

*EARLY CHILD CARE
AND
EDUCATION*

By
Prof. Nuzhat Nasreen
College of Education, Srinagar

Unit – I

Historical Background of Early Childhood Care and Education

In attempting to paint a picture of global developments in early childhood care and education policies and programs, we are confronted by the paucity of national data, let alone comparative, cross-national data. Reviewing the histories of ECEC developments in several countries reminds us that in much of Europe and North America, and even in several of the developing countries such as China and India, kindergartens and nurseries were first established in the 19th century, often drawing on the same models: Froebel, Pestalozzi, Montessori, and the activities of missionaries. Early on, a distinction was made between “kindergartens” for educational purposes and day nurseries to provide care. But subsequent developments were slow, with some expansion occurring during World War II and some following that. Except for the eastern European socialist countries, with extensive developments occurring right after the War II, and France, with the integration of preschool into the education system in 1886 and the most significant developments date

from the 1960s: the end of colonialism, the establishment of independent states in Africa, the dramatic increase in female labour force participation rates, the extensive developments in child and family policies in Europe and the U.S., the debate between care vs development as the critical issue in the ECEC field.

Early Childhood Care and Education

Early childhood education (ECE; also nursery education) is a branch of education theory which relates to the teaching of young children (formally and informally) up until the age of about eight. Infant/toddler education, a subset of early childhood education, denotes the education of children from birth to age two. In recent years, early childhood education has become a prevalent public policy issue, as municipal, state, and federal lawmakers.

Early childhood is defined as the period from conception to eight years of age

The earliest years of a child's life are critical. These years determine child's survival and thriving in life, and lay the foundations for her/ his learning and holistic development. It is during the early years that children develop the cognitive, physical, social and emotional skills that they need to succeed in life.

These early experiences are largely determined by supportive family and community care practices, proper nutrition and health care, learning opportunities, which in turn are dependent on enabling policies and

investments for young children and families. ECE positively impacts attendance, retention, and learning of children in elementary and higher education. Early childhood attachment processes that occurs during early childhood years 0-2 years of age can be influential to future education. With proper guidance and exploration children begin to become more comfortable with their environment, if they have that steady relationship to guide them. Parents who are consistent with response times and emotions will properly make this attachment early on. If this attachment is not made, there can be detrimental effects on the child in their future relationships and independence. There are proper techniques that parents and caregivers can use to establish these relationships, which will in turn allow children to be more comfortable exploring their environment.

There is strong evidence that Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) is one of the best investments a country can make to prepare children for learning in school and for prospering later in life. Quality early childhood care and education promotes children's social, emotional, physical, and cognitive development and helps them develop their full potential. Children who benefit from early childhood education programs are better prepared for primary school and will reach better education outcomes. Quality ECCE also helps to reduce repetition and drop-out rates, improves school readiness, and increases school achievement.

Unfortunately, low, and lower middle-income countries tend to invest little in expanding and scaling up affordable ECCE programs for the

poorest and most vulnerable children, who ultimately are the ones who can benefit the most from quality ECCE.

Scope of Early Childhood Care and Education

The Pre-School Education has very wide scope in Indian context Kothari Commission which was originally the education commission 1964-66, defined the period between 3 to 6 years as the period when pre-school level education may be given to a child. The commission recommends that a child should join the pre-school between the age of 3 and 4. But Pre-School learning is much more than that, and we tend to agree with Katz who described early childhood in group settings “which are deliberately intended to effect the developmental changes in children in the age range from birth to the age of entering the first grade. “Learning at this stage is set in a social matrix where a child learns by observation and imitation, and where the necessary innervations/stimulants have to be incorporated in his environmental setting. Pre-School education is the schooling for child who is watching this world as wonder.

Pre-school learning is also known as Kindergarten, Nursery, Montessori, and Early Childhood Education. What is common among them is the fact that they all signify education of children before they join primary school.

Nature of Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)

There are several categories of ECCE programme few are listed below.

1. Balwadis/Angamvadis.

2. Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS)
3. ECE centers run under the scheme of assistance to Voluntary Organizations.
4. Preparatory, Pre-school, Nursery classes run by private agencies.
5. It is a child oriented programme which follows the play-way and activity approach.
6. Provides first hand experiences, and develop skills related to the process of learning.

Importance of Early Childhood Education

Early years of any child is of great significance and crucial. In this child's life span, the rate of development in these years is more rapid than at any other stage of development. Stimulating environment includes-

1. An emotionally secure and supportive environment.
2. Exposure to and opportunities to experiment with a variety of experiences, objects, and places.

Problematic Area of Early Childhood Education

1. Increasing population has compelled the women's to work for their family need. With the perpetually increasing number of mothers joining the work force, the break-up of the traditional joint family system and the mounting tensions and pre-occupations of parents resulting from the existing life styles, children often do not get the benefit of a stimulating environment at home.
2. ECCE programme has significant role in under developed countries. Children from the underprivileged sections are particularly deprived in this respect. The parents, who are illiterate,

are not able to effectively interact with the children or help them develop appropriate language and cognitive skills.

3. An ECCE programme provides children with stimulating experiences for cognitive, language, physical, social, and emotional development. If organized effectively, an ECCE programme can compensate for the deprivation at the home front and can help the child build a strong foundation which would later facilitate the development of his full potential.
4. The universalization of elementary education is an important contribution of Early Childhood Education.
5. In ECCE center, the younger children come, therefore their other sisters are freed from the chores of minding the young ones and can, therefore, attend regular school.

The challenges of ECCE

1. Children living in the poorest households are up to 10 times less likely to attend ECCE than those in the richest. (UNICEF 2012)
2. As of 2011, private providers were catering for 34% of all children enrolled in pre-primary education. (2013 Results for Learning Report)
3. Only one in five children in developing country partners was participating in pre-primary education in 2011. (2013 Results for Learning Report)
4. Lack of funding, limited country capacity, and low social demand for ECCE are all obstacles to implementing quality ECCE programs.

Aims and objectives in early childhood care and education

Early childhood education aims to contribute to the physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of children. To develop a positive and balanced image of themselves, to acquire personal independence and increase its affective capabilities. In accordance with these purposes in our school, Infant education through its objectives will help students to develop skills that allow them to:

1. To know their own body, that of others, and their possibilities for action and learn to respect differences.
2. Observe and explore your family, natural and social environment.
3. Progressively acquire autonomy in their usual activities.
4. Develop their emotional abilities.
5. Interact with others and progressively acquire basic and peaceful patterns of coexistence and social relations.
6. Develop communication skills in different languages and forms of expression.
7. Engage in logical-mathematical abilities.
8. Engage in reading and writing skills.
9. Discover the existence of other languages especially English, the main language that will be taught during the day.
10. To know and appreciate the cultural manifestations..

EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION IN INDIA

In every country, developed or developing, the resources and abilities of its society are constantly being challenged in the search for strategies to meet the needs of children. In the third world in which India has a large presence, the kaleidoscope is changing rapidly. In 21st century, with globalization, liberalization, environmental dangers, and the fragility of the powerless, it is all the more urgent to invest in the young. If children are indeed our aspirations, they too have to become ready to meet the accelerating changes in the 21st century.

The national policy on Education announced in 1986 was a major break though for the concept of Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE). The main aspects were: recognition of the holistic development of the child, emphasis on play as a medium of informal teaching, the use of non-formal methods, and a pluralistic and continuous approach. ECCE here derived its significance not only as an essential human development programme, laying the foundation for lifelong growth in the first six years (0-6) of life, but also to serve as a support for universalization of elementary education and a programme for women's development. It was expected to foster the necessary maturational and experiential readiness in the child for meeting the demands of the primary curriculum and also indirectly impact on enrolment and retention of girls in primary schools by providing substitute care facility for younger siblings. ECCE was essentially promoted as a play-based programme which should not be reduced to formal teaching of the three to six (3-6) years.

Initially, ECCE was with the ministry of Education, then it shifted to the Ministry of Human Resource Development, which had a department of women and child development with preschool education as a component in the integrated child development, services (ICDS). However, the Ministry of Education through NCERT and its state branches (SCERTS), continues to have a parallel programme in ECCE.

Present Status of ECCE

Early childhood care and Education (ECCE) for children in the age group of 0 to 6 years received a major impetus in the Indian context when it found its much deserved place in the National policy on Education (NPE), 1986/1992, as the earliest stage of education. It has since gained added priority with the current national concern for universalization of elementary education (UEE) in which it has been envisaged as a very crucial input.

Acknowledging the undisputed significance of ECCE inputs in the realm of child development and education the Government of India has, within the eighth plan period, promoted unprecedented expansion of ECCE facilities through the centrally sponsored ICDS. In addition to ICDS, ECE facility is available to children through several other schemes like, creches and day care centres (age group 0-5 years) Balwadis (0-6 years), privately run fee-paying nursery and play schools.

Problems and Issues Related to Pre-Primary Schools:

There is no regulatory and controlling authority related to pre-primary schools. In the absence of any system of registration or accreditation, data of the total number of existing nursery and play-schools is not available.

While the first decade of 21st century has indisputably seen a quantitative expansion of ECCE programmes across the country, the quality of programmes as a rule leaves much to be desired. Besides the dearth of basic facilities, in terms of the curriculum for there appears to be a wide gap between the content and methodology advocated for an effective ECCE programme and what is evident in practice. While NPE emphasized the holistic nature of ECCE with focus on play way methods and a development oriented curriculum a vast majority of ECE centers/programmes both in the government and private sectors are virtually running as ‘ Little primary school’. They tend to use formal didactic methods of teaching the three to six years (3-6 years). These ECE programmes can easily prove to be detrimental rather than helpful for the development of the Child.

While several factors are responsible for this distortion of the preschool curriculum, thus making it ‘child unfriendly’ and ‘burden-some’, a primary one is the lack of appropriate and adequate training in the area of ECE. A concern for the child and his/her needs and characteristics, and the skills and competence to use play and activity as methods to help meet these needs at the early childhood stage, can be developed in the teachers/workers only through a well-planned and well-transacted

training programme. Teacher education in ECE this becomes a key area of concern.

Need and challenges of ECCE in India

In India, according to Census 2011 data there are 164.48 million children of 0-6 years of age. Recognizing the need to provide quality pre-primary programmes, a number of constitutional and policy provisions have been made such as the 86th Constitutional Amendment which introduced Article 21A on the right to free and compulsory education for 6-14 years old children and Article 45 to urge states to provide ECCE for all children until they complete the age of six years.

The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education (RTE) Act 2010 guarantees children their right to quality elementary education. ECE is not recognized as a compulsory provision by RTE, but RTE urges states to provide free pre-school education for children above three years. The 12th Five Year Plan acknowledges the importance of ECE and improving school preparedness.

The Government of India approved the National Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) Policy in 2013. The Policy framework also includes the National Curriculum Framework and Quality Standards for ECCE. The Policy caters to all children under 6 years of age and commits to universal access to quality early childhood education. The Ministry of Women and Child Development (MWCD) is the nodal department for ECCE. MWCD is responsible for the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) programme, which is a centrally sponsored and state administered ECCE programme, covering around 38 million children

through a network of almost 1.4 million anganwadi centers (a village courtyard). ICDS includes delivery of an integrated package of services such as supplementary nutrition, immunization, health check-up, preschool education, referral services and nutrition & health education. ECCE is one of the components and aims at psycho-social development of children and developing school readiness.

Despite the recognition of the importance of ECE by the Government of India, the challenges in implementation still remain. There are still substantial numbers of children not enrolled in preschools. Even in elementary education, while there is a significant rise in enrolments, the dropout rate continues to be a matter of concern, with drop outs being highest in the first two grades of elementary schooling. Learning assessments also show that literacy skills are poor in early primary grades. This points to the urgency of helping children, particularly from first generation families, develop adequate school readiness through a good quality ECE programme, to enable them to make a smooth transition.

EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND DEVELOPMENT

Enhancing the quality of young children's lives is now a national and international priority. "Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children." is number 1 goal of the Dakar Framework for Action (2000) on 'Education for All' Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) programs help to improve school performance as well as reduce dropout and repetition rate, which ultimately reduce cost

and improve efficiency of primary education. It also has a long term impact on country's education, health, moral and social values and children's development as a whole. Early Childhood Development (ECD) emphasizes a holistic approach focusing on the child's physical, emotional, social, as well as cognitive development. The objective of ECCD is to nurture the children for their physical and mental development and to prepare them for schooling with right attitudes and habits. In this unit we are going to discuss main aspects to early childhood care and development.

Meaning of Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD)

Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) can define as the holistic development of children including physical, cognitive, language, social and emotional development from conception to age five.

Early Childhood: Early childhood is defined as the period of a child's life from conception to age five (internationally eight). There are two reasons for including this age range within a definition of ECCD.

Care: Care means something additional rather than education, such as children's health and nutrition, their evolving emotional and social abilities, as well as their minds, to move policy makers and program providers away from thinking exclusively in terms of pre-schooling.

Development: Development is defined as the process of change in which the child comes to master more and more complex levels of moving,

thinking, feeling, and interacting with people and objects in the environment.

Areas of Early Child development

Child development is a process in which many areas are exists. These are-

- 1. Physical development:** Physical development is the most recognized and observable change in the life of a child. This development is largely dependent upon the child's health and nutritional status.
- 2. Cognitive development:** Cognitive development means to acquire the ability of understanding, recognizing, problem solving, logical thinking and Cause & effect analysis and dealing with numbers.
- 3. Social and emotional development:** Social development entails the acquisition of skills needed to play and work with peers, to communicate with adults, and be aware of social customs within one's community. Emotional development includes acquiring a sense of security in the presence of adults; secure children are more interested in exploring novelty and playing with peers.
- 4. Language development:** Language development is the most universal human achievement takes its way from the very beginning of child life after birth. Language consists of several sub-systems that have to do with sound, meaning, overall structure, and everyday use.

Importance of (ECCD)

ECCD is an opportunity to avoid or reduce developmental problems, thereby bringing lasting benefits to individuals and society. Early years are crucial in the formation of intelligence, personality, and social behavior. Children are born with physical, social, and psychological capacities which allow them to communicate, learn, and develop. If these capacities are not recognized and supported, they will never be developed. Proper care at early age can do much to create an enabling environment that ensures protection and support for more broad-based issues such as children's health, nutrition, psycho-social and cognitive development. ECCD stress the importance of child-friendly, family-focused, and community-based programs that not only serve to strengthen ongoing social service programs, but improve the physical and mental capacity of children. Investments in Early Childhood Development can further help to modify inequalities rooted in poverty as well as social, religious or gender discrimination.

Learning through Play

A child exploring comfortably due to having a secure attachment with caregiver. Early childhood education often focuses on learning through play, based on the research and philosophy of Jean Piaget, which posits that play meets the physical, intellectual, language, emotional and social needs (PILES) of children. Children's curiosity and imagination naturally evoke learning when unfettered. Thus, children learn more efficiently and gain more knowledge through activities such as dramatic play, art, and

social games. Tassoni suggests that "some play opportunities will develop specific individual areas of development, but many will develop several areas." Thus, it is important that practitioners promote children's development through play by using various types of play on a daily basis. Allowing children to help get snacks ready helps develop math skills (one-to-one ratio, patterns, etc.), leadership, and communication. Key guidelines for creating a play-based learning environment include providing a safe space, correct supervision, and culturally aware, trained teachers who are knowledgeable about the Early Years Foundation.

Davy states that the British Children's Act of 1989 links to play-work as the act works with play workers and sets the standards for the setting such as security, quality and staff ratios. Learning through play has been seen regularly in practice as the most versatile way a child can learn. Margaret McMillan (1860-1931) suggested that children should be given free school meals, fruit and milk, and plenty of exercise to keep them physically and emotionally healthy. Rudolf Steiner (1861-1925) believed play allows children to talk, socially interact, and use their imagination and intellectual skills. Marie Montessori (1870-1952) believed that children learn through movement and their senses and after doing an activity using their senses.

In a more contemporary approach, organizations such as the National Association of the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) promote child-guided learning experiences, individualized learning, and

developmentally appropriate learning as tenets of early childhood education.^[11]

Piaget provides explanation for why learning through play is such a crucial aspect of learning as a child. However, due to the advancement of technology the art of play has started to dissolve and has transformed into "playing" through technology. Greenfield, quoted by the author, Stuart Wolpert in the article, "Is Technology Producing a Decline in Critical Thinking and Analysis?" states, "No media is good for everything. If we want to develop a variety of skills, we need a balanced media diet. Each medium has costs and benefits in terms of what skills each develops." Technology is beginning to invade the art of play and a balance needs to be found.

Many oppose the theory of learning through play because they think children are not gaining new knowledge. In reality, play is the first way that children learn to make sense of the world at a young age. As children watch adults interact around them, they pick up on their slight nuances - talking on the phone, writing notes, or driving a car. They are exploring different roles, learning how things work, and learning to communicate and work with others. These things cannot be taught by a standard curriculum, but have to be developed through the method of play. Many preschools understand the importance of play and have designed their curriculum around that to allow children to have more freedom. Once these basics are learned at a young age, it sets children up for success throughout their schooling and their life.

Theories of child development

The Developmental Interaction Approach is based on the theories of Jean Piaget, Erik Erikson, John Dewey, and Lucy Sprague Mitchell. The approach focuses on learning through discovery. Jean Jacques Rousseau recommended that teachers should exploit individual children's interests in order to make sure each child obtains the information most essential to his personal and individual development. The five developmental domains of childhood development include:

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

1. **Physical:** the way in which a child develops biological and physical functions, including eyesight and motor skills
2. **Social:** the way in which a child interacts with others. Children develop an understanding of their responsibilities and rights as members of families and communities, as well as an ability to relate to and work with others.
3. **Emotional:** the way in which a child creates emotional connections and develops self-confidence. Emotional connections develop when children relate to other people and share feelings.
4. **Language:** the way in which a child communicates, including how they present their feelings and emotions, both to other people and to themselves. At 3 months, children employ different cries for different needs. At 6 months they can recognize and imitate the basic sounds of spoken language. In the first 3 years, children need

to be exposed to communication with others in order to pick up language. "Normal" language development is measured by the rate of vocabulary acquisition.

5. **Cognitive skills:** the way in which a child organizes information. Cognitive skills include problem solving, creativity, imagination, and memory. They embody the way in which children make sense of the world. Piaget believed that children exhibit prominent differences in their thought patterns as they move through the stages of cognitive development: sensorimotor period, the pre-operational period, and the operational period.

Kolb's experiential learning theory

David Kolb's experiential learning theory, which was influenced by John Dewey, Kurt Lewin and Jean Piaget, argues that children need to experience things in order to learn: "The process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combinations of grasping and transforming experience." The experiential learning theory is distinctive in that children are seen and taught as individuals. As a child explores and observes, teachers ask the child probing questions. The child can then adapt prior knowledge to learning new information.

Kolb breaks down this learning cycle into four stages: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Children observe new situations, think about the

situation, make meaning of the situation, and then test that meaning in the world around them.

Recommendations of Kothari Commission (1964-66)

Keeping in view the importance of early childhood care and education for the proper personality development of younger generation in particular and total human resource in general, Kothari Commission 1964-66, has provided the following objectives:

- i. To develop good health, habits and to build up basic skills necessary for personal adjustment of the child, such as dressing, toilet habits, eating, washing, cleaning, etc.
- ii. To develop desirable social attitudes and manners through early childhood care and education.
- iii. To encourage healthy group participation in the child, making the child sensitive to the rights and privileges of others.
- iv. To develop emotional maturity of the child by guiding the child to express, understand, accept, and control the feelings and emotions.
- v. To encourage aesthetic appreciation.
- vi. To stimulate the beginning of intellectual curiosity concerning the environment.
- vii. To help him to understand the world in which he lives and to foster new interest through opportunities to explore, investigate and experiment.
- viii. To encourage independence and creativity by providing the

- child with sufficient opportunities for self-expression.
- ix. To develop the ability to express the child's thoughts and feelings in fluent, correct and clear speech,
 - x. To develop in the child a good physique, adequate muscular coordination and basic motor skills.
 - xi. The effect of environmental influences upon child and his patterns of development;
 - xii. The psychological and social interactions between a child and the other members of the society in which he is born and reared."

Recommendations of National Policy on Education, 1986

The National Policy on Education (NPE) was adopted by Parliament in May 1986. The NPE has stood the test of time. Based on an in-depth review of the whole gamut of educational situation and formulated on the basis of a national consensus, it enunciated a comprehensive framework to guide the development of education in its entirety.

Reorganisation of Early Childhood Care & Education

The National Policy on Children specially emphasises investment in the development of young child, particularly children from sections of the population in which first generation learners predominate. Recognising the holistic nature of child development, viz., nutrition, health and social, mental, physical, moral and emotional development, Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) will receive high priority and be suitably integrated with the Integrated Child Development Services programme,

wherever possible. Day-care centres will be provided as a support service for universalisation of primary education, to enable girls engaged in taking care of siblings to attend school and as a support service for working women belonging to poorer sections.

It is felt that preschool education is absolutely essential for child development. The Planning Commission of India in their sixth plan states. "The preschool years of child is the period of its maximum learning and intellectual development and hence of gross potential educational significance." In UNESCO report Faure et al 1972; have mentioned "the importance of early childhood education in the later developments of aptitudes of personality is beyond doubt. None-the-less educational system very frequently operates as if this phase of life was of no concern to them. Their short comings in this respect may obviously be explained in many countries by-inadequacy of resources available to meet the demand for education, but they do also result from a failure to recognize the importance to individual development of educational conditions in early childhood."

Methods of studying Child behaviour and development

Child study has its exceptional implements, actions, or approaches which help in the gathering and association of facts. Charles Gide has said that the term method is used to design the road that must be followed to lead the discovery of truth; there are various methods which are used in child psychology. Psychologists

use a variety of methods like observation method, experimental method, correlation method, survey method, psychological testing, case study method etc. to collect data. Some of the important methods which are often used in early childhood care and education are discussed here.

Observation Method

Observation is a very powerful tool of psychological enquiry. It is an effective method of describing behaviour. In our daily life, we remain busy with observing numerous things throughout the day. Many times we do not take notice of what we are seeing or what we have seen. We see but we do not observe. We remain aware of only a few things that we see daily. We come to know many interesting things about the child when we observe him. A scientific observation differs from day to day observation in many respects. There are number of steps in an observation. These steps are:

Selection

Psychologists do not observe all the behaviour that they encounter. Rather, they select a particular behaviour for observation. For example, you may be interested to know how children studying in class say 1st spend their time in school, two things are possible at this stage. As a researcher, you might think that you have a fairly good idea about what happens in school. You might prepare a list of activities and go to the school with a view to finding out their occurrences. Alternatively, you might think that you do not know

what happens in the school and by your observation you would like to discover it.

Recording

While observing, a researcher records the selected behaviour, using different means, such as marking tallies for the already identified behaviour whenever they occur, taking notes, describing each activity in greater detail using short hand or symbols, photographs, video recording, etc.

Analysis of data

After the observations have been made, psychologists analyze whatever they have recorded with a view to derive some meaning out of it. It is important to know that making good observations is a skill. A good observer knows what he is looking for, whom he wants to observe, when and where the observation needs to be made, in what form the observation will be recorded and what methods will be fruitful to analyse the things throughout the day. Many times we do not take notice of what we are seeing or what we have seen. We see but we do not observe. We remain aware of only a few things that we see daily. We come to know many interesting things about the child when we observe him. A scientific observation differs from day to day observation in many respects.

Types of Observation

Naturalistic vs. Controlled observation

When observations are done in a natural or real life setting, it is called naturalistic observation. In this case, the observer makes no effort to control or manipulate the situation for making an observation. This type of observation is conducted in hospitals, homes, schools, day care centers, etc. However, many a times you might need to control certain factors that determine behaviour as they are not the focus of our study. For this reason, many of the studies in psychology are conducted in the laboratory. For example, "Two American psychologists, Bibb Latane and John Darley, conducted a study in 1970. In order to participate in this study, the students of Columbia University arrived individually at a laboratory. They were given the impression that they would be interviewed on a certain topic. Each student was sent to a waiting room to complete a preliminary questionnaire. Some of them found two other people already seated in the room, while others sat down alone. Soon after the students had started working on the questionnaire, smoke began filling the room through a wall vent. This smoke could hardly be ignored, within four minutes the room contained enough smoke to interfere with vision and breathing.

Non-Participant vs. Participant Observation

Observation can be done in two ways. I, the observer may decide to observe the person or event from distance (non-participant observation). II, the observer may become part of the group being

observed. In the first case, the person being observed may not be aware that he is being observed. For example we want to observe the pattern of interaction between teachers and students in a particular class. There are many ways of achieving this goal. The observer may install a video camera to record the class room activities. Alternatively, he might decide to sit in a corner of the class without interfering or participating in their everyday activities. This type of observation is called non-participant observation. The danger in this type of setup is that the very fact that someone (an outsider) is sitting and observing may bring a change in the behaviour of students and the teacher.

In participant observation, the observer becomes a part of the school or the group of people being observed. In participant observation, the observer takes some time to establish a rapport with the group so that they start accepting him as one of the group members. However, the degree of involvement of the observer with the group being observed would vary depending upon the focus of the study. The advantage of this observation method is that it enables the observer to study people and their behaviour in a naturalistic situation as it occurs. However, the observation method is labour intensive, time consuming and is susceptible to the observer's bias.

Experimental Method

Experimental method is based upon the law of the single variable. Defining this law in his work *'Methods of Experimental Inquiry'*

John Stuart Mill (1846) stated five canons or rules of experimental research; the method of agreement, the method of difference, the joint method, the method of residues and the method of concomitant variations. These rules served as useful guides in the design of early experiments and are now used chiefly as guides in the planning of experiments.

Experimental method provides for much control and, therefore, establishes a systematic and logical association between manipulated factors and observed effects. The researcher defines a problem and proposes a tentative answer or hypothesis. He tests the hypothesis and accepts or rejects it in the light of the controlled variables relationship that he has observed.

The contributions of R.A Fisher in terms of his concept of achieving pre-experimental equation of conditions through random selection of subjects and random assignment of treatments provided an effective and sound method of conducting realistic experiments with human beings. His techniques of analyses of variance and co-variance made it possible to study complex interactions through factorial designs. Essential characteristics of experimental research method include: control, manipulation, observation, and replication.

Experiments are generally conducted to establish cause-effect relationship between two sets of events or variables in a controlled setting. It is a carefully regulated procedure in which changes are made in one factor and its effect is studied on another factor. In the

experiment, cause is the event being changed or manipulated. Effect is the behaviour that changes because of the manipulation.

Case Study

Case study method is generally used in case of persons or children suffering from mental disorders or behaviour disturbances. It is used to reconstruct the development history of a child for the purpose of determining conditions influencing the behaviour. In other words, in case study or case history method, the history of a child is traced and significant events of his life are noted. In this method an attempt is made to examine carefully the child's past to discover the cause of his present motives and actions. Woodworth has stated that this method helps in the interpretation of our present life with the help of past events.

In broader sense, case study means systematic, complete and intensive study of the person whether old or young, child or adult- his family background, his physical, social, emotional, intellectual and personal development. Nothing is left 'which possibly has any effect on the present conditions of the case so that a better understanding of the case may be possible.

Thus, case study as a method of research focuses on in-depth study of a unit or case in totality. The case may be an individual, programme, an event, an institution, an activity, etc. The case study method was originally used in medicine to examine the patient's previous development, his health, and physical state

from the beginning and many other factors in the past, besides making a careful study of the patient's present condition and symptoms. Freud used the case study method to assist his subjects in solving their personality problems. The published work accounts his interviews with patients and his interpretations of their thoughts, dreams, and actions provide excellent examples of a case study. The investigation of a case is of exploratory nature. It involves detailed, in-depth data collection employing multiple sources of information concerning all pertinent aspects of a case. It is also interpreted that a case may be a unique and bounded system. This means the case under investigations is bound by time and place. The uniqueness of a case refers to the typical characteristics of a case.

Following steps are involved in the case study:

1. Location of the case.
2. Formulation of hypothesis
3. Collection of data from pupils, parents, friends, teachers, and community at large.
4. Analysis of data i.e. identification or casual factors as a basis for remedial treatment.
5. Removing the cases i.e. application of remedial or adjustment measures.
6. Follow-up of the case to determine the effectiveness of remedial or adjustment measure applied.

From the point of view of research, these steps could be elaborated in the following manner:

- i. First, the researcher identifies the uniqueness of the case to be studied or a number of cases to be studied. Whatever a normal case is to be studied or an unusual and typical case is to be studied is decided at this stage.
- ii. Keeping in view different contexts and perspectives of the problem, the researcher delimits what is to be studied .within the scope of investigation.
- iii. Once the dimensions of a unit are identified for investigation, the researcher locates different mechanisms of gathering different varieties of evidences from different sources. After identification of the case, the present status of the case is determined through direct observation or record. Here the researcher goes far beyond casual observation or superficial description.

Unit – II

The development of Childhood

Child development refers to the biological, psychological and emotional changes that occur in human beings between birth and the end of adolescence, as the individual progresses from dependency to increasing autonomy. It is a continuous process with a predictable sequence yet having a unique course for every child. It does not progress at the same rate and each stage is affected by the preceding types of development. Because these developmental changes may be strongly influenced by genetic factors and events during prenatal life, genetics and prenatal development are usually included as part of the study of child development. Related terms include developmental psychology, referring to development throughout the lifespan, and pediatrics, the branch of medicine relating to the care of children. Developmental change may occur as a result of genetically-controlled processes known as maturation,^[1] or as a result of environmental factors and learning, but most commonly involves an interaction between the two. It may also occur as a result of human nature and our ability to learn from our environment.

There are various definitions of periods in a child's development, since each period is a continuum with individual differences regarding start and ending. Some age-related development periods and examples of defined intervals are: newborn (ages 0–4 weeks); infant (ages 4 weeks – 1 year); toddler (ages 1–3 years); preschooler (ages 4–6 years); school-aged child (ages 6–13 years); adolescent (ages 13–19).^[2]

Promoting child development through parental training, among other factors, promotes excellent rates of child development.^[3] Parents play a large role in a child's life, socialization, and development. Having multiple parents can add stability to the child's life and therefore encourage healthy development.^[4] Another influential factor in a child's development is the quality of their care. Child care programs present a critical opportunity for the promotion of child development.

The optimal development of children is considered vital to society and so it is important to understand the social, cognitive, emotional, and educational development of children. Increased research and interest in this field has resulted in new theories and strategies, with specific regard to practice that promotes development within the school system. In addition there are also some theories that seek to describe a sequence of states that compose child development.

What does Child Development cover?

Children's development occurs across a range of skills areas including: physical (motor) skills, speech and language, social and emotional, cognitive and intellectual abilities. Progressive development typically

occurs in these skills simultaneously although the extent varies between the skills at different times.

Why is Child Development important?

Monitoring child development is important to ensure that children meet their 'developmental milestones'. Although arbitrary time frames that are far from exact, checking that children are roughly 'on track' for their age is helpful in order to detect early on if there are any hiccups in development. This is usually carried out through child/mother services and Paediatricians as infants and toddlers, and later through kindergartens and school term skills assessments. The earliest possible detection (and treatment if appropriate) of developmental challenges is helpful as it can allow the early intervention to help minimize the impact these developmental hiccups can have on children's skill development and subsequently their confidence, or serve as an indicator of a possible diagnosis.

Problems in Child Development

Problems in development can arise due to: genetics, prenatal circumstances, the presence of a specific diagnosis or medical factors, and/or lack of opportunity or exposure to helpful stimuli. Specific assessment by the best fit professional (which may initially be the GP or Paediatrician, and then Occupational Therapist, Speech Pathologist, Psychologist and/or Physiotherapist) can provide clarity about the issues and extent of concern and formulate a plan to overcome the challenge(s). In many cases, as the process of child development involves multiple skill areas developing at once, there may be benefit in consulting multiple

professionals. Overcoming the developmental challenges is crucial to maximising the ease and speed of development, minimizing the gap that occur between a child's ability and those of their same ages peers, the confidence of the child as well as frustration that can be encountered by the child's parents and/or care-givers.

Motor Skills

Abilities for physical movement change through childhood from the largely reflexive (unlearned, involuntary) movement patterns of the young infant to the highly skilled voluntary movement's characteristic of later childhood and adolescence. "Motor learning refers to the increasing spatial and temporal accuracy of movements with practice". Motor skills can be divided into two categories: first as basic skills necessary for everyday life and secondly, as recreational skills such as skills for employment or certain specialties based on interest.

Speed and pattern

The speed of motor development is rapid in early life, as many of the reflexes of the newborn alter or disappear within the first year, and slows later. Like physical growth, motor development shows predictable patterns of cephalocaudal (head to foot) and proximodorsal (torso to extremities) development, with movements at the head and in the more central areas coming under control before those of the lower part of the body or the hands and feet. Types of movement develop in stage-like sequences; for example, locomotion at 6–8 months involves creeping on

all fours, then proceeds to pulling to stand, "cruising" while holding on to an object, walking while holding an adult's hand, and finally walking independently. Older children continue the sequence by walking sideways or backward, galloping, hopping, skipping with one foot and walking with the other, and finally skipping. By middle childhood and adolescence, new motor skills are acquired by instruction or observation rather than in a predictable sequence.^[20] There are executive functions of the brain (working memory, timing measure of inhibition and switching) which are important to motor skills. Critiques to the order of Executive Functioning leads to Motor Skills, suggesting Motor Skills can support Executive Functioning in the brain.

Mechanisms

The mechanisms involved in motor development involve some genetic components that determine the physical size of body parts at a given age, as well as aspects of muscle and bone strength. The main areas of the brain involved in motor skills are the frontal cortex, parietal cortex and basal ganglia. The dorsolateral frontal cortex is responsible for strategic processing. The parietal cortex is important in controlling perceptual-motor integration and the basal ganglia and supplementary motor cortex are responsible for motor sequences. Nutrition and exercise also determine strength and therefore the ease and accuracy with which a body part can be moved. Flexibility is also affected by nutrition and exercise as well. It has also been shown that the frontal lobe develops posterior - anteriorly (from back to front). This is significant in motor development

because the hind portion of the frontal lobe is known to control motor functions. This form of development is known as "Portional Development" and explains why motor functions develop relatively quickly during typical childhood development, while logic, which is controlled by the middle and front portions of the frontal lobe, usually will not develop until late childhood and early adolescence. Opportunities to carry out movements help establish the abilities to flex (move toward the trunk) and extend body parts, both capacities are necessary for good motor ability. Skilled voluntary movements such as passing objects from hand to hand develop as a result of practice and learning. Mastery Climate is a suggested successful learning environment for children to promote motor skills by their own motivation. This promotes participation and active learning in children, which according to Piaget's theory of cognitive development is extremely important in early childhood rule.

Individual differences

Typical individual differences in motor ability are common and depend in part on the child's weight and build. However, after the infant period, typical individual differences are strongly affected by opportunities to practice, observe, and be instructed on specific movements. Atypical motor development such as persistent primitive reflexes beyond 4–6 months or delayed walking may be an indication of developmental delays or conditions such as autism, cerebral palsy, or down syndrome . Lower motor coordination results in difficulties with speed accuracy and trade-off in complex tasks.

Children with disabilities

Children with Down syndrome or Developmental coordination disorder are late to reach major motor skills milestones. A few examples of these milestones are sucking, grasping, rolling, sitting up, and walking, talking. Children with Down syndrome sometimes have heart problems, frequent ear infections, hypertonia, or undeveloped muscle mass. This syndrome is caused by atypical chromosomal development. Along with Down syndrome, children can also be diagnosed with a learning disability. Learning Disabilities include disabilities in any of the areas related to language, reading, and mathematics. Basic reading skills is the most common learning disability in children, which, like other disabilities, focuses on the difference between a child's academic achievement and his or her apparent capacity to learn.

Population differences

Regardless of the culture a baby is born into, they are born with a few core domains of knowledge. These principals allow him or her to make sense of their environment and learn upon previous experience by using motor skills such as grasping or crawling. There are some population differences in motor development, with girls showing some advantages in small muscle usage, including articulation of sounds with lips and tongue. Ethnic differences in reflex movements of newborn infants have been reported, suggesting that some biological factor is at work. Cultural differences may encourage learning of motor skills like using the left hand only for sanitary purposes and the right hand for all other uses, producing

a population difference. Cultural factors are also seen at work in practiced voluntary movements such as the use of the foot to dribble a soccer ball or the hand to dribble a basketball.

Cognitive development

Cognitive development is primarily concerned with ways in which infants and children acquire, develop, and use internal mental capabilities such as problem solving, memory and language. The capacity to learn, remember, and symbolize information, and to solve problems, exists at a simple level in young infants, who can perform cognitive tasks such as discriminating animate and inanimate beings or recognizing small numbers of objects. During childhood, learning and information-processing increase in speed, memory becomes increasingly longer, and symbol use and the capacity for abstraction develop, until a near-adult level is reached by adolescence.

Mechanisms

Cognitive development has genetic and other biological mechanisms, as is seen in the many genetic causes of intellectual disability. Environmental factors including food and nutrition, responsiveness of parents, daily experiences, physical activity, and love can influence early brain development of children. However, although it is assumed that brain functions cause cognitive events, it has not been possible to measure specific brain changes and show that they cause cognitive change. Developmental advances in cognition are also related to experience and

learning, and this is particularly the case for higher-level abilities like abstraction, which depend to a considerable extent on formal education.

Speed and pattern

The ability to learn temporal patterns in sequenced actions was investigated in elementary-school age children. Temporal learning depends upon a process of integrating timing patterns with action sequences. Children ages 6–13 and young adults performed a serial response time task in which a response and a timing sequence were presented repeatedly in a phase-matched manner, allowing for integrative learning. The degree of integrative learning was measured as the slowing in performance that resulted when phase-shifting the sequences. Learning was similar for the children and adults on average but increased with age for the children. Executive function measured by Wisconsin Card Sorting Test (WCST) performance as well as a measure of response speed also improved with age. Finally, WCST performance and response speed predicted temporal learning. Taken together, the results indicate that temporal learning continues to develop in pre-adolescents and that maturing executive function or processing speed may play an important role in acquiring temporal patterns in sequenced actions and the development of this ability.

Individual differences

There are typical individual differences in the ages at which specific cognitive abilities are achieved, but schooling for children in

industrialized countries is based on the assumption that these differences are not large. Atypical delays in cognitive development are problematic for children in cultures that demand advanced cognitive skills for work and for independent living.

Population differences

There are few population differences in cognitive development. Boys and girls show some differences in their skills and preferences, but there is a great deal of overlap between the groups. Differences in cognitive achievement of different ethnic groups appears to result from cultural or other environmental factors.

Social-emotional

Newborn infants do not seem to experience fear or have preferences for contact with any specific people. In the first few months they only experience happiness, sadness, and anger. A baby's first smile usually occurs between 6 and 10 weeks. It is called a 'social smile' because it usually occurs during social interactions. By about 8–12 months, they go through a fairly rapid change and become fearful of perceived threats; they also begin to prefer familiar people and show anxiety and distress when separated from them or approached by strangers.

Separation anxiety is a typical stage of development to an extent. Kicking, screaming, and throwing temper tantrums are perfectly typical symptoms for separation anxiety. Depending on the level of intensity, one may determine whether or not a child has separation anxiety disorder. This is

when a child constantly refuses to separate from the parent, but in an intense manner. This can be given special treatment but the parent usually cannot do anything about the situation. The capacity for empathy and the understanding of social rules begin in the preschool period and continue to develop into adulthood. Middle childhood is characterized by friendships with age-mates, and adolescence by emotions connected with sexuality and the beginnings of romantic love. Anger seems most intense during the toddler and early preschool period and during adolescence.^[20]

Speed and pattern

Some aspects of social-emotional development, like empathy, develop gradually, but others, like fearfulness, seem to involve a rather sudden reorganization of the child's experience of emotion. Sexual and romantic emotions develop in connection with physical maturation.

Mechanisms

Genetic factors appear to regulate some social-emotional developments that occur at predictable ages, such as fearfulness, and attachment to familiar people. Experience plays a role in determining which people are familiar, which social rules are obeyed, and how anger is expressed. Parenting practices have been shown to predict children's emotional intelligence. The objective is to study the time mothers and children spent together in joint activity, the types of activities that they develop when they are together, and the relation that those activities have with the children's trait emotional intelligence. Data was collected for both

mothers and children (N = 159) using self-report questionnaires. Correlations between time variables and trait emotional intelligence dimensions were computed using Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient. Partial correlations between the same variables controlling for responsive parenting were also computed. The amount of time mothers spent with their children and the quality of their interactions are important in terms of children's trait emotional intelligence, not only because those times of joint activity reflect a more positive parenting, but because they are likely to promote modeling, reinforcement, shared attention, and social cooperation.

Population differences

Population differences may occur in older children, if, for example they have learned that it is appropriate for boys to express emotion or behave differently from girls, or if customs learned by children of one ethnic group are different from those learned in another. Social and emotional differences between boys and girls of a given age may also be associated with differences in the timing of puberty characteristic of the two sexes.

Early Childhood Emotional and Social Development

As young children leave toddlerhood behind, they also begin to mature in their ability to interact with others socially. As discussed in the article on Infant Sensorimotor development, a baby's main social need and developmental task is bonding and connecting with primary caregivers. In contrast, young children are starting to branch out and to create other

social relationships. When interacting with other children their age, such as peers at day-care or preschool, sensorimotor children engage in parallel play. In parallel play, children play beside each other without truly interacting with each other. For example, Jimmy plays with his blocks and builds his structure independently while sitting by Jane, who is creating her own block tower.

During the Preoperational stage, young children begin to play more cooperatively. In cooperative play, young children engage in the same activity in a small group. Often, these first forms of cooperative play include pretend or symbolic play. For example, Jane and Jackie may "play house" together and assign one child to be the mother and the other to be the baby. Pretend play begins as early as toddlerhood and then peaks for the majority of young children at ages 4 and 5 years.

As young children continue to develop socially with peers, they often enter a stage of rough and tumble play which includes running, racing, climbing, or competitive games. Often, this is the stage when social skills such as learning to take turns and follow simple group rules and norms are practiced. Young children in the Preoperational stage often identify friends at the park or at day-care; however, "friendship" is still a very concrete, basic relationship. At this stage of social development, friendship usually means sharing toys and having fun playing together. Friendship at this age does not have the associated qualities of empathy and support that older children, adolescents, and adults develop.

During the Preoperational stage, young children are also developing socially inside the family. Families typically give young children the opportunity to interact with a variety of people in a range of roles. Today's families take on many different forms. Young children can be raised in nuclear families, with two opposite sex biological parents and sometimes one or more siblings. Children are also commonly raised in "blended" families, spending time with both parents in different homes, perhaps with step-parents and half- or step-siblings. Some young children grow up with an extended family, living with or spending lots of time with grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, etc. Still others grow up in small clusters, spending most of the time with a single parent, and perhaps one or more siblings. Some children may be adopted into a nuclear, blended, or extended families. Still others are raised with two homosexual parents alone or with other biological or adopted siblings.

Promoting Social Development through Play

Six-month old William laughs as his mom plays a game of peek-a-boo with him. Three-year-old Alyce thinks it funny when her father puts on a silly hat. Six-year-old Pedro throws a cape around his shoulders, runs across the room and pretends to be Superman. Play is essentially important in the life of a child. Play has been defined as “voluntary activity pursued without ulterior purpose and, on the whole, with enjoyment or expectation of enjoyment” (English & English, 1958). Maturation and socialization develop during all stages of childhood through the use of play. Paten’s play theory (1932) and English & English (1958) continue as some of the guidelines from which present educators

measure their standards. Historical artefacts and documents prove that children have been playing since earliest times. Toys have been found in the ruins of ancient China, Egypt, Babylonian and other civilizations. Once thought to be sinful and a waste of time, children's play today is considered an important, if not critical, aspect of social and personality development. Bruner (1975) stated that "Play is...the principal business of childhood."

Historical Aspects of Play in Socialization

The aspect of play and its value in the socialization process has been of interest to child psychologists, educators and scientists for generations. Parten (1932) identifies these levels as part of the maturation process for children:

Solitary Play: Play, without regard to the involvement of other children in the room or playground. A child may build a tower with blocks, yet be oblivious to other nearby children.

Character Play: As the child plays, they observe other children in the same area. Often this child will begin to model their play on another child. After watching another child, they may alter their own play. Even though they may appear to show little interest, they are observing others.

Parallel Play: A form of play where several children are playing with the same materials, but each is playing separately: Using puzzles, for example. They may converse with others, but work independently. If one leaves the group, the play continues.

Associative Play: Play in which a loosely organized game is decided upon. For example, children may run around the room, pretending to be airplanes. There are no definite rules or roles. If one child decides not to play, the others continue.

Cooperative Play: Play in which children assume assigned roles and depend on others for achieving the goals of the play. For instance, if children want to play “house,” they need others to participate in the roles of one or more parents and several children. If one of the key players decided to drop out, the play episode will end.

Suggestions for Helping Children Learn Social Skills through Play

By using research and knowledge gained by educators, scientists and child psychologists, we know more about how children develop social skills. The act of “play” is one of the best ways to learn those skills. Parents and teachers have numerous opportunities throughout the day to help babies, toddlers and pre-schoolers develop social skills while doing routine work. Recently, several new programs have been developed to help caregivers accomplish these tasks. One such program is **Comfort, Play & Teach: A Positive Approach to Parenting**. Focusing on activities for babies, toddlers and pre-schoolers, the program offers simple ideas that promote learning. For example:

If your child is a baby:

- When taking your baby to public places, he comes in contact with new faces and voices. Stay close to your baby so he develops a

sense of security. This gives him confidence to meet unfamiliar people and surroundings.

- Babies enjoy making eye contact with other babies. Allow her time to interact and play as they communicate through sounds or gestures.
- Upon leaving your home, remember to say “good-bye” and “hello” to family members. Soon your baby will learn that you always return and you will help him develop a sense of trust.

If your child is a toddler:

- Find opportunities to praise your toddler for good behaviour. For example, when you must wait in line, praise the child for being patient. Say things like “I’m proud of you for being patient when we must wait in line.”
- Schedule time for “play” as you plan your day. For example, if running errands, stop by the park for a few minutes. Play allows your child to interact with peers and you both have more fun.
- As you help your toddler develop social skills, use positive statements when speaking. For example, say things like “Please help me pick up your toys,” instead of “Don’t leave your toys on the floor.”

If your child is a pre-schooler:

- Allow your child to make choices when possible. For example, allow her to choose to wear either the red shirt or the blue shirt. Confidence and a strong sense of self are vital to developing social skills.

- Play pretend games with your pre-schooler. If you've been to the grocery store, pretend to be the cashier or the produce person. Help your child decide what they would say in these situations as they practice different types of social skills.
- Teach pro-social skills and responsibilities by encouraging your child to perform simple chores, such as helping to put groceries away after shopping. Show him how to separate recycled items for collection.

Emotions and Social Experiences of Early Childhood

Toddlers tend to have rapid mood swings. While their emotions can be very intense, these feelings also tend to be quite short-lived. You might be stunned at how your child can go from screaming hysterically about a toy he wants at one moment to sitting in front of the television quietly watching his favourite show just moment later. Children at this age can be very possessive and have difficulty sharing. Learning to get along with other children is an essential skill, however. In just a few short years, your child will go from spending most of his time with family and close friends to spending large chunk of his day interacting, learning, and playing with other kids at school.

In fact, researchers have found emotional development and social skills are essential for school readiness. Examples of such abilities include paying attention to adult figures, transitioning easily from one activity to the next, and cooperating with other kids.

Helping Kids Develop Social and Emotional Skills

So how can you help your child learn how to play well with others? Social competence not only involves the ability to cooperate with peers; it also includes such things as the ability to show empathy, express feelings, and share generously. Fortunately, there are plenty of things that you can do to help your kids develop these all-important social and emotional skills. Modelling appropriate behaviours is essential. Observation plays a vital role in how young children learn new things. If your child sees you sharing, expressing gratitude, being helpful, and sharing feelings, your child will have a good solid understanding of how to interact with other people outside the home. You can model these responses in your own household with both your child and other members of the family. Every time you say "please" or "thank you," you are demonstrating how you would like your children to behave.

Most importantly, be sure to offer praise when your children demonstrate good social behaviours. Reinforcement not only makes young children feel good about themselves, it helps them understand why certain behaviours are desirable and worthy of praise. Helping your children feel good about themselves also plays an important role in developing a sense of empathy and emotional competence. By creating a positive climate where children are allowed to share their feelings, children will naturally begin to become more generous and thoughtful.

Teaching Empathy and Cooperation

Parents can also boost empathy and build emotional intelligence by encouraging their children to think about how other people feel. Start by inquiring about your child's own feelings, asking questions about events in your child's life. "How did you feel when you lost your toy?" "How did that story make you feel?"

Once children become skilled at expressing their own emotional reactions, begin asking questions about how other people may feel. "How do you think Nadia felt when you took away the toy she was playing with?" By posing such questions, children can begin to think about how their own actions might impact the emotions of those around them.

Cooperation is one skill that benefits tremendously from direct experience. Giving your child the opportunity to interact and play with other kids is one of the best ways to teach your child how to relate to others. While your toddler may find playing with other kids his age frustrating at times, since kids often lack patience and the ability to share, things will gradually begin to improve with age and experience.

As children play and interact, they also begin to develop social problem-solving skills. Early attempts might involve plenty of arguments and conflict with siblings and peers, but eventually kids learn how to negotiate and compromise with other children.

Creativity

Creativity is the freest form of self-expression. There is nothing more satisfying and fulfilling for children than to be able to express themselves openly and without judgment. The ability to be creative, to create something from personal feelings and experiences, can reflect and nurture children's emotional health. The experiences children have during their first years of life can significantly enhance the development of their creativity.

Importance of the Creative Process

All children need to be truly creative is the freedom to commit themselves completely to the effort and make whatever activity they are doing their own. What's important in any creative act is the process of self-expression. Creative experiences can help children express and cope with their feelings. A child's creative activity can help teachers to learn more about what the child may be thinking or feeling. Creativity also fosters mental growth in children by providing opportunities for trying out new ideas, and new ways of thinking and problem-solving. Creative activities help acknowledge and celebrate children's uniqueness and diversity as well as offer excellent opportunities to personalize our teaching and focus on each child.

Opportunities for Creativity

Children need plenty of opportunities for creative play and creative thinking. Start by providing activities that are based on the children's

interests and ideas. This means learning how to listen intently to what children are saying. It is very helpful to tape record and transcribe children's conversations as well as take notes and review them with your co-teachers. Be sure to offer children a wide range of creative materials and experiences. Being creative is more than drawing or painting. There's also photography, music, field trips, working with wire, clay, paper, wood, water or shadows. The possibilities are endless. It's important to provide children lots of time to explore materials and pursue their ideas. This includes time to think about how to plan, design, construct, experiment and revise project ideas. Don't forget to build in time to talk these ideas over with other people - both teachers and children.

Varieties of Experience

Look for ways to provide multi-ethnic, multi-cultural and other community experiences for children. Activities such as field trips, celebrating holidays and activities with other ethnic groups, and encouraging children to bring visitors to school enhances the creative process. The more varied experiences children have in their lives, the wider the range of creative expression. The more personal experiences children have with people and situations outside of their own environment, the more material they can draw on to incorporate in their play. Our challenge is to try not to be intimidated by the variety and diversity of artistic expression in our classroom.

Fostering the Creative Process

Encouraging children to make their own choices is important. Children should be permitted frequent opportunities - and lots of time - to experience and explore expressive materials. Put your emphasis on the process of creativity and not on the finished product. What children learn and discover about themselves is vital to their development. Show your support for the creative process by appreciating and offering support for children's efforts. Independence and control are important components in the creative process. This is especially true when working with children with disabilities.

Creative Play

One of the most important types of creative activity for young children is creative play. Creative play is expressed when children use familiar materials in a new or unusual way, and when children engage in role-playing and imaginative play. Nothing reinforces the creative spirit and nourishes a child's soul more than providing large blocks of time to engage in spontaneous, self-directed play throughout the day. Play is the serious business of young children and the opportunity to play freely is vital to their healthy development.

Even as early as infancy, play fosters physical development by promoting the development of sensory exploration and motor skills. Through play and the repetition of basic physical skills, children perfect their abilities and become competent at increasingly difficult physical tasks. Play fosters mental development and new ways of thinking and problem

solving. Through block play, children are confronted with many mental challenges having to do with measurement, equality, balance, shape, spatial relationships and physical properties.

One of the strongest benefits of play is the way it enhances social development. Playful social interactions begin from the moment of birth. Dramatic play helps children experiment with and understand social roles. It can also give them countless opportunities for acquiring social skills as they play with others. Through dramatic play, children gradually learn to take each other's needs into account, and appreciate different values and perspectives.

Through play, children are able to express and cope with their feelings. Play also helps relieve stress and pressure for children. They can just be themselves. There's no need to live up to adult standards during play. Play offers children an opportunity to achieve mastery of their environment. They control the experience through their imaginations, and they exercise their powers of choice and decision-making as the play progresses.

Play helps develop each child's unique perspective and individual style of creative expression. Play expresses the child's personal, unique responses to the environment. Play is a self-expressive activity that draws on the child's powers of imagination. Play is open-ended, free-form and children have the freedom to try out new ideas as well as build on and experiment with the old.

Play provides an excellent opportunity for integrating and including children with disabilities in your program. The opportunities play

provides for control and independence are important issues for any child but are especially important for these youngsters.

What are some of the ways we can encourage play in our classrooms? As caregivers, we must be careful to avoid dominating the play ourselves. Play should be the result of the children's ideas and not directed by the adult. Through play, we should try to foster children's abilities to express themselves. We should also try to help children base play on their own inspirations - not ours. Our goal is to stimulate play - not control it - and to encourage children's satisfaction in playing with each other.

Pay attention to play, plan for it, and encourage it. Learn how to extend children's play through comments and questions. Stimulate creative ideas by encouraging children to come up with new and unusual uses of equipment. Try to remain open to new and original ideas, and encourage children to come up with more than one solution or answer. Be careful about over-restricting equipment and make sure to have play materials quickly available when children want them. Buy and use equipment in ways that encourage the use of imagination. Avoid toys and activities that spell everything out for the child and leave nothing to the imagination. Provide children with a good range and balance of equipment, and keep equipment exciting by changing it frequently or changing its location.

Unit – III

Contribution of the following thinkers:

Frobel

Frobel was born in Prussia in 1782. He studied preschool education through his perusal of Pestalozzi's "Mother's Book". He started his "kindergarten" at Blankenburg. It is a German word which means garden of children. He developed Play gifts (these are packed in boxes with printed directions for use) and play songs. Froebel believed in children's potential for good and the need to provide a place in which children could be nurtured and developed through experiences with the natural environment and caring people. He believed true education originated in activity and that play was an essential part of the education process.

His Ideas and Contributions:

1. Child was the sole source of educational principles, the teacher has to simply follow where the students lead.
2. Child develops himself through his own creative activities.

3. Self-activity is important for the education of children. Child needs to be given freedom of action.
4. He insisted upon the necessity of a unified inner life and peace which can be brought by play. According to him Play gives joy, freedom, contentment, inner and outer rest, peace with the world.
5. Froebel's kindergarten cantered around 3 procedures
 - i. Use of his gifts
 - ii. Singing of Songs
 - iii. Playing of various educational games in the play circle.
6. Play material: The materials were of two types: Geometrical Patterns and the essentials for such activities as modelling, drawing, sewing and colouring. The Geometric patterns were known as "gifts" and the activities as "Occupations". Gifts allow free play to the child which facilitates all round development of personality.
7. The two other elements of Froebel's Kindergarten were 'Play circles' and 'Play songs'.

The Curriculum: Froebel's curriculum was an active curriculum. It includes:

- i. Self-expressive activities through play
- ii. Rhyming and rhythm are essential to expression of language
- iii. Hand works are an opportunity for expression
- iv. Nature study
- v. Gifts and occupations to stimulate motor expression

Froebel - The Inventor of Kindergarten

Froebel's idea of the kindergarten found appeal, but its spread in Germany was thwarted by the Prussian government, whose education ministry banned it on 7 August 1851 as "atheistic and demagogic" for its alleged "destructive tendencies in the areas of religion and politics". Other states followed suit. The reason for the ban, however, seems to have been a confusion of names. Froebel's nephew Karl Froebel had written and published *Weibliche Hochschulen und Kindergärten* (Female Colleges and Kindergartens), which apparently met with some disapproval. To quote Karl August Varnhagen von Ense, "The stupid minister (Karl Otto) von Raumer has decreed a ban on kindergartens, basing himself on a book by Karl Fröbel. He is confusing Friedrich and Karl Fröbel."

Froebel's student Margarethe Schurz founded the first kindergarten in the United States at Watertown, Wisconsin in 1856, and she also inspired Elizabeth Peabody, who went on to found the first English-speaking kindergarten in the United States – the language at Schurz's kindergarten had been German, to serve an immigrant community – in Boston in 1860. This paved the way for the concept's spread in the USA. The German émigré Adolph Douai had also founded a kindergarten in Boston in 1859, but was obliged to close it after only a year. By 1866, however, he was founding others in New York City.

The pedagogue August Köhler was the initiator and cofounder in 1863 of the *Deutscher Fröbelverein* (German Fröbel Association), first for Thuringia, out of which grew the *Allgemeiner Fröbelverein* (General Fröbel Association) in 1872, and a year later the *Deutscher Fröbelerband* (German Fröbel Federation). August Köhler critically analyzed and evaluated Fröbel theory, adopted fundamental notions into his own kindergarten pedagogy and expanded on these, developing an independent "Köhler Kindergarten Pedagogy". He first trained kindergarten teachers in Gotha in 1857. In the beginning, Köhler had thought to engage male educators exclusively, but far too few applied. Friedrich

Prior to the 19th century, few people thought to educate children before the age of seven. So it was a big idea indeed when the German educator Friedrich Froebel (1782-1852) launched the first kindergarten in 1837, grounded in "play and activity" and the nurturing of creativity through the systematic deployment of a sequence of "gifts" (colored balls, geometrical building blocks, mosaic tiles, etc.). Froebel was using nature as the model of perfection to educate children. His goals were to teach children how to learn, observe, reason, express, and create through play, employing philosophies of unity and interconnectedness. Kindergarten grew to become a familiar institution throughout the world by the end of the 19th century.

"The kindergarten that many of us grown-ups remember is one of songs, games, playing with blocks, finger painting and nature walks. But today,

many kindergartens have become simply smaller first grades, teaching numbers and letters and giving tests and homework. In his book 'Inventing Kindergarten', Norman Brosterman makes a strong argument that the inspiration for much of modern art and architecture can be linked to the invention of the kindergarten - it's playful rather than its academic incarnation - in the mid-19th century.

Although the kindergarten quickly became widespread in America and Europe, Froebel received little or no credit for his momentous invention. Born in Oberweissbach in central Germany, Froebel was trained in science and became a teacher at a model school in Frankfurt in 1805. He studied with the Swiss educator Johann Pestalozzi - the first to translate Rousseau's radical educational philosophy into practice - and developed a distrust of formal education as he began to put faith in children's ability to learn through play, or activities that they initiated and directed themselves. He was unique at the time in believing that young children should receive some education before they entered school. He called his program 'kindergarten', or 'children's garden', a name he came up with during a walk in the woods, and opened his first one in 1837.

Froebel created songs and games for mothers to use with their infants ('This Little Piggy' and 'Happy Birthday' apparently have a Froebelian ancestry). He offered no formal instruction in morals and character, but thought that children naturally acquired such traits by caring for living things like the plants and animals that have become a fixture in most kindergarten classrooms. Perhaps Froebel's most important contributions

to early childhood education were what he called his 'gifts' (objects ranging from simple forms like spheres, cubes and cylinders to entire sets of wooden geometric blocks in different sizes and colors) and 'occupations' (the ways these materials could be manipulated by children). One 'gift', for instance, was a wooden pin that children could use to create patterns by punching small holes in sheets of paper, and Froebel's kindergartners used sticks and dried peas much the way modern children use Tinker Toys. What Froebel hoped to achieve with these tools - and with the kindergarten experience as a whole - was not the instruction of isolated facts and skills but 'the creation of a sensitive, inquisitive child with an uninhibited curiosity and genuine respect for nature, family, and society.'" (David Elkind).

Montessori

Maria Tecla Artemisia Montessori (Italian pronunciation: August 31, 1870 – May 6, 1952) was an Italian physician and educator best known for the philosophy of education that bears her name, and her writing on scientific pedagogy. Her educational method is in use today in some public and private schools throughout the world. Maria Montessori was the first woman physician to graduate from the University of Rome. She first became involved with education as a doctor treating underprivileged children. After studying the work of Itard and Sequin and after much compassionate observation of young children, she designed special materials and a scientifically prepared environment. These succeeded brilliantly and won world acclaim. She devoted her energies and further

studies to the field of education for the remainder of her life. The first "Casa Dei Bambini" or the "Children's House" was opened in 1907 and since then Montessori schools have been established in over fifty countries. Her work has made a significant contribution to improving the standards of education for young children, and her methods and materials have been adopted in public and private schools around the world.

Montessori Philosophy

The foundation of Maria Montessori's approach is respect for the child as a worthy individual, occupied with the task of developing himself into a mature human adult. She observed children's need for independence, for self-confidence as adequate people, for control over their own impulses and emotions and a natural curiosity and desire to learn. She observed in young children a phenomenon she called the "absorbent mind". Children can absorb information from their surroundings without any conscious, tedious effort. Learning does not have to be forced upon them. If the environment is orderly and readily accessible and if the children are free to work through their own cycles of activity at their own pace, they can learn to read, write and calculate in the same natural way that they learned to walk and talk.

Dr. Montessori wrote, "The most important period of life is not the age of university studies but the period from birth to age six." It is now commonly accepted that from conception to age 4 the individual develops 50% of his/her mature intelligence; from ages 4 to 8 another 30%. This indicates the rapid growth of intelligence in the early years and the

importance of the early environment on this development. It is also true that children mature at very different rates and their periods of readiness for academic subjects vary greatly. Montessori observed that a young child has periods of intense fascination for developing various skills such as climbing stairs or counting. During these sensitive periods it is easier for the child to acquire particular skills than at any other time in his/her life. The Montessori classroom allows each child freedom to select activities which correspond to his/her own periods of interest and readiness.

By answering a child's needs as they arise, some children in a Montessori class begin to read and calculate at a very early age. However, early learning was not Maria Montessori's objective. Her ideal was that the learning experience should occur naturally and joyfully at the proper moment for each individual child. "It is true we cannot make a genius," she wrote. "We can only give each individual the chance to fulfil his/her potential to become an independent, secure and balanced human being".

Theory of Value

Maria Montessori established much of her theories on education based on the works of the scholar Froebel, and the physicians Jean Itard and Edouard Sequin which inspired her theories of sensory education for early childhood education. Froebel, Itard, and Sequin allowed Montessori to develop a curriculum that utilized experience and hands-on manipulation of materials versus the direct instruction that typically took place in schools. Froebel, Itard, Sequin, and Montessori formed their theories of

education from working with special needs children in a particular technique known as sensory education. "...Sequin taught the idiots how to walk, how to maintain their equilibrium in the most difficult movements of the body – such as going up the stairs, jumping, etc., and finally, to feel, beginning the education of the muscular sensations by touching, and reading the difference of temperature, and ending with the education of the senses”.

It was this concept of teaching children to experience the world by using the five senses and extending the input to thought processes that Montessori considered to be the most valuable asset to children’s learning. Montessori claims that it is through movement and manipulation of the senses that children would gain knowledge of language, abstract thought, critically thinking and problem solving skills, math skills, independence, practical life skills, and discipline. If students only learn how to manipulate the environment without learning how to understand the meaning of their senses, we as educators, “have only led these children to adapt themselves to a low order of life (almost a vegetable existence) the idiot from the vegetative to the intellectual life, ‘from the education of the senses to general notions, from general notions to abstract thought, from abstract thought to morality”.

Children learned proper nutrition and hygiene, as well as language acquisition and generalization skills. It was important to Montessori for children to learn the knowledge and skills to live in society. Children also learned to develop self-discipline and independence, which are skills

Montessori thought were worthwhile for children to learn at a young age so they can mature into meaningful members of society. Discipline in Montessori's eyes was the development of self-mastery and motivation to continue the learning process without teacher involvement. Montessori said "Since the child now learns to move rather than to sit still, he prepares himself not for the school, but for life; for he becomes able, through habit and through practice, to perform easily and correctly the simple acts of social or community life. The discipline to which the child habituates himself here is, in its character, not limited to the school environment but extends to society".

In conclusion the knowledge and skills worthwhile knowing based on Montessori's vision are sensory education, manipulation of one's environment, practical life skills, and self-discipline. These core skills act as a tool box for children to become active learners and contributing members of society. *What are the goals of education?*

The goals of a Montessori education were to develop sensory training, language acquisition, arithmetic, physical education, practical life skills and abstract thought through the teaching of the whole child and the integration of the family into the early education system. Montessori began her educational experiences by working with special needs children. At the time of Montessori, special needs children were thought of as a "lost cause". They could not learn how to become members of society because intelligence was fixed. She strongly opposed to the perceptions on cognitive abilities of these children at the time, and

believed that they could learn how to become members of society through special teaching techniques that utilized sensory education and hands-on experience. Her aim was to teach children academics through practical life experiences and to “...to develop the *whole* personality of the child through motor, sensory, and intellectual activity”.

Motor, sensory, and intellectual activity (particularly language) are the basis of many of Montessori’s theories of education and the creation of her curriculums. Montessori claims “Our aim in education in general is twofold, biological and social. From the biological side we wish to help the natural development of the individual, from the social standpoint it is our aim to prepare the individual for the environment...All education of little children must be governed by this principle – to help the natural *psychic and physical development of the child*”.

Montessori believed that her ultimate aim would be accomplished by allowing the children to manipulate their environment. Not only was it important to Montessori to teach children the practical life skills necessary to live in society, but also to integrate the family into the learning process.

Work with Disabled Children

As a physician, Montessori specialized in pediatrics and the newly evolving field of psychiatry. Her approach was that of a well-trained scientist, rather than the familiar philosophical exploration and intuitive approach followed by many of the educational innovators who came before and after. Montessori found it ironic that she became best known

for her contributions in education, a field that she had been unwilling to enter as it was one of the three traditional roles open to women at the time: working with children, homemaking, or the convent.

Montessori taught at the medical school of the University of Rome, and through its free clinics she came into frequent contact with the children of the working class and poor. Her experience with the children of poverty convinced Montessori that intelligence is not rare, although it seemed to present itself in many forms other than those recognized by traditional schools.

The Orthophrenic School

From these two predecessors, Montessori took the idea of a scientific approach to education, based on observation and experimentation. She belongs to the child study school of thought and pursued her work with the careful training and objectivity of the biologist studying the natural behavior of an animal in the forest. Montessori studied her mentally disabled patients, listening and carefully noting their response to her attempts to implement Seguin's educational methods, as well as their progress in becoming increasingly independent and verbal.

Slowly the children learned to perform most of the everyday tasks involved in preparing the meals and maintaining the environment of the residential school. Her success with these mentally disabled children received international attention when, after two years, many of

Montessori's such adolescents were able to pass the standard exams given by the Italian public schools. Acclaimed for this miracle, Montessori responded by suggesting that newborn human beings normally enter the world with an intellectual potential that was barely being developed by schools in the early years of the twentieth century. She challenged that if she could attain such results with children who were disabled, schools should be able to get dramatically better results with normal children.

Montessori's work reinforced her humanistic ideals, and she actively supported various social re-form movements. She was a highly regarded guest speaker throughout Europe on behalf of children's rights, the women's movement, peace education, and the importance of a league of nations. Montessori become well known and highly regarded throughout Europe, which contributed to the publicity that surrounded her schools.

The Children's House

Unfortunately, the Italian Ministry of Education did not welcome Montessori's ideas, and she was denied access to school-aged children. Frustrated in her efforts to conduct the experiment with public school students, in 1907 she welcomed the opportunity to serve as the medical director for a day-care center that was being organized for working-class children who were too young to attend public school. Montessori education is sometimes criticized for being too structured and academically demanding of young children. Montessori would have laughed at this suggestion. She often said, "I followed these children,

studying them, studied them closely, and they taught me how to teach them."

Their interests blossomed in other areas as well, compelling the overworked physician to spend night after night designing new materials to keep pace with the children in geometry, geography, history, and natural science. Further proof of the children's academic interests came shortly after her first school opened, when a group of well-intentioned women gave the children a collection of lovely and expensive toys. The new gifts held the children's attention for a few days, but they soon returned to the more interesting learning materials. To Montessori's surprise, she found that children who had experienced both generally preferred work over play, at least during the school day. Of the early twenty-first century classroom, Montessori would probably add: "Children read and do advanced mathematics in Montessori schools not because we push them, but because this is what they do when given the correct setting and opportunity. To deny them the right to learn because we, as adults, think that they should not is illogical and typical of the way schools have been run before." Montessori evolved her method through trial and error, making educated guesses about the underlying meaning of the children's actions. She was quick to pick up on their cues, and constantly experimented with the class. For example, Montessori tells of the morning when the teacher arrived late, only to find that the children had crawled through a window and gone right to work. At the beginning, the learning materials, having cost so much to make, were locked away in a tall cabinet. Only the teacher had a key and would open it and hand the

materials to the children upon request. In this instance the teacher had neglected to lock the cabinet the night before. Finding it open, the children had selected one material apiece and were working quietly. As Montessori arrived the teacher was scolding the children for taking them out without permission. She recognized that the children's behavior showed that they were capable of selecting their own work, and removed the cabinet and replaced it with low open shelves on which the activities were always available to the children. This may sound like a minor change, but it contradicted all educational practice and theory of that period.

The Discovery of the Child

One discovery followed another, giving Montessori an increasingly clear view of the inner mind of the child. She found that little children were capable of long periods of quiet concentration, even though they rarely show signs of it in everyday settings. Although they are often careless and sloppy, they respond positively to an atmosphere of calm and order. Montessori noticed that the logical extension of the young child's love for a consistent and often repeated routine is an environment in which everything has a place. Her children took tremendous delight in carefully carrying their work to and from the shelves, taking great pains not to bump into anything or spill the smallest piece. They walked carefully through the rooms, instead of running wildly as they did on the streets.

Montessori discovered that the environment itself was all-important in obtaining the results that she had observed. Not wanting to use heavy

school desks, she had carpenters build child-sized tables and chairs. She was the first to do so, recognizing the frustration that a little child experiences in an adult-sized world. Eventually she learned to design entire schools around the size of the children. She had miniature pitchers and bowls prepared and found knives that fit a child's tiny hand. The tables were lightweight, allowing two children to move them alone. The children learned to control their movements, disliking the way the calm atmosphere was disturbed when they knocked into the furniture. Montessori studied the traffic pattern of the rooms, arranging the furnishings and the activity area to minimize congestion and tripping. The children loved to sit on the floor, so she bought little rugs to define their work areas and the children quickly learned to walk around work that other children had laid out on their rugs.

Montessori carried this environmental engineering throughout the entire school building and outside environment, designing child-sized toilets and low sinks, windows low to the ground, low shelves, and miniature hand and garden tools of all sorts. Many of these ideas were eventually adapted by the larger educational community, particularly at the nursery and kindergarten levels. Many of the puzzles and educational devices in use at the pre-school and elementary levels in the early twenty-first century are direct copies of Montessori's original ideas. However, there is far more of her work that never entered the mainstream, and twenty-first-century educators who are searching for new, more effective answers are finding the accumulated experience of the Montessori community to be of great interest.

Worldwide Response

Maria Montessori's first Children's House received overnight attention, and thousands of visitors came away amazed and enthusiastic. Worldwide interest surged as she duplicated her first school in other settings with the same results. Montessori captured the interest and imagination of leaders and scientists around the world. In America, leading figures such as Woodrow Wilson, Alexander Graham Bell, Thomas Edison, and Henry Ford enthusiastically supported her. Through books and countless articles written about and by Montessori, she also became a well-known authority to parents and teachers.

As an internationally respected scientist, Montessori had a rare credibility in a field where many others had promoted opinions, philosophies, and models that have not been readily duplicated. The Montessori Method offers a systematic approach that translates very well to new settings. In the first thirty years of the twentieth century, the Montessori Method seemed to offer something for everyone. Conservatives appreciated the calm, responsible behavior of the little children, along with their love for work. Liberals applauded the freedom and spontaneity. Many political leaders saw it as a practical way to reform the outmoded school systems of Europe, North America, and Asia, as well as an approach that they hoped would lead to a more productive and law-abiding populace. Scientists of all disciplines heralded its empirical foundation, along with the accelerated achievement of the little children. Montessori rode a wave of enthusiastic support that many felt should have changed the face of education far more dramatically than it did.

John Dewey (1859-1952)

In the first half of the twentieth century, John Dewey was one of America's most famous teachers of theology and philosophy. He is also known for his productive suggestions which brought remarkable changes in the American educational system. John Dewey was born on October 20, 1859, in Burlington, Vermont. He was the third of Archibald Dewey (father) and Lucina Artemisia Rich's (mother) four children. His father was a local merchant who was very fond of literature. His mother possessed a stern moral sense based on her belief in a religion in which one's faith is expressed through moral behaviour and good works known as Calvinism. John Dewey learned about other cultures from nearby Irish and French-Canadian settlements. Boyhood jobs delivering newspapers and working at a lumber-yard added to his knowledge.

At the age of fifteen, John Dewey, after receiving average grades in Vermont public schools, entered the University of Vermont. His best grades were in science, which he would later regard as the highest expression of human intellect. Dewey became aware of the world of ideas during his senior year. Courses on psychology, religion, ethics, and logic interested him more than his earlier training in languages and science. His teacher, P. Torrey, introduced him to the works of different philosophers. The quality of his work improved and at the age of nineteen, he graduated himself from the same university.

John Dewey was unsure of what career to pursue, but he dreamt to teach in a high school. After an unsuccessful summer of job hunting, his cousin, principal of institute for the training of priests in Pennsylvania, got him a teaching job which he held for two years. John Dewey continued to read philosophy in his spare time. When his cousin resigned, however, John Dewey also lost his job. He returned to Vermont to become the only teacher in a private school in Charlotte. He began to spend time with Torrey again in which they discussed what John Dewey has read in ancient and modern philosophy.

At this time most American philosophy teachers were religious men, who placed more importance on religious ideas than on creative thought. Philosophy was taught by those teachers who were not associated with any particular religion in only a few schools. One such school was in St. Louis, where William T. Harris established the Journal of Speculative Philosophy in which Dewey published his first essay. John Dewey decided to pursue a career in philosophy and applied for admission to the newly founded Johns Hopkins University. At Johns Hopkins, Dewey studied with George S. Morris, who was on leave as chairman of the philosophy department at the University of Michigan. In 1884, John Dewey completed his doctorate and, at Morris's invitation, he went to teach at Michigan.

In Michigan, John Dewey met and married Alice Chapman, who bore his seven children. He became interested in problems of

education as he travelled around the state to monitor the quality of college preparation courses. In 1888, he accepted an appointment at the University of Minnesota, only to return to Michigan a year later to replace Morris, who had died. The next stage in Dewey's intellectual development came with his reading of William James's *Principles of Psychology*. Dewey became a believer in instrumentalism, a belief that thinking is an activity which at its best is directed toward resolving problems.

In 1894, John Dewey moved to Chicago after accepting a position as head of a new department of philosophy and psychology at the University of Chicago. To test his theories of education he started an experimental school with his wife as principal. The 'Dewey School', however, caused a struggle between its founder and the university's president, William R. Harper. In 1904, when Harper tried to fire his wife, John Dewey resigned in protest. One of Dewey's friends then got him a job at Columbia University in New York, where John Dewey spent the rest of his teaching years.

Living in New York placed the John Dewey at the centre of America's cultural and political life. After World War I (1914-18), he travelled the world, lecturing in Japan at the Imperial Institute and spending two years teaching at universities in China. In 1924, he went to study schools in Turkey, and two years later he visited the University of Mexico. He praised for the Russian educational system when he visited schools and universities of USSR. John Dewey was a shy and quiet man and as a teacher he sometimes put

his students to sleep. Those who managed to stay awake however, could watch *a* man fascinated with ideas actually creating ideas in his classroom.

In 1930, John Dewey retired from teaching but he continued to publish works clarifying his ideas. John Dewey published over three hundred books and articles. In public affairs he was one of the first to warn of the dangers from Adolf Hitler's 1889-1945, rise to power in Germany and of the Japanese threat in the Far East. At the age of eighty-seven, Dewey married a widow, Roberta Grant when he was a widower. He died on June 1, 1952.

"When we look at early childhood classrooms today, we see children building language skills as they share snacks with classmates, learning important science concepts as they water and care for plants, and developing math skills as they cook up a special treat for lunch. All these commonplace preschool activities stem from the ideas of a forward-thinking and most uncommon man." John Dewey's writings run into 37 volumes. His famous educational works include: *The School and the Society* (1899), *The Child and the Curriculum* (1910), *How We Think* (1910), *Interest and Efforts in Education* (1913), *Democracy and Education* (1916), *Experience and Education*, *The Quest for Certainty: A Study of the Relation of Knowledge and Education* (1929), *Human Nature and Conduct* (1922), *Art and Experience* and *Logic-The Theory of Inquiry*.

Educational Philosophy of John Dewey

"Nature wants children to be children before they are men. Childhood has ways of seeing, thinking, and feeling, peculiar to itself, nothing can be more foolish than to substitute our ways for them." John Dewey is one among the great educationists who has great educational philosophy for the entire world. John Dewey's educational prescriptions are based on his views on how we think. Dewey holds that thinking does not occur in isolation from social situation, without experience or action. Thinking arises when the individual confronts a problem. According to John Dewey, thinking is a method. It is the method of intelligence experiencing. It is connected with increase of efficiency in action and with learning more about ourselves and the world in which we live. This conception of thinking made Dewey to perceive experience as education and school as a model society.

According to Herbert Spencer, the aim of education is to prepare us for complete living. But, John Dewey, being a pragmatist goes further and says that, "Education is life itself and not a preparation for life." He points out that education as traditionally conducted subordinates the living present to a remote and precarious future. Its actual outcome is inadequate preparation and lack of adaptation.

School as a Cosmos Society

John Dewey gave much stress to the proper schooling for the social development of the child. He advocated the role of school is as important as the role of home for the socialization. John Dewey regards school as an institution essential to social life. To him school is an absolute social necessity. The school is not a place where some knowledge is imparted and an attempt is made to develop certain habits among children; it is a place where the child learns by its own experiences. Criticizing the existing practice, the school has now deviated from life, must be reunited with it through activities that will simplify its relations, develop its essential meaning, eliminate its unworthy and obsolete features, and extend the individual's social environment so that he escapes from the limitations of the group into which he is born. According to John Dewey, school is a social institution which is essential for social life. As a social institution it should represent the entire society. In fact, the school is a miniature society and also the epitome of life. The school is social environment simplified, purified, balanced and graded.

The school should grow out of the home life. As John Dewey said that it is lengthened arm of the family. There should be no sudden break in the activities of the child in the home and in the school. In the beginning, the school should try to preserve, continue and rebuild those experiences and activities with which the child has been familiar in the home. Thus, the school should

provide to the child the atmosphere of the home in a retouched and enlightened manner.

For John Dewey, experience and education are not separate; experience is education. Speaking about the new progressive movement in education in his 'Democracy and Education', Dewey says, "I take that the fundamental unity of the new philosophy is found in the idea that there is an intimate and necessary relation between the processes of actual experience and education." He further says, "I assume that amid all uncertainties there is one permanent frame of reference, namely, the better than a ton of theory simply because it is only in experience that any theory has vital and verifiable significance."

Education is experience; experience of an individual in social process. All education proceeds by the participation of the individual in the social consciousness of the race and, therefore, the aim of education should be to create an atmosphere by active participation in which the child may take part in the social consciousness of the race. The idea of John Dewey draws attention to the point that in the social process that is education the child does not simply receive but participates in the social experience of the race. While doing so the child reconstructs the experience. Education, therefore, is the process of reconstruction of experience, giving it more value through the medium of increased social efficiency.

The Dewey's School

John Dewey was of the firm view that the existing schools were neither in tune with the psychological needs of the child nor at par with the pace of changes that were taking place on account of the industrial revolution and democratic aspirations of the people at large. To test his educational ideas in practice and to bring the school in touch with real life, he established a 'Laboratory School' at University of Chicago in the year 1896. To aid smooth transition from outside knowledge to school knowledge and to establish continuity between them, Dewey provided real life experiences of home and community in the school. He believed that the first approach to any subjects in school should be as non-scholastic as possible. To realize what an experience or empirical situation means we have to call to mind the sort of situation that presents itself outside the school; the sort of occupations that interest and engage activity in ordinary life. The laboratory school was also a response to the demands of the industrial society and democratic polity. Therefore, Dewey crafted its programmes essentially around activity. He outlined a definite scheme of three stages of the elementary school-the play period (children of 04 to 08 years), period of spontaneous attention (08 to 12 years); and period of reflective attention (12 to onwards).

During the play period children begin to come out of the limits of home life and make acquaintance with the social world. At this stage, they cannot distinguish between means and ends. In

the period of spontaneous attention, children would be able and willing to acquire different forms of skills; they now understand the difference between means and ends. The period of reflective attention comes when children adequately master the methods of thought, enquiry and activity and are able to raise problems for themselves and seek solutions. Dewey's laboratory school, as a craft centered school, considered of and offered vocations such as carpentry, metallurgy, tailoring, embroidery, smithy etc.

Aims of Education

John Dewey is a pragmatist and his philosophy of education is based on pragmatic notions. His philosophy of concept of value is that values are not static and permanent. The end of education is more education. Dewey says, "The process of education has no end beyond itself, it has its own end, the educational process is one of the continuous reorganizing, reconstructing and manufacturing- there is nothing to which education is subordinate say more education." The end of growth is more growth. It is creation and recreation of values.

John Dewey defined education not as preparation for life but as life itself here and now. There cannot be distant, ultimate ends to education. The aim of education is not to reach any prefixed final goal. It is the process itself. The process of education is a continuous process of adjustment, having as its aim at every stage and added capacity of growth.

Dewey approved of natural development as an aim for it corrects many evils in the current practices. It also leads to desirable specific aims like fixes attention upon the bodily organs and the need of the health and vigour; respect for physical mobility; regard for individual differences among children, waxing and waning of preferences and interests.

Medium of Instruction

According to John Dewey subject matter and method are intrinsically interwoven; any attempt to treat them as separate entities or affairs is harmful. Due to this separation, subject matter becomes a readymade systematized classification of facts and principles waiting for instruction. The whole concern of method then is to look into ways and means to transfer readymade subject matter to the mind of the child. Method, according to him is a statement of the way subject matter of an experience develops most effectively and fruitfully. Experience of the child, therefore, occupies the central place in the method of learning; all learning must come as a product of action. Child learns through participation in various activities. Dewey's essence is learning by doing' and 'learning by living'.

Even as schools make experience of the student a basis of instruction, they may assume experience on the part of students. John Dewey criticizes this. He points out that providing assumed experience does not result in thinking; experience rooted into situation only stimulates thinking. To

learn from experience is to make backward and forward connections between what we do to things and what we enjoy or suffer from things in sequence in the process we discover connections.

John Dewey talks of teacher and taught relationship in the field of education. In the light of his philosophy, the teacher will have to bring changes in his work. He should not consider himself superior to the child. Natural talents of the child should be stimulated. The teacher also knows that students differ. If children work according to their interests and aptitudes, there will not be any problem in the school.

John Dewey sought to find the relationship between organized bodies of knowledge and the emerging interests and curiosities of the children. The genetic method of education, for Dewey was the scientific method, which he believed could be applied to all areas of human inquiry by adopting problem solving. He outlined the essentials of problem solving as follows:

1. The pupil has a genuine situation of experience.
2. A genuine problem develops within this situation as a stimulus of thought.
3. He proposes the information and makes the observations to deal with it.
4. He has opportunities and occasions to test his ideas by application, to make their meaning clear and to discover himself their validity.

Unit – IV

Origin and development of preschool education in England, India and U.S.A

Historical Development of Early Childhood Education in England

Early childhood care and education for young children began to emerge in England in the late 18th century on a voluntary and philanthropic basis. In 1816, the first nursery school in the United Kingdom was established at New Lanark in Scotland by Robert Owen for the children of cotton mill workers. Children ages 1 to 6 were cared for while their parents and older siblings worked in the cotton mills. Owen advocated free and unstructured play in the education of young children and did not press for formal training. He endeavoured to create a future citizen through the process of informal teaching and physical activities. Although Owen's ideas were ahead of his time, his example stimulated a significant interest in early childhood education and the founding of a number of infant schools in Britain.

In 1911, Margaret McMillan and her sister Rachel established an open-air nursery for poor children in Deptford. McMillan's educational model was

inspired by her socialist ideology. She was concerned for the health and well-being of working-class children, and she stressed the need for health care with proper nourishment, hygiene, exercise, and fresh air. Her nursery allowed free access to play areas and gardens and was not predicated upon a fixed time schedule. McMillan's methods, with her emphasis on fresh air, exercise, and nourishment, still influence some aspects of current English nursery practice.

Recent Development

The Rumbold Report '*Starting with Quality*' and the Royal Society of Arts Report '*Start Right*' both stressed the importance of quality in early years education. The Rumbold report recommended a curriculum based on eight main areas of learning, following in the footsteps of a recent HMI (Her Majesty's Inspectorate) publication *The Curriculum from 5 to 16*: (1) aesthetic and creative, (2) human and social, (3) language and literacy, (4) mathematics, (5) physical, (6) science, (7) spiritual and moral, and (8) technology (DES, 1990). The Royal Society of Arts Report (Ball, 1994) recommended that high-quality provision be made available to all 3- and 4-year-olds, reviewing evidence that high-quality early education leads to lasting cognitive and social benefits in children. Ball set out the following major prerequisites for "high-quality" provision: an appropriate early learning curriculum; the selection, training, and continuity of staff; high staff: children ratios; buildings and equipment designed for early learning; and a partnership role for parents. However, in 1997, the incoming Labour Government abolished the voucher scheme and made its own plans for the development of early

year's services. The new government tried to raise standards and significantly increased public funding of early years education. The government provided direct funding to preschool institutions for part-time places for 4-year-old children and an increasing number of part-time places for 3-year-old children. However, the receipt of this funding for 3- and 4-year-old children is dependent on each preschool provision meeting government requirements for the regular inspection of preschool settings, in terms of the framework of *Desirable Outcomes*, now revised as *Early Learning Goals*.

The Philosophical Background of Childhood Education in England

The main principles of traditional early childhood education in Britain are child centered, in contrast to the traditional subject-centered and teacher-directed approaches of secondary education. This section examines the key underlying principles of English traditional early childhood education: individualism, free play, developmentalism, and the child-centered perspective of the adult educator.

Individualism

Western child-centered education is based on individual children's needs and interests, and on educators' respect for the differences between individual children. Dewey (1959) emphasized individuality, with the curriculum chosen by the child rather than imposed by the teacher. Montessori (1972) had great respect for the child as an individual and for children's spontaneous and independent learning. She believed that the child possesses an intrinsic motivation toward the self-construction of

learning. Supporting the view that children are innately curious and display exploratory behaviour quite independent of adult intervention, the Plowden Report says, "The child appears to have a strong drive, which shows itself at a very early age, toward activity and the exploration of the environment.... As far as can be judged, this behaviour is autonomous since it occurs when there is no obvious motivation such as hunger."

The child-centered view of the child's intrinsic motivation for learning has been widely criticized. The child-centered view is that children are innately curious and keen to find things out, with a strong drive to explore the environment. This theory suggests that children learn more effectively if their activities are self-chosen and self-directed. However, many educators have warned of the dangers of an exclusive and unrealistic emphasis upon the child. Galton (1987) criticized child-centered theory as a "romantic" view of childhood requiring a curriculum totally dictated by the child's interests.

Free Play

In the English preschool, play is an integral part of the curriculum, founded on the belief that children learn through self-initiated free play in an exploratory environment. Free play is especially the norm in the traditional English nursery curriculum, following Rousseau, Froebel, Owen, McMillan, and Isaacs. According to Froebel, play is "the work of the child" and a part of "the educational process." "Learning is holistic and for the young child; it is not compartmentalised under subject headings". In traditional English preschools, the rigid, subject-divided

curriculum is rejected; instead, free play is regarded as the integrating mechanism that brings together everything taught.

Developmentalism

Sequential developmentalism is one of the most influential beliefs in English early year's education. The term refers to the way in which the child passes through a naturally ordered sequence of development towards logical and formal thinking. Piaget's clinical and observational studies developed the idea of readiness and explored the process by which children advance through the sensorimotor stage (0-2 years) and preconception stages (2-7 years) in order to progress to logical and abstract thinking. According to this version of developmentalism, a child must be "ready" to move on to the next developmental stage and cannot be forced to move to a higher level of cognitive functioning.

Although developmentalism and readiness are widely reported to be dominant in English early childhood education, several critiques have been articulated about the readiness concept in developmentalism. The idea of "readiness" has often led to a lack of structure in the curriculum and to a lack of progression. In developmental theory, consideration of the nature of knowledge seems to be ignored. According to Bruner, knowledge of child development is necessary but is not sufficient, and early years practice also needs a firm and sufficient knowledge base. He argues that to avoid trivializing education, we need to integrate knowledge about teaching (pedagogical knowledge) with both knowledge about children's development and knowledge about knowledge itself.

Current Early Childhood Curriculum in England

In 1988, the Education Reform Act for the first time set out a National Curriculum for England and Wales. It presented a comprehensive restructuring of the educational system in England. The most important justifications for the National Curriculum are raising standards in schools and offering a broad and balanced curriculum. Before the 1988 Education Reform Act, the education system was decentralized, with little government intervention in curriculum planning and implementation. However, since the introduction of the National Curriculum, government intervention has increased and teachers' autonomy has consequently decreased. From its introduction, the subject-based approach of the National Curriculum has been seen as an attack on traditional child-centered preschool education. Although the National Curriculum applies only to students of compulsory school age, its introduction has inevitably had an effect upon programs for children under statutory school age.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IN INDIA

Various types of pre-primary schools are available in India and more children are now attending pre-school (NIPCCD, 2006) indicating an increase in demand for education at this stage. This overall increase raises questions such as whether this demand has increased everywhere.

Are all children attending pre-schools if they are available? Which types of preschools do children belonging to different socio-economic groups attend? Who are the children totally excluded from pre-primary schooling (zone 0 of the CREATE zones of exclusion)? Drawing on quantitative data collected in the National Family Health Survey, DISE (District Information System for Education) and the Seventh All India Education Survey as well as qualitative data collected through CREATE's community and school survey in Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh conducted in 2008, this policy brief presents an analysis of pre-primary education in India and recommends policies for the improved provision of equitable and quality pre-primary schooling.

Research suggests that pre-primary education is very important for the development of young children before they enter formal school. It helps in cognitive development of children at the early grades of primary education and it has strong bearing on attendance and participation of children once they enter primary school.

Pre-primary education is considered to be very important for the child as it is the first step towards entering the world of knowledge as well as a healthy and purposeful life. Pre-primary education helps children become more independent and confident as well as promoting the all-round development of the children.

Children who have been to pre-primary schools tend to learn more rapidly through an organised curriculum, learning aids and by interacting with other children. The main purpose of pre-primary

education is to prepare children physically, emotionally, socially and mentally for formal schooling and to prevent poor performance and early drop out. It also helps older children, particularly girls, to attend their schools making them free from responsibility of sibling care.

Thus it can be said that pre-primary education is necessary for all children of 3-6 years old irrespective of their socio-economic background. With increasing numbers of nuclear families and a lack of family support, pre-primary school education is gaining importance. Availability of quality pre-primary education will promote inclusive education and meaningful access to school education by increasing enrolment and reducing the vulnerability of children to failure and drop out at later stages of education.

Policy Initiatives for Pre-School Education in India

Provision of early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children, is one of the six Education for All (EFA) goals. Although there is no numerical target for reaching the target group within a fixed time-frame, governments have been urged to expand access, improve quality and ensure equity in Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) services.

Like elsewhere, the importance of pre-primary schooling has long been recognised by educational policy and programmes in India and it has also been a constitutional commitment as a part of the directive principle of the constitution.

The National policy on Education 1986 (GOI, 1986) and its Plan of Action, (GoI, 1992) have placed immense importance on pre-school

education. However, it has not been considered a fundamental right, nor it is being fully managed by the educational departments at national or state level although it is partially supported by the ongoing flagship educational programme Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA) which includes a major component of ECCE.

While the Ministry of Human Resource Development in India is responsible for elementary education, the Ministry of Women and Child Development deals with pre-primary education.

The Government of India launched the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) scheme in 1975. The Department of Women and Child Development has been implementing the scheme which seeks to provide health care facilities, supplementary nutritional support and to improve children's communication and cognitive skills as a preparation for entry into primary school. Initially the programme started as a project in some states but presently it covers many rural and tribal areas along with some urban pockets targeting mainly underprivileged children. The SSA envisages providing preschool education in convergence with the ICDS programme.

Present Status of Pre Primary Education in India

In India, preschool education is provided by private schools and government ICDS (*Anganwadi*) centres. In addition, there are some ECCE centres running under SSA and some preschools are attached to government as well as private schools. According to the estimate given by the Seventh All India Education Survey (NCERT, 2005), there are 493,700 pre-primary institutions in India, out of which 456,994 are in

rural areas. These schools serve 26.453 million children of which 12.829 million are girls according to DISE (District Information System for Education) data (200708). The percentage of enrolment in primary schools with pre-primary facilities is low. It was 10% in 2007-08 compared to 7.7% in 2004-05. The highest percentage of pre-primary enrolment in primary schools is in Madhya Pradesh (19.6%) and the lowest of 5.0% in Bihar (Mehta, 2010). The third round (2005-06) of National Family Health Survey data (IIPS, 2007) shows that around 56% of children in preschool are enrolled in *Anganwadis* (ICDS Centres) for early childhood care and education. Among them only 31% of children are attending the centres regularly. A large variation is also found in access to early childhood care and education across the states.

Policy Recommendations

From the above discussion it is clear that there is a considerable variation in access to pre-primary education among children between 3 to 6 years old with diverse socio-economic backgrounds. Children belonging to marginalised groups in society, particularly girls, depend on public pre-primary schools, whereas those belonging to higher socio-economic groups are more likely to attending private schools. Since education of children between 3-6 years old is not a fundamental right, it is not legally mandated. Because of this preschool education is suffering from inadequate coverage and poor quality benefiting very few children. However, it is an important constitutional commitment as it is part of the Directive Principle and is also one of the EFA goals. It also as mentioned earlier has a significant positive effect on sustained meaningful access to

education, so it should be given immediate attention in view of its important role in children's lives.

The quality of teaching in public pre-primary *Anganwadi* centres is unsatisfactory due to a lack of trained teachers. The government needs to invest in an improvement of quality of services in *Anganwadi* centres including pre-school education, which will improve the learning achievement of children at pre-primary stage.

Provision of equitable access to all eligible children in the country requires expanding the coverage of the ICDS programme by opening more pre-school centres or attaching such provision to existing government primary schools. Many states have already started these initiatives but the situation is far from satisfactory.

To ensure the quality of preschool education it is important to provide well qualified and trained teachers for pre-primary schools. More focus is needed for quality pre-primary education for disadvantaged groups living in poor and remote areas. The pre-primary education component of the ICDS programme although evident on paper is often non-existent in reality. Facilities are important and must be safe, healthy and suitable environments for young children.

Free food distributed in pre-primary schools plays an important role in attracting the poorest sections of society to attend regularly and averting nutritional problems. These schemes should be maintained and expanded.

The play materials in most of the AWCs visited are locked up in cupboards. This seems to be a result of a fairly common belief that

expensive and attractive things are too precious to be handled by children and need to be brought out for display only during inspections. The same is the case with library books in schools. Materials in pre-primary schools should be made available to children to use, regularly inspected, updated and replaced.

Different government departments need to implement pre-school education in a coordinated manner avoiding duplication and overlapping of interventions.

The monitoring and evaluation of existing programmes such as ICDS and ECCE is another important issue that needs to be carried out more frequently to supplement the inputs into these programmes. This also plays a crucial role for better planning and policy implementation to ensure wide coverage of quality pre-primary education in the future.

Early childhood education in the United States

In the past decade, there has been a national push for state and federal policy to address the early years as a key component of public education. At the federal level, the Obama administration made the Race to the Top Early Learning Challenge a key tenet of their education reform initiative, awarding \$500 million to states with comprehensive early childhood education plans. In addition, a largely Democratic contingent sponsored the Strong Start for America's Children Act in 2013, which provides free early childhood education for low-income families. Specifically, the Act would generate the impetus and support for states to expand ECE; provide

funding through formula grants and Title II (Learning Quality Partnerships), III (Child Care) and IV (Maternal, Infant and Home Visiting) funds; and hold participating states accountable for Head Start early learning standards.

Head Start grants are awarded directly to public or private non-profit organizations, including community-based and faith-based organizations, or for-profit agencies within a community that wish to compete for funds. The same categories of organizations are eligible to apply for Early Head Start, except that applicants need not be from the community they will be serving. Many states have created new early childhood education agencies. Massachusetts was the first state to create a consolidated department focused on early childhood learning and care. Just in the past fiscal year, state funding for public In Minnesota, the state government created an Early Learning scholarship program, where families with young children meeting free and reduced price lunch requirements for kindergarten can receive scholarships to attend ECE programs. In California, Senator Darrell Steinberg led a coalition to pass the Kindergarten Readiness Act, which creates a state early childhood system supporting children from birth to age five and provides access to ECE for all 4-year-olds in the state. It also created an Early Childhood Office charged with creating an ECE curriculum that would be aligned with the K-12 continuum.

State funding for pre-K increased by \$363.6 million to a total of \$5.6 billion, a 6.9% increase from 2012 to 2013. 40 states fund pre-K

programs. The American legal system has also played a hand in public ECE. State adequacy cases can also create a powerful legal impetus for states to provide universal access to ECE, drawing upon the rich research illustrating that by the time they enter school, students from low-income backgrounds are already far behind other students. The New Jersey case *Abbott County School District v. Burke* and South Carolina case *Abbeville County School District*. State have established early but incomplete precedents in looking at "adequate education" as education that addresses needs best identified in early childhood, including immediate and continuous literacy interventions.

In the 1998 case of *Abbott v. Burke* (*Abbott V*), the New Jersey Supreme Court required New Jersey's poorest school districts to implement high-quality ECE programs and full day kindergarten for all three and four-year-olds. Beyond ruling that New Jersey needed to allocate more funds to preschools in low-income communities in order to reach "educational adequacy," the Supreme court also authorized the state department of education to cooperate "with... existing early childhood and daycare programs in the community" to implement universal access.

In the 2005 case of *Abbeville v. State*, the South Carolina Supreme Court decided that ECE programs were necessary to break the "debilitating and destructive cycle of poverty for low-income students and poor academic achievement." Besides mandating that all low-income children have access to ECE by age three, the court also held that early childhood interventions—such as counseling, special needs identification, and socio-

emotional supports—continue through grade three (Abbeville, 2005). The court furthermore argued that ECE was not only imperative for educational adequacy but also that "the dollars spent in early childhood intervention are the most effective expenditures in the educational process.