

C U R R I C U L U M P R O D U C T I O N A N D A
C R E A T I V E D E S I G N F O R T E A C H -
I N G C H I L D D E V E L O P M E N T

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT
AND FAMILY LIVING IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF
HOUSEHOLD ARTS AND SCIENCES

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DENTON, TEXAS
AUGUST, 1971

Texas Woman's University

Denton, Texas

August 5 1971

We hereby recommend that the Dissertation prepared under
our supervision by Ernestine Gray Clark
entitled CURRICULUM PRODUCTION AND A CREATIVE
DESIGN FOR TEACHING CHILD
DEVELOPMENT

be accepted as fulfilling this part of the requirements for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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A C K N O W L E D G M E N T S

The author wishes to express sincere appreciation to those who have contributed to the writing of the dissertation:

Dr. Dora R. Tyer, Professor of Child Development and Family Living, for guidance, supervision and constant encouragement during the writing of the manuscript.

Dr. Robert P. Littlefield, Assistant Professor of Counselor Education and Personal Services for serving on the committee and assisting in the completion of the manuscript.

Dr. T. L. Morrison, Graduate Dean, Chairman of the Department of Business and Economics for guidance and correcting the manuscript.

Dr. Emma Lee C. Doyle, Assistant Professor of Child Development and Family Living, for guidance and supervision and correcting the manuscript.

Mrs. Clarice H. Garrett, Assistant Professor of Clothing and Textiles for serving on the committee and correcting the manuscript.

Dr. Bethel M. Caster, Associate Professor of Clothing and Textiles for serving on the committee and assisting with the manuscript.

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CHAPTER I

I N T R O D U C T I O N

McLuhan (37) asserted that the medium or projection of our contemporary society, electronic technology, is redirecting and revamping both designs of social independence and views of personal and educational programs. This redirection is forcing a reconsideration and reevaluation of thoughts, actions, and programs of institutions formerly taken for granted. Modern technology in the form of rapid communication has brought about changes in government, family life, occupations, and school programs. Such media, by bringing the world to doorsteps, evoke in people unique, humanistic perceptions. The alteration of any one human factor changes the way individuals think, act, and perceive the world. If the present generation is to meet the challenge of increased awareness concerning community, education and social relationships which cannot rest on the answers provided in the past, but should put its faith in the procedures by which the new problems are met. So rapidly does change arrive that solutions or explanations become obsolete almost at the moment of conception.

Rogers (50) argued that facilitation of the ability to live with constant change, requires that the aim of education should be to develop individuals who are open to change. Only such persons can constructively meet the difficulties of a society in which problems spawn much faster than answers appear. Leonard (32) affirmed that education has the significant function of providing a climate conducive to developing problem solving abilities, and original and lasting interests. Unless students find joy in learning and have a chance to be self-directing and self-evaluating and learn efficient problem solving techniques, few things will stimulate them to make other than mechanical responses to work demands or idle use of their leisure time.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Need for Study

Bruner (4) reported that each civilization gives new structure to the aims that shape education in its time. What may be arising in the young generation is a deepened interest for the quality of education and for the true worth of intellectual goals. Today, more than ever before in American history, a larger percentage of the population has become vitally interested in the present changing system of education.

Individuals of all ages are becoming cognizant of the discrepancy--in fact, a deepening chasm--between the curriculum of study leading to most undergraduate degrees and the factual world of operation in which graduates must function. According to Rogers (50), the aim of education should be to produce a culture in which people can live more comfortably with change than with inflexibility. In the future the skill to face the new suitably is more significant than the capacity to know and report the old. Such a goal infers that educators themselves must be open and changeable, effectively involved in the procedure of change. Individuals must be able to reserve and transfer the necessary knowledge and merits of the past, and to receive readily the innovations which are essential to prepare for the future. A method must be found to produce within the total educational organization in every integral part a climate conducive to personal achievement. An atmosphere in which change is not frightening and in which the creative capabilities of school personnel and students are nurtured and expressed, rather than stifled, must prevail. A method must be developed to produce a climate or structure in which the central point is not upon rote learning, but on the feasibility of self-directed learning. Only then can educators develop the creative human being who is open to all of his experiences, conscious of it and accepting it, and capable of persisting in the process of change.

Silberman (55) indicated that the most significant educational issue is not how to increase the competence of educational institutions, but on how to produce and sustain a civilized society. Education should prepare individuals not just to earn a living but to live a creative, sympathetic and perceptive life. The purpose of education is to educate educators--to turn out individuals who are qualified to educate their families, associates, community and, most of all, themselves. Conant (9) maintains what an institution should do and can do to a sizeable degree is determined by the status and desires of the families being served. Silberman (55) further stated deviations in the intellectual progress from school to school seem to be due more to diversities in the students' own family background and in the backgrounds of fellow students than to differences in the excellence of the schools. The school has little influence on the student's academic success that is independent of the individual's background and immediate environment; this very lack of an independent effect means that the inequalities of his social context are carried along to become the inequalities with which the student faces adult life.

Purposes of the Study

The program of training for college students in Child Development leading to an undergraduate degree must be relevant to the world of work and involvement the students will

face upon graduation. A curriculum should be designed in such a manner as to teach problem definition, analysis of possible solutions and problem solution. While no problem is ever solved terminally, successful pursuit of each segment leads to successful attack and procedure for the ensuing segments. The training of students in Child Development provides the basis for the current study.

The two-fold purposes of the study were to develop a realistic plan of study for undergraduate major students in Child Development leading to the bachelor's degree, and to develop a syllabus and an innovative teaching design for a basic course on Principles of Child Development.

Relation to Other Studies

Aside from professional studies in this area, the investigator knows of no current study encompassing curriculum production and a creative teaching methodology. In reviewing college theses and dissertations, there was a scarcity of previous studies that dealt specifically with the problem of innovative and creative teaching.

PROCEDURE

The review of literature will concentrate on criticisms of current teachings according to Conant, Gardner, Kohl, Postman and Winegartner, Rogers, Silberman and others.

These writers are the problem posers in the field of education and suggest solutions. This investigator will review the qualities needed in the product, that is, a competent Child Development major. Current college textbooks on Child Development will be reviewed. The study will include a model showing product need and method of achievement; a suggested curriculum; and include a syllabus describing the teaching methodology for a course entitled The Principles of Child Development.

Chapter Two will contain the review of literature pertinent to the product, that is, the preschool teacher. It will also contain a model delineating the proposed methods of preparing a fully adequate product.

CHAPTER II

R E V I E W O F L I T E R A T U R E

The two-fold purposes of the current study are to develop a realistic plan of study for the undergraduate students majoring in Child Development leading to an undergraduate degree, and to develop a syllabus and set forth an innovative teaching design for a basic course entitled, The Principles of Child Development. The review of literature will develop a list of competencies needed by the preschool teacher as well as an evaluation of the present educational procedures for preparation of preschool teachers.

THE PRESCHOOL TEACHER

Read (46) emphasized that competent preschool teachers with a wide variety of backgrounds have the common link of genuine admiration for children and an instinctive understanding of how young children behave and learn. The competent teacher sets limits and enforces them consistently with kindness and firmness. The teacher enjoys seeing children learn, remains calm herself and expresses verbally the feelings being experienced by the children.

Gardner (16) insisted that the teacher is aware that children are individuals capable of intense feelings, imagination, have man's anxieties and struggle to be independent but with limited capacity to control feelings of behavior. Children are helped when the teacher can accept immature behaviors, temper tantrums, resistances and depressions. The teacher's acceptance lightens the burden of these feelings. An important aspect of guidance is the help the teacher gives in putting feelings into words.

Breckenridge and Murphy (1) that to guide young children effectively, the teacher must feel comfortable about the existence of all kinds of feelings. Furthermore, the teacher must be able to accept anger or frustration without denying or being afraid or seeing children's behavior as a threat to her competency. Another important aspect of teaching is the ability to tolerate the times when the child doesn't like her at all, even detest her for the moment. The teacher continually seeks to understand and respect the child. The teacher is a model in a very real sense for young children. The skill with which she meets anger and frustrations sets an example for the children. If she encounters anger with anger, they will follow the example set. If she welcomes it with patience and understanding, they will begin to learn to do the same. The teacher gives children the assurance that strong feelings can be managed acceptably. The teacher is important not only

because the child is given self confidence but accepts responsibility for controlling his behavior when the child is unable to control feelings and emotions. The young child needs reassurance of the understanding teacher. He needs a teacher who respects him and permits verbal expression of feelings but who acts responsibly when his strong hard-to-control feelings break out in unacceptable behavior. She must stop him without taking away his self-respect. The good teacher in the preschool does not ignore misbehavior, but deals with it firmly but sympathetically. She does so with full respect for the small, courageous individual who is struggling to find a place in a confusing world. She is with him and not against him. She acts with confidence in herself and the child for she knows that behavior can be redirected. The teacher who acts responsibly in this way makes it possible for the child to feel and act more freely and responsibly.

Tarnay (57) hypothesized that the good preschool teacher should be an affectionate, outgoing individual who loves, comprehends, and accepts children. The children feel drawn to her because they can rely upon her for admiration, gentle care, and protection. The two-year-olds and some of the three-year-olds gravitate toward her. The four and five-year-olds look up occasionally to observe her in the room. Young children view

the teacher and listen to her now and then as they pause in their activities. They watch the expression on her face. They feel the relaxation or tension in her muscles or her voice as she takes their hand or speaks to them or someone else. Children realize early what pleases and what displeases the teacher. They sense her deeper attitudes of what is acceptable and what is unacceptable behavior. Children become more and more certain of the teacher's willingness and ability to care for and protect them and be interested in the things they are interested. Children copy her without even knowing they are doing so and absorb her way of acting and attitudes and feelings. The teacher is teaching how the adult behaves. Normally developing children want to grow up and become as "big" and as "important" as adults appear to them. The teacher holds an important position to young children as she has final authority in the preschool world. She is a gentle and affectionate authority who includes all the children with warm regard, she is an easy person for each one of them to observe, copy, and identify with. Children feel secure to go ahead and explore the interesting materials and activities that are provided for them, partly because they sense the teacher's approval, and partly because the materials chosen are suitable for children of this age and stage of development in the particular environment of the school.

Long (33) proposed that the preschool teacher who knows that one can share thoughts and experiences with someone else, have that person understand and accept them, shares a wonderful feeling with the preschoolers. In this relationship, the teacher and children are drawn to each other. As children talk to each other and share concerns, dreams, and aspiration, good preschool teaching is the art of beginning and maintaining open communication. Teachers who empathize with the child, and enter the child's world in a way that will enable him to manage anxiety, overcome frustration, and become more self-confident and independent. Every good teacher should be able to achieve this level of successful communication with children.

Rexinger (48) insisted that the preschool teacher can be a force to help the child move forward toward success or backward toward increasing frustration and failure. The sensitivity of a teacher to the possible devastating effects of criticism at a particular stage of development can have a great influence on whether or not the child sees himself as one who is adequate or inadequate, successful or unsuccessful in his undertakings. Each child's movement forward or backward in developing this feeling of adequacy or lack of it is a part of the personality pattern he will retain throughout his life.

Hildebrand (23) believes that the good preschool teacher knows that getting to know children is a continuous process. The teacher knows real understanding requires a depth of perception that comes with training and experiences and may never really be completely achieved. The teacher has information regarding children that can be obtained from research, parents and previous experience with children. The teacher knows each child has similar characteristics to other children of his age yet is a unique individual, however, the similarities enables work with each individual. The teacher of young children is challenged to learn to gauge the level of the child's development and to plan a program that will meet the needs of individual children.

Hymes (27) reported that success matters very much to the preschool group. Young children are struggling desperately to gain independence and need the teacher's help in developing positive feelings about themselves. The good teacher finds time to listen to each child, time to praise, and most important, the willingness to build a good concept for each child. A good preschool teacher believes that given healthy growth a strong social sense will develop in good time.

The teacher knows that success is rewarding and leads to more success, and that failure hurts young children. The teacher arranges a program which values all kinds of abilities.

The teacher provides many tasks and meaningful activities that the youngsters can do each day. Each child must find something rich and exciting and important to do each day with his head held higher.

Moore (40) concluded that the good preschool teacher does not label; or risk damage to the child's sense of worth. The teacher guides all children to a sense of caring for each other. The teacher knows that many children do not value themselves or believe in themselves until someone else first respects them. A kind, interested preschool teacher believes in each child's potential as an individual. If the teacher helps the child build a good self-concept, he has been given the right start in life. Having knowledge of the importance of a "good self-image" the good preschool teacher will use a positive approach, welcome each child with a smile and call him by name. The teacher will inform the returning child that he was missed, accept feelings, and anticipate and prevent frustrations. The teacher allows each child to contribute to all work displays, shows approval and recognition of success and clear thinking, and uses motivation that is consistent with the child's level of development. The teacher places a full length mirror where the child can see himself, and a photograph of the child on the door of the locker. The teacher accepts every child enrolled in the group as an individual and smiles as she says "Goodbye." The teacher gives

help when needed, but allows time for the young children to try on their own. The teacher always gives the rule-breaker a way back to acceptance by getting across the idea that "I don't like what you're doing, but I like you." The Tulsa, Oklahoma's Curriculum Guide (44) stated that the good preschool teacher knows the young child should have a strong sense of personal identity and worth or his emotional growth is hindered. The teacher knows a good self-concept enables the child to better accept and cope with the problems he encounters later in life.

According to Margolin (35), the teacher creates the climate for learning. She is aware of the individual needs of each child. Challenge is always there. Learning is ever present. Some activities are group oriented, but some things are very private between pupil and teacher. The teacher, in studying each child, knows what to expect of the individual child and what he would like to accomplish. She learns that the child's aspirations are, and what skills he needs to develop. The preschool teacher arranges activities to facilitate success for each child. The child does the work; the teacher skillfully provides opportunities for potential success. Strang (56) revealed that the good preschool teacher guides the children in a multitude of learning activities, such as helping them with building blocks, manipulating all kinds of materials, listening to recordings, paintings,

looking at or arranging exhibits, leafing through books in the library corner, and working with others on self-initiated projects. She observes children as they are punching letters on a typewriter and scribbling on the chalkboard or on sheets of paper. The teacher supervises the children as they are running, climbing, balancing, building, riding the tricycles, or pulling and pushing the wagons and trains. Skillful guidance does not "just happen;" guidance is based on knowledge of the development of young children, understanding of each individual child, provision for an intellectually stimulating environment, and ability to apply learning theory to specific situations. The role of the teacher, in general, is to respond appropriately to the child's initiative.

Murphy (42) theorized that the good preschool teacher knows when to give personal attention, warmth and care to the child who needs it most. The teacher knows a worried, distrustful child will not learn much by any method; this is why she works first to build security and trust out of real companionship. The teacher knows the child who becomes secure and trusting will feel like responding, listening, trying out new materials, expressing wishes, observations, thoughts, and play ideas. The preschool teacher knows that from companionship also comes identification as well as response and communication in language arts. The creative teacher has control over the language experiences of each

child. When the teacher uses detailed language sentences with phrases and clauses that show relationships she is contributing to the children's cognitive development. The teacher realizes the participation in conversation or dialogues with the experienced person is a most effective way in which children grow intellectually.

Kohl (30) insisted that the good preschool teacher knows that effective learning is dependent upon the inter-relatedness of the language arts. Preschool children who receive ideas and information through listening, should also be given many opportunities to show and tell by means of their own verbalization. The children need help and encouragement in communication. Sharing experiences can increase the fluency and ease with which they verbalize and develop the use of language. If time spent in such activities is to be profitable for all involved, the teacher not only has the responsibility of creating a desirable environment for speaking and listening but must be an active, appreciative participant.

Sieber and Crochenberg (54) reported that the good teacher knows that anxiety decreases ability to remember, to attain information, and to organize details. The teacher knows how to recognize anxiety in the preschool child and how to reduce its undesirable effects. The teacher deals

with the children's anxieties by altering a situation that causes anxiety by altering a particular child's emotional response to an anxiety arousing situation, and by giving special training in those thinking and problem-solving skills that are adversely affected by anxiety. The teacher in altering the situation producing anxiety, discovers what aspects of the situation are anxiety arousing. She introduces the anxiety-producing factors under favorable conditions, in order that student's nervous system "learn" not to be anxious. The teacher exposes the child to a very mild version of what ever makes him anxious, a small amount of it, at a distance, in a playful context, for a short while, mixed with things he enjoys. The good teacher always concludes the desensitizing sessions while things are pleasant and relaxed. She makes sure the sessions are worth while and rewarding. She knows that cast-off fears are easily relearned, and makes sure that the once feared situation remains rewarding and attractive.

Lowenfeld and Brittain (34) insist that the preschool teacher should know the importance of creative and mental stages in the total growth pattern of the child. The teacher knows a child during the scribbling stage reflects intellectual and emotional development in creative art. The teacher knows the young child will freely explore his environment through a variety of senses, and some of the experiences will

appear in his scribbles when he begins to name these. The teacher recognizes that this period of life is extremely important for developing attitudes about oneself and in establishing the feeling that the world is an exciting and interesting place to live. The preschool teacher is in an excellent position to provide the opportunity for a child to grow by means of art experiences, to help develop the confidence and sensitivity important for self-expression, and to provide a range of materials and the environmental setting for creative activities. The role of the preschool teacher is to provide the stimulation and motivation necessary for developing an increased awareness of the environment and to provide the encouragement and approval for the creative act.

Todd and Heffernan (22) state that the preschool teacher helps the children in several ways in developing verbal communication. She can present the children with a distinctly spoken pattern which is easy to hear and impersonate. She should speak accurately, calmly, and with only a few well-chosen words. The good preschool teacher should speak cheerfully so that the preschooler answering to her feels valued, competent and no way threatened to self-image. The teacher sets an example in her speech that will give the children correct models to follow. Her

voice should be free of harshness and strain, and she should practice the use of correct grammar and diction. She should know the value of an atmosphere which favors practice in verbal expression. The teacher may advocate the use of indoor voices that everyone can better hear what is being said, but should never imply not talking except when it interferes with listening to what is being said.

Broman (2) indicated that the preschool teacher gains satisfaction knowing the children learn to talk and listen by talking and listening under her guidance. The teacher, in turn, listens for areas of weakness in content knowledge while the children are planning and sharing ideas and materials, thus also knows what she needs to teach, reteach and stress in order to develop pronunciation, enunciation, vocabulary and sentence patterns in conversation. The lesson plans contribute to group discussion, planning panels, reporting and buddy teaching. The teacher realizes teaching language requires opportunities for the child to develop oral language. The creative teacher avoids speaking when the children should be speaking, provides language opportunities that are accurate, purposeful, and filled with language usage through listening as they work and converse with each other. The teacher sets an example of standard English, but should accept the language of the child without degrading or ignoring him and he will build upon this language providing success in later learning.

Gordon (19) advocated that the teacher is cognizant of the fact that the child's structure of language is originally set by the pattern of the home and is learned early and influence the development of thought. The preschool teacher will work to develop the parent-teacher relationship to try to provide the mother with particular activities to teach the child. The teacher will assist the mother in developing knowledge of child care so the mother would be exposed to language and language materials that might enable her to provide the child with an increased verbal facility. Schulz (51) asserted that the preschool teacher will vary the parent-teacher discussion to include fear, discipline, toilet training, and acceptance of guilt feelings. She will read resource books and report on them, and will aid the parents in understanding the unique characteristics of each age group as being important stages in child development.

Gotkin (21) concluded that the preschool teacher will work to find various methods of bridging the gap between home and school. Home visitations are important to the teacher; the home visit may provide the parent with first-hand information about the physical environment of the child. Likewise, it is important for the teacher to know the home setting when talking with the mother about activities she can provide for the child at home. A telephone call to the home of the child provides an opportunity to speak with the

parent and could develop positive feeling toward the teacher. The teacher knows the importance of developing cooperation with the home. A telephone call can help to counter possible negative parental attitudes and open a channel of communication. She is aware of the fact that if positive attitudes are reinforced by other meaningful and rewarding involvements, a climate of mutual trust and cooperation between home and school will develop.

Lambert (31) suggested that the preschool teacher may observe the child carefully before the conference so as to relate current, specific details about the child's interests, talents and activities to the parent. In approaching a problem about a child, the teacher should attempt to give the parent a role of sharing with the teacher the responsibility for working out a solution. The teacher should guide the parent into finding some answers and give the parent as much chance as possible and reasonable to express herself. The teacher should take cues for what she says from what the parent has said. Mentzer (36) noted that teachers should use video-tapes and school sessions as valuable tools in parent-teacher conferences, especially in instances of presenting speech problems, or in showing emotional and social maladjustment.

Hoeflin (25) stressed that the preschool teacher has professional knowledge abilities and skills as well as mental and physical health and those personal qualities needed for promoting the optimal growth and development of each preschool child. The teacher must have a positive self-acceptance which empowers her to establish a climate in which the children can feel comfortable and happy.

The Committee for Early Childhood Education (6) insisted that the essential qualifications for a preschool teacher are a sincere love for people, a desire to be of service to others, patience and understanding, resourcefulness, creativity, and knowledge about children and families. According to the Texas Woman's University Bulletin undergraduate sequences leading to either the Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree require approximately 45 hours in Child Development and Family Living, 12 hours in English, 4 hours in Health and Physical Education, 6 hours each in Foreign Language, Mathematics and Science, 3 hours each in Economics and Sociology and 45 hours of electives in related areas (59).

Some Present Trends in Education

Rogers (49) noted that education is confronted with controversies more varied than ever before in history. How

educators meet these challenges will be one of the major factors determining whether mankind moves forward, or whether man destroys himself on this planet, leaving this earth to those few living things which can withstand atomic destruction and radioactivity. Current research shows a series of challenges to American education which will significantly influence the character and status of education. Decisions regarding these challenges are demanded by new and varying social environments in which the school functions and by the ascending expectations that can be fulfilled only through education. These changes have placed added responsibilities on the schools, as well as wide and mounting increases in knowledge, the improved comprehension of the learning process, the extraordinary development of instructional technology, and the unavoidable influence of widening enterprise of educational research and development. Resolutions to these questions will determine the methods of instruction and curriculum and will affect the reorganization and administration of the schools.

While many decisions will need to be made in the future, one major decision must be made now--whether to adhere to the traditional or conventional educational practices and thereby continue the past, or grasp the opportunities of the moment to change those principles and ideals and move in

new directions. Some of the major criticisms of education today are: education is sick, the methods are based on fear, coercion and rote-memory testing, and subject matter become obsolete almost as rapidly as taught. The "knowledge explosion" demands that students learn how to use their minds and talents while the schools are strenuously engaged in teaching them how to stifle their intelligence and creativity. McLuhan (37) pointed out that education is irrelevant:

The older training of observation has become quite irrelevant in this new time, because it is based on psychological responses and concepts conditioned by the former technology-mechanization. Innumerable confusions and a profound feeling of despair unfavorably emerge in periods of great technological and cultural transition. Our "Age of Anxiety" is, in a great part, the result of trying to do today's job with yesterday's concepts.

Gardner (16) reported that education educates for obsolescence:

If we indoctrinate the young person in an elaborate set of fixed beliefs, we are ensuring his early obsolescence.

Rogers (50) indicated that education fails to have relevance for the whole person:

Nearly every student finds that large portions of his curriculum are for him meaningless. Thus education becomes the futile attempt to learn material which has no personal meaning. School learning involves the mind only. It is learning which takes place from the neck up. It does not

involve feelings or personal meaning; it has no relevance for the whole person.

McMurrin (38) charged that one of the major weaknesses of education is that many teachers are not properly qualified:

The blunt fact is that many of our teachers are not properly qualified to handle the responsibility we have placed on them. This is our basic educational problem. Many of our teachers, for instance, lack native talent for teaching. It is a national scandal, moreover, that large numbers of them are inadequately prepared in the subject matter that they teach, as well as the elements of a genuinely liberal education.

Koerner (29) proposes new standards for professional education:

Professional education suffers very greatly from a lack of congruence between the actual performance of its graduates and the training programs through which they are put. There is what can only be called an appalling lack of evidence to support the wisdom of this as that kind of professional training for teachers. This does not mean that professional training has no value. It means that, until a reliable method is developed for connecting the training programs with the on-the-job performance of teachers, there should be much more modest claims made for them.

Silberman (54) surmised that the deepest criticism of today's education is the present system of teacher education:

Faculties of education will not be able to touch the lives of their students unless their own lives have been touched--unless their conception of education is reflected in the way they teach as well as in what they teach.

Holt (26) disclosed that education teaches children to think badly:

Children have a style of learning that fits their condition and which they use naturally and well until we train them out of it. We like to say that we send children to school to teach them to think. What we do, all too often, is to teach them to think badly, to give up a natural and powerful way of thinking in favor of a method that does not work well for them and that we rarely use ourselves.

Postman and Weingartner (47) reflect that education does not teach students how to learn:

Once you have learned how to ask questions--relevant and appropriate and substantial questions--you have learned how to learn and no one can keep you from learning whatever you want or need to know . . .

or above all how to think:

The message is communicated quietly, insidiously, relentlessly, and effectively through the structure of the classroom: through the role of the teacher, the roles of the students, the rules of their verbal game, the rights that are assigned, the arrangements made for communication, the doings that are praised and censured. In other words, the medium is the message.

Taylor (59) emphasized that the selection of the administration of colleges and universities has become so complex a problem in finance and personnel that governing boards have

often sought in their appointment to the presidency, the services of men with business and administrative records:

So much has come to depend on the financial success of the university that it is impossible for college or university to advance in its proper work without a continuous and efficient program of money-raising and continuous series of projects designed to increase the annual income. This has now come to be accepted as a major responsibility for the president. Many of our American Universities have become institutions in which the academic, student and employee affairs are conducted by administrators, who, since they deal with day-to-day policy making, are more directly in touch with the university than the president.

Fantini (12) reported that when faced with educational obsolescence the administrators have reacted by adding to a base structure of education forged in an earlier century. Such programs as vocational training, special education, adult education, and compensatory education have been added. The demands, however, do not call for additional layers to the old structure, but for a new conception of education, one which is functionally coordinated with the concerns and aspirations of the various students. Modern education should be tied to the needs of society, of groups, and of individuals, and to the encompassing growth and development of all these. Obsolete education handicaps all learners, teachers, administrators, and communities. Thus society is disadvantaged. The present heavy emphasis on cognitive subjective matter must be at least tempered with materials that bear

some relevance to the students' lives and with newer kinds of content and procedures that will help students to answer deep personal concerns and often to rediscover their own integrity. Curriculum that represents an alien culture must be revised. Changes must be made to include all society other than professional educators. The training of teachers must be with a view of community needs.

The direction of reform can be projected another way concluded Fantini (12). All students will receive the kind of education that will provide a chance to receive higher education and career training that will lead to employment. Students will develop skills and achieve mastery of academic subjects through individually tailored program involving the support of all kinds of educational technology. Students will participate in the process of developing educational policies. Cultural diversity will be valued and reflected in the curriculum. Greater efforts will be made to develop a positive self-concept in each learner. Feelings and concerns about powerlessness and disconnection will become central to relevant curriculum. Students will be equipped with a richer repertoire of responses in dealing with individual concerns.

Glasser (18) argued that when relevance is absent from the curriculum, children do not gain the motivation to

learn. Educators cannot depend upon the natural curiosity of students to bridge the relevance gap because too often it fails to do so, especially among students whose backgrounds and interests are different from those of the teacher. Too often teachers try to fit students into the middle class world far removed from the individual's world. Teachers whose background is different from the students' must learn to teach more than what is important in middle class life styles. Teachers are also handicapped by the almost universal use of textbooks and belief that these should be relied upon heavily. A better procedure would be to eliminate texts and have each school district select books from the large variety of relevant, low-priced paperbacks now widely available. Paperbacks are cheap, can be taken home, are expandable, can be changed as needed to insure relevance to the student. Schools do not always teach a relevant curriculum, and when taught, fail to teach the child how to relate this learning to life outside of school. School should be a place in which children can express ideas based on observations and experiences, and gain satisfaction from knowing the school is interested in the students' world. When relevant, the relevance is too often not taught, thus, the value is missed.

According to Postman and Weingartner (47), many teachers teach for individual enjoyment; this is the main reason for becoming teachers and is also why students fail to become

competent learners. There are many teachers who teach under the supposition that the subject will do something for the student, which in fact, it does not do, and never did, and which most evidence indicated, does just the opposite. These teachers leave out the students. The students' skills and interest are at stake. There is no way to help a student to be disciplined, active and engaged in a subject unless the subject is perceived as a problem or whatever is to-be-learned as worth learning, and unless given an active role in determining the process of the solution. What has been said is that regardless of its source, unless an inquiry is perceived as relevant by the learner, no significant learning will take place.

Glaser (18) continued that today's student comes equipped with a vast reservoir of facts and vicarious experiences gleaned from the new media. All the analogies comparing the mind to a blank page or an empty bucket died with Edison. The teacher is now in competition with a host of rival communicators, most of whom are smarter, richer and considerably more efficient. Relevance and competence are educational tactics against which students have not devised a defense. Teachers have seldom felt more alienated from the students, yet it has seldom been easier to make contact with students. Communication is made with students

by having something in common. One thing students and teachers have in common is mass media.

Til (60) explained that the curriculum should be more relevant to the lives of the students for whom it was designed. Through reading materials, for example, city students should meet people like themselves, rather than always encountering people of suburban life. The world of the city must itself become part of the subject matter if young city dwellers are to improve human relations, develop citizenship, widen horizons, and meet problems of urban living, as well as suburban living. When communities are bland and homogenized and indifferent to reality, students are denied the privilege to know people of varied races, religions, nationality backgrounds and social classes. Many times when high school students are college prospects they are cheated of sufficient experiences in home economics, music, art, and industrial arts. When the only goal worshipped is academic success in formal learning, students are denied the opportunity to explore seriously their allegiances to values, relationships to the adult world, ways of finding satisfaction, and participation in political action and social change. Many teachers cannot change the required content to make it relevant. They teach according to the prescribed curriculum, syllabus, and the required textbook. The "central office" would not allow changes. Possibly the chains of established content are not as binding as assumed.

In a time of innovations Til emphasized that few stay as teachers in repressive atmospheres, for some administrators are seeking changed-minded teachers. Some educators may requires a prescription good teachers use for adaptation of content. If there were a single sovereign remedy, it would have been discovered long ago. The good teacher uses his intelligence in relating required content to the world of the learner. In making content more relevant, there is no substitute for knowing the social realities which characterize the environment of the student. There is no substitute for knowing the learner as an individual. There is no substitute for a philosophy which gives direction to the educational enterprise. So aimed, one can relate much of the content to the learner, the class, the school and the community.

Brownfield (3) proclaimed that students are demanding that education be made "relevant." Students claim that colleges and universities are far removed from the needs of society, and that four years of undergraduate learning is essentially cloistered unreality. In many instances, it has discouraged students from original thinking. It should be the aim of modern education to teach individuals to do original thinking.

Gardner (16) supported that the need for a renewal of educational plans have been recognized but must be deepened.

Through indoctrination of the young person in an elaborate set of fixed beliefs, early obsolescence is ensured. The alternative is to develop skills, attitudes, habits of mind and the kinds of knowledge and understanding that will be the instruments of continuous change and growth on the part of the young person. According to the author previously cited, a system that provides for its own continuous renewal will be developed. Much education is monumentally ineffective. Often young people are given cut flowers while the ability to learn to grow plants is being neglected. The schools can not be wholly preoccupied with education for innovation; yet, the schools must educate for continuity as well as change. There are continuities in the human condition, continuities in the human tradition and lessons to be learned from the past as young people learn what to seek as individuals and as a people. Gardner continued that young people at higher levels of education should be given the opportunity to examine critically the shared purposes of society--a major element in continuity--and these purposes should be subjected to reappraisal that gives vitality and relevance when creative thought or action occurs, the individual builds on the heritage of earlier work. According to Gardner, the pressing need of today is to educate for an accelerating rate of change--change is so swift that the "latest thing" today may be old-fashioned by the time young people enter adulthood.

Consequently, learning should be adaptable through the application of basic fundamentals. Young people need to be taught lasting principles that may be applicable in the understanding of many different situations.

Todd and Heffernan (22) noted that increasing emphasis should be given to instruction in methods of analysis and modes of attack on problems. In many subjects this means giving more attention to the basic principles and the giving of less attention to the application of immediate "practical" facts. In all subjects this means teaching habits of mind that will be useful in new situations--curiosity, open-mindedness, objectivity, respect for evidence and the capacity to think critically. Education can lay a broad and firm base for a lifetime of learning and growth. The young people beginning with a broad base will have some capacity to function as a generalist no matter how deeply the choices arise for becoming a specialist. Education at its best will develop within the individual resources needed for learning whether a student works independently or in a group situation. When faced with the unpredictable world, well educated individuals will keep the society flexible, adaptive and innovative.

Rogers (50) describes the need for learning that can be significant, meaningful and significant. When the toddler

touches the warm radiator, the meaning of the word "hot" has been experienced, caution in regard to similar radiators in the future has been learned and the experience has become significant. Likewise, the child memorizes "two plus two equal four," and while playing with marbles or blocks suddenly realize "two and two make four." A significant discovery can be made by the child alone in a way which involves independent thoughts and feelings. When the child laboriously acquires "reading skills" the enjoyment received from printed stories by the child whether it be a comic book or an adventure tale, the words can have a magic power which lifts the child into another world. This is a realistic situation where "learning to read" has taken place. The previously cited author also believes that when a child is left to the use of devices made through a personal discovery, learning takes place very rapidly in ways that will not be soon forgotten.

Bruner (4) insisted that the teacher must be the sole and final arbiter of how to present a given subject and what devices to use. The teacher is the explicator and commentator for prepared materials made available through films, television, teaching machines and other visuals. Effort should be made to educate the teacher to a deep knowledge of subject matter, while at the same time the best materials should be made available for the teacher to choose from in

constructing a course that meets the requirements of the syllabus. Massive efforts need to be applied in preparation of films, television programs, instructional programs for teaching machines and other teaching methods as well as the teacher should be taught how to make use of these materials with wisdom and understanding of the subject.

Conant (8) stated that greater knowledge of the subject matter is needed by many teachers today, and the need will continue for many years. Conant continued:

I believe that the ultimate test should be how the teacher actually performs in a classroom, as judged by experienced teachers. I am convinced that simple tests can not be relied upon for a state judgment that has the force of law. I am opposed to certification based on specific required courses. In my judgment, no state has been able to insure a high quality of teacher preparation by simply listing course titles and credit hour requirement, which remains to be examined. For better or worse the college professor actually determines what goes on in the classroom. The teacher will teach what is considered to be important. Both the content and the quality of instruction are determined by the local college or universities.

A restricted approved program is needed for certification. Before being entrusted with complete control of a public school classroom, a teacher should have had opportunities under close guidance and supervision actually to teach, whether such opportunities are labeled "practice teaching," "student teaching," "apprenticeship," or "internship;" and second, the ultimate question the state should ask is, "Can this person teach adequately?"

Conant (7) recommends the following:

- 1) For certification purposes the state should require only
 - a) that a candidate hold a baccalaureate degree from a legitimate college or university,
 - b) that he submit evidence of having successfully performed as a student teacher under the direction of college and public school personnel in whom the state department has confidence, and in a practice teaching situation of which the state department approves, and (c)
 - c) that he hold a specifically endorsed teaching certificate from a college or university which, in issuing the official document, attests that the institution as a whole considers the person adequately prepared to teach in a designated field and grade level.

Silberman (54) points out that in the 1830's and thereafter, the state department of education began taking over the certification function and control has never been completed. The result has been the development of new regulations which required candidates for certification take a series of specified courses in education and the assumption was that the college and university would make sure that graduates were adequately prepared in the subjects they were preparing to teach. The criteria are based on the completion of a set of courses specified by the state. Requiring all teachers to have a special type of training restricts

the supply of teachers and thus makes it easier for leaders to negotiate higher salaries and better working conditions. Certification requirements provide important psychic benefits as well. Certification makes teaching seem more like a profession by guaranteeing that only certified persons will be employed as teachers. Certification provides a protective shield for teachers and administrators in dealing with parents or other laymen whenever the necessity arises for justification of decisions on the grounds of superior knowledge.

Conant (8) developed guidelines with allotted time included to enable student teachers to have the following experiences:

- 1) To participate in the overall planning of the work for a semester;
- 2) To observe critically for a week or more an experienced teacher;
- 3) To begin with simple instructional tasks involving individuals and small groups of children; and
- 4) To assume full responsibility for an extended period of instruction which the student plans, executes and evaluates.

The regular teacher and the future classroom teacher should be the ones known to the school officials. Cooperating teachers should have time free to aid the student teacher and compensation should be increased in recognition of added responsibility and special talent.

Conant (8) suggests that the college personnel directly involved in training teachers be called "clinical professors." The clinical professors should be master teachers with periodic teaching responsibilities at the level of the persons being supervised and should have full recognition in salary and rank of essential function. The clinical professor will be the person responsible for teaching the methods course. Such courses are designed to guide student teachers in the best use of instructional materials in the field as well as to assist in the planning and conduct of instruction. The clinical professors must be professors of teaching methods and materials and up-to-date on the advanced and the concrete work in the preparation of teachers. The author previously cited further proposes guidelines designed to improve teacher education programs.

First, to insure that no teacher enters a classroom without having been tested and found competent in the actual act of teaching; second, to provide both teaching education institutions and local school boards with as free a market as is consistent with assurance that inept

teachers are kept out of the schools; and third, to increase the range of information and opinion available to those who educate and hire teachers. The "free market" provides state department personnel, teacher organizations and other interested groups with a greater, rather than lesser stable in educational leadership, but it calls them to bring this leadership to bear in the local communities and in the colleges and universities rather than in the state capital.

Hillman (24) defines the role of education as one of preparing the child for the present as well as the future.

If asked to define the role of education, I think we would agree that one of a few major tasks is only to concentrate on the child and needs of the child for the present, but offer those things that will best equip the child to meet the future. A look at the future can be filled with anxiety. It is said that every ten years the knowledge doubles. The student has to learn twice amount just to keep up with the others. Many things are obsolete before learned. This can be frightening and this fear has led to many frantic impositions on the children.

Conant (8) has the following to say about education.

We have all felt the effects of knowledge explosion and we have all reacted each in our own way. In the meantime, the world has continued to race on at a breathless speed, forcing us to realize that no one can keep up with this rate of knowledge. This should not scare us one bit! In fact, thanks to the knowledge explosion, we are participants in what could be a golden era of teaching.

McMurrin (38) explained some differences of opinion between the state department and the institutions over the

courses future teachers should take and the amount of credit each course should carry. Such differences are almost invariably resolved in favor of the state department. Inevitably the result is hostility on the part of the university and college affected. Despite the state's admittedly worthwhile intent, its efforts become infuriating when state officials impose detailed prescriptions in areas in which the college feels competent. The problem is inherent in the structure and composition of the state department of education. The best of the state department staff include few persons with significant amounts of experiences in college teaching and administration. Most of the department staff is made up of experts in public school administration, curriculum design, or the teachers of some subject matter courses. McMurrin (38) found that rarely is an experienced college teacher of educational psychology, educational history, or philosophy of education the persons included on such committees. The state department seeks the assistance of outside experts when appraisal of work on the college campus takes place. Experts are rarely familiar with the particular traditions and resources of a specific college and may not be informed and experienced as the college professors of the college to be appraised. Experts are brought in for only a brief period. Most of the work has

been done for the experts by the state department and the state department writes the final recommendations.

Glasser (17) suggests that an important part of the college curriculum in education be a subject called "basic education." A student planning to become a teacher will be a member of an open ended seminar on education from the beginning of the teacher training program until graduation. As observers, students will attend classes, lectures, and seminars from elementary school to graduate school to study different teachers and the teaching methods. The students will evaluate through observation and bring the findings to the seminar for discussion. Professors, public school teachers and most of all students from all levels of education will be invited to discover the best approaches to teaching at all levels and in various subjects. Such a series of discussions will lead to teaching alternatives that can be applied by each student according to the personality of the teacher. This kind of seminar can be conducted within any school system for at least two years with the appointment of a master teacher for guidance. The performance of the new teachers in the seminar group will not be part of the evaluation for tenure. The development of the individual teacher should be the main objective of the seminar.

Koerner (29) contended that students in the teacher training program take few formal college courses in education and spend time in additional practice teaching. In this way a full year will be spent in training as a teacher rather than one semester. Discussion of the practice teaching should be part of the basic education seminar so that everyone could learn effective techniques of others. New teachers should have supervision prior to the training and doing the probationary period. Grading and evaluation should be kept to a minimum while the student is learning to teach to alleviate inferior feelings of the student and to encourage more creative methods. The fear of graded criticism gained through the period of student teaching is difficult to remove when the teacher begins a permanent career. Unless teacher training is improved, there may be difficulty in carrying through the many changes needed in the schools.

According to Jersild (28) it has long been held that schools should teach students how to think. However, there frequently is a discrepancy between the ideas teachers are trying to teach and what children actually comprehend. The school curriculum has grown out of pedagogical and scholarly traditions, with relatively little attention to adopting the ideas that are taught to a child's thought processes,

scaling and pacing what is taught according to a child's growing intellectual capacities, or testing to find whether students have learned to think and to memorize. One essential issue in teaching children to think, is the relative role of maturation and experience in the development of children's thinking.

Piaget (45) indicates that the adaptation process underlying the development of thinking is facilitated by four main factors. One is maturation, which involves an increasing capacity, through growth of the nervous system, to absorb, to discriminate, to register, and to manipulate information. Another factor is experience, which feeds the mind from empirical sources of information. Another is social facilitation, which presses a student to formulate thoughts in order to express them to others. The last is equilibration to self-regulation, which involves two processes. The student reorganizes views of things, when aware of contradictions in thinking. Also reorganize ideas when, within his level of awareness, when thinking is contradicted by known facts.

Scott (52) emphasizes the five main types of thinking: cognitive, memorative, two types of productive, and evaluative thinking. Cognitive thinking involves knowing, being aware of, having in mind or comprehending. Memorative

thinking, of course, is thinking in which there is direct recall of past learning and experience. Productive thinking discovers what was not known before, thinks differently from the general. However, there are two types of productive thinking: divergent and convergent production. Divergent production is original or creative thinking. It involves creativity, flexibility, originality and imagination. Convergent production is generally referred to as problem-solving. The fourth kind of thinking is evaluation, to judge, compare correctly elements with reference to a given standard, to assign consistent values to elements, to leap over uncertainty to land on the target.

Rogers says the teachers must change their attitudes toward method and subject matter, and encourage divergent as well as convergent thinking. Convergent thinking requires the student to solve a problem by surveying the facts at hand and narrowing the alternatives until he arrives at the solution. Divergent thinking requires intuition, imagination and a willingness to try the unconventional. In methodology, teachers should encourage the sort of attitudes that force students to come up with new ideas (50).

Glasser (17) sums up that much of what is called education is merely knowledge gathering and remembering. Problem solving and thinking, never strong parts of our educational

system, suffer from inattention. Education emphasizes a lesser function of the human brain, memory, while relatively neglecting its major function, thinking. Most widely used is the thinking required to solve problems for which there are specific answers or no specific or right answers. Students need thinking that leads to inquiry about political, social, economic and even academic problems for which there are at least a series of alternatives, none perfect, but some better than others. Little emphasis in our present education is placed on artistic criticism, that is thinking that leads to critical appraisal of literature, art, music, or television. Critical thinking should be taught through discussions from preschool through college. Related to critical thinking is creative thinking. Students should have much more opportunity to create in art, music, literature, drama, movies and television. Subjects requiring creativity are usually downgraded, however, they often lead directly to the motivation, involvement, and relevance so important to the success of the student.

Gardner (16) stated that if the college and university is to preserve its character as a community and forge a distinctive identity and role in the vast array of scholarly, scientific and instructional activities that will characterize the present evolving technological society, there must be a considerable measure of internal coherence

and morale. This means that trustees, administration, faculty, and students are going to have to admit that all are a part of one community, distasteful as that may be to some, all should work individually and collaboratively to preserve the integrity and coherence of that community and to regain command of the campus in the future.

Taylor (58) emphasized that most American educational institutions are overorganized. Too much is arranged by administrators, too little by teachers and students. The overorganization runs straight through the curriculum, the study body, the departmental system, personnel services, and the whole institutional mechanism. Nothing is left to chance--everything is organized with its own administrators. Many educators are in the grip of a passion for efficiency, and cannot bear the sight of an idea lying around loose without its own place and its own administrator. This, in turn, makes it impossible to have the kind of community life which will give to the students the sense that learning is informal and a personal affair, that scholarship depends on the easy exchange of ideas and opinions, and that education is not something administered in lumps but something which grows in the warmth of a friendly community. The larger the university becomes the greater is the isolation of the president from students and faculty. This isolation can be

remedied only by the president's own initiative. There is no way for the president to become fully informed about the institution other than by spending the bulk of his time in it, and by remaining intimately connected with the daily work of teaching and learning. The absentee president, continually speaking in public on all subjects, who is eying some public office, traveling continually to conferences, continually raising money for the college, quickly loses the most important part of the experience with the students and faculty.

Wolin and Schlar (60) projected that many educational practices have been changed, many traditions have been greatly modified or abandoned in favor of more experimental ones. However, many administrators have failed to seize the opportunities of dealing with the challenges of educational reform including student participation. The momentum which could have been generated by the faculty and students working together with the idealism, good will, and hope could have been directed toward fundamental and much needed changes. Some campuses have demonstrated the high cost of these missed opportunities, and may continue to do so until the needed changes are accomplished.

Glasser (17) proclaimed that the educational practice that produces failure in students is grading. If there is

one universal cause of failure it is grading. The defects of grades are so obvious many colleges are changing the traditional five-level grading system to pass/fail systems. Many public school systems are changing to other methods of evaluation. Grades have become a substitute for learning, currency of education, it is a phony, and are limiting and damning for life. Grades also encourage cheating. When grades become the currency of education, those who are greedy for riches cheat, thus measuring the person's ability to deceive. In a study funded by the United States Office of Education it was found that at least 55 per cent of all college students in this country cheat to obtain better grades. The second educational practice that helps produce mediocre education is objective testing. The objective tests, except in rare instances, are passed by memorizing a process that eliminates thinking. Objective tests discourage research, thoughtful reading, listening to anything but fact.

Glasser further contends that the third method in wide use in schools is the normal curve. Although the normal curve has been used to justify the grading system, it actually underscores its inadequacy by making the A's and B's a minority of the grades and more students as failures than as successes. The curve produces negative cheating,

students give each other wrong answers. The fourth practice is the closed-book examination -- based on the fallacy that knowledge remembered is better than knowledge locked up. Another important contribution to educational failure is the assignment of excessive, tedious and often irrelevant homework. Often the student makes the same mistake over and over, thus learning and reinforcing wrong ideas. Many students have less than ideal conditions to work.

SUMMARY

The preschool teacher recognizes the needs of young children to use individual bodies with increasing competency, to enjoy, trust and learn from each other, to extend experiences and knowledge, and to develop healthy self-concepts and intercontrols. These intermeshing physical, intellectual and social-emotional needs of children determine the selection, arrangement of equipment, setting of limits, and the realities of time and space. Providing for individual differences is the heartbeat of the preschool teacher. The teacher's style is personal, educated and purposeful.

The new education has as its purpose the development of a new kind of person, one who, as a result of internalizing a different series of concepts, is an actively inquiring, flexible, creative, innovative, tolerant, liberal personality

who can formulate viable new meanings to meet changes in the environment which threaten individual and mutual survival. The new education is new because it consists of having students use the concepts most appropriate to the world in which all live. All of these concepts constitute the dynamics of the questing--questioning, meaning-making process that can be called "learning how to learn."

In Chapter III the writer will offer a Syllabus for the course entitled The Principles of Child Development.

CHAPTER III

C O U R S E S Y L L A B U S

Chapter III will consist of a syllabus for the Course
The Principles of Child Development.

Course Number: Descriptive Title: Principles
of Child Development

Credit Hours: 3 Semester Hours

Prerequisite: Undergraduate standing

Course Description: A professionally oriented course encompassing child development from conception to adolescence.

Its purpose is to portray behavior as the dynamic emergent of biological foundations, individual experience, and socio-cultural milieu. Accomplishment of so broad a goal requires materials from areas of subject matter both inside and outside the field of child development. Developmental psychologists in the past decade have moved considerably toward such an establishment of harmonious relations through their concern for the educational application of knowledge of child development and learning. Further the lines between maturational development psychology and experimental child psychology have begun to be eased. This course, therefore, attempts to use the self of the child as the integrative theme around which studies of both factors outside as well as those within

the individual makeup influence both development and learning. The aim is to help the student of child growth and development to understand the individual child, who represents organization of the external and internal forces which have acted and are acting on the growing organism. With the background as a student, the practitioner then may be more effective in helping the child to learn to develop to the fullest potential of growth and learning.

Objectives:

1. To provide continuity by tracing human development from one stage to the next.
2. To regard related phenomena in various aspects of growth, physical, social, emotion and intellectual.
3. To present a comprehensive view of the child at each stage of development.
4. To focus on ways in which various factors influence the development of personality and mental functioning.
5. To integrate contemporary child development research in findings and knowledge with general behavior theory.
6. To emphasize concepts derived from research, psychological investigations, sociological and cultural anthropological studies which are relevant and necessary to achieve objectives of this course.

Textbook (s): Human Development From Birth Through Adolescence. Second Edition, Ira J. Gordon.
Harper and Row Book Company, New York: 1969.

Special requirements of the course:

1. Individual reports: each student will present reports on current research studies in child development in a

variety of areas such as: cognitive development, parent-child interaction, teacher behavior, teacher-child relationships, preschool group experiences. Topics to be selected from the attached reference list.

2. Special group projects: the groups will cooperate in planning special projects for the children and their parents--newspapers, library references, bulletin boards.
3. Diary: students will keep a diary of important experiences in the class. Keep brief notes on 5" by 8" note cards. Date each entry and give the name of the individual participating. Content and neatness are important.
4. Reading assignments: reading assignments will be made in the textbook to correspond with class lectures. Supplemental reading material will be required, these sources will be on the reserve shelf in the library.
5. Selected unit: each student will prepare a unit in child development. Objectives for the unit will be developed and will materials be collected which can be used to develop the unit. These will include an annotated bibliography, and bulletin board materials. The unit will vary in length according to the number of weeks to be covered. A brief presentation or explanation of the unit will be presented to the class. Grades will be based on oral and written explanations of the unit.
6. Special group projects: the group will cooperate in planning for research personnel, field trips, audio-visual aids, daily and current events and lectures being presented on current research studies.

Methodology used in teaching the course

1. The open classroom according to Kohl
2. Lecture
3. Discussion
4. Group encounters according to Rogers
5. Bulletin boards
6. Group discussions

7. Group reports
8. Field trips
9. Audio-visual aids
10. Individual research projects'
11. Interviews
12. Diary
13. Problem solving situations
14. Direct observations and study of preschool children
15. Role-playing

Annotated Bibliography:

Method of evaluating work of students:

1. Tests - two tests and a final examination may be used during the semester.
2. Types of Evaluation:
 - Instructor's evaluation
 - a) attitude and interest
 - b) attendance and promptness in completing assignments and make-up work following excused absences
 - c) class preparation and presentation
 - d) class participation and initiative
 - e) participation in group projects and reports
 - f) participation in field trips
 - g) quality and performance on assigned topics; research reports and diary.

A N N O T A T E D B I L G I O G R A P H Y

This section contains annotated entries of books for the course, The Principles of Child Development.

Alexander, Martha. Blackboard Bear. New York: The Dial Press, 1969.

A small boy is not allowed to play with bigger boys. He draws a bear on the blackboard who steps down to become his playmate. Then the bigger boys want to play with him, but he draws them on the board also and the bear eats them.

Aires, P. (Translation by R. Baldrich). Centuries of Childhood. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1962.

The social history of the family shows how the idea of family and the idea of childhood developed and interrelate. The book provides an excellent background for current child study. For historical backgrounds of education, in terms of child life.

Baker, K. R., and Xenia F. Fane. Understanding and Guiding Young Children. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967.

The book stresses child understanding rather than child care. It approaches child understanding through self-understanding. It presents lasting principles, generalizations and concepts rather than minute techniques which may become outmoded.

Baldwin, A. J. Theories of Child Development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967.

A survey of six major theories of child development, a review of social-learning theory, and a chapter on common-sense psychology.

Brackbill, Yvonne. Infancy and Early Childhood. New York: Free Press, 1967.

This book is dedicated to the understanding of infancy and early childhood and its corollary. The prediction and understanding of human development and adult behavior.

Breckenridge, M. E., and M. E. Murphy. The Growth and Development of the Young Child. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, Seventh Edition, 1964.

In this book, as in others, interrelationships in the child's physical development, psychological development and family life, which is the primary environmental influence during the early years, are emphasized.

Breckenridge, M. E. and E. J. Vincent, Ph.D. Child Development, Physical and Psychological Growth Through Adolescence. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 5th Edition, 1965.

This research has modified our understanding of the mechanisms of heredity, of the interrelationships between physical and psychological development, perception and cognition and between personality and intellectual development.

Church, J. Language and the Discovery of Reality. New York: Random House, Inc., 1961.

Summarizes the child's cognitive and linguistic development, combining ideas, research findings, and personal interpretation. An entertaining book directed both to better educated laymen and to scientists.

Clifford, E. "Social Visibility," Child Development, Vol. 34. 1963.

In this study, children's sociometric status is related to their social visibility, or position of a group, as perceived by other members of the group.

Devlin, Wende, and Harry Devlin. How Fletcher Was Hatched. New York: Parents' Magazine Press, 1969.

Fletcher, a floppy hound, wanted to be hatched. He persuaded some animal friends to encase him in an egg, made of wrappings around a crude cage. When he clawed his way out, he found he was still Fletcher! However, his young mistress wanted him.

Devlin, Wende, and Harry Devlin. Old Black Witch. New York: Parents' Magazine Press, 1966.

A delightfully scary Hollowe'en story of a witch who helped with a tea room.

Despert, J. L. The Emotionally Distrubed Child--Then and Now. New York: Vantage Press, 1965.

Surveys the stories of the child, and attitudes toward him, from biblical times through the nineteenth century, followed by sections on "The Emotionally Healthy Child," "The Emotionally Distrubed Child," and "Reflections on the Family."

Dinkmeyer, Don C. Child Development: The Emerging Self. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.

The book emphasizes both the internal growth forces and the external adjustment processes related to the emerging self. At the same time the child is developing internally, he must learn to adjust himself to the problems of self and those about him.

Evans, Ellis. Children: Readings in Behavior and Development. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.

The editor provides a variety of information on child development, a study in many different ways with varying degrees of specificity. Rarely are child development research activities designed so that their themes are mutually exclusive.

Fraiberg, Selma. The Magic Years. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1959.

The author takes the reader into the mind of the child, showing how he confronts this world and learns to cope with it. With great warmth and perception, the quality of understanding that can provide the right answer at critical moments.

Fujikawa, Gyo. Babies. New York: McLoughlin Brothers, A Division of Grosset and Dunlap, Inc., 1963.

Picture book showing babies in different stages of growth--in the crib, crawling, walking, learning to eat, and the like.

Growing into independence; appreciation of children's abilities and inabilities.

Getzels, J. W. "Preschool Education," Teachers College Record, Vol. 48, No. 3, 1966.

Discusses critical issues concerned with immediate operational problems as well as long-term underlying problems.

Gilbert, Elliott. A Cat. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963.

Just many beautiful illustrations of cats at all ages and in all poses. Good for stimulating conversation.

Relationships between child and pets; to stimulate imagination and conversation.

Hayes, C. The Ape in Our House. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1951.

A couple adopts a small chimpanzee and raises it like a child. This popularly written and entertaining book helps one appreciate the relative role of heredity and environment.

Hildebrand, Verna. Introduction to Early Childhood. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1970.

In a clear, warm, unusually absorbing style, this book furnishes comprehensive material on the physical as well as the psychological growth of the child, from birth through adolescence relating to both the familial and cultural environment.

Hoban, Russell. Harvey's Hideout. New York: Parents' Magazine Press, 1969.

Two little animals, brother and sister, have separate hideouts for play. They quarrell, only to discover they both want to play together rather than alone.

Brother and sister relationships; difference between male and female roles.

Jackson, E. B. Child Development Patterns in the United States. New York: Basic Books, 1956.

An excellent description of development and behavior patterns in the United States

Kessen, W. The Child. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965.

Papers written between 1742 and 1963 by such important persons as Rousseau, Darwin, Watson, Freud, and Piaget.

Littledale, Harold. Alexander. New York: Parents' Magazine Press, 1964.

Story of a little boy recalling his misadventures of the day as though his horse (large stuffed) had committed them. He ends by saying, "I guess he just had a bad day!"

Self-control; wisdom to see self and problems.

Logan, Lillian M. Teaching the Young Child. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1960.

The book was written for students preparing to teach in nursery schools as parents. It deals with the young child from 2 to 9 years of age.

Lowenfeld, Viktor and W. L. Brittain. Creative and Mental Growth. 5th Edition. New York: Macmillan Company, 1971.

This book is designed for parents, teachers, and others who have an interest in children and their art.

McCandless, B. R. Children: Behavior and Development. 2nd Edition. Dallas: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967.

An interesting approach to cognitive development, attention to curiosity in the life of the child, investigation of creativity, a proliferating and useful literature concerning infant learning and development, and imaginative research on the relations between body build and social adjustment.

Minturn, L., and W. W. Lambert. Mothers of Six Cultures. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964.

Reports cultural factors in child-training practices. The cultures involved were in New England, Mexico, the Philippines, Okinawa, India and Africa.

Muller, Philippe. The Task of Childhood. (Translated from the French by Anita Mason). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

For the student professional worker in child-care, it provides a compact outline of the theory, history and vocabulary of child psychology. The ideas of Freud, Piaget, Lewin, and others are summarized and compared. Methods and results in the testing of intelligence and other factors are evaluated.

Mussen, Paul H. and Others. Readings in Child Development and Personality. Second Edition. New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

The text emphasizes the importance of the cultural context in which the child grows and the cognitive bases of his personality and motivational development.

O'Brien, Thomas M. To Know a Tree. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963.

Different kinds of familiar trees are presented in a way that groups their components. Not fiction, but worthwhile for inclusion because of stimulation of descriptive conversation.

Beginning science concepts; differing kinds of the same basic things; classification.

Pavenstedt, E. "A Comparison of the Child Rearing Environment of Upper-Lower and Very Low Lower-Class Families," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 35 (1965).

Differentiates child-rearing in families of the organized, stable, often upwardly mobile upper-lower class group and the deprived disorganized multi-problem families of very low lower-class group. Recommendations are made for dealing with children of the lower-lower class group.

Piper, Watty, Editor. The Bumper Book. New York: The Platt and Munk Co., Inc, 1946.

Collected favorite stories and poems for children.

A collection of stories and poems children love.

Read, Katherine. The Nursery School: A Human Relationship Laboratory. 5th Edition. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders, 1970.

Discusses nursery school in terms of its curriculum and equipment, its goals, parent-child and parent-teacher relationships, and effects of nursery school on children's adjustment.

Redl, Fritz, and David Wineman. Children Who Hate. New York: Macmillan Company, 1965.

The main goals of this study are to explore why behavior controls in children break down, how some youngsters defend themselves so successfully against the adults in their lives.

Riessman, F. The Culturally Deprived Child. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, Inc., 1962.

A small, readable volume intended "for all social practitioners who are concerned with underprivileged groups."

Scheinfeld, A. Your Heredity and Environment. New York: J. P. Lippincott, 1965.

This highly readable book treats genetics in many aspects and stresses the relationship between heredity and environment.

Scott, L. H. Child Development. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1967.

This book is the outgrowth of twenty years of teaching and research in the related field of Child Development and Family Relationships. It was written to offer the student a somewhat different approach to the subject matter of what the growing child is like.

Singer, R., and Anne Singer. Psychological Development in Children. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1969.

A principle theme of the book is socialization, the way in which the child acquires the feelings, thoughts, and social behaviors which make him a functioning member of the part of the culture in which he lives.

Solnit, A. J., and S. A. Provence, Eds. Modern Perspectives in Child Development. New York: International Universities Press, 1963.

The major portion of the book treats child development in various aspects, biological, psychological, psychosomatic, psychiatric, and educational, all being related to the practices and study of pediatrics today.

Tanner, J. M. Growth at Adolescence. (2nd Ed.) Oxford: Blackwell Scientific Publications, 1962.

A general consideration of the effects of heredity and environmental factors upon growth and maturation from birth to maturity.

Thayer, Jane. What's a Ghost Going to Do? New York: William Morrow and Co., 1966.

Funny predicaments a ghost can get into--how to get out is the question.

A good Halloween book that is not scary; accepting customs.

Todd, V. E. and H. Heffernan. The Years Before School. New York: Macmillan Company, 1970.

For those who work with children, like to know effective ways of working with children and families, need suggestions about preschool children. This book brings together under one cover the breadth of thought about teaching preschool children.

Tarrance, E. P. Guiding Creative Talent. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962.

Treats both theoretical and practical aspects of developing creativity in children.

Wickes, F. G. The Inner World of Childhood. 3rd Edition. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1966.

A newer edition of a classic in analytic psychology. Discusses different aspects of child life, including early life, imaginary companions, fears, sex, dreams, and fantasy.

Young, Miriam. Miss Suzy. New York: Parents' Magazine Press, 1964.

Miss Suzy is a gray squirrel who has built a nest, and has been throw out of it by red squirrels. Some wooden toy soilders in an attic home come to her rescue.

Helping others; personal resourcefulness.

CHAPTER IV

C U R R I C U L U M D E S I G N

This section contains a curriculum design for use with the course "The Principles of Child Development." This course emphasizes how the newborn infant develops into an adult. It is a story of change, continuous change. The focus is the child as an individual, and the ways in which he relates to various environmental factors. The child must be seen as a whole, and to look at this whole being in various stages of development. The study shall look at specific processes of areas of development, such as physical growth, social development, and mental growth. The advantages are that a great deal can be learned about these particular aspects of development through studying them separately. Another approach, labeled "experimental child psychology," has concerned itself with manipulating the situation in which the child finds himself, so as to see in what ways development is influenced by learning.

The point of view in this course is to learn from all of the above approaches, but the child must be kept as an individual continually in focus, correlating understanding

about his environment and his biological organism into one system. Gordon (19) says that behavior and development are a continuous process of transaction between the child's biological organism and socio-physical environment. Any study that does not look at both elements presents a somewhat distorted picture of the child. In effect, the course attempts to combine an "external" approach of looking at the child's home, peer group, school, society, and responses to experimental situations, with an "internal" approach of looking at the child's perception of these various situational forces, and how he perceives his own body and his own growth.

OUTLINE

I. Some General Principles of Development

- A. Developmental Task
- B. Laws Governing Development
- C. Interrelation of Aspects of Development
- D. Applications of the Whole-Child Concept
- E. Utilization of the Principles of Growth
- F. Methods for Acquiring Knowledge of
Growth Processes

II. Physical Influences on Growth

- A. Heredity
- B. Maturation
- C. Endocrines and Their Relation to Growth
- D. Prematurity
- E. Influence of Illness on the Pattern
of Growth
- F. Physical Defects

III. Emotional Influences on Growth

- A. The Nature of Emotions
- B. Development of Emotions

IV. Influence of Nutrition and Routines on Growth

- A. Important Concepts
- B. Food Affects Health and Growth
- C. Effects of Nutrition on Behavior and
Mental Performance
- D. Nutritional Needs of Children
- E. Meeting the Nutritional Needs of
Children
- F. Eating Habits
- G. Other Factors Related to Nutrition

V. Influences of Home, School, and Camps on Growth

- A. Influence of Home and Family
- B. The School
- C. Home-School Cooperation
- D. Other Agencies and Experiences

VI. Additional Influences on Growth

- A. Effect of Culture
- B. Race
- C. Socioeconomic Status
- D. Community Environments
- E. Movies
- F. Radio and Television
- G. Newspaper and Magazines
- H. The Total Effect of Mass Media
- I. Recreational Activities

VII. Physical Growth and Uses of the Body

- A. The Newborn Child
- B. Growth in Size
- C. Body Framework
- D. Organs and Functions

VIII. Growth and Use of Motor Control

- A. General Body Control

- B. Development of Finer Motor Skills
 - C. Implications for Education
- IX. Development of the Senses, Perception and Cognition
- A. Intelligence
 - B. Learning and How It Comes About
 - C. Individual Differences in Perceptual and Cognitive Behavior
 - D. Development of Sense Perceptions and Judgments
- X. Development of Memory; Imagination; Creative Ability
- A. Memory
 - B. Imagination
 - C. Creative Ability
- XI. Development of Thinking and Reasoning
- A. Development of Language
 - B. Reading: Part of Language Growth
 - C. The Use of Language in Development of Thinking and Reasoning

XII. Social and Personality Development

- A. General Personality Trends
- B. Personality
- C. How Personality Develops
- D. Patterns of Personality Development

(III Social and Personality Development:
Conflict and Aggression; Cooperation
and Friendship

- A. Conflict and Aggression
- B. Cooperation and Friendship

XIV. Social and Personality Development:
Moral Character and Psychosexual
Development

- A. Development of Moral Character
- B. Psychosexual Development
- C. Sex Education
- D. Wider Personal Relationship
- E. Teen-Age Marriage

XV. A Summary of Growth Achievements

- A. The Demands of Life
- B. Case Studies

CHAPTER V

S U M M A R Y A N D R E C O M M E N D A T I O N S

The curriculum for college students in Child Development leading to an undergraduate degree must be relevant to the world of work and involvement the students will face upon graduation. It must be presented in such a manner as to teach problem definition, analysis of possible solutions and problem solution. While no problem is ever solved terminally, successful pursuit of each segment leads to successful attacks and procedure for the ensuing segments. This challenge to education provides the basis for this current study.

The purposes of this study were

- 1) To develop a syllabus and an innovative teaching design for a basic course, The Principles of Child Development, and
- 2) To develop a realistic curriculum for the undergraduate majors in Child Development leading to an undergraduate degree.

The central task of teacher education is to provide teachers with a sense of purpose, with a philosophy of education. This means developing teachers' ability and their desire to think seriously, deeply, and continuously about the purposes and consequences of what they do, about the ways in which their curriculum and teaching methods, classroom and school organization, testing and grading procedures, affect purpose and are affected by it. For immediate skill may be received at the cost of the power to keep on growing. The teacher who leaves the professional school with power in managing a class of students may appear to have superior advantage the first day, the first week, or even the first year. But later "progress" may be such as to consist only of perfecting and refining skills already possessed. Such persons seem to know how to teach, but they are not students of teaching. Unless a teacher is also a student of teaching, he cannot grow as a teacher, an inspirer and director of original life.

The deepest criticism which can be made of the present system of teacher education is that it does not touch the life of its students, it does not now arouse in them a delight in what they are doing, it does not engage them in action through which their own lives may be fulfilled. Faculties of education will not be able to touch the lives of students unless their own lives have been touched, unless

their conception of education is reflected in the way they teach as well as in what they teach. If the students see around them in the colleges the cynicism of teachers who care little for the art of teaching, whose talents ill-equip them for the task they have accepted, they will be unable to respond and unlikely to create their own conception of what it means to be a teacher.

It is unreasonable to expect every educationist to be an inspiring teacher, let alone an inspiring human being; inspiration will always be in short supply. It is not unreasonable, however, to expect them to think about educational purposes, and to arrange a curriculum that reflects their thought. If schools of education are to turn out men and women who not only know how to teach but who are, as well, students of teaching, their programs must have far greater coherence than most now have. To provide coherence in this sense, the faculty must continually ask itself the question few faculties have asked: "What difference does it make that a teacher is educated here, rather than somewhere else?"

To be effective, the teacher must have a broad background of knowledge. She must have a liberal education. She needs to understand the physical world and man's place in the world. She must be aware of the interaction among

the various phases of life, of the likenesses and differences that exist among peoples, and of the development in our changing civilization. Understanding these things, she can help the child understand, interpret, and accept himself, and the society in which he lives.

Professional education consists of more than the mechanics of "keeping school," the techniques, methods, or mystery of narrow subject matter. It includes a knowledge of educational foundations, educational psychology, child development, principles of education, curriculum, guidance, special methods of teaching, observation of teaching and learning, and directed student teaching. It includes experiences in planning, in using school and community resources, in organizing the school day. It consists of arranging the classroom environment, directing routines, grouping and evaluating pupils, doing experimental teaching, and maintaining classroom control. It involves working with records and reports, preparing instructional materials, meeting parents, and participating in professional meetings.

There is currently a trend toward spreading a prospective teacher's professional learning throughout her college career, on the assumption that time is needed for a teacher to develop professional attitudes, insights, and

techniques. Yet teaching is not creative if it is considered as only a set of techniques to be learned and applied. The prospective teacher owes it to her students to obtain the finest background possible in liberal arts, and then build upon that background in the professional courses that develop the understanding, skills, techniques that are required for successful teaching.

Teachers are more than the instruments by which the educative process advances. As one of their many roles, they interpret the school to the community. This they do, consciously and unconsciously, through the children they teach. The child who is happy in school, who is successful, and who likes his teacher is the best press agent the school has.

Parents and administrators look to the teacher not only to deal with the needs of the children; they expect teachers to be contributing members of the community, to represent their profession by being leaders in civic affairs, and in general to display sound motivation and reasonable maturity. They have a right to expect this, but in turn they must be sensitive to an equal degree to the needs of the teacher. Both parents and administrators must be concerned with making teaching a satisfying experience and restoring it to the place it deserves among the professions.

Such a goal is imperative, if for no other reason than the fact that unless it is achieved the students will suffer.

The investigator believes that in order to effect educational change to a significant degree, courses and experiences must be planned with clearly defined goals and in the context of behavioral objectives. Based on the assumption that beliefs and opinions are symbols of attitude and that these serve as a means for measuring educational change, learning experiences planned to effect change in beliefs and preconceived ideas toward an object or situation become imperative. Education involves both affective and cognitive components, thus the interaction of these must be given consideration as activities are planned in the realms of both theoretical and practical application.

Well defined objectives for students' programs are recommended to assist in identifying the philosophical framework within which the program is functioning. Theoretical and philosophical orientations must be given greater priority and attention by teachers involved with students in child development and child guidance learning experiences.

Programs for students in child development need to be based on theoretical and philosophical assumptions which are clearly identified in the syllabus of this paper, and

which are further illustrated in the curriculum. Flexibility in learning experiences must be maintained but with well defined objectives and a conceptual framework in order to make the experiences more meaningful.

The writer recommends that the student teacher have a full year of student teaching. There must be enough time allotted to enable the student teacher to have the following experiences: to participate in the overall planning of the semester's work; to observe critically for a week or more, with the guidance of someone who can tell him what to look for; to begin with simple instructional tasks involving individuals and small groups of children, not filling out forms or pulling on rubbers; and ultimately, to assume full responsibility for an extended period of instruction which he plans, executes, and evaluates.

The regular teacher in whose classroom the future teacher works should be one known to his own school officials, the collegiate faculty, and the state department as a highly competent teacher both of classroom pupils and of student teachers. Such persons, often called "cooperating teacher," should have time freed to aid the student teachers; they should also have increased compensation in recognition of added responsibility and special talent.

This author recommends that institutions of higher education give special attention to providing opportunities through courses and institutes especially to assist professional personnel in providing more effective learning situations through which students can develop competencies needed in working with and guiding young children. A further recommendation is continuous evaluation, including research components, for assessing the effectiveness of teacher training programs and college courses and programs focusing on child development.

Educators have arrived at a point in time when they must accept the greater challenge to go beyond measuring and understanding educational change to that of using knowledge in order to produce educational change. Programs based on orientations supportive of democratic ideology coupled with developmental phases of personality formation appears basic to the American way of life. Thus, assisting individuals to be more effectively guiders of young children in developing, to the greatest possible extent, recognized capabilities and potentialities continues to be a challenge and a responsibility for educators in areas of child development.

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