What Did You See?

**Teacher's Guide and
Seminar for
*Making Connections***

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Contents

Module II, Seeing Development, asks the following questions of students:

> What is development?
>
> How does it change a person?
>
> What are some differences and similarities between children and adults?
>
> What are children's beliefs, abilities, interests, and fears, and how do these change with level of development?
>
> What is special about the way I, as an adolescent, experience the world? How have I developed and how am I developing now?

The goal of Module II is to broaden the students' experience with children through insights about how children develop. The module attempts to help students see that a child's behavior at any one moment is a result of the child's past and may have an effect on how the child will develop in the future.

In order to think about these issues, students need to learn new ways to gather information about young children. These processes (collecting, setting up a situation) are applied throughout Module II for the purpose of looking at children's play and art, how children view other people, how they explain the world, and how they feel.

Materials included in this module are the following: *Looking at Development* (includes Data Poster and film, "Gabriel Is Two Days Old"); *Child's Play* (film, "Half a Year Apart"); *Children's Art* (Drawing-sort Poster and films, "Painting Time," "Racing Cars," and "Clay Play"); *Child's Eye View* (films, "Little Blocks," and "From My Point of View"); *How the World Works*; *Fears, Aggression, and Dependence*; *Making Connections* (film, "All in the Game"); and *What About Discipline?*

Introduction

"What Did You See?" is both the teacher's guide and the seminar guide for *Making Connections*. We have shaded portions that refer to *seminar* topics, activities, and readings. The unshaded portions are the day-to-day activities and procedures, which the teacher can use with exercises in the student booklet in the classroom. Seminars will afford an opportunity for teachers to learn about the new lessons and activities, to practice teaching techniques, and to discuss conceptual and pedagogical issues that arise from the EXPLORING CHILDHOOD materials.

Seminar Tasks

The seminar material in *Making Connections* can have one or more focal points. A seminar can focus on how to help adolescents build a record of their own or children's development, in order to examine the continuities between childhood, adolescence, and adulthood. Or the seminar could focus on how to use and understand theory--what a theory is, the relationship between theory and practice, an examination of the implicit theories about child rearing that each participant holds, and that exist in EXPLORING CHILDHOOD. The seminar could also focus on how to explore personal growth: looking for patterns by considering and practicing various evaluation strategies for measuring growth in their students (see *Evaluation Strategies Package*), discussing their students' perceptions of them as adults and the effects of those perceptions on classroom behavior, and finally, using the Being and Becoming Charts (p. 52) to look at their own growth, especially as teachers of EXPLORING CHILDHOOD. And the seminar can focus on how to look at concepts in a new way in order to apply them in working with children and adolescents. Your sources of data are the experiences both you and your students have had with the materials, the work of your students at the fieldsite, and the personal information members of the class share with one another.

Purposes: To clarify EXPLORING CHILDHOOD's use of
developmental theory and to examine the
usefulness of theories in interacting with
young children, adolescents, and adults.

To help teachers re-examine the ideas,
questions, and issues raised in Module II,
Seeing Development, for their students
and themselves, through the discovery of
patterns in human development.

To use *Making Connections* to evaluate
growth in students and teachers.

	CONTENTS IN STUDENT MATERIAL	CLASS TIME	PURPOSE
Do These Activities	One Child's Growth, p. 1.	One class	To help students begin to build a definition of development from their descriptions of change in individuals—in this case, children at the fieldsite.
	Observing Through Film, "All in the Game," p. 2.	Two classes	To provide another source of data about development in children; to show stages of development as an interconnected process, occurring simultaneously on a number of fronts.
	A Development Project, p. 8.	Four classes	To provide students with an opportunity to express what has been learned about development.
Choose One of These Activities	Development Is..., p. 2.	Four to five classes	To form a general definition of "development" from specific descriptions of development in adolescents and adults; to show that development is continuous throughout life.
	Being and Becoming, p. 7.	Thirteen classes	To help students understand that development is an ongoing process, and that what a person is is connected to the past as well as to the future; to help students use their collected data to find patterns of development, and to test these against their descriptions and the general definition of development.

Patterns in Growth

The introductory questions (p. 1) in the student booklet should be considered throughout work in *Making Connections*.

"What changes have you noticed in any of the children?" Consider all the changes studied in Module Two booklets:

The categories on the Data Poster: Games, Relating to Other Children, Language, Daily Activities, Body Skills.

Child's Play: muscle control, degree of pretending, involvement with friends.

Children's Art: muscle control, way a child grows in ability to use symbols to represent real things, ability/ desire to communicate with others, interest in finished product.

How the World Works: ability to see the world as being different from self.

Child's Eye View: egocentrism, judging fairness, communicating clearly, sympathizing.

Fears, Aggression, and Dependence: number of options for controlling or expressing emotion.

All journal observations.

Consider that generalizing from the concrete examples you have observed is the beginning of building a theory. Continually showing relationships among students' own observations will help them move toward their own theories about children's development (and their own).

"What changes have you noticed in yourself?" "Do you think
the way change comes about is at all similar for you and for
children? Is it different?" Consider that:

- development is continuous; change occurs in all the
  small details of life--for children, for adolescents,
  and for adults.

- development may feel the same for you and for children,
  but the particulars (content) may be different.

Teachers should jot down their thoughts about these ques-
tions in their own journals so that they can be shared
throughout the seminar meeting.

Seminar Topic

> Purpose: To share and summarize experiences with
>   Module Two, Seeing Development.

NOTE TO
SEMINAR
LEADER

After introductions are made, you might introduce this
seminar by asking: "Thinking back over the materials on
development, what were you struck by as students worked
through it?" You might also introduce the themes for this
seminar session. Other questions the seminar session will
address: Has the teaching of EXPLORING CHILDHOOD made any
difference to you as an adult and a teacher? How is change
similar/different for you than for children or adolescents?
What difference does understanding development make to you
as a teacher?

One Child's Growth

> Purpose: To help students begin to build a defini-
>   tion of development from their descrip-
>   tions of change in individuals--in this
>   case, children at the fieldsite.
>
> Time: One class.
>
> Materials: Making Connections, p. 1; journals.

PROCEDURE   Each student should choose a child who seems to have grown
in some way since fieldwork began. Students should choose a
child they feel they know well--one they have often observed
at play or drawing, for example. In describing change in
this child, urge students to concentrate on the child's per-
sonality. Recall the "Child-size" exercise (p. 8 in *Getting
Involved*) in which students tried to *see* the world as a
child sees it. Ask students now to try to *be* the child they
are describing in order to understand change in that child.

> Are students better able to *be* a child now than at
> the beginning of the course? What have they learned
> to enable them to do this?

Urge students to describe in detail the changes they have
noted. The list of things to consider on page 1 in *Making
Connections* is intended to help students be specific in
their descriptions, and you can help with other suggestions.
For example, if a student says that a child is getting along
better with others, you might ask, "Does that mean that the
child shares toys, plays in groups rather than alone, hits
less, dominates less, etc.? How much is the change due to
development in the child and how much to change in the ado-
lescent's perception? How can you separate the difference?"
Encourage students to be flexible in deciding how to convey
their ideas. For example, they might include in their
journals not only descriptions of the child's work, but also
quotations, drawings, and photographs. At the end of their
description, students should try to explain *why* they think
these changes have occurred in the child. In discussing the
questions on page 1 of *Making Connections,* remind students
that similar changes in different children are an indication
of the universality of some patterns of development.

NOTE TO
COURSE
TEACHERS

On your own or at the seminar, describe in detail the
changes you see in one of your students.

NOTE TO
FIELDSITE
TEACHERS

Write a description of an adolescent who works at your field-
site, answering the following questions:

> Have the adolescents changed in their behavior at the
> fieldsite? In what ways? Think of concrete examples
> to share with the course teacher, describing how a
> student was four weeks ago and how a student is now.
> How might you account for those changes?

Purpose: To reflect on your own adolescence and on
changes in your students, in order to under-
stand better the adolescents you work with
in EXPLORING CHILDHOOD.

If you have written a description of one of your students,
share it with the seminar group. Discuss the questions on
page 1 in *Making Connections*, applying them this time to
adolescents. To help you remember what it is like to be an
adolescent, you might try "being" an adolescent in a seminar
improvisation. You could also redo the "Looking Backward"
exercise in *Looking at Development* (pp. 2-3), bringing
photographs of yourself as an adolescent and adult to the
seminar, then writing descriptions of yourself as you were
then and are now.

How did you view the world?

How have you changed?

How can this exercise help you to understand your
students better?

Observing Through Film:
"All in the Game"

Purposes: To provide another source of data about
development in children; to show stages of
development as an interconnected process,
occurring simultaneously on a number of
fronts.

Time: Two classes.

Materials: *Making Connections*, p. 2; film, "All in the
Game" (22 minutes); journals.

PROCEDURE   View the film yourself before class and/or become familiar
                 with the transcript (pp. 10-14, this book) in order to help
                 students understand the English accents in this BBC-TV film.

First   With the class, read the description (p. 2, *Making Connec-*
Viewing   *tions*) of the first section of the film. Now view the film,
                 asking the class to think about the following:

                     How has learning to play soccer helped Luke to develop
                     in other areas?

                     Do students agree with the booklet's description of
                     Luke's development? What else can they say about it?

Second   After viewing the film once, divide the class into small
Viewing   groups. Ask each group to choose a child (for example, Kay,
                 Luke, or Tristam) to observe throughout the film, watching
                 for instances in which many phases of development may be
                 occurring at once.

   Ask each small group to share with the class what they have
                 observed, explaining why their observations are examples of
                 the interconnectedness of development.

                     Do other groups agree that the instance shows devel-
                     opment as interconnected? Why?

                     What similarities or differences are there in the
                     conclusions drawn by different groups?

                     How would the class define development based on these
                     conclusions?

Having described development in a child at the fieldsite and
in the film, students should list in their journals words or
phrases describing the experience of development for these
particular children. The finished lists might be put up on
the board under the heading *Development in Children*. Simi-
lar lists will be made in succeeding exercises for *Develop-
ment in Adolescents* and *Development in Adults*; the lists
will be used to answer questions in "Finding Patterns in
Growth" (p. 5, *Making Connections*). Entries to the lists
should be personal, and describe how it *feels* to be develop-
ing: e.g., exciting, challenging, fun, frightening.
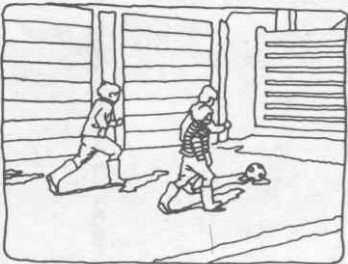
Journal Writing

Ask students to recall an experience in which one change brought about many others. Students might find that it helps to close their eyes for a moment. You might ask them: "How old are you? Where are you? Who's with you? What's happening? How do you feel?" Students should describe this experience in detail in a journal entry. They might look ahead (p. 4, *Making Connections*) to the adult description of learning to drive a car as an example of the interconnectedness of a learning experience with the emotions.

A few students may want to share their entries with the class. Discuss:

> Is development "all encompassing" for you in the same way that it is for a child? How is it the same or different?

Other Issues and Activities

Following are a number of other issues and possible activities related to "All in the Game," which you may wish to pursue if time allows.

Observe Luke, Kay, and Tristam, who were filmed at different ages, and discuss how they changed. What patterns of development can students see in these changes? The narrator notes some of these patterns, such as increased concentration, cooperation, imagination, sociability, coordination, and imitation of adults' roles.

Discuss how role play serves in the development of children. For example, how does doll play help Preti cope with her mother's absence? What functions does doll play serve for Preti? car play for Matthew? soccer for Luke?

Discuss the issue of individual differences within patterns of development by observing two children, Susan and Elizabeth, approach the game of dominoes, or by observing children's responses to the relay race. What differences are there in the way the children use and understand rules? Students might compare differences in these children with Lissa and Leah in the film, "Clay Play" (*Children's Art*).

Use the film to deal with issues involved in joining children in their play. For example, the automobile activity shared by Matthew and his father--discuss both what Matthew might be learning and what role his father plays in that learning. Or observe the relay race, and discuss what happens when adults impose rules on these children.

Use the film to consider Erikson's theory that, at certain ages, children begin to explore relationships, imitate adult roles, and differentiate sex roles. How are Timothy (cooking), Roseanna (doll play), and Matthew (car play) using play to explore sex roles?

Narrator: Nick is 8 months old. What's he up to? Why does he jump up and down? Why doesn't he just stand still?

The answer to this is playing. And, to a child, play is the most important and absorbing business in life. This urge to play is universal. It is present in the earliest months when play is mainly just moving your body around. But why do children play? The most obvious reason is just that it is fun. But having fun isn't the whole answer.

Children play and persevere with the game even when there seems to be very little fun in it for them. Like most children, Luke spends the greatest part of his time in play. That's where he finds his friends, satisfies his ambitions, copes with his problems, learns about the world. Because Luke is old enough to need companions, but too young to keep up with his older brother's friends, this game is bound to end in frustration and tears. Luke's personality comes out in the way he reacts to the game. And his personality is in turn affected by what he is going through.

So the question, "Why do children play?" can't be answered simply. An easier question to answer is, "What can children gain from play?" One thing they gain is an understanding of the world around them and the materials in it. Children aren't born knowing about different shapes, weights, balance, texture, etc. They gradually find out about them and it's in play that this happens.

They seem to pursue this understanding with tremendous seriousness and sensitiveness.

They gain understanding by not only putting new things together but also by seeing how they come apart. That's why they can spend hours in building up and knocking down.

Children of different ages have reached different levels of understanding. So Kay at 2 is still exploring the smell of paint, while his 3-1/2-year-old brother Luke uses the same

materials to paint a picture, even if you might not recognize it.

Tristam at 5 1/2 is creating a whole world of imagination and fantasies on paper. All play depends upon the stage a child has reached in his physical development and his ability to get along with other children. Two-year-olds like Kay are not very sociable people. His interest in the snakes and dart game is fleeting.

Even at 3 1/2, Luke is prepared to leave most of it to his brother, though his cooperation, his span of concentration, are greater than Kay's. When Kay takes his turn, his movements are not well coordinated and he loses the dice.

A year later we filmed the two younger members of the family again to see how their play had changed when they grew up. Children of 3 and older become much more sociable. They can cooperate with each other and they are also much more imaginative.

Kay at 3 is interested in this toy, not just because of its shape, feel, or color, but because it's a motor car, and he can pretend to be its owner, driver, mechanic. He'll share this fantasy world with his brother.

Children: You can get oil now.

Narrator: Now when Kay feels like it he'll cooperate. But he's still too young to keep up the cooperation for long. He'll still get pleasure from just moving around, as he did when he was a baby. But now there are the added ingredients of a ball and someone to play with.

When children are ready to be sociable, they need companions. They are learning how to get along with other children. But through their pretend games they also work out how adults can talk.

As well as exploring relationships, their make-believe play copies in detail many other scenes of adult life, particularly domestic scenes children see most often.

Timothy's interest in the process of cooking shows that the traditional separations between boys' and girls' interests needn't exist. But because the urge to imitate provides such a powerful opportunity for learning, Roseanna's doll play prepares her to accept the conventional role of a housewife. If this is the only kind of play adults encourage her, she will miss the opportunity to explore other possibilities.

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This little boy finds his instinct to copy encouraged when it leads to a traditionally masculine activity like his father mending the car.

There should be nothing to stop little girls doing the same.

In any case, to use this situation as an opportunity for teaching, the child has to be actively encouraged to join in the adult activity. At this young age, watching alone is not enough.

Father: Check the tires. Do you want to do it?

Narrator: A one-way mirror observation room can be used to watch children using a play house. For the children, the attraction of this house is that it is a private world. Through this mirror the psychologists study the play without disturbance. Their play involves exploring and making up fantasies around this exploration. They explore the shelves and construct their game out of what they find. They pretend the doll is ill. And this allows them to explore the parts of the body they don't understand but already feel shy about.

They're also exploring what it feels like to have your own front door. This game includes the pleasures of knock-on-the-door-and-run-away, and ends up with a mixture of peephole and jack-in-the-box.

Sometimes children give us their own clues to the reasons behind this make believe.

Preti is unhappy because her mother is away from home.

Preti: She's going to come back. She's going to come back with some new things. A tiny green light. She's gonna come back.

Narrator: Through play, Preti works out a solution to some of her fears about the new baby which she knows from the last time might dilute her to mother's attention. Play prepared her to join in the rituals of feeding and nursing the new baby.

Most young children's play is spontaneous and not governed by fixed rules.

What happens when adults, whose games have rules, try to organize children in a simple race?

These children are 4. They seem to get the idea and know
what they are expected to do. But each time something goes
wrong.

Grasping the idea of rules develops hand and hand with the
stages of general understanding.

At first games are only about movement of body.

In the next stage, sometimes called the egocentric stage,
the child sees everything only in relation to himself.

Interviewer: Who made up the rules?

Child: I did.

Narrator: The idea that rules are mutually agreed. Piaget,
a Swiss scientist, first pointed out how attitudes to rules
change with age. He concentrated his research on the game
of marbles.

Interviewer: Do you ever play marbles? Now what would
happen if Neal made up the rules and you didn't like them?
Would you change them?

Child: You have to use diplomacy.

Narrator: So in this stage, rules are still flexible and
can be changed by agreement. But then there is a hierarchy
of age and size which settles whose opinions carry the most
weight. This means that Tristam is much higher up the scale
than his younger brother Kay.

Interviewer: Does Kay ever make up games?

Tristam: Sometimes when we play in between.

Interviewer: What was that?

Tristam: Like David.

Interviewer: Are his rules good rules?

Tristam: Sometimes.

Interviewer: Would you play by his rules?

Tristam: Yes. He lets me get the rules for him. He knows
I'm bigger.

Narrator: In any group of 4-year-olds like these playing
picture dominoes, there will be children who see rules
differently. Because although they all pass through stages
in the order we've seen, the time it takes varies from child
to child.

Elizabeth accepts that rules exist. She no longer thinks
she makes them up herself. But the way she explains them
is still self-centered.

Elizabeth: You've got to put them there. See?

Narrator: Susan isn't ready yet to follow rules. She's
playing her own game. Just making patterns.

Even when children of this age know the rules, characteris-
tically they will bend them when necessary to their own
advantage.

Elizabeth: Who's got double clock? I've got double clock.
Aren't I lucky! Who's got clock? You're supposed to put
it here, underneath. Susan is doing it all wrong. Susan,
you're doing it all wrong.

Narrator: In his own quiet way Phillip understands rules
too. Progress through the stages is a matter of maturity,
not personality. But as in all play, personality has an
effect on who needs the game. Susan has been involved in
her own personal game for some time now, but has come to the
end of it and is easily distracted.

Elizabeth: I've got double clock. I've got clock.

Narrator: Like all 4-year-olds, Phillip and Elizabeth can't
keep up cooperation for long, and they end each playing
their own game.

If, as adults, we enter a child's world of play and try to
organize it, even in something as simple as a relay race, we
must expect each child to respond differently.

Each responds according to his own personality and maturity
and needs. Each child will make it his own game.

Seminar Topic

Purpose: To learn to use film as a source of data
toward a better understanding of development.

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You might view "All in the Game" at a seminar and practice the observing procedure for students described on page 8 of this book. Discuss:

Does the film help students to understand development? How have students developed in their ability to observe? What might they notice now which they might have overlooked at the beginning of the course?

What helps or hinders an understanding of development for you or your students? Which course materials in this module were most helpful to the adolescents in understanding development in themselves and in the children? Which pieces were most confusing or difficult for you or the students? Why?

Planning and Choosing Activities for Your Class

At this point in the *Guide*, you can make several decisions as to which activities to focus on with your class. Depending on your students' interest or understanding, you might want to choose "Development Is..." (pp. 16-23, this book), which deals with more personal, affective, direct, and concrete experience. Or you can choose "Being and Becoming," which assumes a greater understanding of what development is, and focuses on using analytical skills to find patterns in development. Whichever section you choose, be sure to do the evaluation activity referred to on page 20 of this *Guide*. Set aside three to four periods for planning, working on, and presenting small group or individual development projects (see p. 61, this book).

NOTE TO
SEMINAR
LEADER

At the seminar you may want to discuss how to choose activities. Those teachers who have already made decisions could explain how they did so. You might point out that the opening activities are descriptive in nature and ask students to utilize skills of data collecting and categorizing, while the "Being and Becoming" activities build on students' skills in induction, hypothesizing, and testing evidence. Both kinds of activities are worth doing, but doing them both may seem repetitious to the student.

Development Is...

Adolescents Look at Development in Themselves

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Purposes:   To form a general definition of "develop-
            ment" from specific descriptions of devel-
            opment in adolescents and adults; to show
            that development is continuous throughout
            life.

    Time:   Four to five classes, with homework.

Materials:  Making Connections, pp. 2-5; journals.
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The following readings are adolescents' descriptions of changes in themselves. You might want to discuss these readings with the class.

...I figured if I don't want to get married, I won't do the things that other people do that allow them to get married. I won't listen to rock-and-roll music, because that's what other people do. They have to go to dances, and boys and girls dance together, and then they get married. This was when I was in about the fifth or sixth grade. I refused to listen to rock-and-roll music but I wanted to, inside I wanted to, but outside I wouldn't let it happen. I was afraid of winding up like my parents. In relation to women, I wanted to physically touch them and everything, feel them, but if I did, I did it from the outside. The inside of me did not do it except very rarely and with just one girl. But now I know all this and the walls have started breaking down, between the outside me and the inside me. They have

started to come down and I realized that more and more I want to let people inside me.[1]

I still had friends; I went out visiting. But I was conscious of the fact that I wasn't as I had been before. These parties--there was a kind of very fast-moving crowd.... That really aggravated all of this, knowing--not so much being upset because there was a lot going on and I wasn't getting any--but that there were all these things going on, and all my former friends were involved in it, and I was outside of this thing. I didn't know how to relate to it. I was treated by them as being outside of it, and socially I began to feel inferior. That was the most important thing.[2]

...I could feel myself becoming very independent, but at the same time I felt insecure. I believe this was the turning point of my life. Although it was a slow and painful transition, I went from complete dependence to complete independence. As I look back now, I believe this was the way father planned it. When I decided to enter college instead of the service, father didn't say anything about it. I knew he wanted me to go in the army and become a man, but when I asked him what he thought about my going to college, he said it was up to me. He said I'd have to make the decision myself, that he couldn't help me. Well, as you can see, I decided to go to college and I'm glad I did. I enjoy college very much and I'm working part time in order to put myself through. It's a great experience to realize you're on your own, and I can honestly say I wouldn't want it any other way. I am completely on my own and thinking for myself. I'm not easily influenced by other people and although I'm still not sure what I really want out of life, I feel I am quite capable of making the right decisions in order to reach the goals I have now set for myself.[3]

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[1] Reprinted from *The Music of Their Laughter*, by Roderick Thorp and Robert Blake (San Francisco: Canfield Press, 1971).

[2] Reprinted from *Young Radicals, Notes on Committed Youth*, by Kenneth Keniston (New York: Harcourt Brace & World, 1968).

[3] Reprinted from *The Experience of Adolescence*, Stephen J. Goldburgh, ed. (Cambridge: Schenkman Publishing Co., 1965).

Previous exercises ask students to look at development in individual children, and pages 2-5 of *Making Connections* look at development in individual adults. This exercise asks students to look at development in themselves. Students can arrive at a list describing the experience of development for themselves in a variety of ways.

Return to the opening exercise (p. 1), in which they described development in one child, and repeat the exercise for themselves. How do changes involving "body control and movement" or "being sensitive to other people's feelings" apply to them? How are these phases of development different for them? For example, "paying attention" might mean "interest" or "concentration" for an adolescent. What other phases would they add? With development, not only do particular dimensions become more complex, but the number of dimensions to consider increases.

Look at the Data Poster and consider how they have developed along the dimensions described on the poster. What are they like now? What changes did they go through to arrive at this point? How are they changing even now?

Write an anecdote similar to those written by adults (pp. 2-5, *Making Connections*) to describe a recent occurrence that they feel has changed them or that points to change in them. The anecdote should describe current development, rather than past development.

Write an anecdote (or look for a previously written journal entry) about change in themselves that has come about through participation in EXPLORING CHILDHOOD. Such an anecdote might deal with change in relation to children, teachers, peers, family, course materials, or other courses. Students need not feel that the change must reflect "getting better" at something. For example, a student who worked enthusiastically with children before the course may find that responsibility and large groups of children make him or her impatient. What would such a change mean to the student?

Get feedback from classmates about changes in themselves since beginning the course. The following procedure might help students organize this task.

Divide the class into groups of five or six. Everyone in the group should list one change he or she has seen in every other member of the group. These changes should be specific, and related to the course. For example, classmates

might notice that one student speaks more in class and seems to have more self-confidence. They might feel that this change is a result of being successful at the fieldsite. Another example might be that learning patience at the fieldsite makes someone more patient with parents or siblings.

Each member should volunteer to hear the changes other members have seen in him or her. Examples should be explained, and the group should decide as a whole which of them is the most accurate or significant. The individual described should make the final decision. Follow-up assignments might be for students to take the group's description and write about what this means to them. The described change can become one of ten course-related changes that they see in themselves, to be written down in their journals.

Whichever of the foregoing activities students use, they should formulate from the exercise/anecdote a list of words describing development in themselves. These lists can then be pooled (a few students might even share with the class the incidents from which the list was derived) and written on the board under the heading *Development in Adolescents*. Discuss:

> Do these activities help you understand more about yourself? In what ways?

> Does it add to your understanding of the meaning of development? Explain.

Development in Adults Is...

While adolescents are writing anecdotes describing recent experiences that show growth and change in themselves, perhaps in connection with EXPLORING CHILDHOOD, you might write a similar anecdote about yourself (or look for a previously written anecdote in your journal). If you decide to share this anecdote with the class, it can be added to the three adult descriptions of development in themselves on pages 2-5, and listed under *Development in Adults*.

You might also get feedback from the class about course-related changes they see in you as a teacher, just as students can get feedback from each other (see above) or from you, in the form of evaluations. Each student might note one change they see in you, being careful to be specific. For example, they might say that you have learned more about child or adolescent development, that you have more or less variety in classroom procedure, that you give students more (or less) time to respond to your questions, that you give

different kinds of assignments, or talk more with students about their personal experiences, and that you draw on these in class discussion. Students' comments can then be pooled on the board. You and the class might choose the three most accurate or significant changes on the list.

Students might like to look for other adult descriptions of change in themselves. Students could refer to biographies and other readings, and television or advertisements. They might also interview you, the fieldsite teacher, other teachers or administrators in the school, parents, relatives, or neighbors. The class should decide on appropriate questions to ask in such interviews (with suggestions or guidance from you), and these interviews might then be recorded on an interview form or on a tape recorder, if available. Possible interview questions might be:

> What is a recent experience, or series of experiences, that you feel changed you?

> What differences do you see in yourself as a result? How do you feel about the change? afraid? glad?

> Do you ever worry that you won't go on changing enough?

Working from the descriptions adults have given about themselves, each student should make a list of specific changes they see in the adults, pool these lists as a class, and add the changes to the column *Development in Adults* on the board. What differences do students see between their own and adult development? For example, if they have learned to drive, how do they compare that experience to the adult's experience in "Growing Up at Twenty-Nine"?

Now that you have data about development in adults, does that change or add to your previous definition of development?
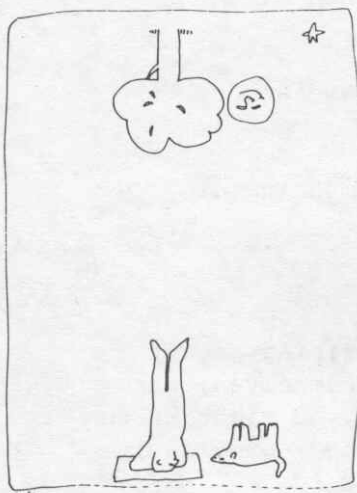
Evaluation

The foregoing activities could lead to a discussion of students' feelings about the course in general--what they like, dislike, how they would change it, etc. Students and fieldsite teachers can have similar discussions about the changes they would like to make in their work together. These discussions, anecdotes, and journal entries can be used, together with individual conferences and the evaluation strategies found in the *Evaluation Strategies Package*, to help course teachers, fieldsite teachers, and students arrive at

appropriate grades or comments on students' work in the
course.

Seminar Topic

> Purpose: To examine and to practice the evaluation
> strategies offered to teachers and students
> of EXPLORING CHILDHOOD.

How have you evaluated students so far in EXPLORING CHILD-
HOOD? Turn to the *Evaluation Strategies Package* provided
for teachers of EXPLORING CHILDHOOD. Read the opening
statement.

> In what ways is your philosophy of evaluation similar
> to and/or different from the one just set forth?

Now turn to the suggested strategies. Seminar participants
should practice using them with one another, afterward dis-
cussing their reactions with the group.

> Did you try the sample strategies suggested here in
> your class? What did they tell you and your students
> about what you have learned in the course? about how
> you have developed?

> What other ways could you think of to measure the com-
> ponents of experience, collaboration, and integration?

Seminar Topic

> Purpose: To reflect on changes in teachers and in the
> roles they have played during their active
> teaching of Module Two, Seeing Development.

How have you developed in your work with adolescents? in
your participation in the seminar group? To discuss these
questions, share your own and the students' descriptions of
your development as a teacher of this course. Give an ex-
ample of an incident connected with teaching the course that
led to a change in yourself. Do other members of the semi-
nar see these changes reflected in your participation in the
seminar?

Another way to deal with seminar participants' perception
of change in each other would be to gather feedback from

seminar participants using a procedure similar to that described for students (see #5, p. 18, this book).

What differences do you see between the way you change and the way adolescents change?

Recall your reactions to doing the "Eyedropper Experiment" in the *Art and Development Seminar* and your students' reactions to the same exercise in *Children's Art*.

To consider the idea of continuity of development, invite the grandparents of some of your children, or the members of a senior citizens group, to spend the day at the fieldsite. Have the adolescents observe the interaction between the older people and the children, or work with an older person and a group of children.

In what ways are the grandparents similar to the children in their approach to materials and people?

In what ways do the older people put to use their experiences and wisdom as they work with children? Are their ways similar to or different from the teenagers? Can the adolescents observe these differences and/or similarities?

Fieldsite teachers might also discuss the following at a seminar:

How does working with young children "keep you young"?

What are the differences between working with children and working with adolescents?

When you observe the adolescents working with the children at your fieldsite, in what ways are they like adults and in what ways do they seem like children?

Finding Patterns in Growth

In looking at constants and differences in the three lists of development in children, adolescents, and adults, students are building toward their own definition of development based on the specific details of their observation and experience. These lists and definitions will be used again

in "Being and Becoming," when students look for patterns of development in data they have collected throughout Seeing Development.

In considering differences in these three lists, students might look for differences in the areas in which development occurs, in what causes the development to occur or to be held back, etc. Discuss:

> How is learning to ride a bike different at ages 6, 15, 35, and 50?

Each student should write a list of the constant elements of development seen in these three lists and compare this list of constants with those on the following chart (p. 6).

Chart
Description
of
Development

Read the chart both vertically and horizontally with the class. Reading down the first column gives a generalized definition of development; the second column adds greater definition or detail; and the third offers an example of one phase of development in one child. Reading across the chart defines, explains, and exemplifies one aspect of development.

> How do students' definitions of development compare with what they find on the chart? What would they add or subtract?

To test the chart's definition, you and the students might substitute examples of your own: one group might fill in the chart with other examples they have observed at the fieldsite; another group might fill it in with examples from their own, current development; and you as the teacher can fill in the chart with examples describing change in your own development, or that of one of your students.

Now that students have described the characteristics of developmental change in young children, themselves, and adults, and have come to some conclusion as to what "development" is, the focus shifts to a very important characteristic of development: continuity--the relationship between the past, present, and future of one's life.

Being and Becoming

Being

**Describing
Patterns
of Growth
in Children**

Throughout this module, students have been collecting a wide
variety of information about development. This information
will now be used to build a theory of development. As a
class, take about ten minutes to list the sources of the
data students collected about young children, as well as the
methods they have used.

Students may have done many collecting and observing assign-
ments throughout work in Module Two. They may have also
looked for patterns of development as revealed by some of
these collections.

In *Looking at Development,* students looked for patterns in:

- children's reactions to a puddle (teacher's guide, p. 2).

- Gabriel's development (teacher's guide, p. 5).

- a photographic collection of children's clay work (student booklet, p. 7).

- the Data Poster (student booklet, pp. 8, 9).

- data gathered from "Collecting" or "Setting Up a Situation" assignments (student booklet, pp. 6-7, 10-13).

In *Child's Play,* students looked for patterns in:

- their "Hunt for Play" (student booklet, pp. 17, 18).

- observations at toy stores (teacher's guide, p. 24).

- interviews of relatives (teacher's guide, p. 24).

- the Play File (student booklet, pp. 24-26).

In *Children's Art,* students looked for patterns in:

- the Drawing Sort (student booklet, p. 31).

- their own observations of children's painting--children of different ages or children using different materials (student booklet, p. 37); one child over time (p. 42).

- three sample observations of children painting (student booklet, pp. 6-8).

In *Child's Eye View,* students looked for patterns in children's view of fairness and of how other people see the world by:

- asking children about appropriate punishments (student booklet, p. 10).

- playing the Birthday Present Game (student booklet, p. 15).

In *How the World Works,* students looked for patterns in children's explanations of the world by:

- collecting children's explanations (teacher's guide).

- trying Piaget's experiments with water, clay, or beads in different shapes (teacher's guide).

- reviewing developmental patterns seen in previous work (teacher's guide).

In *What About Discipline?* students collected observations of:

- one child in various discipline situations (teacher's guide, p. 5).

- one discipline problem, appearing in various children (teacher's guide, p. 5).

- themselves in discipline situations with children or adults (teacher's guide, p. 6).

Other data students might consider are observations of younger brothers or sisters, interviews with pediatricians, nurses, and fieldsite teachers. Also make reference to the lists created in "One Child's Growth" (p. 5, this book), since these were also drawn from students' experiences.

Once these collections of data have been gathered together, divide the class into groups of five or six students. Ask each group to consider all of the data to make several statements about the children they work with, indicating the children's view of others; understanding of the physical world; ways of communicating; understanding of the past, present, and future; relationships with other people; and body skills. Another approach to follow in doing this activity is to divide the class into groups of five or six, with each group focusing on a particular area of development and using its data to identify several patterns in that area.

It would be helpful to put students who work at the same fieldsite together in a group so that they can discuss in depth the children they work with. Students from different fieldsites could be grouped together, according to the age of the children they work with.

Remind students that the focus is on finding *patterns* of growth within the data. Students can look for patterns in all phases of development--thinking, physical growth, emotional expression, interests, attentiveness. Examples of patterns might be: moving toward greater muscle control, change from focus on self to understanding of others, or ability to distinguish between words and the things they represent. Several focusing questions for each group might be:

Has the children's behavior always been the same?
Has it changed? What is the evidence?

Using your sources of data, what patterns in children
can you describe? How do you know?

As the statements develop, have each group list the patterns
they discovered on large sheets of newsprint, which can be
shown to the entire class. When the task is finished, have
each group give a five-minute report to the class. At the
end of all the presentations, the class should focus its
attention on drawing out the similarities in each group's
list. Can any conclusions be drawn from the descriptions
of the patterns of growth in the young children they have
worked with? Do they need more information before they can
decide? If so, how would they get it?

Now that the class has described the patterns they see in
young children, ask them:

Can you predict any future changes by looking at
these patterns?

Their discussion should focus on the idea that development
is a continuous process. Describing patterns is the first
step toward building a theory of development, which will be-
come the focus of the next section, "Becoming."

Describing Patterns of Growth in Adolescents

The foregoing exercise should be repeated, with groups of
five or six students focusing on themselves:

Using themselves as sources of data, can they de-
scribe any patterns in their own growth?

How would they describe adolescents as a group?

As an example, students might write about their increasing
ability to shift their point of view to that of another per-
son--the young child, the preschool teacher--in order to
better understand and communicate with that person. Other
patterns might be seen in: adolescents' desire to test and
experiment, their ability to question, their physical
changes, or their control and expression of feelings. Re-
mind the group that the descriptions should include a wide
variety of phases of development. They might use the
Development in Adolescents list (p. 19, this book) as evi-
dence for the patterns they describe in adolescents.

PROCEDURE   Perhaps this exercise can begin with a journal entry compar-
                  ing an adolescent to one of the children they work with.
                  Comparison can serve as a useful learning strategy to help
                  students recognize their individual differences and capaci-
                  ties. After the journal entry, divide students into small
                  groups and ask them to compare their entries, looking for
                  common patterns running through each. Then bring the class
                  together so that each group can describe the patterns it
                  found.

                      What kinds of patterns were described by all groups?

                  List these for all students to see and comment on.

                      Is there different behavior illustrating the same
                      pattern?

                  The discussion may end with the question:

                      Can we predict any future changes by looking at these
                      patterns?

                  Just as the young children that students work with are chang-
                  ing, so too are the students becoming something they were
                  not before.

NOTE TO   Students may be reluctant to make generalizations to de-
TEACHERS   scribe all children or all adolescents. They may find it
                  difficult to understand the distinction between the univer-
                  sality of a theory and its tolerance for individuality.
                  It would be worthwhile to review the idea (p. 8, *Making
                  Connections*) that even though development is universal--
                  follows general patterns--the rate and way in which one
                  develops is in part determined by the uniqueness of that
                  person. You may also review the reading by Anna Freud, in
                  which she talks about "shifting emotional ties" (p. 31, *The
                  Role of the Adolescent*, Teacher Seminar and Selected Read-
                  ings). You might read excerpts to your students, or dupli-
                  cate the reading to hand out. Solicit students' reactions
                  to it. Do they feel that the patterns described by Freud
                  are an accurate description of adolescents? Why or why not?
                  Is there evidence in their lives to support or deny what
                  Freud says?

**Seminar
Topic**   Are there shifting emotional ties evident in the classroom
                  behavior of your adolescent students? Does it affect "the
                  climate" of your classroom? How do you deal with it?

Do you feel that there is something about the nature of
adolescents that makes them argue forcefully in defense of
the belief that each person is totally different from every
other? Explain.

Do the readings by Blos and Erikson in *The Role of the
Adolescent* illuminate why adolescents are reluctant to gen-
eralize about themselves? Have you found this reluctance
in your students? How have you dealt with it?

Becoming

Is There a Goal to Development?

Up to this point students have been focusing on the question
"What is development?" They have been describing the growth
and identifying the common patterns they see in children and
in themselves. Now the focus turns away from description
toward the process of change--a dynamic dimension of devel-
opment. Students should be well aware that development
takes place in the whole person throughout an entire life-
time. Building on this fact, this section of the teacher's
guide focuses on the question, "Is there a goal to develop-
ment?" It looks at a number of theorists and their theories
in order to understand where they say development leads to.
It is meant to help you show your students:

- that theories about development are created from a
  curiosity about people;

- that students are also theory builders;

- that one theory cannot explain everything about human
  growth and that there are exceptions to theories;

- that the function of theory is to understand how
  people change--how one age is different from another,
  and how people learn;

- that theories are lenses through which people can view
  the world.

Finally, this section can help clarify the theoretical per-
spective taken by EXPLORING CHILDHOOD. The following paper
was prepared by Marilyn Clayton, Director of EXPLORING
CHILDHOOD. It is designed to supplement the Overview of
EXPLORING CHILDHOOD, which describes the pedagogical
approach and conceptual framework of the course, by describ-
ing in depth the program's "theory about raising children";
defining what the program sees as its proper role in provid-
ing support, resources, and recommendations; and defining

the areas in which the program feels decisions can be made only by those who know and are directly responsible for the welfare of a child. This paper appears in the materials for teachers, but it is concerned with some basic issues involved in the relationship of caregivers to younger people, and consequently may be appropriate for students, parents, or anyone involved in the EXPLORING CHILDHOOD program who is responsible for the care of children.

Does Exploring Childhood Have a Theory?

We are often asked if we have a theory about the right way to raise children.

Clearly, there is immense variety in child-rearing practices around the world. In some cultures children sleep next to their parents every night; in others it is considered harmful for parents and children to sleep in the same room. Some cultures feel physical punishment is necessary to ensure a child's growing up in the "right" way; others believe that physical punishment is damaging. Practices differ from culture to culture, and in a society like ours--where families come from many cultures--practices differ from family to family. We would be hard put to conclude that there is one right way to do any one thing, especially since attitudes about what you do can be as significant as the content of the act.

Nevertheless, much specific child-care advice is offered daily in the public media. Although the content of this advice often changes, pendulum-fashion, from one generation to the next, it is usually offered with authority, and seems to contribute to the insecurity people feel about their own judgment and competence in child rearing. We encourage people to choose the approaches that feel right for them, because the responsible person who knows and loves a child and his or her life circumstances is best suited to make the daily decisions that will affect that child's future. Our theory is that, in choosing approaches, it is helpful for any caregiver to have insight into the forces that shape the experience and development of a child. We have selected four areas in which we feel insight is important:

· how children experience the world;

· what is transmitted in human interactions;

· the social forces that affect a family's ability to protect and nurture its children;

· who you are and what you bring to caregiving.

HOW CHILDREN
EXPERIENCE
THE WORLD

Piaget and Erikson are two theorists whose ideas have helped
us think about how a child's experience may be different
from an adult's experience, and about how children learn.
Parents, teachers, and philosophers have considered these
questions for centuries. Of those who speak for our time,
we selected Piaget and Erikson because the focus of their
work is consonant with what we feel our role should be:
their work provides ideas about what a child's world is like,
rather than prescribing what a caregiver should do. Because
people's theories grow out of the perspectives of their cul-
tures and the needs and experience of their own lives, we
have tried to give theories a biographical context.

Piaget deals with the manner in which a child's mind takes
in and structures the world, and suggests such factors as
egocentrism, inability to deal with two things at one time,
the slow growth of the ability to symbolize, the vibrancy
and the limitations of being rooted in the here-and-now.
These factors have implications not only for children's in-
tellectual abilities, but also for the way they interpret
all of their experience. Children cannot, for example, feel
guilt until they can hold in mind and compare two things at
once--what they are actually doing and what they should be
doing.

Erikson illuminates for us children's daily experience by
suggesting that the kinds of needs children have for others
change as their bodies develop, and that children are learn-
ing different kinds of lessons about themselves and others
at different points in the life cycle: for example, learn-
ing about trust in the early part of life when they need
almost everything done for them, and later learning about
others' reactions to their budding independence and their
own success at it.

Piaget and Erikson tell us about lenses through which chil-
dren take in and interpret the world, and about the dominant
concerns and curiosities, emergent needs and abilities that
structure the perceptions, actions, and interactions of a
child's daily life. Our interest in Piaget and Erikson does
not come from unquestioned agreement with their conclusions,
but from what they have chosen to look at--the way in which
children experience the world. Their conclusions about the
nature of children's experience, however, seem reasonable
to us.

Do these views of how children experience the world provide
us with any guidelines for working with children? The im-
plication of both Piaget's and Erikson's views of a child's
experience is that children are "active" learners--that is,

children naturally, spontaneously, and continuously set up
their own opportunities to test out the things that surprise
them, make them curious, worry them, or challenge their
ability to control their muscles, their emotions, and the
course of events in their world.

The idea that a child is "active," in contrast to the idea
that all learning opportunities have to be set up for a
child, raises two practical questions: How much should a
caregiver plan for a child? And how much should children
be allowed to control?

With respect to planning, a child is not likely to learn
much from either a totally barren or chaotic environment, or
from an environment whose events are planned and sequenced
in a way that is unresponsive to a child's needs and inter-
ests. It follows that a critical part of a caregiver's job
is to listen carefully to a child. Knowing something about
universal characteristics of development--the probable needs,
perceptions, and emerging abilities and interests of a child
in the early life cycle--can, of course, be very helpful in
listening to children, so long as caregivers also take into
account the individuality of a child.

Montessori helps us think about the issue of planning in
offering the example of one approach: provide materials
specifically designed to allow children to exercise some
predictable, developing abilities and curiosities. For
example, believing that children learn through all their
senses, Montessori prepares them for reading by providing
sandpaper letters that allow children to explore the let-
ters' forms tactily as well as visually. Does this kind of
approach result in too much "structuring" of a child's
activity? There is disagreement on this question; even
schools that follow Montessori's basic principles differ in
how much to structure a child's activity.

How much to structure a child's time, and with what, is a
question for the caregiver to decide, because values and be-
liefs about what is important are involved. What we can do
is help you think about your values and your view of the
future in deciding what you want a child to learn, outline
developmental factors for you to consider in deciding how to
meet a child's interests, and make you aware of the messages
you send out in structuring what children do.

According to the "active" view of children, young children
are often testing how much they can control. A second prac-
tical question, then, is how much should children be allowed
to control? Children who are not allowed to control any

events in their lives are likely to feel powerless. Children who are allowed to control everything are likely to be frightened by their power, and may introduce a great deal of stress into family interactions. We can help you think about what character traits you value in children and adults --such as independence, obedience, and responsibility--and we can help you think about how the kind of freedoms and supports children may be testing at given points in the early life cycle change with development. Given this perspective and information, decisions about control include choices about values, which can only be made by those who know and are responsible for a child.

WHAT IS
TRANSMITTED
IN HUMAN
INTERACTIONS?

All babies need people to love them. Not only is a baby's learning impaired when there are no loving caregivers, but "failure-to-thrive" cases show us that some babies with inadequate human attention cannot even gain weight. Early in life, the way a child's unfolding needs are met will determine the child's sense of self-identity and view of the characteristics of others. As children grow older, the function of caregivers goes beyond feeding, sheltering, and cuddling, to serving as models of the complicated entities that human beings are. Possibly as a result of their total dependence on other human beings for a large segment of their young lives, children are capable of being acutely perceptive of the reactions of others. The reactions and actions (both verbal and nonverbal) of the people children depend on carry messages that tell a child what is good and bad in the world, what is important and unimportant, who that child is.

We cannot tell you what the content of a caregiver's messages should be, because clearly this depends on what you value in a human being. We do attempt to help you become aware of the innumerable messages caregivers give to children. Because students will be working in fieldsites with children not their own, it is important for them to understand that children live with families whose love and attention is critical to their survival and sense of identity, and that children have been hearing and incorporating family messages daily since birth.

Finally, we think it important for caregivers to be aware of both the messages a child sends out and the feelings these messages evoke in them as caregivers. The second sense in which we say children are "active" is the sense that, from the moment they are born, they are sending messages about their needs. These messages evoke reactions in caregivers

not only about the child's needs, but also about the care-
givers' adequacy in meeting them. Messages from a child
shape a caregiver's sense of competence, and can pattern the
course of that relationship and any other relationship in
which the caregiver is responsible for a child. Because
babies differ in temperament from birth, caregivers with
much the same nurturing potential may receive different
messages from different babies. The caregiver of a baby who
is hard to console, for example, is more likely to feel in-
adequate to the task. While it is important to listen care-
fully and be responsive to children's messages, it is also
important to have some perspective about the effect of those
messages on your feelings as a caregiver. One way to
achieve perspective is to share experiences with colleagues;
another is to learn some ways to evaluate your own work with
children. EXPLORING CHILDHOOD hopes to help you do both.

THE SOCIAL
FORCES THAT
AFFECT A
FAMILY'S
ABILITY TO
PROTECT AND
NURTURE ITS
CHILDREN

Few families in the world are isolated and able to supply
all the resources each needs to survive and grow. Adults
responsible for the care of children need self-esteem and a
sense of security about their ability to provide for their
families. Adults who are unemployed, or whose contributions
are not valued by society; adults who are lonely, with no
nourishing contacts in the community; and adults who were
not valued as children may feel incompetent at providing the
basic resources, skills, and models their children need.
Child abuse, for instance, seems to occur in families that
are under emotional stress, at times when an emotional loss
is suffered by a caregiver who already feels lonely, un-
supported, and unable to affect the forces that control his
or her life. Just as lack of love can impair an infant's
ability to grow and learn, lack of nourishing contacts with
family, friends, and society can impair an adult's ability
to nurture a child. We believe that awareness of the needs
of families, and the stresses on caregiving that result when
these needs are not met, is important for students both in
their present roles as caregivers for other people's chil-
dren, and in their future roles as parents and people who
make decisions that affect the lives of children.

In addition to the way a society provides resources and
social networks, a culture affects the lives of children and
families by the messages it sends through its media and in-
stitutions, its fairy tales and television programs. The
way in which communities and the society at large provide
for the needs of families, and the kinds of images valued by
a culture are decisions made over long periods of time--
sometimes with a great deal of thought, sometimes with

little thought, and sometimes as practices that have grown out of tradition. Our role here is to provide some ways to think about the needs of families.

WHO YOU ARE
AND WHAT YOU
BRING TO
CAREGIVING

Everyone has strong feelings and beliefs about what children and caregivers should be like. If you discuss with your colleagues your reactions to a particular child or to a particular caregiving incident, you are likely to discover that people have different reactions, and that feelings on these issues are often surprisingly strong. Where do expectations and feelings about children and caregiving come from? One source is the culture of the community and the larger society; the extent to which you and colleagues come from the same community may determine the similarity of your views. Another source is your own family--the voices that have been telling you from the time you were an infant what is good or bad behavior, what a child should be rewarded or punished for, what a parent should worry about. These voices will exert a strong influence on the kind of reaction people will have to children and their feelings about themselves when grown.

In caring for children, anyone's children, you will be making decisions every day, and you will have to learn what's right for you. As a teacher or student you can take guidance from the values of a child's family and community. As a parent you may be on your own in making your decisions. What we can do is help you be aware of some of the things that affect your decisions. You bring to caregiving a temperament, a history of experiences, a special perspective from your own point in the life cycle, and your own values, expectations, needs, and sense of identity. What are your expectations for children? Considering the stresses, hopes, needs, and conditions that shaped your family's expectations for you, which do you want to apply to the children you care for, which do you want to modify? Finally, what kind of expectations do you want to have for yourself?

EXPLORING CHILDHOOD's message about child rearing is that it is helpful:

· to be aware of the forces that affect the development of a child;

· to gain perspective and ideas for your work with children from the experience of others who have studied and worked with children, from the traditions of your
  ·

own family and community, and from the approaches of other families and other societies;

to build your own approach out of this understanding and perspective, and to explore what feels right for you in terms of your own beliefs, traditions, values, and identity.

Seminar Topic

How do the goals set forth in the preceding paper complement your own in teaching the course?

EXPLORING CHILDHOOD has chosen to examine three theorists-- Jean Piaget, Maria Montessori, and Erik Erikson. Each theory deals with only a small part of the process of development: the growth of mental abilities, the growth of personal identity, and developmentally related ways of learning. It is important to point out to students that a single theory cannot tell you everything about a person's development, but that it may be helpful in interpreting a small part of a person's behavior. Many theories together can complement each other in looking at human behavior. To illustrate this point, we have included a short reading by Selma Fraiberg, "What Good Is a Theory?" and a reading by Mrs. Max West, "Infant Care," which was prepared for the United States Children's Bureau in 1914. Both readings can be duplicated and given to students to illustrate how beliefs about children have changed, and to demonstrate how theories are used as guidelines for understanding a child's behavior and for making decisions about how to respond to a child.

What Good is a Theory?[1]

But now what are the practical uses of these researches in child development? The parent who has spent the night with a howling infant may have little appreciation for the interesting theories which I have presented here. There are so many practical problems in the rearing of an infant, so many real demands upon the parent. Is there any use in knowing that an infant at one stage experiences the world in one way and at another stage in another way? Do we need to know

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[1] "What Good Is a Theory?" is reprinted by permission of Charles Scribner's Sons from THE MAGIC YEARS by Selma H. Fraiberg. Copyright © 1959 Selma H. Fraiberg.

these fine points in infant development in order to be good parents? Well, strictly speaking, no. Good parents will manage with or without a knowledge of the theory of child development. But with such knowledge I believe that the job of rearing a child can be made easier. The unease, the uncertainty and anxiety which is experienced by even the best of parents when presented with a child's incomprehensible behavior can be alleviated at least in part by such knowledge. Further--and now we are very practical--it is this knowledge which can guide the parent in handling the difficult situations, in helping the child overcome the typical problems of each stage of development.

Let's begin with an illustration, one of the practical problems which may emerge in the first three months of life. On behalf of the sleepless parents let's take an affliction of early infancy which creates very practical problems for parents. We can describe the problem in this way: The infant cries fitfully for hours. He may doze off after a lusty meal and wake up an hour later whimpering, crying fretfully, then screaming. If his mother holds him he may subside for a while, but soon the howling begins again. He is not ill. He does not have colic. We'll assume for purposes of this illustration that a physician has examined the child and finds no medical problem. What is this then? "He must be hungry," his mother says, but doubtfully, recalling a prodigious meal. He is offered another feeding, but after a short time it's clear this isn't what he wanted at all. But if he isn't hungry, why does he make those sucking motions with his mouth, and why does he seem to want something in his mouth?

We need to have a theory. Let's try an old one, first, "He is spoiled and he just wants attention. He is using crying as a weapon against his parents, as a means of getting his own way." Now this theory is based on the premise that an under-three-month-old infant has the mental equipment to carry out a plot against his parents, that he takes pleasure in disturbing their sleep and in exercising his tyranny over them. In order to carry out such a diabolical scheme the infant would have to have (1) an idea (2) a perception of events in an objective world (3) at least a rudimentary ability to see causal relations. Our knowledge of the mental equipment of the under-three-month-old infant will not support this theory. He can't yet have an idea that his behavior can influence events in an objective world since he has neither ideas nor a perception of self in relation to an objective world.

Let's try another theory which takes into account the needs and the equipment of the infant of this age. At this stage his behavior is still motivated by urgent biological needs. Any disturbance which he manifests will be produced by pain or discomfort originating in a body organ. Either organic illness or an unsatisfied body need will produce pain or discomfort in the infant of this age. Since we have ruled out organic disturbance as a primary cause in this disturbance, we need to examine the problem as an unsatisfied body urge. Since we have also ruled out hunger as a factor, we need to look further. But the patient won't talk.

We observe his behavior during these crying sessions. In the moments that he is not crying the mouth makes urgent sucking motions and sometimes the hand will find its way into the mouth to be vigorously sucked. This suggests the possibility that the unsatisfied need which we are searching for is connected with sucking. But how can that be? Haven't we established the fact that this infant has been fed and is not hungry? True. But we also know that sucking is experienced by the infant as a need which is independent of hunger. It is largely satisfied through nursing, especially in the breast-fed infant who has to work hard for his meal, but a large number of babies are left, even after feeding, with still unsatisfied sucking needs and this is experienced as an unbearable tension in the mouth. It is this tension which produces the disturbance we have described. Since this need is very specific we find that walking the baby, offering him more food, any of the usual means of comfort, will have little or no effect.

If we are right, if this distress is unsatisfied sucking need, then the provision of additional sucking should alleviate the discomfort. In the last few years a few very perceptive pediatricians began to try the old-fashioned pacifier with the infants who showed all these signs of unsatisfied sucking need. In all but a very small percentage of cases this disturbance, which had long baffled parents and pediatricians, cleared up in a short time!

But isn't there a danger that a pacifier might be habit-forming? Dr. Spock, who has furthered the cause of the pacifier as a specific measure for this specific need, has shown that it is rarely "habit forming" and, as a matter of fact, most babies on whom it has been tried begin to lose interest in the pacifier when the intense sucking needs begin to subside. I have observed that around three or four months there is diminished interest in the pacifier in those babies who used it and this corresponds to our observations that the sucking need also begins to lose its urgent and

imperative quality around this stage. At the point where
the baby himself begins to lose interest in the pacifier
it's probably a good idea to withdraw it gradually and see
if he can't manage without it. If he still seems to need
it, one can restore it to him temporarily.

I think we might only run into difficulties in the use of
a pacifier if we continue to use it in later months, quite
literally as a pacifier, that is to keep the baby quiet. In
the last half of the first year it is unlikely that the baby
needs additional sucking from a pacifier. Its continued use,
then, may be due to other causes. Perhaps a busy mother has
found it too easy to quiet the baby by putting the pacifier
in his mouth. Here there is a chance that the baby will
become attached to the pacifier as a kind of all-purpose
soother and we don't want to encourage this tendency.

The problem of unsatisfied sucking need and the use of the
pacifier for supplementary sucking is a good demonstration
of the relationship of theory to practice. As long as the
cause of this infant disturbance was unknown or misconstrued,
we could find no workable solutions. If we operate on the
old theory that the infant is a cunning fellow who plots the
overthrow of his parents behind the bars of his crib, then
our methods of handling this disturbance will be based on
principles of counter revolution. As a matter of fact that
is just about what happened in the nurseries of thirty years
ago. Well-intentioned parents, confronted with a screaming
infant who was neither hungry, wet nor sick, maintained a
siege on the other side of the nursery door, heroically re-
sisting the onslaught from within, each parent holding the
other back from the weakness of surrender, for the rebel's
character was in danger if they gave an inch, and the ques-
tion of Who Was To Be Master of This House was being settled
this night.

Today we wince at these memories of an earlier child train-
ing. This victory over a three-month-old infant seems
shabby and pointless to our modern views. And while the
infant of this age does not consciously hold grudges, the
urgent drives of this period are not diverted by an act of
will on the part of parents. If satisfaction is denied them,
the tension increases and will be discharged through crying,
fretfulness, disturbances of eating, elimination, or sleep.
In the end the drives are victorious in early infancy.
There was no victory over them in the "let them cry it out"
nursery of the '20's; the drives avenged themselves in the
increase in those disturbances of infancy which derive from
unsatisfied urges. There was no "discipline" achieved then
or now for the tiny infant because he has no equipment to
cooperate with us in the management of his drives.

Habits, Training and Discipline[1]

Habits are the result of repeated actions. A properly trained baby is not allowed to learn bad habits which must be unlearned later at great cost of time and patience to both mother and babe. The wise mother strives to start the baby right.

SYSTEMATIC
CARE

In order to establish good habits in the baby, the mother must first be aware what they are, and then how to induce them. Perhaps the first and most essential good habit is that of regularity. This begins at birth, and applies to all the physical functions of the baby--eating, sleeping, and bowel movements. The care of a baby is readily reduced to a system unless he is sick. Such a system is not only one of the greatest factors in keeping the baby well and in training him in a way which will be of value to him all through life, but reduces the work of the mother to the minimum and provides for her certain assured periods of rest and recreation.

As a sample of what is meant by a system in baby care the following plan is suggested, which may be variously modified to suit particular cases:

6 a.m., baby's first nursing.
Family breakfast; children off to school.
9 a.m., baby's bath, followed by second nursing.
Baby sleeps until noon.
12 to 12.30, baby's noon meal.
Out-of-door airing and nap.
3 to 3.30 p.m., afternoon nursing.
Period of waking.
6 to 7 p.m., baby's supper and bed.

It is quite feasible to have the baby's night meal at 11.30 or 12 o'clock, in order to give the mother a chance to spend an occasional evening in pleasant recreation.

PLAYING WITH
THE BABY

The rule that parents should not play with the baby may seem hard, but it is without doubt a safe one. A young, delicate, or nervous baby especially needs rest and quiet, and however

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[1] Reprinted from *Infant Care*, by Mrs. Max West, United States Children's Bureau, Pub. No. 8 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1914).

robust the child much of the play that is indulged in is
more or less harmful. It is a great pleasure to hear the
baby laugh and crow in apparent delight, but often the means
used to produce the laughter, such as tickling, punching, or
tossing makes him irritable and restless. It is a regret-
table fact that the few minutes of play that the father has
when he gets home at night, which is often almost the only
time he has with the child, may result in nervous disturb-
ance of the baby and upset his regular habits.

The mother should not kiss the baby directly on the mouth,
nor permit others to do so, as infections of various kinds
are spread in this way. She needs also to be cautioned
about rocking the baby, jumping him up and down on her knee,
tossing him, shaking his bed or carriage, and, in general,
keeping him in constant motion. All these things disturb
the baby's nerves and make him more and more dependent upon
these attentions. But this is not to say that the baby
should be left alone too completely. All babies need "moth-
ering," and should have plenty of it. When the young baby
is awake he should frequently be taken up and held quietly
in the mother's arms, in a variety of positions, so that no
one set of muscles may become overtired. An older child
should be taught to sit on the floor or in his pen or crib
during part of his waking hours, or he will be very likely
to make too great demands upon the mother's strength. No
one who has not tried it realizes how much nervous energy
can be consumed in "minding" a baby who can creep or walk
about, and who must be continually watched and diverted, and
the mother who is taking the baby through this period of his
life will need to conserve all her strength, and not waste
it in useless forms of activity.

EARLY
TRAINING

The training in the use of individual judgment can be begun
even in infancy; a child should early be taught to choose
certain paths of action for himself; and if he is continu-
ally and absolutely forbidden to do this or that he is some-
times seriously handicapped later, because he does not know
how to use his own reasoning faculties in making these
choices. On the other hand, obedience is one of the most
necessary lessons for children to learn. A wise mother will
not abuse her privilege in this respect by a too-exacting
practice. For the most part she can exert her control
otherwise than by commands, and if she does so her authority
when exercised will have greater force and instant obedience
will be more readily given.

Most of the naughtiness of infancy can be traced to physical causes. Babies who are fussy, restless, and fretful are usually either uncomfortable in some way because they have not been properly fed and taken care of, are sick or ailing, or have been indulged too much. On the other hand, babies who are properly fed, who are kept clean, and have plenty of sleep and fresh air, and who have been trained in regular habits of life, have no cause for being "bad" and are therefore "good."

It must not be forgotten that the period of infancy is a period of education often of greater consequence than any other two years of life. Not only are all the organs and functions given their primary education, but the faculties of the mind as well receive those initial impulses that determine very largely their direction and efficiency through life. The first nervous impulse which passes through the baby's eyes, ears, fingers, or mouth to the tender brain makes a pathway for itself; the next time another impulse travels over the same path it deepens the impression of the first. It is because the brain is so sensitive to these impressions in childhood that we remember throughout life things that have happened in our early years while nearer events are entirely forgotten. If, therefore, these early stimuli are sent in orderly fashion, the habits thus established and also the tendency to form such habits will persist throughout life.

Seminar Topic

What is your reaction to the preceding readings? Do the readings help you think about the use of theory any differently? How?

Understanding the Theorists

The biographies of the three theorists and the descriptions of their theories of child development were included in *Making Connections* in order to acquaint students with the lives of specific theorists so that they might have a view of the context from which their theories came, to present students with specific theories they can draw on in working with children, and to help students understand the process of interpreting events.

It is important that students recognize that their own beliefs about children's behavior, which they have based on their experience as children and with children, are valid and important. Reading the theorists should be seen as an opportunity to compare their own conclusions about

development with conclusions drawn by others, rather than as "learning the right answers."

PROCEDURE

You might assign the readings to three small groups, one reading per group. Each can then report to the class about the life and work of that theorist. The class could then draw comparisons among the theorists. The bibliography on page 63 of this book should prove useful to anyone in the class who is interested in further reading.

You could also treat the theorist readings as resources to individual students. Students who choose to read about one or more of the theorists might give an oral report to the class, or write a descriptive paper on, for example, the behavior of children at their fieldsite as seen through the eyes of the theorist.

A third procedure would be to read one theorist at a time aloud in class, and then do some of the activities suggested below (in class and at the fieldsite) in order to make the theorists more understandable to the students. Can you and the class think of other activities that might be useful in examining the theorists?

APPLYING THE IDEAS OF ERIKSON[1]

The following observations and activities can be helpful in examining some of Erik Erikson's beliefs:

1. Erikson believes that, around the age of three, children begin to imitate the sex and role models they see in their society. Students might observe children of different ages playing in the doll corner or the carpentry corner in order to determine at what age children begin to limit their activity to roles expected by the society. (See also sections of the film, "All in the Game.") Students could discuss whether the roles children assume are inborn or taught to them by society. How does society teach such roles to children? Suggest looking at children's books to see what roles are described for boys and for girls. What do students' decisions about what is sex-appropriate behavior say about their own concepts of male/female roles?

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[1] Portions of this section were adapted from *A Child's Eye View of People* (© 1973 Education Development Center), developed by Susan Thomas.

Another way to examine different perceptions of sex roles in children is to conduct informal interviews, asking children such questions as: "What do daddys do? What do mommys do? Would you rather be a daddy or a mommy when you grow up?"

2. Students can think more about Erikson's ideas on trust by trying the following activity.

One student stands in the middle of a tight circle of other students. The student in the middle stands straight, then falls backward toward the circle. It will be up to the other students to catch him or her and prevent a fall to the floor. This exercise should be done several times by each student. They should then quickly write in their journals the thoughts and feelings they had as they did the trust exercise.

How does trust influence your view of others?

The "Trust Fall" exercise will help students concentrate on the feelings that are generated by a situation in which one must depend on others. The exercise is not necessary for understanding Erikson's theory, nor is it exactly analagous; students who do it should be asked to think about how their sense of trust differs from that of an infant or young child, and how they think their sense of trust has developed (i.e., what has been added or changed as a result of their own development).

What was it like the first time you fell? Did you trust the students to catch you? What encouraged you to trust them? Were there reasons that made it hard to trust them?

What other activities do you engage in together that bring out feelings of trust and mistrust?

Consider falling with just one student behind you to catch you. Are there some students you would trust more than others to catch you? Why?

According to Erikson, what are the circumstances that influence the baby's sense of trust? What experiences might make it difficult for a child to develop trust in other people? How could a sense of trust or mistrust influence the way a child views other people?

3. To explore feelings in children of autonomy versus shame or doubt, or trust versus distrust, students might invent unfinished stories and ask children to finish them. For example, the story could describe a child who gets new clothes for her birthday, which she likes and is proud of, but which other children make fun of. Would the child wear the clothes again or not? What would children's responses tell students about the children's feelings?

4. *What is autonomy?* Autonomy might be considered feeling self-reliant, and being free to make your own choices without control by others.

> In what ways can a two- or three-year-old be self-reliant?

> How might other people help a child develop a sense of autonomy at home or in school?

> Why might they interfere with his or her choices or decisions?

Autonomy is an issue for people of any age. How is autonomy an issue for teenagers in each of these areas:

> · attending school?

> · having a boyfriend or girlfriend?

> · watching TV or pursuing other leisure activities?

> · going places?

> · studying?

> · staying up late at night?

The young child's sense of autonomy is most influenced by his or her parents.

> Who else besides your parents might restrict your autonomy?

Now that students have taken a look at the concepts of trust and autonomy, they can do a short observation at their fieldsite to find out more about these ideas. They should make a list of examples for each of the four questions below.

Children need to be able to trust others, and to make assumptions about how adults and other children will behave.

What do children at your fieldsite seem to count on from adults? from other children?

The child is learning how much control he or she is going to be able to have over his or her body.

What examples of self-reliance and freedom of choice do the children show?

How do people and the contents of the room encourage autonomy?

In what ways do people or the contents of the room limit autonomy?

Before students begin this exercise, go over the questions with them to discuss what they expect to find, based on their fieldsite experience thus far. To facilitate data-gathering, students might make up an observation with the following categories:

Examples of children trusting adults	Examples of children trusting children
Examples of self-reliance	Examples of freedom of choice
Examples of encouragement (people)	Examples of encouragement (environment)
Examples of limits (people)	Examples of limits (environment)

5. At around 2 1/2, children experimenting with materials try building things up and knocking them down, with no goal in mind. Erikson would describe their activity as exercising their "autonomy" and power over the materials. Children begin to show a sense of "industry" at around 5 years, when they become interested in building something to keep.

Students could set up an activity for children that involves building or making something (or they might watch children who are already engaged in some activity like block play, or clay play--see film, "Clay Play" in *Children's Art*). Are the children experimenting with only the materials, or are they using the materials to achieve a goal, a product? What do students notice about the feelings children bring to the project? Do they seem frustrated? assertive? playful? industrious?

6. Name as many situations as you can that require high school students to use their initiative.

What risk taking is involved in each example?

What do you think helps give a person confidence in using his or her initiative?

How might adults help young children develop a sense of initiative?

On your next visit to the fieldsite, consider to what extent these two Eriksonian stages may affect how children perceive people--others and themselves:

Sense of Initiative: What kinds of risk taking and explorations do children attempt? In what ways do others limit and encourage children's risk taking?

Sense of Industry: What examples of concern with mastering skills or tools do you find? What examples can you find of children seeing others as sources of comparison, judges of competence, someone to learn from?

Students can make an observation form like the following to facilitate their observation of how the sense of initiative and the sense of industry enter into children's interactions with others.

Remind students that the concomitants of trust, autonomy, initiative, and industry are mistrust, shame, guilt, and feelings of inferiority. We all have these emotions, and

they can be expected to surface at moments of stress or
anxiety. Thus, it should come as no surprise to see signs
of these emotions in children at the fieldsite.

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│                  SENSE OF INITIATIVE                      │
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│                                                          │
│   Examples of risks and exploration:                     │
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│   Examples of people who limit:                          │
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│   Examples of people who encourage:                      │
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│                   SENSE OF INDUSTRY                       │
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│   Attempts at mastery of skills and tools:               │
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│   Examples of viewing others as sources of comparison:   │
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│   Examples of viewing others as judges of competence:    │
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│   Examples of viewing others as persons to learn from:   │
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7. Students might compare Erikson's description of adolescence as a period of identity-seeking and role-confusion with their own descriptions of themselves ("Development Is...," p. 2, *Making Connections)*.

Do they agree with Erikson? Does his theory describe at least a part of their experience as adolescents?

APPLYING
THE IDEAS
OF PIAGET

Students might do some of the following observations and activities in order to examine some of Jean Piaget's beliefs. Remind students that they have already done several activities that illustrate Piaget's theories. For example, in *Child's Eye View*, students tried the "Birthday Present" game at the fieldsite to test children's ability to see others' points of view. And in *How the World Works*, students may have done experiments with equal amounts of clay, water, or beads in different shapes.

1. To illustrate Piaget's theories about the way children adapt to the materials in the environment, students might try giving a child an object he or she has never used before (perhaps papier mâché). They can then observe closely to see how the child adapts the new object to his or her usual working method, and how the new object alters the usual working method. For example, papier mâché or play dough could be introduced after work with clay. Students might compare children's reactions in this activity to Enroue's new experience with paints after working with crayons (see film, "Racing Cars"), or to their own experience with a new material in the "Eyedropper Experiment" (*Children's Art.)*

2. The following activity with plants will provide an analogy to Piaget's ideas about adaptation. Bring to class some plant cuttings from easy-to-root plants such as philodendron, Swedish ivy, or passion plant. Plant some of these in water and others directly in soil. After a few weeks, roots should be well developed and growing. Comparing the cuttings, students should find that water roots are much thicker and heavier than soil roots. Cuttings that have been in water too long will not be able to adapt their roots to soil. While the roots of the plants serve the same function--to assimilate food from the medium--they have developed different structures to fulfill it. In the same way, Piaget would say that development is the process of adapting our skills and method of dealing with the environment in accordance with the particular environment. How are the child's adaptations to the environment different from those made by plants?

APPLYING THE
IDEAS OF
MONTESSORI

The following observations and activities will be helpful in examining some of Maria Montessori's beliefs.

You and the students might look at a catalogue of materials for Montessori schools, visit a Montessori school, or invite a Montessori teacher to come to class with some materials for children. In the appendix is a transcript of an interview with a teacher who discusses the application of Montessori's theory to the classroom.

> What did the toy maker intend for the child to
> learn? What does the toy show about the maker's
> beliefs about *how* children learn?

For example, since Montessori believed that learning comes through all of the senses, alphabet letters have textures as well as distinct shapes.

The class might write to the American Montessori Society in New York, or look at illustrations of Montessori materials in *Montessori in the Home* (Jerome Study Group, Elad Press). Students might then look at materials in a nonMontessori fieldsite and consider how they might be used in a "Montessorian way."

> How are the beliefs about learning that students
> have seen reflected in Montessori materials also
> reflected in the physical organization of Montessori
> classrooms? of daily schedules?

THINKING
ABOUT ALL
THREE
THEORISTS

Different beliefs can help us to look at similar events through different lenses, gaining different insights. To make this point, you might share the following examples with students and then ask them to make fieldsite observations with the viewpoint of each of the three different theorists. For example, a child who repeatedly throws a ball, retrieves it, and throws it again might be, in Piaget's view, experimenting with motor abilities, learning the power of her arm, and experimenting with the nature of the ball and the relationship between throwing it and seeing it bounce (causality). Erikson, on the other hand, might feel that the same behavior shows the child intruding herself on the world and exercising the force of her ego. A similar overlap in views might be seen in children's water play or work in carpentry. The point is that the theorists do not necessarily contradict one another, but they offer *complementary* ways of viewing behavior. Each view is valuable, because each shows us another dimension.

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Students might also make "theorist observations" of the films. *Making Connections* (p. 18) suggests reviewing the film "Racing Cars" and discussing how each of the theorists might have explained Enroue's actions. To organize the class for this activity, you might divide it into three groups, asking each group to be one of the theorists. After the film, each group should report back to the class about how they, as "the theorists," interpreted what they saw. Ask students to substantiate their interpretations with references to their reading on the theorists.

Seminar Activity

Purpose: To practice applying theory by taking another's point of view.

Seminar participants might divide into three groups, each assuming the point of view of one of the three theorists described in *Making Connections*. View the film "Racing Cars" to see if Enroue's behavior can be described in terms of the theorist's beliefs.

What difficulties do you encounter in doing this activity? Are there difficulties in understanding the theories themselves? in seeing one individual's behavior in terms of a theory?

What difficulties might students encounter in this activity? How might you help students to overcome these difficulties?

Seminar Topic

Purpose: To look at a particular theory to determine its usefulness for work with adolescents.

Read the following description of adolescence by Erikson, and discuss whether or not you find it accurate. Does it help you to see adolescent behavior in a new light? Explain.

Young people can be remarkably clannish, and cruel in their exclusion of all those who are "different," in skin color or cultural background, in tastes and gifts, and often in such petty aspects of dress and gesture as have been temporarily selected as the signs of an in-grouper or out-grouper. It is important to understand (which does not mean condone or

Becoming: Creating a Theory of Child Development

It is now the students' task to create a theory of develop-
ment. Using the chart on page 7 of their booklet and
following the directions for the exercise "Many Directions,"
students should respond to the ideas listed under the head-
ing "Being." Do they agree with what is there? Why or
why not? Encourage students to add to the chart their own
descriptions of development in the young children they work
with, or new ideas they may have learned from the theorists.

On the other side of the chart, under the heading "Becoming,"
students should hypothesize about the changes that might
occur in the young child. The partially completed chart
might look like this:

PATTERNS IN DEVELOPMENT

Being....	Becoming....
fully occupied with the "here and now."	interested in the past, aware of the future, curious about other places.
concerned with self, with satisfying his or her own strong needs, wishes, curiosities.	able to consider the needs, wishes, viewpoints, and experiences of others.
focused on just one thing at a time.	able to keep more than one thing in mind at a time, to follow a series of in- structions, to make plans and carry them out.
certain that others see things from his or her point of view.	making an effort to offer explanations that fit his or her experience, as well as the explanations others offer, increasingly in- volved with other people and with events outside his or her immediate experience.

You should remind students that hypotheses need to be tested; generate several methods for doing so. For example, students could interview the parents of the children they work with, or other teachers or pediatricians; they could look at data collected in observations and compare it to their hypotheses; they could make new observations (or redo previous observations in light of hypotheses) over a two- or three-month period, focusing on a particular area only; they could review their journals for changes that they have recorded; they could photograph young children's group interactions over time.

In making statements about how children change and in thinking about the directions that the theory may be pointing to, students should realize that they, too, are creators of theories. They might compare and contrast what they have said with what the theorists said in their booklet.

Discussion should shift from the theory itself to the applicability of the theory.

> Does knowing something about the way children will change help you work more effectively with them, or understand them better? Why or why not?

Here the class might create an activity for young children that supports the children's development in light of the theory they have created. For example, if students theorize that children are testing their own physical prowess, they might design an activity that offers a variety of physical challenges to the child.

Becoming: Creating a Theory of Adolescent Development

Building on the previous lesson, students should create a new "Being-Becoming" chart for themselves. Taking what they said about themselves in a previous lesson, and what Montessori, Piaget, and Erikson or Freud (see reading in *The Role of the Adolescent* seminar) have said about adolescents, list these under the heading "Being." Then shift the focus to the future and ask:

> In what directions are you changing? What will you become? How?

From the individual responses, can a hypothesis be drawn about the directions of change in adolescents? Help students pool their individual lists on the board, categorize their responses, and list them under the heading "Becoming" on the chart. The charts should be brought to the seminar meeting, where they could be compared and discussed.

Seminar
Topic

It is sometimes difficult for people to see and talk about changes as they go through them. This is certainly true for the adolescents in your classes. It is an extremely difficult task for the teacher to help adolescents understand all the changes happening to them, and to help them develop their sense of identity. Engaging students in dialogue about the changes they are immersed in, and encouraging students to give advice and exchange ideas and value positions with each other, is an important part of the EXPLORING CHILDHOOD classroom.

Have you been able to get your students to talk about the changes they are going through? How?

What kinds of changes are your students talking about? Are your actions in the classroom (fieldsite) affected by knowledge of the changes your students are engaged in, or by the readings on the theorists?

Can you think of any instance when your new acquaintance with theories of adolescence helped you understand a particular student better? Explain.

SEMINAR
ACTIVITY

Divide into three groups to consider the theories of adolescent development and the Being-Becoming charts in which your students described directions of growth in themselves. Develop a lesson that may help students' growth in one of these directions.

Seminar
Activity

Purpose: To learn about others' perceptions of adults and how they might affect adolescent behavior.

As students move from adolescence to adulthood, they receive mixed messages from the adult community about what an adult is. Most people would agree that taking on the role of a caregiver to children is being an adult. Yet students often complain, "If I can be considered an adult at the fieldsite, why can't I be considered an adult back at the high school?" Look at the following list of adult characteristics and discuss the list and subsequent questions.[1]

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[1] This activity is reprinted from EXPLORING HUMAN NATURE, Unit 3, Book III, a course under development at EDC.

<u>You are recognized as an adult if</u>:

you can vote.

you are married.

you have children of your own.

you think you are an adult.

you can get married without your parents' consent.

you are 16 years old.

you can buy beer.

you have a place to live away from your parents.

you support yourself.

you do not go to school.

other people think you are an adult.

you have a job.

you support someone else.

you are 18 years old.

you come and go as you please.

you have a clear sense of who you are and what you want in life.

you are in the armed forces.

you are physically mature.

you are 21 years old.

you are legally responsible for your own actions.

you can buy your own car.

you are 30 years old.

you are in love with someone who loves you.

What happens in our own society? How do young people in America gain recognition as adults? What must an individual do to be accepted in the adult world? From the list, choose the phrases that you think describe criteria by which people in our society are recognized as adults. Which of these do you think are the most important measures of adulthood? Which are not that important? Which of these criteria are absolutely necessary for recognition as an adult in our culture?

Discuss the group's responses to the questions. Consider:

    As teachers how can we help our students manage the transition to adulthood?

    Does EXPLORING CHILDHOOD help you help your students in this transition? How?

Seminar Activity

> Purpose: To reflect on your own growth in EXPLORING CHILDHOOD.

For you, too, changes are constantly taking place. At the seminar meeting, each participant might draw up a "Being-Becoming" chart for him- or herself. Describe yourself as a teacher--your skills, abilities, knowledge, and attitudes. How do you think you are changing? Has the teaching of EXPLORING CHILDHOOD contributed in any way to those changes? How? Give a concrete example of an action by a child or an adolescent that changed your view of him or her. In what ways has participating in the teacher seminars helped you in your own development?

Share your chart with the other participants to determine if the changes have been similar, and to discuss possible causes for those changes.

Beyond Seven

To find patterns of development in adults, students might repeat the "Being-Becoming" chart for adults, using the

descriptions of development in adults listed previously (see page 19 of this book). You can now add new descriptions and patterns of development in children, adolescents, and adults to the Data Poster. Seeing this combined data should help students understand that development occurs throughout life, that the same patterns are true of development at all ages, and that development moves in many different directions and at different rates.

Following the directions for the "Beyond Seven" exercise, assist the class in adding to the original Data Poster. The descriptions of children, adolescents, and adults that were done earlier should be included (see pp. 8, 19, this book). Add three *additional* columns to the poster, then list *patterns* of development in children and adolescents that were derived in the "Being and Becoming" exercise, and patterns of development just derived for adults.

> What similarities and differences do students see
> in the patterns describing development in children,
> adolescents, and adults?

> What might account for these similarities or differ-
> ences?

Seminar Topic

> Purposes: To identify students' perceptions of
> adults; to determine the effect of these
> perceptions on teaching and learning.

It would be worthwhile for the seminar participants to share what students have said about adults. This can be helpful to you as a teacher because it will provide you with a new dimension in understanding how the adolescent perceives others. Understanding others' perception of you makes for better communication between you, and this, after all, is a major goal of teaching.

> Are the adolescents' perceptions of adults congruent
> or divergent with yours? How do you deal with the
> differences?

Now that students have outlined their theory of development on the Data Poster, their attention should turn to a final discussion question:

Does development always mean "getting better"?

If students have trouble dealing with this question, you might ask:

> Do children become better able to deal with the environment as they develop? Explain.

Students should give a concrete example of one aspect of development in a child or adolescent they have observed that gave him or her more options.

The foregoing questions could become a debate topic in class, with several students on each side of the question presenting evidence from class discussion, course materials, readings, observations, fieldwork, and their experience of their own development. Perhaps several students might take the following point of view expressed by Jerome Kagan, a psychologist who has helped in the development of EXPLORING CHILDHOOD:

IS THERE
A GOAL TO
DEVELOPMENT?

Is a child growing toward some ideal goal? Some psychologists assume that there is an ideal end-point toward which all children move a little each day. By contrast, others assume that the child is not traveling in any special direction. Both Sigmund Freud and Jean Piaget assumed ideal goals in development; Skinner does not. For Freud the mature adult was free of anxiety surrounding sexuality, free of serious conflicts learned in childhood, and able to establish a gratifying love relationship. For Piaget, maturity was the ability to deduce conclusions and to think logically about abstract ideas. The scientist and mathematician are the ideal mature types in Piagetian theory. By contrast, psychologists committed to learning theory do not assume the child is traveling in any special direction, even though his behavior changes every day. Rather than assume that all children in the world are moving toward the same goal, it is useful to play with the notion that each child is trying to adapt to the demands of his specific psychological environment. The goal of his development will depend on where he lives. An Eskimo child must learn to inhibit all displays of temper and aggression if he is to remain on good terms with his family and friends. The ideally mature adult, therefore, is self-controlled and rarely angry. An urban American child must learn to defend himself against attack from peers and the ideally mature adult, it is believed, should be capable of reacting with appropriate anger and aggression if attacked or threatened. Neither control nor expression of anger should be regarded as the more mature way to live. Each is appropriate to the setting in which the child and adult lives.

The remainder of the class should be "the audience." At the
end of the presentation, hold a general discussion so that
the audience can express their own points of view.

Seminar Topic

In class discussions where the students present conflicting
value positions, the teacher's role is important in main-
taining open, creative dialogue. What should that role be?
Below are three roles described by Newmann and Oliver:

"(1) The *neutral, objective, disinterested bystander* is some-
one who seldom takes a personal position on issues. Instead,
he states arguments for various sides of the issue, summarizes
the progress of discussion, and requests clarification on
student views. He is a dispassionate moderator, trying to
draw the best from opposing advocates, trying to create a
civilized group discussion. (2) The *Socratic devil's advo-
cate* also refuses to take a firm personal stand, but he is
less cooperative and agreeable than the neutral summarizer.
The devil's advocate acts as a gadfly trying constantly to
expose the weaknesses and confusions in everyone's position.
He shifts positions, depending upon what stance is necessary
to raise troublesome questions. He is less concerned with
producing consensus and closure, and more concerned with
demonstrating how none of the advocates have completely
defensible views. He tries to point out to everyone com-
plexities and inconsistencies in their positions that they
had apparently never considered. (3) The *committed advocate*
is concerned primarily with persuading students that his
position on a given issue is the most reasonable one. Al-
though the neutral summarizer and the devil's advocate may
inform students of their personal views on an issue, they
deliberately attempt to prevent these from influencing the
outcome of classroom inquiry. The committed advocate, how-
ever, not only informs students about his views, he tries to
convince students that his views are right. He might use
tactics of the devil's advocate and the neutral observer in
doing this, but his major intent is neither producing an
interesting discussion nor raising self-searching challenges,
but to persuade students to adopt a particular stance on a
given issue."[1]

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[1] Reprinted from *Clarifying Public Controversy: An Approach
to Teaching Social Studies*, by Fred Newmann and Donald
Oliver (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1970), p. 294.

Teachers may also make "clarifying responses" to their students' statements--to help them clarify their values. A clarifying response avoids criticizing, and puts the responsibility on the student to look at his or her behavior and ideas, and to think about what he or she wants. It attempts to stimulate thought relative to what the person does or says.[1]

Do any of these roles seem appropriate for EXPLORING CHILDHOOD classrooms? Have you or will you play any of them? Can you describe other roles you have played while helping students resolve their value conflicts?

Seminar Activity

Purpose: To learn and to practice new roles to play during class discussions involving value conflicts.

As a large seminar group, discussion should focus on:

Does development always mean "getting better"?

The seminar leader can play one of the roles suggested by Newmann and Oliver, while the other group members express their points of view. After about fifteen minutes of discussion, a participant from the group may take the place of the leader and lead the discussion while demonstrating another role. Or perhaps the leader or another group member could work on creating a fourth role for the Newmann-Oliver list. For instance, in EXPLORING CHILDHOOD, the teacher's role may begin with a statement of his or her personal point of view, and then purposefully change to the role of objective moderator or devil's advocate, in order to demonstrate to students that all people can function as persons *and* professionals at the same time.

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[1] For more information on valuing and clarifying responses, and on other teaching strategies for helping students clarify their values and deal with controversial issues, see *Values and Teaching: Working with Values in the Classroom*, by Louis Ruths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney Simon (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1966). See also *Values Clarification*, by Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum (New York: Hart Publishing Co., 1972), as well as Newmann and Oliver's *Clarifying Public Controversy*.

A Development Project

This is an activity that your students should enjoy; it offers each student a chance to choose an area of child development that interests him or her, and to present material in a medium that is personally pleasing.

The scheduling of this activity is not critical; it can be discussed and planned for at any time during your work on *Making Connections*, and the presentations can be done whenever the projects are completed. Many of the projects will be visual, so you might set up a display area. If other students want to present the material themselves to their classmates, a few minutes might be allotted at the beginning of several classes for one or two presentations and a brief discussion of the view of development that each project represented.

To plan the projects, initiate a discussion of the list of project ideas on page 8 in the student book, explaining that these and other activities can be undertaken from one of two viewpoints:

> an understanding of what the world is like. (The activity will be appropriate to or sympathetic with a particular age or stage of development.)

> an inquiry into an area that *spans* a period of development. (The activity will reflect change over that time.)

You might also use the following activities to form the basis of a discussion. How would one or more of these activities be planned and executed?

1. Build a toy or piece of furniture for a child.

2. Plan a walk or field trip with a group of children.

3. Plan a birthday party.

4. Plan exercises to do with children.

5. Work out a baby sitter's schedule, including menus and feeding times, naps, play times, things the child may fuss about.

What will you have to understand about children before you begin? (physical size, coordination, interests, attention span, safety needs, etc.)

What does your understanding of development tell you about how many children to have in a group, how long to make your activity, how physically demanding, what interests the children have that would assure their interest in the activity, etc.?

Students should be allowed to work independently or in small groups on these projects, but the teacher should ask each student or group to submit a plan before they begin preparations. The plan should include:

- a description of the project itself, and a statement of how it is linked to the student's understanding of development (Will the project describe one age or stage of development, or will it deal with development over time?);

- names of those working on the activity, and what each will do;

- the final form of the project;

- how and to whom the project will be presented;

- a time schedule.

Students should be able to work on their projects in small groups during class time. The class might come together periodically to discuss how each project is going, and to get advice from each other's groups.

When each project is presented, allow a few minutes for discussion:

Did the project describe development?

Does the activity represent a view of development that is shared by most of the other members of the class?

If the project is geared to one specific stage of development, do students have any suggestions of ways in which it might be adapted to suit other ages or stages?

Appendices

Annotated Bibliography

The following bibliography may be helpful to those interested in pursuing a deeper understanding of the works of the theorists presented in Seeing Development.

Erikson:

E. H. Erikson. *Childhood and Society*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1950, 424 pages. A comprehensive and eloquent statement of Erikson's theory. Contains case studies suitable for class discussion.

E. H. Erikson. *Identity: Youth and Crisis*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1968, 336 pages. A thorough study of the adolescent in society.

Robert Coles. *Erik Erikson*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1970, 440 pages. A biography of Erik Erikson, including a complete summary of his theories. Well written.

Piaget:

J. Piaget. "Piaget's Theory," in *Carmichael's Manual of Child Psychology*, Mussen, ed., 3rd edition. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1970. Latest statement of his views by Piaget himself, who acknowledges that his theory is always changing. Contrasts the Piagetian view with other prominent psychological formulations. Somewhat technical.

J. Piaget and B. Inhelder. *Psychology of the Child*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., Publishers, 1969, 173 pages. A straightforward, condensed view of the principal developmental stages, as seen by Piaget and his principal collaborator.

Hans Furth. *Piaget for Teachers*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970, 163 pages. The pedagogical implications of Piaget's theory. Reviews principal concepts and discusses educational approaches in different subject areas. Answers questions commonly raised by teachers.

Hans Furth. *Piaget and Knowledge*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969, 265 pages. Detailed examination and interpretation of Piaget's theory. Includes seminal passages from Piaget's own writings. Places Piaget's theory in its proper biological perspective. Contains excellent glossary of Piaget's terms. Technical.

Howard Gardner. *The Quest for Mind*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1973, 273 pages (chapter on Piaget, 60 pages). Readable presentation capturing the essentials of Piaget's theory.

Herbert Ginsburg and Sylvia Opper. *Piaget's Theory of Intellectual Development: An Introduction*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969, 237 pages, paper. Good, basic presentation of Piaget's entire theory, clearly and simply written. Describes Piaget's work with infants, children, and adolescents.

David Elkind. *Children and Adolescents, Interpretative Essays on Jean Piaget*. New York: Oxford University Press, Inc., 1969. A well-written, easy-to-read series of essays dealing with Piaget's theories of cognitive growth, beginning with childhood and continuing into adolescence. Uses concrete examples to illustrate theory. See especially chapter 7, "Piaget and Montessori," which compares and contrasts the two theorists' work. Chapter 4, "Egocentrism in Children and Adolescents," is a reading in *Child's Eye View* Teacher's Guide.

Montessori:

Maria Montessori, *The Montessori Method*. Anne E. George, trans. New York: Schocken Books Inc., 1964, paper. The seminal, basic statement of her principles and methodology.

Maria Montessori. *The Secret of Childhood*. New York: Ballantine Books, Inc., 1972, paper. The intelligence, psyche, and work of the child.

Maria Montessori. *The Absorbent Mind*. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1969, paper. The great powers of the child to absorb the environment, transforming it and humankind.

Paula P. Lillard. *Montessori, A Modern Approach*. New York: Schocken Books Inc., 1972. What can happen in a Montessori classroom, and why.

Elizabeth G. Hainstock. *Teaching Montessori in the Home*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1968.

Reginald C. Oren. *Montessori Today*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1971.

Edited Books:

William Kesson, ed. *The Child*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1965, 295 pages. Group of theoretical readings on education, biology, and children, drawn from a variety of Western sources. Contributors include Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Darwin, Preyer, Hall, Binet and Simon, Gesell, Watson, Freud, and Piaget. A useful glimpse of the development of ideas about children.

Tony Talbot, ed. *The World of the Child*. New York: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1967 (Anchor paperback, 1968), 457 pages. Good selection of readings about childhood, including general essays on the nature of childhood, specific papers on special topics (babbling, art, humor), and some discussion of education.

Dale Harris, ed. *The Concept of Development*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1957, 287 pages. Theoretical essays on the concept of development seen from the perspectives of psychologists, philosophers, natural scientists, doctors, and humanists. Contributors include Nagel, Schneirla, Heinz Werner, Robert Sears.

Other Theorists:

Jerome Bruner, Rose Olver, and Patricia Greenfield. *Studies in Cognitive Growth*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966, 343 pages. An American psychologist in the Piagetian tradition, Bruner presents a number of intriguing experiments, which probe the child's cognitive approaches and achievements. A stimulating commentary on the principles of cognitive growth introduces the volume.

Heinz Werner. *Comparative Psychology of Mental Development*. New York: Science Books, 1961. A comprehensive review of many aspects of mental development. Werner describes a taxonomy that he then applies to children, animals, mental defectives, and so-called "primitive" peoples. A vast source of data, though his theoretical stance is a bit limited to be useful.

Selma Fraiberg. *The Magic Years*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1959, 302 pages. A delightful book about early childhood, equally appealing to laymen and professionals. A superb interweaving of theory and practice, filled with many anecdotes suitable for class discussion.

For Alternative Views:

S. W. Bijou and D. M. Baer. *Child Development*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961, 86 pages, paper. "Systematic and empirical theory of human psychological

development from point of view of natural sciences"
(author's words).

Introductory Level:

A. Bandura and R. H. Walters. *Social Learning and Personality Development*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963, 329 pages. A view of social behavior that stresses the importance of initiation and reward while minimizing cognitive factors and developmental stages. Contrasts with the general viewpoint espoused in EXPLORING CHILDHOOD. Excellent source for comparative data suitable for class presentation.

An Interview with a Montessori Teacher

Jackie Scott is director of the Cambridge Montessori School. Her first contact with the school was as a parent: "I was commuting from Boston to Cambridge for a three-hour program for my child, and it was crazy for me to get back on the bus and go home. So I hung around and did useful things. And I was there and able to move in if they needed me--I substitute taught. I was doing all these things, which I now have labels for, with my son before I knew about Montessori. I was just amazed at his responses, and I enjoyed it. So that is why I emphasize that Montessori things must be common sense." Following are excerpts from an interview with Ms. Scott.

How can teenagers build confidence in areas that are "scary" to them?

I suggest to teenagers that they work in the very areas they tend to shy away from. I don't pressure them, because the selection is theirs. But I tell them to think of the conceptual level that they're on in comparison to a four-year-old. If they're working on earth science, I tell them to think how much more they know about it than the children do, so that they can be supportive to children.

Was Montessori more interested in pedagogy than in the nature of what a child is? And how do you compare her ideas with those of Piaget?

She was both a scientist and an educator. She believed that the human being develops physically as well as academically. She knew that there are specific developmental processes that are universal in the human organism. And that, knowing this, there are certain things that you (as a teacher) can do to the environment that will enhance that developmental process--support it--not taking any position as to speed, and understanding that everyone has the human potential to learn and to expand.

She and Piaget were good friends, by the way, and so they consulted. They were both observationists; they really knew how to observe the actions of children, not coming out with any predetermined hypothesis. And if you know anything about kids you don't have to prove their theories; you'll just see examples as you work.

One of the things that really strikes me about Montessori is that it is *common sense*. If you have any sense about your children, yourself, the way you grew up, the things you went through, and then you read what she says, you say, "Oh, that's right, that makes sense!"

What was Montessori's impact on American educational thought?

She was at her peak in Europe near the beginning of the progressive educational movement here. Americans were

moving away from traditional schooling to the other extreme --real chaos. And everybody was saying, "freedom, freedom, freedom." And then Montessori came and she said that the child is asking for order, that children go through a certain, natural, longitudinal progression, but that children can do it at various speeds. She said that there are also vertical progressions going on at the same time, so you can't force children into lock-step progressions. She said you're almost on the right track when you say "freedom." But not freedom-without-license--because that creates chaos for the child, inwardly as well as in the child's environment.

Wasn't there a theory then about a kindergarten being a garden where children were "grown"?

Yes, children were "flowers." Montessori opposed that premise because it was based on the idea of the child as miniature adult. She said that is not what a child is; childhood is something else.

What implications are there in this for dealing with children?

Teenagers can see the usefulness of this idea. In rap sessions with students, they would say, "Kids are beating up on me; what should I do?" And I said, "Why are they beating you up? Have you established that you are who you are? You can't relate to a child as a peer, and turn and beat up on that child--you'd hurt him or her, because you're bigger. Are you relating to them as peers? Because, if you are, that's why they feel that they can beat you up. It's important for you to establish ground rules like, 'I will not tolerate you beating on me,' from the beginning. Once you establish that, then you create a relationship where you and the children can deal with each other."

Another ground rule we have in Montessori is that when you speak to someone, you go to them. We teach this to children by our own example. For instance, if you see two children fighting, you don't call across the room to them to stop. Instead, you just take your time walking to them and thinking about how you are going to approach the situation without heightening hostilities. By the time you get there, the children may have resolved it for themselves. Also, by refraining from shouting, you're not adding to the general noise, so the whole classroom stays quieter and calmer.

How can teenagers prepare projects to use in the classroom effectively?

Here I'm "personalizing" more than quoting the writings. Based on my experience, one of the basic things is being

able to break down the whole into smaller components, and then put it back together. So one of the things I tell practice teachers is that first they must observe, to see how the children interact with each other, how the teacher interacts with the children, and how the children and the teachers interact with the materials. The next phase is to imagine themselves within that setting (where are they?) before they enter, and then discuss with the teacher how they can support what's already happening. Montessori says that teachers are much too anxious to intervene. You know, if you can catch yourself, you should sit back and check it out before you intervene. Then your actions will have meaning to the child.

Teenagers in the classroom can apply the skill of being able to observe, assess, and break down the whole into small components when they are doing a project. They should ask, "What is my goal in this project?" and then be able to abandon that goal, depending on the explorations of the child, because a child will take you to another route. I tell teenagers that the best project is one that the children can do by themselves, so that you can become a resource. Planning a project is important; four hours of planning for one hour in the classroom is worth it if children will continue that project eighteen hours beyond the first hour. Then all you have to do is keep feeding things to reinforce it.

Is there stress placed on certain subjects over others?

Everything that Montessori does is interrelated. Children do not learn math, for example, in isolation. Math is music as well. And music is writing--if you can sing it you can record it. Even in science, though children are looking through a microscope, they're drawing and recording and keeping records. The teachers will use their science lessons as the basis for some writing and talking, and then science becomes the basis for work in language.

What about creativity in the child?

Montessori talks about the child as having certain *universal* traits. Creativity is one of those. I think we do not have to teach the child creativity. That is a natural ability, given the tools. Or the lack of tools. A child who has no toys creates his or her own world. We do not teach the child imagination, but we can stamp it out.

Another thing about the child's imagination: Montessori says it is a bad idea for an adult to reinforce the young child's fantasies. For instance, if you show a child a flower, and the child says, "The flower can fly away," you don't say it can't, but you don't agree and add your fantasy to the child's. That's confusing. The best thing to do is to make real statements about flowers--they grow on stems;

there are many colors; etc. The child will get the idea
that he or she can count on adults for reliable ideas about
the real world. Little children don't know the difference
between real and unreal, because to a small child everything
is so much bigger it's like the unreal. If you reinforce
a child's imagination you help to develop fears in children.

*How can teenagers learn effective techniques for working
with children?*

It's essential that they use their common sense and not
be afraid of establishing ground rules: "I will tolerate
this," and "I won't tolerate that." When teachers or stu-
dents are having difficulty, I move into the classroom and
demonstrate how I would handle the particular situation.
Teenagers could ask their fieldsite teachers to demonstrate
ways of handling a puzzling situation. They should also
talk in class about what took place, and think of different
ways to handle difficulties. We've had this problem here
recently: the teachers were getting harassed by the kids;
they found it hard to keep the kids' attention and found
themselves policing a lot. So I told them there is nothing
wrong with tightening the reins. The children are here for
just three hours; it is not going to kill them to be con-
trolled if they are not capable of controlling themselves.
So assign them to some seats and bring work to them, and
when they have completed that they can get up and flip out
awhile and then come back. And it's working.

*This school seems so active. What would you advise a teen-
ager to do if assigned to a school where the children are
forced to stay in their seats all the time?*

It's harder, but teenagers could use that situation to
train their eyes and their ears and their minds to see the
messages the children are getting--from each other and from
the teacher. The thing to do is to train yourself to ob-
serve interactions in that kind of classroom. They might
watch one kid for five minutes and just record everything
that child does. Then watch a threesome for another five
minutes; then watch the teacher for another five minutes;
etc. Putting all that together will give them a message
about what is wrong and what is right in that classroom.

CREDITS