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BEGINNINGS & BEYOND

Foundations in Early Childhood Education

10th edition

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Dedication

For my granddaughter, Abra Clawson, upon her graduation. May you continue to be blessed with a life that challenges your heart and your mind and leads you toward new horizons and adventures. Always remember how much you are loved.
—Grammy (aka AMG)

To my Dad, Doc Williams, whose steady support helped shape me into who I am today. In the end, all is love and energy.
—KWB

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Preface

Our Viewpoint

The early childhood field is a dynamic profession full of many challenges and great rewards. Teachers being educated today have the opportunity to respond to and affect the critical issues facing early childhood educators now and in the future. Students confront the challenge of teaching a diverse group of learners differentiated by their gender, abilities, ethnic and cultural backgrounds, family support, values, and beliefs. They learn to navigate the tension between standards and assessments and developmentally appropriate principles and practices. Through field experiences, students experience the everyday commitment to children's growth and learning. They learn the meaning of professionalism and how their own personal development can foster a vibrant professional life. In order to accomplish this daunting but exciting task, students need a text that is current, comprehensive, and able to connect knowledge and theory to the classroom—one that draws on a variety of models to deepen their understanding of themselves as members of a lively and fulfilling profession. *Beginnings and Beyond: Foundations in Early Childhood Education* accomplishes that goal.

The purpose of *Beginnings and Beyond* is to promote the competence and effectiveness of new teachers through a presentation of basic knowledge, skills, attitudes, and philosophies based on the premise that new teachers must have opportunities to learn fundamental skills as they begin their teaching experience. The text expresses a viewpoint about quality early education and what practices ensure excellence. In the area of cultural sensitivity and multicultural relationships, we promote a "both/and" attitude, following the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) guidelines for Developmentally Appropriate Practices (DAP). This expansive and inclusive way of thinking provides a flexible, nonpolarizing approach to the complexities of early childhood practices. Readers will find the "both/and" influence throughout the text, but especially in the areas of early literacy, spiritual development, discipline, diversity, and anti-bias strategies. The point of "both/and" is particularly emphasized in family–school relationships, where differences and distinctions are always at play.

Developmentally and Culturally Appropriate Practices (DCAP)

Developmentally and culturally appropriate practices (DCAP) continue to be subthemes of this text. We emphasize the importance of creating programs and building curricula based on an understanding of development, of the nature of the child, and of the family and environmental factors affecting a child's growth and development. We believe that it is important that students realize the deep and crucial contributions that children's family, culture, and language make to development. NAEYC's years of experience in the definition and application of DAP and DCAP have given us further insights, which are reflected throughout the book.

Demographic issues drive the direction of early childhood programs, and the text reflects that fact. *Beginnings and Beyond* maintains the emphasis that every child and family is unique and that they deserve respect and affirmation. This edition, therefore, weaves a strong multicultural perspective and consciousness throughout the text to help prospective teachers and caregivers increase their sensitivity to different cultural practices and values. This feature has become one of the book's strongest points.

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How Do We Meet the Needs of Today's Learners?

Beginnings and Beyond is intended for college students who are interested in young children from infancy through age 8, beginning teachers who plan to engage in early care and education, practitioners in direct service to children and families, and professionals in the workforce who are enlarging their knowledge base. The text provides a foundational base for an understanding of the crucial early years of life and educational systems and to work with children in these contexts. Through our comprehensive chapter coverage and unique pedagogical features, we provide a resource that meets the needs of today's early child educators.

Chapter Organization

The overall organization of the book takes students from the history of early childhood education (ECE) to current issues and future trends. Four key themes emphasized in the beginning and ending chapters weave the past and present together as students learn about (1) social reform, (2) the importance of childhood, (3) transmitting values, and (4) professionalism.

Five basic questions set the tone for each section by asking the reader to reflect on the wide-ranging nature of ECE. The book's flexibility allows instructors to begin with any section that seems appropriate to meet the needs of their classes. The five sections and chapter descriptions are as follows:

- **What Is the Field of ECE?** In Section 1 of this book, descriptions of early childhood history and the types of programs provide a basis for understanding the complexity of the field.

  Chapter 1 describes the origin of early education through history, which forms the theory on which students base their teaching, and then students learn about events that have shaped the field. Students meet the many contributors to ECE, such as the famous (Jean-Jacques Rousseau, John Dewey, and Patty Smith Hill), the ancient (the Greeks), and contemporary influences (the Reggio Emilia system). New ideas about building a personal philosophy of teaching and neuroscience challenge students to apply historical ideas to present-day practices.

  Chapter 2 moves the student directly into the importance of DAP in creating high-quality programs for young children. The principles of DAP are matched with examples of DAP in action so that students see a direct correlation between the DAP criteria and classroom applications. A discussion of early childhood core programs leads into variations of programs for different ages. The section on the relationship between assessment and high-quality programs helps students understand the various issues that affect quality.
- **Who Is the Young Child?** Section 2 of this book begins with a discussion of the young child's growth, followed by an overview of the developmental and learning theories that form the cornerstone of our knowledge about children.

  Chapter 3 provides students with an understanding of the nature of the children they teach and their common characteristics, wide individual differences, and (as applicable) special needs. Word Pictures, which are age-level descriptions, are a popular feature with students who have used this text because they enable students to anticipate children's needs and plan appropriate experiences that are inclusive of all children.

  Chapter 4 gives students a concise description of the major universal and life-span theories and key developmental topics on which sound teaching principles and practices are based. Attachment, moral development, play, and identity are cornerstones of learning, and updated information on language learning and gender stereotyping, as well as neuroscience research, put the leading theories to use.
- **Who Are the Teachers?** Section 3 of this book defines the aggregate of influences that act as teachers in the early childhood setting. Each chapter enlarges students' views of what makes a professional teacher.

  Chapter 5 describes the roles and responsibilities of an early childhood teacher as "professionalism in action," and introduces students to a broader definition of teaching. Examples of everyday ethical dilemmas provide opportunities for students to discuss their values and beliefs in response to the NAEYC Code of Ethical Conduct. The chapter also explores team-teaching situations, the importance of teacher evaluations, and the key elements for successful field experiences.

  Chapter 6 enhances students' ability to observe and record the behavior and development of young children. Along with a comprehensive description of observational tools and effective techniques, the specific topics of inclusion and dual language learners are addressed. Moreover, there are updated segments about child evaluation, early learning standards, and concerns about testing and screening.

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Chapter 7 demonstrates how guidance and behavior are critical factors in the life of a classroom teacher through vignettes that help students understand how and why young children behave as they do. Problem solving, conflict resolution, and a wide range of guidance techniques give students the necessary tools to guide young children's behavior.

Chapter 8 offers students a perspective on the all-important collaboration of families and teachers in creating the best possible learning environment for young children. Discussions of the definition of a family, today's family structures, and challenges facing parents bring relevance to students' experiences.

Chapter 9 defines the characteristics of high-quality environments that include elements of health, safety, and nutrition, as well as approaches that emphasize anti-bias, self-help, and the inclusion of children with varying abilities. Key dimensions of the physical, temporal, and interpersonal environments help students understand how the intentional use of the environment serves as a teaching strategy for positive behavior and engaged learning.

- **What Is Being Taught?** Section 4 of this book is a composite answer to the all-important question, "What are we teaching our children?" The first chapter in the section discusses the role of the curriculum, and four additional chapters address curricula for the major developmental domains.

  Chapter 10 is based on the premise that a high-quality curriculum is the foundation for early childhood learning, and it provides students with examples and models of DCAP approaches to a well-planned curriculum. Students learn the importance of play, how to develop emergent and integrated curricula, and how to create projects. They can use the text to understand how different learning styles can be applied to curriculum development and look at five popular curriculum models.

  Chapter 11 explores the physical and motor skills of young children, the importance of learning through movement, and basic skills that children need to learn. It helps students plan appropriate experiences and curricula that strengthen children's physical growth.

  Chapter 12 translates cognitive research, such as developmental psychology, multiple intelligences, and neuroscience, into curriculum practices. Science, technology, engineering, math, and the arts (STEAM) are included, as well as activity simplification and a "Special Topic" feature on technology and media.

  Chapter 13 addresses the development of language and literacy, including issues around Core Standards work in the United States. The many ways that teachers provide skill experiences for children is addressed, along with strategies for communication competence and a "Special Topic" feature about curricula for dual language learners.

  Chapter 14 offers conceptual information about the psychosocial domain (emotional, social, creative, and spiritual dimensions) and expands into effective curriculum approaches for emotional feelings, social sharing, creativity, and acknowledging the spirit, along with a "Special Topic" feature about emotional intelligence.

- **How Do We Teach for Tomorrow?** Section 5, which encompasses Chapter 15, helps students take a broad look at issues facing the early childhood field today. Finally, it serves as a bookend to the first chapter, repeating the four basic themes of the text in light of current needs:

  1. "Ethic of Social Reform" reflects current issues, such as affordable child care, universal preschools, and the influence of national legislation.
  2. "The Importance of Childhood" explores childhood stress, abuse and neglect, poverty, and divorce and their effects on children.
  3. "Transmitting Values" includes the media culture, the effect of violence, and several aspects of social diversity.
  4. "Professionalism" lays out standards for children's programs and professional competencies, as well as advocacy.

In each of these sections, students can learn about the reality of children's lives and how early childhood professionals can help them prepare for the challenges and responsibilities of adult life.

Special Features and Pedagogy

In this book, we offer numerous learning aids and engaging features to enrich the learning experience of students and to connect theory to practice. These include the following:

- **Learning Objectives** at the beginning of the chapter match the main chapter headings to provide students with a clear road map to the topics they will encounter in each chapter. The Summary, Review Questions, and Observe and Apply activities at the end of each chapter are also linked to the Learning Objectives.
- **The revised NAEYC Standards for Initial and Advanced Early Childhood Professional Preparation** that apply to each chapter are noted at the beginning of every chapter to help students focus on relevant chapter content.

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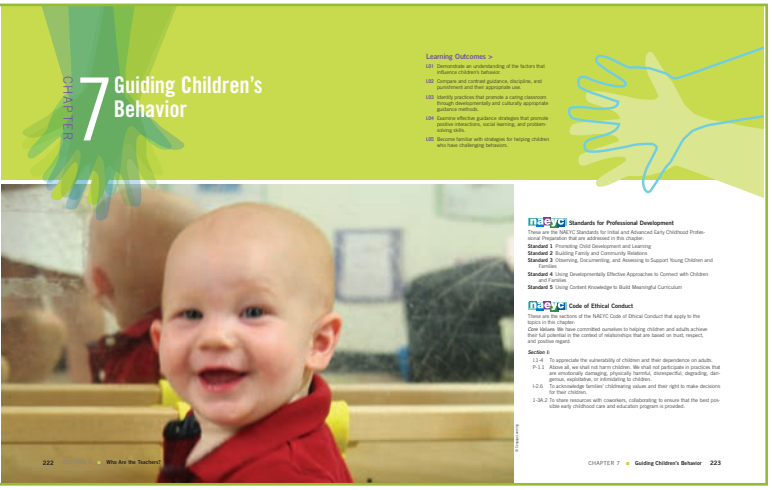
CHAPTER 7
Guiding Children's Behavior

Learning Outcomes >
LO1 Demonstrate an understanding of the factors that influence children's behavior.
LO2 Compare and contrast guidance, discipline, and punishment and their appropriate use.
LO3 Identify practices that promote a caring classroom through developmentally and culturally appropriate guidance techniques.
LO4 Examine effective guidance strategies that promote positive interactions, social learning, and problem-solving skills.
LO5 Become familiar with strategies for helping children who have challenging behaviors.

NAEYC Standards for Professional Development
These are the NAEYC Standards for Initial and Advanced Early Childhood Professional Preparation that are addressed in this chapter.
Standard 1 Promoting Child Development and Learning
Standard 2 Building Family and Community Relations
Standard 3 Observing, Documenting, and Assessing to Support Young Children and Families
Standard 4 Using Developmentally Effective Approaches to Connect with Children and Families
Standard 5 Using Content Knowledge to Build Meaningful Curriculum

NAEYC Code of Ethical Conduct
These are the sections of the NAEYC Code of Ethical Conduct that apply to the topics in this chapter.
Core Values We have committed ourselves to helping children and adults achieve their full potential in the context of relationships that are based on trust, respect, and positive regard.
Section I:
I-2.4 To appreciate the vulnerability of children and their dependence on adults.
P-1.1 Above all, we shall not harm children. We shall not participate in practices that are emotionally damaging, physically harmful, disrespectful, degrading, dangerous, exploitative, or intimidating to children.
I-2.6 To acknowledge families' childrearing values and their right to make decisions for their children.
I-3A.2 To share resources with coworkers, collaborating to ensure that the best possible early childhood care and education program is provided.

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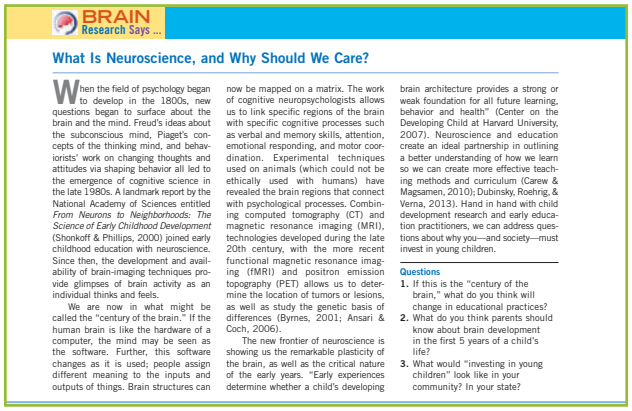
- **The NAEYC Code of Ethical Conduct**, which highlights core values, ideals, and principles that apply to the chapter content, is featured at the beginning of each chapter. It provides opportunities for students to become familiar with the Code and see its direct application to the teaching experience.
- **Brain Research Says . . .** is a new feature in each chapter that highlights some of the most important aspects of brain research and development today. The research is linked to classroom use and teacher application through questions that invite students to reflect on how this relates to their teaching.


BRAIN Research Says ...

What Is Neuroscience, and Why Should We Care?

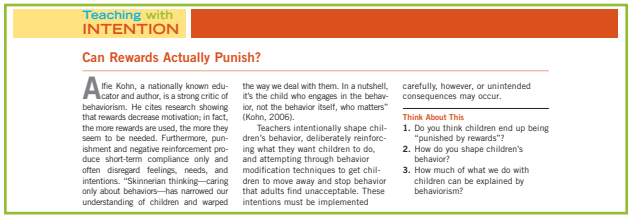
When the field of psychology began to develop in the 1800s, new questions began to surface about the brain and the mind. Freud's ideas about the subconscious mind, Piaget's concepts of the thinking mind, and behaviorists' work on changing thoughts and attitudes via shaping behavior all led to the emergence of cognitive science in the late 1980s. A landmark report by the National Academy of Sciences entitled *From Neurons to Neighborhoods: The Science of Early Childhood Development* (Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000) joined early childhood education with neuroscience. Since then, the development and availability of brain-imaging techniques provide glimpses of brain activity as an individual thinks and feels.

We are now in what might be called the "century of the brain." If the human brain is like the hardware of a computer, the mind may be seen as the software. Further, this software changes as it is used; people assign different meaning to the inputs and outputs of things. Brain structures can now be mapped on a matrix. The work of cognitive neuropsychologists allows us to link specific regions of the brain with specific cognitive processes such as verbal and memory skills, attention, emotional responding, and motor coordination. Experimental techniques used on animals (which could not be ethically used with humans) have revealed the brain regions that connect with psychological processes. Combining computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), technologies developed during the late 20th century, with the more recent functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and positron emission topography (PET) allows us to determine the location of tumors or lesions, as well as study the genetic basis of differences (Byrnes, 2001; Ansari & Coch, 2006).

The new frontier of neuroscience is showing us the remarkable plasticity of the brain, as well as the critical nature of the early years. "Early experiences determine whether a child's developing brain architecture provides a strong or weak foundation for all future learning, behavior and health" (Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University, 2007). Neuroscience and education create an ideal partnership in outlining a better understanding of how we learn so we can create more effective teaching methods and curriculum (Carew & Magsamen, 2010); Dubinsky, Roehrig, & Varma, 2013). Hand in hand with child development research and early education practitioners, we can address questions about why you—and society—must invest in young children.

Questions
1. If this is the "century of the brain," what do you think will change in educational practices?
2. What do you think parents should know about brain development in the first 5 years of a child's life?
3. What would "investing in young children" look like in your community? In your state?

- **Teaching with Intention** is a highlighted section in each chapter that discusses a concrete example related to the chapter content of how intentional teaching is practiced in early childhood programs. The questions at the end promote reflective teaching on the part of students.
- **Professional Resource Downloads** are downloadable, practical, and professional resources (which are often customizable) that allow students to immediately implement and apply the textbook's content in the field. Students can download these tools and keep them forever, enabling preservice teachers to build their library of practical, professional resources. Look for the "Professional Resource Download" label that identifies these items.


Teaching with INTENTION

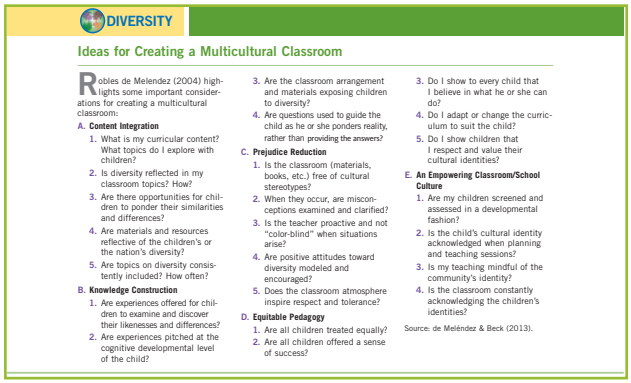
Can Rewards Actually Punish?

Alfie Kohn, a nationally known educator and author, is a strong critic of behaviorism. He cites research showing that rewards decrease motivation; in fact, the more rewards are used, the more they seem to be needed. Furthermore, punishment and negative reinforcement produce short-term compliance only and often disregard feelings, needs, and intentions. "Skinnerian thinking—caring only about behaviors—has narrowed our understanding of children and warped the way we deal with them. In a nutshell, it's the child who engages in the behavior, not the behavior itself, who matters" (Kohn, 2006).

Teachers intentionally shape children's behavior, deliberately reinforcing what they want children to do, and attempting through behavior modification techniques to get children to move away and stop behavior that adults find unacceptable. These intentions must be implemented carefully, however, or unintended consequences may occur.

Think About This
1. Do you think children end up being "punished by rewards"?
2. How do you shape children's behavior?
3. How much of what we do with children can be explained by behaviorism?

- **Developmentally Appropriate Practice (DAP) boxes** are included in each chapter to emphasize material that represents a DAP. This feature gives students a concrete example of DAP in action.
- **Diversity feature boxes** in every chapter bring attention to a relevant aspect of diversity (e.g., gender, language, inclusion, or culture) as an integral part of the teaching experience and expand students' understanding of what diversity means in the early childhood setting.


DIVERSITY

Ideas for Creating a Multicultural Classroom

Robles de Melendez (2004) highlights some important considerations for creating a multicultural classroom:

A. Content Integration
1. What is my curricular content? What topics do I explore with children?
2. Is diversity reflected in my classroom topics? How?
3. Are there opportunities for children to ponder their similarities and differences?
4. Are materials and resources reflective of the children's or the nation's diversity?
5. Are topics on diversity consistently included? How often?

B. Knowledge Construction
1. Are experiences offered for children to examine and discover their likenesses and differences?
2. Are experiences pitched at the cognitive developmental level of the child?
3. Are the classroom arrangement and materials exposing children to diversity?
4. Are questions used to guide the child as he or she ponders reality, rather than providing the answers?

C. Prejudice Reduction
1. Is the classroom (materials, books, etc.) free of cultural stereotypes?
2. When they occur, are misconceptions examined and clarified?
3. Is the teacher proactive and not "color-blind" when situations arise?
4. Are positive attitudes toward diversity modeled and encouraged?
5. Does the classroom atmosphere inspire respect and tolerance?

D. Equitable Pedagogy
1. Are all children treated equally?
2. Are all children offered a sense of success?
3. Do I show to every child that I believe in what he or she can do?
4. Do I adapt or change the curriculum to suit the child?
5. Do I show children that I respect and value their cultural identities?

E. An Empowering Classroom/School Culture
1. Are my children screened and assessed in a developmental fashion?
2. Is the child's cultural identity acknowledged when planning and teaching sessions?
3. Is my teaching mindful of the community's identity?
4. Is the classroom constantly acknowledging the children's identities?

Source: de Melendez & Beck (2013).

- **The Word Pictures special section** in Chapter 3 describes the major characteristics of children from infancy through 8 years of age. This popular feature helps students become familiar with expected behaviors in young children as a frame of reference for creating programs and planning curricula that respond to the children's interests, as well as their abilities and needs.
- **New and improved end-of-chapter aids** provide students with an overall review of the material within each chapter. The Summary, Review Questions, and Observe and Apply features are linked to the Learning Objectives at the beginning of the chapter and to the main chapter headings and suggest practical ways to integrate knowledge, theory, and experience. Key terms remind students of the most important

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Word Pictures

Four-Year-Old

Social–Emotional
Mood changes rapidly
Tries out feelings of power
Dominates; can be bossy, boastful, belligerent
Assertive, argumentative
Shows off; is cocky, noisy
Can fight own battles
Hits, grabs, insists on desires
Explosive, destructive
Easily over stimulated; excitable
Impatient in large groups*
Cooperates in groups of two or three*
Develops "special" friends,* but shifts loyalties often
May exclude others from play*
Resistant; tests limits
Exaggerates, tells tall tales
Alibis frequently
Teases, outwits; has terrific humor
May have scary dreams
Tattles frequently
Has food jags, food strikes

Language
Has more words than knowledge
A great talker, questioner
Likes words, plays with them
Has high interest in poetry
Able to talk to solve conflicts*
Responds to verbal directions
Enjoys taking turns to sing along
Interested in dramatizing songs, stories
Exaggerates, practices words

Active until exhausted
"Works": builds, drives, pilots
Can jump own height and land upright
Hops, skips
Throws large ball, kicks accurately
Hops and stands on one foot
Jumps over objects
Walks in a straight line
Races up and down stairs
Turns somersaults
Walks backward toe-heel
Accurate, rash body movements
Copies shapes such as a cross or square
Can draw a stick figure
Holds paintbrush in adult manner, pencil in fisted grasp
Can lace shoes
Dresses self except back buttons, ties
Has sureness and control in finger activities
Alternates feet going down stairs

Creative
Is adventurous
Shows vivid imagination
Displays great interest in violence in imaginary play
Loves anything new
Demonstrates more elaborate dramatic play
Makes up new words, sounds, and stories
Enjoys complexity in book illustrations
Exaggerates and goes to extreme


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Cognitive
Does some naming and representative art
Gives art products personal value
Can work for a goal*
Questions constantly*
Interested in how things work
Interested in life–death concepts
Has an extended attention span
Can do two things at once
Dramatic play is closer to reality*
Judges which of two objects is larger
Has concept of 3; can name more than 3 objects at a time
Has accurate sense of time
Full of ideas
Begins to generalize; often faulty*
Likes a variety of materials
Calls people names*
Has dynamic intellectual drive*
Has imaginary playmates
Recognizes several printed words

concepts, and the Helpful Websites and References provide added resources for students to expand their knowledge.

- **A correlation chart to the latest NAEYC Standards for Initial and Advanced Early Childhood Professional Preparation** is found on the inside covers of this book. This handy chart makes it easier for students to see where the key standards in the field are addressed in specific chapters and topics throughout the text.

What's New in This Edition

The tenth edition of *Beginnings and Beyond* represents a completely updated work, both in content and presentation. Some highlights of the new coverage and features include the following:

- **Every chapter has revised figures, photos, charts, and updated information**, making information more accessible and allowing students to readily grasp the material through features that challenge them to think about their desire to teach, inform them of best practices, and reinforce the content.
- **Special boxed features called "Brain Research Says"** draw out connections to brain research in relation to specific chapter content and conclude with critical thinking questions.
- **Developmentally Appropriate Practices (DAP)** discussions are highlighted in each chapter as a separate feature, and references are found throughout the text.
- **Diversity** continues to be integrated and emphasized throughout the text, but it is also highlighted with a new "Diversity" boxed feature in each chapter. Dual language learning is integrated into most chapters, as are features on lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered (LGBT) people and children with special needs.
- The topic of **intentional teaching** is highlighted by a boxed feature in each chapter called "Teaching with Intention," which offers a specific, content-related example and reflection questions.
- **Expanded coverage of key areas**, including poverty, special needs, LBGT information, dual language learning (DLL), core standards, play-based learning, children with special needs, behavior that is challenging, team teaching, diversity, emergent curricula, brain-based learning, technology and digital media use, professionalism, school-age children, and current issues and trends in the field.
- **A completely new and improved design** strengthens the presentation of this book and improves students' comprehension.
- **MindTap for Education** is a first-of-its kind digital solution with an integrated e-portfolio that prepares teachers by providing them with the knowledge, skills, and competencies that they must demonstrate to earn an education degree and state licensure, and to begin a successful career. Through activities based on real-life teaching situations, MindTap elevates students' thinking by giving them experiences in applying concepts, practicing skills, and evaluating decisions, guiding them to become reflective educators.

Accompanying Teaching and Learning Resources

The tenth edition of *Beginnings and Beyond* offers many ancillary materials that can support and enhance the text experience and an instructor's presentation of the course. From planning to presentation to testing, materials are available to provide students with an engaging and relevant exposure to the broad scope of topics in ECE.

Instructor's Manual and Test Bank

An online Instructor's Manual accompanies this book. It contains information to assist the instructor in designing the course, including teaching tips, chapter outlines, review questions, key terms, additional readings, chapter summaries, and resource lists. For assessment support, the updated test bank includes true/false, multiple-choice, matching, and short-answer questions for each chapter.

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Microsoft PowerPoint Lecture Slides

Designed with the goal of making instructors' lectures more engaging, these handy Microsoft® PowerPoint® slides outline the chapters of the main text in a classroom-ready presentation, making it easy for instructors to assemble, edit, publish, and present custom lectures.

Cognero

Cengage Learning Testing Powered by Cognero is an online system that allows you to author, edit, and manage test bank content from multiple Cengage Learning solutions; create multiple test versions in an instant; and deliver tests from your Learning Management System (LMS), your classroom, or wherever you want.

MindTap: The Personal Learning Experience

MindTap for *Beginnings and Beyond* represents a new approach to teaching and learning. A highly personalized, fully customizable learning platform with an integrated e-portfolio, MindTap helps students to elevate their thinking by guiding them to:

- Know, remember, and understand concepts critical to becoming a great teacher
- Apply concepts, create curricula and tools, and demonstrate performance and competency in key areas in the course, including national and state education standards
- Prepare artifacts for the portfolio and eventual state licensure, to launch a successful teaching career
- Develop the habits to become a reflective practitioner

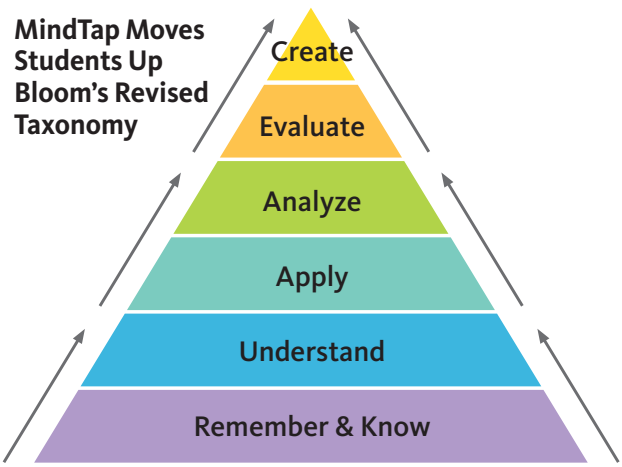
As students move through each chapter's Learning Path, they engage in a scaffolded learning experience that is designed to move them up Bloom's taxonomy from lower- to higher-order thinking skills. The Learning Path enables preservice students to develop these skills and gain confidence by:

- Engaging them with chapter topics and activating their prior knowledge by watching and answering questions about authentic videos of teachers teaching and children learning in real classrooms
- Checking their comprehension and understanding through "Did You Get It?" assessments, with varied question types that are autograded for instant feedback
- Applying concepts through mini-case scenarios—students analyze typical teaching and learning situations, and then create a reasoned response to the issues presented in the scenario
- Reflecting about and justifying the choices they made within the teaching scenario problem

MindTap helps instructors facilitate better outcomes by evaluating how future teachers plan and teach lessons in ways that make content clear and help diverse students learn, assessing the effectiveness of their teaching practice, and adjusting teaching as needed. MindTap enables instructors to facilitate better outcomes by:

- Making grades visible in real time through the Student Progress App so that students and instructors always have access to current standings in the class
- Using the Outcome Library to embed national education standards and align them to student learning activities, and also allowing instructors to add their state's standards or any other desired outcome
- Allowing instructors to generate reports on students' performance with the click of a mouse against any standards or outcomes that are in their MindTap course
- Giving instructors the ability to assess students on state standards or other local outcomes by editing existing MindTap activities or creating their own, and then by aligning those activities to any state standards or other outcomes that the instructor has added to the Outcome Library

MindTap for *Beginnings and Beyond* helps instructors easily set their course, since it integrates into the existing LMS and saves them time by allowing them to fully customize any aspect of the Learning Path. Instructors can change the order of the student learning activities, hide activities they do not want for the course, and—most important—create custom assessments and add any standards, outcomes, or content that they do want (e.g., YouTube videos, Google Docs). Learn more at www.cengage.com/mindtap.



Anderson, L. W., & Krathwohl, D. (Eds.). (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives.* New York: Longman.

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About the Authors

Ann Miles Gordon has been an early childhood professional for more than 45 years as a teacher of young children, a teacher of parents, and a teacher of college students. She has taught in laboratory schools, church-related centers, and private and public preschool and kindergarten programs. Ann taught at the Bing Nursery School, the laboratory school for Stanford University's Department of Psychology, where she also was a head teacher and lecturer in the department. Ann also served as an adjunct faculty member in several community colleges, teaching the full gamut of early childhood courses. Ann served for 14 years as executive director of the National Association of Episcopal Schools, where more than 1,100 early childhood programs were part of her network. Ann is semiretired and a hands-on grandmother of two, and she volunteers as a consultant to a number of church-based early childhood programs in the San Francisco area.

Kathryn Williams Browne has been teaching children, families, and students for more than 30 years. First a teacher of young children—nursery school, parent cooperative, full-day child care, prekindergarten, bilingual preschool, kindergarten, and first grade—she later moved to Stanford University's lab school, where she served as head teacher and a psychology lecturer. Co-authoring *Beginnings and Beyond* with Ann was enhanced by Kate's role as a parent: her two children were born during the first two editions, so the book developed along with them. Her consultant and school board experience offered perspectives into public policy and reform. Kate teaches in the California Community College system, leading the ECE department as it expands into the fields of early childhood special education and elementary education. She serves as regional coordinator of the California Early Childhood Mentor program, which offers the richness of a diverse student population coupled with the challenges of access and privilege that parallel those in the early education field itself. Special assignments for Kate include the State ECE Faculty Association, Skyline College Academic Senate, and California State Commission on Teacher Credentialing, which add special challenges of diversity and professionalism of ECE.

Ann and Kate are also coauthors of *Beginning Essentials in Early Childhood Education* (Wadsworth Cengage Learning, 2016), *Early Childhood Field Experiences: Learning to Teach Well* (Pearson, 2014), and *Guiding Young Children in a Diverse Society*.

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BEGINNINGS & BEYOND

Foundations in Early Childhood Education

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SECTION 1 WHAT IS THE FIELD OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION?

CHAPTER 1

History of Early Childhood Education

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Learning Objectives >

LO1 List the major historical contributions of European and non-Western perspectives that influence modern early childhood education.

LO2 Describe the primary American influences on early childhood education.

LO3 Identify the three professions that closely connect to the field and their major contributions to early childhood education.

LO4 Define the four major themes that shape practices and policies of early childhood education.

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naeyc Standards for Professional Development

The following NAEYC standards for early childhood professional development are addressed in this chapter:

Standard 1 Promoting Child Development and Learning

Standard 2 Building Family and Community Relationships

Standard 5 Using Content Knowledge to Build Meaningful Curriculum

Standard 6 Becoming a Professional

naeyc Code of Ethical Conduct

These are the sections of the NAEYC Code of Ethical Conduct that apply to the topics of this chapter:

Core Values: We have committed ourselves to appreciating childhood as a unique and valuable stage of the human life cycle.

Section I. Childhood is a unique and valuable stage of the human life cycle.

Section I I-1.3. To recognize and respect the uniqueness and the potential of each child.

Section III I-3B.2. To do nothing that diminishes the reputation of the program in which we work unless it is violating laws and regulations designed to protect children of the provisions of this Code.

Please refer to Figure 1-2, *An Abbreviated Timeline for Early Childhood Education.*

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Introduction

Early childhood education has a rich and exciting history. The stories of our field chronicle courageous people who took steps toward improving children's lives. Critical events have had a hand in shaping the history of early childhood education and its teachers. As the conditions of childhood and early education have changed through the centuries, its educators have also adapted to those challenges.

While reading this chapter, imagine yourself as a time traveler. As you go back in time, you span the centuries and meet the people whose vision helped to shape our profession. You learn how Friedrich Froebel's own unhappy childhood inspired a new way of teaching called kindergarten. You see the passion and struggle of Maria Montessori as she convinces the world that "slum children" can learn and succeed. You witness the dedication of the United States to create a program for preschoolers known as "Head Start." You see early childhood teaching become a profession that includes infants and toddlers, kindergarten and early primary grades, and children with special needs.

There is more than one right way to educate young children. Every culture has the task of socializing and educating its young. The historical record may document several educational philosophies, but there is no single monopoly on ideas about children. People across the world have influenced our ideas about children and their education. Other disciplines (such as medicine, education, and psychology) inform early childhood teaching. Current issues always influence what is happening for young children and their teachers. What emerge are some consistent themes over time.

All professions have a canon of beliefs and practices. As you acquire this knowledge, you begin to develop your own *philosophy of teaching* (based, in part, on information gathered in this chapter). As you do, be sure to constantly rethink your practices. See the "Teaching with Intention" box to delve into why knowing the history of early childhood education is important.

All professionals should reexamine themselves on a regular basis because although understanding the past makes sense for **professional identity**, recognizing that historical records are a reflection of certain cultural norms is also crucial. For example, mainstream educational philosophy claims the following areas are "universal," but cross-cultural research has shown them not to be:

- Early attainment of individuality and independence
- The necessity of early and free exploration
- The critical importance of the early stimulation of intellect and language

Teaching with INTENTION

Why Does History Help?

Most early childhood education students and many educators know little about the origins of their chosen profession. To better build your philosophy of teaching, note the links between the past to *your* present:

- ***Support:*** Learning the works of others validates our ideas. The philosophies of Froebel, Montessori, and Dewey are part of the foundation of our educational practices. Traditional early childhood practices reflect European values and beliefs, and looking beyond the dominant culture to writings of Africa, Asia, and South America broadens your viewpoint.
- ***Inspiration:*** Knowing our deep roots helps develop professional expression. Ideas of past educators offer you more methods of teaching. An historical overview clarifies how children and learning are viewed based on the religious, political, and economic pressures.
- ***Identity and commitment:*** Accepting the mission of our field commits you to enhancing the education, development, and well-being of young children. Such identity brings with it an awareness of the diversity in cultural norms. Be cautious of theories or opinions claiming to be "universal." For instance, history notes that schools of the past were overwhelmingly created for boys; this gender bias of past practices adds to the underdevelopment of girls and prevails today in parts of the world.

Add your voice to those crusaders for education as you create your personal philosophy of education. Include an element of reform in making the work of teaching into a legitimate profession. Listen to their voices so that you can develop your own.

Think About This

1. If you didn't know anything about the history of the field, what mistakes would you likely make in your first year of teaching?
2. Which historical figures interest you in developing a personal philosophy of teaching?
3. What are the strongest ideas that draw you to this work? Why would finding historical roots for your professional identity help you in your career?

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The first reflects a priority of many Western European cultures, but it is not a common practice in societies that promote group harmony and interdependence. As to the second, many indigenous groups hold their very young children close, carrying them along while they work; there is no data that indicate these children develop poorly. And as to the third, although American educational systems of the early 21st century are building on increasing academic and intellectual standards, there is no universal mandate for an exclusive focus on this developmental domain in the early years. Figure 1-1 offers other traditional educational practices, their historical context, and alternatives to consider as you create your own educational philosophy. Perhaps some of the mistakes of the past can be avoided if history is remembered.

Defining the Terms

The term **early childhood education** refers to group settings deliberately intended to affect developmental changes in children from birth to 8 years of age. In school terms, it includes group settings for infants through the primary years of elementary school, kindergarten through third grade in the United States. In programmatic terms, the education of young children includes formal and informal group settings regardless of their initial purpose. For instance, after-school programs for

REFLECTING ON PRACTICES: Building Your Philosophy of Teaching

Educational Practice	Historical Context and ECE Trend/Practice	Think Again . . .
Same-age grouping	Since the 1850s, U.S. elementary schools have used target curriculum goals for primarily one-year groupings.	• Learning takes place with "guided collaboration," which often occurs with an older "expert."
Mixed-age grouping		• Children learn when challenged to accommodate to higher-level thinking, which is likely to occur with a mixed-age range. • Developing values of caring and responsibility happen best when children practice helping and protecting younger children. • Reduced family size indicates that multiage experiences should happen in schooling. • Diversity (gender, culture, exceptionality, etc.) makes strict target goals unrealistic.
Daily schedules	Routines are the framework for most Eastern and Western programs, offering security and predictability.	• Children's sense of time is unlike that of adults, so rigid schedules do not correspond to their development.
Flexible scheduling		• Brain research indicates a need for stimulation, change, and challenge rather than the same structure constantly.
Curriculum is at the center of good programs.	Contemporary American education states that a plan for learning must be driven by specific outcomes in order to be assured that children are learning.	• Not following an adult-planned and driven curriculum worked well for geniuses such as Einstein, Erikson, and Bill Gates. • Educators as diverse as Dewey and Steiner promoted curricula based on children's interests or innate spirit. • Children appear to learn well through a curriculum that emerges following their interests and timetable.

■ **FIGURE 1-1** As you develop a philosophy of teaching, be sure to examine common beliefs and practices of the profession.

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elementary ages are included, as are their formal academic sessions.

Early childhood educators thus build bridges between a child's two worlds: school (or group experience) and home. It is during these years that the foundation for future learning is set; these are the **building block years**, during which a child learns to walk, talk, establish an identity, print, and count. In later years, that same child builds on these skills to be able to climb mountains, speak a second language, learn to express and negotiate, write in cursive, and understand multiplication.

World Influences

When did early childhood education first begin? Refer to Figure 1-2, *An Abbreviated Timeline for Early Childhood Education*. Getting a visual sense of when and where things happened can help you make sense of the various threads in our tapestry of early childhood educational history.

Looking at the timeline lets you see how impressive the accomplishments really are. For instance, 2016 marks several milestones:

- Fifty years ago: The U.S. Congress passed bills that authorized both Head Start and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act/Title 1.
- Thirty years ago: Accreditation by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) for programs serving young children was launched.
- Two years ago: The first American Summit on Early Education was convened by President Barack Obama.

In addition, the timeline helps us see that it is impossible to pinpoint the origins of humankind. There are few records from millions of years ago. Some preparation for adult life was done informally, mostly through imitation. As language developed, communication occurred. Children learned dances, rituals, and ceremonies, and both boys and girls were taught skills for their respective roles in the tribe. Ancient historical documents seem to indicate that child-rearing practices were somewhat crude; DeMause (1974) even suggests that the further you go back in history, the more likely that you will find abandonment and brutality toward children.

European Roots

The definition of childhood has varied greatly throughout history. For example, in ancient times, children were considered adults by age 7. A society's definition of childhood influences how it educates its children.

In Ancient Times

Many of our own practices are founded on those developed in Greece and Rome. Greek education—and virtually all classical European schooling—was provided for the boys of wealthy families, while girls and working-class children received training for domestic work or a trade.

Education began by age 6 or 7, although Plato and Aristotle both spoke of the need to educate the younger child. Some ancient Romans felt that education should begin at home as soon as a child began to talk, and they highlighted the use of rewards and the ineffectiveness of corporal punishment (Hewes, 1993).

Probably the first education in schools outside the home or homelike apprenticeship took place in ancient Greek and Roman times. Plato (427–c. 348 BC), Aristotle (384–323 BC), Cicero (143–106 BC), and Polybius (222–204 BC) founded schools with the model of small-group tutoring, teaching wealthy boys thinking skills, governing, military strategy, and managing commerce. Our word *educate* comes from the Latin verb *educare*, through the French verb *educere*, to draw forth or to lead.

As the Roman Empire deteriorated and society fell apart (400–1200 AD), childhood lasted barely beyond infancy. Although education was the responsibility of parents, most people in those days were busy fighting for survival. Childhood was not seen as a separate time of life, and children were used in the labor force. People left villages and towns for the safety of a local baron or king, and schools ceased to exist. Few members of the ruling class could read or write their names, and the monastery schools were for priests and religious instruction only.

The education of children was fairly simple before the 15th century; there was no educational system, and the way of life was uncomplicated as well. The church control of school in the medieval period meant that education projected a view of children as basically evil in their natural state. The value of education was in preparation for an afterlife. Children learned mostly through their parents or by apprenticeship outside the family. The child was expected and encouraged to move into adulthood as fast as possible. Survival was the primary goal in life. Because the common religious belief was that people were naturally evil, children had to be directed, punished, and corrected constantly.

What little we know of systematic learning developed during the Dark Ages through the policies of Charlemagne, who proclaimed that the nobility should know their letters, and from monastery schools that maintained libraries. A new social class in the form of craft guilds began to grow as apprenticeships expanded.

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Although education was sparse, the seeds of learning were planted, including the introduction of the concepts of equality and brotherhood, a continuing concern of educators today.

In the Renaissance and Reformation

The European Renaissance and Reformation (1400–1600) brought more ease and freedom for the common person. Children were seen as pure and good. The printing press, invented by Johannes Gutenberg in 1439, made books more available to the common person rather than exclusively to the domain of monks and church-sponsored schools. Martin Luther (1482–1546) urged parents to educate their children by teaching them morals and catechism.

The first humanist educators began to advocate a basic education for all children, including girls and the poor. The call for a *universal education* and *literacy* are two fundamental effects of this period on education as we know it today. Concern for the common man was on the rise, as skilled craftsmen formed a kind of middle class. By the 1500s, schools that taught subjects such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and bookkeeping were fairly common throughout Europe.

The German school system was established at this time and would influence education in all parts of Europe. People changed the way they looked at children and their education. Towns grew and expanded, and there was an opportunity to move to new lands. Living conditions improved and infant mortality waned. Children were living longer. The acquisition of knowledge and skills at an earlier age became important. If educated, children could be expected to help their family improve its situation. Parents found that they needed help in teaching their children.

Into Modern Times

Johann Amos Comenius A Czech educator, Comenius (1592–1670) wrote the first picture book for children. Called *Orbis Pictus (The World of Pictures)* and published *in* 1658, it was a guide for teachers that included training of the senses and the study of nature. Comenius fostered the belief that education should follow the natural order of things. His ideas included the "school of the mother's lap," in which children's development follows a timetable of its own and their education should reflect that fact. Comenius advocated approaching learning based on the principles of nature. He believed that "in all the operations of nature, development is from within," so children should be allowed to learn at their own pace. He also proposed that teachers should work with children's own inclinations, for "what is natural takes place without compulsion" (Gianoutsos, 2011). Teachers must observe and work with this natural order—the timetable—to ensure successful learning. This idea was later reflected in Montessori's **sensitive periods** and Jean Piaget's stages of development. Today it is recognized as the issue of school **readiness**.

Orbis Pictus, by John Comenius

■ *Orbis Pictus*, by Johann Comenius, is considered the first picture book written for children.

Comenius also stressed a basic concept that is now taken for granted: learning by doing. He encouraged parents to let their children play with other children of the same age. Rather than pushing a standard curriculum, Comenius said that "the desire to know and to learn should be excited . . . in every possible manner" (Keatinge, 1896). He also reflected the growing social reform that would educate the poor, as well as the rich.

In summary, probably the three most significant contributions of Comenius are *books with illustrations*, an emphasis on *education with the senses*, and the *social reform* potential of education.

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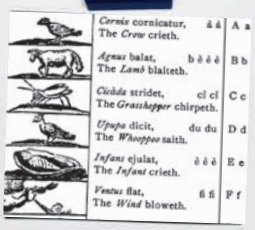
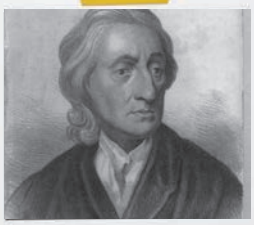
TIMELINE: An Abbreviated Timeline for Early Childhood Education



1657 *Orbis Pictus*



1690 John Locke

1762 *Emile*, by Rousseau

Authors' Note: A debt of gratitude is owed to D. Keith Osborn for his outstanding historical research and to James L. Hymes, Jr., for his generous time and perspective.

5th–3rd centuries BC to AD 1400s Few records exist concerning child-rearing practices; the development of cities gives rise to schooling on a larger scale.

1423 & 1439 The invention of printing and movable type allows knowledge to spread rapidly; ideas and techniques become available to large numbers of people; printing is credited with bringing about the end of the Middle Ages and the beginning of the Renaissance.

1657 *Orbis Pictus*, by Comenius, is the first children's book with pictures.

1690 John Locke published his essay, which postulated that children are born with a tabula rasa, or clean slate, on which all experiences are written.

1740–1860s Sabbath schools and clandestine schools are established as facilities to educate African Americans in the United States.

1762 *Emile*, by Rousseau, proclaims the child's natural goodness.

1777 *The New England Primer* is the first American textbook printed.

1801 *How Gertrude Teaches Her Children*, by Pestalozzi, emphasizes home education.

1826 *Education of Man*, by Froebel, describes the first system of kindergarten education as a "child's garden," with activities known as "gifts from God."

1837 Froebel opens the first kindergarten in Blankenburg, Germany.

1856 Margarethe Schurz opens the first kindergarten in the United States.

1860 Elizabeth Peabody opens the first English-speaking kindergarten in Boston.

1861 Robert Owen sets up an infant school in New Lanark, England, as an instrument of social reform for children of parent workers in his mills.

1871 The first public kindergarten in North America opens in Ontario, Canada. (First public American kindergarten: 1873.)

1873 The Butler School at the Hampton Institute is opened as a free school for black children, including kindergarten curriculum for five-year-olds.

1880 First teacher-training program for kindergartners, Oshkosh Normal School, Pennsylvania.

1892 International Kindergarten Union founded; becomes the Association for Childhood Education in 1930, increasing its scope to include elementary education.

1896 John Dewey establishes a laboratory school at the University of Chicago and develops a pragmatic approach to education, becoming the father of the Progressive movement in American education.

1897 *My Pedagogic Creed* is published, detailing the opposition to rote learning and the philosophy of educating "the whole child."

1903 The Committee of Nineteen, a splinter group of the International Kindergarten Union, forms to report various philosophical concepts. Members include Patty Smith Hill, Lucy Wheelock, and Susan Blow.

■ **FIGURE 1-2** An Abbreviated Timeline for Early Childhood Education

1801 Johann H. Pestalozzi

1837 Frederick Froebel

1873 Hampton Institute

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1896 John Dewey Lab School

1907 Maria Montessori

1907 *Casa di Bambini* (Children's House) is opened by Maria Montessori in a slum district in Rome, Italy. She later develops an educational philosophy and program to guide children's growth through the senses and practical life experiences.

1909 First White House Conference on Children is held by Theodore Roosevelt, leading to the establishment of the Children's Bureau in 1912.

1911 Deptford School, an open-air school in the slums of London, is opened by Margaret McMillan. The school emphasizes health and play, coining the phrase "nursery school."

1915 First U.S. Montessori school opens in New York City.

1916 The Bureau of Educational Experiments, which becomes the Bank Street College of Education (and laboratory school) in 1922, is founded by L. S. Mitchell, who is a leading proponent of progressive education at the early childhood level.

1916 First Cooperative Nursery School opens at the University of Chicago.

1918 First public nursery schools are opened in England.

1921 A. S. Neill founds Summerhill School in England, which becomes a model for the "free school" movement (the book entitled *Summerhill* is published in 1960).

1922 Abigail Eliot opens the Ruggles Street Nursery School and Training Center.

1925–1926 The National Committee on Nursery Schools is founded by Patty Smith Hill; it becomes the National Association for Nursery Education (NANE) and eventually the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC).

1926 Arnold Gesell establishes the Clinic of Child Development at Yale University and studies norms of child growth and behavior.

1926–1927 Research facilities are founded at several American universities and colleges (e.g., Smith College, Vassar College, Yale University, and Mills College).

1927 Dorothy Howard establishes the first black nursery school in Washington, D.C., and operates it for over 50 years.

1929 Lois Meeks Stolz is named the first president of the National Association for Nursery Education (later to become NAEYC), and joins the Teachers College (Columbia University) faculty to start the laboratory school and Child Development Institute. Stolz later becomes the director of the Kaiser Child Service Centers during World War II.

1929 Susan Isaacs publishes *The Nursery Years*, which contradicts the more scientific psychological view of behavior shaping and emphasizes the child's viewpoint and the value of play.

1929–1931 Hampton Institute, Spellman College, and Bennett College open black laboratory nursery schools, emphasizing child development principles as in other lab schools and serving as training centers.

1933 The Works Progress Administration (WPA) opens emergency nurseries for relief of unemployed teachers during the Great Depression.

1935 First toy lending library, Toy Loan, begins in Los Angeles.

1936 The first commercial telecast is shown in New York City, starring Felix the Cat.

1943–1945 The Kaiser Shipyard Child Care Center, run by Lois Meeks Stolz, James Hymes, and Edith Dowley, operates 24-hour care in Portland, Oregon.

1944 *Young Children* is first published by NAEYC.

1946 Dr. Benjamin Spock's *Baby and Child Care* is published. It advocates a more permissive attitude toward children's behavior and encourages exploratory behavior.

1946 Loris Malguzzi starts a school in Reggio Emilia, Italy, emphasizing the child's individual creative expression.

1948 The United States National Committee of the World Organization for Early Childhood Education (USNC OMEP) is founded to promote the

1916 Bank Street College of Education

1921 A. S. Neill

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TIMELINE: An Abbreviated Timeline for Early Childhood Education

1946 Dr. Benjamin Spock

education of children internationally; it begins to consult with UNICEF and UNESCO with the United Nations. It starts publishing a journal, the *International Journal of Early Childhood*, in 1969.

1948 Bloom's taxonomy is published.

1954 U.S. Supreme Court ruled in *Brown v. Board of Education* that in public education, the doctrine of "separate but equal" has no place.

1956 La Leche League is established to provide mothers with information on breastfeeding, childbirth, infants, and child care. The first meeting of the league is held at the home of Mary White, one of the seven founders.

1960 Katherine Whiteside Taylor founds the American Council of Parent Cooperatives, which later becomes the Parent Cooperative Preschools International.

1960 Nancy McCormick Rambusch founds the American Montessori movement.

1962 Perry Preschool Project, directed by David Weikart, opens in Ypsilanti, Michigan, and conducts a longitudinal study to measure the effects of preschool education on later school and life.

1964–1965 The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 is passed by the 88th Congress, becoming the foundation of Head Start programs in the United States, as part of a federal "war on poverty."

1966 The Bureau of Education for the Handicapped is established.

1966 NANE becomes NAEYC.

1969 Pediatrician T. Berry Brazelton publishes *Infants and Mothers*, along with several other books and numerous articles advocating a sensible and intimate relationship between parents and children.

1969 The Ford Foundation, Carnegie Corporation, and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare subsidize the Children's Television Workshop, which develops the children's TV program *Sesame Street*.

1971 Stride-Rite Corporation of Boston opens a children's program on site, becoming a vanguard for employer-supported child care.

1972 The Child Development Associate Consortium is started by Edward Ziegler to develop a professional teacher training program (now known as Child Development Associates).

1975 PL 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children bill, is passed by Congress, mandating appropriate education for special needs children in the "least restrictive environment" possible, thus defining the concepts of "mainstreaming" and "full inclusion."

1979 The United Nations declares the International Year of the Child.

1982 Marion Wright Edelman establishes the Children's Defense Fund (CDF), a Washington-based lobby on behalf of children, particularly children of poverty and color.

1983 *A Nation at Risk*, a report by the National Commission on Excellence in Education, is published, which concluded, "If an unfriendly foreign power had attempted to impose on America the mediocre educational performance that exists today, we might well have viewed it as an act of war."

1984 NAEYC publishes a report entitled *Developmentally Appropriate Practices*, which outlines what is meant by "quality" work with young children from infancy through age 8.

1985 NAEYC establishes a National Academy and a voluntary accreditation system for centers, in an effort to improve the quality of children's lives, and confers its first accreditation the next year.

1986 U.S. Department of Education declares the Year of the Elementary School. PL. 99-457, amending PL 94-142, establishes a national policy on early intervention for children as young as infants.

1990 The Child Care Development Block Grant is established to improve the quality, availability, and affordability of child care programs.

1964–1965 J. M. Sugarman, a Head Start founder

1969 T. Berry Brazelton

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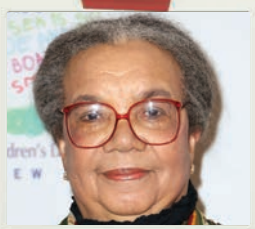

1982 Marion Wright Edelman

1990 The U.N. Children's World Summit includes the following goals to be reached by the year 2000: (1) to reduce child mortality below age 5 by one third; (2) to provide universal access to basic education; and (3) to protect children in dangerous situations.

1990 The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) is passed by Congress, requiring programs of all sizes to care for and accommodate the needs of children with disabilities whenever they are reasonably able to do so.

1991 "Ready to Learn/America 2000," part of the U.S. government's educational strategy for reforming American public schools, is published.

1991 The first Worthy Wage Day, organized by the Child Care Employee Project, is held on April 9, drawing attention to the inadequate compensation of early childhood workers and how this affects the retention of a skilled and stable workforce.

1993 The Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) passes, providing new parents with 12 weeks of unpaid, job-protected leave.

1996 The first "Stand for Children" demonstration is held in Washington, DC, drawing 200,000 participants.

Rethinking the Brain, published by the Family and Work Institute, summarizes the new research on children's brain development.

1997 The Child Development Permit Matrix is adopted by the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, introducing the career ladder concept into early childhood public education.

1998 The 100,000th CDA Credential is awarded by Carol Brunson Phillips, executive director of the Council for Early Childhood Professionals.

2002 In the United States, the Leave No Child Behind legislation is passed, reauthorizing federal programs to improve public school performance, requiring all public schools that receive federal funds to administer a statewide standardized test annually to all students, specifying an annual report card detailing progress, and calling for highly qualified teachers with minimum qualifications for all students.

2003 Universal preschool is considered as a next step in providing equal access to quality early educational experiences for all children under 5 years of age.

2007 State-funded preschools rise in per-child funding, expanded access, and moved toward higher quality standards.

2008 12 states in the United States still provide no state preschool for their children.

2009 A Joint Interagency Policy Board of Early Learning is established by the Departments of Health and Human Services and Education in the United States.

2010 Common Core State Standards for grades K–12 in English language arts and mathematics are published.

2012 The U.S. government initiates a competitive grant process for the development of Early Learning Plans in the individual states (called "Race to the Top").

2013 Head Start completes its initial plan to raise teacher education requirements by requiring at least one teacher in each classroom to hold a bachelor's degree.

2014 The first American Summit on Early Childhood Education is convened in Washington, D.C., by President Barack Obama.

2015 Deadline for NAEYC-accredited programs to have 50% of teachers holding a bachelor's degree and the remainder to have at least an associate's degree.

2007 State-Funded Preschool

2013 Head Start

Photo Credits: 1982, Monica Schipper/FilmMagic/Getty Images; 2007, AP Images/Greg Wahl-Stephens; 2013, Eric Swalwell

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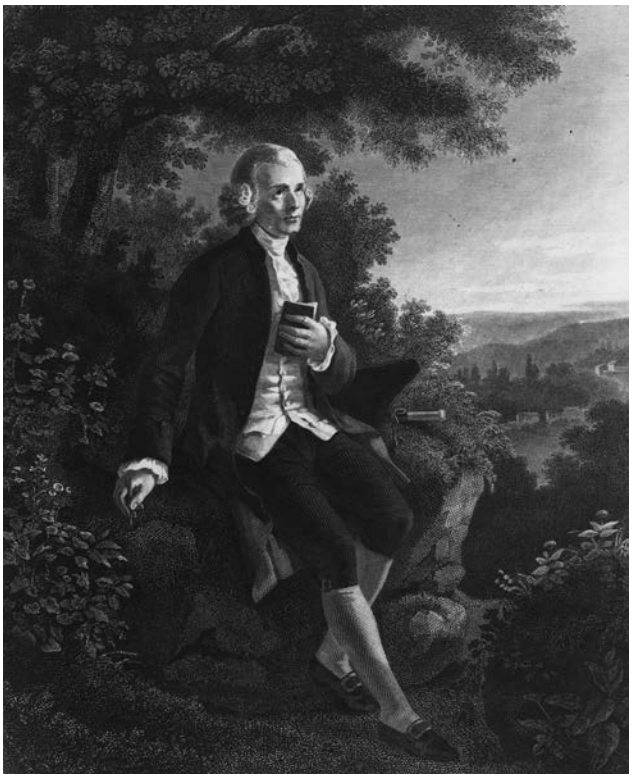
John Locke An English philosopher, Locke (1632–1714) is considered to be the founder of modern educational philosophy. He based his theory of education on the scientific method and the study of the mind and learning. Locke theorized the concept of **tabula rasa**, the belief that the child is born neutral, rather than evil, and is a "clean slate" on which the experiences of parents, society, education, and the world are written. He based his theory on the scientific method and approached a child as a doctor would examine a patient. He was one of the first European educators to discuss the idea of individual differences gleaned from observing one child rather than simply teaching a group. Education needed to take the individual learner into account.

The purpose of education, he claimed, is to make humans reasoning creatures. A working knowledge of the Bible and a counting ability sufficient to conduct business was the fundamental education required of adults, so children were taught those basic skills. Locke suggested that such instruction should be pleasant, with playful activities, as well as drills. Locke's influence on education was not felt strongly at the time. Later, however, his best ideas, such as the notion that the teacher must work through the senses to help children reach understanding, were popularized by Jean-Jacques Rousseau in the 18th century. Today, teachers still emphasize a sensory approach to learning.

In summary, Locke's contribution is felt most in our acceptance of *individual differences*, in *giving children reasons* as the basis for helping children to learn, and in his *theory of a "clean slate"* that points to the effect of the environment on learning.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau With innovations from Comenius, educational challenges from Locke, and changes to science introduced by Charles Darwin, the time was ripe for new ideas about childhood. Rousseau (1712–1778), a Swiss writer and philosopher, proposed that children were not inherently evil, but naturally good. He is best known for his book *Emile* (1761), in which he raised a hypothetical child to adulthood. He reasoned that education should reflect this goodness and allow spontaneous interests and activities of the children. "Let us lay it down as an incontrovertible rule that the first impulses of nature are always right; there is no original sin in the human heart . . . the only natural passion is self-love or selfishness taken in a wider sense."

Rousseau's ideas on education in and of themselves were nothing short of revolutionary for the times. Making what might be considered the first comprehensive attempt to describe a system of education according to nature, his concern for the learner led him to the idea that children learn from firsthand information and their views are different from those of adults. Moreover, a child's mind develops in distinct phases and teachers should adjust their instruction accordingly.



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■ Rousseau advocated that children were naturally good and should have a flexible and less restrained school atmosphere.

Although he was not an educator, Rousseau suggested that school atmosphere should be less restrained and more flexible to meet the needs of the children. He insisted on using **concrete** teaching materials, leaving the abstract and symbolism for later years. His call to *naturalism* transformed education in such a way that led educators to eventually focus more on the early years. For instance, in *Emile*, he encouraged others to "sacrifice a little time in early childhood, and it will be repaid to you with usury when your scholar is older." Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Montessori were greatly influenced by him. The theories of developmental stages, such as of Jean Piaget and Arnold Gesell (see Chapter 4), support Rousseau's idea of natural development. In Europe, his ideas had a ripple effect that sent waves across the Atlantic Ocean.

Rousseau's ideas are still followed today in early childhood classes. *Free play* is based on Rousseau's

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belief in *children's inherent goodness* and ability to choose what they need to learn. Environments that stress autonomy and self-regulation have their roots in Rousseau's philosophy. Using *concrete rather than abstract materials* for young children is still one of the cornerstones of developmentally appropriate curriculum in the early years.

Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi A Swiss educator, Pestalozzi (1746–1827) offered theories on education and caring that have formed the basis of many common teaching practices of early childhood education. Like Rousseau, he used nature study as part of the curriculum and believed that good education meant the development of the senses. Rather than simply glorify nature, however, Pestalozzi became more pragmatic, including principles on how to teach basic skills and the idea of caring for as well as educating the child. Pestalozzi stressed the idea of the **integrated curriculum** that would develop the whole child. He wanted education to be of the hand, the head, and the heart of the child. Teachers were to guide self-activity through intuition, exercise, and the senses. Along with intellectual content, he proposed that practical skills be taught in the schools. He differed from Rousseau in that he proposed teaching children in groups, rather than using a tutor with an individual child. Pestalozzi's works *How Gertrude Teaches Her Children* and *Book for Mothers* detail some procedures for mothers to use at home with their children. Probably his greatest contribution is the blending of Rousseau's strong romantic ideals with his own egalitarian attitude: "I wish to wrest education from the outworn order of doddering old teaching hacks as well as from the newfangled order of cheap, artificial teaching tricks, and entrust it to the eternal powers of nature herself" (as quoted in Silber, 1965).

In summary, Pestalozzi's contributions are strongest around the *integration of the curriculum* and *group teaching.* He initiated *sensory education* and blended both *freedom* and *limits* into working with children.

Robert Owen An industrialist and follower of Pestalozzi, Owen (1771–1858) extended his concerns for social reform to the families of those working in the cotton mills of Wales. He established labor practices for the workers and schooling for their children, most of whom began working in the mills as young as 6 years old.

Owen was a self-made businessman whose philosophy extended to the creation of an ideal community. Like Rousseau, he believed that people were naturally good but were corrupted by harsh environment and poor treatment. He took his ideas to the British House of Commons, speaking against the common practice of child labor. He then was invited to take over the building of a school in New Lanark, a 2,000-person community near several textile mills. Once there, he stopped the employment of children younger than 10 years, sent younger children to nursery and infant schools that he built, and required the mills to allow secondary-age children to reduce their labor time to go to school.

His **infant school** provided a secure setting for children 3 to 10 years of age, and was based on a philosophy of guidance rather than punishment; nature study, dance and song, and stories were included in the program. His son and daughter emigrated to the United States and founded the community of New Harmony. Both utopian communities were built on Owen's ideas of a new social order built on experimentation and reform. Owen moved to the American Midwest in 1825 to start a school in this utopian community in Indiana. While his schools did not survive on either continent, his ideas did: British infant schools were created in England in the early 20th century for 5- to 8-year-olds, and the concepts of the Infant School Society of 1885 were incorporated into American kindergartens and Lanham Act nurseries (Wolfe, 2002).

Friedrich Wilhelm Froebel One of the major contributors to early childhood education, Froebel (1782–1852) is best known as the "Father of the Kindergarten." His organization of educational thought and ideas about learning, curriculum, and teacher training served as the foundation for the development of a system of education for young children. The German word **kindergarten** means "children's garden," and that is what Froebel felt best expressed what he wanted for children under 6 years of age. Because his own childhood had been unhappy, he resolved that early education should be pleasant. He attended a training institute run by Pestalozzi and left with the desire to promote children's right to play, to have toys, and to be with trained teachers by founding a Play and Activity Institute. Early childhood historian Dorothy Hewes (1993) notes:

> Froebel started his kindergarten in 1836, for children aged about two to six, after he had studied with Pestalozzi in Switzerland and had read the philosophy promoted by Comenius two hundred years earlier. His system was centered around self-activity and the development of children's self-esteem and self-confidence. In his *Education of Man,*

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he wrote that "Play is the highest phase of child development—the representation of the inner necessity and impulse." He had the radical idea that both men and women should teach young children and that they should be friendly facilitators rather than stern disciplinarians.

More than 100 years ago, Froebel's kindergartens included blocks, pets, and finger plays. Froebel observed children and came to understand how they learned and what they liked to do. He developed the first educational toys, which he termed "gifts" (*gaben* in German), as seen in Figure 1-3.

Angeline Brooks (1886), a teacher in an American Froebelian kindergarten in the late 1800s, described the gifts this way:

> Froebel regarded the whole of life as a school, and the whole world as a school-room for the education of the [human] race. The external things of nature he regarded as a means to making the race acquainted with the invisible things of the minds, as God's *gifts* for use in accomplishing the purpose of this temporal life. Regarding the child as the race in miniature, he selected a few objects which should epitomize the world of matter in its most salient attributes and arranged them in an order which should assist the child's development at successive stages of growth. "Froebel wanted teachers to see how children developed as they manipulated specific objects (gifts and occupations he designed for their education), such as blocks for design construction, parquetry shapes for picture creation, and drawing forms."

FroebelUSA.com

■ A Froebelian kindergarten at the end of the nineteenth century.

Froebelian Gifts

When the children are just making friends with the teacher and with each other, it is very interesting and profitable for them to formulate their mite of knowledge into a sentence, each one holding his or her ball high in the air with the right hand and saying:

My ball is red like a cherry.
My ball is yellow like a lemon.
My ball is blue like the sky.
My ball is orange like a marigold.
My ball is green like the grass.
My ball is violet like a plum.

■ **FIGURE 1-3** When introducing the gifts, the teacher in Froebelian settings would teach children rhymes and finger plays.

Some of his theories about children and their education later influenced Montessori and were reflected in the educational materials she developed, as well as modern kindergarten (Brosterman, 1997).

Every day, teachers in centers and homes across the country practice the Froebelian belief that one's first educational experiences should be a *child's garden:* full of pleasant discoveries and delightful adventure, where the adults' role is to plant ideas and materials for children to use as they grow at their own pace.

Maria Montessori At the turn of the century, Montessori (1870–1952) became the first female physician in Italy. She worked in the slums of Rome with poor children and with mentally retarded children. Sensing that what they lacked was proper motivation and environment, she opened a preschool, Casa di Bambini, in 1907. Her first class was 50 children from 2 to 5 years of age. The children were at the center all day while their parents worked. They were fed two meals a day, given a bath, and provided with medical attention. Montessori designed materials, classrooms, and a teaching procedure that proved her point to the astonishment of people all over Europe and the United States.

The **Montessori Method** is both a philosophy of child development and a plan for guiding growth, based on the belief that education begins at birth and the early years are of the utmost importance. During this time, children pass through sensitive periods, in which their curiosity makes them ready for acquiring certain skills and knowledge. Before Montessori, no one with medical or psychiatric training had articulated so clearly the needs of the growing child. Her medical background

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■ Maria Montessori designed materials, classrooms, and learning methods for young children.

added credibility to her findings and helped her ideas gain recognition in the United States.

Montessori was an especially observant person, and she used her observations to develop her program and philosophy. For instance, the manipulative materials she used were expensive, so they were always kept in a locked cabinet. One day, the cabinet was left unlocked, and the children took out the materials themselves and worked with them quietly and carefully. Afterward, Montessori removed the cabinet and replaced it with low, open shelves. She noticed that children liked to sit on the floor, so she bought little rugs to define the work areas. In analyzing how children learn, she concluded that they build themselves from what they find in their environment, so she designed the school around the size of the children. Because of her enlightenment, a carefully prepared environment with child-sized furniture and materials are common features of early educational classrooms.

By focusing on the *sequential steps of learning*, Montessori developed a set of learning materials still used widely today. One of her most valuable contributions was a theory of how children learn: children teach themselves if only we will dedicate ourselves to the self-creating process of the child. She believed that any task could be reduced to a series of small steps. By using this process, children could learn to sweep a floor, dress themselves, or multiply numbers.

After Montessori was introduced in the United States in 1909, her methods received poor reception and were often misunderstood. Chattin-McNichols (1993) notes that "adaptation of her methods in a variety of ways, a focus on academics by demanding middle-class parents, and a flood of 'trainers' and authors eager to capitalize on Montessori contributed to a rapid downfall of Montessori schools in the United States by 1925 or so." A second American Montessori movement began in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Differences between European and American society and education generated the American Montessori Society, founded by Dr. Nancy McCormick Rambusch. According to Chattin-McNichols (1993):

> Today with a much wider range of children than ever before, the majority of Montessori schools are private preschools and child care centers, serving 3- to 6-year-old children. But there are many which also serve elementary students and a small (but growing) number of programs for infants, toddlers, and middle-school students. . . . The word *Montessori*, however, remains in the public domain, so that Montessori in the name of a school or teacher education program does not guarantee any adherence to Montessori's original ideas.

To summarize, Montessori's contributions were substantial to all we do in early childhood programs today. *A prepared environment, **self-correcting** and sequential materials*, teaching based on *observation*, and a trust in *children's innate drive to learn* all stem from her work. (Montessori education as a curriculum model is discussed in Chapter 10.)

Rudolf Steiner An Austrian philosopher, scientist, and artist, Steiner (1861–1925) gave lectures for the German factories of Waldorf-Astoria led to the establishment of schools now known as **Waldorf Education**. This system has influenced mainstream education in Europe, and its international reputation is felt in North America today. A growing independent school movement, Waldorf schools number more than 1,000 worldwide (www.waldorfanswers.org).

Steiner theorized that childhood is a phase of life that is important in its own right, and the environment must be carefully planned to protect and nurture the

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Steiner's Ages of Childhood

Age	Span	Child Learns by...	Emphasis
The Will	0–7	Imitation	Role models and beautiful environment
The Heart	7–14	Authority	Consistency with enthusiasm and feeling
The Head	14+	Challenge	Intellectual study for real mastery

■ **FIGURE 1-4** Rudolf Steiner created a system of education in the early 1900s that was based on educational goals for the whole child and the transformation of the spirit/soul.

child (see Figure 1-4). His philosophy emphasized the children's spiritual development, imagination, and creative gifts. As did Froebel and Montessori, Steiner emphasized the whole child and believed that different areas of development and learning were connected into a kind of unity. The role of the teacher is that of a mother figure, and her goal is to allow the child's innate self-motivation to predominate. The teacher is to understand the temperament of each child, and to go with it; thus, play has a large place in Waldorf classrooms.

Self-discipline emerges from the child's natural willingness to learn and initiate, and the classroom needs to support this self-regulation process. Yet, although the child's inner life is deeply valued by Steiner, experiences in early childhood must be carefully selected. For instance, fairy stories help children acquire time-honored wisdom; modern Waldorf followers insist that television be eliminated.

In summary, for Steiner, the people with whom the child interacts are of central importance. (Waldorf schools are addressed with curriculum models in Chapter 10.)

A. S. Neill Alexander Sutherland Neill (1883–1973) was the most famous proponent of the "free/natural school" movement of the mid-20th century. His book *Summerhill* describes 40 years of that educational program, of which he was headmaster. Neill claimed that most education was defective because it arose from the model of original sin. Assuming that children were inherently evil caused educators to force children into doing what was contrary to their nature. Neill shared Rousseau's belief in noninterference, as he stated, "I believe that a child is innately wise and realistic. If left to himself without adult suggestion of any kind, he will develop as far as he is capable of developing" (1960).

Neill's belief in freedom was practiced in his school, where children governed themselves and worked toward equal rights with adults. The benefits from such liberties were touted as highly therapeutic and natural, an escape from repression and guilt. Several influences are clear in these educational programs: Rousseau's belief in the child's innate goodness, Freud's idea of the dangerous effects of guilt, and some of the social idealism of Dewey and the Progressives.

Beyond European Perspectives

You can likely see how traditional early childhood educational practices reinforce European-American values and beliefs. Education is often built from the knowledge base of its teachers; curriculum usually draws from the system—cultural, economic, or political—that is most familiar. If teachers are trained on European writings and the ideas of university-educated Americans, then their own teachings would likely reflect those philosophies.

But there have always been other influences on educational practices, especially those of teachers' personal upbringing or of the child-rearing traditions of the communities whose children and families we teach. We know that there is more than one "right way" to care for and educate children.

What nontraditional perspectives influenced early childhood education? As mentioned before, information about non-Western early childhood history is not easily accessible because of the dominance of European writings (see "Additional Resources" for a reading list). Gonzalez-Mena (2001) summarizes some of these perspectives:

- Attitudes toward childhood in China and Japan were influenced by the writings of Confucius (551–479 BC), which stressed harmony. Children were seen as good and worthy of respect; at the same time, children and women were expected to obey the elders, both the matriarch and the men.
- Native American writings show close ties and interconnectedness, not only among families and within tribes, but also between people and nature. Teaching children about relationships and

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interconnectedness are historical themes of early education among many indigenous peoples.

- Strong kinship networks are themes among both Africans and African Americans; people bond together and pool their resources for the common good. The mutual cooperation has ancient roots and historic significance from oppression, and is a sociopolitical class issue.
- Latin American and Hispanic cultures value children highly and emphasize the importance of cooperation and sensitivity to authority figures. Children are given affection and resources, and parents often put their children's welfare ahead of their own.
- Families from the Pacific Islands stress the connection to family, as well as the importance of respecting one's elders. Extended families work together for the benefit of a child chosen for particular talents.
- Indian and Middle Eastern families value education as an opportunity for upward mobility, and for bringing these additional resources back to the family to increase the prosperity of the family as a whole. Teachers are respected members of the community and are also sought as powerful agents of success for the children.

Early education practices have been influenced by many of these perspectives. For instance, understanding and accepting each child's family and cultural perspectives includes a working knowledge of the variations in attitudes and child-rearing practices. Learning about nontraditional cultures and behaviors has become critical for professional teachers to honor diversity both in the classroom and in the larger societal context (see Chapters 3 and 9–15).

The question of whether an activity or program is developmentally suited to a particular age or individual was put into more modern context in the mid-1980s when specific descriptions were required to support NAEYC's efforts to accredit early education programs. Defining what is appropriate now includes as much about the family and culture of a child as the age and even the individual characteristics. **Developmentally Appropriate Practices** (DAP) are defined and expanded in the next chapter. The dynamic nature of DAP allows for both basic principles and variation. This means that it can reflect the best, most current thinking of the field, and it requires periodic evaluation and revision. Personal application of nontraditional perspectives is part of your professional identity (see the "Diversity" box, "Finding Your Place at the Table").

DIVERSITY

Finding Your Place at the Table

"The field of Early Child Education eagerly awaits, with hopeful expectation, your special contribution. 'What could I possibly have to offer?' you ask. Your history, or life story, is your greatest asset. Tucked away in your early years are special experiences that can shape the lives of small children." (Williams, 2011)

The challenges from your childhood can enhance your work with children as you add your own sensitivity and perspective. In that way, you set your place at the table of early childhood education, in whatever workplace it may be. Drawing on the stories and memories may require you to check with your family and others who knew you then. Again, Williams prompts you to consider the following questions:

1. What expectations does your culture have for young children? (Consider what messages society sends to families about the activities in which children should participate.)
2. In which activities did you participate as a child younger than 8 years old? (Remember the toys with which you played or activities your family said you liked.)
3. Did you participate in preschool? If so, what was the setting? Was it in your home, the home of others, a neighborhood child-care facility, or a larger group center? (You might consider how it was physically organized and the people who were involved.)
4. Were your contacts with others ethnically diverse or localized to one cultural group? (Cultural identity can be defined in many ways, such as geographical, religious, racial, and so forth. Many of our identities include many cultures; that is, they are multicultural.)
5. What did you gain from those early years that will help you as an early childhood educator? (Look for a way that this can be passed to others.)
6. Describe one way you would like to improve the early childhood education you received. (By rethinking what you did not receive, you can change this in the lives of those you are involved with.)

Finding your own personal diversity helps you find uniqueness within the diverse experiences of your life, which brings richness to your work and treasures to share with the children, families, and professionals that you serve.

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American Influences

Significant moments in American history have served as turning points in education in general, as well as for early childhood education in particular. As you will read, the American educational system has been dynamic, from its onset in colonial America to the DAP and Common Core standards of today.

Colonial Days

When thinking of colonial America, people often envision the one-room schoolhouse. Indeed, this was the mainstay of education in the New England colonies. Although home-teaching of the Bible was common, children of elementary age were sent to school primarily for religious reasons. Everyone needed to be able to read the Bible, the Puritan fathers reasoned. All children were sent to study, though historically boys were educated before girls. The Bible was not the only book used in school, however; new materials like the *New England Primer* and the *Horn Book* were also used.

Early life in the New England colonies was difficult, and estimates run as high as 60 percent to 70 percent of children younger than age 4 dying in colonial towns during the winter "starving season." Discipline was harsh, and children were expected to obey immediately and without question. Parents may have loved their children, but Puritan families showed little overt affection. Children were important as economic tools, and they worked the land and were apprenticed into trades early.

In the South, it was a different story. Plantation owners imported tutors from England or opened small private schools to teach just their sons to read and write. Although the reasons were different from those in New England, the results were similar: a very high percentage of adult readers. From these came the leaders of the American Revolution and the new nation. History can provide us with reminders of the strides that have been made in U.S. history and that the challenge of overcoming bias and unequal access continues.

The Revolutionary War brought the establishment of both the Union and religious freedom. By affirming fundamental principles of democratic liberty, the founders paved the way for a system of free, common, public school, the first the world had ever seen (Cubberly, 1920). However, after the Revolutionary War, there were no significant advances in education until the late 1800s. Leaders such as Thomas Jefferson believed that knowledge ought to be available to all, but that opinion was not widely shared. Most of the postrevolutionary period focused on growing crops and pioneering the frontier,

Time Life Pictures /Contributor/Time & Life Pictures/Getty Images

■ The *Horn Book* was a common reading primer in colonial American schools.

not teaching and educating children. Even by the 1820s, education for the common person was not readily available. Industrialization in both the North and South did little to encourage reading and writing skills. Manual labor and machine-operating skills were more important. Although public schools were accepted in principle, no tax basis was established to support them in reality.

Children in Enslavement

The first African Americans were not slaves but indentured servants, whose debts repaid by their labor would buy them their freedom. However, by 1620, Africans were brought to the New World as slaves. In many states, children of slaves were not valued as human beings but rather as property of the owner. During the Revolutionary War, many Americans turned against slavery because of the principles of the natural rights of the individual, as embodied in the Declaration of Independence and, later, in the U.S. Constitution. By the early 1800s, most Northern owners had freed their slaves, although living conditions for them were generally poor.

Because of the high economic value of children as future laborers, there was a certain level of care given to pregnant women and babies. Osborn (1991) tells of

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a nursery on a South Carolina plantation around 1850 in which

> . . . infants and small children were left in a small cabin while the mothers worked in the fields nearby. An older woman was left in charge and assisted by several girls 8–10 years of age. The infants, for the most part, lay on the cabin floor or the porch—and once or twice daily, the mother would come in from the field to nurse the baby. Children of toddler age played on the porch or in the yard and, at times, the older girls might lead the group in singing and dancing.

Before the Civil War, education was severely limited for African Americans. Many Southern states prohibited literacy instruction for enslaved Africans, so female African American teachers helped establish clandestine schools known as *midnight schools*, because plantation owners banned teaching (Jones-Wilson, 1996). After the Civil War, most education came about through the establishment of Sabbath schools because literacy training was considered part of religious instruction. Because of its necessary secretive existence, few records are available, although it is reasonable to conclude that the curriculum was similar in both types of schools.

After the Civil War, private and public schools were opened for African Americans. Major colleges and universities were founded by the end of the 1800s. Booker T. Washington, born into slavery, founded the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute in Alabama in 1881 and emphasized practical education and intercultural understanding between the two races as a path to liberation. Many former slaves and graduates established schools for younger children. Of integrated schools, Osborn (1991) reports:

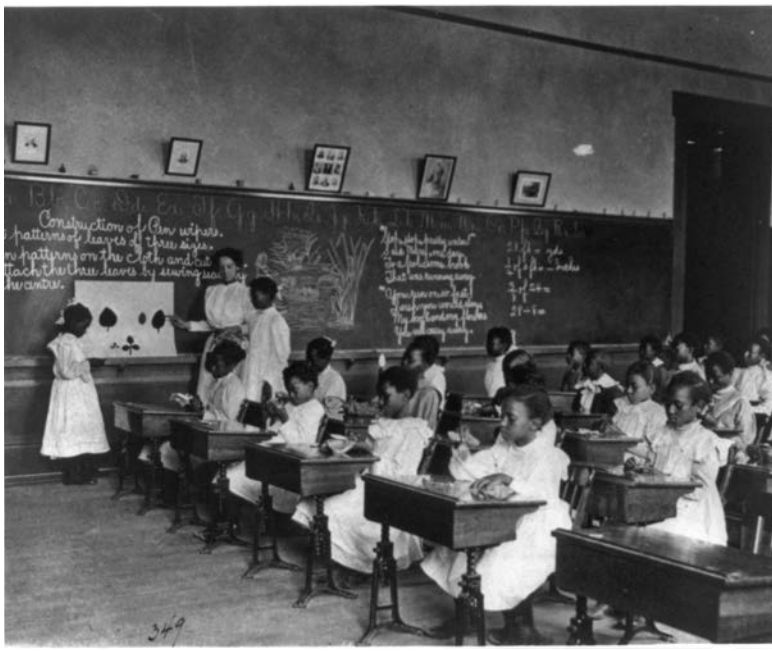
> Generally, however, if the schools accepted Blacks at all, it was on a strictly quota basis.... Blacks were often excluded from kindergartens. Thus as the early childhood education movement began to grow and expand in the years following the Civil War, it grew along separate color lines.

The Hampton Institute in Hampton, Virginia, established a laboratory kindergarten for African Americans in 1873, and by 1893, the institute offered a kindergarten training school and courses in child care. The graduates of Hampton Institute became the teachers at the laboratory school because, in the words of its principal, "[the] students know the children and the influences surrounding them.... Their people are proud to see them teaching. They furnish what has always been a missing link between me and the parents" (Pleasant, 1992). It would be worth investigating whether all laboratory schools for African Americans copied European models, as did those of most American universities, or if they reflected some African influences.

Progressive Education

By the end of the 1800s, however, a nationwide reform movement had begun. The Progressive movement of the late 1800s and first half of the 20th century changed the course of education in both elementary and nursery schools in the United States. Coinciding with the political progressivism in this country, this philosophy emphasized a **child-centered approach** that gained advocates from both the scientific viewpoint (John Dewey, G. Stanley Hall) and those of a psychoanalytic bent (Patty Smith Hill, Susan Isaacs). Some of the major features of the educational progressive philosophy were (Osborn, 1991):

- We must recognize individual needs and individual differences in children.
- Teachers must be more attentive to the needs of children than to academics alone.
- Children learn best when they are highly motivated and have a genuine interest in the material.
- Learning via rote memory is useless to children.
- The teacher should be aware of the child's total development—social, physical, intellectual, and emotional.
- Children learn best when they have direct contact with the material.



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■ Many graduates of Tuskegee and Hampton Institutes became teachers of African-American children of former slaves.

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These beliefs were instrumental in changing the old traditional schools from a strictly subject-based curriculum to one that centered on children's interests as the foundation for curriculum development. Progressives wanted educators to work on "how a school could become a cooperative community while developing in individuals their own capacities and satisfying their own needs" (Dewey, 1916). Although Dewey and others did not reject the teaching of basic skills, the shift was away from such subject matter education.

John Dewey

John Dewey (1858–1952) was the first real American influence on American education. Raised in Vermont, he became a professor of philosophy at both the University of Chicago and Columbia University. In the years that followed, Dewey was responsible for one of the greatest impacts on American education of all time.

Dewey believed that children were valuable and that childhood was an important part of their lives. Like Froebel, he felt that education should be integrated with life and should provide a training ground for cooperative living. As did Pestalozzi and Rousseau, Dewey felt that schools should focus on the nature of the child. Until this time, children were considered of little consequence. Childhood was rushed. Children as young as 7 were a regular part of the workforce—on the farms, in the mines, and in the factories. Dewey's beliefs about children and learning are summarized in Figure 1-5.

Dewey's ideas of schooling emerged from his own childhood and his family life as a parent. Jane Dewey, his sixth child, stated that "his own schooling had bored John; he'd disliked the rigid, passive way of learning forced on children by the pervasive lecture-recitation method of that time" (Walker, 1997). Furthermore, the Deweys' parenting style caused a stir among friends and neighbors; the children were allowed to play actively in the same room as adult guests, to ignore wearing shoes and stockings, and even to "stand by during the birth [of brother Morris] while Mrs. Dewey explained the process" (Walker, 1997). His passionate belief in the innate goodness of children, in the principle of mind-body unity, and in the encouragement of experimentation shaped John Dewey's ideals.

A new kind of school emerged from these ideals. Even the buildings began to take on a different look. Movable furniture replaced rows of benches. Children's projects, some still under construction, were found everywhere. The curriculum of the school began to focus on all

Dewey's Pedagogic Creed

My Pedagogic Creed—John Dewey	What It Means Today
" … I believe that only true education comes through the stimulation of the child's powers by the demands of the social situations in which he finds himself."	This says that children learn to manage themselves in groups, to make and share friendships, to solve problems, and to cooperate.
" … The child's own instinct and powers furnish the material and give the starting point for all education."	We need to create a place that is child-centered, a place that values the skills and interests of each child and each group.
" … I believe that education, therefore, is a process of living and not a preparation for future living."	Prepare children for what is to come by enriching and interpreting the present for them. Find educational implications in everyday experiences.
" … I believe that … the school life should grow gradually out of the home life … it is the business of the school to deepen and extend … the child's sense of the values bound up in his home life."	This sets the rationale for a relationship between teachers and parents. Values established and created in the home should be enhanced by teaching in the schools.
" … I believe, finally, that the teacher is engaged, not simply in the training of individuals, but in the formation of a proper social life. I believe that every teacher should realize the dignity of his calling."	This says that the work that teachers do is important and valuable. They teach more than academic content; they teach how to live.

■ **FIGURE 1-5** John Dewey expressed his ideas about education in an important document entitled *My Pedagogic Creed*. (Washington, DC: The Progressive Education Association, 1897.)

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of the basics, not just on a few of the academics. If a group of 6-year-olds decided to make a woodworking table, they would first have to learn to read to understand the directions. After calculating the cost, they would purchase the materials. In building the table, geometry, physics, and math were learned along the way. This was a group effort that encouraged children to work together in teams, so school became a society in miniature. Children's social skills were developed along with reading, science, and math. The teacher's role in the process was one of ongoing support, involvement, and encouragement.

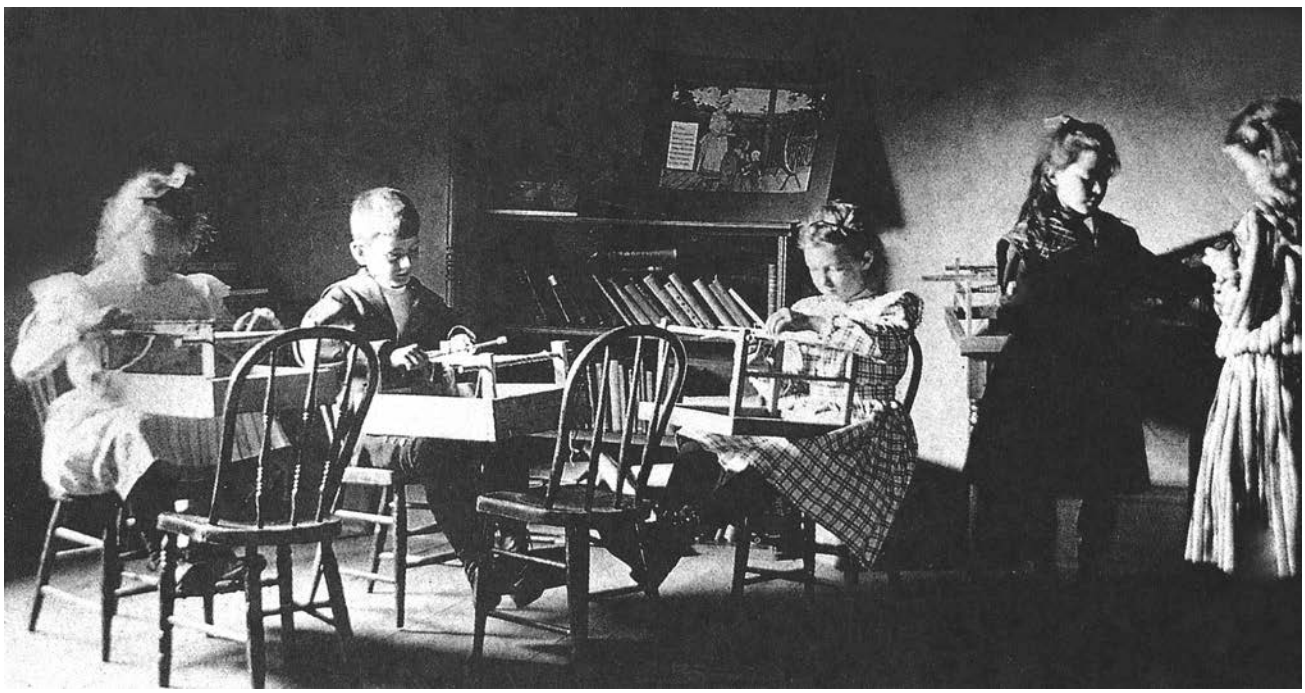
The contribution of John Dewey to American education cannot be underestimated. Dewey's ideas are part of today's classrooms in several ways. His child-oriented schools are a model of child care centers and family child care homes, as learning and living are inseparable. The teacher's role served as a model for current *intentional teaching* methods (see the "Teaching with Intention" feature in every chapter). As the following sections on kindergarten and nursery schools illustrate, Dewey had a vision that is still alive today.

The Field Expands: Kindergarten

The word *kindergarten*—German for "children's garden"—is a delightful term. It brings to mind the image of young seedlings on the verge of blossoming. The similarity between caring for young plants and young children is not accidental. Froebel, the man who coined the word, meant for that association to be made. As a flower opens from a bud, so does a child go through a natural unfolding process. This idea—and ideal—are part of the kindergarten story.

The first kindergarten was a German school started by Froebel in 1837. Nearly 20 years later, in 1856, Margarethe Schurz, a student of Froebel, opened the first kindergarten in the United States for German-speaking children in her home in Wisconsin. Schurz inspired Elizabeth Peabody (1804–1894) of Boston, who opened the first English-speaking kindergarten there in 1860. Peabody, after studying kindergartens in Germany, in turn influenced William Harris, superintendent of schools in St. Louis, Missouri. In 1873, Harris allowed Susan Blow (1843–1916) to open the first kindergarten in the United States associated with public schools. By the 1880s, kindergarten teachers such as Eudora Hailmann were hard at work inventing wooden beads, paper weaving mats, and songbooks to use with active 5-year-old children.

Look at kindergarten in a historical perspective to trace the various purposes of this specialized educational experience. At first, Froebel's philosophy (as discussed earlier in this chapter) was the mainstay of kindergarten education. At the same time, kindergartens began to



■ John Dewey's lab school involved children in activities of a practical, real-life nature, such as weaving small rugs to use in the classroom. Reprinted with permission from Special Collections Research Center, Morris Library, Southern Illinois University Carbondale

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become an instrument of social reform. Many of the kindergartens started in the late 1800s were established by churches and other agencies that worked with the poor and were called *charity kindergartens*. For instance, "in the early kindergartens, teachers conducted a morning class for about 15 children and made social calls on families during the afternoon. The children were taught to address the teachers as 'Auntie' to emphasize her sisterly relationship with their mothers" (Hewes, 1993).

Moreover, by early 1900, traditional kindergarten ideas had come under the scrutiny of G. Stanley Hall and others who were interested in a scientific approach to education. Dewey advocated a communitylike (rather than garden-style) classroom. A classic clash of ideals developed between followers of Froebel (conservatives) and those of Dewey's new educational viewpoint (progressives). For those who saw kindergartens as a social service in an era of rising social conscience, the reasons for helping the less fortunate were similar to the rationale that led to the creation of Head Start 60 years later.

The emphasis in a Froebelian kindergarten was on teacher-directed learning. Dewey's followers preferred a more child-centered approach, with teachers serving as facilitators of children's learning. This is the same tension that exists today between the "back to basics" movement and the supporters of child-centered education. The progressives found fault with the "gifts" of Froebel's curriculum. Those who followed Dewey believed that "real objects and real situations within the child's own social setting" should be used (Read & Patterson, 1980). Froebel was viewed as too structured and too symbolic; Dewey was perceived as child-oriented and child-involved. Even the processes they used were different. Froebel believed in allowing the unfolding of the child's mind and learning, whereas Dewey stressed adult intervention in social interaction.

The reform of kindergarten education led to the creation of the modern American kindergarten. By the 1970s, the trend was to focus on the intellectual development of the child; thus, there was an emphasis on academic goals for 5-year-olds. By the late 1990s, the concept of DAP advocated a shift toward more holistic, broad planning for kindergarten. (Today's kindergarten programs are discussed in Chapter 2.)

Patty Smith Hill

Hill (1868–1946) of Teacher's College, Columbia University, was an outstanding innovator of the time and one of the Progressive movement's ablest leaders. It was she who wrote the song "Happy Birthday," created sets of large blocks (known as "Patty Hill blocks," now known as *hollow* and *unit blocks*) and founded the National Association for Nursery Education (NANE). The largest association of early childhood educators, it is now the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC). Trained originally in the Froebelian tradition, she worked closely with G. Stanley Hall, and later with John Dewey. Thus, her philosophy of classroom teaching was a blended one. She believed strongly in basing curricula and programs on the nature and needs of the children, and she was one of the major education experimenters of her day. She was

> . . . guided by principles of democracy and respect for individuals. She argued for freedom and initiative for children, as well as a curriculum relevant to children's lives. It was she who originated large-muscle equipment and materials suitable for climbing and construction, a departure from the prescribed small-muscle activities of the Froebelians. Patty Hill also urged unification of kindergarten and first-grade work, but her objective was not to start 5-year-olds on first grade work, as we today might readily assume. Rather, emphasis was on giving 6-year-olds the opportunity for independent, creative activities before embarking on the three R's. (Cohen & Randolph, 1977)

These ideas became the backbone of kindergarten practice. Moreover, Hill did not work for kindergarten alone. In fact, during the 1920s, Hill rekindled Froebel's early ideas to promote nursery schools for children too young to attend kindergarten. Regardless of controversy within, kindergartens were still on the fringes of the educational establishments as a whole. In fact, Hill (1996) herself commented that "adjustment to public-school conditions came slowly . . . [and] until this happy adjustment took place, the promotion of the self-active kindergarten children into the grades has made it possible for the poorest and most formal first-grade teacher to criticize and condemn the work of the best kindergarten teacher as well as the kindergarten cause, because of the wide gap that existed between kindergarten and primary ideals at that time."

As Hill and others prevailed and made continual improvements in teaching methods, materials, guidance, and curriculum, the interests of kindergarten and primary education could be seen as more unified.

A Foundational Base: Nursery Schools

The very phrase *nursery school* conjures up images of a child's nursery, of a carefully tended garden, and of a gentle place of play and growing. In fact, the name was coined to describe a place where children were nurtured

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(see the section entitled "The McMillan Sisters," later in this chapter, for details on one specific example). Nursery schools have always been a place of care, for the physical needs, the intellectual stimulation, and the socioemotional aspects of young children's lives. At the same time that kindergarten was taking hold in the United States, the nursery school movement was beginning in both here and Europe.

Early Nursery Schools

Early childhood educators took Dewey's philosophy to heart. Their schools reflected the principles of a child-centered approach, active learning, and social cooperation. By the 1920s and 1930s, early childhood education had reached a professional status in the United States. Nursery schools and day nurseries went beyond **custodial** health care. They fostered the child's total development. The children were enrolled from middle- and upper-class homes, as well as from working families. However, until the 1960s, nursery schools served few poor families.

Parent education was acknowledged as a vital function of the school and led to the establishment of **parent cooperative schools**. Brook Farm, a utopian cooperative community in the 1840s, had "the equivalent of an on-site child care center 'for the use of parents doing industrial work' or for mothers to use 'as a kindly relief to themselves when fatigued by the care of children'" (Hewes, 1993). The first of these parent participation schools was developed in 1915 at the University of Chicago, where a group of faculty wives started the Chicago Cooperative Nursery School.

Research centers and child development laboratories were started in many colleges and universities from about 1915 until 1930. These **laboratory schools** were active in expanding knowledge of the importance of a child's early years. As Stolz (1978) describes it, "the [preschool] movement from the beginning was integrated with the movement for child development research. The purpose . . . was to improve nursery schools, and, therefore, we brought in the people who were studying children, who were learning more about them, so we could do a better job." It is noteworthy that professionals such as Hill, Lois Meek Stolz, Edith Dowley, and others encouraged researchers to share their findings with classroom teachers to integrate these discoveries into the daily programs of children.

This model, patterned after the first *psychological laboratory* in Leipzig, Germany, in 1879, was formed to train psychologists in the systematic training of child study. This model adopted a scientific approach to the study of human beings, as the field of psychology itself attempted to become more like the biologic sciences.

Golden Gate Kindergarten Association

■ Traditional nursery and kindergarten included circle time.

The second approach, like the Butler School of Hampton Institute and later Spelman College, was established primarily for *teacher preparation and training*. The latter model took its influence almost exclusively from educational leaders. These nursery laboratory schools attempted a multidisciplinary approach, blending the voices from psychology and education with those of home economics, nursing, social work, and medicine. By 1950, when Katherine Read Baker first published *The Nursery School: A Human Relationships Laboratory* (now published in seven languages), the emphasis of the nursery school was on understanding human behavior and then building programs, guidance techniques, and relationships accordingly. In her estimate,

> . . . the nursery school is a place where young children learn as they play and as they share experiences with other children. . . . It is also a place where adults learn about child development and human relationships as they observe and participate in the program of the school. . . . Anyone working in an educational program for children, even the most experienced person, needs to be learning as well as teaching. The two processes, learning and teaching, are inseparable.

Lucy Sprague Mitchell (1878–1967) established early childhood education in the United States by helping it grow out of Dewey's progressive movement. Raised in an environment of educational and social reform, Mitchell developed the idea of schools as community centers, as well as places for children to learn to think. As Greenberg (1987) explained, Mitchell gathered together, in a democratic, cooperative venture,

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many talented people to brainstorm, mastermind, and sponsor the following:

- A remarkable Bureau of Educational Experiments designed to combine newfound psychological awareness with democratic concepts of education
- A school to implement and experiment with these principles in order to provide the best environments for children's learning and growth
- A laboratory to record and analyze how and why the principles function
- A teachers' college to promote the principles and train teachers to maintain the ideal environments to follow them
- A workshop for writers of juvenile books, which was then developed into the new genre now known as *children's literature*
- A bulletin to disseminate it all, as well as to disseminate what a plethora of progressive educators were up to elsewhere, *beginning* in 1916

Strongly influenced by John Dewey, she became a major contributor to the idea of educational experiments; that is, trying to plan with teachers the curriculum experiences that would then be observed and analyzed "for children's reactions to the various learning situations [and] the new teaching techniques" (Mitchell, 1951). For instance, Mitchell suggested that teachers expand on what they knew of children's *"here-and-now thinking* by making

> . . . trips with kindergarteners to see how work was done—work that was closely tied up with their personal lives . . . the growth in thinking and attitudes of the teachers had moved far . . . toward the conception of their role as a guide as differentiated from a dispenser of information.

By establishing Bank Street College of Education (and its laboratory school), Lucy Sprague Mitchell emphasized the link between theory and practice—namely, that the education of young children and the study of how children learn are intrinsically tied together. Today's "Teacher Researchers" movement (see the themes of "Importance of Childhood" and "Professionalism" in this chapter and Chapter 15) emphasizes this approach.

Abigail Eliot (1892–1992) pioneered the nursery school movement by bringing the work of the McMillan sisters from England to the United States (for more information, see the section entitled "The McMillan Sisters," later in the chapter). A graduate of Radcliffe College and Harvard University, Eliot had worked at Deptford School in the slums of London. A social worker by training, she became interested in children and their relationships with their parents. Eliot had a lively and clear view of what good schools for children could be. She founded the Ruggles Street Nursery School in the Roxbury section of Boston, teaching children and providing teacher training, and served as its director from 1922 to 1952, when it was incorporated into Tufts University. Today, it is known as the Eliot-Pearson Department of Child Study and Human Development, an integral part of the university.

Eliot became the first woman to receive a doctoral degree from Harvard University's Graduate School of Education and, after retiring from Tufts, moved to Pasadena, California, where she helped establish Pacific Oaks College. In all her work, she integrated Froebel's gifts, Montessori's equipment, and the McMillans' fresh air, as well as her own ideas. As she put it (Hymes, 1978):

> For us in early education. . . the new idea—was *program*. I had visited many day nurseries in Boston as a social worker. I can remember them even now: dull green walls, no light colors, nothing pretty—spotlessly clean places, with rows of white-faced listless little children sitting, doing nothing. In the new nursery school, the children were active, alive, choosing.

Midcentury Developments

Even as the economic crisis of the Great Depression and the political turmoil of World War II diverted attention from children's needs, both gave focus to adult needs for work. Out of this necessity came the Works Progress Administration (WPA) nurseries of the 1930s and the Lanham Act nurseries of the 1940s. The most renowned program of the mid-20th century was the Kaiser Child Care Centers.

Courtesy of WPA (Works Progress Administration)

■ Celebrating a birthday in a WPA nursery program, provided by the Lanham Act for women in the workforce during World War II.

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Kaiser Child Care Centers

During World War II, funds were provided to deal with the common situation of mothers working in war-related industries. Further support came from industry during World War II. An excellent model for child care operated from 1943 to 1945 in Portland, Oregon: the Kaiser Child Care Centers. Kaiser became the world's largest such center and functioned around the clock all year long. A number of services were made available on site. An infirmary was located nearby for both mothers and children. Hot meals were made available for mothers to take home when they picked up their children. Lois Meek Stolz was the director of the centers, and James L. Hymes, Jr., was the manager. He describes the centers this way (Hymes, 1978):

> . . . The centers were to have three distinctive qualities. One, they were to be located not out in the community but right at the entrance to the two shipyards, convenient to mothers on their way to and from work. They were to be industry-based, not neighborhood-centered. Two, the centers were to be operated by the shipyards, not by the public schools and not by community agencies. They were to be industrial child care centers, with the cost borne by the Kaiser Company and by parents using the service. Three, they were to be large centers, big enough to meet the need. In the original plan, each center was to serve a thousand preschool children on three shifts.

These centers served 3,811 children. As Hymes points out, they provided 249,268 child-care days and freed up 1,931,827 woman work-hours.

However, once the war ended, the workers left. Child care was no longer needed, and the centers closed. The Kaiser experience has never been equaled, either in the universal quality of care or in the variety of services. However, it did leave behind a legacy, which Hymes has stressed ever since (in Dickerson, 1992): "It is no great trick to have an excellent child care program. It only requires a lot of money with most of it spent on *trained* staff." The model Kaiser Child Care Centers provided for child care remains exemplary.

Genevieve Naylor/CORBIS

■ The Kaiser Shipyard operated a model child care center during World War II.

Civil Rights and Head Start

As early as the beginning of the 20th century, the U.S. Supreme Court upheld laws concerning "the core of the Jim Crow system, the public schools in which white and black children first experienced the reality of segregation . . . Jim Crow schools—which taught their students only those skills needed for agricultural work and domestic service—fit the needs of the whole economy and society" (Irons, 2004). The term *Jim Crow* itself comes from a character in a late 1880s minstrel show and refers to the complete system of segregation.

World War I played an important role in moving large numbers of blacks from the rural South to the cities of the North and West, beginning what has been called the Great Migration. By 1930, the reported literacy rate for blacks had doubled from 1900 to just more than 80 percent, but "the educational status of blacks in the Jim Crow states remained abysmally low in 1950" (Irons, 2004). The living standards for all Americans in poverty during the Depression plummeted, but African Americans had a particularly difficult time. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt's administration and the emerging industrial union movement gave impetus to blacks looking for both employment and political change. World War II continued the process of transformation for many adults, but for children, the situation was still bleak.

The stage for another legal challenge to segregation was set. As Weinberg (1977) states, "Midcentury marked a turning point in the history of black America. The movement for equality came under black leadership, embraced unprecedented numbers of Negroes, and became national in scope. A persistent black initiative forced a reformulation of public policies in education." Children were starting to be considered citizens with rights.

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The attack against the segregation system had begun. As seen in the historic cases of *McLaurin v. Oklahoma* (1950) and *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* (1954), the concept of "separate but equal" was overturned. Furthermore, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 continued to address the struggle for equality of opportunity and education, one that persists today in our schools and society (see the section entitled "Ethic of Social Reform," later in this chapter).

War on Poverty: Head Start

In pointing out the plight of the poor, education was highlighted as a major stumbling block toward the equality of all people. Furthermore, excluding Americans from educational opportunities could put the United States at risk of losing its preeminent position in the world. Project Head Start was conceived as education's role in fighting the "war on poverty." The same goals of Froebel and Montessori formed the basis of Head Start: helping disadvantaged preschool children. This was a revolution in American education which had not been seen since the short-lived child care programs during World War II. This project was the first large-scale effort by the government to focus on children living in poverty.

Head Start began in 1965 as a demonstration program aimed at providing educational, social, medical, dental, nutritional, and mental health services to preschool children from a diverse population of low-income families. Dr. Edward Ziegler, the first director of the U.S. Office of Child Development and chief of the U.S. Children's Bureau, was one of the planners of both Project Head Start and the Parent & Child Centers (now known as *Early Head Start*). In 1972, it was transformed into a predominantly part-day, full-year program. Key features included health services, small groups, parent-teacher collaboration, and the thrill of communities getting involved with children in new ways. Osborn (1991) tells us:

> I wish I knew how to tell this part of the story . . . the bus driver in West Virginia who took time off from his regular job and went to the Center to have juice and crackers with "his" children because they asked him to. . . . The farmer who lived near an Indian Reservation and who each morning saddled his horse, forded a river and picked up an Indian child—who would not have attended a Center otherwise . . . they represent the true flavor of Head Start.

Over the years, Head Start has provided comprehensive developmental services to more than 10 million children and their families.

National Archives

■ Head Start is the largest publicly funded education program for young children in the United States.

This was an exciting time, a national recognition of the needs of young children and a hope for a better quality of life. Head Start was an attempt to make amends, to compensate poor children by preparing them for school and educational experiences. Parents, who were required to participate at all levels, were educated along with their children. The purpose of the community-based governing boards was to allow the program to reflect local values and concerns. Concurrently, underprivileged poor people were being encouraged to participate in solving some of their own problems.

The spirit of Head Start was infectious. As a result of community interest in Head Start, there was a burst of enthusiasm for many programs for the young child. Thanks to Head Start, there is national attention to the need for providing good care and educational experiences for young children. The Head Start program is recognized as an effective means of providing comprehensive services to children and families, serving as a model for the development of the ABC Child Care Act. (The program is discussed in Chapter 2.)

From Sputnik to High/Scope

After World War II, few innovations took place until a small piece of metal made its worldwide debut. The launch of Sputnik, the Soviet satellite, in 1957 (the first successful space exploration in the world) caused an upheaval in educational circles. Two questions were uppermost in the minds of most Americans: Why were we not first in space? What is wrong with our schools? The emphasis in education quickly settled on engineering, science, and math in the hopes of catching up with Soviet technology. It was time for a change in American education, both for reasons of social equity and of cognitive achievement.

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High/Scope was conceived to address the effects of poverty on children's development and to focus attention on cognitive aspects of learning. Two studies funded by the federal government were initiated to study the effects of different educational approaches. The first study, entitled "Planned Variation," focused on Head Start programs. The second study, "Project Follow-Through," addressed the effects of programming from preschool through third grade. High/Scope was one of these models. Developed by Weikart and colleagues (Schweinhart, Barnes, & Weikart, 1993), the curriculum identified key experiences relating to concept development and expanded to include education for all developmental domains, as well as recommendations for the physical environment and daily schedule (see Chapters 9 and 10). Research on this program has continued for decades and has identified clearly the positive long-term impacts of excellent nursery school education.

Infant-Toddler Care

Some people say that we are in the midst of a second child care revolution for young children, as more and more parents than ever before are leaving the home to work. Parents must rely on educators to teach their children from a very young age, including as infants. While many European industrialized nations have addressed these issues, the United States has not completely faced this reality or risen to the challenge.

The roots of infant-toddler care stem from the women's movement of the 1920s, which focused attention on deeply held beliefs about child-rearing and early education practices. When the United States mobilized around World War II, child care was addressed so as to enable mothers to work while fathers served in the armed forces. With the advent of the 1960s, women once again entered the workplace, and both parents needed to focus on working outside the home in addition to raising their families. Care for children by extended family, family child care homes, and day care centers was on the rise.

The American public is currently unclear about the best way to raise very young children, especially those younger than age 2. Women, by and large, are working outside the home and are no longer available around the clock to care for infants and toddlers; meanwhile, men are not generally electing to stay home or raise their children full time. There are not nearly enough properly funded centers or family child care homes for infants and toddlers under 3 years of age, and the patchwork system of parents, extended family, and neighborhood adults provides fragmented care, which may be less than optimal. As we learn more about the critical time period of 0–2 years of age for brain development, we need to look carefully at instituting quality child care for infants and toddlers.

Contemporary Developments

As we move into the 21st century, three practices are serving as turning points for contemporary early education:

- **DAP.** In 1997, 2003, and 2007, DAP articulated early education's principles of standard teaching practices that enhanced the growth of the whole child and included age, family, and individual elements. Mastery of play is considered one of the most important developmental tasks for young children, learning constructed by the learning through interaction with physical materials and thinking about the experiences (Nell & Drew, 2013). Look for the "DAP" box in each chapter and the "Ethic of Reform" themes in this chapter and Chapter 15.
- **Standards.** Education in the United States has become focused on an extensive implementation of state educational standards. The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), passed in 2001, and Common Core State Standards, released in 2010, call for new standards in English-language arts and mathematics for grades K–12. These developments may be as significant as *Brown v. Board of Education* in changing the direction of education for years to come (Weber, 2011). The standards-based movement in early learning includes identification and monitoring of quality indicators, as well as an emphasis on data-driven decision-making. Learn more about these issues in Chapter 5 (teachers), Chapter 6 (children), and Chapters 10–14 (curriculum), as well as the themes of "Professionalism" and "Ethic of Social Reform" in this chapter and Chapter 15.
- **Media and Technology**. The introduction of technology into modern life is staggering in its speed and influence. From television and video games to computers/Internet and technological tools (such as iPhones, iPads, and other devices), the inclusion (or, to many, intrusion) of such devices into the lives of children, families, and schools is here to stay. What we have learned at the end of the 20th century about brain development and neuroscience must now be blended with the technology that we are using in the early 21st century and beyond. Check out the Brain boxes, the Technology focus in Chapter 14, and the "Importance of Childhood" and "Transmission of Values" themes in this chapter and Chapter 15.

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Interdisciplinary Influences

Several professions can enrich the experience of early childhood. This diversity was apparent from the beginning of education, as the first nursery schools drew from six different professions: social work, home economics, nursing, psychology, education, and medicine. Three of the most consistent and influential of those disciplines were medicine, education, and child psychology.

Medicine

The medical field has contributed to the study of child growth through the work of several physicians. These doctors became interested in child development and extended their knowledge to the areas of child-rearing and education.

Maria Montessori

Maria Montessori (1870–1952) was the first woman in Italy to be granted a medical degree. She began studying children's diseases and, through her work with mentally defective children, found education more appealing. Her philosophy is discussed earlier in this chapter and is part of the Chapter 10 curriculum models.

Sigmund Freud

Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) made important contributions to all modern thinking. The father of personality theory and psychiatry in general, he drastically changed how we look at childhood. Freud reinforced two specific ideas: (1) a person is influenced by his early life in fundamental and dramatic ways, and (2) early experiences shape the way that people live and behave as adults. Thus, psychoanalytic theory is mostly about personality development and emotional problems. Freud's work set into motion one of the three major strands of psychological theory that influence the developmental and learning theories of early childhood today. Although he was not involved directly in education, Freud and psychoanalytic theory influenced education greatly. Chapter 4 expands on the theory and its application in early childhood education.

Arnold Gesell

Arnold Gesell (1880–1961) was a physician who was concerned with growth from a medical point of view. Gesell began studying child development when he was a student of G. Stanley Hall, an early advocate of child study. He later established the Clinic of Child Development at Yale University, where the data he collected with his colleagues became the basis of the recognized norms of how children grow and develop. He was also instrumental in encouraging Abigail Eliot to study with the McMillan sisters in England.

Gesell's greatest contribution was in the area of child growth. He saw maturation as an innate and powerful force in development. "The total plan of growth," he said, "is beyond your control. It is too complex and mysterious to be altogether entrusted to human hands. So nature takes over most of the task, and simply invites your assistance" (Gesell, Ames, & Ilg, 1977).

Through the Gesell Institute, guides were published using this theory. With such experts as Dr. Frances Ilg and Dr. Louise Bates Ames, Gesell wrote articles that realistically portrayed the child's growth from birth to adolescence. These guides have sharp critics regarding their overuse and inappropriate application to children of cultures other than those studied. Moreover, their approach can be limiting, particularly as we think of developmentally appropriate practices and the importance of both individual variation and family and cultural diversity (Copple & Bredekamp, 2010). Chapter 3 uses Gesell's "ages and stages" material to develop the word pictures used widely as a yardstick of normal development, and Gesell's maturation theory is discussed in Chapter 4.

Benjamin Spock

Benjamin Spock's book *Baby and Child Care* was a mainstay for parents in the 1940s and 1950s. In a detailed "how-to" format, Spock (1903–1998) preached a common-sense approach that helped shape the childhood of many of today's adults. By his death in 1998, the book had sold almost 50 million copies around the world and had been translated into 42 languages.

Romano Gentile/A3/Contrasto/Redux

■ Medical doctors such as Benjamin Spock have contributed to early care and education in significant ways.

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Spock saw himself as giving practical application to the theories of John Dewey (discussed earlier in this chapter) and Sigmund Freud (see Chapter 4), particularly in the ideas that children can learn to direct themselves, rather than needing to be constantly disciplined. He suggested that mothers use the playpen less and allow children freedom to explore the world firsthand. To that end, he asked parents to "childproof" their homes—a radical thought at the time. The word *permissiveness*, as it relates to child-rearing, became associated with his methods, although Spock himself described his advice as relaxed and sensible, while still advocating for firm parental leadership.

Spock became an outspoken advocate for causes that extended his ideas. He was an active critic of those forces—economic, social, or political—that destroy healthy development. Spock (1976) noted:

> Child care and home care, if well done, can be more creative, make a greater contribution to the world, [and] bring more pleasure to family members, than 9 out of 10 outside jobs. It is only our mixed-up, materialistic values that make so many of us think the other way around.

T. Berry Brazelton

T. Berry Brazelton (1918–) is a prominent pediatrician who supports and understands the development of infants and toddlers. He developed an evaluation tool called the Neonatal Behavioral Assessment Scale (NBAS), also known as "the Brazelton," to assess newborns. Cofounder of the Children's Hospital Unit in Boston, professor emeritus of pediatrics at Harvard Medical School, and a former president of the Society for Research in Child Development, he is also a well-known author. His pediatric guides for parents deal with both physical and emotional growth. His writings speak to the parents' role in child-raising, such as setting limits, listening to what children say, and observing what they do, as in the following excerpt:

> I think many working parents have a very tough time thinking about limits. They find it difficult to say no, to set behavior standards. . . . Parents tell me, "I can't stand to be away all day and then come home and be the disciplinarian." We have to realize how hard it is for parents to discipline these days. They need a lot of reinforcement to understand how important reasonable discipline is to the child. Teachers can be very important here, helping parents see the need to expect more adequate behavior (Brazelton & Greenspan, 2001).

Brazelton advocates a national parental leave standard and is involved in a federal lobbying group known as "Parent Action." He hosted the nationally syndicated show *What Every Baby Knows*; is cofounder of *Touchpoints*, an educational training center focusing on teacher/parent communication about early development; and writes about key areas of need for children to develop well (Brazelton & Greenspan, 2001).

Education

Early childhood is one part of the larger professional field known as education. This includes elementary, secondary, and college or postsecondary schooling. Along with Steiner, Dewey, and Eliot, several other influences from this field bear attention.

The McMillan Sisters

In the first three decades of the 20th century, Margaret and Rachel McMillan, who were sisters, became pioneers in early education. Nursery schools in Britain and the United States probably were developed because of the drive and dedication of the McMillans.

Both sisters had broad international backgrounds. Born in New York, they grew up in the United States, Canada, and Scotland. Margaret studied music and language in Europe. She was well read in philosophy, politics, and medicine. Rachel studied to become a health inspector in England.

Health studies performed between 1908 and 1910 showed that 80 percent of children were born in good health, but by the time they entered school, only 20 percent could be classified that way. Noticing the deplorable conditions for children younger than age 5, the McMillan sisters began a crusade for the slum children in England. Their concern extended beyond education to medical and dental care for young children. In 1910, they set up a clinic in Deptford, a London slum area, and the clinic became an open-air nursery a year later. The McMillans called it a "nurture school." Later, a training college nearby was named for Rachel. With no private financial resources, these two women faced tremendous hardships in keeping their school open. It is to their credit that Deptford still exists today.

The McMillans' theory of fresh air, sleep, and bathing proved successful. "When over seven hundred children between one and five died of measles, there was not one fatal case at Deptford School" (Deasey, 1978). From the school's inception, a primary function was to research the effects of poverty on children.

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■ Queen Mary (left) with some of the children from the nursery school attached to the Rachel McMillan Training College in Deptford (1930).

Of the two sisters, Margaret had the greater influence on the school at Deptford. After Rachel died in 1917, Margaret continued to champion early education issues beyond Deptford. "Her clinics, night camps, camp school, baby camp, open-air nursery school, and training college all reflected her conviction that health was the handmaiden of education" (Bradburn, 2000). Eliot writes of her:

> Miss McMillan invented the name [nursery school]. She paid great attention to health: a daily inspection, the outdoor program, play, good food—what she called "nurture." But she saw that an educational problem was also involved and she set to work to establish her own method of education for young children. This was why she called it a "school" (Hymes, 1978).

Susan Isaacs

Susan Isaacs (1885–1948) was an educator of the early 20th century whose influence on nursery and progressive schools of the day was substantial. In 1929, she published a book called *The Nursery Years*, which emphasized a different point of view than that of the behaviorist psychologists of the times. She interpreted Freudian theory for teachers and provided guidance for how schools could apply this new knowledge of the unconscious to the education of children. She proposed:

> . . . the opportunity for free unhindered imaginative play not only as a means to discover the world but also as a way to reach the psychic equilibrium, in working through wishes, fears, and fantasies so as to integrate them into a living personality (Biber, 1984).

The teacher's role was different from that of a therapist, she asserted, in that teachers were to encourage play as a bridge in a child's emotional and intellectual development. Isaacs's influence is felt today in schools whose philosophy emphasizes the child's point of view and the notion of play as the child's work.

The Child Study Movement

A survey of education influences is incomplete without mentioning the Child Study movement in the United States beginning in the 1920s. It was through this movement that education and psychology began to have a common focus on children. Besides the Gesell Institute, many research centers and child development laboratories were established at colleges and universities around the country. The Merrill-Palmer Institute, for example, began in 1920 as a school to serve urban children in Detroit, Michigan, and later served as a model for the Head Start program; in addition, it sponsored research and training about children and families. Schools of psychology looked for children to observe and study; schools of education wanted demonstration schools for their teachers-in-training and for student-teacher placement. Schools of home economics wanted their students to have firsthand experiences with children. Schools of education hoped to develop leadership from among its teaching and research staff. These on-campus schools provided a place to gather information about child development, psychology, and educational innovation (Harms & Tracy, 2006).

This period of educational experiments and child study led to an impressive collection of normative data by which we still measure ranges of ordinary development. The Child Study movement was the impetus that began the search for the most appropriate means of educating young children. Laboratory schools reflect the interest of several disciplines in the growth of the young child.

The British Infant Schools

Developed by Robert Owen in the early 19th century, the British infant schools had a strong commitment to social reform. In Britain, the term *infant school* refers to the kindergarten and primary grades. In 1967, the Plowden Report proposed a series of reforms for the

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■ On-campus schools have a legacy from the Child Study movement of the early-to mid-20th century, where students can learn in a laboratory setting.

schools. These changes paralleled those of Owen and mainstream American early education. Three aspects of this **open school** style that received the most attention were:

- ***Vertical (or mixed-age) groupings***. Children from 5 to 8 years of age are placed in the same classroom. Several teachers may combine their classes and work together in teaching teams. Children may be taught by the same teachers for 2 or 3 years.
- ***Integrated day***. The classroom is organized into various centers for math, science, and the arts. The teacher moves from one child or center to another as needed. Play is often the central activity, with an emphasis on follow-through with children's ideas and interests as they arise.
- ***Thinking over facts***. There is an underlying concept that the process of thinking takes precedence over the accumulation of facts. Learning how to think rather than stockpiling data is encouraged. How to identify and solve problems is valued more than having a finished product. Teachers focus on the child's current learning rather than on the future.

The infant school model of mixed-age range is used widely in early learning centers and school-age programs in Europe and the United States, while American elementary schools and those in China still hold primarily to the one-year/one-grade model.

Reggio Emilia

In the last part of the 20th century up to the present, another educator and his educational system influenced early childhood learning. Loris Malaguzzi (1920–1994) developed his theory of early childhood education from his work with infants, toddlers, and preschoolers while working as the founder and director of early education in the town of Reggio Emilia, Italy. His philosophy includes creating "an amiable school" (Malaguzzi, 1993) that welcomes families and the community and invites relationships among teachers, children, and parents to intensify and deepen to strengthen a child's sense of identity. Malaguzzi continually asked teachers to question their own practices and listen to the children, as can be seen in a letter from him (Gandini, 1994) excerpted here:

> My thesis is that if we do not learn to listen to children, it will be difficult to learn the art of staying and conversing with them. . . . It will also be difficult, perhaps impossible, to understand how and why children think and speak; to understand what they do, ask, plan, theorize, or desire. . . . Furthermore, what are the consequences of not listening? . . . We adults lose the capacity to marvel, to be surprised, to reflect, to be merry, and to take pleasure in children's words and actions.

Reggio Emilia has attracted the attention and interest of American educators because of its respect for children's work and creativity, its project approach, and its total community support. Its focus on child self-expression and the emergent curriculum model are discussed in Chapter 10 and used as a basis for the curriculum covered in Chapters 11–14.

Psychology

The roots of early childhood education are wonderfully diverse, but one taproot is especially deep: the connection with the field of psychology. In this century particularly, the study of people and their behavior is linked with the study of children and their growth.

Initially, child development was mostly confined to the study of trends and descriptions of changes. Then, the scope and definition of child development began to change. Psychodynamic theories of Freud and Erikson were contrasted by behaviorist theories of John B. Watson and B. F. Skinner and by the cognitive theories of Piaget and Lev Vygotsky. John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth studied attachment, Lawrence Kohlberg and Nancy Eisenberg moral development, and Michael Maccoby and Carol Gilligan gender differences.

Developmental psychologists now study the processes associated with those changes. Specifically, child development focuses on language acquisition, the effect of early experiences on intellectual development, the process of attachment to others, and how neuroscience discoveries reveal developmental processes. Such is the

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world of early childhood—it is no wonder that we are so closely tied to the world of psychology, as discussed in depth in Chapter 4.

Themes in Early Childhood Education

When we review the colorful and rich history of early childhood education, four major themes emerge. Each is reflected in the many influences on early childhood education.

Ethic of Social Reform

The first theme, the **ethic of social reform**, expects that schooling for young children leads to social change and improvement. Montessori, Owen, the McMillans, Smith Hill, Eliot, and the Head Start and High/Scope programs all tried to improve children's health and physical well-being by attending first to the physical and social welfare aspects of children's lives. Recent examples include Marian Wright Edelman, Louise Derman Sparks, Robert Coles, and Jonathan Kozol. Organizations such as the Southern Poverty Law Center (SPLC), Annie E. Casey Foundation, NAEYC, and state advocacy groups illustrate how important this theme is to this work.

Edelman in particular is an outstanding children's advocate. A graduate of Spelman College and Yale Law School, Edelman began her career as a civil rights lawyer. (She was the first black woman to be admitted to the Mississippi state bar.) By the 1960s, she had dedicated herself to the battle against poverty, moving to Washington, D.C., and founding a public-interest law firm that eventually became the Children's Defense Fund (CDF). CDF has become the strongest voice for children and families in the United States (see Figure 1-6). The author of several books, including *Families in Peril, The Measure of Our Success,* and *The Sea Is So Wide and My Boat Is So Small,* Edelman advocates for equity in social reform:

> [We] seek to ensure that no child is left behind and that every child has a Healthy Start, a Head Start, a Fair Start, a Safe Start, and a Moral Start in life with the support of caring families and communities (Edelman, 2006).

This reform work is being continued by her son, Jonah, who now organizes the annual Washington, D.C., rally "Stand for Children."

CDF: Child Advocacy as Social Reform in the United States

1975	Assisted in passing the Education for All Handicapped Children Act
1979	Blocked attempts to eliminate $200 million for social services
1980	Supported Adoption Assistance and Child Welfare Act
1982	Helped forward the Children's Mental Health Program
1990	Supported Act for Better Child Care (Child Care and Development Block Grant)
1994	Reauthorized Head Start with quality improvements
1997	Promoted Children's Health Insurance Program (CHIP)
2001	Expanded Child Care Tax Credit
2002	Food stamp provisions preserved
2003	Preserved CHIP funding to all states
2007	Evaluated the CDF freedom schools and summer enrichment programs, found that children score higher on standardized reading achievement tests.
2008	Published its annual *State of America's Children* report, which says that the United States lags behind nearly all industrialized nations in key child indicators.
2010	Established its online research library, using data from a wide range of sources, primarily federal data systems such as the Bureaus of the Census and of Labor Statistics, and from nonprofit and educational entities such as the Kaiser Family Foundations and National Association of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies.
2014	Marian Wright Edelman delivers an address concerning events and jury decisions regarding the police killings of black men and boys, and calls for the need for justice and progress with systemic racial problems

■ **FIGURE 1-6** The CDF, led by Marian Wright Edelman, has successfully advocated for children with research and persistence for more than three decades.

Sparks, in collaboration with Dr. Betty Jones, the Anti-Bias Task Force of Pacific Oaks, and Julia Olsen Edwards of Cabrillo College, has published several books and countless articles about anti-bias education. These works outline several areas in which children's behavior is influenced by biases in our society and

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BRAIN Research Says ...

What Is Neuroscience, and Why Should We Care?

When the field of psychology began to develop in the 1800s, new questions began to surface about the brain and the mind. Freud's ideas about the subconscious mind, Piaget's concepts of the thinking mind, and behaviorists' work on changing thoughts and attitudes via shaping behavior all led to the emergence of cognitive science in the late 1980s. A landmark report by the National Academy of Sciences entitled *From Neurons to Neighborhoods: The Science of Early Childhood Development* (Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000) joined early childhood education with neuroscience. Since then, the development and availability of brain-imaging techniques provide glimpses of brain activity as an individual thinks and feels.

We are now in what might be called the "century of the brain." If the human brain is like the hardware of a computer, the mind may be seen as the software. Further, this software changes as it is used; people assign different meaning to the inputs and outputs of things. Brain structures can now be mapped on a matrix. The work of cognitive neuropsychologists allows us to link specific regions of the brain with specific cognitive processes such as verbal and memory skills, attention, emotional responding, and motor coordination. Experimental techniques used on animals (which could not be ethically used with humans) have revealed the brain regions that connect with psychological processes. Combining computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), technologies developed during the late 20th century, with the more recent functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and positron emission topography (PET) allows us to determine the location of tumors or lesions, as well as study the genetic basis of differences (Byrnes, 2001; Ansari & Coch, 2006).

The new frontier of neuroscience is showing us the remarkable plasticity of the brain, as well as the critical nature of the early years. "Early experiences determine whether a child's developing brain architecture provides a strong or weak foundation for all future learning, behavior and health" (Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University, 2007). Neuroscience and education create an ideal partnership in outlining a better understanding of how we learn so we can create more effective teaching methods and curriculum (Carew & Magsamen, 2010); Dubinsky, Roehrig, & Verna, 2013). Hand in hand with child development research and early education practitioners, we can address questions about why you—and society—must invest in young children.

Questions

1. If this is the "century of the brain," what do you think will change in educational practices?
2. What do you think parents should know about brain development in the first 5 years of a child's life?
3. What would "investing in young children" look like in your community? In your state?

suggests a host of ways that teachers (and parents) can begin addressing these issues. These professionals have added an important dimension to the notion of social reform, for they focus attention on ourselves, the school environment, children's interactions, and the community of parents and colleagues in educational settings.

Social reform also has been championed by educators and citizens beyond early childhood education. Poverty and disparate school quality lead the list. Robert Coles, a psychiatrist and educator, has written and lectured extensively about his observations and work with children of poverty and is best known for *Children of Crisis: A Study of Courage and Fear* (1971). Kozol has spoken extensively about segregation in the schools, most notably in his books *Letters to a Young Teacher* (2007) and *Savage Inequalities: Children in America's Schools* (1991), in which he writes:

> Surely there is enough for everyone in this country. It is a tragedy that these good things are not more widely shared. All our children ought to be allowed a stake in the enormous richness of America. Whether they were born to poor white Appalachians or to wealthy Texans, to poor black people in the Bronx or to rich people in Manhasset or Winnetka, they are all quite wonderful and innocent when they are small. We soil them needlessly.

In the United States, three national organizations advocate for the well-being of children, families, and teachers. First, the Annie E. Casey Foundation, founded in 1948, is one of the largest private foundations in the United States and is based on helping vulnerable kids and families succeed. Their research assists agencies to create funding mechanisms to provide early educational experiences for all children. Second, the SPLC, incorporated in 1971 and led by Morris Dees, works tirelessly to fight hate and bigotry and seek justice at all levels. The publication *Teaching Tolerance* and SPLC's many resources for educators assist teachers from preschool through high school.

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