

In search of talisman: the methodology

Chapter Four

THE METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES OF YEP

4.1 Introduction

A careful study of YEP indicates that authentic, transformational and holistic/multi-domain teaching are the main methodological approaches adopted in YEP. In this chapter, the three approaches and their concomitant teaching strategies will be identified and their relevance will be discussed. This discussion will provide the answer to the third question of the research study:

What methodological approaches are adopted in YEP?

The discussion will concentrate on:

- the authentic approach and teaching strategies;
- the transformational approach and teaching strategies; and
- holistic/multi-domain approach and teaching strategies.

4.2 Authentic approach and teaching strategies

An important methodological approach of YEP is the authentic approach. Hatcher (1998:122) defines authentic as “*that which is real, genuine, trustworthy, integral, solid, or devoid of artifice*”. Authenticity, in the context of YEP and in light of its theoretical principles, refers to three levels: the individual, the group, and the global.

At the individual level learners are accepted for who they are, irrespective of their differences and value systems of their classmates and their educators. This will allow them to feel secure and free to express themselves openly on various topics. If the learners realise that everyone is entitled to be different and will be accepted as they are, it is more probable that they will stop pretending and act naturally.

Moreover, authenticity at the individual level requires learners to accept themselves with all their weaknesses and strengths. Some degree of self-knowledge and courage is necessary. It is important to be honest with oneself, as the first step in changing undesirable behaviour is to acknowledge its existence.

For this reason, two of YEP's ground rules are:

- everyone is entitled to his or her own opinion; and
- open and honest expression of opinions.

These rules are intended to promote authenticity by both facilitators and learners.

At the group level, authentic learning demands respect and tolerance towards other people (Meier, 1998:615). This means learning about the lives and ways of life of other people in the groups and in the society. The YEP's strategy in this regard is to encourage the learners to investigate about the cultural and social background of their peers and discuss them within the small groups. Themes such as *Multi-culturalism* and *Unity in diversity* are intended to promote learning about other people and their diverse cultures.

At the global level, learners are expected to show reverence towards the bigger society, the human race and the world at large. Respect for oneness, unity, and regard for nature and environment are promoted by various themes such as *Oneness of Mankind*, *Unity in Diversity*, and *Care for the Environment*.

As far as authentic pedagogy is concerned, YEP makes use of real-life scenarios and daily life examples familiar to the learners. By way of these examples the learners are continuously encouraged to relate the theoretical principles and moral values to daily life issues. By abiding to the ground rules, learners are given the chance to practise being honest with themselves and with others. YEP also makes use of authentic learning, which requires individual learners to investigate the truth on their own, free from blind imitation. Moreover, learners are encouraged to find their own solutions and are given the freedom to choose for themselves the answers, which suit their needs. Thus their choices are respected unconditionally. As Watson and Ashton (1995:22) said:

Education is therefore about helping people to think and act responsibly for themselves, and to find self-fulfilment and a quality of life appropriate to their own particular gifts, opportunities and insights.

4.3 Transformational approach and teaching strategies

Transformation or change should be a part of the goals and objectives of any programme that intends to improve the behaviour of its target group. On this basis YEP has adopted a transformational approach. In turn, this requires adopting teaching and learning strategies that ensure effective change. In order to examine the relevance of the transformational strategies of YEP, it is appropriate to investigate the following aspects of change:

- characteristics of change;
- conditions of change;
- domains of change;
- the change process;
- levels of change; and
- the cycle of change.

4.3.1 Characteristics of change

- *Change starts with the individual:* Changing society is not possible without changing the individual members of the society (Askew & Carnell., 1998:97).
- *Change requires internal processing:* Change is an internal process, which happens within the individual. Personal choices can change only when “*people change internally*” (Plunkett, 1990:114). Therefore, external factors can only provide the motivation for change and not the change itself.
- *Change cannot be mandated:* Change cannot be imposed or legislated (Fullan, 1993:22); no one can change someone else. One’s ideas and behaviour will change “*when and only when s/he consciously decides*” (Hatcher, 1998:41). Therefore, the only thing which can be done is the creation of a favourable environment, where individuals can contemplate their attitudes and behaviour and, if motivated, make their own changes.
- *Everyone can change:* People have the capacity to change even though they differ in the degree of readiness for change. Hamlyn (1997:22) believes that, “*Inherent, but often dormant, in each and every one of us is a gift of creativity which allows us to overcome problems, invent new ways of doing things, challenge conventions and move forward no matter what the rate of change.*”

The study of characteristics of change shows that change is very much a personal process and depends heavily on the individual. For this reason externally enforced and imposed change, such as lecturing, is not likely to be effective. YEP avoided adopting strategies that prescribe what learners should think or do.

4.3.2 Conditions for change

There are conditions that need to be met if the individual is to be able to change. In order to change, the individual should:

- *be aware of “what” needs to be changed*: The first step is to identify the problem which needs a solution (Harvey & Brown, 1996:48). This is an essential prerequisite for change, as unless the need for change is acknowledged the process of change would not start (Moraka, 2001:63).
- *understand the reason “why”*: One needs to understand the reasons for change (Bertram, Fortheringham & Harley, 2000:181) and the desirable or undesirable consequences of one’s choices (Sarien, Khandewal & Sharma, 1992:8). Resistance to change decreases when the parties concerned have an understanding of why change is desirable.
- *have the necessary information and skills or “how”*: To exert change one needs awareness and “know-how” about the alternative options (Harvey & Brown, 1996:73). One who does not know how to change has no alternatives or options.
- *have the will and the motivation to change*: This requires that the individual has the will to initiate change.

Figure 4.1 illustrates the conditions of change. The dotted lines represent the fact that change to a new behaviour is conditional and is dependent on the presence of the four factors – Why, What, How, and Will (or motivation).

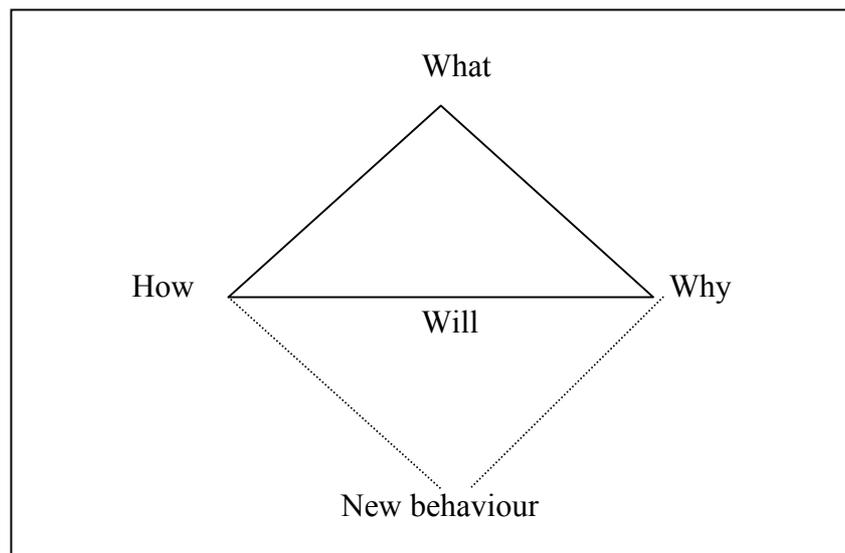


Figure 4.1 Conditions for change

YEP requires the learners to understand the reasons behind their actions, and to evaluate the pros and the cons of the choices they make.

4.3.3 Domains of change

Change needs to be motivated multi-dimensionally in the following ways:

- *rationally*: The process of change accelerates when learners are rationally convinced that change is necessary (Bertram *et al.*, 2000:181). They also need to know the consequence of their behaviour (Sarien *et al.*, 1992:7).
- *socially*: Change needs to be socially supported. Co-operation and support of peers and colleagues is of vital importance to the process of change (Harvey & Brown, 1996:73). The new behaviour is more likely to last if peers and friends support it.
- *morally*: Effective change requires acceptance of the values behind it (Bertram *et al.*, 2000:226; Askew & Carnell, 1998:2). Maiteny and Wade (1999:44) stress that change, especially in values and attitudes, requires change within the person at the level of feelings and emotions.
- *spiritually*: When the individual is spiritually inspired or deeply moved by a need for change the chances for change are stronger. Senge (in Fullan, 1993:28) believes that people learn something that matters to them deeply and find the change pleasant and rewarding.

The domains of motivation for change are presented in Figure 4.2.

The above discussion indicates that when change is motivated multi-dimensionally the possibility of effective change is greater.

In addition to asking questions, YEP uses other teaching strategies to motivate learners holistically. By suiting the learners' feelings via a receptive classroom atmosphere (emotional domain), creating a socially supportive milieu in the small groups (social domain), value awareness (moral domain), and rational understanding (cognitive

domain), YEP engages the whole person in the process of learning, thus maximising the motivation for change.

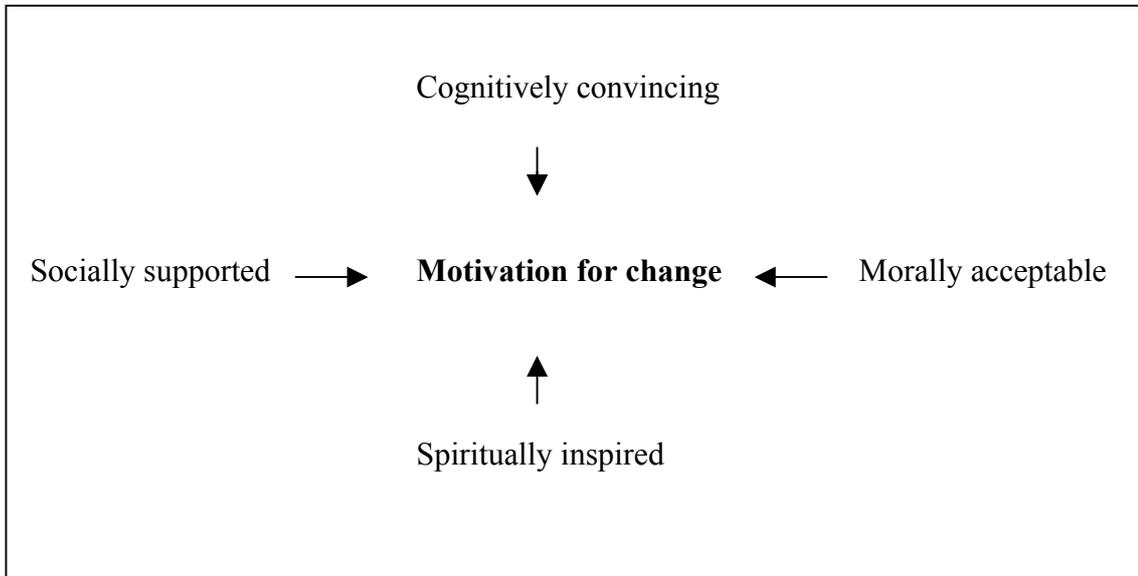


Figure 4.2 Domains of motivation

4.3.4 The change process

Change is a gradual process that happens over a period of time. Harvey and Brown (1996:156) believe that, “*In general the more gradual the change and the longer the time frame, the greater the chance of success.*” The implication of this is that one should not expect change to happen suddenly. Change is a process that should take its course. Moreover, change requires conscious effort and practice (Hopkins in Bertram *et al.*, 2000:180-181).

This implies that to affect permanent change it is necessary for the learners to practice over a period of time. The YEP curriculum is designed to cover at least a year, and concentrates on a fixed number of affective and cognitive skills.

4.3.5 Levels of change

Sarien *et al.* (1992:70) identify four levels of change:

- knowledge changes;
- attitudinal changes;
- behavioural changes; and
- group or organisational changes.

The first level has to do with information. The type of knowledge and information a person receives will to a great degree affect the attitude towards change. According to Sarien *et al.* (1992:70), the difference between knowledge structure and attitudinal structure is that attitudes are charged with emotions and that is why attitudes are often more difficult to change than knowledge. Ghadirian (1985:48) believes that “*learned attitudes become values, and the values guide decisions about behaviour*”. The implication of the two views is that attitudes are informed by information. If information were incorrect or inaccurate, it could lead to undesirable attitudes and behaviour.

According to the process explained above, for people to change their behaviour and attitude, they should first be exposed to correct, relevant and complete information. The new information would lead to a changed perception, and this would lead to a change in attitude, which in turn would lead to a change of behaviour (see Figure 4.3). According to Eagly & Chaiken (1993:666), behaviour is the last component in the process of the attitudinal change.

The above discussion shows that to change the attitudes and behaviour of learners, it is important that correct and sufficient information should be provided to them. YEP uses heterogeneous small groups to provide diverse learners with the opportunity to get first-hand information about each other’s lives and cultures, and to form perceptions and attitudes that are based on facts rather than assumptions. Such activities could correct misconceptions and even prevent blind judgments.

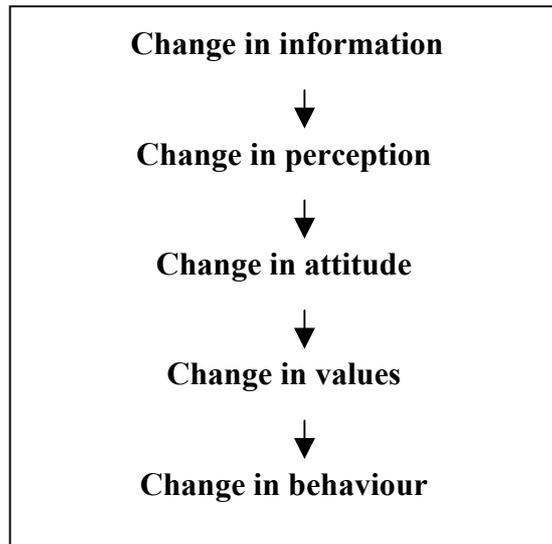


Figure 4.3 Levels of change

4.3.6 Cycle of change

Moving to the internal process of change, Askew and Carnell (1998:72), identify six stages in the cycle of change:

- reflection on one's experience;
- reflection on oneself as a learner and the context of the learning process;
- making learning explicit;
- action;
- applying the learning; and
- feedback.

Askew and Carnell (1998:3) believe that change requires constant engagement in the process of reflecting, learning and acting.

YEP offers a five-stage cycle to learners, which is similar to Askew and Carnell's cycle in some respects. Both cycles start with reflection and end with feedback or evaluation. The stages of change in the YEP cycle (see Figure 4.4) are:

- *reflection and identification of the problem*: The first step for behavioural change is the individual's awareness of the problem. Awareness comes about by reflection on one's behaviour to identify the problem behaviour or attitude. Without such awareness, there would be no case for change.
- *motivation for change*: The new learning should become personally significant to the person. The individual must have the will to start the process of change.
- *assessment of alternatives/behavioural options*: Once the person is committed to change, s/he needs to assess the alternatives. A person who does not know any alternative choices has no options to consider.
- *adoption and implementation of the new behaviour*: This requires having the competencies and the skills necessary for implementing the new behaviour. If the new behaviour is beyond the capacity of the individual, change may not happen even if motivation for change exists. The goal for change should be realistic and accessible.
- *evaluation*: Evaluation of the new behaviour can be done through inputs from others as well as personal observations. Evaluation provides an opportunity for the individual to identify areas that need further change; this takes the person back to the first step of the cycle, which is reflection.

Change is a complex and dynamic process that needs effective strategies and careful planning. Analysing the change strategies adopted by YEP, it became evident that YEP utilises a variety of strategies and levels of learning to motivate and accelerate the process of change. These strategies are further discussed in Chapter 5.

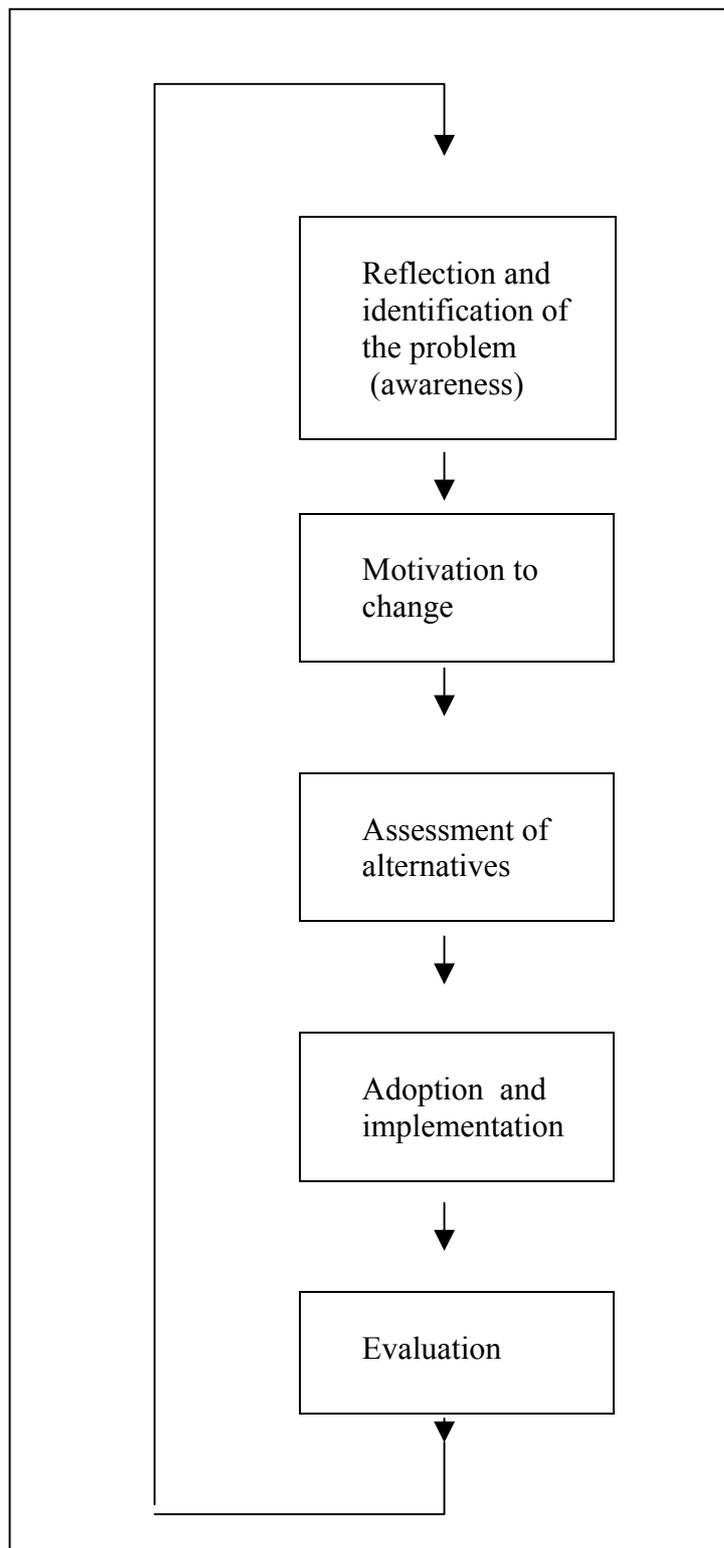


Figure 4.4 YEP cycle of change

4.4 Holistic/multi-domain approach and teaching strategies

4.4.1 Introduction

Another approach, which is equally important in YEP, is the holistic or multi-domain approach. YEP uses this to address the multiple needs of South African youth – that is, cognitive needs, social needs, and moral/spiritual needs. In turn, the holistic approach requires the adoption of multi-domain teaching strategies. According to this approach, all domains of development – spiritual, physical, social, moral, and intellectual domains – need to be addressed and developed in a balanced and holistic way.

In order to determine the relevance of the multi-domain teaching strategies of YEP, it is important to first investigate the characteristics and teaching strategies of each learning domain individually (except for the physical domain). Based on those findings, it will be possible to determine the principles of multi-domain teaching and their relevance to the teaching strategies adopted in YEP. Although the social, emotional, moral and spiritual domains are discussed separately in this chapter, in most cases in the literature they are combined and referred to as the affective domain. These sub-domains have been separated intentionally in this study in order to emphasise and demonstrate the importance of each for holistic learning and teaching.

4.4.2 Cognitive domain

Man is distinguished from animals by the virtue of his ability to think and reason. It is through thinking that man is able to solve problems, to invent and create new things, and to make discoveries.

4.4.2.1 characteristics

The cognitive domain can be distinguished from other domains in respect of the following characteristics:

- *linear and hierarchical nature*: One of the characteristics of cognitive learning is

its linear and hierarchical order. Bloom (1956) has categorised thinking skills into six hierarchical categories (Travers, Elliott & Kratochwill, 1993:238). Learning in each category depends on learning in the previous category:

- knowledge - recall of specific facts;
 - comprehension - understanding what is communicated;
 - application - generalisation and use of abstract information in concrete situations;
 - analysis - breakdown of a problem into subparts and detection of relationships among the parts;
 - synthesis - putting together parts to form a whole; and
 - evaluation - using criteria to make judgments.
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- *logical and systematic*: Another characteristic of cognitive learning is its logical nature (Miller, 2000:28). In cognitive thinking, there is an urge to look for logical explanations and a logical order of events. When trying to solve cognitive problems, learners usually look for cause-and-effect relationship and apply scientific methods in order to find reasonable explanations for events.
 - *factual and measurable*: Rational inquiry relies on facts and proofs. The harder the facts are, the more reliable the conclusions and results of the investigations. Data collected by cognitive means are usually measurable and can be subjected to evaluation.
 - *impersonal and objective*: The cognitive domain closely relates to the sciences. The sciences use impersonal and objective approaches to research and investigation. The Newtonian scientist is a detached observer of the world who conducts experiments on it (Zohar & Marshall, 2000:28). In the scientific realm, the opinions and feelings of the scientist not only have no place but also discredit its reliability.
 - *speed-related*: Since the relationship between cognitive skills is hierarchical, the achievement of objectives and skills can happen within an estimated time span.

The faster a learner moves from the lower cognitive skills to the higher skills, the better. The quest for speed is a characteristic of modern societies dominated by science and technology (Brunton, 1952:21). The quest for speed in turn encourages competition and comparison.

- *correct/definite answers*: Cognitive questions – mathematical problems and scientific questions – often require a “right” and definite answer (Miller, 2000:28). Information gathered by cognitive methods is usually accurate and precise (Zohar & Marshall, 2000:46).
- *competitive*: Being used to looking for a definite and specific answer motivates learners to compete for correct answers in the shortest amount of time (Miller, 2000:28).

4.4.2.2 goals of cognitive development

The development of independent thinking, problem solving, and critical thinking are among the goals of the cognitive domain.

4.4.2.3 teaching strategies

- *problem solving*: Real, hypothetical problems and open-ended problems are effective strategies for developing thinking skills. According to Behr (1990:91), the process of problem solving involves four steps:
 - identifying and understanding the problem,
 - search and exploration,
 - formulation of a plan or hypothesis, and
 - action.
- *Socratic questioning*: The Socratic method puts great emphasis on a thorough examination of statements and propositions. This method of questioning encourages various kinds of thinking skills including analysis, logical reasoning, and problem solving.

- *group discussions*: Small group discussions, co-operative learning groups, and dialogues have been shown to improve thinking skills (Haydon, 1997:142-3). They create an atmosphere for interactive thinking and reasoning.
- *reflection*: It will be to the advantage of learners if they are given time to reflect about questions or problems. This will give them a chance to think of alternative solutions and hypothesis (Lopez & Lopez, 1998:239).
- *lecturing*: Lecturing is probably the most common strategy used for the teaching of knowledge outcomes.

4.4.2.4 mode of operation

The mode of operation or the means of learning in the cognitive domain is rational thinking. It is as a result of the rational thinking that cognitive skills such as knowledge, analysis, evaluation, logical arguments, problem solving and debating take place.

4.4.3 Social domain

Human beings are social beings and it is natural for them to associate and communicate with one another.

4.4.3.1 characteristics

- *communication*: It is through verbal and non-verbal communication that people share their ideas, cultures, feelings and worlds. Communication is “*the basic human interaction process*” (Klopf, 1985:5) and “*a process of sharing experience till it becomes a common possession*” (Dewey, 1947:11). In fact, in Dewey’s opinion, language is a social device that is used to share ideas and feelings among people. Therefore, when people communicate, they communicate not only facts but also feelings and opinions.

- *interdependence*: In any social interaction the individuals involved depend on each other for support, feedback and attention. Through interdependence members enrich and complement each other. Pato (1997:109) said, “*We are meant to complement one another in order to be truly human*”.
- *interaction*: Any social activity is interactive in nature. Peer interaction provides for equal and reciprocal relationships among the members in the group (De Vries and Zan, 1994:53).
- *collaboration*: Successful social interaction depends on the degree of collaboration among the members of the group. Taking collaboration responsibly for a long period of time tends to bond the members of a group together.

4.4.3.2 objectives

The aim of the social domain is the development of social skills such as effective communication, interpersonal relationship, co-operation, team work and conflict management (Briggs & Martin, 1986:213).

4.4.3.3 teaching strategies

- *group work/co-operative learning groups*: In the process of co-operative learning, learners develop communication skills, along with sub-skills such as speaking, listening, consensus, taking turn, having respect for one another's point of view, and showing tolerance (Jules, 1992:193).
- *role-play*: Role-play creates an opportunity for learners to put themselves in the place of other people, to feel like them and act like them. It also helps with the development of empathy (Goleman, 1996:107).

4.4.3.4 mode of operation

The mode of operation and learning in the social domain is communication. Both verbal and non-verbal communication are used to understand other people and to make a connection with them.

4.4.4 Moral domain

The moral domain focuses on the principles, rules and ideas that are related to human relationships, and to how we deal with each other and with the world (Purpel, 1989:66).

4.4.4.1 characteristics

- *non-measurable*: Moral values and matters are not easy to measure and quantify. They are usually described subjectively as bad, good, right, wrong, and so on.
- *time-consuming*: It takes time to develop moral values. Similarly, it takes a long time to change morals once they have been formed.
- *personal and subjective*: Moral values are personal and subjective. Individuals seem to hold their own moral values, which could be very different from those values prevailing in society.
- *multi-component character*: A moral action is not just a simple moralistic function. Three components may be identified in a moral action – rational, moral, and social.
 - the rational component: For an individual to make a moral decision, s/he needs to be cognitively developed as well as have the necessary knowledge about moral issues. As far as cognitive development is concerned, adolescents are rationally able to engage in abstract thinking and participate in moral discussions (Garrod, 1992:179). However, being rationally capable of abstract thinking is not sufficient for moral decision-making. According to Kohlberg (in Garrod, 1992:11), a morally-educated person is one who reflects on a moral

problem, considers various alternatives and arrives at a decision on the basis of what is just and not on the basis of custom and law.

- the moral component: Moral decisions are also dependent on the individual's moral values. Values are the weight or worth people attach to a phenomenon (Briggs & Martin, 1986:78), or those qualities of character or virtues that the individual holds as important. Values and beliefs are very important, as they determine what people consider to be good, worthwhile and ethical (Moulder, 1991:12). Values and beliefs influence people's interpretations (Lubisi, Parker & Wedekind, 1998:105) and the choices they make in life.
- the social component: Moral decisions are made by individuals, but within a social context. Personal values and characters are shaped by interaction between the individual and members of society. Even though individuals have the freedom to choose and adhere to their own moral principles, they cannot ignore the social and moral norms of the groups and community of which they are members. *"Morality is the outcome of the organic relationship between individuals and social settings"* (Chazan, 1992:8). This factor becomes an important issue for adolescents, due to their need for attachment and belonging to a peer group. It is quite possible that a young person does not approve of the moral behaviour and standards of his peers, yet follows their "norms" because he/she feels the need to be part of that group.
- *controversial character of moral education*: As important as it may be, moral and spiritual education has been undermined by most schools in the name of respect for privacy (Brezinka, 1987:229). Some disagree with teaching morals in schools for fear of indoctrination. Indoctrination is *"any process, which leaves people accepting certain ideas, which they are incapable of subjecting to any rational assessment"* (Haydon, 1997:121).

Not teaching about moral values does not solve the problem of indoctrination. In fact, ignoring moral education may lead to what this study calls "negative indoctrination". Negative indoctrination implies that not teaching about morals sends the message to learners that moral education is not important enough to be included in the curriculum. Not teaching about moral and spiritual values, moreover, does not make the teaching

neutral but creates a moral gap that will be filled with unplanned moral or immoral messages from sources both inside and outside the school. This study is of the view that the omission of morals and spiritual development from the school curriculum causes a vacuum in the development of the learners for which no amount of academic learning can compensate.

It is also my view that teaching about moral values and spirituality on its own would not lead to indoctrination, but the way it is taught and presented might. If learners are not preached to but rather encouraged to become morally reflective, then the fear of indoctrination should be minimised. As Watson and Ashton (1995:16) said, the reasonable solution is to teach the learners how to reflect and think so that they can make independent moral judgments.

YEP disapproves of the imposition of values, and “unquestioned obedience” and conformity to these values (Woodbridge, 1990:528). It further argues that a teacher who is self-opinionated – even when he/she is not directly teaching moral values – would still pass on some moral lessons to the learners through his/her attitudes and teaching strategies (hidden curriculum). Teachers are not value-free; the way they teach reflects their values and beliefs (Wagner, 1980: 218). As Nodding (in Romanowski & Oldenski 1998:112) wrote, “...many will protest that they do not have a right to impose their values on students, but these same teachers enforce all sorts of rules – sensible and mindless equally – without questioning the values imposed.

Therefore, it can be concluded that indoctrination has to do with “how” one teaches rather than “what” one teaches. If the teacher, however, were democratic and used methods and attitudes, which exposed learners to a variety of moral options (Kohlberg in Garrod, 1992:30), and allowed them to explore and express themselves equally (Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1990:392) the possibility of indoctrination would be far less.

4.4.4.2 objectives

The purpose of moral education is to teach learners to make responsible moral decisions, considering their own interests as well as those of others.

4.4.4.3 *teaching strategies*

- *dilemmas*: Kohlberg (1969) introduced the use of dilemmas and scenarios in moral education. Moral dilemmas require learners to look at different moral alternatives and to weigh their pros and cons. In order to deal with the dilemmas, learners need to utilise critical moral reasoning to find their own solutions and reach their own conclusions.
- *Socratic questioning*: According to Socrates education is supposed to teach virtues. Socrates posed questions that led his students to a critical examination of moral issues (Power & Higgins, 1992: 229-230).
- *discussion and dialogue*: Haydon (1997:142-3) refers to discussion and dialogue as strategies for “*thinking with others*”. Giving and receiving reasons for one’s point of view and clarification of one’s stance on a moral issue are among skills that are likely to be used in a group discussion.
- *role-play*: During role-play learners are required to put themselves in other people’s shoes and to experience the feelings and thought of others. Jarrett (1991:52) believes that to understand one’s own feelings as well as other people’s feelings are extremely important for the development of morals.
- *modelling*: Sharing real-life or inspirational moral stories is another way of promoting moral learning (Garrod, 1992:28).
- *alternative points of view*: Hersh, Miller and Fielding (1980:11) believe that learning about alternative points of view is an essential step in developing a more advanced structure of moral reasoning.

4.4.4.4 mode of operation

The mode of operation in the moral domain is through analysing and assessing values and value judgments.

4.4.5 Emotional domain

Behr (1990:32) defines emotion as “*a state of being stirred up or aroused, and involves extensive visceral changes as well as feeling tones of varying degrees of pleasure or annoyance*”. According to Goleman (1996:4-5), feelings and emotions play a more important role in making decisions than do our thoughts.

4.4.5.1 characteristics

- *an important component of behaviour*: Every encounter, every action, every behaviour has an emotional aspect to it. We send out emotional signals to others in every encounter (Goleman, 1996:115). In turn, these emotional signals affect people and the way they react to us.
- *non-measurable*: Emotions are not measurable in terms of size and figures. The intensity of emotions is demonstrated in their strength or weakness (Briggs & Martin, 1986:104).
- *non-rational*: Feelings and emotions cannot be argued and analysed (Korthagen, 2001:235). However, once they are there they cannot be denied, as they are felt rather than proved.
- *motivating power*: Emotions can be a very powerful motivation for behaviour, at times even more powerful than rational thinking. “*People who cannot marshal some control over their emotional life fight inner battles that sabotage their ability for focused work and clear thought*” (Goleman 1996:36).

4.4.5.2 objectives

Emotional balance and appropriate control over one's emotions are the primary purpose of emotional development.

4.4.5.3 teaching strategies

- *reflection*: The first step in emotional learning is reflecting on one's emotions and feelings. Briggs & Martin, (1986:198) consider understanding of one's emotion to be an internal condition for emotional development.
- *self-awareness*: Self-awareness, self-expression and listening are important for emotional development (Goleman, 1996:259). This implies that learners should be able to identify their feelings, be able to talk about them, and listen to one another about their emotions.
- *modelling*: We model emotions and teach others around us how to show their emotions. Children and adolescents learn from adults' ways of expressing and controlling their emotions (Goleman 1996:114).
- *acceptance and affirmation*: Learners should feel accepted as persons by others (Korthagen, 2001:117). Acceptance, openness, and showing love and care promote emotional stability.
- *role-play*: Trying to see from another's perspective breaks down biased stereotypes (Goleman, 1996:285).

4.4.5.4 mode of operation

Emotions are defined and function through feelings (Batcher, 1981:5) and emotional thinking. Feelings such as happiness, anger, sadness and fear motivate action.

4.4.6 Spiritual domain

Spirit is not an entity but an animating energy (Miller, 2000:140). It is a loving energy that seeks love and gives love. It longs for union with other souls.

4.4.6.1 characteristics

Miller (2000) and Plunkett (1990) identified the following characteristics of the spiritual aspect of man:

- *intangible quality*: Spirit is not a thing that can be observed or analysed. It is an animating energy or process that motivates action. It is a transcendent quality that calls us to look upward to heaven (Miller, 2000:24).
- *beyond the rational*: The spiritual reality goes beyond the sensory and rational forms of knowledge (Miller, 2000:20). Because of this, it is difficult to prove or disprove. Spiritual inspirations are experienced and expressed in the form of intuition (Miller, 2000:122), creative impulses and even “gut feelings” or heartfelt experiences. “*The intellect cannot legitimately dismiss belief in the spiritual any more than the spiritual view can invalidate the rational*” (Plunkett, 1990:87).
- *private*: Spirituality is unique to the individual. It is often a private and personal experience (Plunkett, 1990:82).
- *beyond time and space*: The spiritual faculty connects us with a realm, which is transcendent and is beyond time and space (Plunkett, 1990:110; Miller 2000:24). The spiritual reality is transcendent in essence.
- *non-measurable*: Spiritual matters are not possible to measure, and no science is equipped to measure them (Zohar & Marshall, 2000:11). They are unpredictable and spontaneous (Plunkett, 1990:107).
- *holistic*: The spiritual domain seeks for healthy and holistic answers, whereas the

cognitive and rational domain seeks for the “right” answer. Unlike the cognitive, spirit does not approach life in a linear fashion; it approaches it in a holistic way, serving the whole being (Miller, 2000:28).

- *seeks love*: Miller believes that spirit seeks love. Moore (in Miller, 2000:35) claims that “*love releases us into the realm of divine imagination, where the soul is expected and reminded of its unearthly cravings and needs*”.

4.4.6.2 objectives

The goal of spiritual development is to develop individuals who are kind and caring, peace-loving, and well-wishers of mankind.

4.4.6.3 teaching strategies

- *soul-searching questions*: An effective way of promoting spirituality is asking questions which make people search for universal truth, love for fellow human beings and universal peace – questions that make learners reflect deeply and connect with their inner beings.
- *reflection and contemplation*: An important way of improving one’s spiritual domain is deep thinking, contemplation, and reflection on the purpose and meaning of life. Reflective practices in general are helpful in bringing the intuitive into consciousness, where it can be acted upon (Miller, 2000:123).
- *prayers and meditation*: Prayers and meditation create a calm and reflective atmosphere, where most people find themselves ready to concentrate and be mindful (Miller, 2000:50).
- *inspiring materials*: Reading from spiritual or spiritually-inspired sources – music, arts, quotations, poetry and other sources of inspiration that make the person to think more closely about life and its purpose – are another way to promote spiritual thinking.

- *service*: Service to fellow human beings and to the world of humanity is an effective way of instilling a sense of unity in people.

4.4.6.4 *mode of operation*

The spiritual domain seems to function through contemplation and reflection (Miller, 2000:29), inner consciousness and intuition.

4.4.7 **Summary**

A summary of the characteristics and specifications of the various domains is given in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1
Comparison of the cognitive, social, moral, emotional and spiritual domains

Domain	Objectives	Characteristics	Mode of Operation
Cognitive	Effective problem solving; critical thinking	Logical; competitive; impersonal; objective; quest for speed; definite; hierarchical; measurable	Thinking
Social	Effective communication; co-operation	Interactive; communicative; interdependent; co-operative	Communication
Moral	Responsible moral decision-making	Subjective; time-consuming; difficult to measure	Values
Emotional	Adequate control and expression of emotions	Non-rational; non-measurable; motivational	Feelings
Spiritual	Love and peace for humanity	Beyond rational; beyond time and space; non-measurable; private; holistic; seeks love	Contemplation; inner consciousness

Several deductions can be made about the various domains:

- **Each domain has its own characteristics.**

The difference between the domains in respect of characteristics is vast. For example, learning in the cognitive domain is linear, logical, definite, measurable and speed-related, while learning in the emotional domain is non-rational, non-measurable and needs time.

The differences between the various domains can further be summarised in terms of affective and cognitive domains. Table 4.2 compares the two categories of affective (social, moral, emotional, spiritual) and cognitive domains in terms of their specific learning characteristics.

Table 4.2
Comparative presentation of the characteristics of affective and cognitive domains

Learning in the Cognitive Domain	Learning in the Affective Domain (social, moral, emotional, spiritual)
Rational	Non-rational
Focuses on results	Focuses on process
Systematic/logical	Non-systematic
Seeks for speed	Requires time
Objective	Subjective
Factual	Opinions
Measurable	Difficult to measure
Competitive	Co-operative
Analytical	Holistic
Provable	Non-provable
Linear	Non-linear
Public/outer	Private/inner
One answer/solution	Several answers/solutions

- **Each domain has its own goals and learning outcomes.**

The above analysis also shows that each domain has its own goals. For example, the ultimate goal for development in the cognitive domain is to be able to solve problems effectively, while the goal for development in the social domain is efficient communication and teamwork. Moreover, study in each domain leads to a different field of speciality or discipline (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3
Comparison of domains in respect of field of specialty and discipline

Domain	Discipline
Cognitive	Sciences
Social	Social sciences
Moral	Ethics
Spiritual	Spirituality
Emotions	Psychology

- **Each domain has its own mode of operation.**

The nature of learning in different domains is not the same. Each domain functions and operates through its own mode or faculty. For example, to solve a problem one would use thinking and reasoning (the cognitive domain), to improve interpersonal relationships one would use communication (the social domain), and to develop spiritual qualities one would use contemplation and reflection (the spiritual domain).

Table 4.4 compares the domains in terms of differences in the mode of operation and learning outcomes.

Table 4.4
Comparison of domains in respect of mode of operation and learning outcomes

Domain	Mode of Operation	Learning Outcomes
Cognitive	Rational thinking	Effective problem solving; critical thinking
Social	Communication	Effective communication and co-operation
Moral	Values/beliefs	Responsible moral decisions
Emotional	Feelings/emotional thinking	Adequate control and expression of emotions
Spiritual	Contemplation	Love and care for humanity

- **Each domain has its own set of teaching strategies.**

Each domain has its own set of teaching strategies. (See the sections above for details.) The discussion on the learning domains so far has shown that even though learning happens in an integrated and holistic manner, learning in the different domains does not happen in a same way. It cannot be assumed that all domains are learned in the same way and can be taught in the same manner.

4.5 Relevance of the multi-domain teaching strategies of YEP

From the above discussion, the following principles on multi-domain teaching relevant to YEP teaching strategies can be deduced:

- **Teaching in different domains requires the adoption of different teaching strategies.**

The difference of domains in respect of characteristics, goals, and mode of operation necessitates the use of different teaching strategies. Thus the multi-domain approach requires the adoption of *differentiated* teaching strategies.

YEP has adopted four different teaching strategies to address the moral, cognitive, social, and spiritual outcomes.

- **Holistic/multi-domain teaching requires integration of multiple teaching strategies.**

Since each domain has its own teaching strategy, a multi-domain approach requires the integration of a variety of teaching strategies. YEP integrates four teaching strategies – reflection, questioning, group work, and reading.

In spite of different strategies and domains, there are *common* strategies that can address the outcomes of the most of the domains. In Table 4.5 domains are compared in respect of teaching strategies.

Table 4.5
Comparison of domains in respect of goals and teaching strategies

Domain	Goals	Teaching Strategies
Cognitive	Effective problem solving; critical thinking	Socratic questioning; problem solving; lecturing; discussion; reflection
Social	Effective communication; co-operation	Discussion; co-operative learning; role-play
Moral	Responsible moral decision-making	Socratic questioning; dilemmas; reflection; discussion; role-play
Emotional	Adequate control and expression of emotions	Reflection; self-awareness; affirmation; modeling; role-play
Spiritual	Love and peace for humanity	Reflection; meditation; soul-searching questions; inspiring materials; service

- **Common teaching strategies may be used across different domains.**

Table 4.5 shows that several teaching strategies are common across learning domains. In other words, learning domains overlap and complement one another. These common strategies are:

- reflection;
- questioning; and
- group work/discussion.

YEP uses these strategies to address its multi-domain outcomes.

Analysing the outcomes achieved by the common strategies in various domains, it becomes evident that the same strategy addresses different outcomes in the different domains. Table 4.6 displays the possible outcomes of the most common teaching strategies in different domains.

Table 4.6
Common teaching strategies and their possible outcomes in various domains

Teaching Strategy	Cognitive Outcome	Social Outcome	Emotional Outcome	Moral Outcome	Spiritual Outcome
Reflection	Solve problems	Social awareness	Identify emotions	Moral consciousness	Connect with inner self
Questioning	Analyse; evaluate; synthesise	Social consciousness	Emotional awareness	Moral judgment	Search for meaning
Group work; discussion	Collective solutions	Team work	Share feelings	Share values and beliefs	Develop caring

- **Common teaching strategies need to be prioritised in terms of the intended outcomes.**

Based on the above discussion, one can conclude that teaching strategies should be prioritised in respect of the outcomes that they serve. One needs to remember that different strategies are not equally effective for the achievement of various learning

outcomes. For example, reflection as a teaching/learning strategy is not as effective as small group discussion for the achievement of social outcomes, and small group work is not as effective as self-awareness for the achievement of emotional outcomes.

In YEP, questioning is used primarily to promote cognitive outcomes, small group work for social outcomes, dilemmas and moral questions for moral outcomes, and quotations for spiritual outcomes. Reflection is used as a gate, which can access all the domains.

- **Integration of multiple teaching strategies can strengthen learning.**

Each teaching strategy is able to address certain domains and fulfil limited learning outcomes. Therefore, it stands to reason that integrating multiple teaching strategies would engage more domains and lead to the achievement of more learning outcomes. This is here referred to as *powerful learning*. If the learner is both affectively and cognitively engaged in learning, the learning will be more effective than when only the cognitive or the affective domain is engaged.

- **Learners need to be prepared for learning affective outcomes.**

When a teaching strategy is used for a long period of time, it could result in a fixation or a mind-set in the learners. Longer exposure leads to more learning in one area while lacking in another (Wynne & Ryan, 1993:39). For example, utilising cognitive strategies for a long period of time, as is the case in the majority of schools, could lead to the development of cognitive habits such as looking for a rational explanation for everything and searching for the “right” answers. Having been conditioned through cognitive teaching strategies for years, learners will approach affective outcomes in the same way as they approach cognitive outcomes. Personal experience has shown that many learners rush to find a “correct” and “definite” answer to an affective question that often needs more than one answer or has no definite right or wrong solution. In the light of the above, and with support from experience gained from the pilot study, it became evident that learners need to be prepared to learn affective outcomes – a major

part of the learning outcomes in YEP. Based on this discovery, a special course – the pre-YEP training course – was designed to orient the learners to strategies useful for affective learning (further discussed in Chapter 6).

4.6 Conclusion

The investigations in this chapter have shown that YEP has adopted an authentic, transformational multi-domain approach to exert change in various learning domains of the youth. It was also noted that the transformational strategies of YEP in accordance with the principles of change and transformation are non-prescriptive, multi-domain and cyclic. Furthermore, its teaching strategies are carefully selected and prioritised according to the nature and characteristics of the domains using life-related authentic examples.

The question that remains to be answered however, is how the theories and methodologies of YEP have been translated and accommodated in its design. This question is attempted in the next chapter.