentle voice, her protective arms, her warm body are as important to him as is food. A child who lacks these things feels rejected from the beginning. Or, in the words of Kuypers (no date, p 115): "Without the loving nearness of a caring mother, he feels like a little bird who has fallen out of the nest".

Thus, from the beginning, the involvement with a child is not only with feeding (voeding) but with educating (op-voeding). Nonetheless, it is true that just by providing for his physical needs, his primary need for safety also is met. Establishing a daily routine by deciding on the times he will be fed, go to bed, go to sleep, etc. also makes him feel secure. Loving care gives rise to mutual acceptance and to a relationship of trust between educator (parent) and child and, thus, to an unbreakable affective or emotional bond (Nel, 1970, p 97). This emotional bond arises from a child's trust that his needs will be provided for and this is the foundation for his entire personal actualization.

Despite the baby's or suckling's initial helplessness, there already are a number of tasks or skills he needs to master in his first year (see Engelbrecht et al., 1982, pp 46-47):

*He needs to be weaned and learn to eat solid foods;
*he needs to gain sensory-motor coordination, i.e., a coordination among his muscles and among the different parts of his body;
*he needs to learn to sit and stand erect, learn to crawl and in time to walk;
*he needs to learn to control bodily excretions;
*he needs to build up an emotional relationship with family members and other persons;
*he needs to acquire language.

In summary, the baby or suckling period is characterized by fast physical growth and the related motor development (sitting,

crawling, walking) and by helplessness that is gradually overcome by establishing feelings of safety and security.

2.2 The toddler

This period of life extends from approximately the end of the first year to roughly the first half of the third year of life, i.e., from one to two-and-a-half years of age. The name toddler is very descriptive of this phase of life. As the name indicates, in his voyages of discovery, a child is continually toddling and this phase also is often described as the "terrible two's" because he leaves nothing alone. Physically a child is now much stronger and his motor development is so advanced that he begins to walk. This period also is widely known as the "period of learning to walk and talk" (see Sonnekus, 1976, p 42) and thus activity is also a salient characteristic.

A child's coordination as well as his motor and physical development change considerably and since he now handles things more easily, he increasingly directs himself to the world around him. Unlike the baby, he pays less attention to himself. This is a period of exploration in which he learns to know the things around him. Since he can walk everywhere, he can investigate a very expansive world with curiosity and abandon (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 48). At this point he enters a new phase of exploring his world because he now walks upright. He begins to explore "distant" space and since he moves himself unaided, he explores a wider world that attracts him (Nel, 1968, p 176). His attention has shifted from himself to the world around him and, therefore, the toddler is well prepared to direct himself to the outer world.

Language is now acquired. This is probably one of the most important milestones in the course of a child's becoming. Now he can name things and communicate with others. Language is a system of sounds as well as of symbols. The discovery of the symbolic value of language, relating objects and activities to the sounds of language, the realization that each thing has a name and the use of language allow the toddler to progress by leaps and bounds in his emotional, cognitive, social, religious life, in his play, etc. (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 49). The greatest worth of language is in its value for communicating. Language allows a child to

express his own feelings and thoughts and in this way to elicit responses from others. Thus, language basically is a means of discourse (Sonnekus, 1976, p 43). In the case of a young child, along with language child-questions arise, that often can drive his parents almost crazy. However, they are an important milestone and should be viewed as his tendency to want to know, discover and learn more. Although it can sometimes be tedious, his parents should try to answer these questions as meaningfully and correctly as possible (Sonnekus, 1976, p 45). Since acquiring language plays such an important role in a child's becoming adult, this matter will be returned to in more detail.

One of the toddler's most important activities is play. Through play he learns to know his own potentialities and the possibilities of his world. In accordance with his nature, the content of the toddler's play is social-emotional, senso-pathic, functional, imitative and formal (see Englebrecht et al., 1982, pp 49-50). With respect to the pre-school child, Vermeer distinguishes four forms of play, i.e., playful bodily movements, playfully handling objects, esthetic or constructive play and illusive or fantasy play.

Yet another phenomenon that arises during this period is that a child gradually becomes aware of his own individuality (Sonnekus, 1984, p 35). This is expressed in his wanting to do everything for himself. For example, he wants to feed and dress himself and in this way he learns particular activities and skills, increases his self-confidence and gradually becomes more independent.

Since a toddler is strongly directed to learning to know and thus actively explores his world, cognitive education largely acquires its flavor in this period. A child also learns to know the difference between "right" and "wrong" and consequently the normative and thus normative education come into the foreground (Sonnekus, 1984, p 35). However, the undertone of educating in the toddler period continues to be emotional (Sonnekus, 1976, p 46). He still is primarily an emotional child and therefore he has a need for and also presses his parents for protection.

2.3 The preschool child

Chronologically this period extends from approximately two and a half or three years of age to roughly six. It is the last phase before a child formally enters school and, therefore, it is viewed as a period of preparing and readying him for school entry. Without going into this any further, at this point it is noted that preparation for school takes its course from birth and extends across a child's entire school career. Even so, it clearly reaches its apex during the preschool period. Later, particular attention is given to school readiness and preparing a child for school.

Regarding a preschooler's physical development, his rate of growth slows down slightly but bodily relations change in that arms and legs become longer in relation to the rest of the body (Karmel and Karmel, 1984, p 232). Large muscles develop more during this period than fine muscles so a child becomes more dexterous in large movements than in fine coordination. This allows him to run, climb, jump, balance, push and shove (see Vrey, 1979, pp 72-73). Towards the end of this period, fine muscle coordination also is relatively differentiated.

A young preschooler's behaviors often are characterized as egocentric, selfish, stubborn and strong-headed. These phenomena can be attributed to his wanting to assert his own will and show his own identity. He is inclined to appropriate someone else's property for himself while not being willing to share his property with others. Also stubbornness appears in most preschoolers between the ages of four and six. This phenomenon should not be viewed only in a negative light but rather as a symptom of a child's uncertainty and indecisiveness as well as of his transition to freely accept parental authority or their normative education (see Sonnekus, 1976, p 50). Thus, it is not necessarily the case that a child is unwilling to subordinate himself to his parents but that he does not yet grasp this. The less understanding and loving care he receives in this period the more insecure he feels and the longer his stubbornness will last (see Nel, 1968, p 182). Indeed, his stubbornness is evidence that he needs emotional support and guidance until he progresses (from mere docility) to true obedience (Sonnekus, 1976, p 50).

Here a child's play also occupies an important place and he plays with seriousness and abandon. Play is not games for him and it dominates his whole life. Play takes place against the background of the reality in which he lives and often he makes no distinction between play and reality. Through play he learns to know his own potentialities as well as the possibilities his world offers him. A preschooler engages mainly in constructive and fantasy play and although he is not yet always in a position to verbalize his feelings, he can express them in his play. In doing this, he alleviates his fears, anxiety and aggression. In his play, gradually he can maintain himself better in a group, although initially such a group exists as a number of individual children who are not a real group. This doing things by each other without doing things with each other also is prominent in their speech. In such a group, each preschooler "does his own thing" while carrying on a monologue in which he comments on what he is doing. From approximately four years of age, preschoolers begin to play more with each other (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 52).

Also, a preschooler's language develops on a higher level than a toddler's. A toddler's pronunciation and sentence construction often are poor. In contrast, a preschooler has a larger vocabulary and sentences are longer and more complex. With his greater language proficiency, a preschooler's thinking is on a higher level and is expressed in an almost continuous stream of questions. In this regard, there is a clear difference between a toddler and a preschooler. As far as a toddler is concerned, the questions he asks often are merely a way of practicing a newly acquired linguistic proficiency and he doesn't always really expect an answer. In contrast, a preschooler's questions reflect his yearning to know and learn and, therefore, they need to be handled with the necessary caution and answered as meaningfully and correctly as possible. He also increasingly enjoys listening to stories and is able to repeat them himself and his fantasies often arise in his narration. He also is disposed to tell horrible "lies" that, in reality, are nothing more than manifestations of his fantasies. By providing appropriate toys, books and answers to questions, parents can contribute significantly to their child's becoming.

Also, in the preschool years there is, for the first time, actual identity formation. In his play and language and, e.g., by putting on dad's shoes or mom's hat, he imitates their behaviors and thus identifies with them. By "trying on" different roles in this way, he is forming a clearly defined self-identity. The preschooler knows himself, his name, his gender, appearance, etc. He knows who he is even though he cannot yet clearly articulate this. The preschooler's identity formation is dynamic and through further identification, it continually changes (see Vrey, 1979, p 84).

Thus, the preschool stage is a dynamic period during which dramatic changes arise on all levels of a child's becoming adult. Although this is not a period of formal teaching, it is a period that puts high demands on and offers great challenges to the educator.

2.4 Acquiring language during the preschool period

An important reason for a newborn baby's helplessness is his inability to communicate properly. He is unable to convey his thoughts and needs to others, and he also is not able to understand someone's words and gestures. Thus, language acquisition, and more explicitly the acquisition of speech, is an important milestone in a child's life that considerably promotes his personal actualization.

2.4.1 The difference between language and speech

The concepts "language" and "speech" often are used as synonyms and in everyday discourse there seldom is any distinction made between them. Even in the literature the difference is not always indicated.

According to Hurlock (1978, p 162), language includes all forms of communication that can be used to convey meaning to another (e.g., writing, talking, gesturing, facial expressions, drawing, mimicking and art). In contrast, speech is a form of language where only articulated sounds or words are used to convey a particular meaning.

For Stander (1967, p 14), language is an enduring potential possessed by a person or nation while speech is the actual use of this potential. Through speech, language is transformed into a sound-structure by which a person can put into words what goes on in himself.

Kwant (1963, pp 53-56) says language has a historical development and its structure can be scientifically analyzed and clarified. Speech makes use of an existing language and, therefore, language should never be separated from the speaking person. When it is, language loses all meaning and it even stops being language. Apart from a speaking person, language is nothing more than dead, meaningless sounds.

Since language and the speaking person are so closely related, it is not strange that the concepts “language“ and “speech“ are used interchangeably, and that they always are involved in the same reality (Kwant, 1963, p 57).

Without going any further into this, for a child, language is a medium for communication, affectivity, expression, thinking, intelligence and development (Langeveld). Since language acquisition is closely related to so many facets of a child’s life, it is not surprising that it profoundly influences personal actualization.

2.4.2 Early forms of communication

Since learning to talk is a long and complicated course, before a child can really talk, he has to use a number of other forms of communication. If he did not do this, his helplessness would last even longer than it does.

A young child uses four primary forms of communication to make himself understood. These forms are crying, gesturing, expressing emotions, and babbling (Hurlock, 1978, p 163). Babbling is the most important of these because it is the basis for real speech later. Also, babbling is the only form that totally disappears when it changes into speech. The other three continue to exist although no longer as substitutes for but rather as supplements to speech.

*Crying

At first, crying is the only way a baby communicates with his world. By crying, he calls to his parents to relieve his hunger, pain, fatigue and other unpleasant bodily states and to attend to satisfying his needs. The pitch as well as the intensity of his cries can indicate specific needs. There are many ways in which a baby cries and some parents allege that they can distinguish among them. In fact, there is evidence that they can (Yussen and Santrock, 1978, p 265). However, crying can be easily misinterpreted and this can diminish its communicative value.

*Gesturing

According to Hurlock (1978, p 168) gesturing substitutes for or supplements speech. As a substitute, gestures take the place of words and thoughts that are conveyed to others by meaningful movements or gestures (for example, a child sticks his hands out when he wants to be picked up). As a supplement to speech, gestures stress or emphasize the meaning of the spoken word.

A baby's gestures usually are easily understood and thus are a satisfactory substitute for speech until he can communicate in words. As long as his vocabulary is inadequate he will use gestures to make his incomplete sentences meaningful. Consequently, the sentences of young children usually are a combination of words and gestures. Before a child enters primary school, his vocabulary ought to be large enough for him to make himself understood without using gestures.

*Expressing emotions

An additional form of early communication is the facial and bodily expression of emotions. Since babies have not yet learned to control their emotions, others can fairly easily interpret and infer how they feel about persons and situations. To a lesser degree, a baby also is able to interpret the feelings of others in the same way. For example, he is very quick to notice changes in his parents' facial expressions or tone of voice. As with gesturing, expressing emotions

is a useful and supplementary form of communication until he learns to talk.

*Babbling

Above and beyond crying, during the first months of life, a baby also utters clear sounds. These sounds, also known as babbling, are not learned and appear universally in babies, even the deaf (Hurlock, 1978, p 167). A child "discovers" his voice and initially uses it not so much as a way of communicating but as a way of "playing" with the sounds he is able to produce. Only when he realizes that a sound or a series of sounds can symbolize something does his discovery and development of language begin (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 135). Language is truly discovered only when he knows that sounds and things belong together (Langeveld).

Initially, this babbling is a way of practicing sounds that convey no meaning. Gradually, it multiplies and a greater variety of sounds are produced. Although unintelligible, still they enrich a child's wealth of sounds, combinations of sounds, rhythm, etc. that are the basis for his later speech. How much he babbles is greatly influenced by the amount of attention and encouragement he receives for doing it. The more attention a baby receives in this regard, the greater the variation of babbling sounds he learns. This is the foundation for speech and promotes and facilitates his later pronunciation of words. As soon as he begins to say words, babbling gradually decreases.

Although babbling is largely unintelligible to others, this does not mean that a babbler cannot understand others. Before he can speak, he already has at his disposal a passive vocabulary (see Vrey, 1979, p 138) that allows him to understand what others say. Gradually his understanding of language increases and his own babbling becomes more intelligible to others. Thus, a child learns a great deal about language before he says his first words. Everything he comes into contact with has meaning for him and then becomes linked with his naming persons, objects, events, etc. Initially, his speech begins with pronouncing a few words, but these words contain whole thoughts and refer to more comprehensive meanings. With a few words, a child expresses a "whole sentence" and the

meaning of what he wants to convey lies in his entire behavior, facial expressions and gestures. Indeed, here there are one-word sentences (see Vrey, 1979, p 139).

Gradually, a child's vocabulary increases. According to Engelbrecht et al. (1982, p 136), from 12 to 18 months, a child's vocabulary increases from approximately 10 to 250 words and the average child of five years has a vocabulary of roughly 2000 words. This leads him gradually to use more than one word at a time and he begins to form sentences. At first, the pronunciation of words and their ordering into sentences are weak. Later, his sentence construction improves and, along with his increased vocabulary, he forms more complex and intricate sentences.

Vrey (1979, p 141) indicates that in early language development words are not first learned separately and then joined together into sentences. According to him, from the beginning, it is usual that whole sentences are learned in relation to particular situations. The differentiation of a sentence into its constituent words occurs only after a great deal of experience. These whole sentences are viewed as a unity of meaning which indicates that language is a meaningful medium of communication for a child that makes educating him possible.

2.4.3 Factors that influence acquiring speech

Since the acquisition of language and particularly speech are important components of personal actualization, they are matters that command a great deal of interest. They especially attract attention because of the apparent ease with which a preschool child learns them in spite of their complexity. Because of this interest, there are a number of theories about how a child eventually learns to speak. Without going into these theories here, it is noted that acquiring language also is a matter of attributing meaning. From this perspective, there are a number of factors that greatly influence learning to speak (see Sonnekus, 1984, pp 39-40).

*Physical readiness

Before a child can speak, he must have the necessary physical equipment at his disposal. Although their particular role is not always precisely clear, certain areas of the brain (e.g., the areas of Van Broca and Wernicke) are highly related to learning to speak. At birth these areas are not yet fully functioning and it is only between 12 and 18 months that they are developed enough for speech to begin. At birth, the speech canal (wind pipes, mouth-cavity, etc.) is small and the tongue is large compared to the mouth-cavity. Also, initially, a child is not in full control of these organs of speech (see Hurlock, 1978, p 170). Although this speech equipment is extremely important, the acquisition of speech is much too complex a matter to be viewed merely as a process of physical maturation.

*Educating

Educating is perhaps the greatest single factor contributing to acquiring speech. At birth, a child has the potentiality to be able to speak one day. However, this potentiality has to be actualized gradually and it is here that educating plays a large role. A child cannot learn to speak if he is not spoken to. Research (see Hurlock, 1978, p 169 and Vrey, 1979, p 144) indicates that children who are often in the company of adults and who are encouraged by them learn to speak more quickly, have better pronunciation, talk more and express themselves better than children for whom this is not the case.

Parents primarily have a three-fold task in guiding their child to actualize his linguistic potentialities. First, they are responsible for creating the right climate for letting him feel at ease, encouraged and supported. By really listening, they allow him to feel important and this gives him the self-confidence to venture with his language. When this atmosphere makes a child feel anxious and tense, his acquisition of speech is seriously impeded. Thus, affective guidance is also indispensable for acquiring speech.

Second, parents should purposefully guide their child to learn words, name objects, correctly pronounce words and construct sentences. It also is important that they exemplify to him the correct use of language. However, in this regard, imitation alone is

insufficient and it is necessary that they educate their child in the use of language by their cognitive guidance.

Third, parents should educate their child to use language properly and elegantly and also especially to give sense and meaning to and by speech. Speech only comes to full growth if a child attributes the correct meaning to words and can himself convey to others via the spoken word his own experience of the meaning of things, matters, etc. Thus, normative-meaning giving guidance plays an important role in acquiring speech.

*Self-actualization

The role taken by a child himself in acquiring speech should not be underestimated. It is a child who has the potentiality to be able to speak, and he is the one who has to actualize it (self-actualization). This occurs by him attributing sense and meaning to language and especially by his parents' guidance in this connection. In acquiring speech, he uses all of his psychic life and learning potentialities to ultimately master his language.

Because there is a close connection among language, thinking, learning, feeling, intelligence, etc., a child's personal actualization is given tremendous impetus when he acquires speech.

2.5 School readiness in the preschool child

Since school entry is a particularly important milestone in the course of a child's becoming, school readiness is a matter that enjoys a great deal of attention during the toddler years. It is obvious that school readiness is a precondition to effectively engage in schooling and to be able to achieve optimally. This implies that a child should be school ready physically as well as psycho-spiritually, i.e., in his total involvement with reality.

For many years physical "maturity" has been overemphasized in determining a child's readiness for school. Its importance cannot be denied but it should not be the only criterion of school readiness. If his physical development has progressed adequately, he will be physically ready at school entry to try almost anything he sees

others do (see Pikunas, 1976, p 208). This implies that his gross and fine motor skills and eye-hand coordination, laterality and dominance, perception, spatial orientation, balance, etc. should be largely differentiated. In addition to all of his physical dexterity he also should be physically healthy since this is necessary for him to be able to intentionally direct himself to his schoolwork. There is a high correlation between school achievement and the physical condition of children during the first three years of school (see Nel, 1968, p 180). A child's physical condition codetermines his readiness and preparation for school not only at school entry but throughout his school career.

In addition, age often is a yardstick for school readiness. Thus, for example, a child is required to go to school at the beginning of the year in which he turns seven. This also is not necessarily a reliable yardstick. According to Engelbrecht et al. (1982, pp 57-58) a child has to first attain a particular level of readiness before he is able to successfully master one or another skills or ways of behaving. To try to bring home something to a child before he is ready for it noticeably hinders teaching because greater resistance is awakened in the child and thus more repetitions are necessary. The situation also becomes worse because of the tension built up in the adult as well as the child in the absence of the desired progress (see Engelbrecht et al., 1982, pp 57-58). Physical development often serves as a basis for this readiness but it really involves much more than mere physical "maturity".

School readiness implies an optimal readiness to begin to learn scholastic material and especially cultural skills such as reading, calculating, writing and spelling (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 58). To be able to learn these skills adequately requires that by school entry a child already is able to actualize his cognitive potentialities on a relatively high level. This implies that certain concepts already are part of his possessed experience. For example, he has to be able to analyze, classify, compare, order, evaluate and synthesize. His knowledge of language and ability to express himself needs to be qualitatively good and he has to possess basic number concepts and an understanding of time and space (see Le Roux, 1981). It is obvious that a child is expected to understand and carry out a teacher's instructions and assignments. Thus, he must be able to

maintain a measure of objectivity in his thinking, be able to understand elementary relationships, have a relatively reliable memory and be able to maintain a relatively intellectual pace (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, pp 58-59).

As mentioned, a young toddler is still very egotistical. Since educating and teaching in school take place in groups, the demand to be able to work together in groups is very prominent. Thus, school readiness requires that a child has reached a particular level of socialization where he is able to work together with others. He needs to be generous, share the teacher's attention with the rest of the class, take other children into consideration, wait his turn, etc. (Le Roux, 1981). A child who has difficulty working and playing together with others will not find it easy to effectively direct himself to learning tasks in school.

Also, a particular level of normative readiness is required for school entry. Acceptance of and respect for authority is a very important qualification that a child has to possess before he can turn to schooling (Sonnekus, 1976, p 59). Obedience and the acceptance of authority and discipline are preconditions for the orderly course of learning in school and, therefore, they also are important requirements for school readiness. Normative readiness, and the acceptance and imitation of what is proper imply that a child also is ready to actualize his potentialities, to become what he can and ought to be.

Against the above background, school readiness involves the total person and a child is educated to be school ready. Thus, it really refers to a level of becoming and not only to physical "maturity" or readiness (Crous, 1979, p 58). It also refers to the fact that a change has taken place in a child's attunement, i.e., in his directedness to the world. Where a preschool child primarily is directed to play, which also is a means of learning to know his world, a school beginner is attuned to knowing, knowledge or cognitive learning that also make formal teaching possible (Sonnekus, 1984, p 41). In addition, he has to be able to periodically leave his parental home, take a more objective attitude towards his parents, accept authority and discipline, show responsibility and obedience, consider other children, respect their property, etc. One could continue listing

such qualities that should be at a child's disposal for him to be considered as being ready for school. Lastly and definitely connected with all of the above, school readiness requires a high degree of emotional stability. This assumes that a child feels safe and secure and that he has a favorable self-concept and sufficient self-confidence. Through his parents' adequate emotional guidance, he acquires a favorable self-concept and emotional stability, and the self-confidence springing from this is one of the most precious assets that disposes him to venture on his school career in the right way (Olivier, 1976, p 87).

Although a complete discussion has not been given, the above provides a clear image of the demands that schooling places on a child and consequently indicates the qualities he should have at his disposal by the time he enters school.

The entire matter of school readiness would be incomplete if there were not brief reference to the preschool. However, the main aim of the preschool is not to make a child ready for school. As in the primary educative situation at home, the aim always is to educate a child to a proper involvement in his life world (see Sonnekus, 1976, p 62). Even so, it cannot be denied that the preschool contributes importantly to school readiness. According to Le Roux (1981), a child's potentialities should be the point of departure for teaching in the preschool. She divides these potentialities into five categories, i.e., bodily, social, cognitive, normative and affective. If a child is taught with the aim of adequately actualizing all of these potentialities, a toddler with normal intelligence and no deficiencies that can restrain his personal actualization ought to be ready for school by the age he enters school (see Le Roux, 1981).

In light of the above, school readiness is a matter of educating. Additionally, school readiness and making a child ready are not merely limited to the years preceding school entry. Since the school continually places higher demands on a child in all areas, this implies that he has to remain ready throughout his school career. School readiness, as a matter of educating (guiding) and adequate personal actualization, thus begins at birth and extends over the entire period of school attendance.

2.6 Personal actualization of the preschool child

As explained especially in Chapter III, personal actualization occurs by actualizing the psychic life and learning. It involves a child giving meaning to reality. Thus, when there is reference to a preschool child's personal actualization, this means that the level as well as the way in which he actualizes his psychic life and learning potentialities will be noted.

The tempo of a child's becoming is relatively faster during the first five or six years of life than at any later period and consequently it extends over a very broad area. However, it would be impossible to fully take note of all nuances of becoming adult during this period and each of the other periods of life; therefore, only some of the more important aspects are referred to.

The psychic life of a preschool child is still actualized mostly on an emotional level. For a baby, this actualization occurs mostly on a sensopathic level and gradually proceeds to the more pathic level of a toddler. Indeed, the preschool child already explores his world in a very cognitive or knowing way and also normative lived-experiences arise during the preschool years. However, these cognitive and normative orientations are strongly supported by his emotional lived-experiences. His knowing and normative lived-experiences are thus still emotionally and subjectively colored. Therefore, during this period, he is largely dependent on his parents for emotional support. Indeed, Olivier (1981, p 83) points out that he is not yet able to distance himself from his parents and to attribute meaning to them on an emotionally distanced level.

Consequently, as far as a preschool child's learning is concerned, it is still emotionally saturated. All of the modes of learning appear to a greater or lesser degree in this period but for the most part on an emotional and concrete level. Because of the emotional nature of sensing, it is clearly in the foreground. His wondering can easily be stimulated but because of his impulsive emotional life, his sensing can easily become labilized. Also, attending is very much supported by a child's emotionality and it has been found that a preschooler has an attention span of from seven to twenty minutes depending on his degree of maturity and the complexity of what he is involved

with (see Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 219). Regarding perceiving, a preschooler is predominantly inclined to globalize although he already is strongly attuned to analyze. However, synthesizing and establishing relationships are still difficult. Thinking arises when a problem is encountered. From the many questions that a child asks, it is clear that he already is thinking in his involvement with his world. However, the course of his thinking is still relatively concrete and is limited to particular objects and situations (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 225).

To acquire a better understanding of a child's cognitive development, it is necessary to attend to some of Piaget's pronouncements (see Piaget, 1950 and Piaget and Inhelder, 1969). According to him, intellectual or cognitive development occurs during two main periods that are divided into four stages or phases. These four phases of intellectual development are: the sensorimotor phase (from birth to two years); the preoperational phase (from two to six years); the phase of concrete operations (from six to 11 or 12 years) and the phase of formal operations (from 12 years and older). The first main period is known as the "Period of Sensorimotor Intelligence" and it covers the first phase. The second main period is known as the "Period of Conceptual Intelligence" and it includes the other three phases.

A preschool child functions mainly on the first two levels. During this period, thinking is largely dominated by sensorimotor activities, i.e., sensory perception and physical activities. Much emphasis is on sensory as well as motor development. Through this development, a child forms concepts by himself and discovers that he is detached from his physical surroundings. Gradually he also forms the concept of causality as well as of time and space. In the second phase, i.e., the preoperational, he already uses language and symbols in solving problems. This is especially evident in his fantasy play and egocentrism. He is not yet able to understand someone else's point of view and he also is unable to solve problems requiring an understanding of numbers or classifications (see Hurlock, 1978, p 355).

Against the above background, Vrey (1979, pp 74-75) lists the following "characteristics" of this phase:

* He is still mainly involved with his immediate surroundings;
* his thinking to a great extent still is coupled with activities;
* he probably thinks in images that are representations of specific persons, objects or situations;
* his thought is transductive, i.e., he thinks from one particular to another. He can not yet think inductively or especially deductively;
* his perceiving is extremely centered. Only one characteristic, little area or sound remains at the center of perceiving;
* because he has difficulty attending to one thing only, he cannot yet hold his own opinion;
* there is little direction or logical course to his thinking;
* his thinking is very animistic since lifeless objects easily becomes personified;
* in thinking, he cannot compare different relationships with each other.

Imagining and fantasizing play a very important role in the preschool child's learning, especially during the toddler period. These modes of learning allow him to direct himself to a world that doesn't really exist. He breaks through reality and enters an imaginative world of fantasy (see Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 226). In his fantasy play, a child often does not distinguish between play or fantasy and reality. He doesn't understand that persons and things have fixed identities. For example, he believes that if he has a cape he really can become a king or "Superman". According to Karmel (Karmel and Karmel, 1984, p 214), this is not an appropriate way for a child to orient himself to the world since "chairs are not automobiles, mud pies are not food, blankets are not royal robes". However, this is the basis for creativity and its value is in the fact that in this way a child establishes the genuine meaning of things in the world.

Remembering is also an important mode of learning in the course of the toddler's learning. As such, it refers to the mode of learning by

which the results of a preschooler's actualization of his psychic life are once again made present (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 229).

In summary, a preschool child's personal actualization occurs through his attributing sense and meaning to the contents of reality. Also of particular importance is that this attribution of meaning primarily is emotionally colored and is very concrete. In educating a child, this has to be thoroughly taken into account. This implies that he will not benefit if at too early a stage he is related to on a strictly cognitive or abstract level. Educating has to be clearly related to a child's needs and level of becoming.

3. THE PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILD

This is a period that extends from approximately six to 12 or 13 years. As the name indicates, during this time a child finds himself in the primary school. This is a relatively long period during which many things happen to him and thus large changes occur in his level of becoming. Also, there is a big difference between a school beginner and a seventh grader who is at the point of leaving the primary school. Thus, it is clear that something such as a typical primary school child does not exist. Since the time-span of this period is so great, it is necessary to further refine it and thus a distinction is made between the junior and the senior primary period.

3.1 The junior primary school child

The junior primary period stretches from the first to the third grade (in the U.S.A.). At school entry and especially during the first couple of years in school, the horizon of a child's life world expands enormously. In this period educating also acquires a new dimension in that now he is no longer dependent only on the primary (i.e., home) educative situation but he now enters the more formal secondary (i.e., school) educative situation. Although school has a more formal character, it is viewed as an extension and expansion of the primary educative situation encountered at home.

According to Van der Stoep (1973, p 24), teaching in school is an offshoot of educating at home. The school can only continue and complete what for many years has and is being done in the family household. Also the contents introduced at school are life contents in that these are encountered in a person's life world. For convenience, the school divides the life world into different areas of knowledge that then are introduced to children by a teacher in systematic and ordered ways in the form of school subjects (see Van der Stoep, 1973, p 11). Although the structure of the school is different from the family household, they both have the aim of a child's proper adulthood.

To attain proper adulthood, a child has to be educated so that eventually he is able to independently master the adult life world. Thus, in school, he has to learn the skills and proficiencies of the complex adult life world. Within this large and overarching educative goal, the main task of the primary school is to teach children to read, write and calculate, to expand their linguistic abilities, to provide basic Bible instruction [in South Africa] and to give them their first orientation to the human and natural sciences (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 56). Upon entering school, a child is in an entirely new and strange situation and the question is how does he manifest himself in it, what does his "equipment" look like and what "characteristics" does he show.

Again, readiness is a precondition for adequately linking up with and progressing in school. This implies a readiness across the whole range of being a person. The role of physical development and health in school readiness has already been indicated. During the primary school years, physical development continually plays an important role and there is further differentiation among physical potentialities.

According to Karmel (Karmel and Karmel, 1984, p 321), physical growth now occurs more slowly although it proceeds at a uniform rate. A junior primary school child gradually acquires better control of his body and since he is very active, he continually tests his physical potentialities to the limit. Since he grows more slowly, he has the opportunity to improve his coordination. By school entry, most children are able to ride bikes, jump rope, climb trees,

etc. Thus, a child's gross motor skills are greatly differentiated. Along with gross motor development there also is an improvement in controlling and coordinating finger and hand muscles as well as coordinating fine muscle control and vision (see Karmel and Karmel, 1984, p 328). Increases in height and weight are paired with the appearance of typical sex characteristics. With respect to behavior and body, a boy appears increasingly masculine and a girl increasingly feminine until secondary sex characteristics appear with the onset of puberty (Vrey, 1979, p 95).

As far as the school situation as such is concerned, it adds a new dimension to a child's educating since it now has a more formal character and the parent is replaced by a teacher. This requires a child to adopt a different attitude toward his educative situation. First, he has to accept and identify with his teachers. In reality, it often happens that teachers become idealized and identified with to such a degree that everything they say is considered to be always correct (see Sonnekus, 1976, p 63). Second, a child's directedness to the world changes. Where a preschool child is mainly directed at playing, a school beginner is attuned to knowing, knowledge or cognitive learning (Sonnekus, 1984, p 41) and he can even become impatient or dissatisfied if his expectations in this regard are not met quickly enough. This wanting to learn is the basis for the main activities of the junior primary period, i.e., to learn to read, write and calculate. During these first few years in school, the mastery of these basic skills and proficiencies is an aim in itself. It is only later that these activities become the means for learning more advanced material. Learning to read, write and calculate require that a child is emotionally stable because otherwise he will not be able to distance himself from concrete reality to the world of symbols. Although teaching these skills usually makes use of concrete visual examples, they demand that a child make abstractions and venture with symbols on a cognitive or knowing level (see Sonnekus, 1976, p 64). In addition to "subject teaching", the school fosters specific and concrete expectations of a child regarding his behavior, achievement, work relations, relationships, potential and progress. Indeed, a child is expected to identify himself with the teaching ideals (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 57). By way of summary, school entry requires that a child learn to work.

At school entry, a child's social horizon also is broadened because his first real peer group is formed in school. He has to work and play with the group and also he is continually compared with them. Individuality and sociality are continually interacting with each other in and out of the classroom (see Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 60). Usually a child will gladly join a group and it is very important for personal actualization that this goes well. The role of the peer group in the life of a child is considered in more detail later.

From the above it is clear that a great deal of change occurs in a child's life during the first few years in school. This implies that he continually is confronted with other demands in his educating and therefore its nature also changes gradually. Although emotional education remains the basis for adequate personal actualization, cognitive education becomes more important and it plays a continually increasing role in his life.

3.2 The senior primary school child

The senior primary period, also called the puerile period by some, extends from approximately nine to 12-13 years of age. The beginning years of learning to read, write and calculate now are behind a child and he can use these skills in his search for new knowledge. The school situation also changes in that during this period there is a move to subject teaching and changing classes. Also, homework and examinations become more prominent and he is expected to work alone in a more independent way.

Regarding physical development, strength and suppleness increase. A senior primary school child is full of life and very energetic and his play is characterized by movement and activity involving his entire body. Although in many respects the puerile phase is known as a boy phase (Latin: peur = a boy), bodily activity and motor skills are very important for both boys and girls. During this period, a girl often enters the so-called "tomboy" or rough and tumble phase and although seemingly boys and girls will have nothing to do with each other, there often is fierce competition between the two genders (Sonnekus, 1984, p 42). According to Nel (1968, p 199), a child experiences his physical strength and vitality more strongly than in any other period because physical growth and vitality reach

their peak in these years. He also indicates that the mortality rate is at its lowest point at approximately ten years. Additionally, as far as behavioral and other problems are concerned, children between eight and twelve years show the least amount of difficulties (Nel, 1968, p 201). Because of a puerile child's vitality, he is particularly active and enthusiastically learns all kinds of skills in sports. Activities such as bicycle riding, tree climbing and field trips are the order of the day.

Although a senior primary school child is still very dependent on his parents for his physical care, a great deal of independence is also noticed. Linked to this, his relationship to his world changes. Now he shows a more matter of fact attitude toward and relationship with his parents and teachers. He is strongly directed to business and is disposed to want to know and to investigate. His orientation to the cognitive intensifies and his total personal actualization is more attuned to knowing. Therefore, this phase also is known as a realistic phase and to an increasing degree, he encounters harsh reality (see Sonnekus, 1976, p 66). Along with this more matter of fact attitude, a greater degree of objectivity also arises and this now causes him to become more critically concerned about himself, his educators and reality in general. Where a junior primary school child is disposed to accept his teacher's word as law, a puerile child does not accept everything so readily. As a person, his teacher becomes less important and on the basis of his attunement to reality, he is directed to the essentials and to the objective factuality's of reality. From about nine years, a child clearly moves to realism and self-criticism. He becomes more dissatisfied with his own achievements and he also begins to view especially his scholastic achievements as an evaluation of himself (see Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 64). Homework is also a matter that increasingly comes into the foreground during this period. A child's interest, earnestness and responsibility regarding schoolwork and homework usually increase and it also is expected that he gradually manifest greater independence in these areas. According to Sonnekus (1976, p 67), as far as homework is concerned, this phase should be viewed as training or preparation for the secondary school. It is important that children do their homework regularly in order to learn an appropriate work disposition. His parents should

gradually withdraw from assisting with homework and as far as possible their child should carry out his assignments independently.

Certainly social development is one of the most conspicuous characteristics of a puerile child. As mentioned, his educating acquires a new dimension since it now begins to have a more formal character. This new dimension also concerns his socialization in that now he is expected to socialize with teachers and with children from his peer group. The decrease in a senior primary school child's dependence on his parents, especially because of his greater physical skill and ability to begin to care of himself, enables him to become more involved with children of his own age. The peer group is now a serious matter for him and joining such a group is of utmost importance. A peer group is an intimate, selected group of children and entry into such a group rests on mutual choice. According to Vrey (1979, pp 110-112), intelligence, family background, social class, appearance, physical dexterity, personality characteristics and sex role are some of the determinants of inclusion in the group. In a case where for one reason or another a child is not admitted into a group, this is an extremely painful and even traumatic experience for him; indeed, his personal actualization can become seriously damaged by this.

Initially, a child links up with children of the same age and gender. Later there also is a linking up with members of the opposite gender, first in groups and still later individually. His identification and socialization are viewed as extensions of his exploratory journey through his world. Where a younger child is directed to learning about his physical world, a puerile child is directed to exploring interpersonal relationships, first with his own gender and later also with the opposite gender. This gradually leads to greater self-understanding.

Forming a peer group should not be viewed only as a way in which a child keeps himself busy and happy. According to Mussen et al. (1969, p 573), the peer group gives a child an opportunity to learn how to establish relationships with age-mates, how to deal with adversity and domination, how to accept leaders and even how to lead others. The group also has a therapeutic function since it helps him deal with social problems. By conversing with other members

of his group, he learns that they have the same problems and feelings that he has. The group also helps him in forming his self-concept. The ways the group opposes him and the reasons why they accept or reject him gradually give him a clearer and more realistic image of himself (see Mussen et al., 1969, p 573).

At first, identification with the peer group is strongly gender bound. The two genders are now aware of and also move away from each other. During this period, they perhaps are farther apart from each other than at any other period of their becoming adult (see Sonnekus, 1976, p 66). With preschool children the two genders freely interact and the nature of their play might be more "masculine" or more "feminine". From about seven or eight years of age a child primarily mixes with gender mates. Now boys and girls chase and tease each other rather than play together. From nine to eleven years of age, interacting with the opposite gender is alarming (see Mussen et al., 1969, pp 576-577) and sometimes there even is mutual contempt and disdain (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 70).

As already noted, the senior primary school period often is known as a boy phase. A boy will detach himself as far as possible from his parents and especially from his mother. He is happiest among his peers and his relationship with his parents and other adults is much more matter-of-fact. He lives outside a great deal, forms gangs with their own rules, codes of behavior and symbols and they do not tolerate any meddling by parents, other adults and especially girls (see Sonnekus, 1984, p 42). Usually these gangs are harmless and they allow children to explore and have experiences in groups that would be difficult or impossible for an individual (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 69). Youth organizations such as the Scouts are now very popular because they satisfy his need for adventure. According to Sonnekus (see 1976, pp 68-69) these boys pay very little attention to themselves and often appear untidy and disheveled; shirts hang out, hair is unkempt, pant knees are worn out and they want to create the impression that they are tough. They like to exceed limits and consequently are often in difficulty. Because physical strength and achievement symbolize masculinity to them, they especially want to physically conquer the world (see Sonnekus, 1976, pp 68-69). Beets describes a boy in this stage as typically untidy who

“forgets“ or passes over his body to such an extent that he primarily is attuned to trying to physically conquer the world (see Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 262). For a boy of this age, encountering the opposite gender is a big problem. His interest in a girl discredits his being a boy, and he also dreads the ridicule of his peers in this regard. For this reason he feels very insecure in the presence of a girl. Still he sometimes tries to attract a girl’s attention by one or another peculiar or even childish behaviors. Often there are even mutual fantasies of being sweetheart and beau without each knowing it (Sonnekus, 1976, p 66).

As far as a girl is concerned, during this period, her personal actualization progresses more uniformly and tranquilly than that of a boy. She is disposed to be calm and turned within herself; also, in some cases signs of puberty already appear (See Sonnekus, 1976, p 71). The differences between boys and girls in the puerile period are clearly expressed in the following quotation: “Boys are attuned more to physical exploration, romping and measures of strength of all types. In addition, they are interested in typically masculine activities. They participate in gang activities and adventurous experiences and readily read such stories. Again, girls are more interested in authentic feminine activities and skills. They are more tranquil than boys and interpersonal relationships particularly interest them. They gossip freely. They choose to read stories about girls and especially those with themes of love“ (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 70).

3.3 Personal actualization of the primary school child

Even though this phase extends over almost nine years during which large and important changes appear, as far as personal actualization is concerned an attempt is made to treat this period as a unity. The reason is to try to show the gradual changes and elevations in a child’s level of becoming that occur.

Regarding a child’s own participation in his personal actualization, from an early age all facets of his psychic life and learning are involved. That is, from birth onward all modes of learning and all ways of actualization are in the service of personal actualization. However, the level on which these facets are actualized gradually

changes. It was indicated that a preschooler actualizes his psychic life for the most part on an emotional (senso-pathic and pathic) level. Together with the elevation in level of actualization that occurs, a change in emphasis also takes place. That is, a primary school child gradually progress from a more emotional to a more cognitive attunement or attitude toward his world. In other words, a junior primary school child's participation in his personal actualization is for the most part pathic-gnostic in nature while that of a senior primary school child is more gnostic-pathic (see Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, pp 241-242). As far as adult guidance during this phase is concerned, it also involves a greater emphasis on the cognitive as well as a gradually increasing stress on the normative. This is necessary in order to keep in step with the changing child.

Because by school entry a child is no longer so strongly attuned to play but now is more eager to learn and is directed to knowing, he has a strong realistic attunement and he wants to experience reality as what it is. Learning basic skills is very meaningful to him and he is full of wonder about the strange new world of the school. Along with his greater quest for objective knowledge, there is a move to teaching subjects in the primary school. He no longer accepts everything a teacher says. He now shows a more critical attitude and it is clear that he experiences reality more thoughtfully. Calculating mathematically, solving concrete problems, classifying, systematizing and schematizing are lived- experiences that are very meaningful to him. Even though a senior primary school child is not very focused on his own body, still reality is strongly experienced by means of it. Also group activities such as working and playing together are highly respected. In this regard, physical activities, socialization and competition are lived-experienced as meaningful and can contribute greatly to personal actualization. Thus, it is clear that changes during the primary school occur over a wide spectrum. Now, the psychic life is actualized primarily on a gnostic-pathic level (and less often on a senso-pathic and senso-gnostic level) and his attunement as well as his guidance are more cognitive. As far as contents during this period are concerned, they should continue to be concrete and he should have the opportunity to deal with them by means of physical activities and in groups.

Also, to an increasing degree, a primary school child actualizes his learning on a cognitive level. At first, especially with a junior primary school child, learning is still mostly emotional, pre-cognitive and very subjective. Gradually this becomes more cognitive but even then learning is still actualized for the most part on a concrete-visual level. Below attention is given to the actualization of the different modes of learning during this period (see Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, pp 241-268).

Because of the strong emotionality of a school beginner, his sensing can easily become labile and this can impede further learning. Thus, in this case, an atmosphere of safety and security is still necessary. As he becomes older and attains a greater distance from his emotional life, the stability of his sensing becomes less dependent on safety and security, although they always remain preconditions for effective learning. This implies that a senior primary school child's sensing will not so easily become labilized mainly because his feelings are already largely under cognitive control.

Attending is an extremely important mode of learning in the school situation. Where the attention span of a preschool child is relatively short, it is expected that a school beginner is able to attend for long periods of time. As an accompanying or sustaining mode of learning, adequate attending is a precondition for effective learning. Owing to its selective nature, a child is able to focus on one particular matter and in doing so to use all of his modes of learning to come to know it. According to Sonnekus (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 245) perhaps attending has the most important place in the course of learning of a junior primary school child. He indicates that the integration of the new contents with already existing possessed experience depends on the degree to which he is able to select such contents from the world around him by attending to them. In the case of a senior primary school child, attention span already is much longer and he more easily can proceed from sensing, via willing, to attending that is a sharpened intention (and willingness) to learn. In all cases, it is extremely difficult to focus on more than one object or matter at the same time. In this connection, a large difference between younger and older children

is that the younger ones are not yet able to shift their attention as quickly as can the older ones (Mussen et al., 1969, p 433).

Perceiving plays an extremely important role in a school beginner's learning. In addition to its prominent place in learning to read and write, a child also is strongly directed to things in the world around him. For a young child, perceiving is primarily global-identifying in nature but analyzing also occurs and to a lesser degree so does synthesizing. As he becomes older and increasingly directs himself to reality, perceiving becomes even more important. During this period, he is strongly attuned to reality and by perceiving he explores objective reality. Thus, in comparison with earlier years, these pupils are more strongly attuned to perceiving reality or the learning object as it appears to them (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 264).

During the primary school period, perceiving and thinking progressively function as a unity. Because of his realistic attunement and the rising cognitive demands of school, he is increasingly confronted with the problematic in his world. Consequently, thinking is continually actualized on higher levels during this period. Following Piaget's classification of intellectual development, a child from six to twelve is in the stage of concrete operations. The vague and fuzzy pre-conceptual thought of a preschool child now makes room for concrete and specific conceptual thought. This enables him to begin to think deductively which leads him to understanding reality better (see Hurlock, 1978, p 355). Now a child is able to think logically on condition that this thinking is focused on problems of a concrete nature. Near the end of this period he also is able to deal with more abstract problems (Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 265). Vrey (1979, pp 116-117) indicates that forming schemas or representational images by ordering and classifying is the most distinctive characteristic of logical operations. A child's concepts of causality (cause-effect), space, time, volume, speed, etc. gradually improve. Near the end of the primary school period, he is able to handle these concepts especially when used in concrete ways.

As a result of his strong attunement to reality, imagining and fantasizing play a less important role during the senior primary period. For a junior primary child, and especially during the first two grades, they still play a relatively important role. This is seen in a child's play (i.e., fantasy, make-believe), in the questions asked, in drawings and in the stories he tells. A senior primary school child is much more attuned to a concrete reality than to an "unreal" one. Although relatively less prominent, imagining and fantasizing continue to be important for the senior primary school child to learn adequately. For example, they play an important role in writing essays and in carrying out art assignments and other projects.

The importance of remembering also gradually increases during the primary school years. In the junior primary period, remembering is still at its beginning stage of actualization in the context of schooling and here "memory work" amounts to forming associations and drill-work. It is also during this period that a child's short-term and long-term memories largely settle in and his memory gradually improves. For a senior primary child, remembering is no longer supported only by drill-work because a higher degree of giving meaning is now required. In other words, remembering is no longer equated with memorizing as "memory work" since he now is required to assimilate the contents being taught and, by giving meaning to them, they are integrated into his existing possessed experience. Also, he has to be able to again make the contents present, i.e., to again lived-experience the past in the present (see Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 266).

From the above, a child's actualization of learning and, consequently, his personal actualization, gradually take place on increasingly higher levels. Thus, for a teacher to contribute effectively to his adequate personal actualization during the primary school years he needs to be thoroughly acquainted with the above insights. Not only is what a teacher presents important but so is the way it is presented.

4. THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILD

4.1 Puberty and adolescence

The secondary school period extends over approximately five years and it includes children from 12 or 13 years to 17 or 18 years. Puberty and adolescence are two concepts that generally are freely used to indicate this phase. This period is also viewed everywhere as a move from being a child to being an adult. However, it also is true that immediately after finishing his school career, a "child" is not always viewed as an adult. The theme "secondary school child" should be seen as a broad classification or category and for this reason it might sometimes be confusing. This is a very important phase in a child's becoming adult and therefore it will be looked at more closely.

The concepts "puberty" and "adolescence" have a number of meanings. Some authors hold the opinion that puberty precedes adolescence while others view adolescence as an overarching period that includes puberty. In some cases, they are even used as synonyms. However, there is a relative degree of agreement regarding "puberty". In general, it is viewed as a period of sexual maturation caused by biological growth and hormonal changes. In contrast, adolescence has a broader meaning and refers to more than sexual maturation. Indeed, it embraces the entire scope of personal actualization during this period.

Without considering the particular merits of any of these notions, Hurlock's (1973, p 3) view will suffice. She indicates that adolescence is an overarching period that points to all aspects of becoming adult during this last phase before adulthood. According to her, sexual maturation (puberty) is part of adolescence but the first half overlaps the end of the primary school period and the second half the beginning of adolescence. Also, a further refinement of this classification is worth mentioning (see Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 73 and Vrey, 1979, p 175):

* Early adolescence (12 to 15 years old). This period is characterized mainly by physical and sexual maturation and corresponds to puberty;

* middle adolescence (15 to 18 years). Now a child is involved in becoming independent from his parents and learning about heterosexual relationships;

* late adolescence (18 to 22 years). This period usually lasts until the youth has attained a relatively clear personal identity with his own system of values, social roles and life goals. Now he is able to function totally independently of his parents and to fully take his place in adult life.

From this classification it is clear that the period of adolescence is not limited to the secondary school child. With the onset of puberty, in many cases, adolescence begins during the primary school years and extends into the early twenties. In earlier civilizations and still currently in more "primitive" societies, sexual maturity is almost the only criterion for full-fledged adulthood. In the framework of Western Culture, the period of adolescence is extended because adult life is more complex and thus the demands for inclusion are so much greater. Within the cultural framework and highly developed technology of the West, it is clear that physical puberty only defines the lower limit of adolescence while the upper limit is determined by cultural demands (Vrey, 1979, p 176). Thus, the criteria for adulthood in Western Culture are much more than physical and sexual maturity. To illustrate the complex nature of the adult society that the adolescent eventually has to enter, reference is made to what Landman views as some of the essentials of adulthood. These essentials also are used as criteria for adulthood:

* Understanding the meaningfulness of existence
* Self judgment and self understanding
* Respect for human dignity
* Morally independent choosing and acting
* Responsibility
* Norm identification
* Outlook on life (philosophy of life)

With reference to the work of Ausubel and also that of Corey, Engelbrecht et al. (1982, pp 73-74) point to a number of

“developmental tasks“ an adolescent needs to complete on the way to adulthood:

* He has to become less dependent on parental consent;
* to a greater degree, he has to actively participate in his own aims and decisions;
* he has to persevere in striving for his goals;
* he has to be disposed to delay immediate hedonistic (pleasure seeking) gratification for the sake of long term goals;
* he has to increasingly show more initiative, care, independent actions, responsibility, self-criticism and respect for the demands of life and reality.

In addition

* He has to learn to accept his body;
* acquire an appropriate sex role;
* become increasingly more independent of adult domination;
* attain adult economic status; and
* appropriate a system of values for himself.

Papalia and Olds (1975, p 539) distinguish the following tasks confronting an adolescent (some duplication of the above):

* He has to discover his own identity;
* become independent of his parents;
* construct his own system of values;
* be able to establish interdependent friendships and loving relationships with adults.

This is a cursory overview of the comprehensive demands placed on an adolescent. The following discussion shows how through personal actualization an adolescent gradually masters or completes these tasks and thus fulfills the demands of adulthood.

As already mentioned, puberty arises in many cases toward the end of the primary school years and it is accompanied by a great deal of physical change. Except for the early years of childhood, a person does not grow faster than during this period. Although there are

large individual differences and no specific age limits can be established, still it seems that puberty begins at approximately 13 years for boys and a year or two earlier for girls. This period is introduced by accelerated growth in height in both boys and girls. However, the different limbs do not grow equally and even the left and right sides of the body do not grow at the same rate. Calon describes the appearance of boys and girls in puberty as tall and thin, long armed and legged, small chested, large handed, with clumsy feet and a face that is out of proportion (see Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 76). Together with the increase in height and weight, almost every part of the body undergoes some change. Also, internal organs such as the heart grow fast and all aspects of the reproductive organs increase in size (see Mussen et al., 1969, p 610). Gradually the rate of growth decreases so that by approximately 19 years girls are full-grown. Boys grow slower than girls but continue until about 22 years of age (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 76). Before the onset of puberty, boys and girls are of approximately the same size and strength but during puberty, and as a consequence of the secretion of testosterone, boys develop more muscle fiber and become stronger than girls (see Karmel and Karmel, 1984, p 429). Without going any further into this matter it is obvious that a child also lived-experiences his new body and how he attributes sense and meaning to it will determine the degree to which he will accept and assimilate these changes.

Even given all of a child's bodily changes, sexual maturation certainly is the main component of puberty. In general, this sexual maturation spans a period of approximately four years. The first four to six months of this period are known as pre-puberty. For both genders, but especially for girls, this is characterized by intense introspectiveness during which a child strongly lives from within and is very restless. Pre-puberty also is sometimes known as a "negative phase" or as the "calm before the storm" (Jackson, 1967, p 25). With respect to the phenomenon of puberty, Sonnekus (see 1976, p 72 and Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 270), following Rumke, makes a distinction between physical and psychic puberty: physical puberty is sexual maturation that is paired with the development of primary and secondary sex characteristics. Primary sex characteristics include the development of the sexual parts such as the functioning of the reproductive organs as well as breast

development and the onset of the menstrual cycle in girls. Secondary sex characteristics include hair growth on the face, chest, arms and legs, a crackling voice, skin problems, etc. (see Engelbrecht et al., 1982, pp 76-77). Physical puberty is especially connected with a boy becoming more masculine and a girl more feminine. By psychic puberty, Sonnekus means a child's erotic awakening by which is meant infatuation with or also psychic admiration of one gender for the other. This involves admiration of the handsome, the utterly beautiful, the pure and borders on fantasy where there is admiration and infatuation from a distance (see Sonnekus and Ferreira, 1987, p 270).

The course of the development of physical and psychic puberty is different for boys and girls. In both genders, these two forms of puberty initially are separate from each other. For girls, their admiration for the opposite gender is not sexually colored. A girl lived-experiences her sexual puberty entirely from within. In contrast, during this time boys are more sexually aware and their admiration for girls is also inclined to be sexual in nature (see Sonnekus, 1976, p 74).

Problems that arise as a consequence of entering puberty too early or too late are well known. In general, early maturation has a relatively positive effect on a boy while for a girl it can be more detrimental. Gradually all of the individual differences become smoothed over and towards the end of puberty, a child becomes more tranquil and stable. All of the changes mentioned give rise to a different relationship between the two genders and a child is now ready to enter adult interdependent heterosexual relationships. This matter is discussed more fully later.

In contrast to puberty, that mainly refers to the biological-physical, according to Wiechers (1977, p 61) adolescence is a psycho-socially differentiated period and comes to a close when an individual can actualize and maintain himself as an adult within his particular culture. To be able to maintain himself within a given society requires that he have at his disposal satisfactory knowledge of that society and thorough self-knowledge. This implies that an adolescent is confronted with the extremely important task of achieving his own identity. Since acquiring a self-concept was

discussed fully in Chapter IV, the following refers only to some of the main points in this connection.

Although acquiring a personal identity during the adolescent years is clearly in the foreground, it is a matter that began during early childhood. It is rooted in a child's first becoming aware of himself as an individual as this is manifested in his desire to begin doing things for himself.

Toward the end of the primary school years, a child has a relatively good idea of who he is, what his potentialities are and what he is capable of. However, entering puberty dramatically changes almost everything. In addition to all of the changes occurring in him, the demands that society places on him also change. Thus, he enters a new world that he scarcely understands with a new body he is still learning to know (see Papalia and Olds, 1975, pp 572-573). It is obvious that a child must once again find and establish for himself an identity or self-concept. Thus, once again, he has to obtain answers to questions such as: Who am I?, Who will I be?, Where am I going?

As already mentioned, adolescence is a period of transition from childhood to adulthood. An adolescent fluctuates between the world of a child and that of an adult. He seemingly rides a "seesaw" between being a child and being an adult (see Papalia and Olds, 1975, p 573). Consequently, acquiring his own identity is largely establishing himself as an adult. This requires, among other things, that the adolescent is able to make peace with his new body, identify with a particular sex role, discover what he has to be able to do, establish intimate relationships and build up his own system of values.

Since an adolescent gradually moves into an adult community, he has to establish himself within a group. However, he wants not only to be part of a group but also to be an individual. He wants to be someone himself. To this end, he gradually has to acquire a sex-role identity and an occupational identity (see Wiechers, 1977, p 67). According to Engelbrecht et al. (1982, pp 101 and 104), an adolescent first tries out a large number of roles and ideologies before his identity acquires a relative consistency. He seemingly is

groping among lifestyles and beliefs that he possibly will adopt. Ultimately, his own identity or self-concept is the result of everything he has learned and come to know about himself. An adolescent now for the most part knows who he is, where he comes from and what potentialities he can take into account for his future. Briefly, this comes down to the fact that he once again gives sense and meaning to himself in his new totality.

Also a child's relationships change considerably during adolescence. As his relationship with himself changes and he gradually establishes his own identity, this influences his relationships with his parents, other adults, his peer group and the opposite gender. Gradually he becomes involved with the world outside of his parental home and this brings about a new relationship with his parents. He now obtains a more realistic view of his parents because he no longer is overshadowed by them and more issues of equality arise. Subsequently, an adolescent yearns increasingly to make his own decisions, to be self-reliant and to be independent of his parents. This dawning emancipation reaches a high point during adolescence, and Vrey (1979, p 187) indicates that there are two sides to it. There is the adolescent's readiness to decide independently and to accept responsibility; in addition, there is the parents' readiness to allow him to do this. In this period during which he wants to become increasingly autonomous (independent) and to manifest his newly formed identity, it can be expected that differences will arise between him and his parents. Clothing, hairstyle, music listened to, how late he can stay out, and friends are a few things that can cause friction. However, in general, adolescents have a relatively good relationship with their parents, respect them and even want to be like them (see Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 89). Essentially, a child's emancipation from his parents is an aim of educating. Of course, in this context, his movement away from his parents has nothing to do with mutual rejection.

As an adolescent distances himself from his parents, his relationships with children of his own age become more important. The role that friends of the same gender begin to play from the end of the primary school years has already been indicated. Authentic friendships, both individual and group, are formed within which an adolescent has the opportunity to talk about matters that would be

difficult with his parents or other adults. The studies of Douvan and Adelson (1966) indicate that the nature of these friendships during adolescence gradually changes. For example, during early adolescence, friendship is mainly directed to jointly participating in activities. During middle adolescence, friendships are chosen for the sake of the security they offer. There especially is a need for a friend who is loyal and reliable. Fear of group rejection is highest during this period. During late adolescence, more emphasis is placed on a friend's personality and interests as well as on the quality of the relationship itself.

Since an adolescent wants so much to be accepted, he conforms to the group with clothing, hairstyle, customs, manner of speech, music listened to, etc. In his eagerness to conform and thus be accepted, he sometimes engages in practices that even he does not approve of (e.g., smoking and drinking). Adolescents often are ready to conform even though their actions conflict with the customs and wishes of their parents. However, a peer group gives them an opportunity to experiment with new social situations and to explore the adult life world (see Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 91). From the above it is inferred that peer group acceptance or rejection has a big influence on an adolescent's personal actualization.

Where initially a child was involved with and chose friends from members of the same gender, during adolescence he becomes aware of the opposite gender and this leads him to explore heterosexual relationships. At first the mingling of the two genders occurs in groups. In the beginning, individual mingling is very difficult and for both genders it is a big problem. Along with an erotic awakening, an admiration for the opposite gender arises but encounters occur "from a distance". When a closer relationship between a boy and a girl arises (usually between 14 and 15 years of age), such a relationship is maintained more by an erotic than by a sexual attractiveness. Relationships of a truly sexual nature during adolescence occur less than what is generally assumed. However, there are indications of an increasing tendency toward the sexual (see Karmel and Karmel, 1984, p 461 and Mussen et al., 1969, p 646). At this stage, a girl is mainly interested in a social relationship with a boy and it is based on a psychic admiration. A boy is inclined toward a mixed physical-psychic relationship. He

experiences this relationship much more tempestuously than a girl and the initiation of sexual intercourse is entirely possible from his side (Sonnekus, 1976, pp 74 and 82). In time, youths become more accomplished in the art of courtship and they become ready for a relationship that rests not only on the erotic but on adult love (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 93). It is obvious that successful heterosexual relationships are extremely important for an adolescent's adequate personal actualization and thus they even can contribute to the success of a future marriage.

Already during the primary school years, a child is strongly directed to reality. This continues during the secondary school years but now he is directed to question that reality. In general, a younger child easily accepts what his parents or adults present to him. In contrast, an adolescent no longer accepts everything. He gives himself the right to criticize everything that he views as incorrect and, therefore, some of the norms set by his parents and other adults come under critical scrutiny. He is very quick to point out any double standards although he is prone to overlook his own mistakes. It is not only norms and values that come under fire but, e.g., his parents' personality, clothing and behavior also often are judged harshly. In spite of his own critical attitude, the adolescent is extremely sensitive to criticism, especially with matters regarding his changing body. Although his critical attitude often leads to a confrontation with his parents and is often seen in a negative light, it really points to a search for, discovery of and even a testing of his own norms, i.e., those norms that eventually will give direction to his own adulthood (Sonnekus, 1976, p 43).

Often an adolescent's critical attitude is an attempt to disguise his own insecurity and lack of self-confidence. Along with his "new" body, changing social relationships and higher academic demands, the intensity of his emotional lived-experiences also increases. Where formerly they were more concrete, his emotions now are centered on the ethical, moral, esthetic, social, etc. In addition, religion now becomes particularly important in his life.
For example, there is a growing aware of and a need for God and faith (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 97), and he is also compelled to search for the sense and meaning of his own life. An unsympathetic handling of an adolescent's problems in this connection can lead to

his becoming completely alienated from his religion. Thus, even though, for the most part, he is on the highest emotional level (affectively stable), his emotional life is not as stable and uniform as it was in the primary school. Also his own feelings now are much more complex and not always clearly identifiable to himself. Thus, since in many areas, high demands are placed on him and he often is uncertain about how he should behave, emotional lability can easily arise.

Although the above are only a few of the most salient characteristics, it is clear that adolescence is a period of distinct problems. Many changes occur during this stage and touch every aspect of being a person. The demands placed on him from all facets of the adult world are high and very often put him under great stress. Because of the complexity of this period of life, it is clear that an educator also is confronted with high demands, difficult challenges and great responsibilities.

4.2 Personal actualization of the secondary school child

The secondary school child is in a period that is viewed everywhere as a transition from childhood to adulthood, and especially a senior secondary child is on the threshold of adulthood. This implies that he already has attained a relatively high level in his becoming and he resembles an adult in the ways he actualizes his learning and psychic life.

Regarding his own participation in his becoming adult, now he gradually actualizes his psychic life on the highest level. Also, during this period, clear gender differences arise with respect to actualizing the psychic life. During the junior primary phase, boys are still very much attuned to physically exploring and live very much outwardly. In contrast, girls are often already in puberty and the course of actualizing their psychic lives is more uniform and is turned within. However, both genders are relatively strongly attuned to reality and thus are cognitively oriented to it. That is, their involvement with reality is mainly cognitive and is attuned to reasoning and problem solving. Now the cognitive is actualized on a high level and thus in a more ordered way and a large degree of cognitive refinement occurs in the course of learning (see Sonnekus

and Ferreira, 1987, p 279). However, in some cases, because of puberty problems such as bodily changes and relationship difficulties at home as well as between the two genders, there is a propensity toward emotional lability that can interfere with the course of cognitive learning. The affective is actualized on a higher level and thus a greater degree of sensibility and sensitivity are present in a secondary school child. As he succeeds in accepting his new body as well as his other circumstances, there again arises a greater degree of stability and a higher degree of order in his psychic life. Toward the end of puberty, a new balance is reached between his affective and cognitive lived-experiences and they function in greater support of each other. A greater degree of tranquility sets in and an adolescent finds himself and is able to proceed in freedom and with responsibility to enter the life of an adult (Sonnekus, 1976, p 95).

With regard to the secondary school child's learning, it proceeds hand in hand with the previous description of the actualization of his psychic life during this period. Concerning the adequate actualization of the accompanying or sustaining modes of learning (sensing and attending), in general, there are no problems experienced with them. However, in some cases, especially on the basis of bodily lived-experiences, emotional lability arises that can restrain the further course of learning. Fortunately, this lability is usually temporary and near the end of puberty is no longer a real problem.

The cognitive modes of learning, especially perceiving and thinking, are attuned to reasoning and problem solving. With respect to remembering, Engelbrecht et al. (1982, p 83) indicate that by forming memory schemas, an adolescent is able to classify and organize information and thus to more quickly master difficult learning contents. Also, imagining and fantasizing once again have a prominent place among the modes of learning after being slightly in the background during the primary school years. Generally, a secondary school child questions many things, argues about them and gradually forms his own independent opinions. Also, he accepts fewer things as obvious and becomes much more aware of hidden problems within them. He also tries to clarify his own inner

world and on this journey of discovery he increasingly is better able to handle abstract concepts (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 80).

Following Piaget's classification of intellectual development, a secondary school child is in the stage of formal operations. Formal operations differ from concrete operations (as in the case of the primary school child) in that all potentialities are brought to bear to solve a problem (Hurlock, 1978, p 355). A child who can think in terms of formal operations can take into account all variables and their relationships in order to solve a problem (Karmel and Karmel, 1984, p 433). In contrast to a younger child, a secondary school child can function on an abstract level of thought. His quality of thinking has deepened and symbols and abstract concepts are used to solve problems. According to Wiechers (1977, p 82), in this period he broadens his grasp of reality since he can now be more objective about the outer world and he can better understand implications. He can now see meaningfully interconnected relationships and is able to understand how a simple phenomenon links up with the broader whole of reality. Characteristic of formal operational thought is the fact that a child can think in terms of abstract concepts and that he can differentiate between what is real and what is possible (Wiechers, 1977, p 80). By way of summary, there is a qualitative difference between a young child's concrete thought and an adolescent's ability to think abstractly. An adolescent can systematically explore all possible ways of solving a problem, he can state and test hypotheses, he can think about and even philosophize about other abstract ideas (Karmel and Karmel, 1984, p 439).

As mentioned, gender differences in actualizing the psychic life come to the fore during the secondary school phase. These differences are also observed in the development of thought and, thus, in the learning of boys and girls. In general, boys are better than girls in computational, technical and three-dimensional thinking while girls' verbal fluency and memory often surpass that of boys (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 81). The new level of thinking on which a secondary school child functions, and the differences between the two genders, have important implications for educating them. Indeed, it is clear that the school has an important task to perform and it can make a significant contribution to the

intellectual development of a child in this period of life. A study done in the U.S.A. (Engelbrecht et al., 1982, p 83) shows that a school climate that motivates pupils and makes them eager to learn promotes their cognitive development. Even so, the school's greatest contribution to intellectual becoming does not lie as much in what it does as in how it is done. This implies that educating in school not only is faced with a large teaching task but also with an extremely important task of curriculum development.

5. SUMMARY

As the title indicates, personal actualization is the central theme of this work. The preconditions for personal actualization, the ways it occurs through actualizing the psychic life and learning as well as the results of this actualization are thoroughly discussed in the previous chapters. It is clear that the ways a child gives sense and meaning to his education and to the world around him largely determine the ways his personal actualization takes place.

Because this is a textbook for student teachers, emphasis is placed on the phenomenon of learning and its implications for the practice of teaching. Also, a teacher's final aim is a child's adequate personal actualization. Therefore, he faces the task of designing and presenting his lessons such that a child can lived-experience the contents as meaningful.

Since, in school, teachers relate to children as unique individuals as well as in the context of classes and groups over a span of many years, knowledge of a child (and children) as he manifests himself in each period of life is indispensable for a teacher. Thus, in this last chapter, special attention is given to the ways personal actualization occurs in each period of life from infancy to adulthood. Only if a teacher has this knowledge at his disposal is he able to guide a child confidently so that he can lived-experience his schooling and educating as meaningful and thus, on this basis, his personal actualization can occur optimally.

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