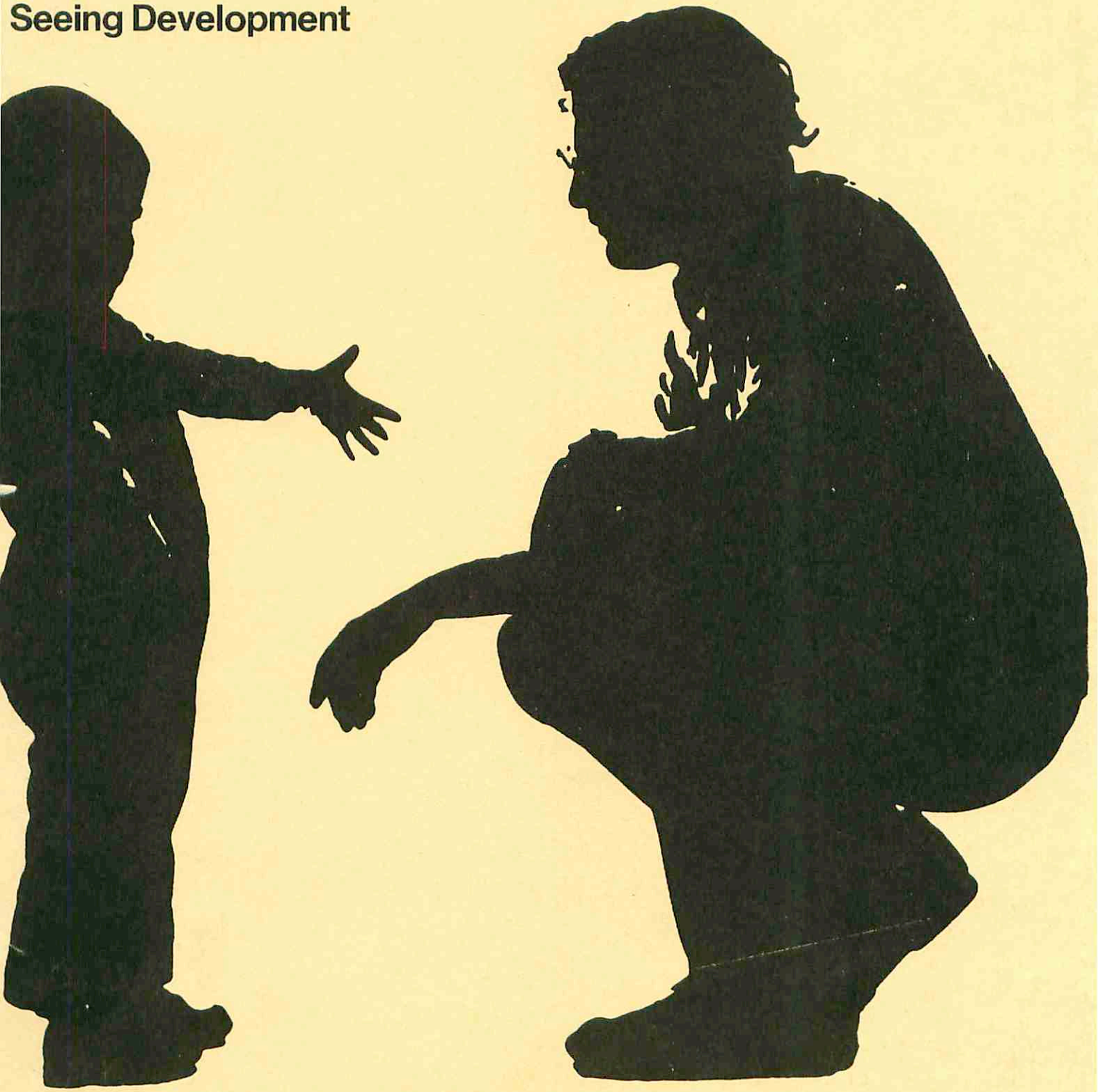
Teacher's Guide/Exploring Childhood

Babies Are Beginnings

Seeing Development



Preface

During the past decade many books and curricula have been written about infant learning and ways to support an infant's development. Why then did we develop new material on infancy for EXPLORING CHILDHOOD?

For one, we feel it is important to provide materials designed with the level and interests of EXPLORING CHILDHOOD students in mind, offering questions and activities that are appropriate to the actual situations in which students will be working with babies, and building on the conceptual framework that has structured other EXPLORING CHILDHOOD materials. Secondly, we wanted to expand the scope of issues typically addressed in books about infants. Most recent books for caregivers on infants focus simply, albeit thoroughly, on infant development and techniques caregivers can use to support development. *Babies Are Beginnings* deals with these issues, but in each aspect of development goes on to explore the individuality of infant style and temperament, the expectations and reactions of caregivers, and the patterning of caregiving relationships.

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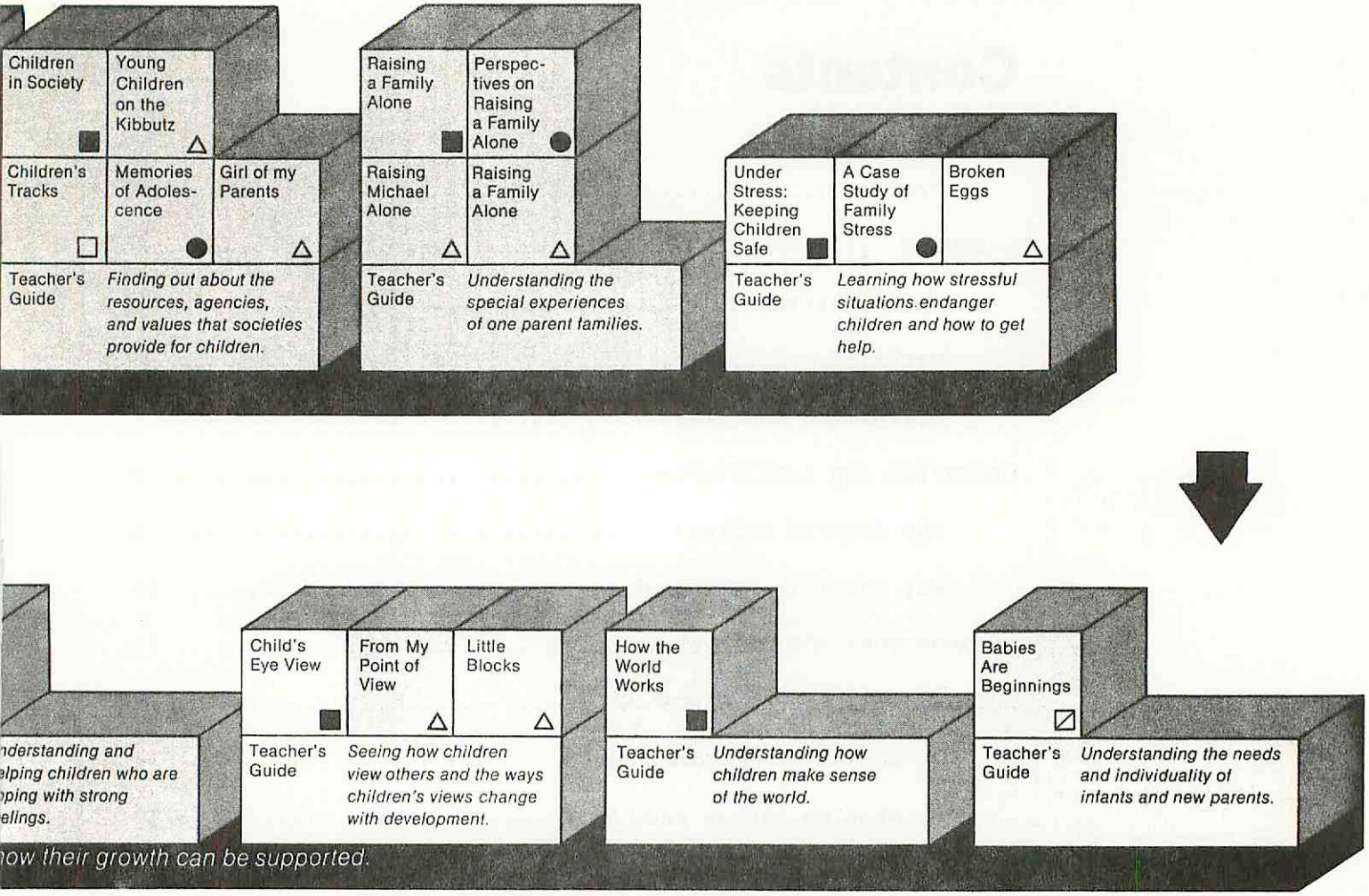

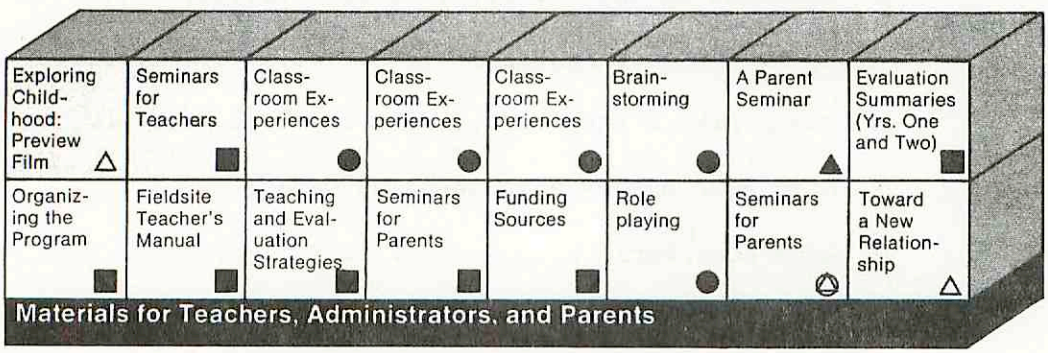

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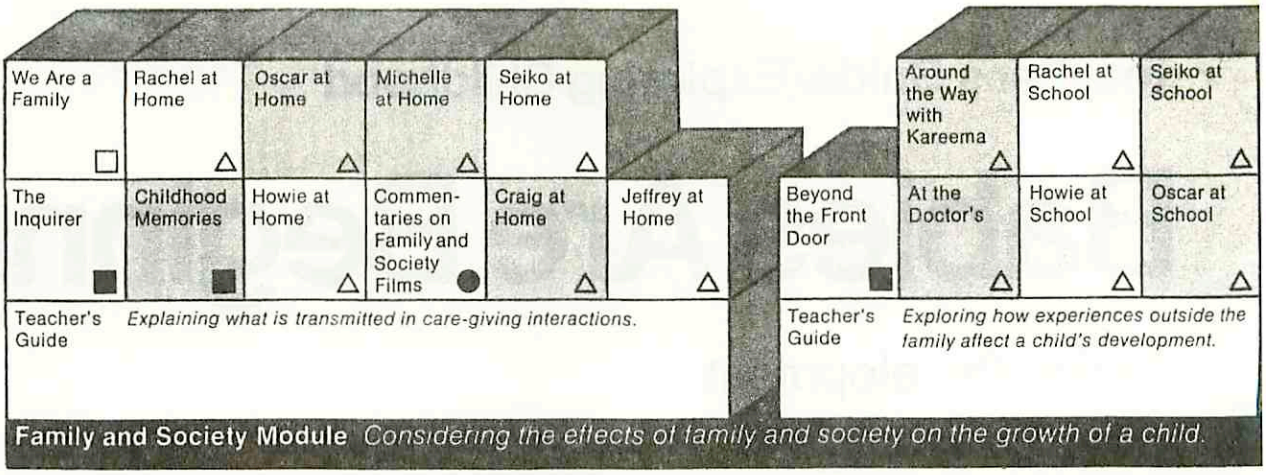
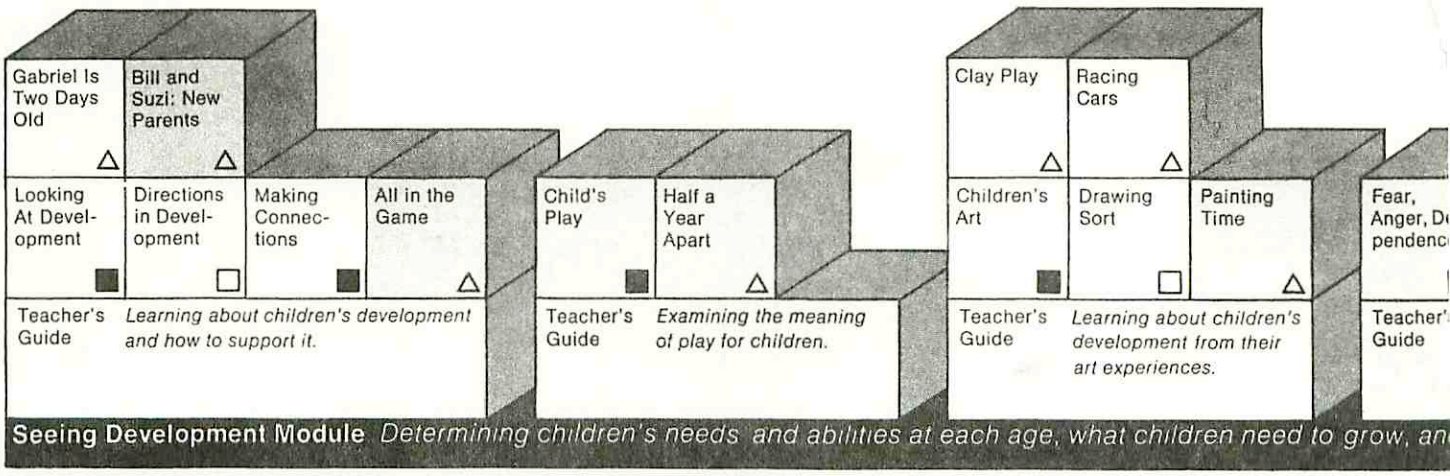
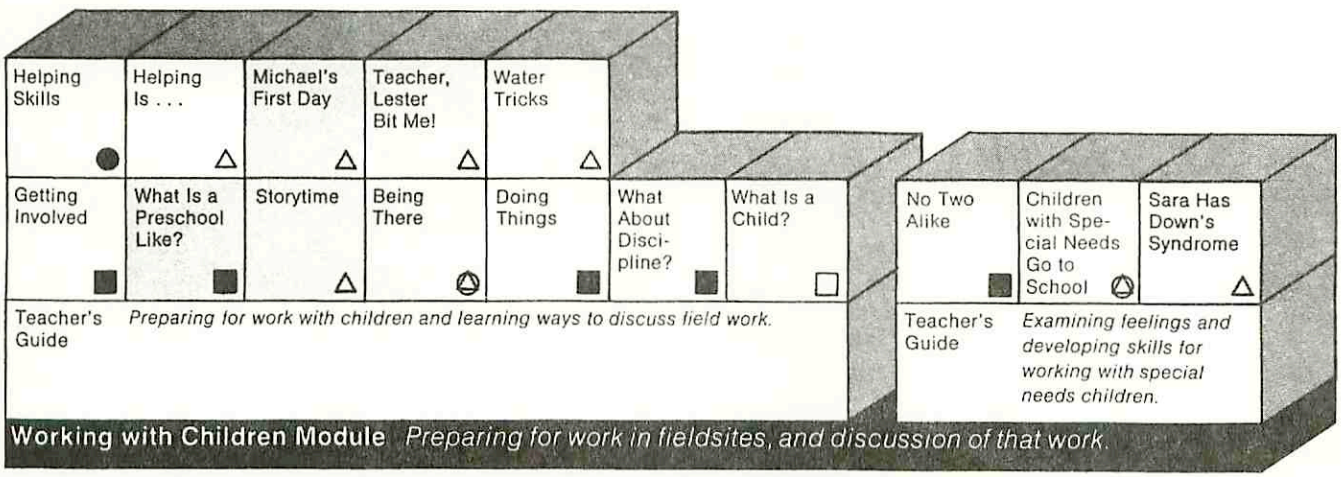






Exploring Childhood

Key

- ■ Booklet
- △ Film
- ⊘ Filmstrip and Record
- □ Poster
- ● Record
- ▨ Cards
- ▲ Cassette

Teacher's Guide/Exploring Childhood

Babies Are Beginnings

Seeing Development

EDC School and Society Programs
55 Chapel Street
Newton, Massachusetts 02160

Overview

It happens thousands of times every day around the world--the birth of a completely new human being. Each baby may bring chores, cares, and awesome responsibilities, but above all babies offer their parents and all who care for them the wonder and excitement of being there in the beginning--to see and to contribute to the growth of a new person.

Through advances in biology, medicine, and other sciences we now know a great deal about human development right from conception on. But no amount of scientific knowledge can reduce the fascination of getting to know a baby firsthand and of learning from that baby, and through that relationship, about parenthood, ourselves, and the human species.

This unit helps students explore the fascinating period of infancy by guiding them through experiences to learn about one baby while at the same time learning to care for that baby. Unit materials provide information on infancy, suggest activities and issues to explore, and structure a close helping relationship with the baby's primary caregiver. Hence the unit tempers theory and research on infancy with direct personal experience for students with those most deeply involved--babies and their parents.

Goals

This unit is built around the interplay of three goals:

1. To acquire knowledge and understanding about the general needs and patterns of development in infants.

   Students examine everyday aspects of babies' lives (like sleeping, eating, reaching, walking, understanding, speaking, relating to others, and becoming autonomous) to learn what most babies can do at various ages and how their needs and abilities change as they grow.

2. To recognize individuality and differences of temperament among babies.

   Each baby is born with his own way of being as he develops. These styles can be described in terms of how adaptable a baby is, how distractible, persistent, rhythmic, predictable, active, how intensely or how quickly he responds. Temperamental qualities show in almost everything babies do and are integral to their growing personalities.

3. To be aware of how patterns of parent-child interaction are established during infancy and how they reflect not only parental expectations and experiences but also the personalities of both baby and parent.

   From the beginning, parents and babies grow and change in response to one another. To this process, caregivers bring the values and practices of their culture, their own temperament, habits, beliefs, and expectations for themselves as parents and for their child. For their part, babies bring the powerful influence of their own temperament. Caregivers who recognize this process may see that they have more latitude with their infants than they first recognized and that in being effective parents it is as important to recognize their own needs and abilities as it is to understand the needs and abilities of their baby.

As a whole, the course of study is designed to offer students the chance to *gain understandings and practice skills that enable them to care responsibly for infants.*

Learning Context

Babies Are Beginnings combines class experiences and materials with field experiences focused around a special relationship with one baby and his or her primary caregiver. Activity cards inform this experience with information drawn from practice, theory, and research, with suggested observations, activities, and interviews, and with questions to stimulate students' consideration of open-ended issues.

Through their involvement in caring for an infant, combined with unit materials, students can gain insight into their own temperaments and development.

Because baby-caregiver relationships are intimate and personal, we have based this study of infancy in field work which features a close relationship with one infant --more like baby-sitting or parent-helping than work in a child-care group setting. To maximize learning under these conditions, we developed the set of activity cards, so that:

- students can shape their study to the age and abilities of their particular infants by choosing among cards and by working individually or with a small group of students whose babies are close in age;

- students can easily share information and projects with parent-partners.

LEARNING FLOW

The unit design creates the following dynamic flow of learning among five elements:

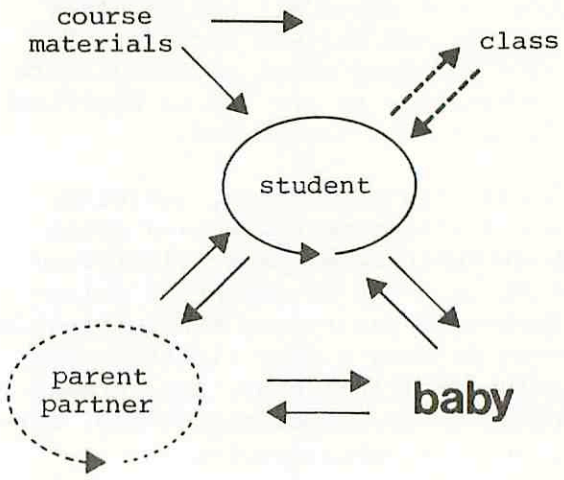
1. *Babies Are Beginnings* and other EXPLORING CHILDHOOD materials

2. class experiences and group sharing

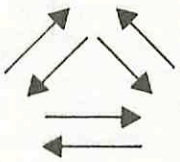
3. the student

4. the parent-partner

5. the baby

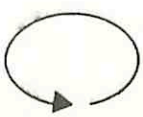


Course input of important information and of stimuli to observe, investigate, analyze, and act on.

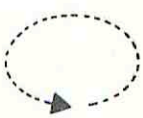


This mutual exchange is a key element of learning in the unit.

Students pool experience and learnings from the basic triangle to enlarge the scope of what they know about infants. This sharing helps them to generalize about infant development and to recognize differences among infants.



In thinking about infant and caregiver behaviors, students examine their own values, behavior, and expectations.



And we hope parent-partners will find similar benefits.

THE TEACHER'S ROLE

You play a crucial part in setting this dynamic in motion and supporting learning as facilitator and resource person. You will serve as facilitator by:

- organizing time and your room so students can work on their own and in small groups;
- helping students establish relationships with infants and parent-partners;
- bringing the whole group together for film viewing, speakers, or discussion.

And you will act as a resource to individual students and small groups by:

- helping them plan activities;
- leading discussions about issues raised by unit materials or the students' caregiving experiences;
- supplementing student discussion with information and activities from this guide and other EXPLORING CHILDHOOD materials;
- providing other written resources, such as a classroom collection of books on infancy (see bibliography);
- sharing your knowledge of agencies and people in the community who work with infants and parents;
- drawing upon your own experience as a child (and maybe a parent) in discussions with students.

Parent-Partners

Students can learn most about what infants are like and what supports their development through active, guided involvement with infants and their caregivers. It is therefore very important to find infants with whom students can work and to establish good relationships between students and caregivers.

The infant with whom a student establishes a caregiving relationship is called "your baby." Since it is important to think of babies as individuals, we use singular pronouns and have therefore chosen to use "he" and "she" randomly when referring to babies individually.

Recognizing that babies are cared for in many settings, we refer to the adult with whom students work as parent-partner, mother, father, parents, and caregiver. No single term will apply to every student's situation. Therefore, instruct students to adapt each card to their particular experience. For instance, if a card asks them to interview their baby's parents and their parent-partner is single, they would be expected to interview only the parent available.

Guidelines for the student/parent-partner relationship should be discussed thoroughly and adapted to suit your community and group.

Finding Partners

With your guidance, students can help one another find potential parent-partners. Some may have a new infant in their home, extended family, or neighborhood and could arrange a partnership on their own. Students who are themselves parents could use the materials with their own infants and be paired with a more experienced parent-partner as well.

Other ways to locate parents of infants are:

- contacting pediatricians, well-baby clinics, visiting nurses association;

- putting up posters in laundries, pediatricians' offices, hospitals and clinics, child care centers;
- telling about the course in a local paper or radio station;
- contacting maternity ward staff in charge of in-hospital baby-care education;
- sending letters home with young school children or children in child care centers.

If a partner cannot be found for every student, two students might work together with an infant and parent. Furthermore, while much of the unit material focuses on infants under one year old, students could work with older babies.

Their campaign to locate parent-partners will help students begin thinking over their own responsibilities, opportunities, and concerns in the relationship.

Here is a sample of the sort of letter that will be needed to send to prospective partners explaining the program and the part students will take with babies and caregivers:

Dear

Our students are studying a unit called *Babies Are Beginnings* to learn how babies develop, how each baby is unique, how to support a baby's individual development, and how babies and adults influence each other's growth. Students in this course will use written and filmed materials in class and work with a baby and his or her parent or other regular caregiver at least two hours every week.

As a student's parent-partner, you can share what you know about your baby and about being a parent or caregiver. The student, in turn, will help care for the baby while doing observing and interviewing assignments for class. You may enjoy doing some assigned activities with the student and are welcome to. Of course, if you ever object to an activity or observation a student wants to do, or do not wish to discuss something, please say so.

Our goal is to give students skills, practice, and understanding that will help them to care responsibly for infants. We expect that you will find the ideas and activities students bring to you and your baby interesting and helpful to you as a parent. And we hope you will plan to join us in occasional special meetings we will hold to bring parent-partners together to discuss the course and what it is about. Our first get-together will be _____.

Sincerely,

Guidelines for the Relationship

The relationship among students, infants, and caregivers should be one of mutual enjoyment and learning. Parent-partners can share their experience and their knowledge of their baby; students can entertain the baby, offer some help with chores, and share what they pick up from the course and their own observations.

Parents should expect that students will have course commitments to carry out during their visits, but these are designed to fit the schedules of babies and parents so students can be genuinely helpful at the same time.

Many projects (preparing a meal, observing how the baby recognizes people) can be done by students and caregivers together. As far as possible, parent-partners should be expected to join students in discussing and carrying out unit activities. However, remind students that they must use sensitivity and discretion in judging whether their parent-partners wish to pursue a particular subject or activity.

Privacy: Many cards call for students to observe their infant and parent-infant interactions, or to interview parent-partners. *Make it clear to parents, to students, and to all involved that the intent of these activities is not to "check up" on parents but to help students learn about real infants and real parents from real experiences.*

Time: Students should spend at least two hours a week with their infants. This could be during school hours (under released time) or after school. The relationship might last two months, a semester, a year. Three months is probably an average length of time for this unit, but some teachers prefer to combine it with other EXPLORING CHILDHOOD units and spread it over a longer period.

Expenses: Since students will be learning as well as helping, we recommend that they not be paid for their weekly visits; these visits are part of their course commitment. However, students are likely to become qualified as excellent baby-sitters, and parents may wish to hire them as such for additional time. Parents and students should discuss the difference between these situations. (Nonschool, volunteer programs might want to include some way of paying students for some of their course field work.)

A few projects (preparing a meal, making a toy) might involve small expenses which could be covered by a fund-raising project.

Parent Meetings

We suggest providing structured meetings for parent-partners:

- to acquaint them with the unit program;
- to provide a forum in which parents can exchange ideas, concerns, and experiences;
- to give students a chance to draw on the experiences of different parents.

At the first meeting, you and the students could introduce participants and describe the program. Then together the group could discuss and clarify expectations. *Seminars for Parents* (EC) has information on organizing and leading parent meetings, along with specific seminar agendas. Films that relate to this unit (see the "Film Section" of this guide) can be shown and discussed at some of the meetings.

Although you might lead the first such meeting, your students could plan and carry out the others, drawing on their growing experience in class and baby care and on other EXPLORING CHILDHOOD materials. See *Getting Involved* (EC), pages 45-48, and *Working with Children* teacher's guide (EC) for ways of involving students in planning a seminar for field partners/ supervisors.

At the final meeting, students and parents could describe the projects they have done and what they have learned together about their infants and caregiving. If parents have been bringing their babies to these meetings, the group will enjoy noting how the babies have changed and may want to discuss developmental patterns reflected in these changes as well as individual differences among the babies.

Materials

Basic materials for *Babies Are Beginnings* are sets of 24 activity cards; two films, "Gabriel Is Two Days Old" and "Bill and Suzi: New Parents"; and the poster, "Directions in Development." Depending on the size of your group you will need two to four sets of cards.

The following EXPLORING CHILDHOOD materials are also relevant for this unit. They are identified thus (EC) when they are referred to in the text of this guide.

The Inquirer--guide for community study skills.

Looking at Development student booklet and teacher's guide--for ideas about using the "Directions in Development" poster, the "Gabriel" film, and collecting observations over time.

Making Connections student booklet and teacher's guide--for theories about development.

Family and Society teacher's guide, Part One; "Children at Home" films on Rachel, Seiko, Jeffrey, and Oscar; and the film "Around the Way with Kareema"--for considering how different families translate their values into ways of handling their babies and for looking at socializing interactions in homes where babies are present.

A Child's Eye View student booklet and teacher's guide, and the film "From My Point of View"--for information and activities on egocentrism.

Under Stress student booklet and teacher's guide--to supplement Card Q, "Stress and Support for Parents."

Doing Things student booklet--for ideas of activities and play materials.

Seminars for Parents--for ideas on leading parent meetings.

Teaching and Evaluation Strategies--for suggestions on role playing, film viewing, observing, brainstorming, and small-group work.

Activity Cards

Each card carries information about infants and parenting along with activities and observations to guide students in their experience. Cards range greatly in length, difficulty, and the ratio of information to suggested activities. Some have many questions, others no more than two or three arising from a central task. Everyone in a group should be able to find cards suiting their interests and abilities.

The themes of development, individual differences, and parent-infant interaction recur throughout the cards. Therefore students can benefit either from working with a wide range of many cards, or from working intensively with only a few cards. You can decide whether to urge all or some of your students to do all 24 cards or to have them focus on individually selected cards.

Sequence: The cards can be used in *any* order. We recommend, however, using the following cards early in the unit so students can conduct observations over time:

Card B, "When Does a Baby Know You?"

Card C, "Reaching: It's Not Only the Hand That Counts"

Card D, "Look, I'm Walking"

Card F, "Learning to Talk"

Card H, "Sleep Like a Baby"

Card M, "Inside the Baby, Looking Out"

Card K, "Feeding Your Baby"

Card L, "More Than Food Alone"

Card O, "Crying"

Card X, "Someone Special," is best used as a summarizing activity toward the end of the unit.

Supplementary Forms: Many cards mention using a special form for observations, interviews, activity planning. Suggested

formats for any such forms are included in this guide, pages 63-82, and are referred to in the notes for individual cards. You can duplicate enough forms for each student and file them next to the activity cards. Use of these forms helps students share and compare information and helps you keep track of students' work.

Organizing the Class

At the beginning of the unit, while the group is locating parent-partners and doing Introductory Activities, you can circulate sets of cards to acquaint students with the topics and format. At the same time, discuss how the class will be organized to use them.

The cards are ideal for setting up a self-run class. You might work out a contract system in which students complete a certain number of cards in a certain length of time. For instance, everyone might have to finish a certain number of cards by a certain day and report to the class. Then everyone would start new cards.

There are a number of possible working arrangements. Students can work on cards as individuals. A group of three or four can work on a card together from start to finish. Students who worked individually on the same card can come together to prepare a report. A small group can work on a set of related cards (like those on food).

You can have students decide what card to start with, or you might offer them several to choose among (perhaps some of the nine recommended for early use). Three or four students would sign up for each selected card, report at the end of a week, and then rotate.

Whole Group Activities

When students are doing a great deal of individual work, whole-group activities help maintain a sense of group sharing. Film viewing and discussion lend themselves to this sharing, and the activity cards themselves offer many such opportunities. They suggest a number of particular activities which can be done by the whole class (fixing baby food, inviting a speaker).

You might intersperse spans of individual and small-group work with times when everyone works on the same card (e.g., Card W, "Careers with Infants"; Card T, "Make a Toy"). Or you might plan to devote some part of every class session to whole-group activities.

Warm-up Activities: The guide notes for many cards suggest activities and discussion questions which the whole group can do together to prepare for individual use of the card. You can use these activities to stimulate curiosity about aspects of infant development and to arouse interest in specific cards, doing several as Introductory Activities and others later in the unit when students are changing cards.

Comparisons: Some cards (like those on sleep, mobility, food) suggest comparing the behavior of infants of different ages and temperaments. The whole class can make comparisons when most students have completed their observations on a given topic. Here are three examples of ways to do comparisons:

- Every student fills out a file card, or supplementary form, giving the baby's age and describing the baby's development in a given area. When these have been arranged from youngest to oldest, a small group can look through them to find (a) similarities among babies of various ages, and (b) patterns of change that come with age.

- Students meet in groups with others whose babies are close in age. Each group writes a behavior description for their age group on a sheet of newsprint. The descriptions are posted in order from youngest to oldest, and the whole class looks for development and patterns.

- To look for individual differences, too, students group with others whose babies are close in age. This time they look for *differences* in development. (Most one-year-olds are prac-

ticing or getting ready to walk, but what differs in *how* they do so?)

Reports and Discussions: Individuals or small groups can make class presentations of their work on a card and then lead a discussion on issues raised by the presentation and the card.

Use of Journals

Every student should get a sturdy notebook to use during the unit. They should bring their journals to class for activities and questions on the cards and for sharing ideas in small-group discussions. Journals can also be used in addition to, or instead of, forms duplicated from this guide to take notes on observations and interviews.

Encourage students to use their journals any time for jotting down reactions to the material, to a particular visit with their baby, to the experience of caregiving or parenting, to a class discussion. See *Teaching and Evaluation Strategies* (EC), pages 19-25, for a further discussion of using journals.

Students might keep mementoes or pictures of their baby in the journals to give to their parent-partners at the end of the unit as a Baby Book. Students who want to keep their own writing could make a separate Baby Book if they wished.

Relation to Other Exploring Childhood Units

Babies Are Beginnings might be used as an opening unit for EXPLORING CHILDHOOD, perhaps for the first six weeks. It could be used with portions of *Getting Involved*, which introduces observing, journal keeping, and consideration of helping roles; and with *Looking at Development*, which introduces the study of child development. It could be used during the last two months of the year to look back to the beginning of a child's development.

Another option is to have some students use the activity cards and work with infants while others work in preschools. Common class activities like film viewing or learning to observe would serve both groups.

Or some individual students, especially those who baby-sit for an infant or have an infant in their own family, might occasionally use the cards over an extended period of time or do some as a special project while working in a fieldsite and studying other units.

Observing and Interviewing

To gain skill in observing and interviewing, students will need help from you at the beginning and throughout the unit.

Why Observe Babies?

This unit asks students to look carefully at babies to see what they are really like, what they do and don't do. For years, people believed that babies could see only light and shadow, but when researchers observed babies carefully, they learned that four hours after birth, babies look more at one form than another. Observers can learn a lot about a baby's needs, abilities, and temperament by observing carefully. And observing a baby with his parents can show what both are learning from that interaction. With so much yet to be discovered about babies, your students can help discover some of it.

Problems in Observing Babies

One difficulty in observing is looking at a baby without having what we see be colored by our beliefs and the beliefs of everyone around us about what babies are like. If we believe that babies are helpless, floppy things, we might not notice the capabilities they are born with, or how actively they participate in getting their needs met and learning about the world. Or if we believe that babies are born with an urge to be bad and destructive, we might see their explorations as deliberate attempts to annoy us.

Another problem in observing is intepreting what we see. It's not always easy to tell from the outside what's really going on with a baby. A baby who's eating and has food coming out of her mouth may look as if she's deliberately shoving it out, but she may simply be feeling the food with her mouth. Or we may interpret a baby's behavior as we would an adult's. For example, students might miss a baby's first attempts to reach because it may not look like "reaching" when she stares at something with her arms flailing.

A third problem is drawing hasty conclusions from what we observe about ways to act with babies. (If a baby starts crying when his bottle is empty and taken from him, it does not necessarily mean he is still hungry and should be given more food.) Freda Rebelsky says, "Knowing something about a baby does not guarantee that you'll do 'the right' things for it. It doesn't follow inevitably, because we don't know all about what helps growth." Nevertheless, caregivers who have observed carefully and know their babies well are better equipped to meet their babies' needs than they otherwise would be.

Developing Observing Skills

Teaching and Evaluation Strategies (EC), pages 45-53, discusses use of observation further.

Being Specific: Students' initial observations should be very specific and structured. Observation assignments on the cards give students specific things to look for, and the forms suggested in this guide indicate structures to follow.

Looking with an Open Mind: Urge students to be as thorough as possible in noting things that happen. As long as people thought babies could not see, they themselves did not see all the evidence that babies did indeed recognize shapes, track moving objects with their eyes, and, in fact, did recognize their mothers, just as mothers had been saying all along.

Keeping an open mind also means trying to imagine what the baby is experiencing. Card M, "Inside the Baby, Looking Out," suggests that students watch the baby do disappearing games as if they were inside the baby's head, looking out. This exercise in shifting point of view is useful in all observing. Students could constantly remind themselves to ask:

How does this look to the baby?

What's the baby trying to do or say?

How might the baby interpret this?

Practicing: Students could prepare to observe with observation assignments in film viewing. Films like "At the Doctor's," "Bill and Suzi," "Kareema," and several "At Home" films offer opportunities to observe interactions with infants. In considering how you might use films for practicing, look at the film section of this guide for notes.

Discussing Observations: Discussions of students' observation notes should raise the issue of cultural biases and interpretations. Suppose an observation noted that "the mother looked angry." If you ask questions along this line:

What specific signs did you see of this?

Why did you interpret these signs in this way?

How else might you explain what you saw?

What did you see that you didn't expect to see?

Students may begin to realize that others may see things in different ways than they do. With this, they may become able to see more in their observations and be freer of biases.

But the way we see can never be completely separated from our culture, any more than the baby can be. Discussing the effect of biases on observations is a useful starting point for discussing the effect of biases on babies. If our expectations about babies color the way we see babies, they also color the way we respond to babies, and as a result the way babies respond to us. Several cards deal with this area: Card P, "Dealing with Crying"; Card E, "Getting into Everything"; Card X, "Someone Special."

Why Interview Parents?

The parent or caregiver spends more time with the baby than anyone else. They may be together all day, and may have been since the baby's birth. Even though their perceptions and memories cannot be unbiased, the parents probably know that particular baby better than anyone else does and can pass on a lot of solid information.

The parents also know better than anyone else how having a baby changes their daily life, the way they see themselves, their personal goals and expectations. They can give students a realistic sense of the difficulties and rewards of parenting.

Problems in Interviewing

As with observation, interpretation and bias make interviewing an imperfect art. Students should recognize that people can quickly forget things, especially if they didn't particularly notice them at the time; people may even unconsciously match what they remember to what they would like to think happened ("My babies never cried").

Freda Rebelsky gives the following examples of how even events in the present may be lost or distorted:

> When I was doing observations in the home with mothers and babies, I would ask, for instance, "Do you feed on a schedule or not?" They would say "yes" or "no," yet scheduled mothers always had some unscheduled times, and nonscheduled mothers had some scheduled time. I might ask how many meals the baby ate the day before, and some mothers would reflect and not be able to say.

To understand that memory is a variable thing and that parents' perceptions are colored by their expectations of babies and their relationship to their baby is not to say that parents cannot be trusted

to give honest and useful information, but only to remind students that everything happens in, and is seen in, a context. Parents can share a wealth of information to which they might not otherwise have given much thought, and it can be a pleasure to share what they know and remember. We have tried to structure assignments to "talk it over with your parent-partners" so parents will find these conversations as interesting and useful as students.

Some students may run into the problem of asking questions about something their parent-partner is reluctant to discuss; or in some parents' culture it may be considered disrespectful to ask elders questions. Cards remind students to secure parents' permission to do activities and to check that parents are willing to discuss an issue before they ask questions. Students may not need to ask directly to have a sense of what they can discuss.

The opposite problem is that some students may be shy about asking parents questions, even though the parents might appreciate their interest.

At parent meetings, you can discuss with parents their role as students' sources of information about babies and parenting. But in the end, students themselves will have to decide the best way to learn from their parent-partners.

You can assure students that in most cases parent-partners will be interested and willing to talk over issues the cards raise. After all, if you have clarified the goals and expectations of the partnership arrangement in the beginning, it is unlikely that parents who feel uncomfortable talking about their baby and their parenting would have agreed to participate.

Developing Interviewing Skills

Encourage students to think of most of the "interviewing" as simply having a good conversation about an area of mutual interest. Questions on the cards center these conversations on the particular focus of each card.

Practicing: A pair of students can role play an interview activity while others watch for cues about whether the "parent" felt comfortable talking about the issue. Discuss these observations and ideas about how the "student" could seek answers in ways other than direct questioning.

Students can also use role playing to test questions. Working in pairs, one student would interview another who plays "parent" and responds with his or her own baby in mind. Students can then switch roles. Afterwards, in pairs or as a class, students discuss:

As "parent"

What were your feelings about answering these questions?

Were they clear enough?

Were any hard to answer? Why?

Would you like to add anything the questions did not cover?

As "student"

What feelings did you have in carrying out your interview?

Did the wording of the questions seem awkward when you asked them?

How would you change the questions next time?

The practice interview could also be done by one pair of students for the class to observe and discuss. *Teaching and Evaluation Strategies* (EC) has further suggestions about using role playing.

Planning: Students might brainstorm ways to bring up assigned topics in conversation, phrasing questions informally in ways that are comfortable to them and their parent-partners. Students who feel they can't ask questions at all may have to rely on what they observe or recall the parent having said in the past.

The formal structure of a printed interview form may help some students open up

conversations with parent-partners. The two can sit down together to fill out the forms. Further assistance in preparing and carrying out interviews is offered in *The Inquirer* (EC).

Putting Information to Use: The cards make many suggestions about sharing information with classmates, comparing for similarities and differences, or filing forms chronologically to look for developmental patterns. As they hear others describe what they are learning from parents and recognize the value of gathering information, students who feel hesitant will be encouraged to approach their own parent-partners.

Introductory Activities

The following activities help students think about what babies are like and what it's like to care for babies. They can be used to introduce the unit while students are arranging placements with parent-partners. The Warm-up Activities included in the guide notes for many of the cards are also suitable for use as introductory activities.

What Is Infancy?*

You might open the unit by asking students to jot quick answers to the following questions:

> When do you think infancy ends?
>
> What is the period after infancy called?
>
> List five words describing what infants are like.

Responses can be shared in small groups or listed on the board.

> Does infancy end when babies talk? are weaned? feed themselves? become toddlers?
>
> Do our ideas about the duration of infancy influence the way we respond to babies at different ages?

Similarly, students' five descriptive words for babies lead to a discussion of people's perceptions and expectations of babies:

> Are they seen as demanding, wet, and messy; as sweet and cuddly; as cute, dependent, loving?
>
> What difference does our image make in the way we treat a baby?

Obviously, infancy is no single phenomenon, and you can point out how different babies can be from each other. If some students are describing newborns and other one-year-olds, you can call attention to the difference age makes.

What Is a Baby Like?

This set of questions could be used to find out what students know or believe about babies (and to whet their curiosity). Have students record their responses in their journals so they can look back at the end of the unit. But before they do, you might ask the questions again. Some of the questions have fairly simple answers; the last three are controversial.

1. Can newborn babies see? (Yes, and they look selectively at more interesting objects [Card B].)

2. Can newborns hold onto someone's finger and support their weight? (Yes [Card C].)

3. Do newborns have any protection against suffocating? (Yes, they instinctively turn their heads.) (Look for illustrations of questions 1 to 3 in the film "Gabriel Is Two Days Old.")

4. Can babies remember? (Yes, they remember and recognize their caregivers [Card B].)

5. How much do most newborns sleep? (Average of 16 hours, but range can be 10 to 20 hours; sleep is fitful, short intervals [Card H].)

6. How much do most one-year-olds sleep? (Amount required does not change much from early infancy but is organized into fewer, longer periods [Card H].)

7. How often do newborns eat? (Ranges from continuously to four-hour intervals [Card L].)

8. How often do one-year-olds eat? (In *our* culture, three times a day, with snacks [Card L].)

---

*We especially thank Freda Rebelsky for her suggestion of this activity.

9. What are some reasons babies cry? (Hunger, indigestion, cold, wetness, fatigue; desire for skin contact, change of position, movement, visual stimulation, company [Cards O and P].)

10. If you hid a ball under a blanket, would a young baby know where it went? (No, not the first times [Card M].)

11. What does a toddler need to eat? (16 oz. milk, 2 oz. protein which contains iron, 2 oz. green and yellow vegetable, 1 oz. orange juice [Card I].)

12. Why is "no" sometimes the word an 18-month-old toddler likes to say most? (Getting more independent [Card N].)

13. If you pick up newborns whenever they cry, will it make them spoiled? (Card P.)

14. Should parents put breakable things away or teach their one-year-old not to touch them? (Card E.)

15. Do fathers as well as mothers have a part in caring for babies? (Card S and "Bill and Suzi: New Parents.")

Students can meet in small groups to talk over their written answers, or the whole group could discuss them one by one as you go along (after time for each written response). You could follow up the question session with the film "Gabriel Is Two Days Old."

Values Clarification Activities

"Exploring Values" in the *Family and Society Teacher's Guide, Part One* (EC) describes activities useful in preparing students for this unit and for their work with caregivers. Point out that just as there are differences among students' beliefs or in how things are done in their own homes, the families and child care centers students visit may have different beliefs and ways of caring for babies. Students may encounter practices that are unfamiliar to them. As they learn how to make individual decisions about what seems best to do in different situations, these activities can help them consider the merits and limitations in a variety of approaches.

What Is Parenthood Like?

Have students write a paragraph in their journals describing their notion of what being a new parent is like. You might set the scene something like this:

> You're on your way home from the hospital with your newborn baby. You've been anticipating this moment for nine months. Sometimes you (your wife) felt ill or got tired more easily than usual, but mostly you felt special and eager. It was exciting to feel the baby kick, and you've looked forward to really seeing and holding your baby. The delivery was hard work, but now all the waiting is over. What will life be like this next week? How will your life be changed from what it was before?

Students might share their descriptions in small groups. Ask them to discuss positive and negative things in their descriptions. Do any show only the pleasant or only the difficult aspects of having a baby?

Many students may have had little contact with babies, and their descriptions may be almost all imagined. Some students may base their descriptions on family stories or their own experiences with babies in their families. Encourage them to share these. (Card Q, "Stress and Support for Parents," deals with circumstances that can make having a new baby harder or easier.)

Interview Your Parents

After they have imagined life with a new baby, have students think of three or four questions to ask their parents about what it was like. For example:

> What did you do before you had a baby that you couldn't do afterward?
>
> What new things did you have to do and think about?

Students could show their imagined descriptions, "What Is Parenthood Like?" to their parents and get their reactions.

This is a good time to tell students that many cards suggest going to their own parents for ideas. Suggest that they explain the unit to their parents during this interview. Their own parents are a valuable source of experience and can give students perspective on their own development along with information about babies and parenting.

Students could discuss how their parents' memories compare with what they had imagined and then go on to discuss:

> What might influence the way parents remember or describe their babies? (For instance, babies might seem especially demanding or sweet depending on how hard they are to care for.)

Babies and Parents in the Media

Many of the ideas students have about babies may come from sources other than experience. Ask them to collect ways in which babies and parents are represented in their culture:

- in magazines--by clipping out ads and photos,
- on TV--by taking notes on ads or programs.

Have students in small groups put their collections together and make two lists of words describing (1) a baby, and (2) parents who might be represented by these collections. Discuss:

> How do the "media baby" and parents compare with what students know about actual babies and parents?
>
> Why might babies and parents be presented in media in these ways?

For class discussion, some students might act out ads or scenes they have seen.

Can Adults Make a Child into Anything They Want?

This debate activity can introduce two important themes in the unit: (1) the individuality of each baby, and (2) the ways babies and parents influence one another.

Begin by having students discuss briefly how the following two statements differ from each other:

> I will make my baby into the president of the United States, or at least a successful lawyer.
>
> Children know what is best for them. Children learn from their own mistakes.

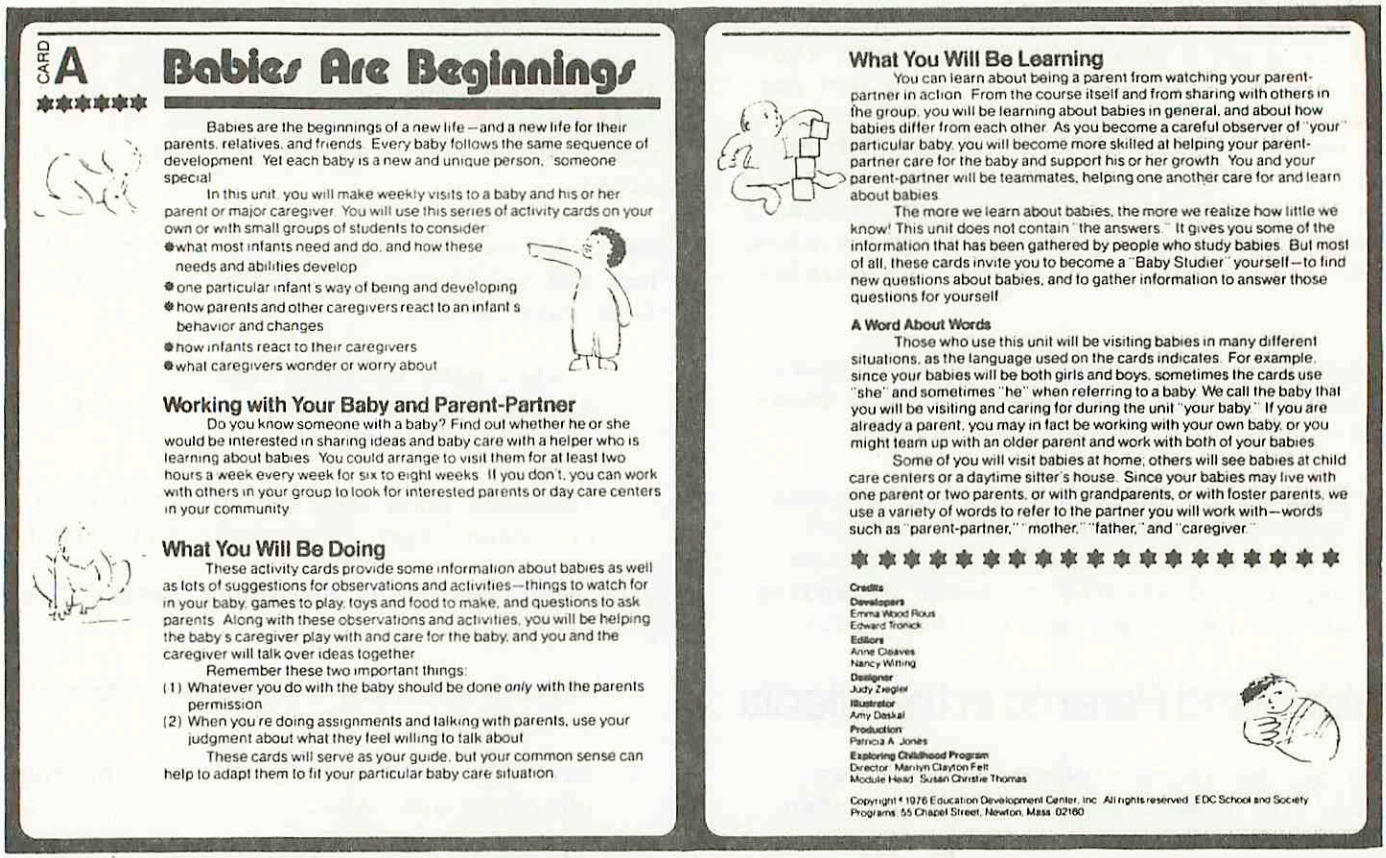
Then have the class divide to debate these positions:

1. Parents can make a child into anything they want.
2. Parents can't really affect what their children are like.

Both positions are extreme, but students should take one for purposes of debate. After the groups have organized arguments to support their positions and presented them, open the debate to general discussion. You might tape record the debate and play it at the end of the unit for further discussion based now on direct experience. The debate need not end conclusively, but the following points should be recognized:

- All babies are born with individual temperaments.
- Parents influence their children, whether they intend to or not, with everything they say and do.
- Children likewise influence their parents' beliefs and behavior.
- What children become is the result of an interaction between their temperament and the influence of their parents and all the rest of their environment.

Notes on Individual Cards



CARD A

Babies Are Beginnings

Babies are the beginnings of a new life—and a new life for their parents, relatives, and friends. Every baby follows the same sequence of development. Yet each baby is a new and unique person, "someone special."

In this unit, you will make weekly visits to a baby and his or her parent or major caregiver. You will use this series of activity cards on your own or with small groups of students to consider:

- what most infants need and do, and how these needs and abilities develop
- one particular infant's way of being and developing
- how parents and other caregivers react to an infant's behavior and changes
- how infants react to their caregivers
- what caregivers wonder or worry about

Working with Your Baby and Parent-Partner

Do you know someone with a baby? Find out whether he or she would be interested in sharing ideas and baby care with a helper who is learning about babies. You could arrange to visit them for at least two hours a week every week for six to eight weeks. If you don't, you can work with others in your group to look for interested parents or day care centers in your community.

What You Will Be Doing

These activity cards provide some information about babies as well as lots of suggestions for observations and activities—things to watch for in your baby, games to play, toys and food to make, and questions to ask parents. Along with these observations and activities, you will be helping the baby's caregiver play with and care for the baby, and you and the caregiver will talk over ideas together.

Remember these two important things:

(1) Whatever you do with the baby should be done *only* with the parents' permission.

(2) When you're doing assignments and talking with parents, use your judgment about what they feel willing to talk about.

These cards will serve as your guide, but your common sense can help to adapt them to fit your particular baby care situation.

What You Will Be Learning

You can learn about being a parent from watching your parent-partner in action. From the course itself and from sharing with others in the group, you will be learning about babies in general, and about how babies differ from each other. As you become a careful observer of "your" particular baby, you will become more skilled at helping your parent-partner care for the baby and support his or her growth. You and your parent-partner will be teammates, helping one another care for and learn about babies.

The more we learn about babies, the more we realize how little we know! This unit does not contain "the answers." It gives you some of the information that has been gathered by people who study babies. But most of all, these cards invite you to become a "Baby Studier" yourself—to find new questions about babies, and to gather information to answer those questions for yourself.

A Word About Words

Those who use this unit will be visiting babies in many different situations, as the language used on the cards indicates. For example, since your babies will be both girls and boys, sometimes the cards use "she" and sometimes "he" when referring to a baby. We call the baby that you will be visiting and caring for during the unit "your baby." If you are already a parent, you may in fact be working with your own baby, or you might team up with an older parent and work with both of your babies.

Some of you will visit babies at home; others will see babies at child care centers or a daytime sitter's house. Since your babies may live with one parent or two parents, or with grandparents, or with foster parents, we use a variety of words to refer to the partner you will work with—words such as "parent-partner," "mother," "father," and "caregiver."

Credits
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Designer
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Amy Daskal
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Patricia A. Jones
Exploring Childhood Program
Director: Marilyn Clayton Felt
Module Head: Susan Christie Thomas

This card introduces the unit to students. You might read parts of it aloud to introduce the cards, and students should review it when they look through the cards to select ones to work on.

Brainstorming Beginnings

Every new baby marks a new beginning for himself and all the people he will come into contact with. Ask students to think of as many beginnings as they can--for the baby, for the parents. (See *Teaching and Evaluation Strategies* [EC] for advice on brainstorming.) The class could break into groups, each doing one of the following lists. Each group could share its finished list.

For example:

Beginnings for the baby

getting what she wants, needs

feeling hot, cold, hard, soft, wet, dry, pain

seeing world, people, light, color for the first time

learning what others expect of him

Beginnings for parents

fun

responsibilities

pride

irritation

baby-sitters

DISCUSSING UNIT THEMES

To clarify the themes of the unit, you could make five headings on the board and ask students to think of a few simple examples to write under each. You might note relevant card titles next to some of the items students list.

Some examples:

What most infants need and do, and how these needs and abilities develop:

need to sleep

learn to recognize and interact with other people

The particular infant's own way of being and developing:

one baby talks before she walks

one objects to any change in schedule

How parents and other caregivers react to an infant's changes:

worry about safety of child or belongings in house

providing things infant can use to practice new skills

How infants react and respond to their caregivers:

imitate parents

may insist on feeding his own way

What caregivers wonder or worry about:

baby's eating

what to do with different advice

When students name examples the unit does not deal with, you could tell them about good resource books for these topics (see bibliography), and suggest that they might read about some of these topics for a project on Card R, "How Come Parents Ask So Many Questions?" Rather than cover every topic in baby care, this unit focuses in depth on a few topics to illustrate themes of development, universal patterns, individuality, and parent-infant interaction.

CARD B

When Do Babies Know You?

Before they are eight months old, infants rarely cry or get upset when their mothers leave them or a stranger comes up to them. This has convinced many people that infants do not recognize anyone until they are eight months old. However, recent research casts doubt on this viewpoint.

1. To see if young babies react to an unusual response from their mothers, psychologists Ed Tronick, Lauren Adamson, and Heidi Als, and pediatrician T. B. Brazelton had mothers sit directly in front of their awake and alert three-week-old babies. The infants looked at their mothers and their faces brightened (three-week-old babies don't really *smile* yet). But each mother had been asked to stare back stony-faced, in order to test their infant's reaction.

When the mother did not respond, her baby sobered and turned away. Then the babies looked back at their mothers with a bright face, but when the mother still did not respond they looked away again. They began to look wary and frightened, and they stopped looking at her except out of the corner of their eyes.

Incidently, the infants' sidelong glances made them look so cute that many of the mothers just had to laugh and begin to play with them, which shows how good infants can be at getting the attention they need from adults.

2. To find out if very young babies recognize their mothers, Lou Sanders, a pediatrician, and two psychologists, Pat Chapell and Tom Casell, tried having mothers wear a mask during a feeding with their week-old infants. The infants reacted to the mask with their very first look! They stopped feeding, stared at their mother's face and wrinkled up their own faces. They then looked surprised. But the reaction seemed very brief and the infants went on feeding as if nothing had happened.

The researchers continued to observe the infants for another full day after the masked feeding, and found that the infants did not sleep as regularly as usual and that the feeding session 24 hours later was upset. The babies were fussy and took less food than usual.

3. To see if young babies can tell the difference between parents and strangers, two other pediatricians, Suzanne Dixon and Mike Yogman, carefully observed mothers, fathers, and strangers play with two-month-old infants. They found the infants smiled about as much to mother and father but a lot less to the strangers. The infants "talked" more to their mothers than to their fathers, and least to the strangers.

Thinking About the Studies

1. In the first study, what do the babies' reactions to their mothers' stony stares say about how well they know their mothers' behavior?
2. What do you think the second study shows about the ability of week-old infants to recognize their mothers?
3. What conclusions do you draw from the third study about the ability of infants to recognize different adults?

Talk About It with Your Parent-Partner

4. Does your baby react differently to you? His mother? His father? Strangers?
5. When did the mother begin to feel that her baby recognized her? When did the father or other family members?
6. What do they remember noticing that made them feel that the baby recognized them?

Your Own Study

With your parent-partner or others in your group, plan a way to study your baby's ability to recognize people. Do your study several times with the baby as she grows older. You'll find her reaction changing dramatically over the first year of life. These changes will help you see when the baby starts recognizing particular people, and how many ways she has developed for communicating.

One Study

Here is an example your parent-partner might try with you. Do a ten-minute observation while the mother plays with the baby seated in front of her. Count how many times the baby smiles and makes noises. Then have the mother move out of the baby's sight while you play with the baby, and count the smiles and times he "talks" with you. To test the baby's reaction to strangers you might bring a friend to do the experiment also.

7. What differences were there in the baby's reaction to the parents? To you? To the stranger?
8. What changes do you see in the baby's behavior as he grows older?

While You're at It

You might also observe how "silly" we act with babies. Talk with your parent-partner about what you have seen that is special about how the two of you used your face, your voice, and words.

9. What are your ideas about why we act these ways? Consider also how the babies influence our responses! (Remember how the mothers in the first study responded to their infants' sidelong glances.)
10. What does your baby do that makes you or his parents respond to him?

Because this card asks students to make observations of babies over a period, it should be started early in the unit.

Purposes: To recognize how early babies see and begin knowing people closest to them.

To consider how infants influence the behavior of people around them.

To consider how the behavior of others influences a baby.

Some of the research on this card shows that adults respond to babies in special ways in order to get responses from them. And it may be that since certain adult actions get the best response from the baby, the baby is therefore encouraging certain adult behaviors by responding to them.

THREE STUDIES

Students are invited to draw their own conclusions from the data these studies present. (For example, I and II indicate babies can distinguish between familiar and unfamiliar at a very early age; reasons for different responses in III could be: most babies see mothers most, fathers off and on, and strangers are unfamiliar.) If students observe such differences in reactions, remind them that their babies have the resources to cause different kinds of interactions, just as babies in the second study did with their "stony" mothers.

Your Own Study

Students could use a form like the one on page 63 to make their own study of recognition and response. Encourage them to think of their own projects as well.

Supplementary Activity

After they do their studies of infant recognition, you might have students follow up infant reactions to staring with this activity:

> To find out how your baby responds to staring, you might ask your parent-partner to stare at the baby like the mothers in Study II, while you observe. What does the baby do?
>
> For comparison, you might try staring at a stranger in a public place--but not too long, for obvious reasons. Or perhaps you can remember how you felt when someone stared hard at you. What happens?
>
> Try staring at your dog. How does he react? What do you think he thinks?
>
> What do you think are differences between a baby, an adult, and an animal who are stared at?

The point of this staring exercise is to stimulate students' curiosity. Adults are able to imagine what another person is thinking; animals probably do not have this ability to consider other points of view. What goes on in a baby's mind that causes certain reactions to staring? Can they imagine someone else's thoughts? When do they begin guessing? These kinds of unanswered questions are what make us want to learn more about human infants.

It is generally assumed that babies *cannot* consider another's point of view and that they develop this ability only gradually (as described in Card M, "Inside the Baby, Looking Out"). But the evidence on this card suggests that babies begin very early to be sensitive to small differences in behavior and to differences among people.

them, while other students observe and describe *in sequence* each movement and the muscles involved. The steps to notice are:

- lifting the head (neck muscles);
- lifting the head and shoulders (neck, shoulder, and back muscles);
- getting an arm free (adding upper arm muscle);
- reaching and grasping (lower arm, hand, and finger muscles).

If you ask students to describe a general order in these movements (neck and back muscles first, fingers last), you can introduce one of the basic facts about all motor development: babies gain control of muscles close to their body midline first and those farthest from the midline last.

ALL MOTOR DEVELOPMENT IS...

The warm-up activity will help students visualize the three facts of motor development described in this section. You might give them other examples. (To illustrate the idea of sequence: Why can't babies walk at about three months? At that age, babies cannot work muscles together, not strong enough, must learn to balance and stand up first.)

Watching Your Infant

Students can use a "Learning a New Movement" form like the one on page 66 to gather information about the sequence their baby follows. Parents' descriptions are also a source of information, but since students' class work may make them aware of more steps to watch for than most parents know about, their own observation is important.

The following notes adapted from works of T. Berry Brazelton, Myrtle McGraw, and others suggest--in order of development--some accomplishments students might observe their babies making.

Some steps in learning to roll over (from B. Brazelton)

- newborn tonic neck reflex: when head is turned to one side, body arches away from that side, arm on face side extends, arm and leg on other side may flex--helps baby learn separate use of sides of body; sometimes baby can flip over;
- when on back, legs kick and arms circle, while body and head twist from side to side; action turns baby onto belly;
- rolls to back or belly at will;
- rolls over by rotating upper portion of body to one side, then flexing hips and throwing legs to that side.

Some steps in learning to sit (from M. McGraw)

- at birth, head falls back when raised from lying to sitting;
- around two months head stays in line with spine;
- baby doesn't fall forward when pulled up to sit;
- baby helps pull self up when held by the hands;
- baby actively pulls up, adults' hands are only a support, uses hands for balance;
- baby sits up alone, back straight, balances with arms free and legs extended;
- balances with legs dangling over an edge.

Some steps in learning to crawl (from M. McGraw)

- interest in objects and reaching precede crawling;
- makes effort to lift belly;

- lifts head and chest off ground when placed on stomach;
- lifts chest, frees an arm;
- pulls with arms, drags legs;
- gets up on hands and knees and stretches body forward, then lies down again;
- creeps forward on hands and knees;
- some variations: creeping on hands and feet; hitching buttocks (steps followed show order in which muscle control gained).

Some steps in learning to climb (from M. McGraw, Eric Lenneberg)

- creeping precedes urge to climb;
- goes up low slope on hands and knees;
- goes up steeper slope on hands and feet, using toes to push up;
- toddler can hold sides of a slide and pull up with arms, relying on strength;
- when legs grow longer, coordinates arm pulling and leg pushing for harder climbs;
- climbs down as well as up;
- walks stairs with same foot going first;
- walks stairs with alternating feet.

Some steps in learning to walk (from M. McGraw, B. Brazelton, E. Lenneberg)

- when supported, rests weight on wide-apart feet, holds shoulders in front of hips, may bounce up and down;
- pulls self up to feet, later can let self down;
- wants to stand for everything: bath, changing, eating;
- pulls sideways along furniture;
- balances while turning upper torso with arms out;
- turns whole body;
- steps out when held by hands, might walk pushing chair or something on wheels;
- steps alone, arms outstretched, feet far apart, stiff-legged, puts foot down flat rather than flexing ankle; falls when distracted;
- walks in straight line, stops by falling or grabbing something;
- turns corners;
- stops without support;
- gets to feet without pulling up on something else;
- adds motion to walk (waving, carrying something);
- walks on tiptoe;
- runs.

Some examples of how these steps relate to the rules of development:

- From the top down: babies can pull up with arms before they can flex knees to lower themselves;
- From the middle outward: babies can roll over before they can crawl (shoulder and hip action before arms and legs);
- Sequence: the accomplishments, listed in order, show this.

This description from Dr. T. B. Brazelton's *Infants and Mothers* provides a sample detailed observation of a child taking his first steps and shows what a baby must accomplish in sequence.

> Daniel spent his day on his feet. He stood next to furniture; he stood in the middle of the floor; he stood in his feeding chair; he stood in his bath; he stood to be changed, and he fell asleep standing in his crib. He learned to turn the upper part of his body to reach for something behind him, or to wave to a parent. At first, he held on to something to steady himself. Then he tried it without a prop, and made it. Soon he had learned to balance as he turned by holding out his arms. The next step was to pivot his whole body, and this he did by turning the upper half, and, with his arms extended, staggering around to the same axis with the lower half.
>
> These were among the first unsupported steps he took. He practiced stepping sideways along a couch, and could speed along to one side, sliding one foot along after the other. But he was in close touch with the couch as he did it. He also practiced walking by holding his father's hands. Occasionally, when his father let go, Daniel took a step before he realized he was not being helped. Then, he dropped to the floor, angry at being duped and deserted. But soon he used the balance he gained with turning and spread wide his arms, rocking his forearms and hands in small flat circles to add a kind of rotating forward propulsion. When he added a wide, stiff-legged gait, he was off.

DIFFERENCES IN MOTOR DEVELOPMENT

Although temperament and rate of development often interact, this section focuses only on rate of development. The case of Bobby, whose mother says he never crawled, shows that some children may pass through a stage like crawling very quickly. It also shows how parents may not be aware of less obvious ways a baby may practice a skill, since Bobby may have done things his parents did not recognize as "crawling" (e.g., rocking on hands and knees).

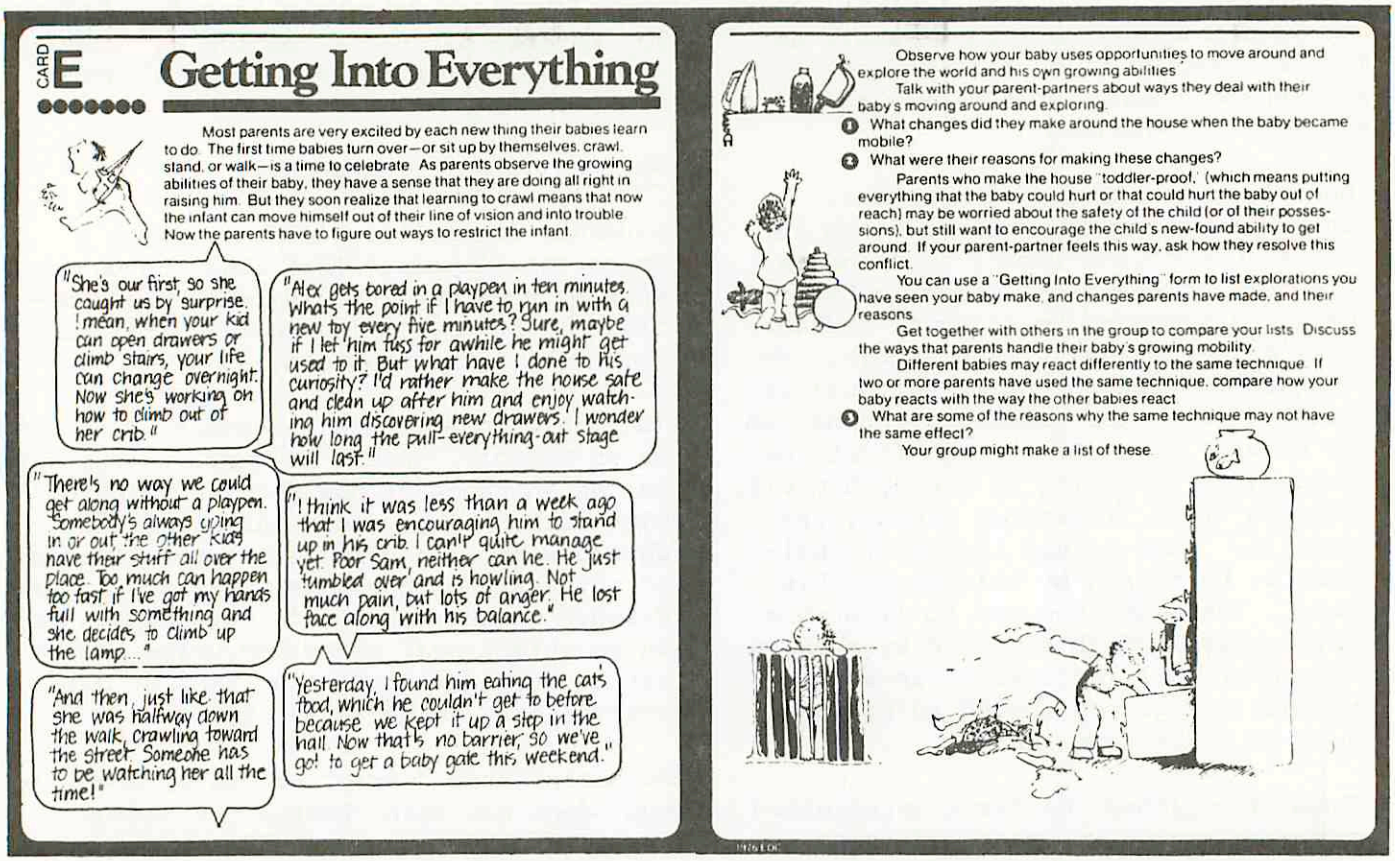
WHY ARE THERE DIFFERENCES?

Students can collect information on a "Motor Development" form like the one on page 67 when they consider why their babies may be developing certain abilities sooner or later than others.

You can discuss the development of sitting as an example. Refer students to the card for an instance of how parents (playing with seated baby) might influence this development. In considering the influence of physical surroundings, students could discuss whether they think propping a baby in an infant seat would *encourage* her to sit (a feel for what it's like) or *discourage* her (doing it for her).

Emphasize that "early" or "late" development does not mean "better" or "worse." Normal babies achieve skills at a wide range of ages. (E.g., *average* age for first reaching for an object is three months, but *normal range* is from one to five months).

But people's reactions to early or late development can cause problems. (E.g., a parent may believe child who develops early is precocious, or troublesome; child who develops late may be considered lazy, or dull.) A child will have to overcome stereotypes or live up to them. Card X, "Someone Special," deals with the issue of labeling.



Purpose: To consider the effects of infants' new mobility on their parents' lives and the reactions of infants to the adjustments parents make.

Warm-up

1. The illustrations and anecdotes on this card show some ways parents handle their babies' ability to move around. Read an anecdote aloud and ask students to brainstorm the advantages and disadvantages of that technique for a baby and for parents. (E.g., playpen full of toys gives a baby safe place for exploring, but limits scope; frees parents, but nuisance to store and carry.)

2. The anecdote "Christmas Rush" in *Under Stress* (EC) could be read aloud and discussed as an example of how a parent may sometimes forget a baby's new ability and be unprepared for problems it can bring. This anecdote shows clearly how guilty parents can feel when their babies have accidents, as well as how stress contributes to accidents.

TECHNIQUES FOR HANDLING MOBILITY

In observing and discussing how parents handle their infants' mobility and explorations, it is important to consider how this new situation makes the parents feel. Some students may not feel able to discuss some of these feelings directly with their parent-partners, but a group discussion of the reasons parents make various adjustments may help everyone understand such responses and think about their own.

The film "Rachel at Home" shows a crawling infant who is free to roam around the house. (See the film section of this guide for notes.) Students could discuss their ideas about the degree of freedom Jennifer's parents allow her.

An infant's reactions to the parent's techniques for handling mobility can depend on the child's age and individual temperament (a child who didn't complain at 11 months may at 18 months; another may complain at any age about being thwarted). Using a "Getting into Everything" form like the one on page 68, students can compare notes on "Infant Reactions" to see

if some techniques seem good for all infants, or if they seem to depend on the individual and/or the age.

SAFETY

While students are working on this card, you might introduce some ideas about safety precautions parents can take. Dr. Brazelton lists common household poisons in *Toddlers and Parents* (see bibliography).

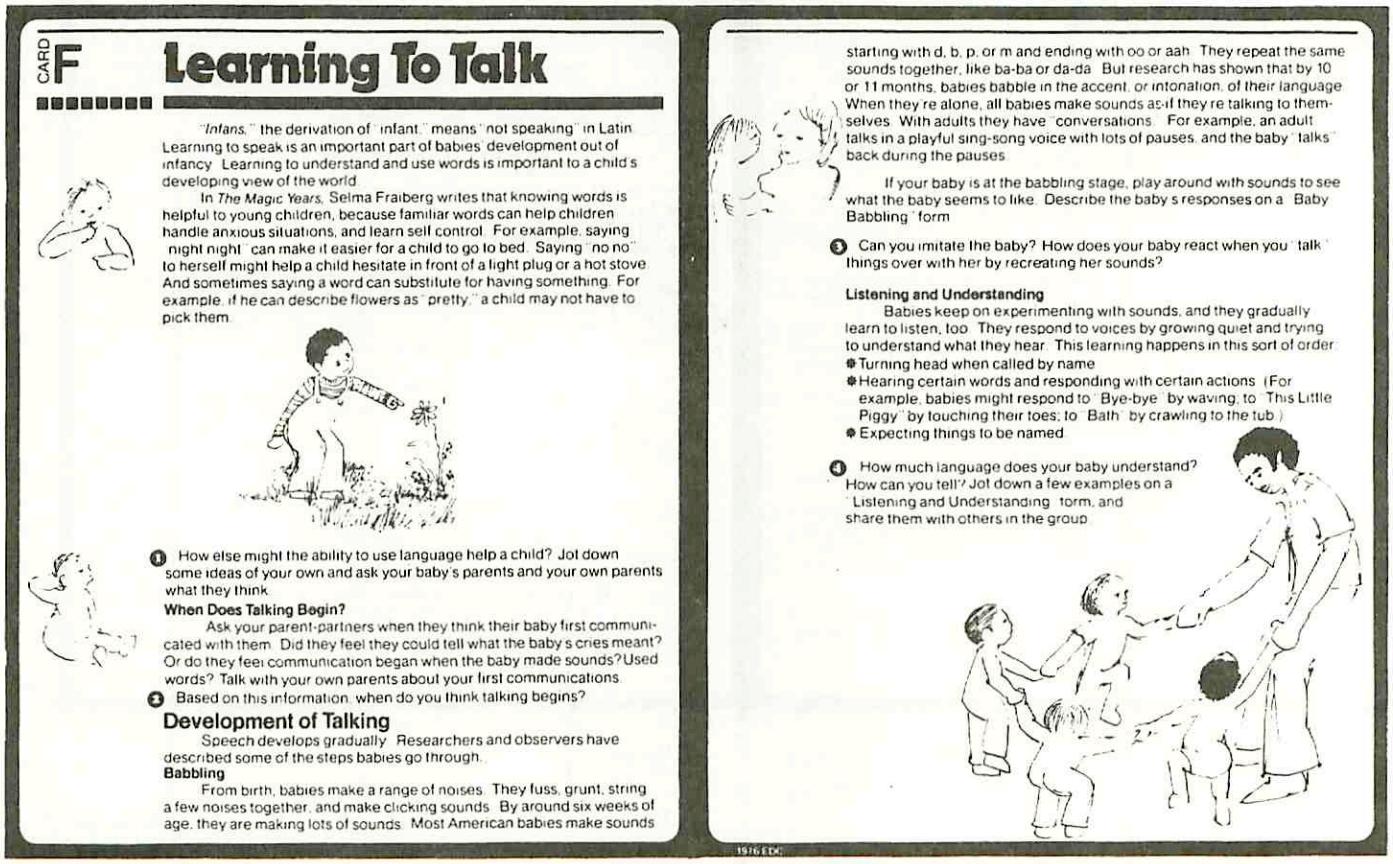
Students might go around their own homes listing

- all poisonous household substances, and
- all dangerous objects (loose wires, pencils, pins)

they find within a baby's reach. Then ask:

> How would you have to reorganize your own home to make it safe for a moving, exploring baby?

The issue of what is safe or unsafe for a baby is not always absolute. (Parents can learn to station themselves strategically to catch babies who may fail in early climbing attempts instead of not letting them climb at all, for example.) Sometimes it is more a matter of what makes adults nervous. *Under Stress* (EC) has more on safety precautions for young children.



CARD F

Learning To Talk

"Infans," the derivation of "infant," means "not speaking" in Latin. Learning to speak is an important part of babies' development out of infancy. Learning to understand and use words is important to a child's developing view of the world.

In *The Magic Years*, Selma Fraiberg writes that knowing words is helpful to young children, because familiar words can help children handle anxious situations, and learn self control. For example, saying "night night" can make it easier for a child to go to bed. Saying "no no" to herself might help a child hesitate in front of a light plug or a hot stove. And sometimes saying a word can substitute for having something. For example, if he can describe flowers as "pretty," a child may not have to pick them.

❶ How else might the ability to use language help a child? Jot down some ideas of your own and ask your baby's parents and your own parents what they think.

When Does Talking Begin?

Ask your parent-partners when they think their baby first communicated with them. Did they feel they could tell what the baby's cries meant? Or do they feel communication began when the baby made sounds? Used words? Talk with your own parents about your first communications.

❷ Based on this information, when do you think talking begins?

Development of Talking

Speech develops gradually. Researchers and observers have described some of the steps babies go through.

Babbling

From birth, babies make a range of noises. They fuss, grunt, string a few noises together, and make clicking sounds. By around six weeks of age, they are making lots of sounds. Most American babies make sounds starting with d, b, p, or m and ending with oo or aah. They repeat the same sounds together, like ba-ba or da-da. But research has shown that by 10 or 11 months, babies babble in the accent, or intonation, of their language. When they're alone, all babies make sounds as if they're talking to themselves. With adults they have "conversations." For example, an adult talks in a playful sing-song voice with lots of pauses, and the baby "talks" back during the pauses.

If your baby is at the babbling stage, play around with sounds to see what the baby seems to like. Describe the baby's responses on a "Baby Babbling" form.

❸ Can you imitate the baby? How does your baby react when you "talk" things over with her by recreating her sounds?

Listening and Understanding

Babies keep on experimenting with sounds, and they gradually learn to listen, too. They respond to voices by growing quiet and trying to understand what they hear. This learning happens in this sort of order:

- Turning head when called by name
- Hearing certain words and responding with certain actions. (For example, babies might respond to "Bye-bye" by waving, to "This Little Piggy" by touching their toes, to "Bath" by crawling to the tub.)
- Expecting things to be named.

❹ How much language does your baby understand? How can you tell? Jot down a few examples on a "Listening and Understanding" form, and share them with others in the group.

1976 EDC

Purposes: To consider the variety of ways infants and adults communicate.

To consider the order in which language develops.

To be aware of their infants' language development.

Warm-up

The card begins with Selma Fraiberg's description of some ways that learning language changes the way a baby deals with the world. You might have students brainstorm other ways language helps a child (e.g., share a memory, express a feeling,

refuse or request particular things, fantasize).

When Does Talking Begin?

Babies and parents communicate with each other from a baby's birth. This section is intended to help students realize that communication is not only words, but tone of voice, gesture, facial expression, eyes, posture.

Students could consider how they communicate among themselves without words.

DEVELOPMENT OF TALKING

Students can listen to their babies' babbling and take notes on sounds the baby makes and language the baby understands on forms like the two on pages 69 and 70.

Much of the card's information about language development reflects the *Bromley Heath Infant Curriculum* by Edward Tronick and Patricia Greenfield (see bibliography). You might refer to the language sequences in that curriculum for more information.

CARD G

My Word! More Language

Slowly but surely, babies progress from their first words at around one year to their first simple sentences at around two.

From Sounds to Words

Babbling becomes words when adults pick out baby's syllables, like da-da, and attach meaning to them. For example, if a father pays attention and shows pleasure when his baby says "da-da," the baby figures out that "da-da" means something!

Once they learn that a sound has meaning, babies often use it as their word for everything. The baby points to a ball, a cup, or a cat, saying "da," and you say "ball," "cup," or "cat." At this stage, babies don't just say a word, they usually act too, by pointing, waving, or moving toward something.

When babies first learn a word, they generally just say the beginning of it. One sound, like "ba," can mean "bottle," "bath," or "ball." If you know the baby or the situation, you can usually figure out what she is saying. Later, babies put endings on words, so they can say "cat," and learn two syllable words, like "cookie."

"Where does the shoe go?"

After a while, when babies hear or see someone they know, they say the person's name. Next they begin to ask for something they want by using words while they reach (and whine!).

"Foot."

Eventually they can use words to say what someone or something does (for example, a baby might say "mouth" or "eat" when another child puts a cookie in his mouth) and to tell who owns something (for example, "Dada" while pointing to daddy's shoe).

Once babies have learned a number of words, they can begin to have simple question-and-answer exchanges about objects, places, what someone is doing, and where things go and how they look!

The Beginning of Sentences

After a child has been talking in single words for a while, she may start to say action words with nouns; for example, "Down! Juice!" to indicate that a glass of juice spilled on the floor. Each word may sound at first like a separate sentence, but this is an important step toward two-word sentences. At this point, you can have longer conversations by asking questions or repeating the infant's statement. "Yes, you poured the juice down on the floor."

Finally, two words will go together to make a sentence— See Baby. or Want Daddy. Suddenly, the child's speech has an adult sound to it—words come in the same order they do in adult sentences, and you can understand without having to know about the situation.

"Some kids take forever to start talking because their parents are tense and silent; or push them too hard."

"People have used high voices and 'baby talk' for years, so it must be fine."

"She'll never learn to talk if you use 'baby talk.'"

Observe Your Baby

If your baby uses some words, take careful notes on just what he says. Also write down the questions, comments, or situations he may be responding to. (You can use a "Talking" form.)

1. What has your baby already learned about language? Check back over the sequence of language development outlined on this card.
2. What skills is he now practicing?

Talking Back

Spend some time talking with your baby. For example, if your baby is beginning to point and name objects, you could interpret his "ba" with "Yes, that's a ball." Or you could add other words to the baby's ("It's a red ball." Or, "The ball is rolling.") You can also look at books together and name objects you and the baby point out.

3. What else have you done?

If your baby likes using sounds along with actions, you could play "Pat-a-Cake" or "Ring Around the Rosie."

4. What else could you do? Describe some of your conversations and activities.

What Makes Babies Talk?

Maybe babies learn to talk because they can get things they want by talking—a cookie, praise, an adult response. Or maybe they love the sound of their own voices. They learn partly by imitating, so maybe they are *taught* to speak. Or maybe they are *born* with an urge and a structure for speaking whether they hear language or not. Researchers have found some interesting things about language learning.

One team found that children whose parents are deaf and generally aren't babble just as much as children of speaking parents.

Another researcher found that the more babies explored things physically, the more they babbled. They also babbled more if their caregivers were talkative.

Studies of bird songs show that each species of bird is born with a basic song that is sung even if the bird never hears another sound. But if the bird hears other birds of his species during a critical period of growth, he will add to his basic song the variations, dialect, of the birds he hears.

Language probably grows out of both inborn tendencies in babies and the ways other people speak to them.

In a small group, or in your journal, describe some conversations between your baby and your parent-partner.

Talk It Over with Your Baby's Parents

5. What do your baby's parents want or expect of their baby in the way of talking? How do they encourage this?
6. What does the baby do that affects how they talk to her?
7. Do they want a child that talks a lot?
8. If they have had other babies, are they doing the same things with this baby? Do they get the same results?

Purposes: To consider the further development of language followed by all infants.

To increase students' awareness of their infants' use of language and how adults respond to it.

To consider influences on the development of language, and how parents and infants influence each other's way of talking.

Warm-up

You might ask students if they know what their own first word was, or what words their brothers or sisters first said.

Sounds, Words, Beginning Sentences

This card, continuing the description of the development of language begun in Card F, "Learning to Talk," covers the

steps from first using meaningful sounds to early sentence formation.

Point out to students that this development parallels other development in infants. For instance, the ability to represent actions and events mentally (the beginning of what Jean Piaget calls "operational thinking"), as shown in a child's ability to find hidden objects, parallels a child's use of symbolic language; children do not make representative drawings before they are also using language; the development of finger coordination and control of mouth and vocal chords coincide with growing mental abilities--i.e., the ability to use symbols. The point for students is that *no ability develops in isolation; everything depends on everything else.* Students can take notes on a "Talking" form like the one on page 71.

WHAT MAKES BABIES TALK?

This section presents several theories about why language develops: that behavior increases if it is rewarded; that children learn language by imitating it; and that children are born with a predilection to speak. The research on bird song illustrates the idea that language comes from a combination of inborn ability and environmental influence.

Like the section on individual differences in motor development, this material suggests that some differences in children's use of language may come from differences in what their parents want and do (though what parents say they want and what they *do* may not be the same). Some might believe that "a child should be seen and not heard"; others might want a talkative child. Some might want their child to show feelings in actions (e.g., to express anger by punching a bag); others might urge a child to use words instead (e.g., by saying, "I'm mad at you"). Some might talk a lot with their baby; others may say very little.

If students compare at what age and how much their babies talk, and at the same time compare how much different parents talk with their babies, they can make some guesses about the influence of parents on babies' use of language. Remind students that they are not looking at enough babies to draw definite conclusions.

Film Viewing

Students might view or recall the film "Sara Has Down's Syndrome" from *No Two Alike* (EC) for an example of adults consciously attempting to encourage language use in a child with special needs. On the "Commentaries" record, Jerome Kagan describes language development in "Rachel at Home," and Betty Bryant discusses it in "Craig at Home."

The Baby's Influence

In considering how babies influence the way adults talk, you can point out that adults all over the world talk to babies in high voices and that researchers have found that babies actually hear high tones better than low tones. Researchers have also observed that adults imitate babies' sounds more than babies imitate adults. Our tendency to repeat a baby's "talk" may be the way nature has us set up to encourage the baby's language development.

CARD H

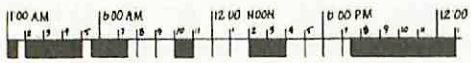
Sleep Like A Baby

Have you wondered how much babies sleep?

Make Sleep Graphs

To begin answering this question, plot your infant's sleeping pattern once a week for about a month. (You can use a "Sleeping Graph" form.) Use a numbered line for each hour in the day, and shade in the times when the baby was asleep. For example:

Age 6½ months



Total sleep time: 14 HOURS
Total awake time: 10 HOURS
Number of sleep periods: 5

You'll need to ask your parent-partners to help you. Perhaps they will also be able to help graph the baby's sleeping pattern when she was newborn.

Analyzing the Graphs

1. Study your baby's graph. What changes show up over time in how much, how often, and how long the baby sleeps?
2. Compare your graph with those that others in your group have made. What similarities and differences do you see in how much, how often, and how long the babies sleep?
3. Arrange all the graphs in the class from youngest infant to oldest. What changes show up from youngest to oldest in how much, how often, and how long the babies sleep?

Psychologists Freda Rebelsky and Rebecca Black observed and made 24-hour tape recordings of infants up to three months of age. They learned that it isn't until the second or third month that babies begin to sleep soundly. At first they sleep and wake, sleep and wake, gurgle and wiggle. When a new baby keeps moving and waking, parents sometimes worry that something is wrong. But the baby is just being a baby!

Differences in How Babies Sleep

Look at *how* your baby goes to sleep. Crying? Fussing? Lying quietly? Does he usually sleep only after nursing? Sucking his thumb? Being walked or rocked? Does he toss around? Wriggle? Lie pretty still? If possible, observe him at bedtime or naptime and talk about his way of sleeping with your parent-partner. Take notes in your journal.

4. What seems to be your baby's particular style of sleeping?
5. Compare notes with others in your group. What differences are there in sleeping styles?

Influencing a Baby's Sleeping Habits

Here's something to think about: If babies *need* sleep, why do many parents say they have trouble getting their baby to sleep?

When infants are born, the sleep they need can range from 14 hours a day to 21; and on any one day, they may need as little as 10 hours of sleep or as many as 23.

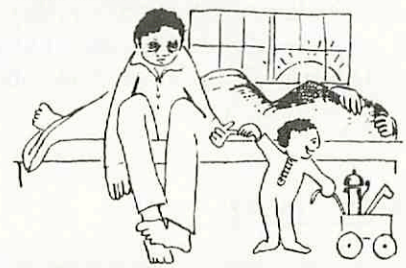
6. Make a graph of your own sleeping pattern over several days. Imagine adjusting your sleep to an infant's. What would you have to do differently?
7. What needs or obligations of parents might a baby's sleep pattern interfere with?

Explore Some of These Ideas with Your Parent-Partners

8. How do they feel about their baby's sleeping pattern? Would they prefer it to be different?
9. Have they ever tried to change it? What did they do? What did the baby do?
10. What were their reasons for wanting to change the baby's sleeping pattern?

Thinking It Over

11. Do you think there are ways parents can meet their needs and obligations without interfering with their baby's sleep needs? In your journal, write down your own ideas and those of your parent-partners and of other people you talk with.

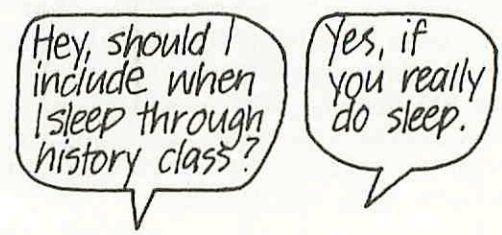


Because this card asks students to observe their babies several times, it should be used early.

Purposes: To consider how much all babies sleep and how the sleeping patterns of all babies change over time.

To consider individual differences in how babies sleep.

To consider how a baby's sleeping pattern affects interaction between parent and baby.



Once they have all made their graphs, students can compile the information and ask some of the same questions they will apply to their babies' graphs:

What is the average amount of sleep for class members?

What is the least anyone sleeps? the most?

Do individuals differ in how much sleep they need?

Are people consistent in going to bed early or late; waking early or late?

Do students have more than one sleeping period per 24 hours (nap, wake up during the night)?

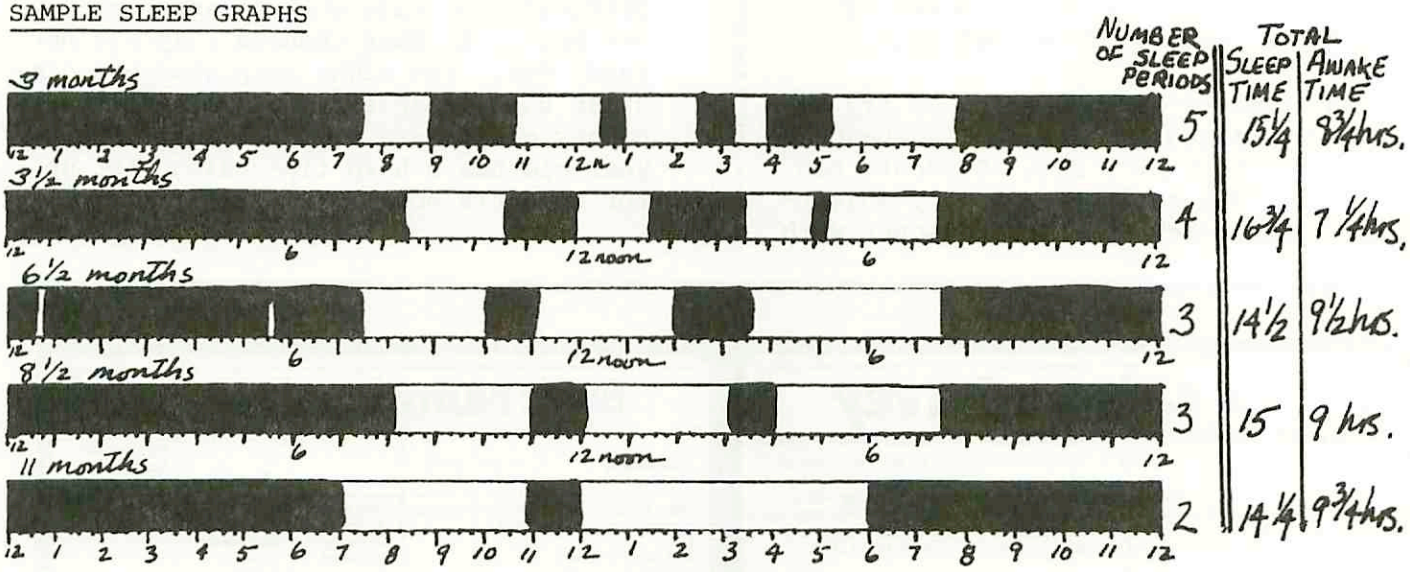
Warm-up

To introduce this card and prepare students for graphing their babies' sleep patterns, have them make graphs of their own sleep/awake time by drawing two parallel lines, marking off 24 equal intervals for the hours in a day, and shading in the hours they sleep. They should repeat the graph for several days. Make a sample graph of your own on the board.

MAKING INFANT SLEEP GRAPHS

The following example of one child's changing sleep patterns shows the kind of information students might collect in this activity. These graphs were collected over eight months, but students can see a similar progression by comparing the graphs of younger and older infants.

SAMPLE SLEEP GRAPHS



Analyzing the Graphs

As in the example, students' baby graphs are likely to show these patterns:

- total amount of sleep time remains relatively constant;
- number of sleep periods decreases;
- length of each sleep period increases;
- sleep time becomes more organized and predictable.

By comparing a wide range of graphs, students can see individual differences in the amount of sleep different babies need (ranging as much as 14 to 21 hours a day) and at what rate different babies organize their sleep into fewer, longer periods.

Differences in How Babies Sleep

Students will also observe (or discuss with parent-partners) various styles in how babies approach sleep and even in how they behave during sleep. All babies stir and fuss in their sleep and may be awake more than parents realize, but some are more restless than others. (Other examples: some seem to fight sleep; others drift off peacefully; some get frenetic as they tire and need help settling down.)

INFLUENCING A BABY'S SLEEPING HABITS

All babies need to sleep, and they all sleep as much as they need to. This section looks at why parents may run into difficulties with their babies' sleeping.

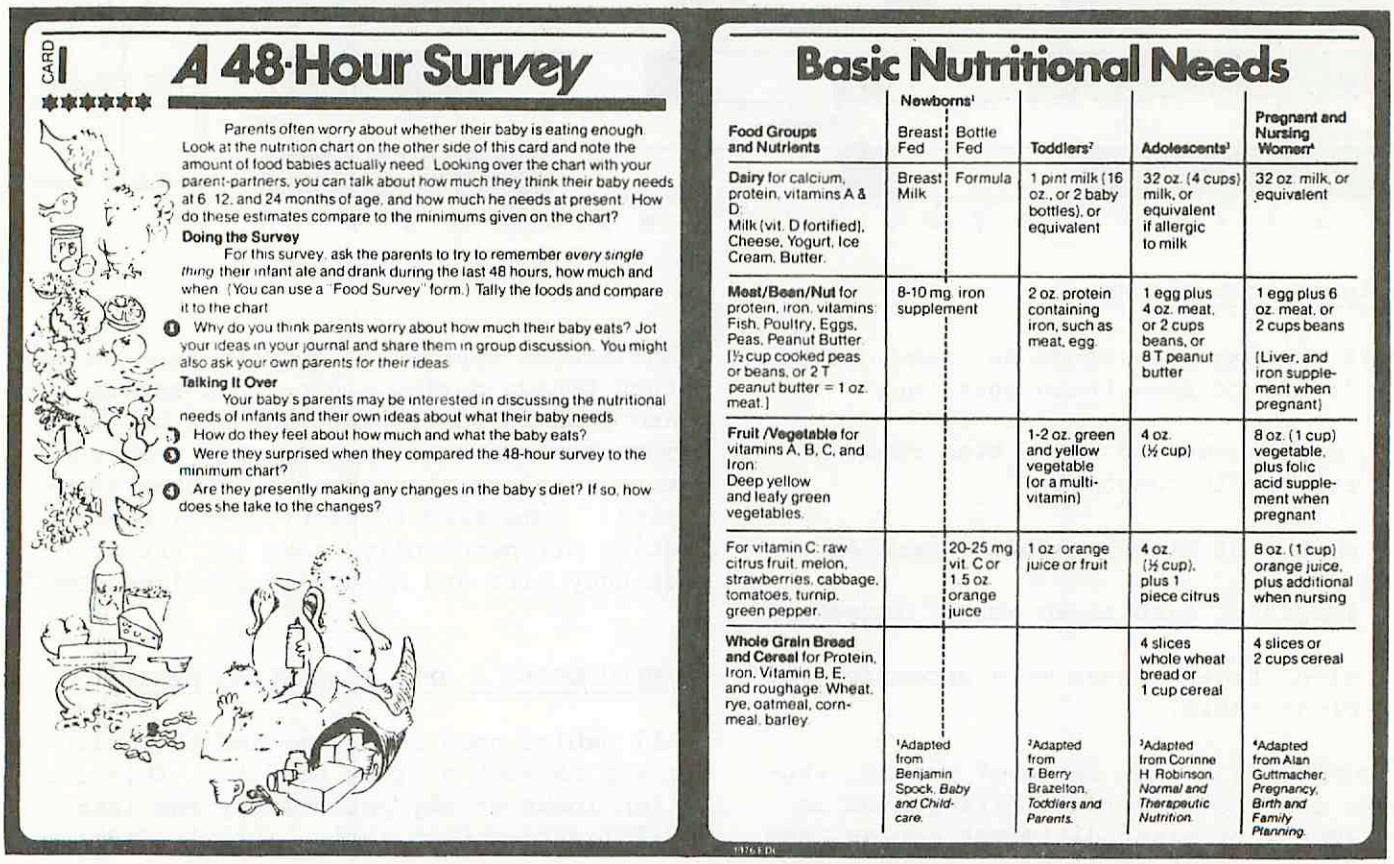
Sleep patterning is a good example of the power babies have to make their parents deal with them as individuals right from the time they are born. If a baby's sleep habits are not what his parents expect or want, parents adjust their expectations, and/or they try to change the baby's sleep habits.

What Does Adjusting Involve?

In comparing their own sleep graphs with their baby's graphs, students consider the process of mutual adjustment parents and infants make. When they imagine waking every time a newborn wakes, they should get some sense of why parents try to change a baby's sleep patterns. This constant interruption of a normal adult sleep cycle can be a major source of stress for parents of new babies.

The adjustments parents make, or try to get their babies to make, will depend partly on the baby's age. Students can consider evidence of this in any adjustments their parent-partners discuss with them. (For example, since newborns need to eat frequently around the clock, parents must adjust to sleeping at odd hours and not having long periods of time for their own purposes. Parents of an older baby may push for early bedtime so they can eat in peace, or late bedtime so the baby has time with the working parent and they can all eat together.)

Difficulties arise when parents try to get babies to make changes they are not ready for. You might help students consider some examples (a newborn who is hungry can't "cry it out"; a tired one-year-old has a hard time being kept up for an extra hour).



CARD 1

A 48-Hour Survey

Parents often worry about whether their baby is eating enough. Look at the nutrition chart on the other side of this card and note the amount of food babies actually need. Looking over the chart with your parent-partners, you can talk about how much they think their baby needs at 6, 12, and 24 months of age, and how much he needs at present. How do these estimates compare to the minimums given on the chart?

Doing the Survey

For this survey, ask the parents to try to remember *every single thing* their infant ate and drank during the last 48 hours, how much and when. (You can use a "Food Survey" form.) Tally the foods and compare it to the chart.

1. Why do you think parents worry about how much their baby eats? Jot your ideas in your journal and share them in group discussion. You might also ask your own parents for their ideas.

Talking It Over

Your baby's parents may be interested in discussing the nutritional needs of infants and their own ideas about what their baby needs.

2. How do they feel about how much and what the baby eats?
3. Were they surprised when they compared the 48-hour survey to the minimum chart?
4. Are they presently making any changes in the baby's diet? If so, how does she take to the changes?

Basic Nutritional Needs

Food Groups and Nutrients	Newborns[1] Breast Fed	Newborns[1] Bottle Fed	Toddlers[2]	Adolescents[3]	Pregnant and Nursing Women[4]
Dairy for calcium, protein, vitamins A & D. Milk (vit. D fortified), Cheese, Yogurt, Ice Cream, Butter.	Breast Milk	Formula	1 pint milk (16 oz., or 2 baby bottles), or equivalent	32 oz. (4 cups) milk, or equivalent if allergic to milk	32 oz. milk, or equivalent
Meat/Bean/Nut for protein, iron, vitamins: Fish, Poultry, Eggs, Peas, Peanut Butter. [½ cup cooked peas or beans, or 2 T peanut butter = 1 oz. meat.]	8-10 mg. iron supplement		2 oz. protein containing iron, such as meat, egg.	1 egg plus 4 oz. meat, or 2 cups beans, or 8 T peanut butter	1 egg plus 6 oz. meat, or 2 cups beans [Liver, and iron supplement when pregnant]
Fruit /Vegetable for vitamins A, B, C, and Iron: Deep yellow and leafy green vegetables.			1-2 oz. green and yellow vegetable (or a multi-vitamin)	4 oz. (½ cup)	8 oz. (1 cup) vegetable, plus folic acid supplement when pregnant
For vitamin C: raw citrus fruit, melon, strawberries, cabbage, tomatoes, turnip, green pepper.		20-25 mg vit. C or 1.5 oz. orange juice	1 oz. orange juice or fruit	4 oz. (½ cup), plus 1 piece citrus	8 oz. (1 cup) orange juice, plus additional when nursing
Whole Grain Bread and Cereal for Protein, Iron, Vitamin B, E, and roughage: Wheat, rye, oatmeal, cornmeal, barley.				4 slices whole wheat bread or 1 cup cereal	4 slices or 2 cups cereal
	[1]Adapted from Benjamin Spock, *Baby and Child-care.*		[2]Adapted from T Berry Brazelton, *Toddlers and Parents.*	[3]Adapted from Corinne H. Robinson, *Normal and Therapeutic Nutrition.*	[4]Adapted from Alan Guttmacher, *Pregnancy, Birth and Family Planning.*

Purpose: To give information about nutritional needs of newborns, one-year-olds, teenagers, and pregnant or nursing women.

DISCUSSING NUTRITIONAL NEEDS

People of all ages require the same nutrients in their diets, but the amount required and the form it takes vary with age. The chart on this card summarizes the *minimum* requirements at different ages.

Examine it with students to see how the same nutritional requirements are met by different foods at different times of life. Point out that the amounts required are not absolute. They may differ with individual needs, or with beliefs, which vary from one time to another, from culture to culture, and even from pediatrician to pediatrician.

Students could make illustrated versions of the chart on the card for their parent-partners, well-baby clinics, pediatricians' offices, prenatal clinics and obstetricians, preschools, or their own parents.

Students will refer to the chart when conducting the 48-Hour Survey on the back of the card, and when preparing a baby's meal. The chart on pages 32 and 33 contains more detailed information which you may want to reproduce for students.

48-HOUR SURVEY

Purposes: To apply nutritional needs to actual practice.

To consider the complex emotions and social influences around eating by comparing what babies *need* to eat with what parents *think* they need to eat and *want* them to eat.

Warm-up

Students might do the food survey for themselves, and then in small groups compare what they consumed in 48 hours with the basic nutritional needs for adolescents.

DOING THE SURVEY

Students can explain to parent-partners that the purpose of the survey is to compare babies' food requirements with what they actually eat and with what caregivers want them to eat. Having first checked the nutrition chart for babies' minimum requirements, students can ask their parent-partners what they think babies need to eat. On a "Food Survey" form like the one on page 72, the student and parent can list how much and what the baby ate and drank in 48 hours. Parents who cannot remember might be willing to take notes for two days. Together, students and their parent-partners can then compare foods eaten with requirements on the chart and with parents' ideas.

Many parents think children need more food than they actually require. Students might brainstorm possible reasons for this belief. For example:

anxiety about being "good" parents when baby doesn't eat;

competition with other families over what and how much baby eats;

belief that range of foods baby eats now will affect range of tastes later in life;

belief that amount eaten affects babies' growth rate, strength, resistance to illness.

Remind students that reasons like these may apply to their culture; other societies will not necessarily share them.

Talking It Over

Students might report a range of parental reactions to the amount of food babies eat (concern for baby's well-being, annoyance at preparing food for nothing).

Babies' appetites fluctuate. Sometimes they enjoy eating much more than is required. At other times (if they are more interested in practicing how to stand up, for instance), they may show less interest in food for the time being. If students share their nutritional information, parents who find their babies are getting their minimal requirements may be relieved. On the other hand, parents of babies whose nutritional needs are not being met (for instance, if sources of iron and vitamins are lacking) may learn what is required.

NUTRIENTS AND THEIR SOURCES

NUTRIENT	CHIEF FUNCTIONS	IMPORTANT SOURCES
Protein	Provides nitrogen and amino acids for body proteins (in skin tissues, muscles, brain, hair, etc.), for hormones (substances that control body processes), for antibodies (which fight infections), and for enzymes (which control the rates of chemical reactions in our bodies).	Milk, cheese, yogurt, eggs, fish, poultry, soybeans, lean meats, wheat germ, nutritional (brewer's) yeast and certain vegetable combinations.
Fats	Provide a concentrated source of energy. Carry certain fat-soluble vitamins (notably A, D and E) and essential fatty acids. Provide insulation and protection for important organs and body structures.	Whole milk, most cheeses, butter, margarine, nuts, oils (preferably unsaturated, unhydrogenated). Cholesterol and "saturated" fats are found in eggs, butter, cheap hamburger and ice cream.
Carbohydrates	Keep protein from being used for energy needs, so protein can be used primarily for body-building functions. Also necessary for protein digestion and utilization. Provide our main source of energy. Provide the glucose vital for certain brain functions.	Fruits, vegetables, whole-grain bread, cereals, grains.
Vitamin A (fat-soluble) Extra vitamin A is stored in the liver—that is why animal livers are such a good source.	Helps prevent infection. Helps eyes adjust to changes from bright to dim light (prevents night blindness). Needed for healthy skin and certain tissues, such as the lining of eyes and lungs.	Liver, whole milk, fortified margarine (A is added), butter, most cheeses (especially Swiss and Cheddar), egg yolks, dark-green and yellow vegetables (especially carrots, parsley, kale and orange squash), apricots.
Vitamin D (fat-soluble)	Needed for strong bones and teeth (regulates calcium and phosphorus in bone formation). Essential for calcium absorption from the blood.	*Sunlight shining on bare skin*, vitamin D-fortified milk, fish-liver oil, sardines, canned tuna.
Vitamin E (fat-soluble)	Helps preserve some vitamins and unsaturated fatty acids (acts as an antioxidant). Helps stabilize biological membranes.	Plant oils (especially wheat-germ oil and soybean oil), wheat germ, navy beans, eggs, brown rice.
Vitamin C or ascorbic acid (water-soluble). C is easily destroyed by air and heat. Like many other water-soluble vitamins, it is *not* stored in the body, so we need some every day.	Needed for healthy collagen (a protein that holds cells together). Helps wounds to heal. Needed for normal blood-clotting and healthy blood vessels. Needed for iron absorption. Spares or protects vitamins A and E and several B vitamins. Needed for strong teeth and bones.	Citrus fruits, green and red peppers, green leafy vegetables, parsley, tomatoes, potatoes, strawberries, cantaloupe, bean sprouts (especially mung beans and soybeans).
B vitamins (water-soluble) include thiamine (B_1), riboflavin (B_2), niacin, pyridoxine, folic acid, cobalamin (B_{12}), cholene, etc.	Needed for steady nerves, alertness, good digestion, energy production, healthy skin and eyes, certain enzymes involved in amino-acid synthesis, maintenance of blood.	Whole-grain breads and cereals, liver, wheat germ, nutritional yeast, green leafy vegetables, lean meats, milk, molasses, peanuts, dried peas and beans.

NUTRIENT	CHIEF FUNCTIONS	IMPORTANT SOURCES
Folic-acid deficiency is common during pregnancy. It may also be caused by birth control pills. Riboflavin is destroyed by sunlight, so use milk containers that keep out light. Fatigue, tension, depression are often signs of a B deficiency.		
Calcium Calcium is more easily digested when eaten with acid foods (such as yogurt or sour milk).	Needed for building bones and teeth, for blood-clotting, for regulating nerve and muscle activity, for absorbing iron.	Whole and skim milk, buttermilk, cheese, yogurt, green vegetables, egg yolk, bone-meal powder, blackstrap molasses.
Phosphorus	Needed to transform protein, fats and carbohydrates into energy in the body. Makes up part of all the body's cells. Needed for building bones and teeth.	Milk, cheeses, lean meats, egg yolks.
Iron Daily intake is important. Children, teenagers, pregnant and menstruating women are especially likely to have iron deficiencies.	Makes up an important part of hemoglobin, the compound in blood that carries oxygen from the lungs to the body cells.	Lean meat, liver, egg yolk, green leafy vegetables, nutritional yeast, wheat germ, whole-grain and enriched breads and cereals, soybean flour, raisins, blackstrap molasses.
Iodine	An important part of thyroxine; helps the thyroid gland regulate the rate at which our bodies use energy. Affects growth, water balances, nervous system, muscular system and circulatory system.	Iodized salt, seafoods, plant foods grown in soil near the sea.
Magnesium	Required for certain enzyme activity. Helps in bone formation.	Grains, vegetables, cereals, fruits, milk, nuts.
Potassium	Needed for healthy nerves and muscles.	Seafood, milk, vegetables, fruits.
Sodium, chlorine, fluorine and other trace minerals. Most of our diets now contain too much sodium, largely because of sodium compounds used in processed foods and excessive use of table salt.	Varying functions, many of them not well understood. Fluorine is especially important from birth to six months. It helps to prevent tooth decay by hardening tooth enamel.	Meat, cheese, eggs, seafood, green leafy vegetables, fluoridated water, sea salt.
Water Most people need 6-7 glasses of fluid (water, tea, juice, etc.) a day to keep good water balance in the body.	Not really a nutrient, but an essential part of all tissues. Often supplies important minerals, such as calcium and fluorine.	
Cellulose (Roughage)	Also not a nutrient, but important for stimulating the intestinal muscles and encouraging the growth of certain intestinal bacteria. Keeps teeth clean and gums healthy.	Fruits, vegetables, whole-grain bread and cereals.

CARD J

Baby Food Data

Here's some information about baby food and feeding babies that can help you when you're feeding a baby.

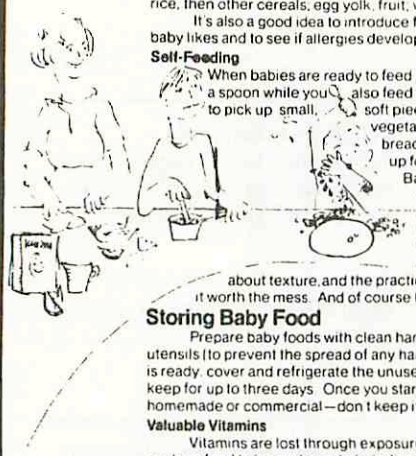
Introducing Solid Food

When babies begin eating solid food, it's a good idea to introduce foods pretty much in an order that starts with what's easiest to digest: rice, then other cereals, egg yolk, fruit, vegetables, meats and fish.

It's also a good idea to introduce foods one at a time to see what the baby likes and to see if allergies develop.

Self-Feeding

When babies are ready to feed themselves, you can let them hold a spoon while you also feed them, or they can use their fingers to pick up small, soft pieces of food (well-cooked vegetables, ripe fruit, scrambled eggs, bread, cheese, fish) that you've cut up for them.



Babies who are feeding themselves can make a real mess of themselves, the chair, the floor, the wall, and even anyone who lends a helping hand. But their pride in accomplishment, what they learn about texture, and the practice they get in coordination makes it worth the mess. And of course they improve as they keep at it.

Storing Baby Food

Prepare baby foods with clean hands and use clean, freshly washed utensils (to prevent the spread of any harmful bacteria). When the food is ready, cover and refrigerate the unused portions immediately; they'll keep for up to three days. Once you start using a portion of food—homemade or commercial—don't keep it for more than one day.

Valuable Vitamins

Vitamins are lost through exposure to air and overcooking. Avoid cooking food twice and, as a baby's digestion matures, serve raw fruits and some raw or steamed vegetables.

Pros and Cons of Commercial and Homemade Baby Food

Get together with some classmates and brainstorm ideas about the pros and cons for buying baby food vs. preparing it at home. Check your ideas out against the following information.

About Commercial Baby Foods: If you use ready-made baby foods, read the labels. Ingredients are listed according to quantity, from the largest ingredient to the smallest. Avoid foods that list water first (you can add your own for free!). Mix all-meat jars with vegetable jars yourself. (Precombined meat-vegetable dinners are less nutritious—which means they end up costing more.) Go as lightly as you can on salt, starch, and sugar. Don't feed the baby straight from the jar if you want to save and use what is left in the jar. (Saliva produces bacteria.)

About Homemade Baby Foods*: Preparing baby foods at home is not too complicated and can cost less than commercially prepared food. You will need something like a food mill, strainer, or blender. A food mill will puree fruits and vegetables and separate out seeds and skins as it does so; it will not puree meats. A strainer can puree soft fruits and vegetables. If you use a blender or a mortar and pestle, first peel, core, and seed the food. If stringy fibers remain after blending or mashing, put the puree through a sieve.

Some Basics for Preparing Baby's Food

Fruits: A baby's first fruit is usually ripe bananas, which you need only mash with a fork. All other fruits should be washed, cut into small pieces, steamed until soft, and pureed.

Vegetables: Cut washed vegetables into small pieces, cook, then puree. Avoid beets and spinach, since they may contain harmful nitrates. If the baby suffers from gas, go easy on broccoli, cabbage, and cauliflower, which may produce gas. Corn is difficult for some infants to digest.

Meats, poultry, fish: These can be baked, broiled, poached, stewed, or braised—but not fried because oil is hard to digest.

It's probably best to start with chicken, since it is easily digested. Cook it, remove the skin and any bones, then cut up and puree the meat. Fish is also very easy to digest. When you prepare any fish, however, go through it carefully for bones.

The simplest way to prepare cooked cut-up beef, lamb, pork, or veal is to puree it. Adding a bit of gravy, milk, or water can sometimes make the pureed meat smoother.

Eggs: Some physicians believe that infants shouldn't eat egg whites. Others disagree. Consult your parent-partners about what their baby's doctor says. Whether your baby eats both the white and the yolk or just the yolk, hard-boil the egg, then mash what you need with a fork to make a smooth paste.

Custard is an egg-rich food, good for a baby. To make it, follow a standard recipe, but omit sugar; nutmeg, cloves, and similar spices.

Other foods: Pureed cottage cheese is an easily digested food for babies. Add a little pureed fruit if you like. Soup is another good choice. When you fix a pot of soup for the family, take out a cup for the baby before you add seasonings and spices. Puree the soup if necessary.

Family Foods

Foods being prepared for family meals can be adapted for the baby. Remove the baby's portion before you add any seasoning or spices, and puree it. Use fresh foods. Canned foods may have salt and other additives such as MSG or nitrate; frozen foods often contain extra salt and sugar. Additives make the food tastier for grownups, but they are not good for babies.

*These notes are adapted from *Consumer Union Guide to Buying for Babies*. Mt. Vernon, N.Y.: Consumers Union, 1975). The Consumers Union is a non-profit group of consumers and medical consultants who test and rate the safety, economy, and usefulness of products. Ratings are based on both laboratory tests and actual use (by babies and parents, for example).

1976 EDC

Purpose: To give students information about baby foods and feeding babies.

Warm-up

Before students use this card, the whole class could do the brainstorming activity suggested under "Pros and Cons of Commercial and Homemade Baby Food." See *Teaching and Evaluation Strategies* (EC) for hints in conducting brainstorming. Students can change and add to their lists after they have read the card. They might mention in brainstorming:

For commercial, against homemade

may be more hygienic, if you don't have time, desire, or know-how

may be faster; allows more time for play with infant if time is limited

food prepared at home must be fresh

For homemade, against commercial

cheaper

more nutritional value per ounce (homemade vegetables, meats, custards have much more protein than similar commercial foods)

commercial jars contain salt, sugar, and other unnecessary additives

jars contain 10% to 33% nonnutritive starch added for consistency

water added to jars, you pay for it

INTRODUCING SOLID FOOD

A baby's experiences with solid food reflect cultural beliefs about what is good for babies. (Americans recommend that babies eat egg yolks; in Holland, people recommend starting with egg *whites* rather than yolks.)

Remind students that if a baby seems to dislike a new food the first time, they can keep trying for a few days. Some babies take time to adapt to new experiences.

Self-feeding

You might ask students the ages of babies who are fed by their parents, or at what age their babies began to feed themselves. The group could discuss what they think about possible reasons parents would encourage or delay self-feeding. (E.g., encourage: parent can do other things while baby eats; baby enjoys it. Delay: parent doesn't like mess; baby likes to be fed; parent enjoys this contact.)

STORING AND VITAMINS

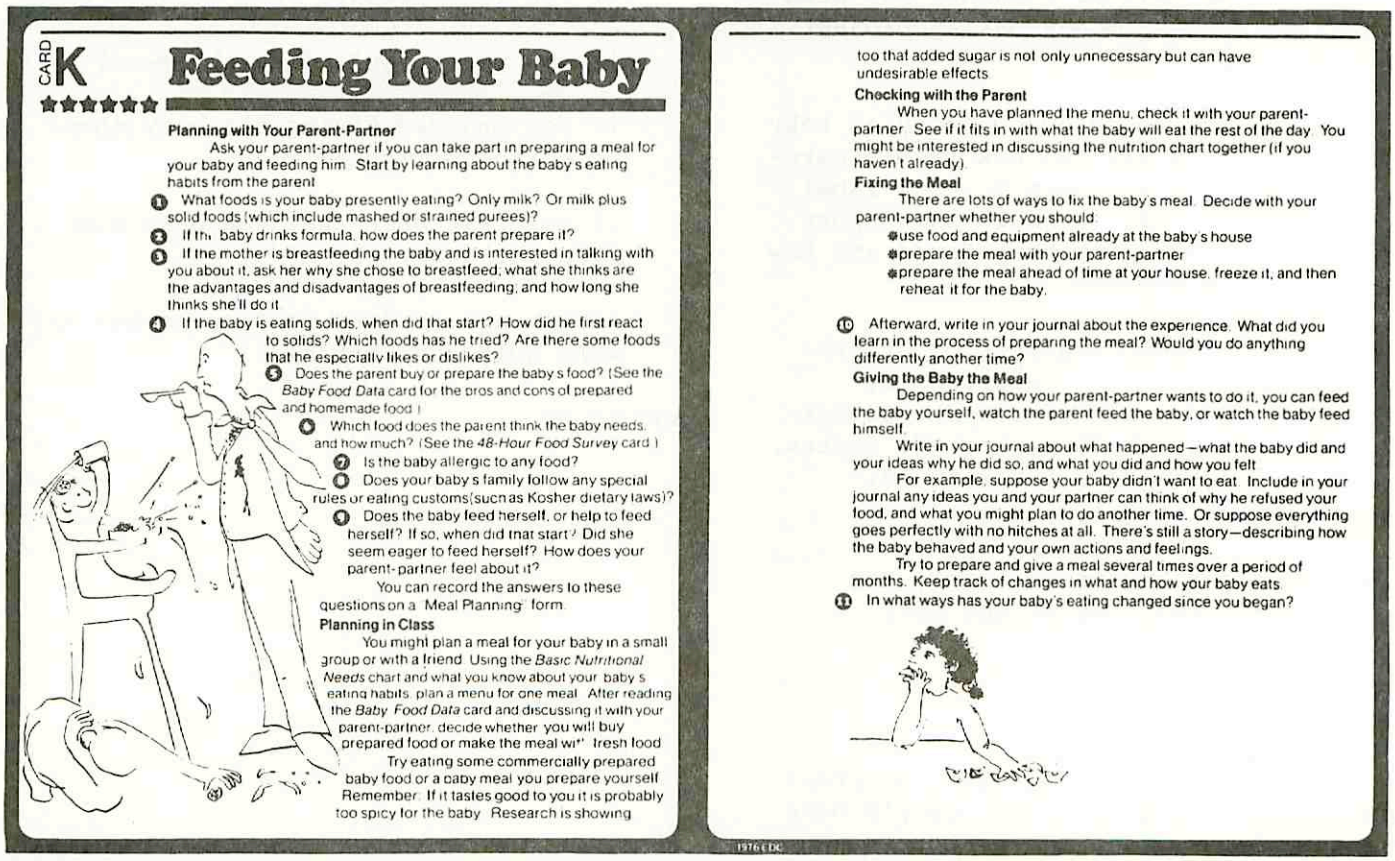
This important information could serve as part of a quiz you might tell students to study for.

Pros and Cons of Commercial and Homemade Baby Food

Students can compare the information on the card with their brainstormed list from the Warm Up. If you have the "Consumers Union Guide to Buying for Babies" (see bibliography), students can refer to it for more detailed comparisons.

About Homemade Baby Foods, Preparation, and Storage

Students can compare the information given here with what they have seen at home or in their baby's home. In small groups they might briefly compare notes on ways they have seen their parents and parent-partners prepare baby food. These sections serve as a cookbook reference for Card K, "Feeding Your Baby."



CARD K ★★★★★★

Feeding Your Baby

Planning with Your Parent-Partner

Ask your parent-partner if you can take part in preparing a meal for your baby and feeding him. Start by learning about the baby's eating habits from the parent.

1. What foods is your baby presently eating? Only milk? Or milk plus solid foods (which include mashed or strained purees)?
2. If the baby drinks formula, how does the parent prepare it?
3. If the mother is breastfeeding the baby and is interested in talking with you about it, ask her why she chose to breastfeed; what she thinks are the advantages and disadvantages of breastfeeding; and how long she thinks she'll do it.
4. If the baby is eating solids, when did that start? How did he first react to solids? Which foods has he tried? Are there some foods that he especially likes or dislikes?
5. Does the parent buy or prepare the baby's food? (See the *Baby Food Data* card for the pros and cons of prepared and homemade food.)
6. Which food does the parent think the baby needs, and how much? (See the *48-Hour Food Survey* card.)
7. Is the baby allergic to any food?
8. Does your baby's family follow any special rules or eating customs (such as Kosher dietary laws)?
9. Does the baby feed herself, or help to feed herself? If so, when did that start? Did she seem eager to feed herself? How does your parent-partner feel about it?

You can record the answers to these questions on a "Meal Planning" form.

Planning in Class

You might plan a meal for your baby in a small group or with a friend. Using the *Basic Nutritional Needs* chart and what you know about your baby's eating habits, plan a menu for one meal. After reading the *Baby Food Data* card and discussing it with your parent-partner, decide whether you will buy prepared food or make the meal with fresh food.

Try eating some commercially prepared baby food or a baby meal you prepare yourself. Remember: If it tastes good to you it is probably too spicy for the baby. Research is showing too that added sugar is not only unnecessary but can have undesirable effects.

Checking with the Parent

When you have planned the menu, check it with your parent-partner. See if it fits in with what the baby will eat the rest of the day. You might be interested in discussing the nutrition chart together (if you haven't already).

Fixing the Meal

There are lots of ways to fix the baby's meal. Decide with your parent-partner whether you should:

- use food and equipment already at the baby's house
- prepare the meal with your parent-partner
- prepare the meal ahead of time at your house, freeze it, and then reheat it for the baby.

10. Afterward, write in your journal about the experience. What did you learn in the process of preparing the meal? Would you do anything differently another time?

Giving the Baby the Meal

Depending on how your parent-partner wants to do it, you can feed the baby yourself, watch the parent feed the baby, or watch the baby feed himself.

Write in your journal about what happened—what the baby did and your ideas why he did so, and what you did and how you felt.

For example, suppose your baby didn't want to eat. Include in your journal any ideas you and your partner can think of why he refused your food, and what you might plan to do another time. Or suppose everything goes perfectly with no hitches at all. There's still a story—describing how the baby behaved and your own actions and feelings.

Try to prepare and give a meal several times over a period of months. Keep track of changes in what and how your baby eats.

11. In what ways has your baby's eating changed since you began?

1976 EDC

Purpose: To practice planning, preparing, and serving a nutritious and appropriate meal for a baby.

PLANNING THE MEAL

This step is crucial to making the meal suitable to the particular baby's stage of development *and* home surroundings. Students could take their notes on a "Meal Planning" form like the one on page 73 when they use the card to interview their parent-partners about their babies' eating habits.

Students whose babies are similar ages might work together. They should use their notes from planning with their parent-partner and the nutrition chart (Card I) to choose among dairy products, fruits, vegetables, meats, beans, and grains, in planning a balanced meal for their baby. They might write a menu and a shopping list. (If they decide to buy the food or ingredients themselves, students may need to organize a class money-making project to pay for it.)

Students who decide to buy commercial baby food should check jar and box labels carefully. You might ask them to note label information in their journals and report to the class about what they found and how they made their choices.

If you are equipped, students might prepare some baby food in class and try eating it. They could also taste commercial food in class and compare the tastes. Most likely, their reaction will be, "Blech!" For discussion, ask:

> Do you think babies will have the same reaction? Why or why not?

FIXING THE MEAL

To be sure the meal is fresh, final preparation should be done at the baby's home after checking with parent-partners. An alternate, though less nutritious, method is to prepare and freeze the meal ahead of time and take it directly to the baby's house for reheating.

Students need to follow the wishes of their parent-partners. Some might find it a boon to have a student appear completely equipped to make a meal; others might prefer to provide the ingredients themselves. Students should take care not to bring any food or equipment of which their parent-partners would not approve.

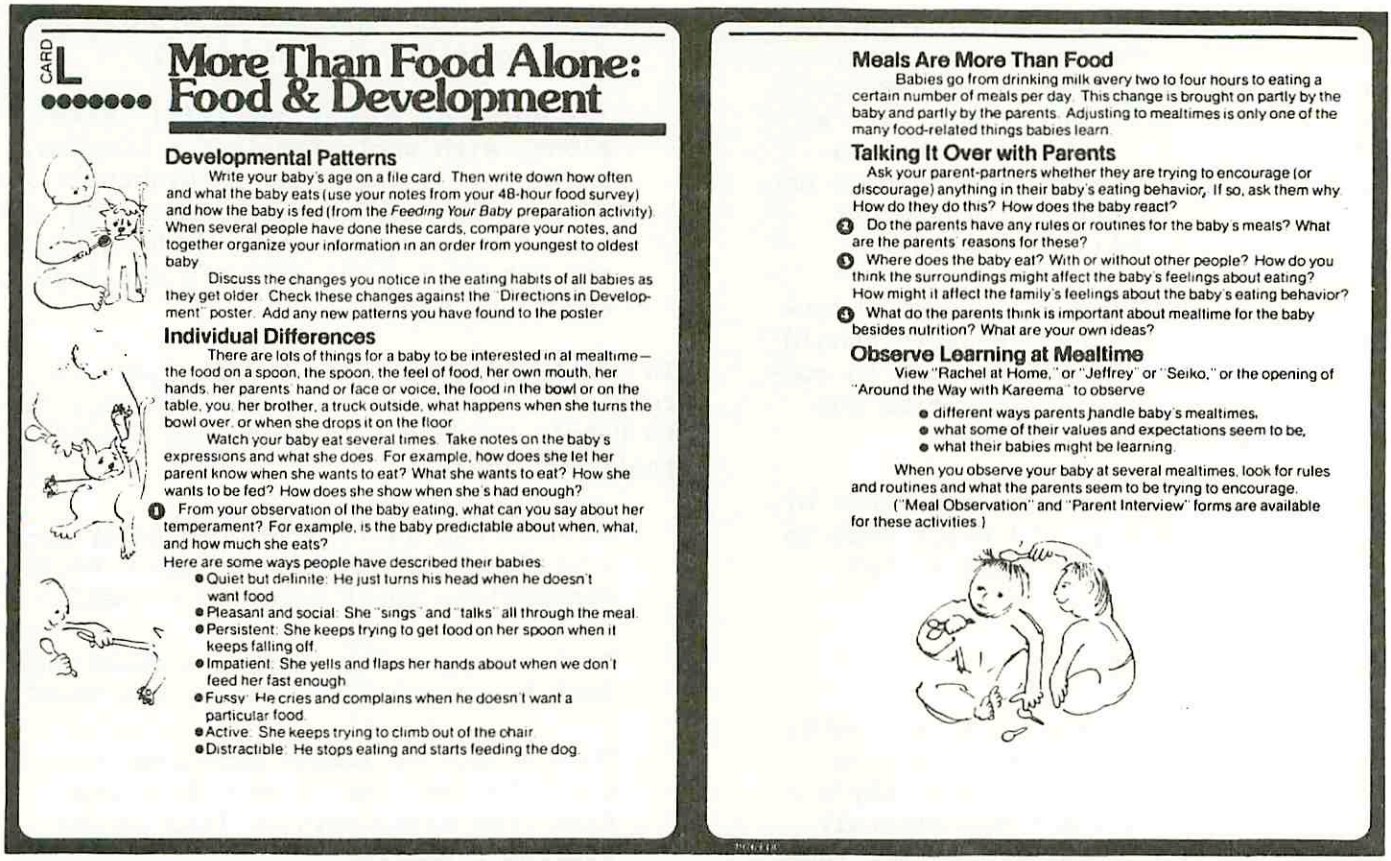
GIVING THE BABY THE MEAL

Students can compare the baby's reaction to the meal with his normal eating behavior with his usual caregiver (see also "Observing Individual Differences" on Card L) and consider the effects of a new feeder and possibly a new food.

Have students share their journal entries in small groups and discuss not only the babies' reactions but their own feelings. They could respond to questions like:

> How might your baby have been affected if you felt awkward in a strange role?
>
> if you were repulsed by the mess?
>
> if you enjoyed giving the baby something she relished?
>
> if you felt hurt that the baby didn't like the food?
>
> if you are used to feeding babies and were quite comfortable?

and so on.



CARD L

More Than Food Alone: Food & Development

Developmental Patterns

Write your baby's age on a file card. Then write down how often and what the baby eats (use your notes from your 48-hour food survey) and how the baby is fed (from the *Feeding Your Baby* preparation activity). When several people have done these cards, compare your notes, and together organize your information in an order from youngest to oldest baby.

Discuss the changes you notice in the eating habits of all babies as they get older. Check these changes against the "Directions in Development" poster. Add any new patterns you have found to the poster.

Individual Differences

There are lots of things for a baby to be interested in at mealtime—the food on a spoon, the spoon, the feel of food, her own mouth, her hands, her parents' hand or face or voice, the food in the bowl or on the table, you, her brother, a truck outside, what happens when she turns the bowl over, or when she drops it on the floor.

Watch your baby eat several times. Take notes on the baby's expressions and what she does. For example, how does she let her parent know when she wants to eat? What she wants to eat? How she wants to be fed? How does she show when she's had enough?

1. From your observation of the baby eating, what can you say about her temperament? For example, is the baby predictable about when, what, and how much she eats?

Here are some ways people have described their babies:

- Quiet but definite: He just turns his head when he doesn't want food.
- Pleasant and social: She "sings" and "talks" all through the meal.
- Persistent: She keeps trying to get food on her spoon when it keeps falling off.
- Impatient: She yells and flaps her hands about when we don't feed her fast enough.
- Fussy: He cries and complains when he doesn't want a particular food.
- Active: She keeps trying to climb out of the chair.
- Distractible: He stops eating and starts feeding the dog.

Meals Are More Than Food

Babies go from drinking milk every two to four hours to eating a certain number of meals per day. This change is brought on partly by the baby and partly by the parents. Adjusting to mealtimes is only one of the many food-related things babies learn.

Talking It Over with Parents

Ask your parent-partners whether they are trying to encourage (or discourage) anything in their baby's eating behavior. If so, ask them why. How do they do this? How does the baby react?

2. Do the parents have any rules or routines for the baby's meals? What are the parents' reasons for these?
3. Where does the baby eat? With or without other people? How do you think the surroundings might affect the baby's feelings about eating? How might it affect the family's feelings about the baby's eating behavior?
4. What do the parents think is important about mealtime for the baby besides nutrition? What are your own ideas?

Observe Learning at Mealtime

View "Rachel at Home," or "Jeffrey" or "Seiko," or the opening of "Around the Way with Kareema" to observe:

- different ways parents handle baby's mealtimes,
- what some of their values and expectations seem to be,
- what their babies might be learning.

When you observe your baby at several mealtimes, look for rules and routines and what the parents seem to be trying to encourage.

("Meal Observation" and "Parent Interview" forms are available for these activities.)

Purposes: To note patterns of development common to all babies in what and how they eat.

To consider individual temperamental differences shown in eating behavior.

To consider parent-infant interaction at meals and its influence on the development of both baby and parent.

Warm-up

You might introduce this card by asking these questions for a class discussion or journal assignment:

How often do you eat?

Who decides when, what, how much you'll eat?

Where do you eat? with whom? How does this affect your meal?

Students could discuss differences and similarities between their own eating behavior and a baby's.

DEVELOPMENTAL PATTERNS

Using the pooled results of the card's file card activity, the group can compile a list showing universal patterns in what is eaten, how, and how often.

All babies move from frequent milk feedings from a caregiver to a few self-fed solid meals. How this comes about, when, and who (baby or caregiver) determines it, vary with individuals, families, and cultures.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Students can use a "Meal Observation" form like the one on page 74 for this activity. From their notes, they can write a description of the baby's temperament as seen during feeding. Students might comment here on other areas (sleep, play) in which the same qualities appear and on whether these qualities seem to stay pretty much the same as the baby grows up. Temperamental qualities like those given on the card are more fully detailed in the reading by Thomas, Chess, and Birch on page 60 of this guide.

To answer the questions about the baby's predictabilities (one aspect of temperament), students can refer to the 48-Hour Survey for the amount their baby eats at each meal and when. A baby may have a predictable pattern which parents have not noticed, and the students' notes might help parents know what to expect.

When they have finished their meal observations and descriptions, students should meet as a class or in small groups to compare notes and discuss similarities and differences among their babies.

> Which differences can be explained by differences in age, and which seem to be differences in personal style?

MEALS ARE MORE THAN FOOD

Along with what and how much a baby eats, changes in eating habits and schedules come out of a combination of the baby's needs (developmental and temperamental) and pressures from caregivers to fit family needs and values. For example, an infant might want to nurse about every two hours, but the mother may push toward four-hour intervals to decrease the demand on her time or from a belief that the baby should be less dependent on her. Using this example or one of their own, a group of students could discuss:

> What might this baby and parent do to get what they want?
>
> How might they influence each other's behavior?

Talking It Over with Parents

Students can use a "Parent Interview" form like the one on page 75 in considering the mutual influence of babies and caregivers on one another:

> (Examples of what might be considered important besides nourishment: learning how to eat with family, coordination, sense of accomplishment, enjoying mealtime.)
>
> (Examples of rules and routines might be: wash hands first, can't bang spoon, finish meat and vegetables before fruit or other dessert.)
>
> (Examples of social contexts: eats alone, with whole family, in kitchen, in formal dining room, in highchair, TV on. In each case, students can consider how the setting might affect the baby's and the parent's feelings about the meal.)

In considering the effects of rules and routines, contexts, and parents' reactions to baby's behavior, students can discuss their own ideas.

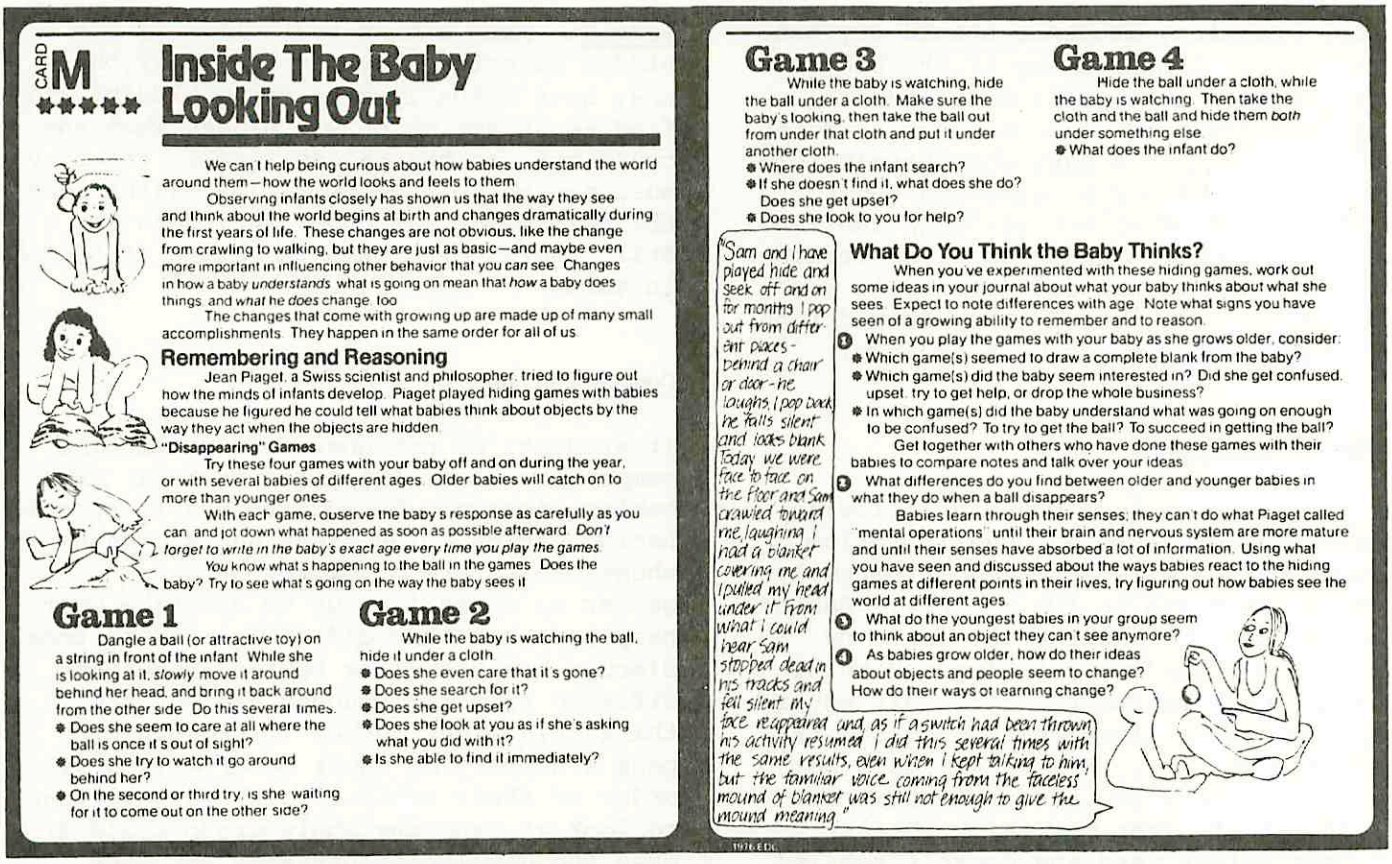
> At what age is it developmentally appropriate for children to learn social conventions about behavior at meals?
>
> Do too many rules inhibit a child and lead to negativism? What's too many?
>
> Does a lack of limits encourage a child to use food to provoke a reaction from caregivers or lead to undesirable habits?

In small groups students can discuss such issues and then decide on their own answers to these questions:

> How can parents structure a meal to avoid problems? (E.g., only a little liquid in cup, don't feed over a rug.)
>
> When should parents express disapproval and when should they ignore eating behavior that annoys them?
>
> How can they tell what reasons are behind the baby's behavior? (Does banging a spoon mean baby is stubborn and trying to get attention or is fascinated at being able to make things happen?)

Observe Learning at Mealtime

Students can observe one or more of the "At Home" films for practice before observing their babies and can compare the routines, interactions, and values on film and in their babies' homes. See the film section of this guide for notes.



CARD M
*****

Inside The Baby Looking Out

We can't help being curious about how babies understand the world around them—how the world looks and feels to them.

Observing infants closely has shown us that the way they see and think about the world begins at birth and changes dramatically during the first years of life. These changes are not obvious, like the change from crawling to walking, but they are just as basic—and maybe even more important in influencing other behavior that you can see. Changes in how a baby *understands* what is going on mean that *how* a baby does things, and *what* he *does* change, too.

The changes that come with growing up are made up of many small accomplishments. They happen in the same order for all of us.

Remembering and Reasoning

Jean Piaget, a Swiss scientist and philosopher, tried to figure out how the minds of infants develop. Piaget played hiding games with babies because he figured he could tell what babies think about objects by the way they act when the objects are hidden.

"Disappearing" Games

Try these four games with your baby off and on during the year, or with several babies of different ages. Older babies will catch on to more than younger ones.

With each game, observe the baby's response as carefully as you can, and jot down what happened as soon as possible afterward. *Don't forget to write in the baby's exact age every time you play the games.*

You know what's happening to the ball in the games. Does the baby? Try to see what's going on the way the baby sees it.

Game 1

Dangle a ball (or attractive toy) on a string in front of the infant. While she is looking at it, *slowly* move it around behind her head, and bring it back around from the other side. Do this several times.

- Does she seem to care at all where the ball is once it's out of sight?
- Does she try to watch it go around behind her?
- On the second or third try, is she waiting for it to come out on the other side?

Game 2

While the baby is watching the ball, hide it under a cloth.

- Does she even care that it's gone?
- Does she search for it?
- Does she get upset?
- Does she look at you as if she's asking what you did with it?
- Is she able to find it immediately?

Game 3

While the baby is watching, hide the ball under a cloth. Make sure the baby's looking, then take the ball out from under that cloth and put it under another cloth.

- Where does the infant search?
- If she doesn't find it, what does she do? Does she get upset?
- Does she look to you for help?

Game 4

Hide the ball under a cloth, while the baby is watching. Then take the cloth and the ball and hide them *both* under something else.

- What does the infant do?

"Sam and I have played hide and seek off and on for months. I pop out from different places - behind a chair or door - he laughs, I pop back, he falls silent and looks blank. Today we were face to face on the floor and Sam crawled toward me, laughing. I had a blanket covering me, and I pulled my head under it. From what I could hear Sam stopped dead in his tracks and fell silent. My face reappeared and, as if a switch had been thrown, his activity resumed. I did this several times with the same results, even when I kept talking to him, but the familiar voice coming from the faceless mound of blanket was still not enough to give the mound meaning."

What Do You Think the Baby Thinks?

When you've experimented with these hiding games, work out some ideas in your journal about what your baby thinks about what she sees. Expect to note differences with age. Note what signs you have seen of a growing ability to remember and to reason.

1. When you play the games with your baby as she grows older, consider:
   - Which game(s) seemed to draw a complete blank from the baby?
   - Which game(s) did the baby seem interested in? Did she get confused, upset, try to get help, or drop the whole business?
   - In which game(s) did the baby understand what was going on enough to be confused? To try to get the ball? To succeed in getting the ball?

   Get together with others who have done these games with their babies to compare notes and talk over your ideas.
2. What differences do you find between older and younger babies in what they do when a ball disappears?

Babies learn through their senses; they can't do what Piaget called "mental operations" until their brain and nervous system are more mature and until their senses have absorbed a lot of information. Using what you have seen and discussed about the ways babies react to the hiding games at different points in their lives, try figuring out how babies see the world at different ages.

3. What do the youngest babies in your group seem to think about an object they can't see anymore?
4. As babies grow older, how do their ideas about objects and people seem to change? How do their ways of learning change?

1976 EDC

Because this card asks students to observe their infants several times, it should be introduced early.

Purpose: To consider how a baby's understanding of the world and ways of learning about it change with age.

Warm-up

To introduce this card, you can read the following anecdote aloud:

> Sam and I have played hide-and-seek off and on for months. I pop out from different places--behind a chair or door, he laughs, I pop back under cover, he falls silent and looks blank.
>
> Today we were face to face on the floor, and Sam crawled toward me, laughing. I had a blanket covering me, and I popped my head under it. From what I could hear, Sam stopped dead in his tracks and fell silent. My face reappeared and, as if a switch had been thrown, his activity resumed. I did this several times with the same results, even when I kept talking to him all the while. But the familiar voice coming from the faceless mound of blanket was still not enough for him to give the mound meaning as me. I wonder what goes on in his head?

Peek-a-boo is universally enjoyed by babies, who will play it over and over. Ask students why. The way they play demonstrates how children will continuously explore whatever they are just figuring out: in this case that faces which disappear still exist and will come back again.

DOING THE GAMES

Students could set aside four pages in their journal and label them *Games 1, 2, 3, 4*. Each time they try a game, they can record observations on the appropriate page, labeling the entry with the date and the baby's age (in months and weeks). If the card questions for each game do not quite apply to their baby's reactions, students should write down whatever *does* happen (e.g., "I can't get the baby interested. She doesn't even notice the ball").

On each occasion, students should try the games several times to see if the baby's first reaction is typical or accidental. A baby who likes the game will enjoy doing it over and over. A baby who doesn't follow the first or second game won't get the third or fourth, but students can find this out themselves and figure out reasons why. If students are able to repeat the games over a long period, they should find their babies able to do more of them.

OBSERVING EACH GAME

Game 1: Newborns have trouble following a moving object. Babies usually follow a moving person first (ranging from early in the first month to two months). Babies follow first with their eyes, later by turning their heads. Watching something go around back may be too difficult physically, as well as irrelevant from the baby's point of view. A baby who does not seem to care or seems confused when the ball is out of sight may think that it no longer exists when she doesn't see it. If a baby waits for the ball to come back around the other side, it suggests that she remembers what happened other times, or that she can anticipate an event and therefore must be visualizing it in her mind, and that she knows the ball kept on being a ball even when she didn't see it behind her head.

Game 2: As in the earlier game, not caring or not searching for the hidden ball may mean that the baby doesn't believe the ball still exists. If the baby cares or gets upset but cannot find the ball, it may indicate curiosity about what happens to things that go out of sight, even if the baby doesn't yet understand where the ball is. If she seems to wonder what you did with it, this may show she understands that another person can *cause* an event to happen, and that disappearances have explanations.

Game 3: When a ball is hidden under one cloth, then another, even in view of the baby, babies at first look for the ball under the first cloth. This may suggest that the baby connects a particular object only with a particular place or cannot keep several steps in mind.

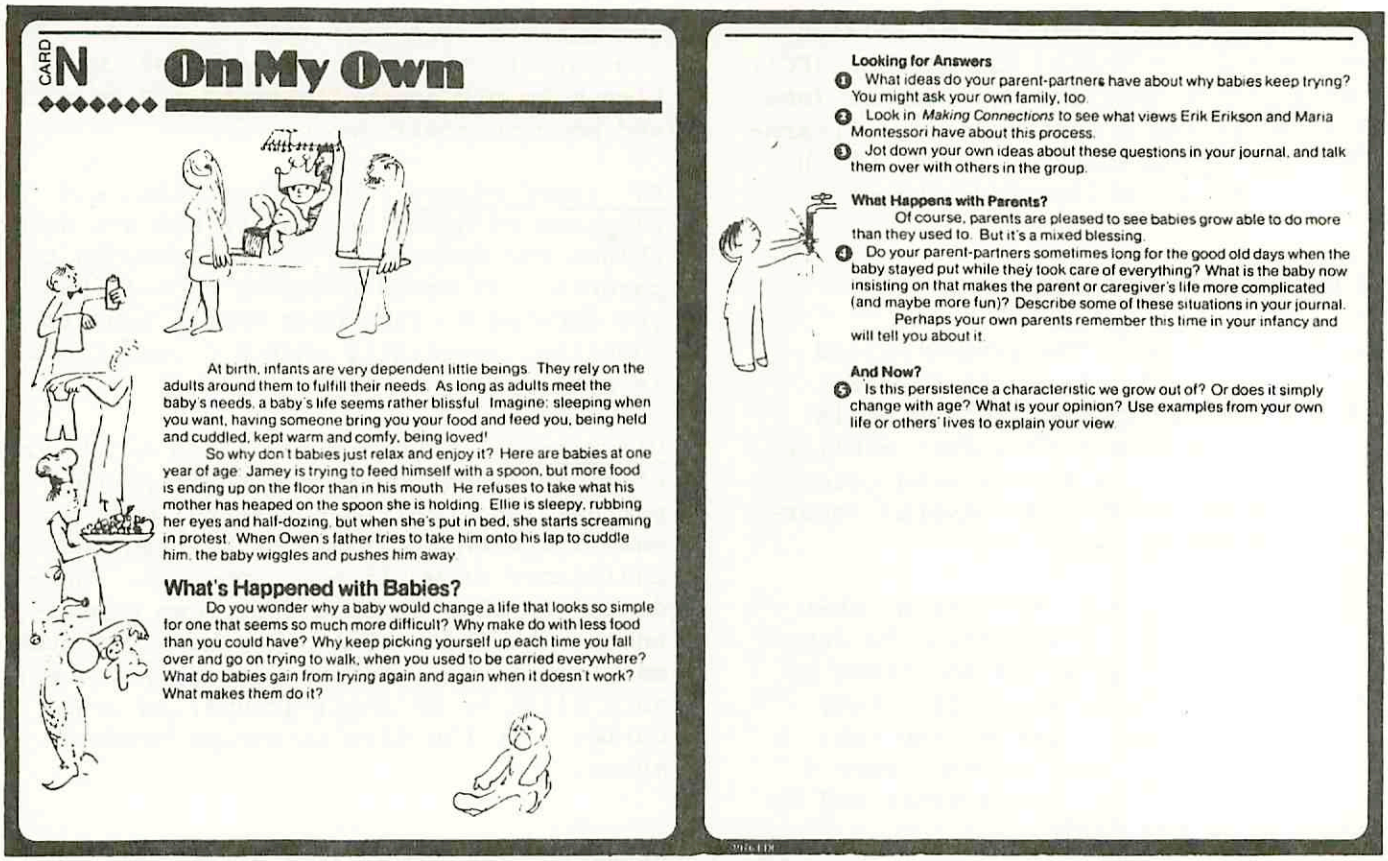
Game 4: When babies begin looking for hidden objects, they can find only those they have actually seen being hidden. To find an object which was hidden when she could not see the object itself, the baby must now be able to mentally imagine that the ball which was under the cloth is still there, even when the cloth is hidden in turn.

Comparing Babies

If students do not observe a developing comprehension of the games in their own babies, they may be able to see it by comparing babies. You might put students whose babies are of different ages together in a small group to describe what happened when they did the games and then discuss how the older babies' reactions differed from the younger and why they think this might be so. Or they could post a summary of their observations (in order of their babies' ages) for everyone to look at, and the whole group could discuss the developing patterns they see. One caution: various children will grasp a game at various ages, so comparing a somewhat older and younger child will not always yield a clear pattern. If that situation occurs, you have an opportunity to help students recognize individual differences among babies.

ANALYZING REACTIONS

According to Piaget, young infants know things only through their five senses and lack the capacity to have "thoughts" about anything except what they are experiencing directly at the moment. Therefore when an object disappears from an infant's vision, his attention goes to something else he *can* see, taste, touch, or hear. As infants get older, they begin to be able to keep images in mind, even if the original is not right there; and so the infant might wonder what happened to a ball that disappeared. In order to find a hidden object, according to Piaget, an infant must be able to imagine where the ball goes when it's hidden without having to see it.


CARD N

On My Own

At birth, infants are very dependent little beings. They rely on the adults around them to fulfill their needs. As long as adults meet the baby's needs, a baby's life seems rather blissful. Imagine: sleeping when you want, having someone bring you your food and feed you, being held and cuddled, kept warm and comfy, being loved!

So why don't babies just relax and enjoy it? Here are babies at one year of age. Jamey is trying to feed himself with a spoon, but more food is ending up on the floor than in his mouth. He refuses to take what his mother has heaped on the spoon she is holding. Ellie is sleepy, rubbing her eyes and half-dozing, but when she's put in bed, she starts screaming in protest. When Owen's father tries to take him onto his lap to cuddle him, the baby wiggles and pushes him away.

What's Happened with Babies?

Do you wonder why a baby would change a life that looks so simple for one that seems so much more difficult? Why make do with less food than you could have? Why keep picking yourself up each time you fall over and go on trying to walk, when you used to be carried everywhere? What do babies gain from trying again and again when it doesn't work? What makes them do it?

Looking for Answers

1. What ideas do your parent-partners have about why babies keep trying? You might ask your own family, too.
2. Look in *Making Connections* to see what views Erik Erikson and Maria Montessori have about this process.
3. Jot down your own ideas about these questions in your journal, and talk them over with others in the group.

What Happens with Parents?

Of course, parents are pleased to see babies grow able to do more than they used to. But it's a mixed blessing.

4. Do your parent-partners sometimes long for the good old days when the baby stayed put while they took care of everything? What is the baby now insisting on that makes the parent or caregiver's life more complicated (and maybe more fun)? Describe some of these situations in your journal.

Perhaps your own parents remember this time in your infancy and will tell you about it.

And Now?

5. Is this persistence a characteristic we grow out of? Or does it simply change with age? What is your opinion? Use examples from your own life or others' lives to explain your view.

Purposes: To consider the drive for independence that emerges in all babies in their second year.

To consider how this development affects caregivers.

This card poses the question, why do babies begin to insist on doing things themselves, even when it causes them so much trouble?

Despite the suggestion that a young baby's life is rather blissful, students should not make the mistake of assuming that infancy is easy: not all of an infant's discomforts--indigestion, for example--can be eased; and parents may not always recognize an infant's need.

WHAT'S HAPPENED WITH BABIES?

The period during which human infants depend on others for food, mobility, and security is longer than that of any other animal. The card gives several examples of how this total dependence changes. You might have students explain in journal entries and small-group discussions their ideas about what causes these changes.

The general explanation for all the examples is that the baby feels a drive to be autonomous: Jamey wants to decide what and how much he'll eat, and he wants to master the skill of carrying out his own decisions; Ellie may want to let her parents know that she can control when she sleeps; Owen wants to practice and master the ability to get around on his own, to go wherever and whenever he wants. What babies gain from trying again and again, even when it doesn't work, is increasing skill until it *does* work, and pride in mastering skills that make them independent of others.

Students might recall (and ask their parent-partners about) instances of independent behavior in their own babies, writing a journal entry which includes their own and their parent-partner's explanations for what the baby does. By comparing their examples, students may find that examples vary considerably according to the ages of their babies.

In addition to the materials on Erikson and Montessori in *Making Connections* (EC), Dr. Brazelton's *Toddlers and Parents* (see bibliography) has a section called "Learning About Independence" (p. 222), which is also a useful reading for students.

WHAT HAPPENS WITH PARENTS?

Students can compare the issues raised in this section with those on Card E, "Getting into Everything," which deals with how parents react to infant mobility --an instance of infants' growing autonomy. Independence heralds several important caregiving issues.

1. Danger and Safety: Situations that make parents "long for the good old days" can go significantly beyond the issue of parents' convenience. A crawling baby can fall downstairs or pester the cat; a reaching baby can pull a lamp over; a climbing baby can get onto a table and at whatever is on the table.

2. Authority: But not all instances of autonomy involve danger to the infant or inconvenience to the parent. The baby who says "no" and wants to do everything for herself may seem like a threat to the parent's authority. But parents may also take heart in the idea that their baby is discovering that she is an independent person.

3. Discipline: The issue of authority raises the subject of discipline. Students could discuss what discipline is necessary for babies, what is appropriate, and at what age. In *Toddlers and Parents* (p. 225), Dr. B. Brazelton discusses the importance of setting necessary limits for babies in their second year to help them learn to judge for themselves what is safe or acceptable behavior. *What About Discipline?* (EC) is another useful resource with this card.

4. Feeling Rejected: Some parents have feelings of loss or rejection as their babies become more independent. A mother may be reluctant to give up breast-feeding because it ends a particular kind of closeness between her and the baby. We get satisfaction from feeling needed. But new satisfaction can come with seeing babies make new accomplishments and be more and more on their own.

5. Inefficiency: The awkwardness and slowness of unskilled babies who are doing things for themselves can be annoying to parents. It takes patience to hold back the impulse to take over when a baby is fumbling, especially when a parent feels in a hurry.

Discussion: Students can learn about some of these issues by asking their parent-partner (and their own parents) what it was like when their babies refused their assistance or would not cooperate. Students can also discuss their own experiences with this. Once they have gathered many reactions, students could list them, as a class or in small groups, in categories like the five paragraph headings above.

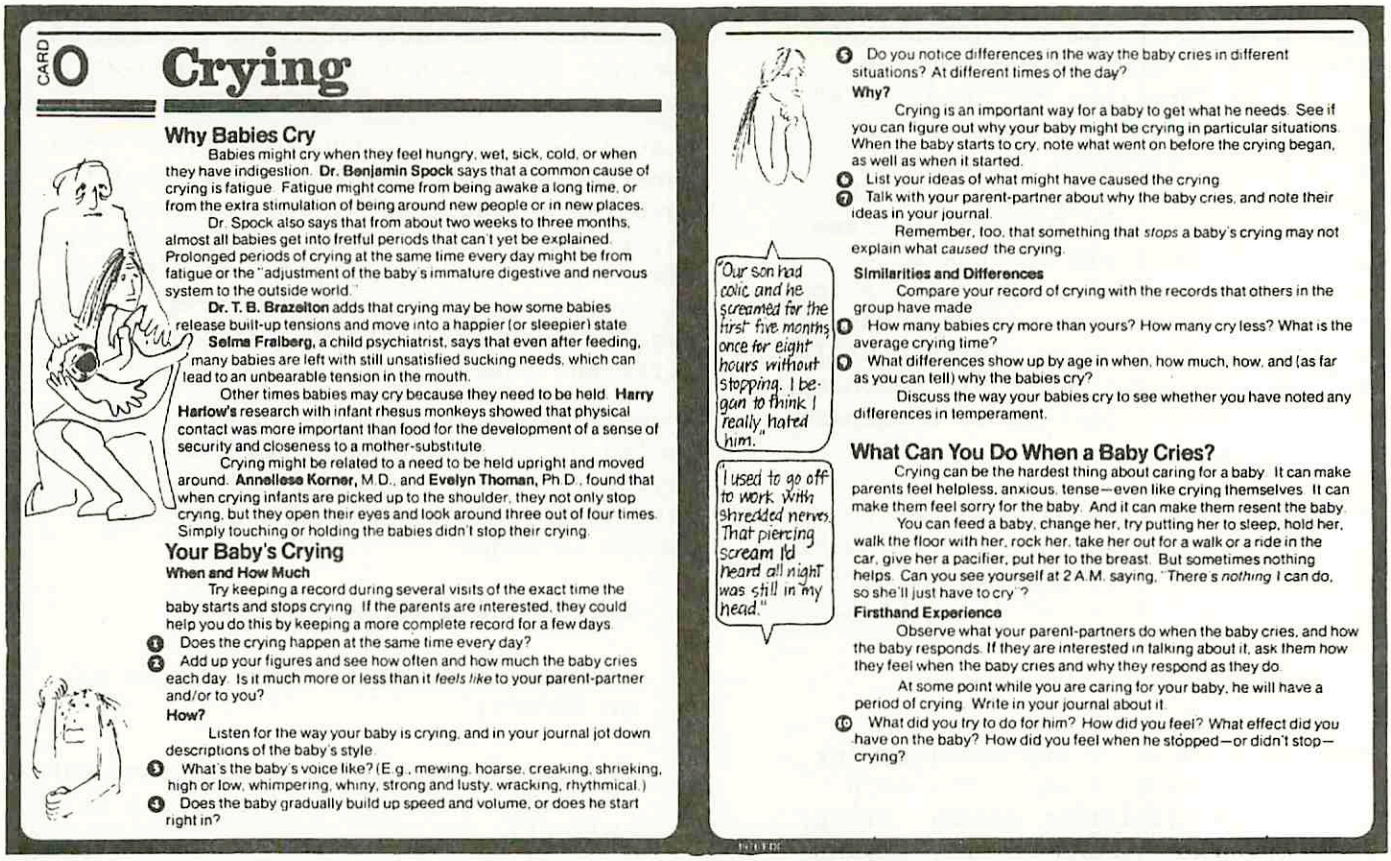
Students' Own Lives (And Now?)

The issue of autonomy is especially crucial to adolescents, as it is in the lives of two-year-olds. You might ask students how many times their parents have said, "I don't want you to have to learn the hard way."

Students could list some situations in which they want to be able to be on their own (e.g., choose their own friends, decide how much school work to do, set hours, use a car). They might then discuss:

- why they think their parents want some say in these areas (comparing these with the issues of control, safety, loss and rejection, and inefficiency discussed for parents of infants);
- why students think it is important to control these areas themselves (comparing this with the importance of autonomy for infants).

You might also discuss: Do students think that they, as well as babies, have a need for some kind of limits?



CARD 0

Crying

Why Babies Cry

Babies might cry when they feel hungry, wet, sick, cold, or when they have indigestion. **Dr. Benjamin Spock** says that a common cause of crying is fatigue. Fatigue might come from being awake a long time, or from the extra stimulation of being around new people or in new places.

Dr. Spock also says that from about two weeks to three months, almost all babies get into fretful periods that can't yet be explained. Prolonged periods of crying at the same time every day might be from fatigue or the "adjustment of the baby's immature digestive and nervous system to the outside world."

Dr. T. B. Brazelton adds that crying may be how some babies release built-up tensions and move into a happier (or sleepier) state. **Selma Fraiberg,** a child psychiatrist, says that even after feeding, many babies are left with still unsatisfied sucking needs, which can lead to an unbearable tension in the mouth.

Other times babies may cry because they need to be held. **Harry Harlow's** research with infant rhesus monkeys showed that physical contact was more important than food for the development of a sense of security and closeness to a mother-substitute.

Crying might be related to a need to be held upright and moved around. **Anneliese Korner,** M.D., and **Evelyn Thoman,** Ph.D., found that when crying infants are picked up to the shoulder, they not only stop crying, but they open their eyes and look around three out of four times. Simply touching or holding the babies didn't stop their crying.

Your Baby's Crying

When and How Much

Try keeping a record during several visits of the exact time the baby starts and stops crying. If the parents are interested, they could help you do this by keeping a more complete record for a few days.

1. Does the crying happen at the same time every day?
2. Add up your figures and see how often and how much the baby cries each day. Is it much more or less than it *feels like* to your parent-partner and/or to you?

How?

Listen for the way your baby is crying, and in your journal jot down descriptions of the baby's style.

3. What's the baby's voice like? (E.g., mewing, hoarse, creaking, shrieking, high or low, whimpering, whiny, strong and lusty, wracking, rhythmical.)
4. Does the baby gradually build up speed and volume, or does he start right in?
5. Do you notice differences in the way the baby cries in different situations? At different times of the day?

Why?

Crying is an important way for a baby to get what he needs. See if you can figure out why your baby might be crying in particular situations. When the baby starts to cry, note what went on before the crying began, as well as when it started.

6. List your ideas of what might have caused the crying.
7. Talk with your parent-partner about why the baby cries, and note their ideas in your journal.

Remember, too, that something that *stops* a baby's crying may not explain what *caused* the crying.

"Our son had colic and he screamed for the first five months, once for eight hours without stopping. I began to think I really hated him."

"I used to go off to work with shredded nerves. That piercing scream I'd heard all night was still in my head."

Similarities and Differences

Compare your record of crying with the records that others in the group have made.

8. How many babies cry more than yours? How many cry less? What is the average crying time?
9. What differences show up by age in when, how much, how, and (as far as you can tell) why the babies cry?

Discuss the way your babies cry to see whether you have noted any differences in temperament.

What Can You Do When a Baby Cries?

Crying can be the hardest thing about caring for a baby. It can make parents feel helpless, anxious, tense—even like crying themselves. It can make them feel sorry for the baby. And it can make them resent the baby.

You can feed a baby, change her, try putting her to sleep, hold her, walk the floor with her, rock her, take her out for a walk or a ride in the car, give her a pacifier, put her to the breast. But sometimes nothing helps. Can you see yourself at 2 A.M. saying, "There's *nothing* I can do, so she'll just have to cry"?

Firsthand Experience

Observe what your parent-partners do when the baby cries, and how the baby responds. If they are interested in talking about it, ask them how they feel when the baby cries and why they respond as they do.

At some point while you are caring for your baby, he will have a period of crying. Write in your journal about it.

10. What did you try to do for him? How did you feel? What effect did you have on the baby? How did you feel when he stopped—or didn't stop—crying?

Because this card suggests making observations over a period of time, it should be introduced early.

Purposes: To consider some reasons why infants cry and how parents may react and respond to crying.

To observe individual and developmental differences in infants' crying.

Warm-up

To help students examine their own reactions to crying, have one (or more) students make a tape recording of one of their babies' crying periods. You might try playing it as background music during class. Discuss: How does this sound make you feel?

Some people can't stand two minutes of crying; others can ignore a baby wailing its head off. In some cultures, babies don't seem to cry at all, in others they cry a lot. Listening to the tape could lead to an introductory discussion of what students think should be done when an infant cries, and why.

When and How Much?

Students might use a bar graph to record the number and duration of their babies' crying periods. They can make a bar graph by drawing two parallel lines, marking off 24 equal intervals for the hours in a day, and shading in the times the baby spends crying. This will show both the total crying time and the number of crying periods in a day. Students should repeat this for several days.

This exercise should give students a notion of the extent of crying with which to compare both the intensity of people's reactions and the range of theories about crying and responses to crying.

How?

Peter Wolff, M.D., heard three cries in

newborns: a basic rhythm cry (sometimes associated with hunger), a mad cry, and a pain cry. He describes the "basic cry" as starting with moaning or whimpering that turns into a repeated pattern: a cry, a breath in, a little rest, and the next cry. The "mad cry" follows the same pattern but uses more air and has more force; it's louder and has more noises in it. The "pain cry" starts with a sudden, loud, long cry, after which babies usually hold their breath (even up to six seconds). Then comes a repeated pattern of a gasping in and crying out.

You might describe these differences to students and then play a tape recording of several kinds of crying, discussing differences in the qualities of the crying.

Why?

In presenting a range of explanations for infant crying, this section of the card describes a range of infant *needs*: sleep, food, warmth, sucking, and so on. Crying is part of the survival equipment with which infants are born.

Solutions don't always equal causes. Nursing could be one example of something that may stop crying but might not explain it; the baby might not be hungry but could still be distracted or comforted by sucking.

To supplement the card, you might reproduce further reading in Dr. Spock on various causes of crying (see *Baby and Child Care*, pp. 215-223); Selma Fraiberg on infants' need to suck (see "What Good Is a Theory?" *Making Connections* teacher's guide [EC]).

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES

After averaging the amount of time their own babies cry each day, students can compare notes with each other for a sense of how much babies in general cry and how much variation there is among them.

A study of crying in ten infants by Freda Rebelsky and Rebecca Black found that the newborns *averaged* 22 minutes of crying a day at one to three weeks of age, but the time crying per day *ranged* from 6 to 63 minutes. The chart at the bottom of the page gives these averages and ranges at different ages.

A small group of students working with babies of different ages can compare their crying for how it changes with age and report to the class. Patterns they might notice include:

decreasing distractibility;

increasing awareness that crying has an effect;

increasing crying on purpose for what the baby wants (food, attention, an object);

hunger and tiredness remain causes of crying, while frustration, accidents, and conflicts with parents and other children may be new causes.

WHAT CAN YOU DO WHEN A BABY CRIES?

The intensity of parents' desire to comfort a crying baby must be nature's insurance that the needs of babies will be met. Understanding their needs and their reasons for crying increases our range of alternatives for trying to comfort the baby (e.g., not always to offer food: baby may need sleep or stimulation). It is also important to realize that we can't always stop a baby's cries.

Provide opportunities for students to exchange firsthand experiences of coping with their crying babies.

Amount of Crying in 24 Hours: Change Over Time

Crying time (in minutes)	Weeks of age 1-3	4-5	6-7	8-9	10-11	12-13
Average of all babies	22	25	34	25	19	14
Range	6-63	1-67	7-77	5-74	2-50	1-37

CARD P ★★★★★★

Dealing With Crying

What a person does when a baby cries depends not only on what might stop the crying, but also on what the person believes is good for the baby and on what the person's own needs are.

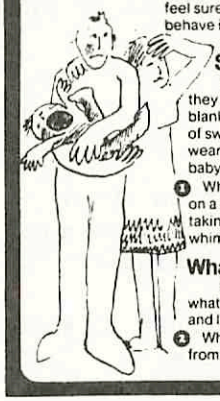
Parents' Needs

Parents have to learn how to deal with their own needs as well as their baby's. For example, you might know that a baby will stop fussing if you take her outside for a walk, but you might have other things to do. Or, suppose you have a baby who likes to be carried around the house all day. This way may wear you out physically, and get on your nerves.

If your parent-partners feel comfortable talking about it, ask them how the baby affects their own needs and how they balance the baby's needs with their own.

Parents' Values and Beliefs

How parents respond to crying also depends on the kinds of traits they want their child to have and on how they believe they can help a child develop such traits. Parents who want an *independent* child might believe that picking up a baby whenever he cries will make him too dependent on them. Other parents who want an *independent* child might go to their baby whenever she cries, because they believe she needs to feel sure she can depend on them before she can feel free to explore and behave independently. Still other parents may not think of independence as a valued trait.



Society's Values

Parents learn their child-care practices and values from the society they live in. In one culture, parents might keep a baby wrapped in a blanket. In another culture the baby can kick and move freely. One goal of swaddling might be to keep the infant from getting too excited and wearing himself out; while a goal in the second case might be to let the baby exercise so he will be vigorous.

1. What values might be behind other practices, such as carrying a baby on a caregiver's back all day, or leaving babies in cribs most of the time; taking babies around town in strollers; feeding babies whenever they whimper, or requiring them to eat on schedule?

What Babies Learn

No one knows for sure how children's personalities are affected by what their parents did about their crying, but people have many theories and lots of advice.

2. What does each of the following writers seem to think infants learn from the ways caregivers respond to their crying?

#1 Erik Erikson says that babies learn a basic sense of trust from knowing that their needs for food, holding, warmth, and movement are met. But babies whose needs are constantly frustrated or met very inconsistently tend to be insecure and have a harder time trusting people as they grow older.

#2 Sometimes parents are afraid their baby cries because she is spoiled, because she only wants attention. Child psychologist **Selma Fraiberg** argues against this view, saying that since infants under three months old don't know that anything exists outside themselves, they don't know they can get someone to come to them. Older babies, however, can cry with the intention of getting someone to come.

#3 Dr. Benjamin Spock, on the other hand, warns parents of babies around three months old. If a mother is too ready to pick a baby up and carry him around whenever he fusses, she may find after a couple of months that he is fretting and holding out his arms to be carried around almost all the time he is awake.

#4 Mary Ainsworth and **Sylvia Bell** think that once infants know they can trust their mothers, they develop confidence in themselves. In other words, a baby who is able to get what he wants from his mother is more likely to expect to get what he wants in other situations.

Ainsworth and Bell looked at how quickly and how often mothers responded to their babies' crying and related that response to the babies' development. They found that one-year-olds whose mothers usually went quickly to them when they cried:

- cried less and had more ways of letting someone know what they wanted.
- developed faster in solving problems like finding hidden objects.
- clung to their mothers less and explored more on their own.
- were less easily frustrated.
- were more regular and predictable than one-year-olds whose mothers usually responded slowly to their crying.

What's Your Opinion?

Discuss these ideas in a small group and ask your own parents and your parent-partners for their reactions to the four opinions.

3. Would you go to a baby whenever she cries, or would you let her cry if she's just eaten and has been diapered? Why? Would the baby's age make any difference?

A Parent's View

What kinds of traits do your parent-partners want their baby to develop? Talk over together how they feel parents can foster such characteristics.

Your Own Ideas

4. List ten traits you would like your own baby to grow up with (for example, confidence, humor, bravery, obedience, cooperativeness).
5. Choose one trait from your list and list some ways you could encourage this trait during infancy.

Who's Teaching Whom?

Babies influence the values and behavior of their parents. For example, parents might *believe* that it is better for a baby to "cry it out herself" than to be picked up, but they might find that in fact they pick her up because they can't endure long crying spells. Or a mother who believes in comforting her baby as soon as he cries might start letting him cry when it turned out that she couldn't comfort him.

Check It Out

Try to observe how your baby's crying affects the reactions and behaviors of the parents you are working with.

6. Can the parents think of any examples of ways crying affects them? Describe one or two examples in your journal.

Purposes: To consider how the interaction of babies' needs with the needs and values of caregivers shapes adult responses to crying.

To consider how various responses to crying affect babies.

To consider cultural influences on what caregivers believe and do.

Warm-up

Before discussing how parents' needs affect the way they handle crying, remind students that crying is the loudest way babies have to express their own needs when they are hungry, bored, cold, wet; when they want to have company, to be held, to change position, to let off steam if they are tired, frustrated, overexcited. How could a baby get someone's attention in the middle of the night if babies didn't cry?

1. Needs: As the card indicates, dealing with crying is not simply a matter of the baby's needs. Sometimes even the simple need to get things done--time for chores, school work, recreation--presents a problem to the parent of a baby. Ask students to write down two needs of their own that they would want to take care of on a typical day. They can exchange their items with someone else and discuss the adjustments and arrangements each would have to make if they had a baby.

Students might then debate whether parents *should* be concerned with their own needs during their child's infancy, and why.

2. Values: You could use the following activity for warm-up or for summing up students' thinking about connections between values and practices. The assignment to students might be set thus:

a. How do your parent-partners want their baby to be? (sociable? independent? obedient? dependable?) Talk over with them how they feel parents can foster traits they want their children to have. You might also ask your own parents the same kinds of questions.

b. List ten traits you would like your own baby to grow up with.

c. Choose one trait from your list and jot down some ways you could encourage this trait during infancy.

Have students join in group discussions to compare not only the different goals people may have for their children but also how caregivers' goals may be reflected in how they deal with their babies.

Parents' Needs

Students can start considering the dynamics of how the needs of parents and babies interact by trying to sort out the one from the other. One way would be to list things that might stop a baby's crying and then to list why parents might find it hard to respond in these ways every time the baby cries. The sample brainstormed list in the guide notes for Card Q, "Stress and Support for Parents," has more ideas.

PARENTS' VALUES AND BELIEFS

How parents respond to situations like crying is influenced by what they believe makes a "good parent" as well as what they believe is good for babies. You might have students list six qualities they think describe "good" parents. They could share their lists in pairs or small groups, giving examples of behavior to illustrate each trait, and then talk over how these qualities might show up in responses to crying (e.g., patient: not get fed up with crying; firm: make a policy of when and how to respond and stick to it). Important questions for discussion include:

> How would you feel if the way you responded did not fit your ideal for being a good parent or caregiver?
>
> How can you make your ideal fit what you know about the way you are?
>
> What should parents do when they get angry or fed up?

Students might pick out something they are not happy with in their own response to their babies (impatience, boredom), map out a program for improving their response, and start trying it.

Something to keep in mind throughout is that it is not only our beliefs that shape our actions. Caregivers often do what was done with them as children, what they have seen others doing in the same situation, or what their gut reaction tells them. Also, even when people do act according to their conscious beliefs, there is no assurance that what they do will result in what they want.

WHAT BABIES LEARN

Sample responses to the question about what each of the four points of view suggests about infant learning include:

> *Erikson:* They learn to trust if someone responds to their needs.
>
> *Ainsworth and Bell:* If their needs are responded to quickly, they learn to cry less, to show independence, patience, regularity, and problem-solving skills, and to express needs in a variety of ways.
>
> *Fraiberg:* Young infants cannot learn to manipulate others to get what they want because they are not yet capable of knowing that they themselves can cause something to happen.
>
> *Spock:* By three months, they learn to cry for attention if crying is always responded to.

What's Your Opinion?

When students have discussed the questions with each other and parents, you might set up a debate in class on the statement:

> You should (should not) always respond to an infant's crying.

SOCIETY'S VALUES

This section helps students consider how their culture influences their ideas about babies. Remember in using this section that the connection between a society's values and ways of handling babies is not clear or simple. There are clear differences between cultures in some practices (in traditional Japanese culture babies never sleep alone in a bed; in most parts of the United States children sleep by themselves from the beginning). And there are clear differences between cultures in some values (some value conformity and obedience more than others; some value individualism and self-control more than others). However, *no one knows for sure just how a culture's values and practices are connected.* Nor do the members of a culture necessarily think they are doing things to babies *for the purpose* of producing certain kinds of adults; they do things simply because that is the tradition in their culture.

With these cautions in mind, students can brainstorm in small groups or write in journal entries their ideas of possible underlying values for the practices listed on the card. For instance, social values that *might* underlie swaddling: instill self-restraint, calm, heighten listening and looking skills (see *Childhood Memories of Charles Eastman* [EC]); values that *might* be related to leaving babies free to move: physical exercise and expressiveness, independence.

You could read aloud or have students read Charles Eastman's description of his infancy as a Santee Sioux. Discuss:

> Which of the practices Eastman describes are familiar to you (hanging objects within reach) and which are unfamiliar (swaddling, hanging baby in tree)?
>
> What values or beliefs might each practice reflect?
>
> How do students personally feel about each of these practices? Why?

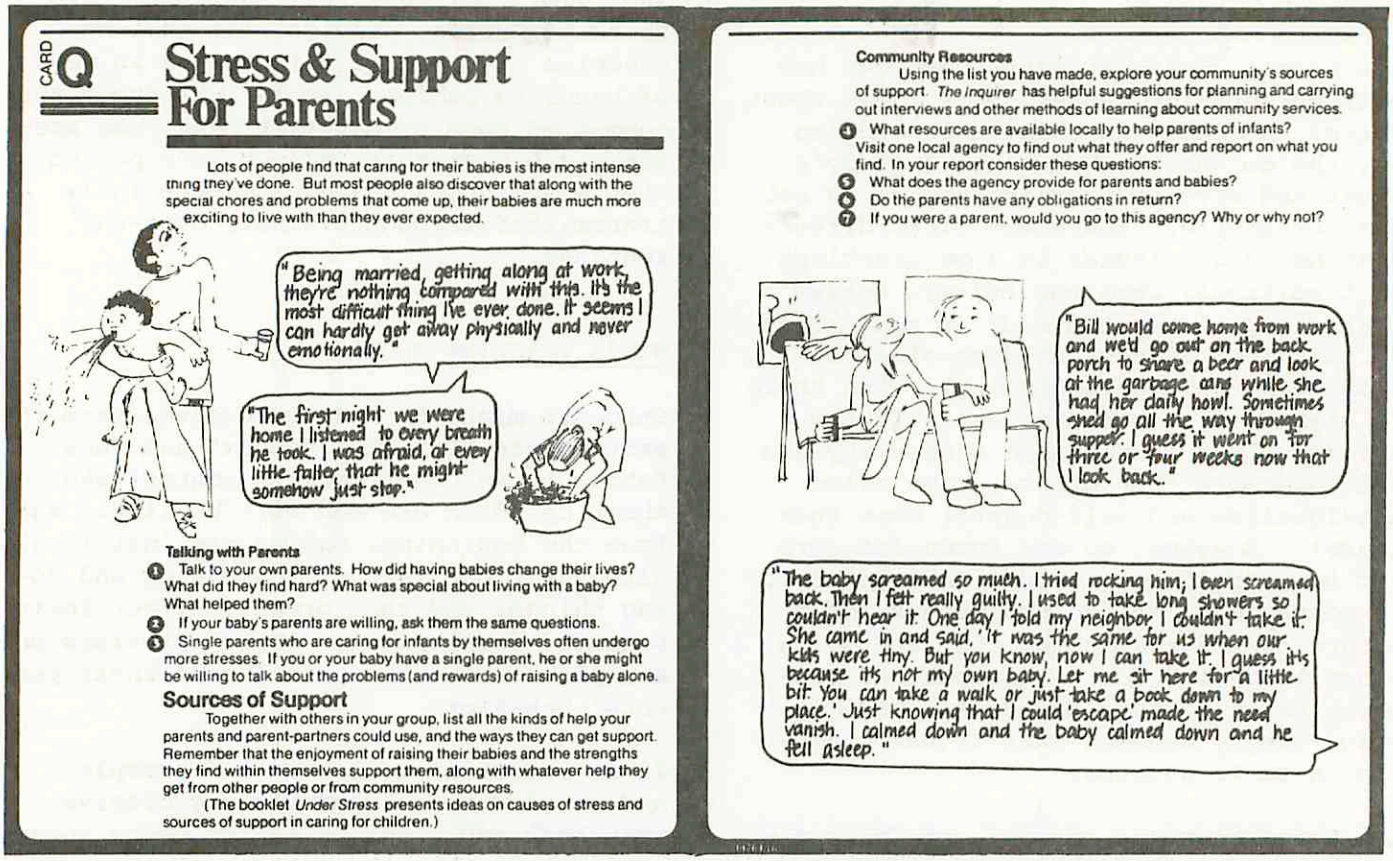
The film "Four Families" (National Film Board of Canada) provides fascinating examples of cultural differences in ways of handling babies. It is introduced and commented upon by Margaret Mead, who presents the view that infancy is a period when a society's values are powerfully transmitted through ordinary everyday routines.

WHO'S TEACHING WHOM?

Students might be led to conclude from the sections on "Parents' Values" and "What Babies Learn" that parents control what their children are and will be like. But from the beginning, babies are individuals with their own ways of responding and doing things, and they greatly affect their parents' development. Crying provides one example of how babies influence their parents' behavior.

It is important to see in the examples and in situations students may observe that *both* adult and child influence interactions and that the pattern of these interactions is always evolving as parents and babies adapt their responses to one another.

In this context, and before going on to the last two activities on the card, students might discuss their ideas about the meaning of this statement by pediatrician John Benjamin: *"Infants have the most wonderful capacity to product adults."*



Purposes: To become aware of some of the difficulties and rewards of parenthood.

To consider internal and external sources of support for parents.

The booklets *Under Stress*, *Keeping Children Safe*, and *The Inquirer* (EC) are especially useful resources for this card. In the record, "A Case of Family Stress" (EC), a mother tells of her problems coping with her infants, especially the first one.

Warm-up

1. Try slowly reading this description of one mother's night and morning with an infant, while students listen with closed eyes and try to feel her experience.

> I'm in bed at 10:00. I've just fallen asleep, when the baby cries. So I get up, feed and change her, but when I put her back to bed she starts to cry again. Jiggle her bassinet until she quiets at last. Finally back in bed at 11:30. Up again at 3:00 and again at 6:00 a.m. Then sleep for another hour before I get up to shower and make breakfast. Just when Walter leaves, the baby wakes up crying. The dishes will have to wait. Nine-thirty, change her diaper and wet clothes. Bedding is wet, too. When I feed her this time she vomits, so it's my turn to change. Then her diapers need changing again. I try laying her down while I run around to start the laundry. I just about get it going when the baby begins fussing, so I carry her on one arm while I clean the breakfast table with the other. Eleven, she's wet again. Maybe this is a good time for her bath. Collect soap, towels, dry clothes, fill basin and test water. She loves the water but screams when I take her out. I cuddle her as I dry her. Twelve, another feeding and she falls asleep. I need a nap too, but there are dishes, the laundry, and my own lunch. Chores done by 12:45--can I lie down now? If I *do*, her nap is bound to be over at 1:00; if I *don't*,

it will probably stretch out for two hours.

Pause a few minutes to allow students to emerge from the experience. Questions for discussion:

What are some feelings this parent/ you may be feeling?

Does this parent need help?

2. To consider sources of stress and support for parents, students might begin by reading, in small groups or as a class, the quotes from parents on the card. What other anecdotes about parental difficulties and solutions can they share with the class? As they discuss all of these anecdotes, students can start two lists headed *Stress* and *Support*. They can then brainstorm more items for each list. A few sample items for lists follow:

Sources of Stress

feeling that you are losing your own individuality

conflicting advice

criticism

no one to help you

small, or serious, medical problems

lack of sleep

trying to live up to an ideal image

lack of self-confidence; uncertain personal values

Sources of Support

sharing, supportive relationship between mother and father

new joy shared with family

pleasure of seeing your baby discover things and make new achievements

help from other family members, friends, or someone you pay

someone who is a good listener

ability to organize time well to pursue your own interests

doctor you can call

ability to stand back to take stock of yourself and to observe carefully what's going on with your baby

TALKING WITH PARENTS

Students interview their own parents and their parent-partners about what has been hard about caring for babies and what helped them. Students can add to their brainstormed *Stress* and *Support* lists as they share responses later in class.

Sample responses about the situation of single parents in particular might include for *stresses*: worries about money, no other adult to talk with or share tasks, difficulty of having a social life; for *special rewards*: strength can come from realizing you can do a difficult thing well, fun shared with baby.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

A small group or the whole class can look for resources in the community that offer special help for parents with infants. Students can use *The Inquirer* for ideas about conducting interviews and where to look for information in the community (e.g., religious organizations, clinics, libraries, women's groups, day care centers). Have students list *all* the resources and agencies they find in their community before choosing one to visit. Be sure they are aware of resources addressed to a range of economic groups.

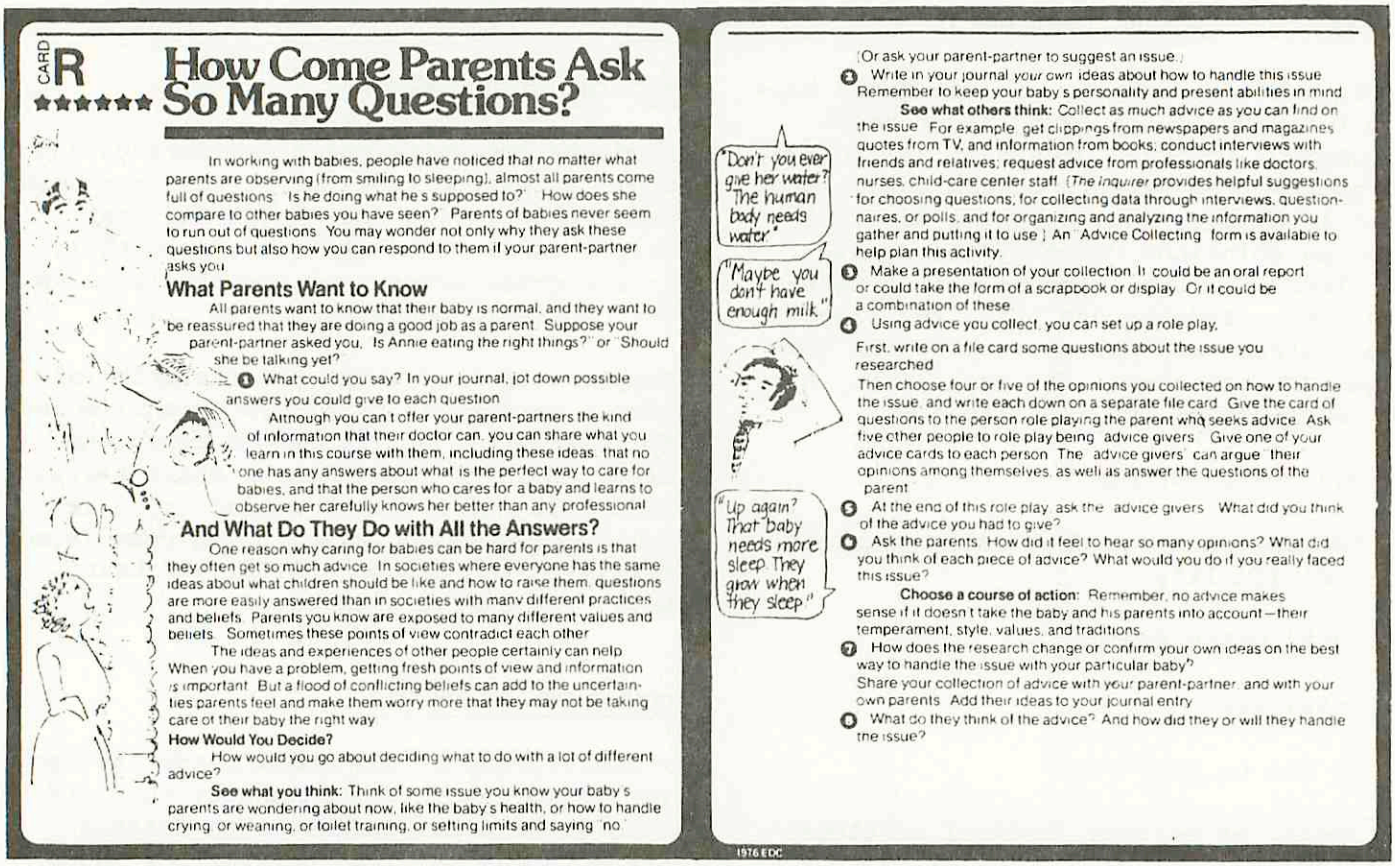
Whether they visit agencies or invite agency representatives to class, students might ask these representatives to add to the brainstormed *Stress* and *Support* lists and to comment on which problems their agency most often handles and what support they offer.

As part of this search, students might

consider pros and cons of various ways of caring for infants (e.g., home with one or both parents, infant day care centers, home care settings with relative or baby-sitter). Students can discuss their own experience with one or more of these settings.

Which way do students prefer for a baby, and why?

To consider how another culture handles infant and child care, students could look at materials on Israeli kibbutz children's houses in the unit "Children in Society" (EC).



CARD R ★★★★★★

How Come Parents Ask So Many Questions?

In working with babies, people have noticed that no matter what parents are observing (from smiling to sleeping), almost all parents come full of questions. "Is he doing what he's supposed to?" "How does she compare to other babies you have seen?" Parents of babies never seem to run out of questions. You may wonder not only why they ask these questions but also how you can respond to them if your parent-partner asks you.

What Parents Want to Know

All parents want to know that their baby is normal, and they want to be reassured that they are doing a good job as a parent. Suppose your parent-partner asked you, "Is Annie eating the right things?" or "Should she be talking yet?"

1. What could you say? In your journal, jot down possible answers you could give to each question.

Although you can't offer your parent-partners the kind of information that their doctor can, you can share what you learn in this course with them, including these ideas: that no one has any answers about what is the perfect way to care for babies, and that the person who cares for a baby and learns to observe her carefully knows her better than any professional.

And What Do They Do with All the Answers?

One reason why caring for babies can be hard for parents is that they often get so much advice. In societies where everyone has the same ideas about what children should be like and how to raise them, questions are more easily answered than in societies with many different practices and beliefs. Parents you know are exposed to many different values and beliefs. Sometimes these points of view contradict each other.

The ideas and experiences of other people certainly can help. When you have a problem, getting fresh points of view and information is important. But a flood of conflicting beliefs can add to the uncertainties parents feel and make them worry more that they may not be taking care of their baby the right way.

How Would You Decide?

How would you go about deciding what to do with a lot of different advice?

See what you think: Think of some issue you know your baby's parents are wondering about now, like the baby's health, or how to handle crying, or weaning, or toilet training, or setting limits and saying "no."

(Or ask your parent-partner to suggest an issue.)

2. Write in your journal *your own* ideas about how to handle this issue. Remember to keep your baby's personality and present abilities in mind.

See what others think: Collect as much advice as you can find on the issue. For example: get clippings from newspapers and magazines; quotes from TV; and information from books; conduct interviews with friends and relatives; request advice from professionals like doctors, nurses, child-care center staff. (*The Inquirer* provides helpful suggestions for choosing questions; for collecting data through interviews, questionnaires, or polls; and for organizing and analyzing the information you gather and putting it to use.) An "Advice Collecting" form is available to help plan this activity.

3. Make a presentation of your collection. It could be an oral report or could take the form of a scrapbook or display. Or it could be a combination of these.

4. Using advice you collect, you can set up a role play.

First, write on a file card some questions about the issue you researched.

Then choose four or five of the opinions you collected on how to handle the issue, and write each down on a separate file card. Give the card of questions to the person role playing the parent who seeks advice. Ask five other people to role play being "advice givers." Give one of your advice cards to each person. The "advice givers" can argue their opinions among themselves, as well as answer the questions of the parent.

5. At the end of this role play, ask the "advice givers": What did you think of the advice you had to give?

6. Ask the parents: How did it feel to hear so many opinions? What did you think of each piece of advice? What would you do if you really faced this issue?

Choose a course of action: Remember, no advice makes sense if it doesn't take the baby and his parents into account—their temperament, style, values, and traditions.

7. How does the research change or confirm your own ideas on the best way to handle the issue with your particular baby?

Share your collection of advice with your parent-partner, and with your own parents. Add their ideas to your journal entry.

8. What do they think of the advice? And how did they or will they handle the issue?

"Don't you ever give her water? The human body needs water."

"Maybe you don't have enough milk."

"Up again? That baby needs more sleep. They grow when they sleep."

Purposes: To consider reasons for parents' questions and how to respond to them.

To become aware of sources of information about baby care.

To practice making an advised decision on baby care.

WHAT PARENTS WANT TO KNOW

Parents' questions might grow out of inexperience with babies, lack of confidence, concern for the baby, or a feeling that professionals are the "experts" about baby care. But the best care may vary with the baby, the caregiver, and the situation. Thus, caregivers can learn to look, learn, and make decisions about what to do with the babies they know.

You could have students do the first activity as a class warm-up or in a small group, rather than as a journal exercise.

Sample responses to "Is Annie eating the right thing?" include:

- looking together at nutrition chart on Card I (there is no one "right" thing);
- asking what parent thinks and what doctor recommends;
- asking if child is healthy.

Sample responses to "Should she be talking yet?" include:

- every baby is different;
- talking includes noises and gestures; maybe she's "talking" already;
- babies start using words at *very* different ages, and all the ages are normal.

And, of course, students should make clear that they have no *professional* preparation for answering such questions.

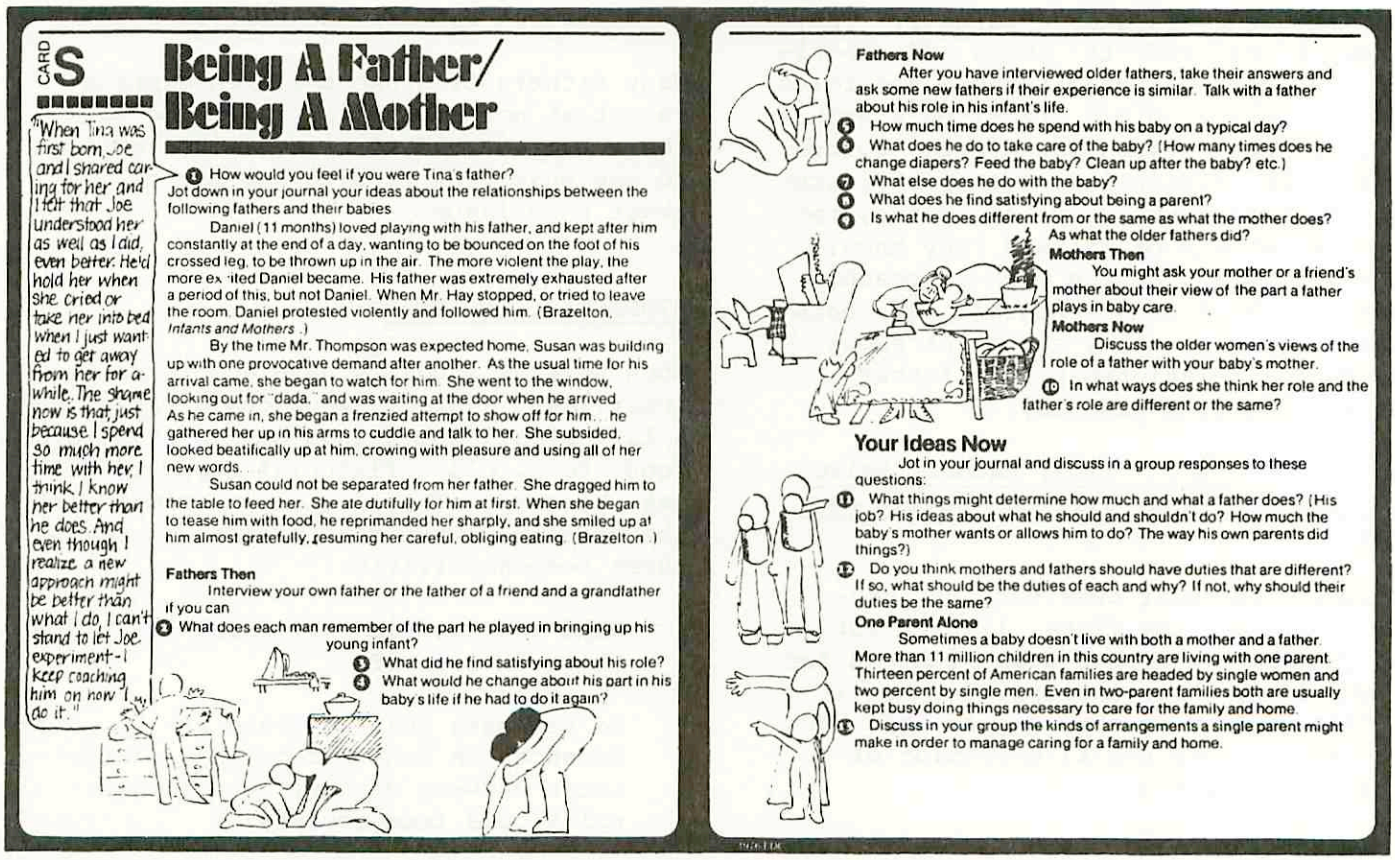
AND WHAT DO THEY DO WITH ALL THE ANSWERS?

In choosing a problem that currently faces their parent-partners and looking for relevant advice, students put themselves in the position of parents, who must:

- *judge the merits* of different advice,
- *consider whether it fits* with their own style and beliefs,
- *measure how realistic* the advice is in terms of the individual baby.

Point out that in choosing a course of action, parents often change their minds as they learn more about themselves and their babies, and that different responses may suit different stages of development.

Students focusing on the same baby care issues might work together to compile a scrapbook of advice. Or a small group could compile materials on several issues. You may have a collection of books on hand in class, and you can also copy the bibliography in this guide for students. An "Advice Collection" form is suggested on page 76 to help students plan and organize this activity.



CARD S

Being A Father/ Being A Mother

"When Tina was first born, Joe and I shared caring for her and I felt that Joe understood her as well as I did, even better. He'd hold her when she cried or take her into bed when I just wanted to get away from her for a while. The shame now is that just because I spend so much more time with her, I think I know her better than he does. And even though I realize a new approach might be better than what I do, I can't stand to let Joe experiment - I keep coaching him on how I do it."

1. How would you feel if you were Tina's father?

Jot down in your journal your ideas about the relationships between the following fathers and their babies.

Daniel (11 months) loved playing with his father, and kept after him constantly at the end of a day, wanting to be bounced on the foot of his crossed leg, to be thrown up in the air. The more violent the play, the more excited Daniel became. His father was extremely exhausted after a period of this, but not Daniel. When Mr. Hay stopped, or tried to leave the room, Daniel protested violently and followed him. (Brazelton, *Infants and Mothers*.)

By the time Mr. Thompson was expected home, Susan was building up with one provocative demand after another. As the usual time for his arrival came, she began to watch for him. She went to the window, looking out for "dada," and was waiting at the door when he arrived. As he came in, she began a frenzied attempt to show off for him... he gathered her up in his arms to cuddle and talk to her. She subsided, looked beatifically up at him, crowing with pleasure and using all of her new words.

Susan could not be separated from her father. She dragged him to the table to feed her. She ate dutifully for him at first. When she began to tease him with food, he reprimanded her sharply, and she smiled up at him almost gratefully, resuming her careful, obliging eating. (Brazelton.)

Fathers Then

Interview your own father or the father of a friend and a grandfather if you can.

2. What does each man remember of the part he played in bringing up his young infant?
3. What did he find satisfying about his role?
4. What would he change about his part in his baby's life if he had to do it again?

Fathers Now

After you have interviewed older fathers, take their answers and ask some new fathers if their experience is similar. Talk with a father about his role in his infant's life.

5. How much time does he spend with his baby on a typical day?
6. What does he do to take care of the baby? (How many times does he change diapers? Feed the baby? Clean up after the baby? etc.)
7. What else does he do with the baby?
8. What does he find satisfying about being a parent?
9. Is what he does different from or the same as what the mother does? As what the older fathers did?

Mothers Then

You might ask your mother or a friend's mother about their view of the part a father plays in baby care.

Mothers Now

Discuss the older women's views of the role of a father with your baby's mother.

10. In what ways does she think her role and the father's role are different or the same?

Your Ideas Now

Jot in your journal and discuss in a group responses to these questions:

11. What things might determine how much and what a father does? (His job? His ideas about what he should and shouldn't do? How much the baby's mother wants or allows him to do? The way his own parents did things?)
12. Do you think mothers and fathers should have duties that are different? If so, what should be the duties of each and why? If not, why should their duties be the same?

One Parent Alone

Sometimes a baby doesn't live with both a mother and a father. More than 11 million children in this country are living with one parent. Thirteen percent of American families are headed by single women and two percent by single men. Even in two-parent families both are usually kept busy doing things necessary to care for the family and home.

13. Discuss in your group the kinds of arrangements a single parent might make in order to manage caring for a family and home.

Purposes: To consider the part played by fathers in babies' lives.

To recognize the variety of combinations of adults in a baby's world, from single parent families to extended families.

Warm-up

Using the EXPLORING CHILDHOOD poster "What Is a Family?" you could have students pick out a photograph that includes a father (preferably with a baby) and describe the picture, telling what ideas it gives them about the relationship between the father and baby.

The poster can also be used for recognizing that babies are cared for in a variety of family settings. The card and poster encourage students to consider issues raised by each family circumstance, but not to judge one arrangement as better or worse than another.

USING THE ANECDOTES

You can have students discuss the anecdotes as a class or in small groups. The range of possible responses to the situation of Tina's father are many and wide-ranging (e.g., feeling left out, feeling mother should be in charge anyway). They will depend on students' ideas and experiences. When they have discussed the roles of the fathers from Dr. Brazelton's book (e.g., someone to look forward to, source of affection, discipline, authority), students can gather their own anecdotes, too, from observations of fathers they know, or see in stores, at the park or beach, on the bus, in friends' houses. For each of these anecdotes they can think about what special relationship that father seems to have with his baby.

Using the "At Home" Films, Rachel, Seiko, Oscar, Kareema; and "Bill and Suzi: New Parents"

In addition to their observations, students can view these films, listing for each one what the father does with and for the baby (and, where appropriate, how it is different from or the same as what the mother does). See the film section of this guide for notes.

FATHERS THEN, FATHERS NOW

Students can take notes for these interviews on a "Fathers' Interview" form like the one on page 77.

Fathers play a wide range of roles with their babies (e.g., kindly or respected presence with very little actual contact; affectionate playmate not involved in chores; sole provider and parent). When both parents work and share the role of provider, their roles with their baby at home may be similar or different, and each still has a personal style of relating to the baby.

The point of the interview is to describe the father's relationship with his baby, whether it differs from or is similar to the mother's. Conversations with mothers will add other points of view to students' ideas about father/baby relationships. If students do find distinctions between the mother's and father's roles, they may wonder whether these are particular to the couple or inherent in all fathers and mothers. It remains an open question--one which students will have to resolve to their own comfort and satisfaction.

Many fathers of grown children express regret at not having had more time with their babies, and it will be interesting to see what fathers with new babies say about this issue.

STUDENTS' OWN IDEAS

When several students have completed their interviews, a small group could brainstorm a list of all the things babies need (e.g., food, love, play, financial support, diaper changes). They could then compare all the ways they have seen parents divide these responsibilities.

What reasons can they think of for these divisions?

Do students believe there are sex differences in behavior or that differences between mothers' and fathers' roles come from society?

What benefits or disadvantages do they see *for the baby* in having mothers and fathers play different roles (e.g.,

baby might benefit from having more than one personality doing the same things for her)?

One Parent Alone

Students might look back at their brainstormed list of what babies need and then talk and/or write in their journals about how parents who are alone with babies manage to meet all of those needs. Encourage them to share ways of coping that they have seen in their own experience. For example, a single parent might:

work full or part time, with some arrangement for child care (member of family, sitter, day care center),

depend on outside financial support (alimony, welfare, savings),

increase responsibility of older children,

arrange to spend time with other adults so parent has someone to talk things over with.

Students could view and discuss the film "Jeffrey at Home" as an example of a morning in one single parent's home. Students who are single parents themselves, or come from single parent families, or have a single parent-partner, might like to read the chapters on single parents in *Toddlers and Parents* by Dr. B. Brazelton and the unit *Raising a Family Alone* (EC). You might arrange a viewing of "Growing Up Together," which presents three teenage parents of infants (see bibliography).

Extended Families

Child care responsibilities might be divided in different ways in extended families. Students might describe some extended family arrangements they know of. The group could discuss the advantages and disadvantages they see in these arrangements for the mother or father of a baby.

CARD T

Make A Toy

A good toy is one that's fun. It is fun if it fits with the new things an infant is noticing and learning to do—his level of development—and if it agrees with the infant's temperament—what he likes to do and his way of doing it. For example, an infant who is not yet grasping can't really enjoy playing with small objects—a better toy might be a mobile hung with bright objects that he can bat around. As he learns to grasp, the mobile can be hung within reach so he can practice grabbing. If the baby especially likes sounds, the mobile might be hung with bells instead of colored shapes.

A baby's age has a lot to do with what toys make sense for her. If your baby enjoys paper because it rips and crackles, it's not time yet for a homemade picture book.

Make two lists of ideas you get from these pictures:

2 What the babies might be curious about

3 What abilities they might practice with the objects.

Planning Your Toy

You can see what you know about babies, and especially about your baby, to design and make a toy that just fits. You might get together with your parent-partner on planning the toy, and even on making it. ("Toy Planning and Observing" forms are available for this activity.)

5 List your infant's abilities—the ones she already has and the ones she's busy getting the knack of, like walking or putting one thing on top of another thing.

4 List the kinds of things your baby seems to like doing and the toys he likes playing with now. Try to figure out what it is about those toys that keeps the baby interested, that keeps bringing him back to them again and again. Your parent-partner may have a lot of information to offer.

Now you're ready to make a toy to fit with what your baby *can* do and *likes* to do.

"A friend made her a rattle by stringing tops from baby food jars. At first the baby liked to chew on it. Then she got into making noise. She loved that! She'd whap it against the radiator, the crib. I'd have to leave the room."

Making It

The most important consideration in making a toy is that it be safe. Anything babies can get to their mouths will go into their mouths. And they don't know the meaning of "dangerous," "sharp," "poison," or "careful." So make sure your toy has:

- no lead paint
- no toxic dyes or glue
- no parts small enough to be swallowed (and no loose buttons, beads, nails, staples)
- no sharp points or edges
- no glass
- no thin or brittle plastic that can be shattered
- no plastic bags or plastic wrapping
- no substance that comes apart when bitten or picked at, (like cork, styrofoam, foam rubber) unless it is well covered with sturdy materials.

Be sure to attach parts securely so that built structures don't collapse and smaller parts don't come apart when they're chewed, banged, or pulled. Sew seams securely so that the stuffing cannot come out.

Use materials that are easy to get together in class or at home. (Look twice before you throw anything away!) For example:

boxes, plastic bottles, and cups of different sizes with different openings		wheels	spools
		cloth	tubes
		old stockings	sand
cardboard	large buttons	yarn	large beads
wood	felt	string	magazines

"Patty created her own jungle gym when she pulled over the big aluminum porch chair. She discovered she could crawl through it, pull herself over it, and dangle her plump body over the upturned crossbar."

Using It

Give your toy to the baby and watch what happens.

3 What does the baby do?

3 What does the baby do that you didn't expect? Why do you think that happened?

Find out from your classmates what toys they made and what became of them. Discuss differences that show up along the lines of age and of personality.

"Even before he was born I was collecting colorful pictures to go on the wall by the crib. To please the eye, right? One day—he was still very tiny—he stayed quiet for a very long sleep in the afternoon. When I finally went in to wake him, he was wide awake, surrounded by dozens of tiny wads of paper. His mouth and cheeks and the sheet were all smeared grey with ink. The picture on the wall was in shreds. I'd never seen him put anything in his mouth, and it was still weeks before I actually saw him do it. He'd had a very satisfying time, I could tell. But not the way I'd expected."

Purposes: To consider a toy's suitability to a baby's general developmental level and to a baby's individual style, temperament, and interests.

To examine the effect of different ways of playing with a baby.

Doing Things (EC) suggests materials and procedures for making things for children. *Child's Play* (EC) considers what children learn from play and how adults can support that learning.

Warm-up

You might introduce this card by asking students to brainstorm opportunities toys offer babies. Some possibilities are:

explore three dimensions and space relationships,

learn that things still exist when they're out of sight,

pour and compare quantities,

exercise large and small muscles,

make believe.

PLANNING THE TOYS

The developmental level of all babies requires that toys be safe and sturdy, whatever they may be.

A number of books give detailed descriptions of sequences of development in children and toys appropriate to different levels. You could assign students parts of *Bromley Heath Infant Curriculum* or *Baby Learning Through Baby Play* (see bibliography) to look at.

Encourage students to notice details about *what* their babies do (developmental level) and *how* (temperament). Encourage them to consider many different aspects of babies' development (language, hand coordination, understanding of relationships among objects). Students could use a "Toy Planning and Observing" form like the one on page 78.

Once they have listed descriptions of their babies' styles and current abilities, students in small groups might brainstorm things for babies to play with. For example: objects with holes and bumps, bags or boxes with things inside (small blocks, balls), measuring cups, wooden spoons, pocketbooks, simple puzzles, sand and water, dolls and doll clothes with big buttons, low chairs and sturdy boxes and stools, pictures of animals, jars and boxes to open and close.

Before they begin making the toy they finally choose, students should discuss its suitability with their parent-partners.

MAKING THE TOYS

If students make their toys in class, they could start bringing in materials several days before the class time you allot for actual construction. In some cases, especially for a student who is stuck for an idea, available materials may suggest possibilities.

Displaying and discussing completed toys in class provides for the pleasure of showing creation and *a final check on appropriateness, safety, and sturdiness.*

PRESENTING THE TOY

This task may not be as easy as it sounds. Students who have a preconceived idea about how the baby will use the toy may find themselves making comments like, "No, no, hold it this way"; they may feel compelled to help a child find the "right solution"; they may not realize that the baby cares more about the process of undressing a doll than about having a dressed doll; or the baby may destroy the toy in unanticipated ways.

Role Play

To prepare students for their presentations, you might yourself role play presenting a toy all wrong, having the class observe and list as many mistakes as they

see. Students could then practice presenting their toys to other students, discussing afterwards how they reacted to the "infant's" behavior, what they wanted to say, and why intervening may be inappropriate to the "infant's" exploration.

Child's Play (EC) analyzes several roles adults play in children's play: observer, amplifier-extender (of which "Just Joining In" in *Getting Involved* [EC] is a clear example), or leader-organizer.

Taking Notes

When students give the toy, they should watch the baby use it for as long as the baby's interest holds. If students note how many times the baby does the same thing with a toy, they can realize how babies practice over and over what they are just learning. Later if they wish they can interact with the baby and the toy, taking notes on that, too.

Alert students to take note also of: (1) what went on before they presented their toy (nap, interrupted another activity); (2) what else was going on at the same time (other children playing, parent watching); (3) the setting (on floor, in tub, in highchair). In an analysis of the baby's response to the toy, the context may be as important as the toy or the baby.

Students can share their observations in class, where they can also discuss:

- how play was affected if they interacted with the baby;
- ways in which toys could be changed to be appropriate for other developmental levels;
- any differences in how babies of different ages used similar toys.

CARD U

Daily Tasks

Having a baby around means more work as well as more pleasure. Besides managing the new tasks that come with a baby, such as more laundry or preparing formula, a caregiver also has to figure out how to fit in the regular business of housekeeping, such as doing dishes and buying groceries.

1. Make a list in your journal of the tasks you and your parent-partners do for your baby on a typical day.

Compare your list with those of others who work with babies close in age to yours, and add any items you may have forgotten. Now compare your list with those of people working with babies of different ages.

2. What baby-connected tasks do all caregivers do, no matter what the baby's age?
3. What tasks depend on the baby's age?
4. Are some ages easier (or harder) for the parents to manage? Why?

Look over the list you made in your group and answer these questions in your journal:

5. Which of these tasks have you done or helped your parent-partner to do for the baby?
6. What procedures and special tricks have you learned from the parent-partner, or anyone else to make chores easier or more pleasant for themselves? For the baby?
7. What equipment helped with the tasks? How did it help?

Watch It; Then Do It

Make a special observation of one of these tasks that involves the baby directly, and make notes in your journal while your parent-partner and the baby get the job done.

8. What does the parent do?
9. How does the baby respond to the activity (e.g., cooperative, pleasant, active)?

Talk to one or two people in the class who helped with or observed the same chores you have, and compare notes on ways parents went about things and how infants responded.

Choose a task you have not yet helped with, or one that you have shared but now could take complete responsibility for. Watch as the parent-partner does the task and explains the procedure to you, then do it yourself.

("Daily Baby Tasks" forms are available for this activity.)

"We just couldn't get a diaper on him because he wiggled so much. It would take ten minutes of wrestling and they'd still fall off. We got the bright idea of having him stand up holding onto a chair. He had to hold on for dear life so he wouldn't fall, and that meant he kept still while we stood on our heads to do the diapering."

Time for Learning—Time for Fun

Babies are learning all the time. Your observations of their responses to daily caregiving tasks can give you ideas on how to use these times to talk, play, and add opportunities for them to learn. In your journal jot down what you can do with your baby that *fits his growing abilities* during each of these tasks:

changing diapers or toilet training
dressing or undressing
feeding
bathing

Purposes: To gain competence in everyday caregiving tasks.

To consider the range of tasks involved in baby care and how tasks change as the baby grows older.

GATHERING INFORMATION

When students list the chores their parent-partners do in caring for their babies, they might do it in the form of a daily routine chart, listing each thing the parent does for the baby from morning till night (and into the night). Parent-partners might like to help make this list, and together they might discuss how the parent combines child care and regular housework.

When several students have made these lists, they can compare notes for:

- tasks that parents of all babies do (laundry, going for walks);
- tasks that depend on the baby's age (parents of creepers mop up spills);
- what ages parents find easier or harder to manage (newborn period may be difficult because chores are all new and baby's schedule is changing fast; time around three to four months is easier because baby's schedule is more organized and parents are more accustomed).

When students write in their journals about special techniques and equipment they have found for getting things done as pleasantly as possible for all concerned, encourage them to include tricks they have learned in their own homes as well as from parent-partners. To help them get started you could suggest a few examples (salve that helps prevent diaper rash, washing doll's hair before shampoo if baby is afraid, letting baby hold one spoon while you feed with another). Students could look at child care books listed in the bibliography for more suggestions.

Advise students that when they observe their baby's behavior during one of these situations, they should take notes at the time and do their journal write-up from them later rather than relying on memory. The Thomas, Chess, and Birch reading on individual differences on page 60 suggests characteristics to look for.

Sharing Ideas

At this point students can compare parents' methods and infants' responses. Have small groups report on:

- how parents keep a baby occupied while they're busy with other things like cooking or laundry;
- the variety of techniques different caregivers have for the same chores (do different ones work better with different babies?);
- the range of reactions among infants (are the differences because of differences in caregivers' behavior? infants' age? temperament? mood?).

Doing a Task

When students choose and do a task they have not done before, they can use a "Daily Baby Tasks" form like the one on page 79.

TIME FOR LEARNING--TIME FOR FUN

Whenever a student has done this card, you might arrange a "quickie tip" time during class when you ask a student to read or report from his or her journal on an idea for how time spent doing a baby care chore can be used to enhance the baby's learning or pleasure.

CARD V

Baby Things

If you were to list every type of baby product, the list would go on and on: receiving blankets, sleepers, diapers, booties, baby foods, dishes and utensils, laundry soaps, bath soaps, creams and powders, toys, high chairs, playpens, walkers, backpacks, changing tables....

Product Survey

Make a collection representing the largest variety of baby products you can get together. Include products that relate to all aspects of a baby's life: eating, sleeping, moving, playing, bathing, staying healthy, wearing clothes. For your collection you could:

- cut out ads from catalogs and magazines
- collect labels
- write one-sentence descriptions or make simple sketches
- list food flavors or items of clothing
- look around the baby department of a store and add items you hadn't thought of.

When several members of the group have begun their collections, compare ideas. You will probably find a whole new area of products you hadn't thought of before: Vitamins? Orthopedic shoes?

Present your collection to the group. There are any number of ways to do this: on a big poster or bulletin board, as a collage, in a big shadow box, or in a scrapbook or homemade "catalog." You might have a better idea for your particular collection.

Product Report

Choose one or two items to look at more closely and report on to the group. For each product, ask yourself the following questions:

1. What is the purpose of the product?
2. How does it benefit the baby or the parents?
3. How is it annoying to the baby or the parents?
4. How safe is it?
5. How necessary is it?
6. What does it cost?
7. Is there an adult equivalent to this baby product? Which product costs more?
8. Could you make your own substitute for this product?
9. Where can someone in your community get it?
10. Do your parent-partners use the product? What do they think of it?

What else can you ask?

Try checking some books by a pediatrician (like Dr. Spock) or other child care specialist (like Ira Gordon) or by a consumer's group (such as the *Consumers Union Buying Guide for Babies*) for their opinions about these products. If possible, examine the product in a store, compare items by different manufacturers, and draw your own conclusions. "Product Analysis" forms are available for this activity.

Something New

Your baby care experience may have suggested to you an idea for some product that has not yet been created. Perhaps you and others in your group can describe and even develop a new useful baby product. Try it.

Purpose: To increase awareness of advantages and disadvantages of products for babies.

PRODUCT SURVEY

If you do the survey as a warm-up activity, the whole group could brainstorm a list of baby products or compile the individual lists they make for the card. Their list could be posted and added to as time goes on.

While students are making their collections, you might collect magazines and catalogs for them to use in class. Students can pool the collections and work together on a large class display. Have scissors and tacks on hand for a bulletin board display; or scissors, glue, and paper for a collage. The display could also be done as a small-group project.

If students do their collections on their own, they might make small collages to put up in class. When several have done this, they can compare to see what they overlooked.

PRODUCT REPORT

Individual students can use a "Baby Product Analysis" form like the one on page 80 to carry out this activity. The analysis requires them to consider both advantages and drawbacks of each product they choose (e.g., highchairs bring baby up to adult level but are less safe than feeding tables when baby starts to climb; people who feed baby on their lap don't need highchair at all). Walkers are an example of something students should get a pediatrician's opinion on as well as checking written sources and asking parent-partners.

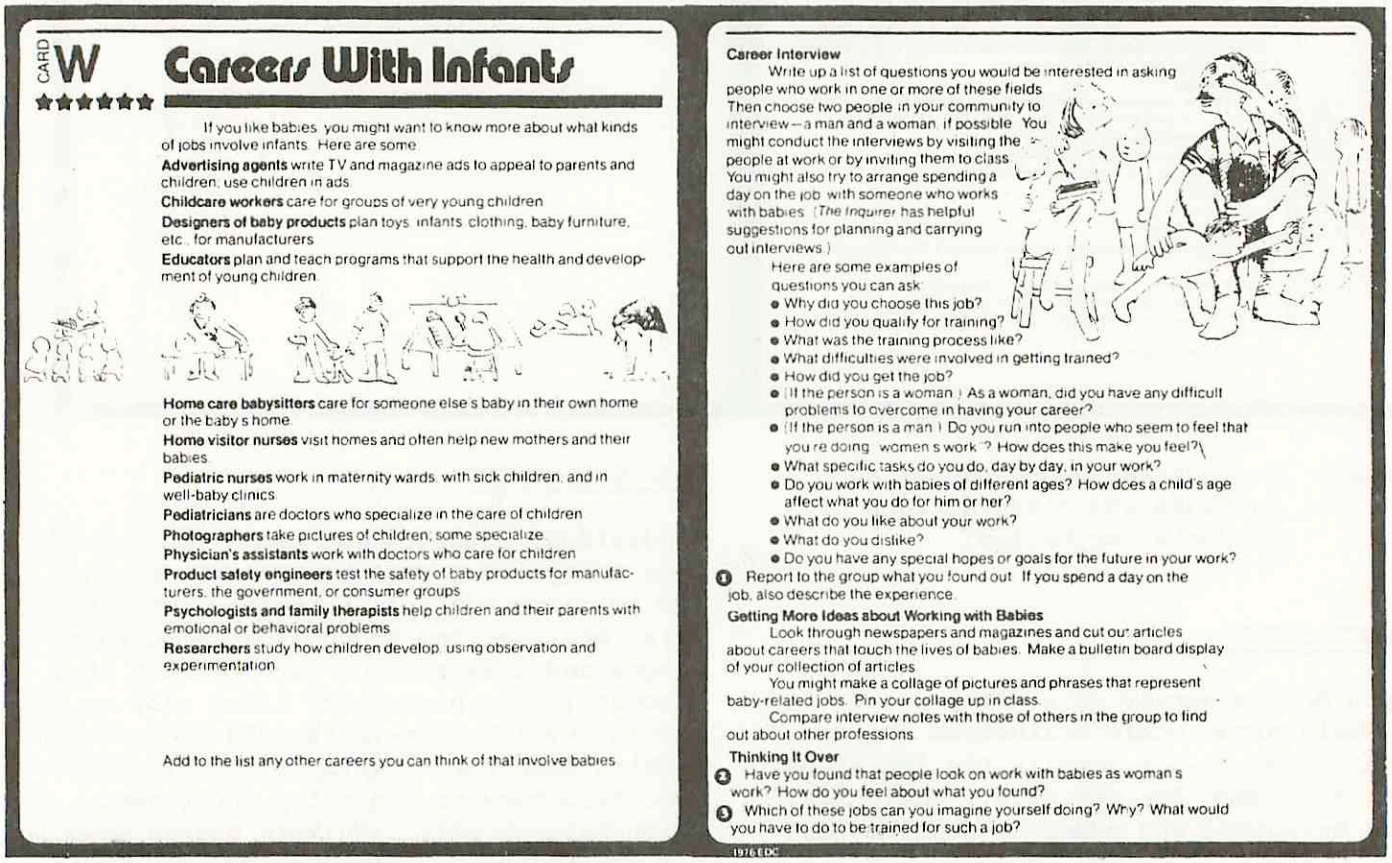
An instance of using an adult equivalent is regular linen instead of baby towels, blankets, or sheets; of a substitute is using a bureau drawer or box instead of a bassinet. Things like plastic bathtubs or "Swingomatics" are useful for a brief time and are bulky to store.

Students could file their finished reports for use by other students or parents who are interested in checking out a product. Students could borrow the file box to share with parent-partners or pass it

around at a parent meeting, where parents could exchange opinions based on their own experiences.

Something New

As a result of their collections and research or their actual experiences, students may have an idea for a new product, like a backpack with compartments for baby supplies, or a terry cloth apron with pockets for diaper pins and ointments. If so, they could try to invent one and show it to parent-partners and the group (a written description, a drawing or model, an actual product). In inventing their product, students should keep in mind the same factors they considered in analyzing existing products: benefits and disadvantages for baby and parent, safety, cost, and necessity.



CARD W ★★★★★★

Careers With Infants

If you like babies, you might want to know more about what kinds of jobs involve infants. Here are some:

Advertising agents write TV and magazine ads to appeal to parents and children; use children in ads.

Childcare workers care for groups of very young children.

Designers of baby products plan toys, infants' clothing, baby furniture, etc., for manufacturers.

Educators plan and teach programs that support the health and development of young children.

Home care babysitters care for someone else's baby in their own home or the baby's home.

Home visitor nurses visit homes and often help new mothers and their babies.

Pediatric nurses work in maternity wards, with sick children, and in well-baby clinics.

Pediatricians are doctors who specialize in the care of children.

Photographers take pictures of children; some specialize.

Physician's assistants work with doctors who care for children.

Product safety engineers test the safety of baby products for manufacturers, the government, or consumer groups.

Psychologists and family therapists help children and their parents with emotional or behavioral problems.

Researchers study how children develop, using observation and experimentation.

Add to the list any other careers you can think of that involve babies.

Career Interview

Write up a list of questions you would be interested in asking people who work in one or more of these fields. Then choose two people in your community to interview—a man and a woman, if possible. You might conduct the interviews by visiting the people at work or by inviting them to class. You might also try to arrange spending a day on the job with someone who works with babies. (*The Inquirer* has helpful suggestions for planning and carrying out interviews.)

Here are some examples of questions you can ask:

- Why did you choose this job?
- How did you qualify for training?
- What was the training process like?
- What difficulties were involved in getting trained?
- How did you get the job?
- (If the person is a woman.) As a woman, did you have any difficult problems to overcome in having your career?
- (If the person is a man.) Do you run into people who seem to feel that you're doing "women's work"? How does this make you feel?
- What specific tasks do you do, day by day, in your work?
- Do you work with babies of different ages? How does a child's age affect what you do for him or her?
- What do you like about your work?
- What do you dislike?
- Do you have any special hopes or goals for the future in your work?

1. Report to the group what you found out. If you spend a day on the job, also describe the experience.

Getting More Ideas about Working with Babies

Look through newspapers and magazines and cut out articles about careers that touch the lives of babies. Make a bulletin board display of your collection of articles.

You might make a collage of pictures and phrases that represent baby-related jobs. Pin your collage up in class.

Compare interview notes with those of others in the group to find out about other professions.

Thinking It Over

2. Have you found that people look on work with babies as woman's work? How do you feel about what you found?
3. Which of these jobs can you imagine yourself doing? Why? What would you have to do to be trained for such a job?

1976 EDC

Purpose: To increase student awareness of careers which involve babies.

A guidance counselor can give valuable assistance and advice on careers to investigate, professionals to invite to class, or how to set up a career day. They can also share information with students on postsecondary educational opportunities and places for training.

Warm-up

The group might brainstorm as many careers as they can think of that relate to babies. Then, when individuals work with the card, they could add to the list it gives, including a phrase to describe each career they add.

INTERVIEWS

Students who have already used several cards will be familiar with the usefulness of prepared interview forms. Since they will be making their own questions this time, they should create similar forms for themselves, writing their questions down and leaving space to enter answers. They

can then take notes during the interview. They might also tape record. *The Inquirer* (EC) and pages 10-12 of this guide have more advice on interviewing.

You could help students set up appointments; you might take a group on a field trip to visit someone on the job; or students' parents might volunteer to assist.

One or a series of professionals could be invited to class. The class could arrange a career day with a panel of child-related professionals and invite other students to attend.

CARD X

Someone Special

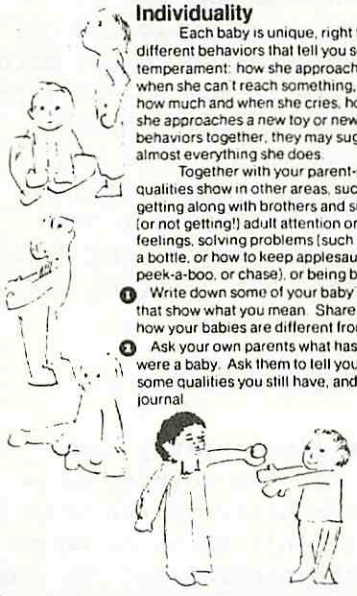
Think back over what your baby was like when you began visiting. You've probably seen a lot of changes since then. You're sure to have seen him gain more control over his movements and his language, for example. He probably sleeps less during the day and seems more observant and able to think about things. But even as changes happen and the baby keeps growing up, there are some things about him that seem to stay the same.

Individuality

Each baby is unique, right from the start. You have observed many different behaviors that tell you something about your baby's individual temperament: how she approaches sleep, how she eats, how she reacts when she can't reach something, how responsive she is to other people, how much and when she cries, how she learns to walk and to talk, how she approaches a new toy or new food. When you think about all of these behaviors together, they may suggest some qualities that show up in almost everything she does.

Together with your parent-partner, talk about whether these qualities show in other areas, such as taking a bath, being changed, getting along with brothers and sisters, being with other babies, getting (or not getting!) adult attention or something else he wants, expressing feelings, solving problems (such as how to get a clothespin in or out of a bottle, or how to keep applesauce on a spoon), playing games (such as peek-a-boo, or chase), or being bounced on a knee.

1. Write down some of your baby's qualities, with stories about your baby that show what you mean. Share these with others in the group. Discuss how your babies are different from each other.
2. Ask your own parents what has stayed the same about you since you were a baby. Ask them to tell you stories about your infancy that show some qualities you still have, and write one of these stories in your journal.



Getting Labeled

Being aware of a baby's personality can help adults understand what the baby needs and how to help her along. But it can be unwise to tag babies—or anyone—with names for the qualities parents or others see in them.

Think about these questions, and jot notes in your journal.

- How much flexibility of temperament do you believe people can have?
- How much can people change in their behavior?
- What helps them change or keeps them from changing?
- How do other people, including parents, affect those changes?
- What kinds of results can come from labeling a child's temperament?

Now write a brief response to this question to share with others in the group:

3. Is there any good in labeling a child's temperament?

Pair up with someone who disagrees with you and discuss the pros and cons of being aware of a baby's temperament.

"He's a sissy." "She's always been so quiet."
"She's a crybaby." "What a whiny kid."
"She's always had to be first."
"He's just overactive." "He's a very loving child."
"Nothing ever really upsets her."
"She shares everything." "Such a serious little man."
"She's going to be the athletic of the family."
"He always listens." "She's sulky."
"She's lazy. She was even lazy about being born!"
"He breaks everything." "She's a slowpoke."
"He's our tough guy."

Since this card draws on many experiences with a baby, it should not be used until late in the unit.

Purpose: To recognize how a baby's individual style shows in the way he or she develops and responds to his or her surroundings.

Procedure

To review individual differences they have seen among their infants as they used other cards in this unit, students can use a form like the one on pages 81-82. (The qualities that run across the top are described in detail in the reading from Thomas, Chess, and Birch on page 60.)

Once students have summarized the temperamental qualities they see in activities covered by the cards (e.g., eating, sleeping), they can look for patterns that show up in many activities.

WHY LOOK AT INDIVIDUAL TEMPERAMENTS

Awareness of a child's temperament can help a caregiver be more sensitive to his needs, more ready for his reactions, less likely to judge him through comparisons with other children. (For instance, knowing that a child likes to size up situations before plunging in may keep a parent from pushing him into participating immediately.) Tuning in to a baby's style can help adults accept their babies as they

are and remove the burden of feeling responsible for everything a child is or becomes.

WHAT TO BEWARE OF

Students should be careful not to assume that temporary qualities which are part of developmental stages are permanent temperamental qualities (e.g., fear of strangers when learning to sort the familiar from the unfamiliar; demanding or negative behavior when learning to assert self as individual).

Another danger is actually encouraging certain behavior by expecting it--the so-called self-fulfilling prophecy. (For example, a caregiver who expects a baby to be uncooperative about getting dressed may get tense and ready for trouble, thus encouraging the baby to respond in a troublesome way.) The difficult skill to be mastered here is the ability to be open enough to changes and new behavior so the baby is free to develop in his own directions while remaining aware enough of a child's strengths, weaknesses, and style of behaving to respond with appropriate support.

Getting Labeled

This section asks students to consider such advantages and disadvantages of thinking about individual temperament. Once they have recorded their ideas, students could divide into two groups to debate:

> It is good (or harmful) to describe a child's temperament.

Many students may see both sides, but they could choose one for the purpose of debate and full exploration of the issue.

Temperamental Qualities—A Reading

The following reading is based upon concrete examples of different temperamental qualities in infants and children and is reprinted by permission of New York University Press, from *Temperament and Behavior Disorders in Children*, by Alexander Thomas, et al, (c) 1968, New York University.

1. Activity level describes how much, how fast, and how often a child moves around. Samples of high-activity behavior are:

> "He moves a great deal in his sleep"; "I can't leave him on the bed or couch because he always wriggles off"; "He kicks and splashes so in the bath that I always have to mop up the floor afterward"; "Dressing him becomes a battle, he squirms so"; "He runs around so, that whenever we come in from the park I'm exhausted"; "He crawls all over the house"; and "Whenever I try to feed him he grabs for the spoon."

Samples of low-activity behavior are:

> "In the bath he lies quietly and doesn't kick"; "In the morning he's still in the same place he was when he fell asleep. I don't think he moves at all during the night"; and "He can turn over, but he doesn't much."

2. Rhythmicity concerns how regular the child is in biological functions. The sleep-wake cycle is regular if the child falls asleep and wakes up at about the same time each night and morning. It is irregular if there is a real difference from day to day. A child whose naps are the same length every day is considered to have a regular rhythm. If no pattern can be seen, it is irregular.

Eating and appetite are regular if the child demands or accepts food at about the same time every day and eats about the same amount at those times. If the times or amount vary widely, eating behavior is irregular.

If the number and timing of bowel movements are about the same every day, that is regular. The rhythm is irregular if the number and time are unpredictable.

If the child has established a pattern but does not always keep to it, behavior is considered *variable*, while *irregular* means that the child has established no pattern at all.

3. Approach or withdrawal describes the child's first reaction to anything new--food, people, places, toys, or procedures. Sample approach responses are:

> "He always smiles at a stranger"; "He loves new toys and he plays with one so much he often breaks it the first thing."

Sample withdrawal responses are:

> "When I gave him his orange juice the first time he made a face. He didn't cry but he didn't suck it as eagerly as he does milk"; "Whenever he sees a stranger he cries"; "When we went to the doctor's for the first time he started to cry in the waiting room and didn't stop until we got home again"; and "It takes him a long time to warm up to a new toy. He pushes it away and plays with something more familiar."

4. Adaptability concerns how easy or difficult it is for parents or others to change the way the child first responds to new or changed situations in a direction they want. Samples of adaptive behavior are:

> "He used to spit out cereal whenever I gave it to him, but now he takes it fairly well, although still not as well as fruit"; "Now when we go to the doctor's he doesn't start to cry till we undress him, and he even stops then if he can hold a toy"; "At first he used to hold himself perfectly stiff in the bath, but now he kicks a little and pats the water with his hand"; and "Every day for a week he'd go over to this stuffed lion someone gave him and say, 'I don't like it,' but today he started playing with it and now you'd think it was his best friend."

Samples of nonadaptive behavior are:

> "During the summer she used to nap in her carriage outside, and now that it's cold I've tried to put her in the crib, but she screams so I have to take her out and wheel her up and down the hall before she falls asleep"; "Every time he sees the scissors he starts to scream and pull his hand away, so now I cut his nails when he's sleeping"; "Whenever I put his snowsuit and hat on he screams and struggles, and he doesn't stop crying till we're outside"; and "He doesn't like eggs and makes a face and turns his head away no matter how I cook them."

5. Intensity of reaction deals with the energy with which the child responds to situations--hunger, restraint, play, dressing, and so on. The response itself may be positive or negative, but what is considered here is how intense or mild it is. Sample intense reactions are:

> "He cries loud and long whenever the sun shines in his eyes"; "Whenever she hears music she begins to laugh loudly and to jump up and down in time to it"; "When he is hungry he starts to cry, and this builds up to a scream, and we can't distract him by holding or playing with him"; "When she is full she spits the food out of her mouth and knocks the spoon away"; "The first time we gave him cereal he spit it out and started to cry"; "If we tell him 'no' he starts to cry"; "Dressing is such a problem, he wriggles around so, and when I hold him so that he can't move, he screams"; and "She loves her bath so, that as soon as she hears the water running she tries to climb into the tub even if she's still fully dressed."

Sample mild responses are:

> "He squints at a bright light but doesn't cry"; "To a loud noise he jumps and startles a little, but he doesn't cry"; "If he's hungry, he starts to whimper a bit, but if you play with him he won't really cry"; "When she's had enough she turns her head away, and I know that it is time

to stop"; "If he does not like a new food he just holds it in his mouth without swallowing and then lets it drool out"; "When we tell her 'no' she looks and smiles and then goes right on doing what she wants"; "Now it's a pleasure to dress him, he stands up when you tell him to, and holds still when he has to"; and "When other children take a toy away from him, he plays with something else; he doesn't try to get it back or cry."

6. Threshold of responsiveness refers to how much stimulation from the outside it takes for a child to respond--whether positively or negatively, intensely or mildly --to things, social contacts, or sensations. Samples of this are:

"I can never tell if he's wet except by feeling him, but if he has a bowel movement he fusses and is cranky until I change him." This shows a high threshold for wetness, but a low threshold for the sensations of a bowel movement. "He loves fruit, but if I put even a little cereal in with it he won't eat it at all." This is a low threshold because the child can tell small differences in taste or texture. "He doesn't pay any attention to new people; he doesn't cry, but he doesn't respond to them, either." This is a high threshold in social relations, while "He laughs and smiles at a stranger, and starts to cry if they don't play with him," is a low threshold. "He makes himself at home anywhere, and runs around a strange house as if it were his," is high threshold, while "He notices any little change. When we got new curtains for his room he spent a whole day crawling over to the window and pulling on them," is low threshold.

7. Quality of mood describes how much pleasant, happy, friendly behavior (positive) the child shows compared to unpleasant, crying, unfriendly behavior (negative). Samples of negative mood are:

"Whenever we put him to bed he cries for about five or ten minutes before falling asleep"; "He cries at almost every stranger, and those that he doesn't cry at he hits"; "I've tried to teach him not to knock down little girls and sit on them in the playground, so now he knocks them down and doesn't sit on them"; and "Every time he sees food he doesn't like he starts to fuss and whine until I take it off the table."

Samples of positive mood are:

"Whenever he sees me begin to warm his bottle he begins to smile and coo"; "He loves to look out of the window. He jumps up and down and laughs"; "He always smiles at a stranger"; and "If he's not laughing and smiling I know he's getting sick."

8. Distractibility refers to how effectively things in the child's surroundings can change the course of what the child is doing. A child who stops crawling toward a light plug if you give him a toy is distractible. One who keeps on going anyway is nondistractible. If a child is hungry and crying but stops when you pick him up, he is distractible. If his hunger cry continues until he is fed, no matter what you do, he is nondistractible.

9. Attention span and persistence are related. Attention span concerns how long a child spends doing something. It can be measured for things the child does on his own and for participation in activities outside himself, like listening to a story or to music. A two-year-old who spends half an hour pouring water in and out of things has a long attention span. If he keeps it up for only five minutes, his attention span is short.

Persistence means whether the child keeps doing something in spite of obstacles. Obstacles may come from the outside (someone saying "no") or from limitations of the child's abilities. A child who keeps on pouring water even if you say "no" is persistent. So is the child who keeps trying to stand up even though he keeps falling down, or who struggles with a toy he can't get to work without asking for help.

Supplementary Forms

Name_____

RECOGNITION AND RESPONSE
Note Taking Form
Card B: When Do Babies Know You?

	Number of times baby smiles and makes noises for			Differences in reactions of baby to parents, me, stranger
	parents	me	stranger	
Observation 1 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____				
Observation 2 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____				
Observation 3 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____				
Observation 4 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____				

Conclusions:

How have baby's responses changed with growing older?

Name_____

"RIGHTY-LEFTY"
Note Taking Form
Card C: Reaching: It's Not Only the Hand That Counts

	Number of swipes at dangled object with right hand	Number of swipes at dangled object with left hand	Notes
Observation 1 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____			
Observation 2 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____			
Observation 3 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____			

At the end, write your conclusions:

Does the baby reach just as often with both hands?_____

Or does the baby use one hand more than the other? Which hand?_____

How much more?_____

Name_____

REACHING DEVELOPMENT AND INDIVIDUALITY
Note Taking Form
Card C: Reaching: It's Not Only the Hand That Counts

	Reaching and grasping abilities	Individual characteristics in learning to reach
Observation 1 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____		
Observation 2 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____		
Observation 3 Date_____ Baby's age in months_____ weeks_____		

Conclusions:

Name_____

Date_____

LEARNING A NEW MOVEMENT
Note Taking Form
Card D: Look, I'm Walking

Baby's accomplishments in learning to...	Baby's age at each accomplishment: months and weeks	How the accomplishment relates to the three rules of development

Name_____

Date_____

MOTOR DEVELOPMENT
Note Taking Form
Card D: Look, I'm Walking

USE TWO FORMS. FILL IN ONE FOR YOUR BABY, ONE FOR YOURSELF.

	At each accomplishment: Age and Weight		How did parents encourage or discourage this?	How did the physical surroundings help or hinder this?
Roll over				
Sit up				
Crawl				
Climb				
Pull up				
Walk				
Run				
Jump				
Reach				
Throw				
Catch				

Compare this chart to charts made by others. Why do you think your baby (you) achieved some steps sooner or later than other infants?

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

GETTING INTO EVERYTHING
Note Taking Form
Card E: Getting into Everything

Parent's techniques for handling infant mobility	Parent's reasons for each technique	Infant's reactions to each technique

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

LISTENING AND UNDERSTANDING
Note Taking Form
Card F: Learning to Talk

Words and phrases my baby understands	Things baby does that let me know she or he understands each word or phrase

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

BABY BABBLING
Note Taking Form
Card F: Learning to Talk

Sounds baby makes	Sounds I make in response	How baby responds to me

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

TALKING
Note Taking Form
Card G: My Word! More Language

What the baby said and meant (e.g., "da" for dog)	Situation or words that prompted the baby to say it	What I said or did in response	Other things I might say or do next time

What the baby has already learned about language:_____

Skills the baby is practicing now (e.g., imitating sounds, using sounds with actions, saying just the beginning of words, naming people and objects, answering questions, using two words together):_____

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

FOOD SURVEY
Note Taking Form
Card I: 48-Hour Survey

	Day Before Yesterday	Yesterday	Today
Midnight			
a.m.			
1-			
2-			
3-			
4-			
5-			
6-			
7-			
8-			
9-			
10-			
11-			
Noon			
p.m.			
1-			
2-			
3-			
4-			
5-			
6-			
7-			
8-			
9-			
10-			
11-			

In the "Today" column, write down what baby ate or drank at the most recent feeding, meal, or snack. Then work backwards filling in every food and drink, including the amount eaten, until you have backed up 48 hours.

Now add up each kind of food eaten. How much did the baby get in each group over the two-day period?

Dairy Food	Meat-Bean-Nut	Fruit-Veg.	Bread-Cereal
_____ oz.	_____ oz.	_____ oz.	_____ oz.

In what food group did the baby have more or less than requirements on the *Basic Nutritional Needs Chart*?

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

MEAL PLANNING
Note Taking Form
Card K: Feeding Your Baby

THE BABY'S CURRENT DIET

Formula? How to prepare it:_____

_____

Reasons for choosing bottle-feeding:_____

_____

Breast-fed? Reasons for choosing to breast-feed:_____

_____

Advantages and disadvantages:_____

_____

How long mother plans to do it and why:_____

_____

Solid food? When begun:_____

_____

Baby's first reactions:_____

_____

Foods tried:_____

_____

Likes and dislikes:_____

_____

Commercial or home prepared and why:_____

_____

Foods the parent thinks baby needs and why:_____

_____

Self-feeding? Baby's attitude about it:_____

_____

Parent's attitude about it:_____

_____

Allergies? _____

_____

Special rules or eating customs? _____

_____

_____

(If you do not have space to finish an answer, use the back of this form.)

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

MEAL OBSERVATION
Note Taking Form
Card L: More Than Food Alone

Where does baby eat (what room, table, highchair, lap)? _____

Who is present? What are they doing? _____

Is the baby washed before or after the meal? _____

How does baby react to washing? _____

How does baby let adult know *when* she wants to eat and when she's had enough? _____

How long does baby eat? _____

What does baby eat? _____

How does baby let feeder know *what* she wants to eat? _____

How does baby let adult know *how* she wants to eat? _____

How does baby interact with feeder while eating? with others in room? _____

What does baby do with the food? (with the spoon or fork? with the dish? with the cup or glass? with the bottle?) _____

Describe the baby's stillness or movements while eating. _____

Describe the baby's facial expression and tone of voice. _____

Use these notes to write a paragraph description of the feeding in your journal.

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

PARENT INTERVIEW
Note Taking Form
Card L: More Than Food Alone

Is your baby predictable about when, what, and how much he eats?

Who decides when, what, and how much the baby eats--you or the baby?

If you, how you decide:

and what the baby does:

Things you are trying to encourage or discourage in the baby's eating behavior:

How do you do this?

and why?

How does the baby react?

Other important things about mealtime besides nutriton:

Rules or routines for the baby's meals:

Reasons for them:

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

ADVICE COLLECTION
Note Taking Form
Card R: How Come Parents Ask So Many Questions?

CHILD CARE ISSUE:

How I would handle this issue:

What my baby is like and what he can do that make me say this:

Books I will check:

Magazines I will check:

Newspapers I will read:

Television shows I could watch:

Friends and relatives I will talk to:

Professionals I will interview:

Questions I could ask:

Name_____

Date_____

FATHER'S INTERVIEW
Note Taking Form
Card S: Being a Father, Being a Mother

Fathers Then

What part do you remember that you played in bringing up your newborn or young infant?

What did you find satisfying about what you did?

What would you change about your part in your baby's life if you had it to do again?

Fathers Now

How much time do you spend at home with your baby on a typical day?

What do you do to *take care of* the baby? (E.g., How often do you change diapers? _____ feed the baby? _____ clean up after the baby? _____)
Other things?

What else do you do with the baby?

What do you find satisfying about being a parent?

What do you find difficult?

How is what you do different from or the same as what the mother does?

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

TOY PLANNING AND OBSERVING
Note Taking Form
Card T: Make a Toy

I. PLANNING

Things baby can do:

Things baby is practicing:

Things baby likes and why:

II. OBSERVING

How I presented the toy (and where, and who else was there):

What was happening before:

What baby did: (How many times?)

What happened when I joined in playing:

What I did:

Why I did it:

How the baby responded:

Things I would change next time

about the toy:

about the way I gave the toy:

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

DAILY BABY TASKS
Note Taking Form
Card U: Daily Tasks

Task I chose to observe and do:_____

I. OBSERVATION

Where the task is carried out:

How parent prepares for task, and how long preparation takes:

Parent's steps in completing the task:

What parent says to the baby:

How the baby behaves:

Parent's explanations about the task:

II. DOING IT MYSELF

Preparation:

What I did in doing the task:

What the baby did:

Suggestions from parent-partner:

How I feel about the task and the way I did it:

Name_____

Date_____

Baby's Age_____

In describing temperamental qualities in your baby, be sure to look for those qualities that seem to continue to show up over time.

Qualities shown in:	How active is he? (activity level)	How regular is his schedule? (rhythmicity)	How does he first react to new people or experiences? (approach or withdrawal)	How long does it take him to change his behavior to fit new situations? (adaptability)
sleeping (Card H)				
learning to move (Card D)				
playing games (Card M)				
relating to people (Card B)				
reaching (Card C)				
crying (Card O)				
eating (Cards I-L)				
using toys (Card T)				
bathing, diapering, etc. (Card U)				
relating to siblings and other babies				
getting or not getting attention or an object (Card C)				

1. What qualities show up in many areas?

2. What can you say about your baby's general temperament?

SOMEONE SPECIAL
Note Taking Form
Card X: Someone Special

How intensely does she react to things? (intensity of reaction)	How much does it take to get her to react? (threshold of responsiveness)	How much pleasant, friendly versus unpleasant, un-friendly behavior does she show? (quality of mood)	How easily is he distracted? (distractibility)	How long does he pay attention or keep trying to do something? (attention span and persistence)

3. Examples of how knowing this temperament has helped in caring for the baby:

Name_____

Date_____

BABY PRODUCT ANALYSIS
Note Taking Form
Card V: Baby Things

Name of product:_____

Cost:_____

Purpose of product:

What age baby is it intended for?

How does it benefit baby or parent?

How is it annoying to baby or parent?

How safe is it?

How necessary is it?

Where can someone get it?

Are there adult equivalents for this baby product? Which costs more?

How could you make your own substitute for this product?

Does your parent-partner use it? _____ What does he/she think of it?

When I checked the following book, _____, I found this information on the product:

I compared (for cost, convenience, durability, safety) several different makes of this product at the following store(s):_____.
The results of my comparison were:

Film Section

Bill and Suzi, New Parents

This 13-minute film shows a young couple with their five-week-old baby girl talking with their pediatrician about how they feel as new parents. See *Looking at Development* teacher's guide (EC) for a transcript and further notes on this film.

You can use "Bill and Suzi" in conjunction with:

- Card L, "More Than Food Alone"--to observe a baby being breast-fed and consider what baby and mother learn from each other.
- Card O, "Crying," and Card P, "Dealing with Crying"--to consider parents' feelings about their baby's crying, the reasons they say she cries, and what they do when she cries.
- Card Q, "Stress and Support for Parents"--to suggest some things that concern new parents and how they gain confidence. Students might list sources of stress and support they hear expressed in the film.
- Card S, "Being a Father, Being a Mother"--to discuss Bill's role in caring for the baby, and their feelings about how other people perceive his role.
- Card U, "Daily Tasks"--to observe a baby being diapered, noting equipment, procedure, and communication between baby and adult.

The following notes summarize some issues raised in the film and suggest discussion questions.

THE BIRTH PROCESS

The father describes the process of natural childbirth and the hospital practice of rooming in, saying there was "no break in my closeness to both of them." Both mother and father express their sense of wonder at seeing their new baby. If students have more questions about ways parents prepare for childbirth, the stages of labor, or hospital procedures for allowing both parents to be with their new babies, you might invite an obstetrician, a Lamaze teacher (or someone teaching another method of prepared childbirth), and a delivery room nurse to discuss the birth process, how parents learn about this process, and hospital procedures.

Students might want to debate the advantages and disadvantages of not taking drugs during labor or of having the father (or a friend) present. For example, the various concentrating and breathing techniques of natural childbirth can ease the difficulty of labor, avoid the effects of drugs on the baby, and give parents a sense of participation and achievement. On the other hand, the process is demanding. And having prepared for natural childbirth may make a mother who eventually requires drugs or surgery feel like a failure. A father may want to participate, as did Bill, or he may prefer not to but be pressured by the mother. Or the mother might find his presence intrusive.

CONCERNS ABOUT CRYING (Cards O and P)

The class could be divided into four groups, each assigned a specific question for note taking during a second viewing.

1. How do these parents *feel* about the baby's crying? (E.g., blame themselves and their inexperience, feel need to do *something*.)
2. What do these parents *learn* about the baby's crying? (E.g., "She could cry for many reasons and I couldn't do something about all of them.")
3. What *reasons* do these parents give for her crying? (E.g., wants to be held, she's just talking, she's miserable.)
4. What do these parents *do* when the baby

cries? (E.g., nurse, take her to window, talk to her.)

Students could add their own ideas about how crying makes parents feel, why babies cry, and what parents can or should do. They can compare these ideas with others on the "Crying" and "Dealing with Crying" cards.

MOTHER-FATHER ROLES AND PARENTS' VALUES
(Card S)

If both boys and girls view the film, you might have boys observe from Bill's point of view, while girls take Suzi's point of view. Or they might learn more by taking the opposite point of view. You can also simply divide the group in half to observe each parent, or have the whole class observe once from the father's point of view and a second time from the mother's. In each case, students can note the parents' feelings and beliefs about being a father or mother, what the doctor says about this, and what each parent does with the baby.

Bill says he feels: close to baby and mother, involved in birth and care, sense of relationship and communication with baby: "It's nice that I talk to her," concerned about rashes and having baby clean and comfortable, resents people's assumption that baby is Suzi's.

What Bill does: holds her, plays with her, takes her out for walks or car rides, changes diapers.

Bill believes in sharing responsibility, sharing housework, doesn't want Suzi to "just raise Becky or take care of the home."

Doctor thinks it's "tough for a father to get going with a baby." He says a father "feels shoved out when a baby comes along," feels jealous of attention wife gets, of mother's experience with pregnancy and nursing.

Suzi says she feels: joy at holding baby, "inexperienced," finds crying "upsetting," wanted to "give up," felt like "total failure."

What Suzi does: nurses baby, gets her to smile, holds her.

Suzi believes in sharing responsibility and closeness with baby, doesn't want Bill to be "an absent father," baby is "ours."

Doctor says, "A mother has all this marvelous equipment. She can nurse her baby. She is instinctively more tied to a baby, perhaps, than a father because she has to be." He says that during pregnancy a mother gets all of the attention and feels "smug about how all of this is happening inside of her."

After students describe their observations, they can discuss:

How do you think you would feel if you were Bill or Suzi?

Do you agree that parents should share responsibility for caring for a baby?

Do you agree with this doctor that "a father feels shoved out"? (Does he have to feel this way?)

Do you agree that "a mother is more instinctively tied to a baby because she has to be"? (Does she have to be?)

How do the roles these parents describe compare with the roles of your parent-partners and your own parents in baby care?

If you show this film at a parents' meeting, you might conduct a similar observation and discussion.

Gabriel is Two Days Old

In this 15-minute film, Gabriel's young mother nurses him, undresses him, comforts him, discusses his needs and abilities, some of her own fears and feelings, and watches the pediatrician, Dr. B. Brazelton, examine him.

The *Looking at Development* booklet and teacher's guide (EC) have a transcript and further notes for this film.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND PARENT-INFANT ADJUSTMENTS

At the beginning and end of the film, Dr. Brazelton comments upon the uniqueness of each baby and how parents adjust to that, and how parents in turn help their baby adjust to the world and to being "their kind of person." These two important themes in *Babies Are Beginnings* can be further explored in Dr. Brazelton's book, *Infants and Mothers: Differences in Development* (see bibliography). The matter of the "kind of person" parents want ties in with the discussion of values on Card P, "Dealing with Crying."

INFANTS' NEEDS AND ABILITIES

Dr. Brazelton asks at the end of the film, "Does a baby need parents?" Students could discuss and list what babies can do themselves, and what they need parents for. Students can view the film for these two aspects, which will overlap. (For example, babies are born with the ability to eat but need adults to give them food.) We can see that two of Gabriel's needs are nourishment and help in calming down. Some of his abilities are that he:

sucks to get nourishment,

responds to his mother's voice,

startles to harsh nonhuman sounds,

has a reflex toward crawling.

Dr. Brazelton asks what the baby has all this equipment for, and students could think of reasons for each ability.

BREAST-FEEDING (Card L)

Students could observe the film to note the mother's feelings about breast-feeding (e.g., she expresses feelings of closeness, and it gives her a sense of purpose and confidence) and the effects they see on the baby. We see the nursing quiet the baby and how he puts his whole self into sucking.

Students could discuss what they think about the pros and cons of breast-feeding and bottle feeding. Materials from La Leche League, an organization that advocates breast-feeding, could be a useful resource, or a nurse might visit to discuss formula and breast-feeding.

MOTHER'S CONCERNS (Cards Q and R)

Students could observe the film to note concerns this mother expresses about her baby (e.g., she hopes she has enough milk, that baby is healthy; asks about cleaning the belly button). The doctor mentions parents' concern about birth defects.

Students could discuss other concerns that they have heard from pregnant women or parents of newborns. Have their own parents or their parent-partners talked about fears they may have had as expectant parents? This might be a good opportunity for students to raise fears of their own without having to take responsibility for asking a "stupid question" (e.g., "I've heard mothers worry that birthmarks come from exercising too strenuously during the ninth month...or having intercourse during the last months").

COMMUNICATION BETWEEN MOTHER AND BABY

Students could watch for communication between mother and infant (e.g., Gabriel opens his eyes when she speaks, puts his hand on her as he feeds; she talks to him, holds him, calms him with her hand on his chest). Students could add other ways they think babies and parents communicate.

At the Doctor's

In this ten-minute film, a mother visits her pediatrician, Dr. B. Brazelton, with her new infant, her daughter Jill (age six), and her son Mark (age ten). A transcript and further notes on the film can be found in the *Beyond the Front Door*

booklet and teacher's guide (EC). It can be used on its own (particularly to look at sibling relationships) or in connection with the following cards:

- Card F, "Learning to Talk"--to observe Mark talking to his baby sister.
- Card L, "More Than Food Alone"--to observe a bottle feeding given by an older sister.
- Card O, "Crying"--to consider the effect of infant crying on siblings as well as parents.
- Card S, "Being a Father, Being a Mother"--to hear a mother's view of a father's role and a doctor's view of brother's role and care-giving abilities.

OTHERS' EXPECTATIONS FOR BABIES

References are made throughout the unit to the interaction between what an infant *is* like and what others would *like* him to be like. Students could observe this film listing expectations each family member has of this new baby. What do they say the baby is like? What do they want the baby to be like? For example:

> When doctor asks if baby is going to be like Mark, and if Mark is like his daddy, mother answers, "Yes," and that his daddy is "even-tempered and easy-going."
>
> Mark says, "When she gets bigger she'll probably be good in kick ball," and says he wanted a boy, "one for me."

When they have enumerated all of the expectations, students can discuss the possible effects on the baby (and on Jill and Mark).

CARETAKING BY SIBLINGS

Many students may work with babies who have older siblings, and in many cases they may share caretaking responsibilities. Students might watch the film for the responsibilities assumed by siblings. The mother says they get the diapers, help change diapers, watch the baby when the mother leaves the room. In the film, Jill feeds the baby and Mark undresses her.

RELATING TO BABIES (Card F)

"Learning to Talk" asks students to talk to their babies and describe how they respond. In this film, Dr. Brazelton watches Mark talk to his baby sister and describes how he gets her to respond: Mark lets the baby be active and make noises without intruding; he waits for the baby to pause, then talks back to her. Students can discuss what the baby might learn from having her brother and sister care for her and talk to her.

ADJUSTMENTS SIBLINGS MAKE TO A BABY

Card H, "Sleep Like a Baby" asks students to compare their own sleep patterns to a baby's and consider how they would adapt to a baby's pattern. In this film, Mark and Jill are asked about having their sleep interrupted by the baby's crying. This is one example of how a baby changes the lives of others in a family besides parents. Students could create and discuss a list of other ways a baby affects siblings in a family.

FATHER'S ROLE (Card S)

Students could compare this mother's perspective on her husband's role in caring for their children with their "Mothers Then...and Now" conversations for Card S, "Being a Father, Being a Mother." This mother says that with their first baby, her husband "could do anything I could do," then was less interested in the second baby and more interested again with this baby. She says that the father's lack of interest with the second baby may have been because he was "working quite a bit." The doctor suggests that the second baby was more difficult. Students might compare these suggestions with responses to the question on Card S about what determines a father's role.

EARLY INFANT LEARNING (Card L)

Dr. Brazelton's description of what the baby learns as she takes her bottle from her sister might serve as a sample observation for students doing Card L, "More Than Food Alone." The doctor observes that the baby can adjust to her sister's changes of the bottle's position, that she experiments with different ways to suck, and that she is learning how to respond to her sister (who is less predictable than her mother). The observation also shows how *able* an infant is to learn and to respond to her surroundings.

"At Home" Films

The "At Home" family films made for the Family and Society module center around each family's interactions with its four-year-old. However, infants appear in "Jeffrey," "Rachel," "Oscar," and "Seiko," as well as the opening of "Around the Way with Kareema." The films are especially useful for observing parents' values and expectations and infant learning as revealed in interactions surrounding mealtimes (Card L, "More Than Food Alone"). The notes below describe three central themes running through each film. Focusing on one of the themes, students might observe a series of the films and discuss variations among them.

HOW PARENTS HANDLE MEALTIMES (Card L)

"Rachel at Home": Father feeds Jennifer before the rest eat, uses meal as time for communication (talks and sings to her, repeats her "aaaah"), mother uses high-pitched nonsense speech to get response from Jennifer (see Card F, "Learning to Talk"), father teaches language ("No more," "See?" "Very good"), parents encourage coordination and independence (Jennifer has to lean toward spoon herself, feeds herself bananas, father lets her climb in highchair, mother waits for her to pull herself upright before lifting baby to her lap, Jennifer crawls around while others are eating).

When Rachel and her parents are at the table, you might stop the film and ask students:

> Where's the baby? (Jennifer crawls in from kitchen while they are eating.)
>
> Would you do this? Why or why not?

You can refer to the Kagan band on the "Commentaries" record for further discussion of some values that might be observed in this film.

"Jeffrey at Home": A good film in which to look at nonverbal as well as verbal communication (e.g., Jeffrey watches mother feed baby without talking, then takes the baby's hand). Conversations between mother and children are quiet, sparse. Students might look at ways this baby's breakfast time experience is similar to or unlike that of the infants in Rachel's or Seiko's family.

"Seiko at Home": Seiko has two younger sisters, Sumiko and Noriko. The youngest eats with family when she wakes up and holds her own bread while mother feeds her spoonfuls; the two-year-old sits in father's lap (a privilege for both?) but does not eat, saying, "No," to offers of juice and bacon. The parents' attitudes toward food and table manners are most explicit with Seiko, but the babies see and hear them, too. Parents urge Seiko to eat by inviting her ("Want some orange juice?"), demanding ("You better eat your bacon"), tempting ("Want some ketchup for your eggs?"), and shaming her ("Your stomach will growl in school if you don't eat"). Mother says to baby, "You're not much of a morning eater." Parents also concerned with manners ("Use your napkin"; "Close your mouth").

"Oscar at Home": The youngest child (Ricardo) eats with the family; his older sister puts him in his chair, father asks, "Did you have enough to eat, my son? Want more potatoes?" thus giving baby special attention and status. Ricardo stands holding his own cup; father cuts food for him. The participation of all the children in preparing the meal (even the youngest helps set the table) and the joining of

hands for grace emphasizes togetherness, cooperation, and shared reverence.

"Kareema": Kareema has an 18-month-old younger brother and a one-year-old nephew. In this extended family, parents encourage the older children to feed the younger ones because "they have to be responsible to each other." The older children learn caretaking skills and get sense of responsibility, and the babies learn that siblings as well as parents will meet their needs (and boss them). The babies also learn to adapt to the demands and behavior of their siblings as well as their parents; babies have a range of role models.

PARENTS' ROLES (Card S)

For each film, students could answer questions focusing on:

> Who is responsible for what in relation to the baby? in relation to the rest of the house and family?
>
> Who cooks? feeds the baby?
>
> Who goes off to work?
>
> Who gets baby up and dressed?
>
> Who teaches values? provides discipline? makes jokes? makes conversation? plays with the baby?

Rachel: Father feeds baby while mother and daughter prepare breakfast, father intercedes in sibling mishap, father plays with baby and Rachel, mother lifts baby and cuddles her, both parents leave for work.

Jeffrey: This single mother has help from Jeffrey, who takes more responsibility for himself and keeping baby company; she prepares meal, gets children up and dressed, talks with Jeffrey, tidies up, goes to work.

Seiko: Mother prepares and serves meals, gets babies up; both parents urge children to eat, show interest in children's activities, talk with children, father stresses manners and cleanliness, father cuddles toddler, mother feeds youngest.

Oscar: Mother supervises meal preparation and table setting, leads grace, draws father into children's music circle; father is quietly present, checks to be sure baby had enough to eat, helps see that baby has pair of pants.

Kareema: Both parents work and go to school; both express values they try to teach their children; both discipline ("You can't eat your dinner with gum"; "It's time for you to go to bed"); mother puts Kareema to bed, mother or daughters cook.

BABY'S RELATIONSHIP TO SIBLINGS

Rachel: Rachel doesn't want Jennifer to use her horse toy, pats Jennifer's head, tries to move her around; Jennifer is comforted by father when Rachel interferes with her exploring and drops her against couch; father gives both attention during roughhouse; Jennifer will have to learn to deal with Rachel as a playmate, language teacher, and role model for relating to parents.

Jeffrey: Jeffrey plays with Brad, letting him crawl over him, puts him on couch to look out window, carries diaper bag when they leave house; Jeffrey is a companion for baby and "big brother" as well as help to parent with baby.

Seiko: Differences in parents' expectations and handling of their children of different ages are illustrated. Seiko feeds herself while mother feeds Noriko in a highchair. Meanwhile Sumiko sits in father's lap and is allowed to put off eating. While Seiko is expected to be independent and has many corrective remarks addressed to her, this process is just beginning for the youngest (she slept alone, must not bite). Seiko tattles on Sumiko and speaks to baby in high-pitched baby talk.

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A supplement to cross-cultural material on Card P, "Dealing with Crying."

Stone, Joseph, Henrietta Smith, and Lois Murphy, editors. *The Competent Infant*. New York: Basic Books, 1973.

Summaries of research on individuality, newborn capabilities, prenatal and early development, effects of early experience, and the social infant. Large, expensive, technical, full of information.

Thomas, Alexander, Stella Chess, and Herbert G. Birch. *Temperament and Behavior Disorders in Children*. New York: New York University Press, 1968.

A thorough and thoughtful study of individual differences in children starting with earliest ages.

Tronick, Edward, and Patricia Marks Greenfield. *Infant Curriculum, The Bromley-Heath Guide to the Care of Infants in Groups*. New York: Media Projects, 1973.

Developed in concert with a community infant center, the curriculum follows the sequence of infant development and for each step presents two sets of activities, one for infant and teacher together and one for infant alone.

Upchurch, Beverly. *Easy-to-Do Toys and Activities for Infants and Toddlers*. Greensboro: University of North Carolina Infant Care Project, 1971.

An inexpensive pamphlet of ideas, materials, and directions.

Whiting, Beatrice and John. *Children of Six Cultures: A Psycho-Cultural Analysis*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1974.

On connections between cultural values and how parents respond to infants, useful with Card P, "Dealing with Crying."

FILMS

Children's Home Society of California, 3100 West Adams Boulevard, Los Angeles, California 90018.

"Growing Up Together: Four Teen Mothers and Their Babies." Four young mothers (16 to 19) are shown at home with their babies and talk about what their lives are like.

55 minutes; on one reel or on two reels of two segments each; with discussion guide. Purchase: $150.

National Film Board of Canada (distributed by McGraw-Hill Films, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10020).

"Four Families." With running commentary by Margaret Mead, caregiving practices in families from France, India, Japan, and Canada.

Two parts, 30 minutes each; black and white. Rental: $14 each, or $25 both.

Parents' Magazine Films, 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, New York 10017.

Series of films on such topics as "The Effective Parent," "Understanding Early Childhood Ages One Through Six," "Child Development," "Child Health."

Polymorph Films, 331 Newbury Street, Boston, Massachusetts 02115.

"Adapting to Parenthood." A number of new parents speak of their initial problems (dealing with crying, lack of sleep, grandparents, fathers and diapers, frustration), but most of the film shows one young couple with their first baby adjusting to the changes happening in their lives. A great deal of attention is paid to the father's role. Commentary by Dr. Kathryn Kris.

20 minutes; color. Rental: $30; purchase: $285.

"Childbirth." This documentary of a baby's birth shows the interaction of a young husband and wife during preparation classes, labor and delivery, and caring for the baby during rooming-in.

17 minutes; color. Rental: $20; purchase: $225.

"Gentle Birth." This film shows techniques of childbirth without violence adapted to American family-centered maternity practices. Roles of both parents and obstetrician can be observed clearly. Commentary by Dr. John Grover.

15 minutes; color. Rental: $25; purchase: $245.

"Talking About Breastfeeding." A number of women talk about the value of breastfeeding in their lives, along with how they cope with pressure from their parents, sibling rivalry, and jobs with their husbands' backing. The last part of the film shows a young couple leaving the hospital with their baby and beginning their new family life.

17 minutes; color. Rental: $20; purchase: $225.

Time-Life Multimedia, 100 Eisenhower Drive, Paramus, New Jersey 07652.

"Rock-a-bye Baby." This film examines how psychologists weigh and measure mothering practices around the world and shows the critical importance of touch and movement for young children.

30 minutes; color; 16mm film or video. Rental: $40; purchase of film: $400; purchase of video: $280.

"Benjamin." Shows various studies emphasizing early abilities in infants like rudimentary reaching, or distinguishing between parents and strangers. Produced for television, it is not yet available for general distribution, but inquire.

WGBH-TV, Distribution Department, 125 Western Avenue, Allston, Massachusetts 02134.

Three segments of fathers with their children, plus studio discussion portions featuring Dr. T. Berry Brazelton.

One hour; video cassette.

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