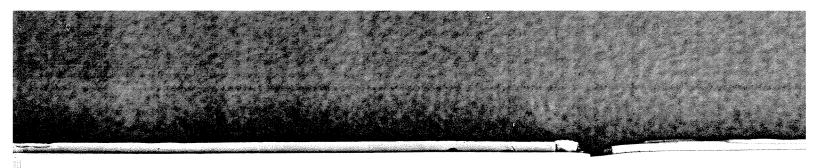
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WHAT AN ADMINISTRATOR NEEDS TO KNOW ABOUT DEVELOPMENT, LEARNING, AND TEACHING

Daniel C. Jordan



Dr. Daniel C. Jordan is the director of the Department of Education at National University, San Diego, California. For the past eighteen years he had directed numerous research programs to develop a comprehensive, scientifically based system of education called Anisa which covers the entire life cycle. (Anisa comes from a root word that represents the ancient symbol, The Tree of Life. It is also an acronym for American National Institutes for Social Advancement, an incorporated not-for-profit organization. See Roger Cook (1974) for more information.) He has focused particularly on the development of a coherent, theory-based approach to understanding development and its relationship to learning, curriculum teaching, and evaluation.

INTRODUCTION

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INTRODUCTION

Administrators of day care and preschool programs have many important responsibilities, but three of them stand out as especially critical: program planning, policy formation, and decision making on a day-to-day basis. If the program is to run smoothly, these functions, as well as all other administrative actions, must be guided by some organizing or coordinating principle. For a human-service organization, its purpose is the only workable organizing principle, and the more explicit the purpose is, the clearer the task of administration. If there is no overarching purpose consciously adopted by administrators and their advisory or executive councils, planning, policy formation, and decision making will not be integrated, and the programs they administer will be ineffective. Instead, plans, policies, and decisions will be made on an ad hoc basis, usually to relieve headaches of administrators and staff. But the relief will only be temporary, for such ad hoc approaches to administration simply multiply the problems. Furthermore, without a clear sense of purpose, administrators will not find it possible to integrate and make effective these three important functions of administration; they will not be able to supervise their staffs effectively; nor will they have any basis for evaluating staff performance. It is therefore essential that administrators work from a statement of general purpose that can be made explicit, can be clearly communicated, and that parents and staff can agree with and rally behind.

The statement of purpose must be general enough to include all the functions of the center or school. If the statement adopted is too narrow, it will not have sufficient integrating power to be of maximum use as a guideline for program planning, policy formation, and decision making. While each organization needs to decide for itself what its purpose will be, I suggest the following statement as an example of the kind of broadly conceived purpose appropriate for day care and preschool institutions: To promote the actualization of the children's potentialities at an optimum rate.

Adopting this purpose would mean that each time the administrator is about to plan something, he or she would ask: Do these plans I am formulating facilitate the release of the child's potentialities? Or will they require resources that will detract from more direct ways of helping children? Every time the administrator contemplates making a policy he or she would ask the question: When this policy is put into effect, will it help the children grow, develop, and learn? Or will it take away teachers' or care-givers' time that could be spent in better ways? And, every time a decision has to be made, the first question would be: Will the consequences of the decision I am about to make promote the actualization of the children's potentialities?

Of course, any plan, policy, or decision may facilitate children's development in some dimensions but not in others. In other words, there will be pros and cons attached to every plan, policy, and decision. The gifted and able administrator is the one who is able to weigh the pros and cons accurately and keep plans, policies, and decisions serving purpose.

Since a child's potentialities are actualized through proper nutrition and learning and since learning is facilitated by good teaching, knowledge about development, learning, and teaching is indispensable to administrators. How could an administrator know, for example, that a certain decision is impairing learning or making teaching more difficult if the administrator does not know what learning and teaching are?

There do exist administrative theorists who believe that skills in planning, policy formation, and decision making are sufficient for doing well any given job. According to them, anyone with these skills but knowing very little about children could administer a day care or preschool program. This book rejects that idea and instead maintains the position that such skills are necessary but not sufficient and that any administrator must also accumulate as much knowledge as possible about everything pertinent to the purpose of the organization for which the administrator works.

A mistake is often made in the opposite direction. A person may know a great deal about everything pertinent to the purpose of an organization and then assume that administration will take care of itself. This arrangement doesn't work either. For example, no matter how much a person might know about learning, development, and teaching, this knowledge would not guarantee becoming a good administrator of a school. In short, a good administrator should have both administrative skills and knowledge of the basic issues pertinent to the achievement of the goals of the organization.

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the basic kinds of knowledge about development, learning, and teaching that a preschool or day care administrator needs to know to be effective. For easy review and reference, this knowledge will be summarized in the form of administrative guidelines consistent with the general purpose for day care centers and preschools already suggested. These guidelines can be used as an aid for training administrators and evaluating their performance.

THE NEED FOR A DEVELO

Perhaps the best way to under tive is to examine the nature principles. Programs of this k or less alike: that they have logical ages and that their ind as unimportant. Such program ministratively self-serving—or expediency, and administratively mechanistic in orientation. It sidered individual human bei ests, needs, weaknesses, and sobjects that you can do thing their ages, and everything will course, to make the point.

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THE NEED FOR A DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE

Perhaps the best way to understand the need for a developmental perspective is to examine the nature of programs not based on developmental principles. Programs of this kind usually assume that all children are more or less alike: that they have the same kinds of needs at specific chronological ages and that their individual differences can therfore be dismissed as unimportant. Such programs are not child-centered but tend to be administratively self-serving—organized around principles of efficiency, expediency, and administrative convenience. The approach is likely to be mechanistic in orientation. It assumes that children do not have to be considered individual human beings with their own talents, aptitudes, interests, needs, weaknesses, and strengths. Rather, children can be considered objects that you can do things to according to a schedule determined by their ages, and everything will turn out all right. I am exaggerating a bit, of course, to make the point.

The basic problem with this mechanistic orientation is that it sets some children up for guaranteed failure, because it insists on learning tasks the prerequisites to which they have not yet mastered. Other children may suffer from boredom because they already have mastered the lesson. Both conditions cause children to lose interest, depriving them of the joy of learning. This approach therefore does not promote the actualization of potential for many of the children in a given age group, but in fact suppresses it. It goes against the purpose suggested earlier for day care centers and schools.

A program based on a developmental view, however, has as its central theme a positive regard for the uniqueness of each child. It accommodates the differences among children and meets each child's needs whenever they occur for as long as they last. Unlike the rigidly mechanistic perspective, the developmental approach is organismic: it promotes the release of human potential. To be *organismic* means to be concerned with the whole child and how the integrity or wholeness of the child is safeguarded over time by ensuring the child's relations with his or her entire environment promote growth free from pathology. The focus of a mechanistic approach is on a child's "parts" and how they can be manipulated from the outside; the focus of an organismic approach is on "wholes" and how a child's growth can be promoted from within. The next section will elaborate on this distinction.

What Is Development?

What do we mean when we say "a human being develops"? We know that the child begins with the union of the sperm and the egg, that the child somehow emerges into a little human being inside the mother's womb, and that after being born, the child gradually turns into an adult over a fifteen- to seventeen-year period of time. Stated simply, development refers to the sum total of changes that take place from the point of conception on. But there are hundreds of millions of these changes, utterly impossible to list and describe in detail. We have a better chance to understand the nature of development if we think in terms of the patterns of change associated with the actualization of several basic kinds of human potentialities and the relationships among the patterns that make up the whole.

Whatever qualities any adult develops, must have existed as potentialities in the genes contained in the sperm and the egg that constituted his or her beginning. But genes are not the whole story. The given qualities also depend equally heavily on various environmental influences, including those of the womb. For example, genes will determine the presence and the structure of the eyes, but a child who grows up without any light from the environment will be blind. The quality of sightedness, which exists only potentially while the child is in the dark womb, is dependent on structures determined by the genes, the environment of the eyes, and their relationship. Thus, development may be defined as the actualization of potentialities, a process which depends on the human being's genetic endowment, the environment he is in, and the interaction between the two. Whatever an adult becomes depends on these factors. Administrators, of course, cannot do anything to alter the genetic endowment of the children they serve, but they can understand the basic nature of human potentialities with which all children are endowed and learn what interactions with various environments can promote their actualization at a reasonable rate. Given this view, it is not difficult to see how planning, policy formation, and decision making can have positive or negative effects on the kinds of environments the child will have and on the quality of interactions the child will have with those environments, as directed and encouraged by teachers. Hence the need for administrators to have a knowledge of the fundamentals of human development.

Defining development as the actualization of human potential is very general and by itself won't be useful to administrators. More specific information is required about types of human potentialities and what environments and patterns of interaction with them promote or hinder their actualization. I suggest we consider two basic kinds of potentialities: biological and psychological.¹ One might therefore say that the purpose of day care centers and preschools is to promote the actualization of biological and psychological potentialities of the child.

¹This explanation of human development and the later discussion on learning draw on the work of an interdisciplinary team of scholars and practitioners formerly at the Center for the Study of Human Potential at the University of Massachusetts and is being continued in the Department of Education, at National University, San Diego, California. Their work rests heavily on the organismic philosophy of Alfred North Whitehead. For more information, see the references at end of the chapter.

Biological potentialities: that will take place in the bod is the primary factor promc body of each child—the bones of what the mother eats whi what the child eats after bei quired to insure optimum gro dients are not in the child's (get sick, develop learning disa bination of these or other ph tant way an administrator (potentialities-i.e., promote the best possible nutrition. fundamentals of good nutriti edge. (Chapter VI explores thing to note here is that a grams will insist on a progran tation to purchase junk food proper nutrition means not (the wrong foods. Excessive a cause a reduction in the abil structive play and work. A certain that only the right fc and that the diet offered is a to adopt this principle for pre

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Biological potentialities are the sum total of all the physical changes that will take place in the body through growth and maturation. Nutrition is the primary factor promoting optimum biological development. The body of each child—the bones, nerves, flesh, and blood—is constructed out of what the mother eats while the child is in the womb and later out of what the child eats after being born. Various kinds of nutrients are required to insure optimum growth and maturation. If some of these ingredients are not in the child's diet, growth will be impaired. He or she may get sick, develop learning disabilities, develop chronic ailments, some combination of these or other physical problems. Therefore, one very important way an administrator can promote the actualization of biological potentialities-i.e., promote physical health-is to provide children with the best possible nutrition. The administrator can either learn the basic fundamentals of good nutrition or hire someone else who has this knowledge. (Chapter VI explores this issue in greater detail.) The important thing to note here is that a good administrator of early childhood programs will insist on a program of proper nutrition and will resist the temptation to purchase junk foods for children for budgetary reasons. Getting proper nutrition means not only eating the right foods but also avoiding the wrong foods. Excessive amounts of sugar in the diet, for instance, can cause a reduction in the ability to pay attention and settle down to constructive play and work. Administrative Guideline Number One: Make certain that only the right foods are served (and the wrong ones avoided) and that the diet offered is a balanced one. Parents must also be encouraged to adopt this principle for preparing meals at home.

There are, of course, factors other than nutrition that have a direct bearing on the actualization of biological potentialities. Some important factors are having sufficient rest, being protected from extreme temperatures, and having pure water to drink and clean air to breathe. More information about these will be found in Chapter VI. While it will not be possible to meet all the biological needs of the growing child within the program, it is important to provide information to parents, who can make certain that as many of these needs as possible are met within the home environment. For example, many parents let their children stay up late at night watching television. The following morning these children come to the day care center or to the preschool tired and irritable. Such parents can be encouraged to put their children to bed at a reasonable hour so that they are guaranteed a certain number of hours of rest each night. Administrative Guideline Number Two: Make sure that as a matter of policy provisions are made for appropriate room temperature to be maintained, proper ventilation, drinking water that meets public health standards, and time for adequate rest. Check periodically to see that the policy is enforced.

Other factors, such as diseases, infections, and allergies, may impair health. All of these can have a negative influence on biological develop-

ment and learning. Administrative Guideline Number Three: Arrange for periodic physical examinations, including dental checkups, and make provisions for immunizations and any other form of medical care needed.

Many handicaps sustained by adults or youth are caused by preventable accidents during the early years. Loss of hearing, sight, or limbs; paralysis; brain damage; and permanent crippling—all are frequently caused by accidents. Administrative Guideline Number Four: Make certain that the environment is safe and free from hazardous conditions and that all children are supervised at all times. This will eliminate almost all major accidents.

What is psychological development and what kinds of psychological potentialities are there? Psychological potentialities are those actualized through learning. Whereas nutrition is the key factor in the actualization of biological development, learning is the key factor in the development of psychological potentialities. Thus it is important for an administrator to know about these potentialities and to have a basic knowledge of the nature of learning.

We have established five basic dimensions of psychological development. They are:

- 1. psychomotor
- 2. perceptual
- 3. cognitive
- 4. affective
- 5. volitional

Psychomotor development refers to gaining progressive mastery over all of the voluntary muscles so that various movements may be differentiated and integrated into the movement patterns that make up running, jumping, swimming, manipulation of objects, and other skills related to sports activities, dance, and recreation. Proper psychomotor development has an influence on other kinds of development; it should therefore be given high priority. All preschool programs should have a comprehensive psychomotor development curriculum. Psychomotor development is closely tied to biological growth and maturation. While psychomotor development occurs naturally through maturation (which is dependent on good nutrition), the refinements come about through learning. For example, just because a child's leg muscles grow in size and strength does not mean the child can ride a bicycle. How to organize and gain control over patterned movements of muscles has to be learned.

Perceptual development is learning how to process and interpret information that comes in to the brain through the senses. Interpretation depends on organizing and integrating the information from the different sense organs and then comparing it with past experience stored in the memory in preparation for action. The emphasis here is on how to see,

how to hear, how to feel, how shown that vision, hearing, as which human beings come to which they live. While the chefficiency or acuity in perceptic dence, for instance, that some visual information and do so v disadvantage when compared to information and can do so quational programs to provide the development of perceptual abil portant to developing speech ar

Cognitive development is this capacity depends on languages sors in perceptual and psychon is stimulated by providing species develop a variety of thought paservation, and logical inference they must be in the presence of are related and who provide expopment is also stimulated by and by being around adults encourage children to ask quest

Affective development is wide range of emotions and t situations. For example, fear, v can serve a protective function ated with certain other places other potentialities and retard known case of a child who wa introduced to a white rat (Wat fear of rats. Since the rats wer comfort whenever he was arou emotional development that I affective development occurs or hope-related emotions with tinue growing and developing, emotions with those things th therefore be avoided. A basic c child is a key factor in proper the primary emphasis should punishing children, since rewar fore free them for action, wh they should not do. This does for punishment. Children are b Number Three: Arrange for ntal checkups, and make pron of medical care needed.

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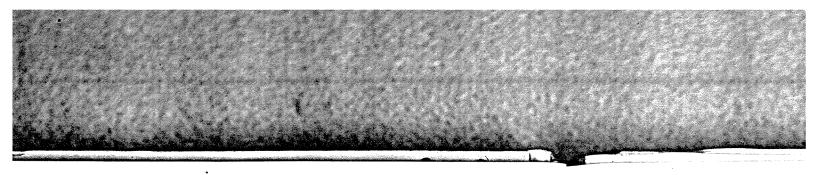
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now to process and interpret inrough the senses. Interpretation information from the different a past experience stored in the emphasis here is on how to see,

how to hear, how to feel, how to taste, and how to smell. Evidence has shown that vision, hearing, and touch are the predominant means by which human beings come to learn about and understand the world in which they live. While the child can naturally hear or see, developing efficiency or acuity in perception depends in part on learning. There is evidence, for instance, that some children process only a small amount of visual information and do so very slowly. Obviously, such a child is at a disadvantage when compared to one who can process a great deal of visual information and can do so quickly. It is therefore important for educational programs to provide the right kinds of stimulation to promote the development of perceptual abilities. Vision and hearing are especially important to developing speech and learning to read.

Cognitive development is the ability to think and reason. Much of this capacity depends on language development, but it has many precursors in perceptual and psychomotor development. Cognitive development is stimulated by providing specific experiences that enable a child to develop a variety of thought patterns, such as classification, seriation, conservation, and logical inference. For children to develop thinking ability, they must be in the presence of adults who constantly show how things are related and who provide explanations for everything. Cognitive development is also stimulated by having the opportunity to solve problems, and by being around adults who ask questions, listen to answers, and encourage children to ask questions.

Affective development is the ability to experience an increasingly wide range of emotions and to associate them appropriately with given situations. For example, fear, when associated with some actions or event, can serve a protective function. If, on the other hand, it becomes associated with certain other places or things, it can impair actualization of other potentialities and retard emotional development. There is the wellknown case of a child who was made to feel frightened when he was first introduced to a white rat (Watson, 1926). He quite naturally developed a fear of rats. Since the rats were white, this fear became a generalized discomfort whenever he was around anything white. This is an example of emotional development that has been impaired. The essence of proper affective development occurs when children associate all of the pleasing or hope-related emotions with all of those things they need to do to continue growing and developing, while associating the painful or fear-related emotions with those things that impair development and which should therefore be avoided. A basic consistency in rewarding and punishing the child is a key factor in proper affective development. Studies show that the primary emphasis should be placed on rewarding rather than on punishing children, since rewards indicate what they should do and therefore free them for action, whereas punishment simply tells them what they should not do. This does not mean, however, that there is no place for punishment. Children are best guided if they know what they should



do as well as what they shouldn't do—all in the interest of actualizing their own potentialities.

Volitional development refers to an emerging independence of the self through the ability to make choices about what to do, focus attention on whatever is required to accomplish the self-selected goal, and then to bring closure to it. Volitional development is facilitated when children are encouraged to make decisions and choices about what they should do and then are lovingly encouraged to accomplish their intentions. It is undermined when teachers or care-givers make all of the decisions and simply expect the children to obey them.

Administrative Guideline Number Five: Make certain that the curriculum established for the day care operation or the preschool promotes the actualization of all five types of potentiality: psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional. Chapter II presents suggestions for a developmentally based curriculum organized along these lines.

What Is Learning?

If we accept learning as the key factor in the actualization of the psychological potentialities just discussed, it is obvious that administrators as well as teachers need to know something about learning. Otherwise, plans, policies, and decisions may very likely impair learning rather than promote it.

What is learning, and are there some general principles that can be applied to facilitate it? This is a complex question and not an easy one to answer in a short space. There are many different theories of learning, the explanations of which are beyond the scope of this book. The definition presented here is a distillation of the major learning theories and represents a common denominator to them all. Such a definition is necessarily abstract and may at first be difficult to grasp. Learning has three aspects: (1) the differentiation of experience—breaking it down into constrastable elements, (2) the integration of those elements in new ways to form new patterns, and (3) the generalization of the patterns. This definition applies to the five categories of psychological development just discussed. For example, psychomotor learning means being able to differentiate the types of movements that various muscles can make, integrating those movements into patterns (such as skipping, or hopping), and generalizing the patterns to new situations (for example, roller skating may be generalized to ice skating). Any time a teacher can help a child to experience, understand, or see the difference between things (differentiation), grasp new connections among them (a form of integration), and then apply those connections to similar situations (a form of generalization), the teacher will be facilitating learning. It follows from this definition that if a child is having trouble learning something, it is because the child does not see the difference between things that are being investigated, or sees the

difference between elements or the child cannot generaliz also follows from this defini new experiences, which required action. New experience requirements or with changes in the

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Administrative Guideline Number Six: Make sure that there is a steady introduction of novelty or variation in the experiences provided for the children so that fresh occasions for differentiation, integration, and generalization are presented.

If the curriculum includes activities that foster the development of the five types of learning and if the teachers focus on the general capacity for differentiation, integration, and generalization, children are very likely to become competent learners who will be developing in a balanced way. Many programs do not teach a child how to learn, in which case the achievement of learning competence is left up to chance. Instead, they only teach the child what to learn. This approach depends largely on rote memory and does not stimulate creativity. A program based on developmental principles places an emphasis on all of the "how's": how to differentiate, integrate, and generalize experience in the five dimensions of development; how to move muscles, how to perceive, how to think, how to feel, and how to intend things (set goals) and carry them through to their final accomplishment. Some programs focus on nothing in particular, in which case time is often wasted and development is slowed. Others emphasize one part-for instance, cognitive development or psychomotor development—to the neglect of some of the other important dimensions. Chapter II provides many suggestions for a balanced curriculum designed to facilitate the attainment of learning competence.

One of the primary characteristics of growing children is their increasing awareness of their own selves. How children come to regard themselves and what they believe about themselves determines in large measure their own sense of worth. Self-knowledge and self-acceptance are two indices of psychological maturity and mental health. Their roots begin during the early years. Hence it is important for preschools or day care centers to provide the foundation experiences on which self-knowledge and self-acceptance are built.

Each of the five categories of psychological potentialities has its counterpart in a corresponding aspect of the sense of self. For instance, body awareness grows out of psychomotor development. The self-image is the person's perceptions of self. Self-concept is how the person thinks about or conceives himself or herself to be. This is a cognitive view of the self. Self-esteem refers to how the person responds affectively to himself or herself. If there is low self-esteem, there is a negative emotional reaction to the self. If there is high self-esteem, there will be a positive emotional reaction to the self. Self-determination is the volitional

capacity of children applied to their own development. Children who are filled with self-determination are willing to assume responsibility for their own goals and development. They become self-reliant and independent. The integration of body awareness, self-image, self-concept, self-esteem, and self-determination constitutes the total sense of self. Happiness, confidence, and satisfying relationships with others depend on a positive sense of self. Excessive criticism, lack of humor, rejective attitudes, unnecessary punishment, disrespectful treatment, and injustice on the part of adults—all undermine children's development of a wholesome sense of self.

Another word for sense of self is *identity*. For all practical purposes *identity* is personality or character as experienced by oneself. If both biological and psychological development are optimal, a personality or character—an identity—free from pathology will be formed. In a very fundamental sense this is the objective of all education as broadly interpreted.

Administrative Guideline Number Seven: Make certain the teachers and staff provide the kinds of feedback and establish the kinds of supportive relationships to children that facilitate the emergence of a positive sense of self and a character free of pathology.

Another important characteristic of human beings is that they have values. Children are not born with values; they acquire them through learning, primarily through being with adults who model them. If children's values are poorly formed or are in conflict, these will show up in their actions as behavioral problems and in their relationships as an inability to work and play with others. Thus no program of educational worth can ignore the importance of forming the right values and attitudes. To believe that education can be value-free is to be naive in the extreme. The very existence of a day care center or a preschool is a statement that the care and education of children have value. What the children do or are not allowed to do reflects values. How we treat or speak to a child reflects our values concerning children. The real question, then, is not whether education can be value-free, but what values shall we teach?

There is likely to be controversy when different ethnic groups try to answer this question. However, some stand has to be taken on basic issues; otherwise, the children will be caught in the middle. I arrived at a basic set of principles that most people can accept as basic criteria for determining the values to be taught. Whatever the values, (1) they must not violate basic human rights, (2) they should promote the actualization of human potential and not suppress it, and (3) they should not only help guarantee survival but perpetually improve the quality of life for everyone.

I suggest three basic types of values for a child to develop: material values, social values, and religious or philosophical values. All of these types should meet the three criteria just listed, which in reality are overarching values themselves.

Material values involve a respect for the physical environment: a willingness to take care of it, preserve it, and not be wasteful of its re-

sources. Children begin to lea tudes toward the physical en rial values children develop gr world. These values are a co about the physical world an themselves in relationship to does a child feel himself or he a reckless exploiter of it? If the child form an ideal of hir physical environment, then respect. Now that we have co resources, developing material and guarantee survival is extre

Social values are develop beings. If his experience in th treatment, he will grow into: commitment to human rights Given the racial and ethnic di world is shrinking in its feelir cause of increased transpor makes good sense for children is one, that no race is superio good to be appreciated. It is sense of themselves as perso what racial or ethnic backgro how this is achieved through IV. One point is worth empha the nature and importance of made relatively consistent by have a rational justification ar ing the ground rules themselvε unity or peace has ever been a all right to tell lies, break pro erty, assault another's body, c It is not difficult to see why everyone's being able to trust stealing, assaulting people, and it is important for children to tive security and well-being dep

Religious (or philosophica and nonsectarian manner. Th and unknowns, and the way is personality. The only way an of faith—hence the use of the philosophical if the term relig things are unknown to a child development. Children who are assume responsibility for their e self-reliant and independent. nage, self-concept, self-esteem, I sense of self. Happiness, conhers depend on a positive sense for, rejective attitudes, unnecent, and injustice on the part opment of a wholesome sense

ntity. For all practical purposes erienced by oneself. If both bioptimal, a personality or characte formed. In a very fundamental is broadly interpreted.

even: Make certain the teachers and establish the kinds of supporte the emergence of a positive

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for the physical environment: a it, and not be wasteful of its re-

sources. Children begin to learn material values early in life, and their attitudes toward the physical environment are shaped at this time. The material values children develop grow out of their interaction with the physical world. These values are a combination of what they know and believe about the physical world and whatever ideals they have formed about themselves in relationship to their physical environment. For example, does a child feel himself or herself to be a caretaker of the environment or a reckless exploiter of it? If the child's educational experience has helped the child form an ideal of himself or herself as a person who respects the physical environment, then the child's material values will reflect that respect. Now that we have come to realize that ours is a planet of finite resources, developing material values that help improve the quality of life and guarantee survival is extremely significant.

Social values are developed as the child interacts with other human beings. If his experience in the early years is characterized by just and fair treatment, he will grow into a morally competent human being who has a commitment to human rights and to the protection of everyone's freedom. Given the racial and ethnic diversity of our country and the fact that the world is shrinking in its feeling of intimacy to that of a neighborhood because of increased transportation and communication technology, it makes good sense for children to learn from the outset that all humanity is one, that no race is superior to another, and that diversity is something good to be appreciated. It is therefore important for children to gain a sense of themselves as persons who deal with others fairly, no matter what racial or ethnic background they represent. A fuller discussion of how this is achieved through children's experience is presented in Chapter IV. One point is worth emphasizing—namely, that children can only learn the nature and importance of justice through a social experience that is made relatively consistent by the loving enforcement of ground rules that have a rational justification and by the experience of caring adults modeling the ground rules themselves. Anthropologists have noted that no social unity or peace has ever been achieved by human groups that believe it is all right to tell lies, break promises, steal or destroy other people's property, assault another's body, commit murder, and exploit others sexually. It is not difficult to see why this is so. Social peace and unity depend on everyone's being able to trust others. Lying, cheating, breaking promises, stealing, assaulting people, and sexual exploitation all destroy trust. Thus, it is important for children to develop the basic values on which our collective security and well-being depend.

Religious (or philosophical) values are here defined in a psychological and nonsectarian manner. They concern beliefs about ultimate realities and unknowns, and the way in which faith and trust are activated in the personality. The only way an unknown can be approached is on the basis of faith—hence the use of the term religious. One might use the term philosophical if the term religious seems unacceptable. Of course, most things are unknown to a child, and it is important that faith and trust are

4 what an administrator needs to know

activated as the child approaches these unknowns. Without faith and trust. new experiences will be approached with fear or anxiety. In a very general sense, curiosity is an expression of faith and trust; it is the motivation underlying an attitude of inquiry into things unknown. Such inquiry always entails a risk. Perhaps one of the most important aspects of religious values is an orientation to the future, which is always unknown but which nonetheless has to be faced. With faith the future can be planned. thereby reducing uncertainties. People who do not learn to plan their future lose control over it. Thus, it is an important part of every child's early experience to gain a sense of tomorrow and all of the possibilities that tomorrow can bring. Eventually children make connections between what they do today and its influence on the realization of possibilities in the future. Involving children in planning activities related to things they will be doing in the future is therefore an important part of their experience leading to self-reliance and a feeling of independence.

These three value systems—the material, the social, and the religious—make up the total value system of the individual. They reflect that combined sense of the various selves discussed earlier as the person relates to three basic environments: physical, human, and unknown. These values give structure to the personality and are the main patterns that define personal identity.

Administrative Guideline Number Eight: Make certain that the program for the children provides experiences that promote the formation of material, social, and religious (or philosophical) values that ensure the improvement of the quality of life.

Critical and Sensitive Periods

Generally speaking, all development is sequential. Some phases occur before others, and their readiness to occur happens at particular times. Associated with each phase in the sequence are certain needs or requirements. What happens when the time comes for a particular phase of development to occur and the prerequisites for making its proper occurrence are not present? For instance, when it comes time for the nerves in the brain to be insulated (which is absolutely essential to mental development), thyroxin, a hormone, released by the thyroid gland, is a prerequisite. Iodine is an indispensable chemical element of thyroxin. If, because of a shortage of iodine in the diet, there is insufficient thyroxin produced at the time it is needed to promote the insulation of nerve fibers in the brain, the child will develop *cretinism*, a condition of permanent mental retardation.

We call the time during which thyroxin is required to insure normal brain development a *critical period*. It is critical because if the prerequisite hormone is not available, permanent damage will result. The phrase, *sensi-*

tive period refers to a similar requirements are not met, de age is not done.

Most of the critical perization of biological potential Most of the sensitive periods ical potentialities. For examp ment is from about the age c prerequisite for acquisition of in the presence of other hun instance, if a child is reared b child has access to no other s language will be missing. If tl and-a-half years passes, the c delayed. If the child is then language but with difficulty. akin to a critical period than child goes beyond the age of spoken, chances are that the guage development.

There appears to be an Naturally, some periods are thing for teachers and admini children have a large number zation of a child's potentialiti be met when they arise. Rat decreased if meeting needs is p ing a large number of needs wi retardation of some kind. Chi have symptoms of withdrawal, to punishment or affection, o trate on any one thing for very

Of course, it would be to care operation or a preschood developmental requirements are or not they are all being met. basic knowledge to keep the stain needs are not being met. I needs and provide for them, have the expertise to make dasked to make periodic checks.

Administrative Guideline ing staff is aware of the general and sensitive periods, and that toms caused by unmet needs a referred to appropriate specialis nowns. Without faith and trust, ear or anxiety. In a very general and trust; it is the motivation things unknown. Such inquiry most important aspects of relie, which is always unknown but aith the future can be planned, who do not learn to plan their important part of every child's rrow and all of the possibilities hildren make connections beence on the realization of posm in planning activities related ture is therefore an important reliance and a feeling of inde-

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tive period refers to a similar period, but the difference is that if certain requirements are not met, development is slowed up, but irreversible damage is not done.

Most of the critical periods in development are related to the actualization of biological potentialities, as illustrated in the thyroxin example. Most of the sensitive periods are related to the actualization of psychological potentialities. For example, the sensitive period for language development is from about the age of eight months to two-and-a-half years. The prerequisite for acquisition of language during this sensitive period is being in the presence of other human beings who are speaking a language. For instance, if a child is reared by deaf parents who do not speak and if the child has access to no other speaking adults, the prerequisite stimulus for language will be missing. If the time span between eight months and twoand-a-half years passes, the onset of language acquisition will be greatly delayed. If the child is then exposed to language later, he can learn the language but with difficulty. In severe cases the outcome may be more akin to a critical period than to a sensitive period. In other words, if a child goes beyond the age of eight or nine without ever hearing a language spoken, chances are that there will be permanent impairment of his language development.

There appears to be an almost infinite number of sensitive periods. Naturally, some periods are more sensitive than others. The important thing for teachers and administrators to bear in mind, however, is that all children have a large number of developmental needs and that the actualization of a child's potentialities will be best promoted if these needs can be met when they arise. Rate of actualization of potentialities will be decreased if meeting needs is postponed. Indefinite postponement in meeting a large number of needs will result in a cumulative effect of permanent retardation of some kind. Children whose needs are not being met usually have symptoms of withdrawal, or they lack self-control, seem unresponsive to punishment or affection, or are excessively active and cannot concentrate on any one thing for very long.

Of course, it would be too much to expect an administrator of a day care operation or a preschool to have a detailed understanding of all developmental requirements and then to examine each child to see whether or not they are all being met. What can be expected, however, is enough basic knowledge to keep the staff alert for symptoms that signal that certain needs are not being met. If the staff itself is not able to determine the needs and provide for them, then other agencies in the community that have the expertise to make diagnoses and prescribe remedies should be asked to make periodic checks.

Administrative Guideline Number Nine: Make certain that the teaching staff is aware of the general notions of developmental needs and critical and sensitive periods, and that staff members are aware enough of symptoms caused by unmet needs that children who require attention can be referred to appropriate specialists.

Individual Differences

One of the most distinctive features of any educational or care-giving program based on developmental principles is the recognition that children grow, develop, and learn at different rates and that during some periods the rates may slow down while during other periods they may be increased. Such a program necessarily centers around the uniqueness of each individual. This does not mean, of course, that there can be no group instruction or small-group work. It does mean that membership in a group is determined by what the group is trying to accomplish so that children can be assigned to the group only if it fits their developmental level, and if the experience the group is having will foster the growth of all its members. In other words, the basis for grouping should be on whether the children who belong to the group share enough developmental characteristics to enable them to get the most out of what that particular group is doing.

Another way of looking at this distinguishing feature of developmentally based programs is to recognize that chronological age is not the criterion used for grouping children for instructional purposes. Every parent and teacher knows, for instance, that in a given group of children, each one of whom is five years of age, some will be very tall and heavy, and some short and light, some will be well developed from a psychomotor point of view while others are still underdeveloped and awkward, some will already be able to read whereas others will not be ready for a year or two. Some children at this age are socially mature and want to be independent; others feel very insecure and need a great deal more attention. Some of these children will be very shy; others will be outgoing. Their temperaments will vary; their needs will change from time to time, and each one of them will be ready for different things at different times. For these reasons, age-grading is not a sound basis for organizing educational services for children.

Two areas of differences among children of the same chronological age are of paramount importance: differences in learning rates and differences in learning styles. For example, some children at certain periods in their development appear to learn very slowly while others at the same age are learning very quickly. Some children will always be slower learners than others, but it is also true that the slower learner may turn out to be the more profound learner in the long run. One should not assign a negative value to slowness of learning or necessarily a positive one to quickness of learning. Such judgments have to depend on the quality of learning and its cumulative effect over long periods of time. For instance, some children can memorize things very quickly, but they may have no understanding of what they memorized. Other children may not be able to memorize very quickly but have the capacity to understand basic ideas and express them in their own words. From a qualitative point of view, the latter is a more significant achievement.

There is evidence that some as others might learn quite easily generally speaking all children I something rather than in just pasthrough visual means, others the have different learning styles and modated by the program, actual not take place at an optimum ratio of potential.

There are other major diffought to be kept in mind. For it ably to certain kinds of foods, it tives. (See more about this in (the ingestion of sugar. Some carfore need to eat more often. Lik others and consequently need quently, whereas other students of rest that are longer but less from

Of course, it is not feasible made to all of the unique featur program can be organized so the individual children can be met w

Administrative Guideline I environment, and instructional and keep in mind that developmalogical age, are the appropriate experiences.

THE NATURE OF TEACHING

Since administrators are usually and firing the teaching staff, it the nature of teaching. In the albe inadequate, evaluation will be maintaining a high quality teachi

What Is Teaching?

Both curriculum and teaching ca of development. Teaching is wh tives outlined in the curriculun objectives (specific potentialities children do (interactions with the teacher, to accomplish the objectives) any educational or care-giving es is the recognition that chiltes and that during some periods r periods they may be increased. the uniqueness of each individere can be no group instruction nembership in a group is determplish so that children can be developmental level, and if the ne growth of all its members. In be on whether the children who mental characteristics to enable icular group is doing.

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There is evidence that some children can only learn by doing, whereas others might learn quite easily by just having things explained, though generally speaking all children learn better if they are involved in doing something rather than in just passively listening. Some children learn better through visual means, others through auditory means. In short, children have different learning styles and rates. If these differences are not accommodated by the program, actualization of the child's potentialities will not take place at an optimum rate and there could even be a suppression of potential.

There are other major differences related to individual needs that ought to be kept in mind. For instance, some children do not react favorably to certain kinds of foods, particularly if the foods have certain additives. (See more about this in Chapter VI.) Children react differently to the ingestion of sugar. Some cannot eat much food at one time and therefore need to eat more often. Likewise, some children tire more easily than others and consequently need smaller periods of rest taken more frequently, whereas other students do not tire so quickly and can take periods of rest that are longer but less frequent.

Of course, it is not feasible to have a program that is absolutely tailormade to all of the unique features of each individual child. However, any program can be organized so that the most basic developmental needs of individual children can be met whenever they arise.

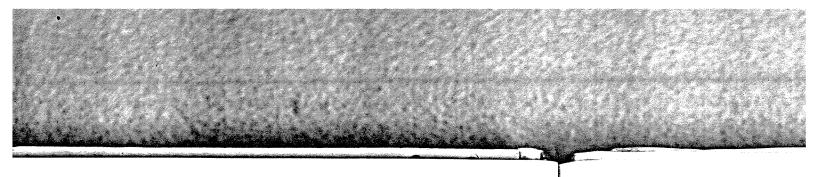
Administrative Guideline Number Ten: Make certain that program, environment, and instructional approaches accommodate individual needs and keep in mind that developmental levels and needs, rather than chronological age, are the appropriate criteria for grouping children for learning experiences.

THE NATURE OF TEACHING

Since administrators are usually in charge of hiring, evaluating, promoting, and firing the teaching staff, it is essential that they have a basic grasp of the nature of teaching. In the absence of such knowledge, supervision will be inadequate, evaluation will be impossible or unjust, and developing and maintaining a high quality teaching staff will not be possible.

What Is Teaching?

Both curriculum and teaching can only be fully understood in the context of development. Teaching is what a teacher does to accomplish the objectives outlined in the curriculum. The curriculum states the educational objectives (specific potentialities to be actualized) and includes what the children do (interactions with the environments), under the guidance of a teacher, to accomplish the objectives.



It follows that if a preschool or day care center does not have clearly defined objectives (curriculum) expressed in terms of what the children are to accomplish, teaching behavior will lack organization and purpose. Obviously, if the teacher does not know what he or she is to accomplish, behavior will be guided by a variety of other maxims, such as, "Keep the children busy," "Keep them out of trouble," or "Let them do whatever they want to so long as they don't hurt each other." These are not necessarily bad guidelines, but they are no substitute for a curriculum, nor will they guide teacher behavior well enough to insure that children are learning and developing at an optimum rate.

A common failing in setting forth objectives for a preschool or day care center is phrasing them in terms of what the teacher will do rather than in terms of what the child will accomplish. For instance, here is a poorly expressed objective: "To provide opportunities for children to learn the alphabet."

What is wrong with this objective? In the first place, it does not say anything directly about what the child should accomplish. At the end of three years, teachers could be "providing opportunities to learn the letters of the alphabet" and still not have any children who have actually learned the letters. Yet, if you asked the teachers, "Did you accomplish your goal?," they could say, "Yes, we provided lots of opportunities for the children to learn the letters of the alphabet." But the real question is, "Did any of the children actually learn the letters of the alphabet?"

Thus, the objective should be expressed as follows:

Children will know the letters of the alphabet:

- a. They will be able to say all the letter names without any assistance;
- They will be able to recognize printed letters, both upper case and lower case;
- c. They will be able to write the entire alphabet, upper and lower case.

You may or may not believe that this is an appropriate objective for preschool children. The point is that it is expressed in terms of learner achievements and not teacher activity. Teacher activity is given direction by expressing this objective in terms of what the learner is to accomplish. Furthermore, when it comes to evaluating later the program and the teachers, it will be possible to tell whether the objectives are being accomplished.

The objective just presented could be made even more explicit by setting a time deadline. For instance, it could be stated as "All children by the age of five will know the alphabet," and so forth. However, setting too rigid a time limit tied to chronological age is not a good idea simply because chronological age is not the same as developmental age. Because children naturally grow at different rates at different times, tying an objective to a specific age would automatically guarantee failure for some children and unjustifiably so.

A curriculum that is comp is incomplete. On the other hapick out the most important it than to be so overextended from accomplished with any standar to be comprehensive, I sugges the following areas:

- 1. Physical health. Objectives the highest levels of biole such things as providing th
- 2. The five categories of pote tive, affective, and volition
- Symbolization, which wor guage (speaking, reading, a
- 4. Value formation. These of social, and philosophical values
- 5. Basic information about t would be concerned with animal, and human worlds that can be grasped by chil

More details about such a curri point here is that without a cu actualizing human potential, to posed to be accomplishing. It i with any degree of specificity u

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be made even more explicit by old be stated as "All children by and so forth. However, setting too ge is not a good idea simply beas developmental age. Because tes at different times, tying an tically guarantee failure for some

A curriculum that is comprehensive is obviously better than one that is incomplete. On the other hand, if resources are limited, it is better to pick out the most important items and make sure that they are included, than to be so overextended from trying to do everything that nothing is accomplished with any standard of excellence. In order for a curriculum to be comprehensive, I suggest that objectives be formulated in each of the following areas:

- 1. Physical health. Objectives in this area would be designed to maintain the highest levels of biological integrity and would therefore entail such things as providing the right kinds of nutrition.
- 2. The five categories of potentialities: psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional.
- 3. Symbolization, which would include objectives related to math, language (speaking, reading, and writing), and the arts.
- 4. Value formation. These objectives would be concerned with material, social, and philosophical values.
- 5. Basic information about the world in which we live. These objectives would be concerned with learning facts about the mineral, vegetable, animal, and human worlds and would include those aspects of science that can be grasped by children at the early levels of development.

More details about such a curriculum appear in Chapter II. The important point here is that without a curriculum faithful to the overall purpose of actualizing human potential, teachers will not know what they are supposed to be accomplishing. It is therefore not possible to define teaching with any degree of specificity unless there is a curriculum.

Administrative Guideline Number Eleven: Make certain that the program has clearly defined objectives, phrased in terms of what the learner is to accomplish, that teachers/care-givers understand. Otherwise there will be no framework for making administrative decisions, teachers will have no framework for organizing their activities, and it will be impossible to carry out an evaluation of the program.

Children have to be guided to do things in order to accomplish the objectives outlined in the curriculum. The doing always means interacting with things in the environment, including interacting with other children and adults. How the environment is arranged for a specific learning activity is very important. For example, it is difficult to teach a child how to measure liquids if you do not have liquids and measuring cups. Thus, teaching always involves arranging environments and guiding a child's interaction with them to accomplish a specific objective. If the materials being used are broken, have parts missing, or are of poor quality, the strength of the learning experience will be reduced. Because the general and specific arrangement of the environment for given activities is so important, children must be taught to help teachers to keep the environment relatively

well ordered. This is not to be confused with a fetish for tidiness for its own sake. Learning depends on the recognition of pattern. Pattern cannot be identified amid disorder and confusion. Therefore, order is a critical prerequisite to learning. Good teaching, then, will always mean enforcing a simple set of basic ground rules pertaining to maintenance of general order in the environment. For example, children who use certain materials must put them back where they found them when they are finished. Otherwise, materials become lost, and parts will be missing, damaged, or broken. The quality of the learning experience requiring these materials will then be reduced.

While it is true that teachers should organize children's activities around objectives stated in the curriculum, the objectives are only partial determinants of teaching behavior. Whatever teachers do must also be related to the developmental level of the child being taught. Therefore, teaching always involves assessing the developmental level of the child through careful observation of behavior. Diagnosing the developmental level of the child is followed by prescribing specific activities appropriate to that level in terms of the curriculum objective being emphasized. After a teaching episode, a good teacher then assesses the outcome of the learning activity that was guided by the teaching to see whether the prescription worked. If it did not, then something else should be tried, because either the prescription did not fit the child's developmental level, or the diagnosis was wrong, or both.

By prescription, I do not mean a procedure a child will be rigidly held to no matter what. A prescription is a set of activities, with particular materials and/or other children, that follows logically from the diagnosis and is designed to accomplish a particular objective in the curriculum. Diagnostic and prescriptive approaches to teaching are therefore not intended to make teaching inflexible but instead to give it focus and specificity, which increase the likelihood that children will develop at an optimum rate. Involving children in activities that fit their developmental levels enables progress to be made at the right rate. Under such conditions, children feel most stimulated and enthusiastic about learning, their morale will be high, teacher morale will be high, and all will enjoy a sense of wellbeing that arises out of attainment and achievement.

There are many other things that a teacher does, without which the teacher's total effectiveness will be diminished. For instance, teachers have to find a way of giving feedback to children on a regular basis and in a manner that is both honest and encouraging. If the feedback is not honest, children will never develop a set of standards. If they do not have any standards of excellence, they will not have a realistic sense of what is required to be competent. If, however, honest feedback comes in a critical, derogatory, or rejective form, it will destroy confidence and reduce levels of effort. In brief, good teaching leads to both confidence and competence in the child. To accomplish this, praise and criticism, reward and punish-

ment, must be honest and ju supportive and encouraging.

No matter what we do, it engage children in activities developmental gains out of ev has a comprehensive curriculu out of every moment, and at and make decisions that suppo

Administrative Guideline vising the teaching staff must such as the one suggested he important element in supervisi

Without such a clear desupervision will lack consister unjust, or avoided altogether.

Good supervision of the ing needs. Teachers will be th their own needs. In-service p these needs in the same way te tion for their children. Admir time for an in-service program provided for the children. It is their own in-service training. (discussions to the chapters in learning, development, curric tion. Providing this informatic teaching staff to organize mu these and other related mater ulum and increase their abilitie achieving the objectives outlin ticular program. Having a clear each other improve their performance

Teaching the Handicapped

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Handicapped children are kind of impairment—those wh deaf, speech impaired, visuall turbed, orthopedically impaire with specific learning disabilit education or related services." ith a fetish for tidiness for its ion of pattern. Pattern cannot. Therefore, order is a critical en, will always mean enforcing ing to maintenance of general dren who use certain materials when they are finished. Othere missing, damaged, or broken. uring these materials will then

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ment, must be honest and just and must be infused with a spirit that is supportive and encouraging.

No matter what we do, time ticks by. The question is, How can we engage children in activities that enable them to make the maximum developmental gains out of every experience? A good program is one that has a comprehensive curriculum, teachers who know how to get the most out of every moment, and administrators who can plan, create policies, and make decisions that support this kind of curriculum and teaching.

Administrative Guideline Number Twelve: Hiring, firing, and supervising the teaching staff must be guided by a clear definition of teaching, such as the one suggested here. Discussing this definition should be an important element in supervision and in-service training.

Without such a clear definition, incompetent people may be hired, supervision will lack consistency and focus, and firing may be arbitrary, unjust, or avoided altogether.

Good supervision of the teaching staff involves assessing their training needs. Teachers will be the most helpful source of information about their own needs. In-service programs should then be tailor-made to fit these needs in the same way teachers are expected to individualize instruction for their children. Administrators should allocate regular periods of time for an in-service program aimed at improving the quality of experience provided for the children. It is a good idea to involve teachers in planning their own in-service training. One way to begin might be to devote initial discussions to the chapters in this handbook dealing with the nature of learning, development, curriculum, arranging environments, and evaluation. Providing this information will go a long way toward enabling the teaching staff to organize much of their own in-service training. Using these and other related materials, they can perpetually refine the curriculum and increase their abilities as teachers to work with children towards achieving the objectives outlined in the curriculum adopted by their particular program. Having a clear idea of teaching will enable them to help each other improve their performance as teachers.

Teaching the Handicapped

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94-142) has provided the legal basis for integrating handicapped children with their nonhandicapped peers in regular classrooms, or day care facilities.

Handicapped children are those whose uniqueness also includes some kind of impairment—those who are "mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, or other health impaired, or children with specific learning disabilities, who by reason thereof require special education or related services."

The law defines special education as "specially designed instruction at no cost to parents or guardians, to meet the unique needs of a handicapped child, including classroom instruction, instruction in physical education, home instruction, and instruction in hospitals and institutions." It comprises "such developmental, corrective, and other supportive services as may be required to assist a handicapped child to benefit from special education, and includes early identification and assessment." Supportive services would include such assistance as speech therapy and audiology, physical therapy, psychological services and counseling, and diagnostic medical services.

The law gives any handicapped child the legal right to an education in the "least restrictive environment." Mainstreaming has become a popular term for educating the handicapped child in the same environment as nonhandicapped children. As far as the law is concerned, this term is somewhat misleading because it does not in every instance require such integration. It only requires that the "least restrictive environment" consistent with the welfare of the children be provided. This may or may not mean placing a handicapped child in the regular classroom. For instance, severely emotionally disturbed children would probably not be educated alongside normal children because neither would be likely to benefit from the experience. Handicapped children may spend all, some, or none of the day with their nonhandicapped peers. In complying with the provisions of this law, administrators need to know as much about development, learning, and teaching as possible. Programs that are already developmentally based will have the least difficulty in implementing the law because they will have already accepted the idea that each child is unique and requires individualized instruction.

The general developmental principles outlined in this chapter and the definitions of development, learning, and teaching are all applicable to the provision of special educational services. All handicaps can be understood in terms of the impairment of the actualization of biological or psychological potentialities, such as the capacity for symbolization or the formation of value systems. Remedies can be found in individualized programs of nutrition, learning, or both. Children with learning disabilities are those who fail to differentiate, integrate, and/or generalize experience on one or more of the given dimensions: psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional. Such failure may also be due to inadequate environments or poor teaching; they may also be caused by nutritional deficiencies or food additives to which there is an allergic reaction.

In other words, teaching the handicapped requires diagnosing developmental levels and needs and prescribing an individualized program of learning that promotes actualization of potentiality at an optimum rate, as would be the case for any child. If properly done, any diagnosis and prescription will necessarily reflect a consideration of the child's handi-

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capped requires diagnosing develing an individualized program of potentiality at an optimum rate, properly done, any diagnosis and onsideration of the child's handicap(s). In many cases a particular curriculum objective may have to be altered for a handicapped child. For instance, objectives pertaining to the achievement of visual acuity are out of the question for a blind child. Other objectives, such as learning Braille, may have to be added.

The wider the range of needs of children being served, the more time and expertise is required to individualize programs for them. If several handicapped children are introduced into the regular program, additional staff will have to be employed.

It would be right to expect the children to help each other, for in doing this they learn important social values. Furthermore, when children teach other children, it helps to consolidate their own learning. Thus, if only one or two handicapped children are added and their handicaps are not severe, no additional staff may be required.

Administrative Guideline Number Thirteen: The recommended staff-to-child ratio of 1:5 for very young children has to be altered when handicapped children are admitted to the program. How many more staff have to be added is determined by the number of handicapped children, the severity of their impairments, and the number of special needs they have.

Equalizing Educational Opportunity

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act is one more step in the direction of equalizing educational opportunity, the key to which is meeting development needs of children when they arise for as long as they last. Since these needs occur at different times for different children, individualization of instruction is essential.

SUMMARY

Because the concept of equalizing educational opportunity is consistent with the overarching purpose of promoting the actualization of human potential at an optimum rate, this concept can almost function as a summary statement for this chapter. Translating the concept into action is indispensable to achieving human rights, operating a full democracy, and improving the quality of life—all of which are fundamental to the values suggested to be taught. No preschool or day care administrator can escape the moral and professional obligation to make sure no effort is spared to provide equal educational opportunity. To do that requires having a basic knowledge of development, learning, and teaching, and applying it to the administrative functions of planning, policy formation, and decision making.

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