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THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

SELECTED INFLUENCES ON SOCIALIZATION INTO EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

BY

BARBARA FERGUSON

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, MANITOBA
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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to explore some of the influences on the socialization into one early childhood education program. Included are the historical, teleological, and philosophical contexts in which the program is situated. Some psychological factors involved in the socialization process are presented. One central philosophy and concomittant goals of the curriculum class are discussed. Interactions in the curriculum and nursery classes are described and analyzed to discover the meaning which participants in one particular early childhood education program attribute to the socialization process experienced during their training. The focus is on three levels of meaning: the ideological, the stated, and the actualized.

Entry into teacher-training is a turning point in many student's perceptions of the teaching culture, the role of the teacher, life in the classroom, and of his or her identity as a teacher. From this point, according to Hughes (1958), prior conceptions are revised as the learning individual looks back on his former self from the inside. Most research into this process has focused on the external objective level of teacher-training ignoring the contextual factors and the internal subjective world of the student teacher (Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986). Since the meaning attributed to the socialization process by the individual is

important to the implementation of what has been learned (Schulman, 1986), a qualitative method of research, ethnography, is used in this investigation.

A comparison of the official socialization goals and philosophies with the verbalized significance and the enactment of these goals and philosophies as evidenced in the practice of two teachers-in-training was undertaken. Hand-written field notes were taken in two settings: the curriculum class and the nursery class with the researcher acting as a participant observer. The written materials given to the student teachers were collected and analyzed. Monthly in-depth audio-recorded interviews were conducted with the informants. Two interviews required each informant to do a taxonomic analysis of two aspects of life in their nursery midway through the semester using a card-sort method.

Observations found that the day-to-day practices of student teachers in the E.C.E. program studied were influenced by: the philosophy and goals informing the curriculum, both hidden and manifest, and the relative importance given to each in the curriculum class, the student teacher's goals and expectations of the program, their previous experiences with young children, and the closeness of the fit between the student's own philosophy and that of the program.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration..... ii

Abstract..... iii

Acknowledgements..... v

Chapter I. WHAT IS SOCIALIZATION..... 1

Introduction..... 1

Purpose and Significance of the Study..... 4

Framework for the Study..... 5

Statement of the Problem..... 7

Overview of the Study..... 9

Chapter II. RESEARCH STRATEGIES..... 11

Merits of the Ethnographic Approach..... 11

Studies of Teacher Socialization..... 13

Theoretical Issues..... 17

Chapter III. STUDY DESIGN..... 26

1. The Site..... 27

2. The Informants..... 29

3. Gaining Field Entry..... 31

4. Data Collection..... 32

Chapter IV. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY..... 36

1. Sampling and Selection..... 37

2. Effects of the Researcher..... 39

3. Data Collection Strategies..... 43

4. Data Analysis Techniques..... 46

Chapter V. CONTEXTS OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION..... 52

1. Historical Context..... 52

2. Philosophical Context..... 60

3. Teleological Context..... 65

Chapter VI. AN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION PROGRAM..... 73

1. The Ideology of the Program..... 74

2. Perceptual Humanism..... 75

3. The Five Basic Assumptions..... 76

Chapter VII. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS..... 111

1. Goals and Expectations of the Program..... 115

2. Previous Experiences..... 116

3. Consistency in Philosophies..... 118

REFERENCES..... 121

APPENDIX..... 127

A. Matching Goals/Objectives with Beliefs..... 127

B. The Program Design/Early Childhood..... 134

C. A Set of Beliefs..... 135

D. Early Childhood Curriculum..... 142

E. Working Toward Democratic Behaviour..... 146

F. Letter of Consent..... 147

G. Personal Attributes..... 148

H. Some Things I Want You to Know About Me..... 150

I. Impressions of the Class..... 152

J. Adjective Rating Scale..... 153

K. Course Outline..... 155

L. Flanders Interaction Analysis..... 161

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Chapter I

WHAT IS SOCIALIZATION?

This chapter introduces and defines socialization; presents the purpose and importance of this work; discusses the framework for this study; states the problem which the study attempts to solve; and outlines the entire work.

Introduction

The purpose of all professional programs is to socialize individuals into that particular profession. Teaching is an unusual profession in that those who decide to enter it have ample opportunity to observe a practitioner at work (Lortie, 1975). Thus socialization into teaching informally begins long before the decision to enter the profession. The formal socialization only begins when admission to a training program is sought (Seifert, 1987).

Socialization is " a subjective process ... that happens to people as they move through a series of structured experiences and internalize the subculture of the group" (Lortie, 1975, p.61). Our society, for the most part, has agreed to allow the professions to determine the socialization process for those seeking to assume the mantle of professional authority (Hughes, 1959). Each profession is

regarded as a culture or cultural system by some researchers (Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986; Erikson, 1986). Goodenough (1961) defines culture as an ideational system which is "the organized system of knowledge and belief whereby a people structure their experience and perceptions ... and the shared system of meaning that underlies the ways in which people live" (Goodenough, 1961, p.36). Thus, in becoming teachers the student-teachers, over time, take on the knowledge and beliefs of the education profession which in turn structures how they experience and perceive things, that is, determines the meaning they attribute to what they do. This process of becoming a teacher is ongoing throughout the lifetime of the person and occurs on at least two levels: the external imparting of information and the internal restructuring of perceptions and beliefs.

What is involved in this process of learning to share a common reality which is called socialization? The answer to this question is different for different researchers. For Fine (1987), interactions with people and events of a culture cause socialization to occur. The concept of socialization most pertinent to this study is presented by Beals (1979). Beals claims that socialization results from going through a process. He describes a process as consisting of a "series of interlinked events commencing under culturally defined conditions, following a culturally defined plan or pattern, and reaching a culturally defined end point"

(Beals, 1979, p.28). Accordingly, the early childhood education program consists of a series of events, the curriculum classes and the practicum included; which follow the plan or pattern set out by the program planners, the education faculty, and the Department of Education; and finally reaching an end point, ie. graduation and a certificate in early childhood education. Lum (1978) states that professional socialization is a life-long process in the following: "The fact of the matter is that the initial work experiences must be viewed as a continuation of professional socialization ...(p.155)." For this study, socialization is viewed as a process of learning to think, believe, feel, and behave like an educator. A reciprocal influence between the thoughts, words, and actions of the person being socialized is accepted. Since socialization is a life-long process, in looking at only part of the last year of formal training this study deals with a small portion of the overall process.

While the education of teachers for all levels of schooling is similar in many ways, the preparation of preschool teachers does have some unique features. These include the history and traditions of early childhood education (Spodek, 1984); the duration, institutions, goals, and philosophies of the educational programs (Katz, 1984); the age and consequent learning style of young children as observed by Froebel, Montessori, and Piaget (Elkind, 1986). In the present study, the student teachers are influenced by

such courses as Childrearing Practices, Child Development, Music, Art, and Drama and by professors other than the curriculum professor. However, this study focuses only on the goals and philosophy reflected in the curriculum class, the practicum and the professors, which accounts for half of the total credit hours taken during the final year of E.C.E..

Purpose and Significance of the Study

This study investigates, qualitatively, some of the influences on the socialization into early childhood education of one program. First it presents the historical, teleological, and philosophical contexts of early childhood education. Next it describes interactions that take place in the curriculum class and the practicum of an early childhood education program. The focus is on the impact of the goals and philosophy of the curriculum class on the everyday practices of the teachers-in-training relying heavily on observations and interviews.

This study addresses the actual experiences of students in a teacher education program, as well as the meanings which the students derive from those experiences. This study is important for the following reasons:

(1) It describes the goals and central philosophical basis of one training program for early childhood educators as developed by a university educator, in co-operation with five colleagues and using feedback from parents and children,

over a period of twenty years. This description increases awareness of this philosophy and could help in forming or revising other such university-based early childhood education (E.C.E.) programs.

(2) The study investigates the gap between the intentions of an educational program -- its ideology -- and the meanings to the program by the participants, and their practices in the nursery classroom. Looking at these variations could help in understanding the complexities of teacher education, especially in E.C.E..

(3) The study uses methods of data collection which facilitate the investigation of three strands of information which must be considered in translating theory into practice. The three methods include: nonparticipant observation of the curriculum classes (C.Cl.) to derive the ideology; key informant interviews (Int.) to explore the meanings attributed to the ideology; participant observation in a nursery class (N.Cl.) to describe the enactment of these meanings as evidenced in the informants' day-to-day practices.

(4) With the present concerns over the quality of preschool and day care programs, insights from the study may help policy makers and legislators in determining how to regulate the quality of child care, generally, and the nature of the training of E.C.E. staff, in particular.

Framework for the Study

The objective of professional programs is to begin to socialize individuals into those professions. Society usually allows each profession to autonomously regulate, train, and license those who aspire to that profession (Hughes, 1959). Consequently, each profession can be viewed as a microcosm of society, a smaller culture in the context of the larger host culture.

Then each profession, as a culture, is an ideational system which is an organized system of knowledge and belief which structures people's experiences and perceptions. This culture, for the most part, becomes the shared system of meaning that underlies the ways in which people practice the profession and live (Goodenough, 1961). This ordered system of symbols and meaning provides an underlying structure for social interaction, thus, enabling individuals to practice their profession (Geertz, 1981).

At least six methods of maintaining and preserving cultural systems have been described. These processes maintain the members' relationships to the environment, regulate membership, indicate status, transmit the culture, control behavior, and adaptation to changing circumstances (Beal, 1979). A leading influence on the socialization of a person is the transmission of culture. Therefore, this study is concerned with that part of the cultural transmission of an early childhood education profession which takes place

during the formal training program.

Socialization into a profession may be viewed as a subjective process that happens to people as they move through a series of structured experiences, determined by the profession, and internalize the subculture of the group (Lortie, 1975). For Fine (1986) the stucture and the environment of the social unit causes the culture produced. This notion is extended by Erikson's (1986) claim that "the organization of meaning-in-action is at once the learning environment and the content to be learned" (p.128). In classrooms, teachers and students in their actions together constitute environments for one another. Thus, it is through observing other people, talking with them, making inferences about the dialogues, and acting according to these inferences that people show that they have learned a culture (Spradley). For Schon (1987) students have been socialized when the meanings shared by the teacher and student converge. Typically, the formal education and accompanying supervised practice of the profession are important influences on the process of becoming a professional.

Statement of the Problem

Stated briefly this study addresses these questions. First, what are some of the influences on the student's socialization into early childhood education during the final year of a teacher training program? Second, how

influential is the curriculum class on the day-to-day practices of student-teachers in their practicum?

Since the goals and philosophies of the early childhood teacher training program are central to the evolution of the practices of the participants, this study presents the ideology of the curriculum class before describing the stated meanings and observed practices of the participants, relying heavily on in-depth information given by two key informants. This approach allows for the contrasting and comparing of these three levels of the actuality of preparing to work with young children.

Overview of the Study

This thesis is organized into six chapters. There are three reasons for the first chapter. The first is to introduce the topic and the terms associated with the socialization. The second is to outline the purpose and practical significance of the study. The third is to present the framework and the problem guiding the study.

Chapter two presents a brief look at the merits of the ethnographic method, a review of the literature, and the theoretical issues in the research on socialization.

The third chapter discusses the design of the present study. The site, the informants, gaining field entry, and data collection are described. Also presented is the

rationale for the decisions made for each of these aspects of the study.

In chapter four the limitations of the present study are described as they relate to the following four topics: sampling and selection, experience and the role of the researcher, data collection strategies, and data analysis techniques.

The fifth chapter outlines three contextual levels of early childhood education, in general: the historical, the teleological and philosophical. Also desrcibed are the specific goals and philosophical bases of the program investigated by this thesis.

Chapter six discusses one philosophy informing the early childhood education curriculum class and practicum of the program studied. Anecdotal observations of the curriculum and nursery classes show the teachers-in-training making sense of the experiences encountered in these settings.

Finally, chapter seven summarizes and interprets the findings in relation to the problems posed in chapter one. As well, suggestions for further studies and the implications of the findings for practice of early childhood education are presented.

Chapter II

RESEARCH STRATEGIES

Since socialization happens internally when a person takes on a new culture, research into this process is a challenge. One must address such questions as: Which data collection method is most suitable? How have other researchers investigated the socialization of teachers? How is the process best explained in psychological terms? This chapter addresses each of these questions.

Merits of the Ethnographic Approach

An investigation of a university based program for the preparation of early childhood education personnel uncovers several levels of existence, each functioning concurrently and with its own purposes.

> "...there is no 'real world' of the classroom, of learning and of teaching. There are many such worlds, perhaps nested within one another, perhaps occupying parallel universes which frequently, albeit unpredictably, intrude on one another. Each of these worlds is occupied by the same people, but in different roles and striving for different purposes simultaneously" (Lee Schulman, 1986, p.7).

The program at the University studied is no exception.

In looking at the life world of early childhood

education teachers-in-training, the most apparent features are the series of interconnected events or explicit actualities of the program. These include: admission procedures, orientation, selection of team members, interviewing parents and children for the nursery program, setting up and operating the nursery classroom, attending and doing assignments for the curriculum class. These are aspects of the student teacher's "explicit actuality", however, there are the "subjective realities" and later the "enacted realities" which must be considered as well. The meaning attributed to what is encountered in the training program affects the outcome of the entire socialization process (Book, Byers, and Freemen, 1983).

In order to understand what the participant's world is really like, the "subjective reality", it is necessary to uncover what the student teacher is experiencing, how she or he thinks, and the reasons for doing certain things. Interpretive methodologies assume that there is value in understanding another's way of life from that individual's point of view (Erickson,1986). Ethnography, one such interpretive method of conducting research, will be used for this study.

The third level of reality, the "enacted reality", reflects how the participant translates this subjective existence into actions in the classroom. An ethnographic approach enables the researcher to study the ongoing stream

of behavior exhibited by the student teacher within the complex and dynamic social context of teacher education. As well, ethnomethodology enables a further investigation of the meaning these events have for each person (Erickson, 1986; Goetz and Lecompte, 1984).

This particular study is based on a fundamental assertion of interpretive science expressed by Sutton-Smith (1984): "since meaning is the central issue in human affairs, it should also be the central issue in scientific study of humans" (p.55). Ethnography is one interpretive procedure which permits the researcher to discover the explicit actualities, to inquire into the meanings given to these actualities by the participants, and to investigate the everyday interactions which emanate from these meanings (Biddle and Anderson, 1986; Erickson, 1986).

Studies of Teacher Socialization

A further review of the literature on teacher education reveals that most of the research is of a quantitative nature, with questionnaires and surveys being implemented as instruments (Bond and Smith, 1967; Collins, 1969; Edmonds and Bessel, 1979; Lasley and Applegate, 1984; Lortie, 1975; Parkay and Forbes, 1984; Plisko, 1983; Schlechty and Vance, 1981; Southwell, 1970; Tischer, 1979; Weaver, 1983). General trends of large populations of beginning teachers are reported in statistical studies (National Education

Association, 1982; National Centre for Educational Statistics reported by Frankel and Gerald, 1982; Plisko, 1983; Feistritzer, 1983a, 1983b; Sweet and Jacobsen, 1983; Parkay, 1984). These lack sensitivity to the meaning attributed to the experiences of individual teachers.

A few studies concentrate on teachers in specific situations (Eddy, 1969; Ryan, 1970; Ryan, Newman, Mager, Applegate, Lasky, Flora and Johnson, 1980; Applegate, 1977; Newberry, 1978; Felder, 1979; Hawke, 1980). Applegate (1977), Felder, (1979), and Hawke (1980) used quantitative research methods which come closest to looking at the teachers-in-training subjective viewpoint. While they gave descriptive detail of what it is like to be a beginning teacher, they failed to delve into the meaning which the beginning teacher attributes to his/her experiences.

Some research has been done on the teacher's views of formal preparation in the form of survey and case studies (Griffin and Hukill, 1983; Lasley, 1984; Little, 1981; Lortie, 1975; Ryan, 1970; Tardif, 1985; Goodman, 1985). Lortie (1975) and Tardif (1985) described the socialization process from the perspective of the student teachers during their training. However this was done retrospectively. In fact, Lortie asked practicing teachers to reflect on their induction experiences several years after their training is over. This flaw was eliminated by Goodman (1985), who used a case study method which drew upon information gathered during

socialization through observations and interviews. This study focused on the meaning which field experiences had for student teachers in terms of what they had learned. Lasley (1984) also investigated student teachers' induction experiences at the time with a focus on the problems encountered. The study consisted of two phases. For the first phase, he asked student teachers to state what problems they have each day for a week. This data was used to develop a questionnaire which was sent to a larger population of student teachers in the second phase. While these studies looked at the student teacher's view of induction experiences when they were happening, the focus was limited to their reactions to field experiences. Several features of their training experiences were omitted. Among these were the philosophy and goals of the training program and how these were translated into practice by the teachers-in-training.

A study done by Adler (1984) used an historical approach to show that the rhetoric of specific programs was not consistent with overall practices of teacher education programs. Adler argued that field experiences must be viewed in the context of teacher education programs and of the broader socio-cultural context. While this study pointed to the need to locate a specific program in a philosophical and historical context, it did not look at how this was interpreted or enacted by the student teachers.

Some studies have focused only on identifying the

characteristics of programs which prepare personnel to work with young children (Elam, 1971; Lickona, 1976; Combs, 1974). The value of these studies is that they present the broader context within which early childhood education programs can be located. However, they address neither the student teacher's philosophy nor the practices rising out of these philosophical contexts.

Two studies, done by Zeichner (1983) and Turner (1985), followed the student teachers into their first year of teaching to investigate the meaning attributed to the socialization process. Zeichner (1983) did a longitudinal and biographical study of the views of prospective and practicing teachers. Turner's (1985) ethnographic study penetrated into the world of meaning the beginning teachers gave to their experiences. While these studies investigated the practices of beginning teachers, they failed to indicate the philosophical context of the training program and the meaning attributed to it.

This study is designed to bridge the apparent gap by presenting the philosophy and goals of the socialization process of a program, by locating it in a broader historical and philosophical context, and by describing the meaning it has for student teachers and how they translate this meaning into everyday classroom practice.

Theoretical Issues

The culture provides the context, as well as the patterns, for socialization. However, it is the act of internally organizing the events and experiences of the training program on the part of the individual which leads to sucessful socialization. Piaget (1968), Vygotsky (1978), and G.H. Mead (1934) have described the three major approaches to the dynamics of socialization. Another researcher, Cicourel (1980, 1981), has synthesized these three approaches with symbollic interactionism and extended them to include findings of phenomenological and sociolinguistic based work. Cicourel emphasizes the importance of the social context in the discovery of meaning for the individual being socialized. This section draws heavily on Corsaro's (1981a, 1985) analysis of Piaget's, Vygotsky's, Mead's, and Cicourel's studies of the socializaton process.

Traditionally, the process of socialization has been viewed from two basic standpoints. The first focuses on the internalization of skills and knowledge in which the learner is a passive recipient and the instructor is the active agent. According to the second perspective, the learner interprets, organizes, and uses information from the environment and in turn acquires knowledge and skills. This perspective has been called both interactionist, because the individual learns through interaction with the environment, and constructivist, because the individual actively

constructs the meaning of the environment (Corsaro, 1985). Both the interactionist and constructivist approaches are aspects of Piaget's cognitive theory of learning. It is possible that socialization includes elements of each of these main views with imitation as well as active information processing happening on the part of the learner.

That aspect of Piaget's theory of learning which has relevance to the present discussion is his concept of equilibrium or equilibration. For Piaget (1968), equilibrium is "the compensation resulting from the activities of the subject in response to external intrusions" (Piaget, 1968, p.101). Thus, external intrusions, such as a curriculum course, are compensated for by the subject's engaging in such activities as creating a learning environment in the practicum. If the individual does not have an internal construct into which the intrusion may be assimilated, then, disequilibrium occurs. In this case, the intrusion must be accommodated by engaging in such compensatory activities as: creating a new construct or expanding the original one. Once this has happened, equilibrium is regained. Piaget also hypothesized the need for an incubation period between the time of the intrusion and the time that accommodation is completed. Thus in becoming socialized, the change may not occur immediately upon the incidence of the intrusion. The intrusion may be the catalyst for growth for a long time afterwards.

Recently, it has been argued that in looking at these compensatory activities, Piaget did not investigate the nature and type of environmental intrusions. It is unclear whether they are physical, logical, or social; and if they actually do impact the socialization process. For Turiel (1978a), the physical, logical, or social are three different domains of knowledge which are not necessarily related, and therefore, the effects of specific experience in one of the conceptual domains may have minimal effect in other domains (Corsaro, 1985).

Another extension of Piaget's theory has been explored by the work of Youniss (1975, 1978, 1980). In 1980 Youniss synthesized the views of Piaget and Henry Stack Sullivan who viewed socialization as resulting from interpersonal interactions in two distinct social worlds: that shared by the more knowledgable with the less knowledgable, and that shared by equals or fellow novices. In the former an interdependency is established within a system of complementary exchange where the learner trades conformity for the educator's approval and/or grades. This social world provides "a sense of ordered social reality and launches (the learner) along a relational path" (Youniss, 1980, p.20). In the later social world between peers, one sees a co-operative use of direct reciprocity. "Particular behaviors are no longer predetermined as right or wrong or better or worse. Behavior can be tested and submitted to mutual definition"

(Youniss, 1980, p.19). Piagetian theory is extended by Youniss' work in that when disequilibrium occurs, the activity which the learner most often seeks is interaction with others. Thus construction of meaning and conceptualization is viewed not as a private event but as a social event involving contributions of both the learner and the other person (Youniss, 1980).

Vygotsky (1978) offers further insights into the process of socialization. In his view, socialization is motivated by societies' demands on an individual for change. When, for example a student enters a program of studies, practical activities are entered into as strategies for dealing or coping with the demands of the program. Engaging in practical activities leads to the acquisition of new skills and knowledge which may be transformations of old skills and knowledge. These changes are direct results of internalization, which Vygotsky defines as "the internal reconstruction of an external operation" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.56).

According to Vygotsky, people increase their knowledge of the world by "integrating socially elaborated symbols (such as social values and beliefs, the cumulative knowledge of the culture, and the scientifically expanded concepts of reality) into their own consciousness" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.126). The process by which this occurs is a two-step dynamic, first on the external social level and then, later,

on an inner personal level. The transformation of interpersonal processes to intrapersonal processes occurs gradually over an extended period of time. During this period "the process being transformed bontinues to exist and to change as an external form of activity - before definitely turning inward" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.57). For Vygotsky, some functions may never be internalized and therefore, remain forever at the external level.

Another theory used to explain adult socialization, symbolic interactionism is based in G.H. Mead's (1934) work and has much in common with the concept of culture as acquired knowledge which explains behavior in terms of meanings (Spradley, 1980). For Mead a person acquires a sense of himself/herself indirectly,

> "not by becoming a subject to himself, but only in so far as he first becomes an object to himself ... by taking the attitudes of other individuals towards himself within a social environment or context of experience and behavior in which both he and they are involved" (Mead, 1034, p.138).

For Mead, full self-consciousness results, not just from communal sharing, but from co-operative interdependence among individuals to achieve a common goal. The students in the early childhood program investigated by this study must be co-operatively interdependent in order to meet the requirements of the program.

Blumer (1969) identified three premises on which symbolic interactionism rests:

1. "Human beings act toward things (events) on the basis of the meanings that the things (events) have for them."
2. "The meaning of such things is derived from, or arises out of, the social interaction that one has with one's fellows."
3. "Meanings are handled in and modified through, an interpretive process used by the person dealing with the things (events) he encounters (p.2).

Combs, Avila, and Purkey (1974) identify belief as the key to the interpretive process used by those who work effectively with other people. An analysis of the student-teacher's beliefs is central to the program investigated by this study.

However, the recent work of Aaron Circourel (1980, 1981) has addressed the deficiencies of traditional sociological explanations of socialization by offering several properties of the interpretive procedures used to develop meaning by people. To do this Cicourel draws on the phenomenological view of Schutz (1953, 1955) and Garfinkel (1967) (Corsaro, 1985).

For Cicourel, interpretive procedures are "invariant properties of everyday practical reasoning necessary for assigning sense to the substantive rules sociologists usually call norms" (Cicourel, 1974, p.52). In Cicourel's view norms

(or surface rules) "carry an open structure or horizon vis-a-vis some boundable collection of meanings until they are linked to particular cases by interpretive procedures" (Cicourel, 1974, p.52). The phenomenological notions first developed by Schutz and Garfinkel which Cicourel includes are: the reciprocity of perspectives, the et cetera assumptions, and the retrospective-prospective sense of occurence.

The reciprocity of perspectives refers to the way in which well socialized members of a society idealize the interchangeability of standpoints. That is, the speaker and the hearer assume that if they were to change places that they would have the same experiences of the immediate scene. The "et cetera assumption" suggests that in the simulated understanding between the speaker and the hearer, they assume the existence of common understandings of what is being said on occasions when the descriptive accounts are seen as obvious. Thus these occasions are allowed to pass in spite of their possible vagueness or ambiguity. The third term in interpretive procedures, the retrospective-prospective sense of occurrence, refers to the speaker and the hearers' waiting for later utterances to clarify present descriptive accounts, or finding out that earlier remarks now clarify a present utterance.

Cicourel (1974) has also borrowed from the work of linguistics and sociolinguistics when he discusses the notion

of "talk as reflexive". Corsaro (1985) reports that:

> "Cicourel extends the work of Garfinkel, who has argued that the mere presence or absence of talk in interaction is meaningful, to introduce the ideas of Gumperz (1982) and others who have argued that the way speech is produced (eg. intonation, prosody, stress patterns, etc.) is as important in commun-ication as the substantive utterances" (p.68).

Cicourel's claims that everyday social interactions are the best source of data needed to understand the socialization process. This notion reiterates Spradley's (1980) statement that the ethnographer "makes use of what people say in seeking to describe their culture. Both explicit and tacit cultural knowledge are revealed through speech .... much of the culture is encoded in linguistic form" (p.12). This would suggest that the preferred method of studying the socialization process would be to observe everyday interactions.

However, socialization into a profession like teaching calls for the development of internal knowledge and externalized practice of the culture. That is, the student must acquire skills which combine speaking and behaving patterned after the ideals of the profession. According to Schon (1987), it is not possible to teach the student what he/she needs to know, but he/she can be coached. The learner must see for him/herself and in his/her own way the relations

between means and methods employed and results achieved. "Nobody can see for him, and he can't see just by being 'told', although the right kind of telling may guide his seeing and thus help him see what he needs to see" (Schon, 1987, p.151).

Becoming socialized into a culture such as teaching, according to Schon, involves four levels of reflection on the part of both the 'guide' or coach and the student. These levels are:

4. Reflection on reflection on description of the theory of pedagogy.

3. Reflection on description of the theory of pedagogy.

2. Description of the theory of pedagogy.

1. The theory of pedagogy.

In the present study, level one is the culture of teaching as reflected in the philosophies and goals of curriculum class. Level two is the transmission of the culture which includes the lectures and the written materials. In level three the students enter into the learning of the culture by thinking about, implementing and discussing the information shared in level two. Finally, level four involves the feedback from the professor and the student-teachers on what has happened in level three. Schon's notion of socialization integrates aspects of the theories of socialization described by Piaget, Youniss, Vygotsky, G.H. Mead, Blumer, and Cicourel described

earlier in this section.

This chapter serves many purposes. The description of research strategies has affirmed the merit of using ethnography as a research method compatible with investigating the many strands of information contributing to the socialization process. The literature review has introduced other research methods and discussed weaknesses which show the need for the present study. The section on theoretical issues in research on socialization reveals the internal complexity of the socialization process. Each of these attempt to clarify the concerns and issues surrounding research into socialization.

Chapter III

THE STUDY DESIGN

Every aspect of the socialization process is viewed subjectively by each participant. What meaning do the early childhood education student-teachers at the University studied attribute to the process which they experience during their final year? The best way to discover how participants view a program of studies is to look at what they encounter, inquire into the meanings they attribute to their experiences and investigate the behaviors which rise out of those conceptions.

In this chapter the following elements of the present study's research design are described: the site, the population, the key informants, gaining field entry, and data collection.

1. The Site

The data for the research were collected in three separate locations: the curriculum classroom at the University, the nursery classroom set up and operated by the informants in a co-operating school division, and in a seminar room at the University.

The Curriculum Classroom

The classroom used for the curriculum course was a

smaller seminar room (approximately 20X30 feet) with wedge shaped tables to accommodate fifteen people. Two of the walls had chalkboards running from wall to wall, while the third wall had ribbon windows along the top fitted with venetian blinds and three posters at even intervals at eye level. The room was equiped with an overhead projector and screen. A slide or film projector could be requisitioned by the professor as needed. A large oak desk occupied the corner near the door.

The Nursery Classroom

The nursery was a rectangular classroom (approximately 30X50 feet) in an elementary school. The informants planned and organized the spacial arrangement of this room. Learning centers were included in the layout using the equipment provided by the university and the school division. The initial floorplan agreed upon in September was reorganized in January on the suggestion of their supervisor from the faculty of education. (For details of the floorplans, see appendix II, diagrams 1 and 2).

The Interviewing Room

For the audio-recorded interviews with the informants, one of two seminar classrooms at the university was used. During the interview the recorder was placed on the table between the informant and the researcher.

2. The Informants

Sample Selection

During a curriculum class in the fall of 1986, after the nature of the study was briefly described, the students were given a letter of consent. (See Appendix I). By signing and returning the letter to the researcher, the candidates in the early childhood education program could express their consent to participate in the study. Ten of the twelve students responded affirmatively.

While all ten students were observed in the curriculum class, three students were selected for the in-depth interviews. The three, Jill, Cheryl, and Brian, were chosen for the following characteristics:

(1) Each had a willingness to share their thoughts and beliefs,

(2) Each was articulate in describing feelings and events

(3) Not all three had the same sex, marital status, or geographic and socio-economic background.

The number of informants was limited for two reasons:

(1) In order to facilitate an in-depth examination of what Lightfoot refers to as "the complexities, uncertainties, and processes of teachers' lives in 'real' settings" (Lightfoot, 1981, p.243)

(2) More general observations were done using the larger group, therefore the informants were needed only for deriving

more specific details.

One informant was eliminated from the in-depth interviews in December when the first audio tape was discovered to be inaudible and he increased the hours he worked at his part-time job thus making it impossible to find a mutually convenient time to meet.

Informant Characteristic

The population from which three informants were selected consisted of eleven females and one male. Eight were single. All were in their late teens and early twenties except two women who were in their late thirties, were married and had children. Approximately half of them were from small towns or rural areas. One grew up in Ontario, while the remainder were from Manitoba. All of them were of white, middle class origin.

One informant, Cheryl, a single woman in her early twenties, was a native of Winnipeg. She lived at home with her parents in a middle class neighborhood. At the pre-term gathering in August she expressed a keen interest in my study and clearly stated her reactions to the events and people she had encountered to this point. All of these characteristics made her a reasonable choice as an informant.

The second person, Jill, was married, in her mid-twenties and a graduate of a college in Ontario. She and her husband, a doctoral student, had moved to Winnipeg one year previous to her registration in the early childhood education

program. Jill was raised in what she described to be a lower middle class family in a small town. Her gregariousness during the first meetings with the class and enjoyment of expressing her views to any listener, made her a preferred informant.

Brian, the third informant, was the only male enrolled in the program. He was in his early twenties and from rural Manitoba having moved to Winnipeg three years earlier to attend University. He shared an apartment with a friend and worked part time in a restaurant to put himself through university. Since the program typically has at least one male participant each year, including Brian as an informant would ensure that the male view would be expressed.

3. Gaining Field Entry

Months before the beginning of the fall term, the researcher, a graduate student in the early childhood education program, obtained permission to attend and observe the curriculum class from Dr. Miles, the head of the program and instructor of the curriculum course. When Dr. Miles invited all of the students to her home for an evening before classes began, she included the researcher on the guest list. Consequently, an initial level of rapport and a degree of familiarity developed between the researcher and all potential informants before the question of selecting those for the study had to be addressed.

Through this contact, the researcher and the entire study was viewed positively. As a consequence of an affirmative response to the letter of consent, three informants were selected thus access to the ethnographic setting, the nursery classrooms for which they would be responsible, was gained.

Dr. Miles expressed an interest in the topic of research prior to the commencement of gathering data. This interest and belief in the merit of the research project proved to be invaluable in every phase of the research.

4. Data Collection

Four methods were implemented to collect the data: observations, in-depth interviews, taxonomic analysis using a card sort technique, and an analysis of the literature from the curriculum class.

Observations

Non-participant observations were conducted by the researcher in the weekly curriculum class. Field notes were recorded while in the setting. Every class held before the December break was observed, while three classes during the second term were observed. There were approximately 30 hours of curriculum class observations done in total.

Observations of the nursery classroom activities were carried out over a six month period from October through mid-April, except during the holidays in December and April and

University study week in February. The researcher spent one and a half to two hours, on the average, every week in the nursery class as a moderate type of participant observer.

Those observations focusing on the child-teacher and parent-teacher interactions were recorded as field notes while in the setting and reviewed later in the day. A summary then was written highlighting the events of that days' observations. On those days when the class spent a major part of the time in the gymnasium or when the researcher's time in the classroom was taken up with direct interactions with the children and student teachers, the researcher relied on her memory of the details of her observations. These observations were then handwritten in a coffee shop immediately after leaving the classroom. Approximately forty hours of observations were done in the nursery classroom of each informant.

Interviews

Formal one hour interviews were conducted by the researcher on a monthly basis. The first three and final open-ended and in-depth interviews were guided by an initial set of questions rising out of the preceding months' interviews and observations. These questions required the informants to reflect on their thoughts and feelings about what they were encountering. The interviews covered such topics as: the way in which they discovered the early childhood education option, their reasons for seeking

admission to the program, how they selected their team members, what the curriculum class meant to them, how they went about setting up and operating the nursery class, what the practicum meant to them, their conceptualization of numerous aspects of young children and what it means to teach them. The January, February, and March interviews were researcher oriented and more structured to obtain a taxonomic analysis of the informant's experiences.

All of the interviews, except two card-sort interviews, were audio recorded and conducted by the researcher in a seminar room at the University of Manitoba. On the average, each interview lasted for one hour.

Informal conversations which resulted from conversations at the end of a class, or during coffee breaks and chance meetings were paraphrased immediately after having taken place. These notes were transcribed during the same day. The audio recorded interviews were transcribed within a month by an assistant.

Taxonomic Analysis

After a high level of rapport had been developed and the informants were comfortable with the researcher, the informants were asked to do a taxonomy of the domains of early childhood education. Included in the domains were:

(1) The characteristics of model teachers,

(2) The abilities and types of children,

The resulting categories and subcategories were typed onto

index cards (one per card) with no attempt made to interrelate the cards from each of the informants.

The decision to do a taxonomic analysis was based on the realization that the student-teachers' practices in the nursery class were different from the verbalized statements of ideology in the curriculum class and in the interviews. Out of the taxonomies came a new basis for the decisions regarding what behaviors to observe out of the continuous flow of activities in the classroom.

Articles from the Curriculum Class

The articles the student teachers received were reviewed using the taxonomic categories obtained in the card sort. The results were compared with the coded field notes and interviews, as a method of assessing the presence or absence of consistency between the informants' verbalized and actualized understandings of the early childhood education ideology. In this way , it was hoped, that two levels of meanings which the teachers-in-training informants attribute to their experience of the early childhood education program could be identified.

In summary, this chapter describes the ethnographic procedures used by the researcher while conducting this study. The description includes information on the site, the informants, gaining field entry, and data collection strategies.

Chapter IV

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Use of a qualitative method of collecting data when researching the field of teacher education lets the researcher "get close to the data". In this way, information can be developed from the data itself, rather than from rigidly controlled and structured quantifiable techniques (Filstead, 1977). While the mandate governing quantitative research yields a greater reliability of measures, of outcome variables, and analysis of parts or components of phenomena, much is lost. Ethnographic design, one qualitative research method, yields data which is phenomenological, empirical, naturalistic, and holistic, and allows for the use of a variety of research strategies (Goetz and LeCompte, 1986). These strengths, however, are also potential areas of weakness of ethnography. It is therefore valuable to include a discussion of the limitations in the design of the study.

This chapter will discuss the following considerations which may limit the validity of the study: time and participant sampling and selection, settings and circumstances; the experience and role of the researcher; the data collection strategies; and the data analysis techniques.

1. Sampling and Selection

Time Sampling and Selection

The length and the disruptions of the program were two sources of limitations on the validity of the study. The final year of the early childhood education program took place over a period of approximately eight months and the time spent in the nursery classroom were four half days per week for six of those months. Also during this time, the continuity of the program was disrupted by two holidays. These interruptions may have reduced the impact of the program, and cause changes to be relatively superficial and short-lived.

These possible reductions of the real impact of the program were further compounded by the change of professors midway through the term. The consequent adjustments which the students had to make in order to successfully complete the program with a different instructor may have interfered with the learning which could have taken place. Thus the observations may have more to do with how university students adapt to change than with socialization itself.

Another limitation relates to the times the researcher selected to do the observations. The informants knew that only Wednesday and Friday mornings were available to the researcher to visit the nursery. Since they could predict the time of the visit, they could put on a performance, if they wished, rather than conduct the class in the normal fashion. Therefore, the observations may reflect an atypical slice of life in the nursery classroom. An

attempt was made to compensate for this possibility by varying the days and times of the observations and by focusing on the spontaneous activities rather than the teacher dominated, preplanned ones.

The changing climatic conditions may also be another source of variability in the study. Since Winnipeg experiences long winters with freezing temperatures and heavy snowfalls which limit the time that may be spent in outdoor activities. This causes a claustrophobic reaction in students and teachers which Manitobans refer to as "cabin fever". Change is wanted when spring arrives. Thus, winter with such acompanying human adaptations as the need for warmer clothing, avoidance of frost bite by limiting exposure to the cold may create the illusion of changes in the behavior, moods, and interests of the participants which disappear when warmer weather arrives in the spring.

Population Sampling and Selection

The research setting in a classroom in a suburban school division is not representative of all of the settings used for early childhood education practicums. For example, another practicum setting was at the university while some are in inner city schools. The conservative nature of the school context , the beliefs of the principal, and the variation in the culture of the community surrounding the school may have an impact on the experiences of the informants during the socialization process. Since only two

classrooms were used this year, and the setting came with the informants, this study reflects only the socialization process as it occurred in one setting.

2. Effects of the Researcher

The subjectivity of the researcher is a limitation inherent in the ethnographic approach (Jaeger,1988). There are many ways which can be implemented to minimize this limitation. One method is for the researcher to be cognizant of the personal experiences and roles brought to the study which may affect it. In this particular case the most important ones were her own participation in the early childhood certification program ten years earlier; her experiences as a director of a preschool program; her knowledge of early childhood education gained in the graduate program; and the role the informants ascribed to the researcher.

Being a graduate of early childhood herself, preempted the researcher's preference to present herself to the informants as genuinely naive. The researcher introduced herself to the curriculum class as a graduate student doing a study of the meaning attributed to the final qualifying year in early childhood education by the participating students. As a way to affirm their value as data sources, they were told that the researcher had taken the program with a different instructor, consequently, their view of the program would be different. Also, they were told that the study was

an investigation of things that commonly occur that we take them forgranted, and that, they may be asked questions which would appear to be self evident.

The researcher's perception may have been influenced by her experience as the director of a pre-school. In this position, she did observations of staff members for the purpose of evaluating their performances on four main dimensions:

1. The physical and emotional care of the children.
2. Planning, preparing, and implementing a program of activities taking into account the children's ages and capabilities.
3. The cleanliness and maintenance of the classroom and its equipment.
4. Communicating with parents at a professional level.

Previous experience with these aspects of an early childhood education program could have predisposed the researcher to take on similyar perceptions of the informants. The impact of these were taken into consideration and compensated for in the following ways:

(1) Keeping the conceptual framework for the study clearly in focus helped to reorient the researcher's perceptions of the important components of behavior to observe in the classroom.

(2) Attending the informal gathering at the

instructor's home, going for coffee with the students during the break in the curriculum class helped to reduce the formality of the relationship.

(3) When asked for her personal opinion of anything pertaining to early childhood the researcher would give a generalized explanation of the dynamics which may be occurring and then would seek the opinion of the person asking the question. By using these techniques the researcher hoped to be viewed by the informants as a team member, rather than an administrator.

While making the observations for this study, the researcher attempted to remain aware of her assumptions about early childhood education which could bias her perceptions of the student teachers observed. The key philosophical assumptions held by the researcher were:

1. Learning occurs through play and imitation. Creative expression through the arts is valuable.
2. Stages of physical, affective, cognitive, and social development are important considerations when setting up a program.
3. An environment which balances learner-centered and teacher-centered concerns is ideal in supporting the growth of positive self-image of adults and children.

As much as possible, these biases were minimized by using the informants' actual words and phrases in establishing the

informants' actual words and phrases in establishing the codes and categories for analyzing the data and determining the units of observation. Where this was not possible, close paraphrases were used throughout.

A further potential limitation of the study hinges on how the informants perceived the researcher and the role they ascribed to her. It was felt that if the researcher was seen to be closely alligned with the authority of the university, the informants would tell her what they thought would enhance their chances of success in the program. This would limit the amount of real perceptual information which the participants would confide to the researcher, keeping her at a distance from the data needed for the study. Several measures were taken by the researcher to overcome this.

As a measure to reduce the impact of the researcher's presence on the stream of social behavior and situations that occur in the curriculum and nursery class, the researcher went into the setting as unobtrusively as possible. Initially, the researcher merely observed and recorded field notes in a friendly, naive manner. She went for coffee with the students of the curriculum class. When asked for information about the program she expressed a lack of knowledge and an anticipation of discovering what it was all about. This gave the informants the time and opportunity to figure out for themselves who the researcher was and, hopefully, accept her as an equal and confidante. Among the

many examples of the student teachers' acceptance are the following anecdotes:

Early in October, the students teachers were concerned about the exact location of their practicum. When they asked the researcher privately for information, she truly was not able to give them the information. While this may have frustrated them, it served to remind them that the researcher did not have the information which the instructor had. Thus, her status vis-a-vis them was that of an equal.

Once again in January, when the curriculum class reconvened for the second term, the new instructor, Dr. Swift, asked the student teachers about my presence in the class. The students replied with such things as: "We let her be with us because we like her", "Oh she just hangs around with us" and "She's our secretary. She writes down everything that happens".

In February, one of the team members went away for two weeks without informing her supervisor or the instructor of the curriculum class. The informants told the researcher confidentially although it had little or no relevance to the study.

3. Data Collection Strategies

"A distinguishing characteristic of ethnographic research is the fluid, developmental process through which means of collecting data are chosen and constructed" (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982, p.387). The researcher for this

study began with the expectation that all of the necessary data could be obtained using such strategies as participant observation and nonstandardized interviews of key informants. After data collection and the preliminary analysis had begun, these strategies were reviewed and adapted to include a collection and analysis of artifacts - the handouts given to the students in the curriculum class. This early review also revealed that a new focus for observation was advisable. Consequently, the focus shifted away from observing the interactions which showed only the psychodynamics of the participants to observing those occasions when the informants talked about and implemented the pedagogy reflecting the philosophy of the curriculum class.

At a later time in the process, when the relationship with the informants had developed, another research strategy was implemented to avoid the biasing of the data by the researcher. This expansion of initial data collection strategies involved asking the key informants to do a domain and a taxonomic analysis (Appendix 123), using a card sort method. The informants were asked to categorize such aspects of the program as: parts of the nursery program, personalities of children, teacher characteristics. In this way the informants' perceptions were obtained directly rather than inferring them from what the researcher perceived to be pertinent meanings attributed to the program. The following section describes the limitations accompanying such research

strategies as participant observation and interviewing; and discusses the measures taken to account for them.

Participant Observation

The observer effect, that is the impact the presence of the researcher has on the stream of social behavior and situations is a further limitation of the data collection (Jarger,1988). The researcher attempted to minimize the tendency to collect unnecessary and irrelevant data in an effort to 'get it all down' by reviewing the conceptual framework immediately before beginning observations each time. In this way, with the units of observation clearly in mind the researcher tried to use them as a focus for what was recorded in her field notes.

Interviewing

The researcher chose to use a scheduled nonstandardized form of interviewing, that is, the general questions to be addressed and the information desired were anticipated. However these were addressed informally in the interview in the order that they happened to arise. This was a potential limitation because the more talkative informant occasionally took two hours to complete the questions which took the less talkative informant twenty minutes. This led to yet another limitation namely, informer fatigue. The researcher attempted to reduce this possibility by bringing this to the

attention of the talkative informant and encouraging more concise responses.

On two occasions all of the general questions could not be covered in one session. This required the scheduling of another interview in order to get all of the information desired. In asking the informants for a taxonomy of the program and then asking them to work with their own taxonomic categories, more precision was required thus reducing the rambling nature of the answers.

While interviewing, there is a tendency for the interviewer to attribute words and thoughts to the informants which they usually do not use. This limitation was dealt with by the researcher's jotting down some vocabulary used by the informant during the interview. Then these words and phrases were used in posing the ensuing clarification questions.

4. Data Analysis Techniques

At inception, the conceptual framework used to explain socialization on a theoretical level predetermined the nature of the observations. Initially the interactions and patterns of interactions between the people observed, as conceptualized by such researchers as Piaget, Vygotsky, G.H. Mead and Cicourel, were the basic units of study. At that point, the researcher had hypothesized that interactions between the 'actors' involved in the culture of teaching young children exerted the greatest influence on the meaning and consequent outcome of the socialization process

(Applegate, 1986). Defining 'meaning' as the organization of thought, affect, and purpose, the researcher believed that by examining some basic interactional categories the desired data would result. The categories would include the meanings attributed to such aspects of the early childhood education program as:

A. The decision to enroll in the program.

B. The image of 'teacher' held by:

- themselves
- their family and friends
- their community and associates
- their society

C. The transmission of knowledge by:

- professors (informal conversations)
- courses (formal curricula, assignments and lectures)
- books assigned vs. self selected
- the practicum

D. Their relationships with:

- mentors (including professors, co-operating teacher and supervisors)
- team members and classmates
- the children in nursery class
- the principal and staff at the school
- the parents of the children

It was hoped that category A would answer the why

question regarding the personal goals of the informants. Part B would explain what the informants perceived being a teacher meant to people in each level, which would give insight into what the participants thought being socialized as a teacher would mean to them personally. Category C would delve into the where or the main source of information and how cultural transmission occurs. Finally, part D would answer the who question. The people and the social context they create are important for many reasons. One being that people learn by observing other people, listening to them, and then making their inferences (Spradley, 1979). Another has to do with how teachers and students in their actions together constitute environments for each other (Erikson, 1986). By looking at the characteristics of the people involved, more is known about the social context within which socialization takes place. According to the phenomenological and interactional conceptualization of socialization the observations done for part D would yield the most valuable insights into the process. Any changes observed in the relationships with the 'actors' in the cultural scene would reflect the progress of the socialization process.

After observations began in both the curriculum and nursery class, the researcher found that there was a disparity between what the participants did and said in the two cultural settings. Goetz and LeCompte (1986) cite findings of other researchers (Smith and Keith, 1971; Smith

and Carpenter, 1972; Smith and Schumacher, 1972) who found that "participants reports of their activities and beliefs often are discrepant with their observed behavior" (p.110). For example, one of the unstated purposes for two curriculum class assignments, making the puzzle and a water play toy, was for the student teachers to develop an awareness of children's needs, to begin creating equipment and to introduce it to the classroom. Only two of the twelve puzzles were seen later on the nursery shelves, while one class did not even set up a water table.

Consequently, the researcher decided to interview the key informants in an attempt to discover the meanings they attributed to the information conveyed in the curriculum class. One informant, Jill, viewed the curriculum class as promoting active learning. She saw it as a time to gather new ideas which could be taken to the nursery class to discover and explore what children were able to do. She knew the purpose of the assignments and activities of the curriculum class, was able to talk about it, however her day-to-day practices in the nursery classroom did not reflect this.

This limitation of participant observation is described by Sharp (1981) in the following way:

> "...in the preoccupation with the subjective consciousness of the actors under study there is often a predisposition to define consciousness as the index of the real social relations that underlie the observable relations

> between groups and individuals studied during the fieldwork" (p.116).

Individuals have limited understanding of the real relations that structure their existence and the impact of these on specific practices and routines (Sharp, 1981). It is therefore difficult to get at the meaning attributed to events and interactions of the people studied.

It became evident that there were three 'realities' which had to be considered in studying the socialization process. These realities include:

1. The ideology embodied in the program.
2. The conscious ideology verbalized by the student teachers.
3. The unconscious ideology reflected in the practices they follow in the classroom.

"Structures cannot be known through the phenomenal forms of the world of appearances" (Sharp, 1981, p.117). Since there were influences from such external realities as time, policies, and direct orders from the university supervisor, the problem then became "one of ascertaining the structures whose logic produces the world as it is 'experienced' by the actors but is not necessarily 'known' to them" (Sharp, 1981, p.117).

A study of the ideology of the program required an investigation into the goals and philosophies it espoused. It was the ideology which provided the learner with the

structures whose logic produced new meanings for the interactions in the classrooms. This realization necessitated a shift in the orientation of the research to using the central tenets of the pedagogical philosophies as the units that structured the reality experienced by the student teachers. Using this lens for looking at the socialization process, the researcher could determine how much of the program's ideology was known to the students, and how this compared to the ideology reflected in their classroom behaviors. Socialization is not an instantaneous process and attempting to observe its occurrence is fraught with difficulties. It was hoped that by continuing the observations over the full term, while keeping the goals and philosophical framework constant, would yield some relevant data. This hope was squelched when Dr. Miles retired at Christmas time and was replaced by another professor with another set of goals and philosophies of pedagogy. Other decisions and events may have lead to a different set of data.

In summary, the intent of this chapter is to address the possible limitations to the validity of this study which are inherent to the ethnographic method. The discussion investigates sampling and selection, setting and circumstances, the experience and role of the researcher, data collection strategies, and data analysis techniques.

Chapter V

CONTEXTS OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

> " ... just as one comes to identify with a culture and a country, by being immersed in its history and its traditions, so one comes to identify with a field and a profession." (Spodek, 1984, p.30

This chapter outlines the history of early childhood education; describes the four main philosophies as they pertain to education; discusses goals for the preparation of teachers, in general, and early childhood education teachers, in particular; and situates the training program investigated by this study in relation to these philosophical and teleological contexts.

Today a field is deemed to be a profession if it meets the following criteria: it provides essential services to individuals and society informed by a body of knowledge, behaviors, and skills not possessed by nonprofessionals; it requires a time of preparation and induction, determines standards for admission, has relative freedom from on-the-job supervision, and is accountable to the client and profession; and has a professional organization to which society has granted autonomous control of the work and the conditions of the professions (Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark, and Nash, 1976).

Early childhood education has met some of these standards, but it has taken a long time in doing so. The

influence of early advice given to parents and governesses by Plato (450 B.C.) can be seen in the specialized knowledge which some teachers-in-training receive today. The next section will discuss in more detail the history of early childhood education.

1. Historical Context

According to Plato, the essence of education is the shaping of man into his ideal form, with qualities of character including wisdom, temperance, courage, and justice. "A healthy body was deemed essential so sports, games, and designated play were encouraged" (Weber, 1984, p.17). The beginnings are extremely important, as the influence of the sense world is tempered and the rational world of eternal truth is sought. The young are to be surrounded by lofty arts of all kinds, for Plato believed that "good is realized by the continual contemplation of the beautiful and harmonious from the early years" (Weber, 1984, p.18).

In the medieval period, schools were controlled by the early Christian church. Consequently, faith supplanted reason as the goal of education. The basic nature of the child was considered to be evil and not to be trusted. Constant supervision was required and severe discipline in order to attain obedience. Development of the body interfered with the progress of the soul. " The value of education was not for active life in a social setting, but in preparation for life beyond death through embuing the soul with Christian virtues

of faith, hope, charity, and humility" (Weber, 1984, p.20). There was no plan for the education of young children since childhood was not considered to be a distinct stage of life nor a time for effective education.

It wasn't until the Rennaissance (with a revival of the classical spirit of learning) swept Europe that a program for the education of young children was reconsidered. Writing between 1631 and 1657, Comenius (1592-1670), a Moravian bishop, devised a complete system of schooling starting with the early years. The goals of education were to bring children into harmony with their cultural setting and for social reform. In a handbook for mothers and nurses, Comenius outlined a program of education for young children using play, games, rhymes, fairytales, music, and manual activity. He believed that "if we wish man to make great progress in the pursuit of wisdom, we must direct his faculties towards it in infancy" (Weber, 1984, p.22). The senses were to be exercised as children learned to distinguish the objects that surround them. All education should follow the child's natural order of development. One of his books contained illustrations of many objects and was the first picture book for children.

Another major influence on early education originated in the scientific revolution when "traditional authority diminished and faith again rested upon human reason as a source of knowledge, which, in turn, promoted the use of a

controlled method of empirical investigation" (Weber, 1984, p.23). At this time John Locke (1632-1704), influenced by Sir Isaac Newton's belief that the universe could be explained as operating naturally according to fixed, physical laws, scientifically described human nature as fitting into Newton's universe. Locke maintained that ideas originated outside of the child not from a preexistent mind or soul. Since "knowledge came from the impingement of the external world upon the human mind in the form of sensations and perceptions" (Weber, 1984, p.23), more attention was given to educational methods that would develop all of the senses of the child. The qualities to be developed in the child by education were virtue, wisdom, breeding, and learning. Also influenced by the new class based on wealth gained from industry and commerce which was growing in England, Locke espoused a doctrine of liberalism that presaged Rousseau's (1712-1778) more radical ideas.

"Rousseau's treatises broke with two traditions, the classical and the Christian" (Weber, 1984, p.25). He advocated naturalism as opposed to the affectation of a certain type of classicism which blunted individuality, genius, and originality. He also asserted that human nature is essentially good and that the child is born with inherent impulses that are right. His book, Emile, devoted considerable attention to the 'proper' way of training children. Education, for Rousseau, allowed man's goodness to

unfold and full personal development to be achieved through the throwing off of limitations. Since he felt that development of the individual's unique potentialities is the basis for restructuring society toward a freer, more progressive sense of harmony, the individual had to be a thinking person. Rather than teaching the child truths, he deemed it better to show him how to set about discovering them for himself (Rousseau, 1911). His emphasis on the child's need for self-expression and learning through experience instead of by rote was further developed by the work of such people as Pestalozzi (1746-1827) in Switzerland, Froebel (1782-1852) in Germany, Montessori (1870-1952) in Italy, and later, of John Dewey (1859-1952) in America (Read, 1956).

Pestalozzi, a German, wrote about education and developed a series of 'object lessons' to "acquaint the child with the basic elements of form, language, and number and to enlist the child's natural propensity for action" (Weber, 1984, p.30). The child's natural instincts were the motives for learning. Instruction was to be adapted to the individual child. Every child, male or female, rich or poor had the right to develop his or her capabilities. The whole of society could be transformed by helping the individual to help himself. Pestalozzi's school in Yverdon, Switzerland was visited by educators and statesmen interested in new methods. One such visitor in 1807 was Froebel, an educator from

Germany.

While others realized that young children had to be part of the educational plan to develop the ideal man, Fredrich Froebal focused on developing a curriculum for the early years. The kindergarten program was informed by "lines of liberal thought favoring the natural rights of man, individual freedom, and humanitarian and democratic ideals" (Weber, 1984, p.34). In 1826 his book The Education of Man was based on his continued nonscientific observation of children and was intended for direct work with children. Uppermost in Froebel's thinking was the guarding and vigilent protection of the tender 'bud' of a child. He elevated play to the highest phase of human development, as the perfect medium for 'self-activity' by which he did not mean self-initiation. "To be self-active the inner self needed to be engaged in doing something that was an outward form of inner tendencies" (Weber, 1984, p.37). Play materials were important not only for the knowledge to be gained by the senses but in the symbollic perceptions of unity, relations, connections, and diversity the objects suggested. For example the ball symbolized the concepts of divine, all inclusive unity. When the German government banned his kindergartens because they were too revolutionary, they were transplanted to England and later to the United States. "Many German students trained directly in Froebelian principles and methods came to America and were able to demonstrate the

precise procedures" (Weber, 1984, p.43). In the 1870s and 1880s frequent addresses were given to explain the characteristics and educational value of Froebel's program to members of the National Education Association.

In the United States at the time there was a humanitarian concern for the squalor in which some children lived. Educating the young was viewed as a means of alleviating such social problems by Montessori in Italy and the Head Start programs in America. The kindergarten also gained in popularity because it was viewed by many as a way to start the young child on the 'right' path in life.

Following the publication in 1859 of Darwin's The Origin of Species reliance on an intuitively discerned logic of things and events was replaced by a faith in scientific observation and objectivity. Around the turn of the century the early childhood education programs based on Froebelian pedagogy underwent changes as a consequence of the scientific work of such people as Stanley Hall, John Dewey, and Edward Thorndike. "The results of objective child study became a recognized part of education and formed the basis for teacher training at the early childhood level" (Weber, 1984, p.8).

Another major movement which influenced early childhood education in North America was that of the English infant schools. Robert Owen started a school for the children of workers at his mills in 1816. When infant schools were first started in England and later in North America (1825), no

formal training program existed for the personnel. The principal method of training prospective teachers consisted of visiting other programs and reading the manuals written to explain the infant school program to the novice. The first manual was published in North America by Joanna Bethune in 1827. However, the goal of this training was not for the purpose of preparing personnel to work in any setting other than the infant schools. The trend of "in-house" training continued through the nineteenth century (Pence, 1986).

Today, too, "early childhood personnel are prepared in a number of programs with different kinds of departments in a variety of institutions" (Spodek and Saracho, 1982, p.403), ranging from social services and medical agencies, teacher training programs, psychology departments, and technical-institutes (Katz, 1984).

Typically, kindergarten and elementary teachers are prepared in three to four year colleges and universities within departments of education. These programs lead to a bachelor's degree and a teacher's certificate. On the other hand, some day-care workers are prepared in the two-year colleges that emphasize a child development tradition. Other day-care personnel do not receive any formal training at all. Teachers in part-time nursery schools may come from either tradition and experience various certification requirements imposed on them by government regulating bodies (Spodek and Saracho, 1982). Together, these varied programs prepare early

childhood personnel to work in an equally varied range of settings with various program goals and philosophies (Katz, 1984).

2. Philosophical Context

Among philosophies that have influenced education in North America are four particularly relevant to E.C.E.: Idealism, realism, pragmatism, and existentialism. The first two are traditional while the latter two are contemporary (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1988). A brief overview of each of these philosophies will be used to orient the main strands of early childhood education as it is known today.

Idealist philosophy was first formulated by Plato. Hegel based his view of the world in idealism. According to this view "truth and values are seen as absolute, timeless, and universal. The world of mind and ideas is permanent, regular, and orderly; it represents a perfect order" (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1988, p.29). Since knowledge is thought to be latent in the mind, teaching involves bringing this knowledge to consciousness. Education is concerned with conceptual matters, recognizing relationships between concepts and ideas, and integrating concepts to each other. In education, Fredrich Froebel (1782-1852), the founder of kindergarten, and William Harris , who popularized the Froebelian kindergarten in the 1870's, both were proponents of idealist pedagogy.

Aristotle is linked to the development of realism which

begins with concrete objects and ends with abstract concepts. The world is viewed in terms of objects and matter, and can be known through the senses and reason. Everything is derived from nature and is subject to its laws. Reality and truth emanate from both science and art. Pestalozzi (1746-1827) based his principles of instruction on realism. For him the educational process should be based on the natural development of the child and his/her sensory influences. Educators were to be "loving persons, to provide emotional security, trust, and affection toward children ... and to consider the auditory and visual senses in the teaching process" (Ornstein and Hutchins, 1988, p.59). Montessori (1870-1952) based her training programs for both children and personnel on a realist philosophy. In the 1960's, both Pestalozzi's and Montessori's ideas had a strong impact on the development of compensatory education and Project Headstart. (Ornstein and Hutchins, 1988).

The third philosophy is pragmatism or experimentalism which construes knowledge as a process in which reality is constantly changing. Learning is one of the outcomes of problem solving and knowing is a transaction between the learner and the environment. The truth has to be proven in relation to facts, experience, and/or behavior. Teaching and learning is a process of reconstructing experience according to the scientific method. In North America the great educational pragmatist was John Dewey (1859-1952), who

stressed problem solving, using the scientific method, minimizing the demarcation between school and society, and preparing the student for life's affairs and for the future. (Ornstein and Hutchins, 1988). Due to their emphasis on the scientific method and the transactions between the learner and the environment, behaviorism and constructivism could be considered to be pragmatic educational theories.

Existentialism, mainly a European philosophy originating before the turn of the century, stresses individualism, self-determination, and personal self-fulfillment. Education is a process of developing consciousness about freedom to choose and the meaning and responsibility for one's choices. Few standards, customs or traditions, or eternal truths are recognized, rather the learner must determine what is true and by what criteria to determine these truths. The curriculum consists of experiences and subjects that lend themselves to dialogue, choice making and self-expression (Ornstein and Hutchins, 1988). While a single school of early childhood education is not identified with the existential philosophy, its influence can be seen in the work done by such humanists as Carl Rogers and Arthur Combs, and such reformists as John Holt, Paul Goodman, A.S. Neill, and Ivan Illich.

Some Philosophies of Early Childhood Education

Usually teacher education is provided by entire programs which are informed by one or more philosophies of education.

Spodek and Saracho (1982) report a lack of uniformity in the preparation early childhood personnel receive. They cite Atkin and Rath's (1974) findings:

> "They found institutions that supported multiple approaches, each based on a-different conception of teaching and teacher education. ... Individual institutions also fostered particular models of teacher education" (p.416).

These models include performance or competency-based teacher education at the University of Houston, a person-centered approach at the State University of New York at Cortland, and a humanistic program at the University of Florida. These newer approaches were found to be juxtaposed with traditional programs with a broad liberal education base.

While the label given to a program does not always reflect its true nature, three main philosophies of teacher education for the early years can be identified. One could be considered "people teaching" as described by Arthur Combs (1972) for whom teacher education is a process of personal becoming, the student is aided in using him or herself as a professional educator. Another philosophy is concerned with imparting the "science" of teaching and managing young children in a group setting. With roots in experimental psychology the academic program focuses on theoretical and philosophical propositions combined with practical experiences in using technical skills (Dewey, 1926). The third philosophy could be considered to have a "functional"

orientation. The teacher's role is defined in terms of competencies to be demonstrated by the students whose performance is guided by feedback. Completion requirements are emphasized and students are held accountable for performance (Elam, 1971).

The Philosophy of the Program Studied

The program investigated by this study is not based on one philosophical orientation rather is influenced by aspects of the four major philosophies with the greatest impact from pragmatism and existentialism. Influences from the following philosophies can be identified in the program:

(1) Idealism with its emphasis on recognizing relationships and integrating concepts to each other;

(2) Realism, which states that people come to know the world through their senses and their reason;

(3) Pragmatism with the notion that learning is a transaction between the learner and the environment and that teaching is more exploratory than explanatory; and

(4) Existentialism with its focus on freeing the learner, individualism, and "experiences and subjects that lend themselves to philosophical dialogue and acts of choice making" (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1988)

While the program investigated by this study has influences from numerous pedagogical philosophies, perceptual

humanism was presented to the curriculum class as the guiding philosophy. Arthur Combs researched this "people teaching" philosophy at the University of Florida. Perceptual humanism will be described in detail in the next chapter.

3. Teleological Context

The philosophy of an educational program influences the goals and informs the organization of the curriculum (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1988). All programs of early childhood education socialize participants toward a common purpose of working with young children. On successful completion of a training program participants are (hopefully) ready to begin their involvement in the education of young children.

There are several goals for this initial phase of the socialization process. According to Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark, and Nash (1976), this phase assures society that the teacher-in-training "possesses the minimum competencies needed for successful teaching. A teaching certificate attests that professionals have a `safe level' of beginning teaching skills" (in Spodek, 1982, p.406). In Spodek's (1974) view the candidate should possess a combination of "empirical knowledge of the field with an acceptable value framework" (p. 107). The successful completion of this preliminary phase of the socialization process signals the entry into the profession of E.C.E.

A second goal of this part of the socalization process is to protect the practitioner and the client (Haberman and

Stinnett, 1973). Spodek (1982) cites their statement that "the public is guaranteed quality of service ... and the practitioner is protected against competition from the unqualified" (p.406). Katz (1980) distinguishes between the qualified and unqualified on the basis of rationality versus spontaneity of action. In her view the training phase increases the tendency of the practitioner to consistently base his/her practice on rational judgement rather than spontaneous responses. Thus, socialization of early childhood education workers is important not only in preparing the individual but also in protecting the profession and society.

While the 'official' goals of a training program are to impart sufficient knowledge of the field and provide an opportunity to practice the skills needed to begin working with young children, the outcome of the training is greatly affected by the viewpoints of the participants. That is, how they learn and the extent to which they internalize that which they are taught influence the outcomes of the socialization process. The perspectives of the teachers-in-training, and the meaning which they attribute to their experiences, color the impact of the official ideology and influence how socialization takes place for the individual.

Goals of the Program Studied

"Education, then, is seen as the continuing reconstruction of experience; and the process and the goal of education are one and the same thing." John Dewey, 1900

The central goal, which was also the process, of the early childhood education program at the University of Manitoba was to prepare the participants to become teachers of young children. This goal was expressed in distinct ways by the two curriculum professors, Dr. Miles and Dr. Swift. These goals in turn reflected the pedagogical philosophies informing each professor's version of the curriculum class.

That is, the curriculum course and the practicum offered the student teachers an opportunity to become socialized into early childhood education. The official socialization goals were presented in the curriculum class; the dialogues and assignments helped the student teachers to make sense of these goals; and the practicum provided the chance to put these goals into practice in a nursery classroom.

The goals of the curriculum class in the first semester were given to the student teachers in a two page handout titled: Early Childhood: Curriculum and Practicum. "Communicating effectively with all those who are concerned with the educational experiences of the young child (two to five years of age)" (C. CL., p. 135), the stated purpose of the course, was discussed in the handout under several headings:

(1) The teacher as a personality

(2) The teacher and the children

(3) Making a match with young children's experiences

- How to extend home experiences into the classroom

- How to extend classroom learning experiences into the homes

(4) Informing parents about school experiences

(5) Evaluating young children's learning experiences

(6) Informing the public and supporting the significance of school experiences for the young children

The program, during the first term, was organized to provide learning experiences which help to bring the participants closer to achieving these goals. These learning experiences required the teachers-in-training to understand and to identify their beliefs, attitudes and values as well as to learn child development, to set up the learning environment, to evaluate the learning experiences, to communicate with parents and the general public.
Their understanding of child development focused "not on what the behaviour of a certain age group is, but on changing behaviour" (C. Cl., p.12). In other words, the student teachers underwent a process of learning to use their selves professionally, a concept borrowed from perceptual humanism, in a learner centered way.

During the second semester, Dr Swift presented his goals to the curriculum class in the form of a course outline. According to this handout the course was

> "supposed to help you to notice and respond to the behaviour and needs of young children more skillfully than you already do. The course is also supposed to help you to become better at managing

> children in groups. In working toward these goals, you can also evaluate how much you actually enjoy working with young children for extended periods of time (C. Cl., p.173).

These purposes give a general statement of what the student teachers will be helped to learn:

(1) To improve skill in noticing and responding to children

(2) Skill in better management of groups of children

(3) Whether they enjoy working with young children

The assignments guide and ensure participation in specific learning experiences as a means of reaching these goals.The student teachers are asked to:

(1) Open and maintain written files on each child. These files are to contain information specified by the professor.

(2) Keep a daily planning book of activities they intend to do, include the materials needed, an evaluation of how the activity turned out, and recommendations for the future.

(3) Write a final test which required a synthesis of the skills developed by (1) and (2).

(4) Participate in class as appropriate.

In comparing the goals of the first and second semester and how they were discussed by the professor, the value framework underlying the curriculum class and practicum becomes evident. On the one hand, Dr. Miles, focused her goals and comments on the process of 'becoming' an E.C.E.

teacher using dialogue, choice-making, and self-expression as her pedagogical method. Regarding the outline, she stated that " We won't go through it systematically. They are so interrelated that we will be doing all of them together" (C. Cl., p. 11). The topics assignments emerged out of the dialogues. Cheryl described the structure as "flowing out of what we talked about". Dr. Miles spoke of grades and evaluation disdainfully. "For so long we've talked about grades that we're engraded. We behave according to our grades" (C.Cl., p.12). Her method for arriving at the grades was shared with the student teachers only after they had asked for it.

Dr. Swift, on the other hand, seemed more concerned with imparting the "science" of teaching. He emphasized managing children in a group setting, covering the content by doing assignments, and evaluating the quality of these are completed by the student teachers. In talking about the outline, he stated that he'd "like to cover these topics every day" (C. Cl., p. 145). His evaluation method was presented in the outline. His attitude towards grades was reflected in his comment "I have to give marks to individuals" (C. Cl., p. 145). When asked if he would give evaluations on the practicum, he said "It may be valuable for you to have this when looking for work" (C. Cl., p.145). This stands in direct contrast to Dr. Miles' response to the student teachers' second request for an evaluation method "I

think we're here for learning" (C. Cl., p.49). While the assignments and content were similar for each term, they were presented, talked about, and valued differently.

Cheryl describes the difference between first and second term goals and objectives in the following way:

> Dr. Miles is well researched. You know where she stands. Her structure is theoretical, child-oriented, and flows out of what we've talked about. The nursery classrooms and activities are organized for the children and where they are at now developmentally. Groups are not forced. The children are free to choose whether to join a group or not. Dr. Swift is more organized and keeps the students organized. His goals and objectives are based on more practical stuff. He sees the room and activities as preparing the child for higher learning. The teacher structures the group. Groups are okay.

Different pedagogical goals espoused by the professors is noticed by the student teachers. Participants are able to talk about the contrasting approaches used by the professors in organizing the course. The extent of these influences on the socialization process will be described in the next chapter.

In summary, this chapter accomplishes three purposes. First, a look at the history of early childhood education shows that our notion about the nature of the child, the goals of education, and methods used to teach children has changed over the centuries. The goals and philosophies of early childhood education are sensitive to the changing historical contexts. Second, a survey of the main western

philosophies of education shows that the world view, notion of truth, knowledge, and learning impact the educational process. Third, the goals and objectives of an E.C.E. program take on more meaning when viewed in the context of the historical time period and philosophical orientation of a program. This larger meaning however is articulated and enacted differently by different people. The next chapter will investigate these two levels of meaning.

CHAPTER VI

THE EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION PROGRAM

This chapter serves three functions. First, it summarizes the ideology on which the early childhood education program is based as stated by the philosophy informing the curriculum class. Next, it shows the program participants making sense of the pedagogical philosophy in their curriculum class assignments and dialogues and the informants' answers to interview questions. Thirdly, descriptions of interactions in the curriculum and nursery classes show how the student teachers translate these meanings into their day-to-day practices. In this way, the three levels of meaning which participants attribute to the socialization process of the early childhood education program are described.

This chapter integrates written observations from the two settings, curriculum class (C.Cl.) and nursery class (N.Cl.), with the student-teacher interviews (I.). The exact words of the participants and quotations from the handouts are used whenever possible.

The chapter begins with a presentation of the assumptions on which the philosophy is based. This information is obtained from two sources: the handouts distributed to the curriculum class students and from

material written by Arthur Combs (1974). Then interactions in the curriculum and nursery classes are described as they pertain to the philosophical assumptions. Comments made by the student teachers during the interviews are included in the description. These delve into the meaning the student teachers attribute to in-class discussions. Observations from the nursery class are included in order to provide cases that do or do not illustrate practice based on the philosophical assumptions.

While there are many factors contributing to the student teachers' socialization into the profession of teaching, the combined influence of the curriculum class and the practicum in the final year is important. One of the key elements of this influence is the philosophy of the curriculum class. This study focuses on the manifest pedagogical philosophy, perceptual humanism, as developed by Arthur Combs (1974).

1. The Ideology of the Curriculum Class and Practicum

This study examines the events of the curriculum and practicum of the early childhood education program as they pertain to the five assumptions of perceptual humanism. A summary of these assumptions (Appendix B) was given to the students as a handout during the first curriclum class. The five basic assumptions are:

1. The 'self as instrument concept' of professional education sees the

production of effective professional workers as a problem in becoming.

2. Students take responsibility and are self directed.
3. Flexibility is maximized.
4. There is a close relationship of didactic instruction to practical experience.
5. Relation of learning to need (Combs, 1974)

In the following section the field notes will be analyzed using these five assumptions.

2. Perceptual Humanism

To begin the process of 'becoming' an early childhood educator, a list of forty beliefs (Appendix C) was mailed to the students who were enrolled in the E.C.E. program. The student teachers were asked to read and rate the forty beliefs according to their personal experiences. From this base of personal experience, the student teachers engaged in the process researched and explained by Arthur Combs. This process of examining personal values, beliefs and attitudes helped the student teachers learn to use their 'self' as an instrument of instruction in the classroom.

This personal analysis was throughout the first term. During the first meeting before classes began in September the students are asked to rate themselves using another instrument: Matching Goals and/or Objectives with Beliefs (see Appendix A).

3. The Five Basic Assumptions

1. <u>The 'self as instrument concept' of professional education sees the production of effective professional workers as a problem in becoming.</u>

With the first basic assumption in view, the set of forty beliefs (see Appendix C) served as a catalyst and guide for the self-directed exploration of the 'self as instrument'. According to this concept,

> "an effective teacher is one who has learned how to use himself and his knowledge of children and subject matter to accomplish the purposes of schooling. The task of the college is not to teach the right ways to teach; rather, it is to help the student discover his own best ways of operating" (Combs, 1974, p.517).

Through clarifying their beliefs about teaching, the participants begin the final year of the formal socialization process which Combs refers to as the "problem of becoming".

Frequently in the curriculum class, Dr. Miles initiated an analysis of the topics discussed in class using the forty beliefs and the goals and objectives as the framework. The resultant dialogues encouraged the student teachers to think about their experiences. This clarified the meaning the students attributed to events of the curriculum class. For example, near the end of the third curriculum class, the students were asked to "reflect on the entire

discussion and analyze it in terms of objectives. What objective have we looked at today" (C. Cl., p. 31)? In response everyone scanned their set of goals and objectives. Then the students read out an objective and explained the part of the discussion to which it related.

> Debbie: Number 7...We have been looking at "consistently recording and interpreting observed behavior".
> Tanya: Number 11...We've looked at "becoming aware of a mother's perceptions of her children and checking out these perceptions".
> Dr. Miles: Numbers 12 and 16...We've examined listening to children to understand their intent and "identifying concepts which are within a young child's experiential background".
> Jill: Number 23...We've talked about "Acting as a partner,a guide, a supporter in children's learning experiences".
> Brian: Number 20...We've looked at "Identifying materials which will help children to interact with information which is related to specific concepts".
> (C.Cl., p.31-32)

In this way the student teachers learned to match goals and objectives with beliefs and integrate them into the curriculum class discussions. This formed part of the process of learning to use the self as instrument in becoming professionals.

Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1983) and Lanier and Little (1986) looked at the expectations of students when they enter a professional faculty of a university. They found that "students coming to think, feel, and act like teachers do not assume the importance of the studies" (p. 543). That

is, students entering the faculty of education for the most part feel that what they will be learning at the university is of limited consequence to their career as a teacher. While "students in other professions enter with the belief that they have much to learn" (p.543). These expectations predetermine the students' attitudes toward their studies and, in turn, the outcomes.

A review of the field notes from the curriculum class and the transcripts of the interviews show that the teachers-in-training hold a variety of expectations of the university program. The expectations relate to the students' experiences with children before they entered the program.

Two students indicated that their experiences in their families had influenced their decision to enter the program. One had an handicapped brother and expected to learn a great deal about children and how to work with them. This enthusiam brought on such complaints from one of her teammates as:

> "One of my team members follows everything that Dr. Miles says to the letter, as if that were the only way to do things" (Int., p. 109).

This student sustained her efforts towards implementing the child-centered approach even during the second term when the professor then espoused another philosophy of education.

A second student grew up in a family that included foster children. She had participated in caring for these

children. Her expectation of the course as expressed in an interview in December was that "there is a lot to learn!" (Int., p.47). When asked to be more specific she stated:

> "I reflect on things more. When I'm with the children I remember things that were discussed in various classes and information from reading and try to apply them...Before leaving a situation, I try to think of a way to expand on the learning or to develop the child's idea more" (Int., p.48).

This student's expectations were translated into such activities as:

* writing detailed plans for every day and reflecting on how they worked in the nursery classroom,
* doing extra reading to gather new ideas,
* reflecting on what she was doing with the children and coming back to do things differently.

When she looked back on the year, she thought that she had indeed learned a great deal.

Another student had worked in daycares for several summers and liked the idea of having the responsibility for the nursery children. She expected to use this chance to explore a variety of projects with the children and to create an environment where the children could be creative. Although, she was vocal in her criticism of the program, she

participated actively in planning and implementing activities with the children throughout the program.

Two other students were mothers and had learned about how to deal with children from parenting. One had worked as a teacher's aid for six years, had seen a number of different teaching approaches and had collected a number of ideas from watching teachers. However, she stated that she "had expected to get more from the program ... I don't know what, but I just know there is more" (Int., p.109). Later, in the interview the more she wanted to teach the children included colours, numbers, and letters. She disagreed with the idea that children learn through play. "I just don't believe that is enough for the children" (Int., p.110). This student-teacher graduated from the program feeling relieved that she was through and dissatisfied because she had not learned what she had anticipated learning in the program.

The other student had learned about children from parenting and from working as an aid in a nursery program. She said that she went into the program rather "blindly".

> I thought, well you know this is the area I wanted to go into and hopefully it will be what I expect. But I had no idea what it was going to be like" (Int., p.15).

Later, she spoke of the attitudes of her friends in other programs who regard early childhood education as a

> "...babysitting set-up. That you weren't really accomplishing much with it. You can't do much with that particular age" (Int., p.17).

However, in spite of her peer's attitudes, she felt that the program would give her further information, insight and understanding of how to work with young children. At the end of the program she felt that she had learned a great deal and that she still had more to learn.

Yet another student decided to enter the program because she was in the education faculty and a close friend was going to specialize in early childhood education for the final year. She expected to go through the process in order to get her credentials and then teach young children. By the time January arrived she had decided that she wasn't interested in working with preschool aged children. At that point she practically withdrew from any active physical involvement with the planning, the activities, and the children in her classroom. In April when asked about applying for teaching positions, she said that she "didn't even know how to go about doing it" (Int., p.81). A comment from one of her team mates reflected the situation with "This program is the final framing of our career. It would be awful to come this far and find out that the program hasn't worked for you ... like some of the students" (Int., p.107).

An eighth student entered the program because she enjoyed being in the presence of young children. She had no

clear idea of where she wanted to work. She came each day to the nursery classes with little or no advance preparation. Her focus was on showing affection to the children and on helping the children get along with each other. During the first two and last three observations, this student spent much of her time organizing and cleaning the room. She did not join her team mates in January when they met to rearrange the nursery classroom. With regard to the assignments in the second term of the curriculum class, she said "I'm never sure of what we are supposed to be doing and the purpose for them" (N. Cl., p.73). In short, she did what she thought was expected of her and nothing more. During one of the last interviews with her, she stated that she "could have learned the same amount by working in a daycare, without the coursework " (Int., p.83).

These descriptions show the diversity of the expectations which student bring to this early childhood education program. It appears that those students who have clarified their reasons for entering the program and who expect the program to contribute a great deal to their learning perceive the program in a positive way. Those students who have not clearly defined their goals and expectations of the program view their experiences as inconsequential to their socialization process.

The manner in which each student teacher used his\her self in the nursery classroom was observed over the

duration of the University term. Initially, the student teacher informants participated in child-initiated activities with little or no previous planning and predetermined structure for the activities. The children are asked many questions and directives are virtually nonexistant.

> Jill is sitting cross-legged on the floor in the block area.
> One boy is facing her with a container of blocks in the shape of animal parts. Another boy joins them sitting to the left of the first boy and facing Jill.
> Jill: What kind of animal are you making?
> Boy #2: A cow.
> Jill to #1: What are you making?
> Boy #1: A cow with a long nose. He watches #2 walk his cow away from them, then, toward his cow. The cows collide.
> Boy #2: I knocked his head off.
> Boy #1: Hey look.
> Boy #2: Anybody have a piece this can go on?
> Jill: I don't know. There are some more in the box there.
> (N. Cl., p.1)

Before this fall, Jill stated that she thought that the teacher should initiate the activities and predetermine what the children are going to do. At the time of the first observation she said that she was consciously allowing the child to think of the activities. Initially, her explanation for the change in her ability to work with children related to a new way of seeing and understanding children.

> From the way the curriculum class was set up I have learned a lot about another perspective on how to work with children in a way that respects their feelings and

> needs. I've learned how to teach things in a way that doesn't include lecturing and which is less structured.... I have learned to guide the children's learning using questions (Int., p.93).

She said in an interview that the child's satisfaction was more important than the teacher's expectation. The process for the child, she stated, was more important than the final product. For these reasons she created an atmosphere in which the child felt free to explore and initiate his/her own learning.

The researcher asked Jill and Cheryl separately how they know when to change from one activity to the next and how they select the next activity. Their responses showed that they as student-teachers were using their selves as instruments to promote the children's learning. Cheryl articulated three factors which guided her behavior:

i. When a child is in trouble

ii. When the group playing together isn't getting along

iii. At other times, I'll change activities when I feel that its the right time.

She stated that they "don't plan it ahead of time. (They) just go to where ever (they) are needed" (N. Cl., p.22).

Jill, on the other hand, said that she went where the kids asked her to go.

Jill: Like this morning when we came back

> from the gym. They wanted snack, so I got the stuff for snack. Then afterwards, Ken and Lyle wanted me to come to the art area with them, so I went there. I stayed with them until someone else asked me for something.
> Researcher: So you follow the lead of the children?
> Jill: Yes, I sort of go with the flow. I just go along with the children where ever they go and do whatever they are doing (Int., p.23)

She was using her evolving professional "self" and her knowledge of children to accomplish the purposes of schooling in a different way.

By the middle of the second term Jill's behaviour in the nursery class had changed. She came to class with specific activities planned for the children to do. She was explicit and directive in contrast to letting the children guide the direction of her instruction. For example, she began to ask the children to gather into a group to participate. While she retained a sensitivity to the children, her pre-planned agenda took precedence.

> Everyone come over to the block area. Jill has drawn and cut out a mother kangaroo with a cut in her front to represent a pocket.
> Jill: Let's play "pin the baby on the kangaroo". (She hangs the mother kangaroo on the bulletin board.) Who wants to be first?
> Everyone rushes to be 'it'. Jill ties a blind fold over the eyes of one child then turns him while counting "One, two three".
> Jill: Okay now, walk straight ahead.
> The child walks blindfolded to the kangaroo and tries to
> pin the baby on the mother. (N. Cl., p.63)

Jill's actual behaviour in the nursery class contrasts with her description of what she does with the children. During the second term her day to day practices in the nursery class appeared to reflect her initial belief that the teacher should initiate the activities.

Cheryl's explanation of the sources of her own changes in her ability to work with children offer some further insight into the student-teachers' varying behaviour.

> The strongest influence on the change in my ability to work with young children has to do with having more experience in dealing with the level of children's competencies. As a consequence I have more understanding of how to approach children's learning. For example, I now know how to communicate with children and I find it much easier now than at the beginning of the term (Int., p.83).

Cheryl cited four other influences on her changing ability to use her 'self' as instrument in the nursery classroom:

> I've also learned by watching how my partners do it and hearing how other people from the curriculum class do it from the stories they tell. Also, the examples given verbally by the professors in the class. ... I learn the most from actually doing it (Int., p.83).

The student teachers attribute their changing ability to use the 'self' as instrument to many influences in both the curriculum and nursery classrooms.

<u>2. Student responsibility and self direction.</u>

The second basic assumption requires that "students be given maximum responsibility for their own learning and the greatest possible opportunities for self direction" (Appendix B). Accordingly, the participants decided who their team mates would be, which nursery locale each team would have, how to organize their nursery classroom, how they would set up the first meeting with the children and their parents and how to operate their nursery classrooms. Most questions regarding how any of these would be done, was answered at the time with a further question from the instructor. However, later the underlying topic of the concern would be incorporated into discussions and assignments.

This assumption is based on a belief that they, the students, were capable of self-direction and making intelligent choices. They were directly involved in decision-making for the curriculum class. Dr. Miles conveyed this message during the first meeting of the class. She distributed a 'course outline' (Appendix D) consisting of a list of topics to be covered by the course, while asking:

> " Is there anything you want to say about the outline? You are making the decisions now" (C. Cl., p.11).

With this combined question and statement, Dr. Miles inferred that they were capable of determining the direction of their course and the topics they would cover in it.

Not only did they decide where they would do their

practicum (their choice being limited by the available schools found by the instructor) and with whom, but also the day-to-day decisions of setting up and operating the nursery class were theirs to make. On the morning Dr. Miles wanted them to finalize their decision regarding the membership of the teams, and the time and location of their nursery class, she left the room saying:

> "In the past, I've found that when I stay in the room when the students were making these important decisions, they try to get me to make the decisions for them. To keep that from happening, I will leave the room while you work it out for yourselves. How long do you think you will need?" (C. Cl., p.33)

The salient message of this approach was that they could be relied on to deal constructively with this situation.

By discussing the underlying rationale for activities, the student teachers were more able to intelligently direct their own learning. The following dialogue is representative of this approach:

> "Dr. Miles: Now I probably haven't touched any of your interests today. How many of you have been wanting me to say something about nurseries you will be setting up?
> (The students at this point begin talking with each other.)
> Dr. Miles: We will know more before next Monday. How many are flexible?
> Student: So there isn't anything we can do.
> Dr. Miles: Yes, there is. You will be going to visit the parents and the children. Why?
> Jill: So we get to see the children in their own

environment.
Dr. Miles: What does this mean for the child?
Student: So we can meet the child on his own terms.
Dr. Miles: When he comes to school you won't be strangers to him. But what will you do?
Student: Go have coffee with the parents.
Student: Let the child talk.
Dr. Miles: What kind of questions will you ask the parents?" (C. Cl., p.23)

In this way the participants were encouraged to explore their first meeting with the children and their parents in advance. The meeting was organized entirely by the students. They took full responsibility for it.

The extent of their self direction was evident when two groups of students decided to invite the parents and children to the school for this first visit. Although, this decision was contrary to the direction explored by the members of the class, it was accepted by the curriculum class instructor.

In order to be responsible for their own learning and to be self directed they had to acquire knowledge relevant to the solution of problems. The second major assignment illustrates the way the students did this. While introducing the assignment, Dr. Miles suggested that they would have to do some exploring for themselves.

> Dr. Miles: "Next week, I want you to illustrate the concept of water so that children can understand it. You may have to go to the sink and play around a bit. The reason I'm asking you to do this is because the water tables I see are so full of things that I don't know what the

> children will learn about water (C.Cl., p.39).

The following week the students brought in containers of water and the equipment needed to demonstrate the concept of water they wanted children to learn. Each student solved this problem independently.

The solutions included:

- a budgie windmill to show the force of moving water on the wheel
- squeeze bottles to illustrate water under pressure
- sugar cubes to be immersed in water to explore the nature of erosion
- a number of objects ranging in weight from heavy to light to discover the concepts of sinking and floating
- a small boat with a paddle wheel to show how objects move in water

Every student solved the problem in a different way and had acquired the knowledge relevant to their individual solutions.

Dr. Miles relied on the students to introduce water and its properties to their nursery classrooms as an outcome of this assignment. During a later curriculum class, all of the students included a water center in the floorplan of their future nursery classroom. Although it was never

explicitly stated that children learn from water play, this exploration of teaching the concepts of water encouraged the student teachers to incorporate a water center in the nursery classroom.

This philosophy of giving to the students maximum responsibility for their own learning and the greatest opportunities for self-direction was evident in the nursery classrooms as well. The children were free to leave one activity and to join another without consulting with the student teachers. When a child did ask to paint, spread his/her own peanut butter, join a game, read a certain book or sing a specific song, this request was granted. During every visit to the nursery classroom, groups and individual children who were directing their own activities could be seen.

> Three of the younger children are alone in the block area. They have positioned the blocks of varying heights in such a way that a pathway is set up. The children then use this path as a type of balance beam on which they can develop their distance (height) perception and their sense of balance. Each time that they add more blocks to the path, they check out how the additions 'feel' underfoot. This activity is continued for over thirty minutes without any input from the student-teachers (N. Cl., p.17).

These children had set up their own learning situation and continued to make alterations to it in a self-directed manner. During a later visit to the classroom, a group of the

older children were observed enacting a visit to the doctor.

> Patient: Doctor I've got a bad eye.
> Doctor: (Carrying a play stethroscope in his right hand) Come into my office.
> The patient climbs on top of a table while the doctor looks through the end of the instrument at her eye.
> Doctor: Let me hold your hand.
> He takes a blood pressure gauge from a case and begins to wrap it around the patient's arm.
> Patient: This is how it goes. (She helps to wrap it around her arm and closes it)
> Doctor: Let me do it. You'r not the doctor! (He takes a pair of glasses from the bag and places them on her) Here these will help.
> The patient then climbs down.
> Doctor: See you old lady. (He picks up a hat and places it on the patient's head) Here you need this to keep you warm.
> That patient leaves and another patient who has been waiting climbs up to sit on the table (N. Cl., p.33).

It is by way of dramatic play that young children learn about their world and the various roles that adults play in it. The environment in the nursery classroom and its equipment enabled the children to take responsibility for and to direct this learning.

There were, however, some activities for which the children took neither self direction nor responsibility. These activities included clean-up and getting ready to go home. In most instances the student teachers had to ask the children to help put the toys away and to put their coats on to go home. The children had preferred activities in which they participated.

3. Maximum flexibility

The third assumption refers to the flexibility which teacher education programs must have in order to adjust to the needs of students who "come with varying backgrounds, experience, and widely divergent needs" (Combs, 1974, p.518). The program must permit a wide variation in instruction and in rate of progress. This flexibility is evident in the articulation of the curriculum class assignments, the range of acceptable responses, and the way in which the students reported their work.

Included in the range of assignments given to the students of the curriculum class were: reading an article and reporting the main ideas to the rest of the class, analyzing the class discussions using the beliefs and objectives, making a puzzle which could be used by children of different ages, and developing observation skills. The students approached these assignments in their own way with the understanding that there was not one right answer, and their reports on their assignments were done using a discussion format. Dr. Miles guided the students' inquiry by asking questions, rather than giving the desired answers.

In a discussion of the handout "working towards democratic behavior" (Appendix E) Dr. Miles initiated an analysis of independent behavior which was being encouraged in the nursery classrooms. The following excerpts from the

discussion which ensued illustrate the consideration given to the varying backgrounds of the students:

> "Dr. Miles: In what ways do you encourage independent behavior in your nurseries?
> Jill: The children are able to be independent in their participation in group activities. There are some things we initiate. Some choose not to participate. They're allowed not to.
> Brian: They are able to move freely in the room.
> Student: At snack time?
> Dr. Miles: Are they independent at snack time? Do they have a choice?
> Student to Jill: How does snack get to the table?
> Jill: We have helpers...snack helpers.
> Student: The children are allowed to hand out things that they can handle like the cups and serviettes.
> Dr. Miles: What would have to be handed out by the teachers? What else can the children do? What about the peanut butter and the crackers? How would the children know that the snack is there without announcing it (C. Cl., p. 71)?

Thus the dialogue proceeded, with the instructor asking questions of the students with the awareness that each student would respond differently due to the variation in backgrounds and needs. At this point, the instructor pursued the question of values and how they affect decisions made in the nursery classroom.

> Dr. Miles: In what activities do teachers want their children to be independent in the classroom?
> Jill: In going to the bathroom.

> Kathy: Getting dressed to go home.
> Dr. Miles: One mother used getting dressed as a time for intimate conversation. On what do you focus when getting the child dressed? We don't value it very highly as a process like getting the children to participate in their own snack. What other activity do we value as a process for the children to participate in?
> Debra: Clean-up. Children should learn to clean up.
> Dr. Miles: If children learn to clean up, why do we have so many coffee cups around the lounge?
> Cheryl: It also depends on what is being reinforced at home -- children may or may not participate in clean-up.
> Sharon: If clean-up is fun. If it is made into a game... Dr. Miles: Which do you value more -- playtime or clean-up time? What happens when children want to play right until their mother arrives? Maybe there is a more appropriate thing for the children to be learning now, and later on they will learn to value clean-up (C. Cl., p.72-73).

With this question Dr. Miles refocused the discussion from student-teacher valued activities in which the children participate to valued competencies which they want to develop in the children. This reminded the students of the forty beliefs, goals and objectives with which they have been working since September.

> Tanya: Isn't one of our objectives to teach them to be responsible?
> Sharon: You can make a game of it.
> Dr. Miles: If you give them a choice-- that's play. What if some people don't pick up anything?
> Jill: You can't force them. You can't stand over them.
> Dr. Miles: I've also looked around during

> clean-up and found that the children who don't want to participate get involved in something else at that time.Children's perceptions are different from our own. Tanya: Some children really get ripped-off. The ones who clean up, always do it and the others never participate. Dr. Miles: I think you have to look at your values (C.Cl., p.73).

Rather than provide answers to the students' questions, Dr. Miles use of questioning allowed for the variation in the backgrounds and needs of the student teachers. This enabled them to extend their understandings of young children and of work in the early childhood education classroom. Every response from the students was heard and validated. In this way individual differences were valued and student teachers were encouraged to use their varying backgrounds and needs in assessing their experiences and learning from them.

Furthermore, each piece of information was examined with the view to clarifying the student's values regarding independent behavior. While one student, basing her notion on her experiences as an aid in a kindergarten classroom, promoted the idea of making clean-up fun -- a game. Another student, a mother, looked at clean-up from her own viewpoint of childrearing practices. While another, an eager learner, spoke of the objectives she had in working with children, that is, developing a sense of responsibility in them. While yet another student, who valued warm relationships, spoke of clean-up in terms of the relationship based on respect

between the teacher and the child. She stated "You can't force them. You can't stand over them." This student teacher's team mate was seen bending over a child, fingers clasped around the child's wrists, forcing him to clean up the wooden blocks with which he had been playing. Thus, by providing maximum flexibility in the curriculum class, the teachers-in training could use their different experiences in the nursery classroom as the basis of discussion.

In the nursery classroom, this flexibility was reflected in Jill's statement that she just "goes with the flow". How was this enacted in the everyday functioning of the classroom? The classroom organization included six to eight different activity centers at which the children could freely explore their individual levels of learning and varying needs. For example, in the play episodes described in the previous section: the younger children who were refining their sense of balance and distance perception, played with the blocks, among other activities; while the children who were exploring their social understanding of the world and their experiences with adult roles, participated in dramatic play. The children were free to set up their learning experiences according to their own levels of ability and development.

The student-teachers themselves reinforced all of the learning activities by circulating around the classroom, talking and participating with the children. During the

researcher's visits to the nursery classroom, the three team members spent most of their time involved in separate activities. On rare occasions, all of the student teachers joined the same event. In this way the children's varying backgrounds, experiences and divergent needs were taken into consideration. This trend changed noticeably during the second term when most of the learning activities were structured in advance by the student teachers.

During the second semester, the children were asked to join the story and/or song circle. Snack was less flexible with greater consideration given to clean-up than to letting the children participate in its preparation. The voices of the teachers-in-training could be heard calling out instructions to the children. Less attention was given to understanding the children's varying backgrounds, experiences and needs and the focus turned to doing the assignments for class. The students were seen collecting a language sample, writing down their observations of the children, putting together the children's file, and setting up the preplanned activities. Flander's interaction analysis shows that the student teachers in the curriculum class and the children in the nursery class initiated less than half of the number of interactions they initiated at the end of the first semester. While the number of interactions initiated by the instructors in each of the classes doubled.

These trends reflect the loss of flexibility in the

programming of the second term, and the consequent increase in the teacher-centered orientation in the classrooms. By providing a program where maximum flexibility was built into the organization and structure of the learning, the participants were able to take up or put down activities according to their "varying backgrounds, experiences and needs". As well, the rate at which instruction and learning progressed was flexible enough to be contingent on the learner.

4. Close relationship of didactic instruction and practical experience.

The fourth assumption on which the curriculum class was based "calls for a close relationship between the student's practical experience on the one hand and didactic instruction on the other" (Combs, 1974, p.519). This means that the student teachers must be exposed to principles that guide their actions. In turn, they should have the chance immediately to put these principles into practice with children. This requirement was met in several ways in both the curriculum and nursery classrooms.

The most apparent way was the concurrence of involvement in the curriculum class and a practicum. Experiences gained in their nursery classes could be discussed during the curriculum class. Readings, assignments, and discussion topics from the curriculum class could integrate the practical experiences with the theoretical

instruction of the curriculum class. Focusing on the practicum during the curriculum class forged a strong link between didactic instruction and practical experience.

To relate the discussions back to the practicum, Dr. Miles used a reflective teaching method, similar to that described by Donald Schon (1987). Schon has written that a practicum is a "virtual world. It seeks to represent essential features of a practice to be learned while enabling students to experiment at low risk" (1987, p.170). In the reflective practicum the student participates in a dialogue with the instructor in order to learn the substantive practice. In order to participate in the dialogue, the student must be performing the actions of the practice (Schon, 1987).

This close relationship between practice and instruction is illustrated by the following discussion which occurred during an early curriculum class. Debra spoke of a child who was "bugging" her by piling toys around the base of the climbing apparatus. In response to this statement, Dr. Miles, picking up on the word "bug", asked " Now, what children's behaviors bug you?" Included in their list of 'bugging' behaviors were:

> "whining"
> "body odor"
> "intentionally hurting other children"
> "peeing in the wrong place"
> "deliberate rudeness" (C. Cl., p.9)

She then asked the students to define their terms.

> Dr. Miles: Now what about this rudeness?"
> Cheryl: "It's all relative".
> Sharon: "It depends on the teacher's viewpoint."
> (C. Cl., p.10)

Dr. Miles went on to ask a further question "What teacher's behaviors do you think bug children?". Several students volunteer answers which include:

> "lack ofconsideration"
> "being unfair"
> "inconsistency"
> "idiosyncracies"
> "playing favorites"
> "being temperamental" (C. Cl., p.9)

By asking the class to think about the behaviors of both teachers and children, the instructor was able to make the point that both people in the relationship contribute to the "bugging". Dr. Miles suggested a way to check one's own degree of rudeness was by making a tape of oneself all day. They were instructed to play it back in the evening while listening for the intonation of the voice that reflects rudeness.

The discussion then moved to the nature of whining. When one student responded with "It is a form of trying to get attention", the instructor continued with "what do you mean by 'a form of getting attention'? This is an important

concept to develop." Throughout the semester similar discussions occurred which tied experiences from the practicum directly to the didactic instruction.

Later, when articles were being distributed to various class members, each person was given an article which related to their comments and questions. For example, Debra was intentionally given one which dealt with egocentricity and socialization in children. Since this article explained the stages through which children's play develops (from solitary, to parellel, and finally to co-operative play), Dr. Miles was able to help the student-teachers to discover that the child's behavior may not be caused by the child's wanting to "bug" the teacher. In this way, Debra received didactic instruction on the topic of child development which related closely to her experiences in practice.

In order to do the assignments and to participate in the curriculum class dialogues, the student teachers had to be able to use the words common to early childhood education. The handouts and the discussions in the curriculum class could have had an expansive influence on the language used by the student-teachers. Two such handouts are The Adjective Rating Scales, a list of 65 children's characteristics (see Appendix J), and Personal Attributes a description of characteristics of effective teachers (see Appendix G).

The list of children's characteristics include such

adjectives as:

Bold	Clinging	Help-seeking
Passive	Agreeable	Adventurous
Fearless	Rebellious	Easygoing
Gentle	Irritable	Approval-seeking
Noisy	Withdrawn	Compliant
Active	Spontaneous	Demanding
Angry	Friendly	High-strung

As one of the in-class activities, the students were asked to think of one of the children in their nursery class and rate him/her on how well the characteristic described the child. This gave them the chance to become familiar with and to use the scale.

Six weeks later, the informants were asked to describe the different categories of children which they saw in their nursery class. Jill's list consisted of the following 29 adjectives:

Agressive	Takes initiative	Active
Content	Needs guidance	Quiet/shy
Complaining	Tries new things	Happy
Affectionate	Sharing	Clinging
Polite	Can't get started	Blenders
Aggressive	Non-joiners	Floaters
Loners	Followers	Leaders
Criers	Openly communicative	Shy
Questioning	Perceptive	Anxious
Creative	Interested	(Int., p.95)

When her list was compared with the entire rating scale, 7.4 % of the words were identical and 25% were similar in meaning, leaving a full 66.6 % dissimilar.

The list generated by Cheryl consisted of the following 26 descriptors:

Creative	Process oriented	Product oriented
Assertive	Self-sufficient	Planners
Initiaters	Has creative ideas	Thinkers
Uninhibited	Attention seekers	Honest
Nurturing	Physically active	Fun
Groupy	Leader	Compliant
Organizers	Approval seekers	Managers
Clingers	Short attention span	Followers
Help seekers	Nurturance seekers	(Int., p.96)

Once again, when Cheryl's list is compared with the rating scale, 7.4 % of the words are identical, 25 % are similar, and 66.6 % are different.

A similar pattern was found to exist when the descriptors of teacher's purposes were compared to the lists generated by Cheryl and Jill. The handout included such adjectives as:

Freeing, releasing, assisting, facilitating
Global, futuristic thinking
Self-revealing
Personally involved, committed to the helping process
Encourages and facilitates the discovery process
Helping
Understanding
Accepting
Being positive
Being open to experience
Being tolerant of ambiguity

Cheryl's list of teacher characteristics included descriptors such as:

Approachable
Eager
Interested
Friendly
Perceptive
Well-informed
Abrupt
Loving, caring
Understanding
Impatient
Patient
Not understanding (Int., p.103)

Patient
Not understanding (Int., p.103)

When compared to descriptors in the handout, 33% of Cheryl's adjectives were similar, 8% were the identical, and 59% were dissimilar.

Jill, when asked to describe some teachers' characteristics, listed the following:

Free spirit
Predictor
In control at all times
Serious
Organizer
Self-evaluating
Rigid rule-keeping
Disciplinarian
Spontaneity
Sense of humour
Director
Capable of expanding on learning situation
Facilitator
Flexible (Int., p.104)

When these descriptors are compared with the handout, only 7% are the same, 20% are similar and 73% are disssimilar.

These comparisons between the adjectives used in the handouts and those used by the informants to describe the characteristics of an ideal teacher and the behaviours of children show a discrepancy between what is done in curriculum class and the student teachers' behaviour. Few of the adjectives used by the informants were identical to those on the handout discussed eight weeks earlier. A larger percentage were similar to those in the handout. These results show that the material covered in curriculum class does not necessarily influence the student teacher's

behaviour.

While the didactic instruction, that is, the handouts and dialogues in the curriculum class, was closely related to the practical experiences of the student teachers, there appears to be a gap between the two levels. If these results were obtained by the student-teachers on a written test, they would receive failing marks. This is an unexpected outcome since both informants maintained A and B averages in their coursework.

Observations in the nursery classroom reveal numerous instances where the didactic instruction of the children relates closely to their practical experiences. For example, the children were exposed to vocabulary which related to food and eating while they were eating snack.

> The children are silently concentrating on the task of spreading cheez whiz or peanut butter on their bread. Cheryl sits down at one of the tables.
> Cheryl: Is that tastey?
> Several children nod their heads in agreement while others say "Yes!" enthusiastically.
> Cheryl: Is it hard to chew?
> Child: Hard.
> Cheryl: Is it hard in your mouth or soft? She repeats the question.
> Child: Soft.
> Child: Can I have some more juice?
> Cheryl: Yes. While she is pouring the juice, she says: Remember our "stop" and "go" game in the gymn. Tell me when to stop pouring (C. Cl., p.31)

In this case, Cheryl was able to relate the activity of pouring juice to the child's earlier learning experience with stop and go.

When adjusting to a group setting, the children must learn to get along with other children and take turns. The following illustrates how Cheryl incorporates this learning into the children's play in the gymnasium.

> The children and Cheryl are moving some large mats used for somersaulting in the gymn.
> Child: I don't want them that way.
> Cheryl: How do you want them?
> The child then moves a mat to show how she wants to position the mats.
> Cheryl: (To the other children) Can you put them that way?
> While the mats are being adjusted, a boy runs from the middle of the room and begins to somersault on them. Another girl begins hopping on a mat. At this point Cheryl, slowly and gently moves the girl out of the way saying:
> Cheryl: It's Sonia's turn, then yours. (C. Cl., p.53).

Cheryl has found a way to promote the children's social learning while they engage in their self-initiated physical activities.

One of the mandates of perceptual humanism is to develop a close relationship between didactic instruction and practical experience. This relationship is evident in the events of both the curriculum and the nursery classes. However, how much is actually retained and translated into day-to-day practices in the nursery class varies.

5. <u>Relation of Learning to Need</u>

The fifth assumption on which the design of the E.C.E. program was based is the "relation of learning to

need". According to this assumption, the effectiveness of learning is directly related to the "degree to which material is related to the need of the learner" (Combs, 1974, p.517-520). Teacher education programs are required to adapt to the student's needs and create situations for the discovery of new needs. This maximum adaptation is evident in the curriculum class assignments.

Two of the many assignments given to the students involved making a puzzle and creating a learning activity using water. Each of these assignments cultivated the student's need to know more about the young children's levels of cognitive functioning.

In the process of making a puzzle, for example, the student had to consider the children's perceptual, cognitive, fine and gross motor skills in order to create something which was at the appropriate level of difficulty. The actual doing of the assignment created a need to know. As well, the demonstration of the puzzle to the rest of the class and responding to the ensuing questions created a need to further explore child development.

In addition to the foregoing levels of needs cultivated by the puzzle assignment, in taking the puzzle into the nursery classroom, the student teacher was able to 'test' the appropriateness of the puzzle to a particular child or a particular age group. In doing this 'testing' of the puzzle, the student was able to assess how closely

his/her knowledge of child development matched what a child is able to do. This in turn may have created a new need in the student to adapt the knowledge and/or puzzle to fit the reality of a child or group of children. As a result of just one assignment, the student was exposed to several opportunities for learning and discovering new needs to know.

In the nursery class, numerous examples of the relating the learning to the needs of the learner were observed. For instance, at the sandbox, the children's learned need to make shapes with the sand created a situation for discovering new needs. That is, they had to learn what to do when the sand became too dry to stay together when the form, whether it was a pail or dish, was removed.

> Two boys are at the sandbox playing with the sand,
> when one boy said to Cheryl: "It's smokey!!"
> Cheryl: What do we do when the sandbox is smokey?"
> Boy: Put water in it.
> The other boy goes to the snack storage area to get two styrofoam cups. He hands one to Cheryl and they head for the door to get water from the washroom. A few minutes later they return with the cups filled with water which they pour over the sand. The boys then continue to create shapes with the moist sand (N. Cl.,p.21).

The boys' needs for the right mix of water and sand has necessitated their learning the characteristics of sand.

In another case, the children had to learn some concepts relating to colour in order to explain the

phenomenon of mixing two of the primary colours.

> Three containers of coloured water- yellow, red, and blue- are set on a table along with a few "mixing" dishes. A group of children gather at the table ready to participate in the activity. One boy opened the container with the red coloured water. The girl across the table from him started by pouring some yellow water into a mixing dish. She then waited for the boy to finish using the red. When she had mixed the two colours together, she bent down to examine the results.
> Jill: What colours did you put in to get that colour?
> Child: Yellow and red (N. Cl., p.27).

In order to answer this question, the child had to remember which colours were needed to make a particular resultant colour and be able to articulate them. In this way, the situation set up by the student-teachers, created a need to learn in the children.

In this section, the early childhood education program curriculum class and practicum were examined using the framework of Comb's perceptual humanism. Interactions were described to illustrate the functioning of the five assumptions of Comb's philosophy. Student teachers are exposed to perceptual-humanism in the design of the program and expected to model their day-to-day practices after the instructional method used in the curriculum class. In summary, this chapter presented situations that reflect the philosophy which informed the final year of an early childhood education program..

Chapter VII

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter has two purposes. First, it summarizes the major findings of the study. Second, it discusses what the study implies about how early childhood teacher-educators can make training programs more effective.

Chapter V described the historical, teleological, and philosophical context of early childhood education. This discussion showed the complexity of this area of teacher-training. Preparation for working with young children has a long and varied history. The goals for educating young children, the notion of early childhood, and the conception of the nature of children have changed over the centuries. These changes are reflected in the training received by those who work with young children. History shows that the philosophy of education is a key factor in the design and impact of early childhood training programs.

The curriculum class investigated by this study reflected the influence of all of the major philosophies. Idealism was shown in the use of the "forty beliefs" and how the beliefs relate to the goals, objectives, and discussions in the curriculum class. Realism was reflected by the priority given to first seeing a pedagogical philosophy in action, reflecting on what was seen and then implementing it. Pragmatism was evident in the exploratory quality of practice

teaching in the nursery classrooms. Existentialism was reflected in the independence and responsibility given to the student teachers in nearly every aspect of the program. The students even had to decide on the topics to be covered in the curriculum class, share their individual thoughts, and defend their opinions.

The major philosophy informing the curriculum, espoused by Combs, was outlined by this study. Events from the curriculum and the nursery classes in the final year of early childhood education were presented. This description showed how the philosophy influenced the transactions that form the socialization process. It showed the student-teachers making sense, verbally and in practice, of what they experienced in both the curriculum and the nursery class.

This study found that classroom life is comprised of two types of transactions. One, sometimes called the hidden curriculum, is the organizational, interactional, social, and management aspect of classroom life. The second level, the manifest curriculum, consists of the overt academic task, school assignment, and classroom content. The philosophy of the first term emphasized the hidden curriculum over the manifest, while that of the second term put more importance on the manifest curriculum. The resultant influence on the verbal and pedagogical behaviour of the student teachers is evident.

The philosophy of the manifest curriculum

(Schulman, 1986) in the first term differed from that of the second term. The difference between the philosophies could be noticed in the changes in the day-to-day practices of the student-teachers. The first term with its emphasis on becoming a professional, autonomous teacher produced self-evaluating student teaching practices which followed the children's lead in learning situations, rise out of events in the classroom, were flexible, and develop self-direction in the child. While the teacher-centered philosophy of the second term influenced the teacher to be directive, less flexible, content oriented, more evaluative of subject matter than the self.

While differing pedagogical philosophies may result in similar academic tasks, school assignments, and classroom content, Flander's interaction analysis (Appendix L) shows that classroom life is changed by the philosophy. A learner-centered approach results in the teacher using more indirect influence and less direct influence. As well, the learner initiates more interactions and is forced to respond to the instructor less frequently. Presumably these patterns allow the student teacher and, in turn, the child, to take more responsibility and self direction for his or her learning. The patterns should also help student teachers to be flexible, relate didactic instruction to practical experience more closely, and to base learning on needs as expressed by the child. In contrast, a teacher-centered approach moves the

day-to-day activities of the student teacher away from this orientation.

Like Schulman (1986) the researcher concluded that "Teaching is mediated by the sense the learner makes of the social context of the classroom situation ... the question is not what teaching is most effective, but what meaning is given to teaching" (p.17). The steps between the introduction of a different pedagogical philosophy, becoming conscious of it, and practicing it in the classroom in a consistent manner do not take place in a few days. For example, on being introduced to methods and concepts of working with young children many of the teachers-in-training attempted to implement them in the nursery classroom. Most were able to dialogue about the methods and concepts. However, translating them into practices in the nursery class was not a simple matter. One student spoke of being frustrated when her self got in the way. Another spoke of looking back on her behaviour and saying "Now, I could have done that differently!". Others seemed able to integrate new methods and concepts into their day-to-day practices at increasingly higher levels of proficiency.

In this study, three factors impacted the student teacher's ease in translating learning into practice. First was the student teachers' goals for entering the program and their expectations of the program of studies; second, their previous experiences with children; and third, the closeness

of the fit between the student's own philosophy and that of the program. The next section discusses each of these factors separately.

1. Goals and Expectations of the Program

This study found that there is a relationship between the goals and expectations of the teachers-in-training and the gap between the ideology experienced in the curriculum class and their day-to-day practices. One informant's goal for completing the program was to simply work with young children, while the other wanted to become the best teacher she could possibly be. The former student came to class unprepared, drifted through activities with the children with unclear purposes, vague conceptualizations of her experiences, and without later self-evaluative reflection on what had happened. The student aspiring to excellence based her interactions with the children on detailed advance planning and preparation, clearer notions about her experiences informed in part by the knowledge shared in the curriculum class, and reflected on her day for the purpose of evaluating herself and improving her future performance. What the teacher-in-training expects from the program and his or her personal goals influence the meaning they attribute to the training.

Some students who had already worked with young children in group settings such as kindergarten or a daycare, believed that they were simply going through the process in

order to get the paper, that is, a teacher's certificate. They believed that the program could teach them little about working with young children. This expectation made them participate less actively in the curriculum class discussions and assignments. They also used child management techniques contradictory to the philosophy of the program. When the program director talked to one student about this disagreement in their philosophies, the student, believed herself to be right, basing her belief on previous classroom experiences. This sort of problem suggests, in the future, a way to improve the selection and screening applicants to the program. The students' expectations, experiences, and beliefs could be explored. For example, by using the set of forty beliefs as a screening device to be completed by the student as part of admission.

2. Previous Experiences with Young Children

The experiences of the student teachers before entering the early childhood education program influenced their learning. For those students who had worked in daycare settings where the management of the children was more important than expanding the children's learning, activities were used to keep the children occupied. A trip to the gymnasium was seen as a way to "wear the children out" rather than a chance to teach them to co-operate, to take turns, and to develop their large motor co-ordination. Often the educative aspect of the activity is overlooked in favour of

keeping the children "in line" by those student teachers who have babysat, worked in day cares, or have been mothers.

Some of the teachers-in-training who have not worked with young children, entered the program with the notion that children don't "know anything", and that they have to be directed by the teacher. If they persist with this attitude, the learning needs and the varying backgrounds and experiences of the children may never be discovered by the student teacher. This oversight could lead to many missed opportunities for learning.

Students who had lived in a family with younger siblings, foster children, or their own off-spring, may have pre-existing priorities which interfere with the establishment of a guiding, facilitative learning relationship. For example, some may value tidiness over exploring the qualities of wet sand or finger paints. Some may value learning to put things away after oneself over allowing the children to sustain an interest in an activity beyond the time of direct involvement with that activity. Some may value having all of the children's undivided attention in a group over developing self-direction in the children and flexibility in programming.

While the previous examples illustrate ways in which previous experiences with children can have a negative influence on the ease with which student teachers translate learning into practice, there are many benefits. Some

students who have already worked with children rapidly establish a relationship with new children, build new learnings on top of former practices, and proceed to the business of improving the ways in which they facilitate learning.

These are some of the ways that previous experiences of the student teachers can influence their motivations to translate the theory of the curriculum class into their day-to-day practices. While the admission requirements of the Faculty of Education give preference to those individuals who have had previous experience working with children in such group settings as daycares and school system classrooms, this study suggests that this does not always facilitate the socialization process. In fact, certain work and child-rearing experiences may interfere with the learning that is required by a program of studies. Further studies are required to verify what learning experiences facilitate socialization into early childhood education and which do not.

4. The Consistency of Philosophies

Students' personal philosophy also affected the effectiveness of the program. For example, two older students expressed frustration and incredulity with the democratic basis of the program. Both students were mothers used to authoritarian styles of child-rearing. In nursery class, one was seen bending over a child, fingers clasped around the

child's wrists, forcing him to clean up the wooden blocks with which he had been playing. The other, in the fall, spanked a child and forced him sit on a chair.

One student who had worked with a mentally handicapped sibling embraced the child-centered approach immediately. Tess was able to dialogue about her philosophy not viewing children with our adult preconceived notions and letting children participate in classroom life on their own terms. Her interactions in the classroom were modelled after the philosophy she experienced in the curriculum class. She discussed difficulties she encountered in the nursery class and consulted with the professor and university supervisor. This teacher-in-training was open to learning from the program and worked through any difficulties she had in translating the learning into her day-to-day practices in the nursery class.

When the personal philosophy of the student teachers is consistent with that of the program, the students are willing to accept the 'coaching' offered by their instructor and/or supervisor. These individuals appear to be more able to take the advice and knowledge offered in the program and use it in their explorations as a teacher-in-training. Other individuals experience various reactions including stress, anger, frustration or withdrawal. As a consequence they are blocked when attempting to translate their learning from the curriculum class into their practice

in the nursery class.

Graduation from a program of studies is regarded by students as the "end" of their training and the time to enter work as a professional. But this study suggests instead that the degree earned in early childhood education merely permits graduates to seek employment as a teacher. Real learning to teach is just beginning. Perhaps the official training is only the first phase of immersion in E.C.E., immersion which will be completed only by extended practice in the classroom and further professional development. Conveying the preliminary quality of training to students would help make their expectations more appropriate.

Many factors, aside from the student's personal goals and philosophy, emerge as possible influences on the ease with which students implement what they experience. By looking at the ease with which student-teachers implement their learning from the curriculum class, it is possible for trainers to make their education programs more effective.

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APPENDIX A

MATCHING GOALS AND/OR OBJECTIVES WITH BELIEFS

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES	1	2	3	4	5
1. Becoming aware of his or her personal values and the effect those personal values have on one's ability to communicate with those expressing differing values, whomever those others may be.	1	2	3	4	5
Comment:					
2. Identifying and dealing with his or her own values which may conflict with the values of others.	1	2	3	4	5
Comment:					
3. Identifying, expressing and accepting his or her own feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
Comment:					
4. Identifying his or her own perceptions and/or judgements of individual children and checking out those perceptions.	1	2	3	4	5
Comment:					
5. Recognizing, accepting and stating his or her feelings concerning observed behavior of children, parents, and co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
Comment:					

6. Identifying and attempting to understand feelings expressed by others by learning to attend to another as he is expressing his feelings. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

7. Consistently recording and interpreting observed behavior, the behavior one sees and hears as young children interact with things, activities and people within the classroom. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

8. Identifying impressions of the reactions of observed behavior made by others and checking out those impressions. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

9. Identifying significant behavior in young children; behavior which may be peculiar to a specific child's personal style of behaving and learning and checking out the behavior to determine the significance.

Comment:

10. Learning to separate his or her perception of impressions of a child's behavior from that behavior which can be observed and described. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

11. Becoming aware of a mother's perceptions of her children and checking out these perceptions to see if mother's perceptions are understood by teacher. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

12. Listening to a child in order to help the child clarify his intended meaning and in order that the teacher understand the CHILD'S INTENT. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

13. Expressing his or her self when communicating with a child so that the child as a listener, understands the teacher's intent. The teacher checks out the child's understanding. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

14. Identifying specifics in child-rearing practices which may relate directly or indirectly to kinds of learning experiences which a teacher provides in school situations and checking out experiences provided to determine effectiveness. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

15. Helping young children gather information related to their conceptual development. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

16. Identifying concepts which are within a young child's experiential background. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

17. Identifying specific aspects in the conceptual processes which may be appropriate at a particular time for a particular child or children and checking out the appropriateness for each child. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

18. Identifying key concepts which are appropriate for young children to investigate, so that a teacher can support the process. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

19. Learning to demonstrate his or her understanding of groupings as a process which may or may not facilitate young children's learning in school situations and to check out those understandings. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

20. Identifying materials which will help children to interact with information which is related to specific concepts. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

21. Permitting young children to solve their own problems and providing encouragement when needed as they interact with phenomena in the school environment. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

22. Permitting young children to select, reject, sort, organize, reorganize, and evaluate the results of their experiences as they interact with the phenomena within the school environment. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

23. Acting as a partner, a guide, a supporter in children's learning experiences. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

24. Learning to identify appropriate time to withdraw help, guidance, and support so that a young child can learn to operate independently and checking out the child's response to that withdrawal. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

25. Refraining from interfering with a young child's interaction with things in his environment unless interference is sought by the child, or perhaps when the teacher can facilitate the learning which seems to be occuring within the interaction. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

26. Learning how to work with parents of children in classroom so that parents can become part of the helping, guiding, and supporting team in their children's experiences in school situations. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

27. Learning how to make his or her experiences in course work at the university relevant to classroom situations where teachers are involved in young children's interactions with phenomena in their classroom environment. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

28. Learning to answer questions by looking at alternatives, checking them out with parents, co-workers and children. Learning to admit when one has insufficient information to answer a question and knowing when to search for alternatives. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

29. Learning to identify the skills children need which allow them to develop a continuing positive self-concept. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

30. Assuming responsibility for input and feedback in any situation: including classroom with children, with parents, curriculum classes and members of the larger society. 1 2 3 4 5

31. Developing the art of questioning and of searching for alternatives in guiding, supporting, nurturing, and in withdrawing support at appropriate times in order to develop independent thinking, trusting, and trust-worthy children. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

32. Helping children to develop skills in humanism. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

33. Providing opportunities for children to have some control over their development by encouraging them to make many choices and decisions. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

34. Becoming a trusting and trust-worthy individual in the eyes of the children, the parents, and the co-workers. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

35. Helping children develop a positive sense of self and a sincere respect for the self of others. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

36. Keeping abreast of the information concerning the growth and development of young children and learning how to assess the information in order to utilize it appropriately in the learning environments and to put it into proper perspective. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

37. Learning how to talk with young children, in small groups and separately in meaningful discussions. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

38. Learning to translate theory into practice. Learning to translate practice into theory. 1 2 3 4 5

Comment:

APPENDIX B

THE PROGRAM DESIGN
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Out of extended discussion of helping relationship research, perceptual-humanistic psychology and pooled faculty experiences, the *NEP program was designed around five basic assumptions:

1. The "Self as Instrument Concept" of professional education sees the production of effective professional workers as a problem in becoming. That is, an effective teacher is one who has learned how to use himself and his knowledge of children and subject matter to accomplish the purposes of schooling. The task of the college is not to teach right ways to teach; rather, it is to help the student discover his own best ways of operating in whatever school setting he may find himself.

2. Student responsibility and self direction. Such a program requires that students be given maximum responsibility for their own learning and the greatest possible opportunities for self direction.

3. Maximum flexibility. Since students come with varying backgrounds, experience, and widely divdergent needs, teacher education programs must contain maximum flexibility to adjust to such needs, and permit wide variations in instructional programs and in rate of progress.

4. Close relationship of didactic instruction and practical experience. An effective program of teacher education calls for the closest possible relationship between the student's practical experience on the one hand and didactic instruction on the other. Participation in actual eaching should begin as early as possible in the student's experience and, thereafter, should provide for continually increasing responsibility and time in the classroom.

5. Relation of learning to need. Learning is likely to be effective only in the degree to which material is related to the need of the learner. A teacher education program, therefore, must provide maximum adaptation to student's needs on the one hand and the creative discovery of new needs to know on the other. Substantive work should therefore be offered in response to students' needs to know.

One of the basic texts for teachers in ECE is Helping relations by Arthur Combs et. al. The work of Arthur Combs in Humanistics Psychology has greatly influenced the design of Early Childhood Education at the University of Manitoba.

He has stated five basic assumptions which are relevant to the structure and development of the Early Childhood Education Certification year.

The above five statements are taken from "Can Teacher Education Use the 'Self as Instrument' Concept?" Educational Leadership, March, 1974, pp. 517-520).

APPENDIX C

* New Elementary Programme (University of Florida)

The following beliefs are presented as a model set. They are relevant to a child's ways of perceiving and learning. They are relevant to his total development if the child is to develop control over his own resources. They are relevant to any parent, to any educator of children, to any child care worker who share in a child's development of and control over his own inner resources.

A Set of Beliefs

1. It is important for adults and parents working with children to provide an environment so rich and varied, warm and friendly, that young children will choose to wonder about, choose to explore, choose to examine all those things in the environment that arouse their interests and curiosities.

2. It is important that learning experiences for young children should also develop teacher, child, and parent, through the co-operative processes involved.

3. It is important for young children to become excited about their interactions with things, with people in their environment whether the interactions are in the homes or in group experiences away from home.

4. Parents and teachers of young children should provide the kind of environment which will cause children to be stimulated to act upon the things in the environment. Furthermore, the daily experiences in the environments should cause young children to be curious and interested day-by-day, week-by-week.

5. Young children should be allowed to experience things first-hand. It is important for young children to manipulate things, to touch, feel, rub, bang, push, pull, lift, crawl, climb, run, jump, taste, smell, look, listen, and to wonder about all the consequences of such behaviors.

6. Young children may be "noisy" when they become involved in certain kinds of activities.

7. Teachers and parents should expect and accept noise which accompanies particule xriciriwa.

8. Certain kinds of activities which are important to

young children will result in "messes".

9. Young children's rights to become involved in "messy" and "noisy" activities should not be determined by the degree to which teachers, parents, and child care workers may be inconvenienced.

10. Those who work with young children should set up an environment in which children can make "messes" and be "noisy" without feelings of guilt.

11. It is important for parents and teachers to learn how to interpret the messages that children intend to convey through their gestures, their expressions by way of music, art and large body movements.

12. It is important for young children to question parents and teachers about those things in the environment which cause children to ask "why", "what" , "when", "where", "how".

14. The quality of the interaction between parent and child, teacher and child, teacher and parent, and among the children, are more important to the growth and development of a child than is square foot of space per child.

15. It is important for teachers and parents to answer childrens' questions as honestly as the adults know how to answer.

16. Spontaneous and natural interactions between teachers and children, parents and children, parents and teachers can result in the kind of learning experiences that could be satisfying and appropriate for all of those involved.

17. Teachers and parents who become intimately involved in children's interactions with things in their environment could develop a better understanding of children's behavior.

18. Children should be allowed and encouraged to make selections, rejections, decisions and evaluations, to make mistakes.

19. Young children learn to accept the consequences which go with choosing, rejecting, and making decisions.

20. Young children are expected, during the process of making choices, rejections, decisions and evaluations, to make mistakes.

21. It is the responsivility of parents and teachers to help children make choices so that those choices which could have serious consequences can be avoided.

22. Young children learn from their mistakes and, therefore, should not be made to feel guilty about making mistakes.

23. Parents and teachers are expected to make mistakes as they interact with children. However, they should avoid making the same mistakes.

24. It is important for parents and teachers to respect a young child's privacy--to refrain from continuous proving, prodding, prying, meddling and poking when a child is interacting with things in his environment. A child does have a right to privacy.

25. Young children learn to respect objects and people when many opportunities are open for children to experience objects and people first hand.

26. Young children have the RIGHT to help decide whether whether they come to school each day.

27. Young children should not be forced into believing that THEY have a RESPONSIBILITY to attend school each day and that they should be punctual about entering and leaving the classroom on a particular hour of the day.

28. Teachers and/or parents must question the assumption that early learning deficiencies are irreversible.

29. Teachers and/or parents must question the ideas that prime time for learning occurs during the first five years of life.

30. The more appropriate concern <u>should be</u>: prime time for learning is determined by <u>what</u> it is that is being learned at any given time.

31. It is the responsivility of parents and teachers to provide opportunities for children to interact with all kinds of people who make specific contributions to a society: the carpenter, the construction worker, the engineer, the plumber, the artist, the writer, the musician, the story teller, the sculptor, "the what ever."

32. It is important that experiences in the classroom should be the kinds which will help parents and teachers extend their understandings of their children,

to learn new ways or helping children interact with things in their environment.

33. It is important for a university to provide opportunities that could help parents learn to understand more from people knowledgable in the area of child development, parent-child relationships, learning experiences.

34. Teacher and/or parents should remain open to all the information concerning the "how" of the growth and development of young children.

35. Except for time, space and perhaps information, parents could provide the same kinds of experiences for young children in homes as those experiences found in group experiences away from home.

36. Young children should not be considered to be "disadvantaged" if they do not, for various reasons, participate in some kind of a group experience away from home.

37. Teachers and parents should not design pre-set standards for young children to achieve. We believe that teachers, children and parents are partners in the task of finding their own ways of learning. Pre-set standards negate choice of behavior.

38. No stand is absolute for all children. Teachers and parents can understand that standards are arbitrarily made, therefore, adults can become aware that categories of behaviors are often relative to some other reference group, e.g. A slow developing child from a poverty level is relative to a reference which belongs to the middle-class child.

39. Every child should have someone who is "crazy" about him/her. That someone can be a parent, adult, friend or any caregiver. That someone could be the child's teacher.

40. Anyone who works with children should enjoy their work. They should enjoy being in the company of children.

A Set of Competencies, Goals and/or Objectives for People Working With Young Children

1. Becoming aware of his or her personal values and the effect those personal values have on one's ability to communicate with those expressing differing values, whomever those others may be.

2. Identifying and dealing with his or her own values which may conflict with the values of others.

3. Identifying, expressing and accepting his or her feelings.

4. Identifying his or her own perceptions and/or judgements of individual children and checking out those perceptions.

5. Recognizing, accepting and stating his or her feelings concerning observed behavior of children, parents and co-workers.

6. Identifying and attempting to understand feelings expressed by others by learning to attend to another as he is expressing his feelings.

7. Consistently recording and interpreting observed behavior, the behavior one sees and hears of young children.

8. Identifying impressions of the reactions of observed behavior made by others and checking out those impressions.

9. Identifying significant behavior in young children; behavior which may be peculiar to a specific child's personal style of behaving and learning and checking out the behavior to determine the significance.

10. Learning to separate his or her perception of impressions of a child's behavior from that behavior which can be observed and described.

11. Becoming aware of a mother's perceptions of her children and checking out those perceptions to see if mother's perceptions are understood by the teacher.

12. Listening to a child in order to help the child clarify his intended meaning and in order that the teacher understand the CHILD'S INTENT.

13. Expressing his or her self when communicating with a chiuld so that the child as a listener, understands the teacher's intent. The teacher checks out the childs understanding.

14. Identifying specifics in child-rearing practices which may relate directly or indirectly to kinds of learning experiences which a teacher provides in school situations and checking out experiences provided to determine

effectiveness.

15. Helping young children gather information related to conceptual development.

16. Identifying concepts which are within a young child's experiential background.

17. Identifying specific aspects in the conceptual processes which may be appropriate at a particular time for a particular child or children and checking out the appropriateness for each child.

18. Identifying key concepts which are appropriate for young children to ivestigate, so that a teacher can support the process.

19. Learning to demonstrate his or her understanding of groupings as a process which may or may not facilitate young children's learning in school situations and to check out those understandings.

20. Identifying materials which will help children to interact with information which is related to specific concepts.

21. Permitting young children to solve their own problems and providing encouragement when needed as they interact with phenomena in the school environment.

22. Permitting young children to select, reject, sort, organize, reorganize and evaluate the results of their experiences as they interact with the phenomena within the school environment.

23. Acting as a partner, a guide, a supporter in children's learning experiences.

24. Learning to identify appropriate time to withdraw help, guidance, and support so that a young child can learn to operate independently and checking out the child's response to that withdrawal.

25. Refraining from interfering with a young child's interaction with things in his environment unless interference is sought by the child, or perhaps when the teacher can facilitate the learning which seems to be occuring within the interaction.

26. Learning how to work with parents of children in classroom so that parents can become part of the helping, guiding, and supporting team in their childre-

n's experiences in school situations.

27. Learning how to make his or her experiences in course work at the university relevant to classsroom situations where teacher are involved in young children's interactions with phenomena in their classroom environments.

28. Learning to answer questions by looking at alternatives, checking them out with parents, co-workers and children. Learning to admit when one has insufficient information to answer a question and knowing when to search for alternatives.

29. Learning to identify the skills children need which allow them to develop a continuing positive self-concept.

30. Assuming responsivility for input and feedback in any situation: including classroom with children, with parents, curriculum classes and members of the larger society.

31. Developing the art of questioning and of searching for alternatives in guiding, supporting, nurturing, and in withdrawing support at appropriate times in order to develop independent thinking, trusting and trust-worthy children.

32. Helping children to develop skills in humanism.

33. Providing opportunities for children to have some control over their development by encouraging them to make many choices and decisions.

34. Becoming a trusting and trust-worthy individual in the eyes of the children, the parents, and the co-workers.

35. Helping children develop a positive sense of self and a sincere respect for the self of others.

36. Keeping abreast of the information concerning the growth and development of young children and learning how to assess the information in order to utilize it appropriately in the learning environments and to put it into proper perspective.

37. Learning how to talk with young children, in small groups and separately in meaningful discussions.

38. Learning how to translate theory into practice.

APPENDIX D

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION: CURRICULUM 81:402

COURSE OUTLINE

I. CURRICULUM IS WHAT HAPPENS
- WHO CAUSES IT TO HAPPEN?

II. STRUCTURE AND THE CURRICULUM
- Structure and the Teacher
- Structure and the Child
- Key Concepts: to be Developed

III. OBSERVING TO LEARN LEARNING TO OBSERVE
The Purposes of Observing
- Developing Observational Skills
- Learning to Identify Clues to Children's Behavior
- Learning to Make Hypotheses About Behaviour Observed
- Testing the Hypothese Made by Teachers
- Learning to Understand Children
- Learning to Develop Learning Experiences based on Inferences from Observations

IV. PLAY AND LEARNING
- Understanding the Concept of Play
- Encouraging Children to Sustain Their Play
- Understanding Play as a Mediator of the Interactive Process

V. CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOURS: TEACHERS BEHAVIOURS
- Interactirons and Reactions
- Behaviours That Bug Teachers
- Behaviours That Bug Children
- Sorting Out the Bugs
- Teacher as a Mediator for Children

VI. LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT AND THE YOUNG CHILD
- Functions of Language
- Listening and Talking
- Talking and Listening
- Scribbling, Drawing, Writing, Misicing
- Imagery and Symbols

VII. ARTICULATIRON OF PURPOSES
- To Children
- To Peers
- To Curriculum Class
- To Parents
- To Teachers in System
- To Administrators

- To Society At Large

VIII. SPACE AND THE CLASSROOM
- Learning to understand how to use space in a classroom so that Children's interactive processes are enhanced.

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION: Curriculum 81.402 continued

TEXTBOOKS:

Kohl, H. (1984), Growing Minds on Becoming a Teacher, New York: Harper Colophon.

Purky, W. etal (1984), Inviting School Success

** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** **

EARLY CHILDHOOD, CURRICULUM AND PRACTICUM

THE purpose of this course is to learn how to communicate effectively with all of those who are concerned with the educational experiences of the young child (two to five years of age). This includes the young child, the parents and/or adults who are responsible for the young child's out of school life, teachers, administrators and the public at large. During the practicum, each student teacher will have the opportunity to develop skills in communication and also to demonstrate their abilities through using skills in communicating with young children, parents, adults in parent role, other student teachers, teachers, administrators and the public at large.

In order to learn how to communicate about the educational experiences of young children, there are several variables to be considered: the teachers as personalities; the young children as personalities, how to provide experiences which match the young child's ways of learning; how to extend home experiences into the classroom; how to extend classroom learning experiences into the homes; how to evaluate classroom experiences in terms of each child's personal growth and how to evaluate students' experiences as teachers on basis of the growth of the children.

The last variable and sometimes the most difficult is to learn how to make school learning experiences understandable to those members of society who are critical of spending tax money for the purpose of educating the young child from two to five years of age.

<u>The teacher as a personality</u>. A teacher must learn to understand and to identify her beliefs, attitudes and values. She must learn something about how she reasons, how she thinks and how she behaves as a personality because a teacher is a personality and must function as as one rather than playing a

role in the classroom which is totally unlike her "self" outside the classrom. The teacher must know something about her ability to classify.

The teacher and the children: The teacher must learn something about the ways young children reason, think and behave. The teacher must learn something about the attitudes, values and beliefs of young children. The teacher must know something about the language development of young children so that the teacher can continue the "word game"* with the children.

The teacher must learn how to observe children's behavior so that she can use the information as clues to the ways the children think, reason, believe and learn and so that the information can be used for the purpose of organizing appropriate experiences in the classroom.

Making a match with young children's experiences: A teacher must provide a VARIETY of materials, equipment and experiences for the purpose of helping each child function successfully in the classroom. Successful experiences in a classroom do not preclude errors, risks and/or mistakes which may be made both by the teachers and the children.

Materials, equipment and experiences which are provided should arouse the "curiosity" (a young child's life blood to motivation) of the young child.

All school experiences should allow each child to extend his previous and current at home experiences into new, appropriate but exiting ones.

Provisions should be made for children to gather information which is related to key concepts. Key concepts are those concepts which are used throughout life. They may be from any one of the disciplines. The most significant point to remember is that children who learn how to classify will be prepared to gather information and relate it to any concept providing the children are operating at their own level of conceptualization.

Provisions should be made for the young children to participate in many experiences of classification because concepts are developed through the process of classification.

Allo experiences should allow the young children to use their affective and physiognomic characteristics for the purpose of gathering information. These characteristics include the sensori-motor perceptions.

All experiences should allow the young children to use THEIR personal ways of connumication whether it be verbal and/or non-verbal, whether or not their language is the same language system as that of the teachers.

Informing parents about school experiences: Parents' assistance in helping young children with their new school experiences should be encouraged. Parents should be informed about what their children are experiencing at school.

Evaluating Young children's learning experiences: This should be a cooperative affair. Techniques should be provided

whereby parents, teachers and the children work together in assessing the specific and general learning experiences which may have developed in the classroom.

Informing the public and supporting the significance of school experiences for the young children: This task will be less difficult for the teacher who has attempted to identify the specific purposes and the needs which she intends to fulfill. The task will be less difficult for those teachers who have learned to observe and record significant behaviors and who have used behavioral clues as the basis for preparing appropriate experiences for each child. This task will be less difficult for those teachers who are articulate about the process of classification and its relationship to conceptualization. This task will be less difficult for those teachers who can answer the questions of Why, What and How concerning the materials, equipment and learning experiences in the classroom.

APPENDIX E

WORKING TOWARD DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR

DEMOCRATIC		AUTHORITARIAN
More Accurate Realistic Time	PERCEPTIVE	Less Distorted Overconcern with Time
Positive Challenged Adequate	SELF	Negative Threatened Inadequate
Accepting Tolerant Loving	OTHERS	Rejecting Prejudiced Hateful
Independent Equalitarian Autonomous	INDEPENDENCE	Dependent Dominant-Submissive Suggestible
Listens "Gets Thru" Understands	COMMUNICATIVE	Does not listen Arouses Barriers Does not Comprehend

Democratic-Authoritarian Continuum

Life Democratic Homeostasis	<---------->	Death Authoritarian Entropy

APPENDIX F

LETTER OF CONSENT

Dear Student:

I am undertaking a study of the meaning attributed to the socialization process which will be experienced during your training in the early childhood education program as part of an M. Ed. thesis with the University of Manitoba.

The study will not involve any type of testing. I will, however, be doing observations of your interactions with each other, the children and their parents, and any members of the teaching professions. These observations will be collected in three ways: field notes from participant observations, summaries of interviews and audiorecordings of discussions with your team members. The total time required will be approximately a half hour each week.

All information gathered will be confidential and cover names will be used in any reporting of the research, therefore, anonymity is assured.

Please indicate your consent by your signature below.

Thank-you.

Yours truly,

Barb Ferguson

Signature of Consentor_____

APPENDIX G

PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES

Entry Skills

- Intellectual Ability
- Writing Skill
- Communication Skill

Personal Qualities

- Ability to Integrate
- Convert Theory into Practice
- Objectivity
- Complete a Task
- Creativity
- Flexibility
- Organizational Ability
- Tolerance for Ambiguity
- Tolerance for Frustration
- Seeks Position, not Self-enhancement

Self as Teacher-encourager

Self-integration

Ability to have satisfactory relations to peers

Seek consulting opinions from other professionals

Skill in presenting self

Willingness to seek evaluation or criticism

Meaning of life congruent with values

Sense of mission

Sense of humour

Openness to personal criticism

Willingness and able to take risks

Positive self-regard

Affective sensitivity

Techniques to draw feedback on self

Outside Interests

Value others' individuality

Sense of respect and responsibility to others

Interest in schools rather than individual practice

Work with other cultural groups or individuals

Member in some non-institutional group

Interest in other disciplines or arts

Positive view of others

APPENDIX H

Some Things that I Want you, the Students, to Know About me, Delia Miles, Your Instructor

1. A low-keyed person who is totally committed to the process involved in teaching education.
2. A person who is vitally interested in and totally committed to the concept of play as a natural way for children to learn.
3. One who may give the impression that "anything" is good or that "anything" is acceptable even though the "anything" may be "nothing". This is totally false.
4. Number three is far from the truth. I, Imogene, intend to permit, to allow you, the student, to function in a way that will encourage you, the student, to satisfy your "self". My intent is to free you of all external constraints that could inhibit your exploration, discoveries and creations. There must be evident responses resulting from your explorations, discoveries, etc.
5. I, Imogene, assume that each of you are here for the purpose of developing an understanding of young children and their development. Such understandings will encourage you to provide the kind of environment in which children can develop with the least possible external constraints.
6. I do not perceive myself as an actor and/or entertainer. Therefore, I cannot keep you entertained in order that you become

motivated and in order that you amintain that motivation throughout the year.

7. I will attempt to provide the input which appears to be relevant to the purposes set out as well as to the feedback I get from EACH OF YOU.

8. I can accept criticism from those who have a commitment to the task at hand but I have difficulty in accepting criticism from non-participants -- and from non-participants who wish to blame someone for their lack of participation.

9. I assume that teachers, teacher-parents and any adult who works with young children can look at their influences upon the language development of children in a highly critical manner. I also assume that the critical manner will be used in a positive way. That is, a critical analysis is for the purpose of promoting professional development in any area.

10. My intent is for you, the student, to evaluate your behaviours and in so doing, I, Delia, will be pleased to attend to your self evaluations as part of mine.

11. I become irritable when students try to discover what to do in order to <u>please me</u>, even though that something may be utterly distasteful to the student.

APPENDIX I

Impressions of the Class

1. Some of you appeared frustrated - close to anger
   body posture
   extreme quietness
2. Some of you are concerned about classrooms -- less concerned about what goes on in this class.
3. Some of you are concerned about some beliefs and wish to talk more about certain ones.
4. Some are waiting for things to happen rather than help cause the happenings.
5. Some of you are feeling the "lack of organization from your instructor".
6. Some of you already know what you are going to do in the classroom. Classroom will be structured according to your past experiences.
7. Some of you feel that your past experiences in the classrooms are more valuable than a synthesis of experiences.

APPENDIX J

ADJECTIVE RATING SCALES

Subject_____Rater_____Date_____

Instructions: Use 1 for extremely like this child, 3 for much like, 5 for somewhat like, 7 for little like, 9 for not at all like, the points in between to describe intermediate degrees of the characteristic.

_____

1. Bold	___	22. Noisy	___	44. Cheerful	___
2. Agreeable	___	23. Restless	___	45. Stable	___
3. Fearful	___	24. Spontaneous	___	46. Sulky	___
4. Irritable	___	25. Calm	___	47. Destructive	___
5. Excitable	___	26. Sensitive	___	48. Good-natured	___
6. Active	___	27. Hyperactive	___	49. Bashful	___
7. Peaceful	___	28. Outgoing	___	50. Passive	___
8. Easily upset	___	29. Persistent	___	51. Rebellious	___
9. Distractible	___	30. Unfriendly	___	52. Seeks Approval	___
10. Sociable	___	31. Temper tantrums	___	53. Compliant	___
11. Attentive	___	32. Pleasant	___	54. Inhibited	___
12. Grouchy	___	33. Cautious	___	55. Reckless	___
13. Angry	___	34. Contrary	___	56. High-strung	___
14. Friendly	___	35. Help-seeking	___	57. Talkative	___
15. Timid	___	36. Adventurous	___	58. Contented	___

16. Defiant	___	37. Gentle	___	59. Affectionate	___
17. Seeks attention		38. Withdrawn	___	60. Flighty	___
18. Clinging	___	39. Demanding	___	61. Enthusiastic	___
19. Fearless	___	40. Tense	___	62. Purposeful	___
20. Easygoing	___	41. Assertive	___	63. Cross	___
21. Shy	___	42. Patient	___	64. Explosive	___
22. Anxious	___	43. Emotionally stable	___		

APPENDIX K

Course Outline:

81.402, CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION: Early Childhood Education

Winter, 1980

Dr. Ken Swift

Room 100C, Faculty of Education

University of Study

Telephone: 272-2727 Messages: 272-9027 Home: 462-2097

Office Hours:

Monday, 10:00-12:00; Tuesday, 3:45-4:45; Wednesday, 1:30-3:30

What This Course is About

This course is supposed to help you to notice and respond to the behavior and needs of young children more skillfully than you already do. The course is also supposed to help you become better at managing children in groups. In working toward these goals, you can also evaluate how much you actucally enjoy working with young children for extended periods of time.

Assignments

1. CHILDREN'S FILES. Create one file for each child in your nursery; a plain, eight-by-eleven manila folder will do nicely. In each child's file, continually gather information about that child. Use the results of your various observations, including at least all of the following:

(a) at least 3 written anecdotes;

(b) transcripts of two language samples;

(c) notes from 2 structured, cognitive tasks on different topics, or on 2 conversations or interviews on different topics;

(d) notes from one parent meeting and/or home visit;

(e) any other materials or information about the child which you consider important.

You should include a brief comment (one paragraph maximum) on the significance of each item for the child's learning and development.

The comment can be written onthe observation item itself, or on a separate sheet of paper -- whatever seems the most clear to you.

All files will be OPEN TO THE PARENTS (they make good conversation starters at parent meetings). Since you work with 2 or 3 partners, divide up the children among you for purposes of this assignment.

DEADLINES: Preliminary review of 1 sample file = February 16; Final review of all files = April 6.

WEIGHTING: 5% in February; 30% in April.

2.DAILY PLANS. Begin keeping a planning notebook which shows as much as possible of what you are doing each day at school. This notebook should contain information about the following:

(a) brief descriptions of important activities that you intend to make happen that day;

(b) listings and/or descriptions of any special materials that require explanation;

(c) brief evaluations of how each significant activity actually turned out (written after it occurs);

(d) suggestions, if appropriate, for modifications or extensions of each activity for the future.

Daily plans need not (and should not) be wordy. Use point form throughout. Just make sure that an intelligent stranger (ME) can figure out what you are trying to say in them. Do not worry if activities repeatedly do not turn out as planned; that is not "failure", but learning.

Make sure your plans do not duplicate those made by your teaching partners. Strive to coordinate your particular activities with those made by your partners, so that the children benefit. To do this, you will need to have planning conversations or meetings (lunch together, phone calls, etc.).

DEADLINE: Preliminary review of 2-3 daily plans + February 3; Final review of all plans = April 6.

WEIGHTING: 5% for February; 30% for April.

FINAL TEST. This will be in essay format, and will ask questions on two topics:

(a) You will comment about the significance of the materials in one of the children's files collected by another student. I will choose the file at random which you will use on

the test.

(b) Given you commentary on this file, you will construct a lesson plan which builds on the strengths and needs of the child, as revealed in his or her file.

DEADLINE: April 6.

WEIGHTING: 20%.

4. CLASS PARTICIPATION. Come to class sessions a lot, and participate to a reasonable extent. This does not mean that you have to talk all the time in class (LOrd help us if you do!), but you should say something when it is appropriate, and not wait for someone else to do so. This takes more practice for some of us than for others, and sometimes it can be hard when work puts us under a lot of stress.

DEADLINE: Always.

WEIGHTING: 10%.

SPECIAL TOPICS FOR CLASS SESSIONS

Note that certain activities will occur regularly at every class. The following, in particular, will happen whenever possible:

(1) Announcements and Everyday Business. Fifteen minutes about the management of your practice teaching placements;

(2) Joys and Concerns. One hour, devoted in equal parts to Good Things (the "joys") that have happened in your practice

teaching, as well as Bad Things (the "concerns") that have happened. Be prepared to share the good and the bad during this time.

(3) A break for Refreshments. Fifteen minutes. A lot of important business is conducted during this time, and a lot of useful ideas are exchanged for your teaching. It is worth doing this time well.

Date	Topic/Activity
Jan 12	Nutrition for preschool children; How to get a job; Making lesson plans
Jan 19	No class
Jan 26	Discuss nursery trade-off visits; Discuss 5th day classrooms; Review lesson plans that you have made
Feb 2, 9, and 16	First-aid course (note that this includes the university "break week")
Feb 23	Review language samples made in your classrooms; Review vieotapes made in your classrooms
March 2	Finish reviewing language samples; Begin reviewing videotapes of your classrooms
March 9	Finish reviewing videotapes
March 16	Alternative methods: Montessori, DISTAR, Piagetian
March 23	Children and Death

March 30	Public schools break week: No class
April 6	Final test

APPENDIX L

FLANDERS INTERACTION ANALYSIS

The impact of the philosophy endorsed by the early childhood education program during the first term and the second term may be comparatively measured by using interaction analysis developed by Flanders. Flander's interaction analysis divides talk observed in a classroom setting into three sectors:

(1) Teacher talk

(2) Student talk

(3) Silence or confusion

Teacher talk is further separated into two setions wgich Flander's calls: indirect influence and direct influence. Student talk is divided into two parts: student responds and student initiates.

When field notes from two curriculum and nursery classes in September, December, January, and March respectively were analyzed using the above categories of interaction the following patterns emerged:

1. When looking at the professors' talk in the curriculum class, it was noted that in September fifty-two percent of the total interactions were indirect while thirty-eight percent were direct. These numbers showed a change by Christmas time, with an increase in the indirect interaction to eighty-five percent, and the direct interactions moved down to fifteen percent. In January

Dr. Swift's in-class interactions reflected a different trend. He began the term with twenty-four percent of the total interactions as indirect talk and seventy-six percent as direct talk. By March these changed to twelve percent indirect and eighty-eight percent direct interactions in the curriculum class.

2. When the talk in the nursery class is analyzed for direct and indirect interactions, the following trends emerged:

* In October forty-four percent of the total interactions were indirect and fifty-six percent were direct, by December these had changed to sixty-nine percent indirect and thirty-one percent direct.

* In January thirty-seven percent were indirect and sixty-three percent were direct. In March, these numbers changed to twenty-nine percent indirect and seventy-one percent direct interactions.

3. An analysis of the student-talk in the curriculum class and the children's talk in the nursery class in terms of whether the interaction was in response to teacher initiated talk or was a student initiated shows the following trends:

* In the curriculum class, in October, fifty-eight percent of the total interactions were student responses, while forty-two percent were student initiated. In December, the number of interactions which the students initiated made up sixty percent of the student talk. The student initiated interactions went to thirty eight percent in January and twenty two percent in March.

* In the nursery classroom, the percentage of the child

initiated interactions with the student teachers was at sixty one in October, eighty three in December, sixty in January, and thirty seven in March.