

**ADVANCED DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION (ECE)**

**ECE 102: THEORIES AND PRINCIPLES OF CHILD
DEVELOPMENT AND CARE**

**UNIT ONE: PRINCIPLES OF CHILD GROWTH AND
DEVELOPMENT: *PHYSICAL***

INTRODUCTION

Let me ask you this simple question: Why does a teacher need a knowledge of the growth and developmental pattern of children? Well, we might simply say the teacher needs to have a sound knowledge of child growth and development because he/she works with children of different socio-economic and cultural backgrounds, different age levels and a wide variety of individual differences. For the teacher to succeed in effectively teaching children the knowledge of child growth and development is indispensable. Such knowledge will help him/her in the selection and planning of curriculum materials and teaching methods that will take care of the wide variety of individual differences among children. The teacher needs to know the basic principles of child growth and development and the characteristics of the different age levels so that he can effectively guide every child to achieve harmonious development.

In this unit therefore, we will try to identify some of the reasons why we need to have knowledge of the pattern of growth and development among children. We will also attempt to simply define the concepts of growth and development. We will also try to identify the general principles of child growth and development.

OBJECTIVES

The specific objectives of this unit are to enable you achieve the followings:

- (a) define the concept of growth;
- (b) explain growth cycles and factors responsible for variations in growth cycles;
- (c) define the concept of development;
- (d) list and explain the reasons why a knowledge of child growth is important to the classroom teacher; and
- (e) list and explain the general principles of child growth and development.

REASONS WHY THE TEACHER SHOULD HAVE A KNOWLEDGE OF CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

- (a) A knowledge of the pattern of growth and development of children will help the teacher to know the pattern of behaviour at each age-level. Such knowledge will help the teacher in determining what children are expected to do at each age-level. With such a knowledge, the teacher would be able to set learning tasks appropriate for age-levels. When too much is expected of children at a particular age-level, they may develop a sense of inadequacy if they fail to meet the expectation. On the other hand, if too little is expected of them, there might be no incentives to develop their potentials. They may develop resentment towards the teacher for underestimating their potentials.
- (b) Developmental psychologists have discovered that the pattern of growth and development among normal children is approximately the same (Murlock, 1978). Such a knowledge has made it possible for Development Psychologists to develop scales for each age-level or norm group, in the different aspects of development (physical, mental, emotional, social and moral). By monitoring and comparing the progress of every child with what is expected in his norm-group or age-level, it is possible for the teacher to know whether a particular child is progressing or not. Where a particular child is not progressing, then efforts would be made to identify the problems, and necessary steps would be taken to remedy the situation if the defect is in the area of learning, and the children will be provided with the appropriate learning opportunities and incentives.
- (c) Successful development according to Hurlock (1978) requires proper guidance. A knowledge of the pattern of child growth and development will enable the teacher to effectively monitor children in their learning activities at the different levels.
- (d) A knowledge of the pattern of growth and development of children and their related characteristics will enable teachers to prepare children for the subsequent level and development well ahead of time. This would enable children to experience smooth transition from one age-level to another.

ACTIVITY I

1. List and explain the reasons why the knowledge of child growth and development is important to the teacher.

CONCEPT OF GROWTH

The terms “growth” and “development” have been used interchangeably by many people to mean the same thing. According to Hurlock (1978) the two terms mean different things but they are inseparable and neither can take place alone. The two processes are interrelated and interdependent on each other (Chauhan, 1978).

Growth, according to Hurlock (1978) refers to quantitative increase in the size and structure of the body. Growth and increase in the physical structure of the body in terms of height, weight and size. It also leads to increase in the structure of the internal organs and the brain of the person. The growth of the brain provides the child with greater capacity to learn, remember and reason well..

To have a complete understanding of the child's development, you need to know how the child develops physically as well as psychologically. Hurlock (1978) observed that physical development affects children's behaviour directly and indirectly. It determines what a child can do.

Indirectly, physical development affects the child's attitude towards him/herself and towards others, and the kind of adjustment he/she makes.

PHYSICAL GROWTH CYCLES

The term "cycle" means that physical growth does not occur at a regular rate but rather in periods, 'phases' or 'waves' of different velocities, sometimes rapidly and sometimes slowly (Hurlock, 1978).

Growth cycles have an order and therefore predictable. However the tempo or rate differs from child to child. With some children the rate is slow, with others it is normal and while with others it is faster. Growth cycles are physical and psychologically important because they affect the behaviour of the child.

MAJOR GROWTH CYCLES

According to Hurlock (1978) there are four distinct periods. Two of the periods or cycles are characterised by slow growth rate while the other two are characterized by rapid growth. From prenatal to the first 6 months after birth growth rate is rapid. Growth rate however begins to slow by the end of the first postnatal year. This slow rate also continues up to puberty stage. It should be noted that during this period, growth rate is relatively even throughout. The growth rate picks up again and increases rapidly from the postnatal period and continues throughout the adolescence period. By the time individual reaches maturity, growth rate slows down and becomes stable. Although there may be increase in body weight, such increase in height remains stable until old age.

VARIATIONS IN GROWTH CYCLES

Although growth cycles are orderly and predictable, Hurlock (1978) observed that they are subject to variations from one individual to another. There are a number of factors which account for the variations. These include:

- (a) racial background,
- (b) genetic body size and build,
- (c) good health and nutrition,
- (d) immunization against childhood diseases,

- (e) emotional tension,
- (f) multiple birth,
- (g) sex differences.

ACTIVITY II

1. Define the term growth.
2. What are the manifestations of the process of growth?
3. List and explain the factors responsible for variations in growth cycles.

THE CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT

Development can be defined as qualitative changes in human organism. According to Hurlock (1978) development has to do with both qualitative and quantitative changes in the human being. He defined development as “a progressive series of orderly coherent changes”. “Progress” implies that developmental changes are directional, moving forward and not backward. “Orderly coherent”, implies that the changes follow an order or particularly predetermined pattern and that the changes are interrelated. According to Hurlock (1978), the changes that take place in the human body as a result of development are:

- (a) Changes in Size: These include changes in height, weight, and body increase in the size of internal organs and the brain and changes in memory, reasoning, perception and creative imagination.
- (b) Changes in body proportions from childhood to adulthood.
- (c) Disappearance of some old features, such as baby hair, teeth, pattern of locomotion and speech, and some other tendencies.
- (d) Acquisition of new features (physical and mental) such as adult teeth, secondary sex characteristics, interest in moral standard and religious beliefs.

ACTIVITY III

1. Define the term “development”
2. List the characteristic features of development.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF DEVELOPMENT

Hurlock (1978) identified ten (10) fundamental principles of development in the human organism, they are:

1. Development which involves changes

This implies that there is no development without changes in the human organism (physical and mental). The process of development in the human organism according

to Murlock (1978) involves both quantitative and qualitative changes. Changes are also progressive, orderly, and coherent. Changes are also common or follow the same pattern among normal children.

2. **Early development is more critical than later development**

Research studies have shown that the developmental experiences of the early years of a child have significant effect in later development. Freud's studies of people with personality maladjustment and Erickson's clinical studies of children from birth to maturity have indicated that early childhood experiences affect later development. The type of personality that a person manifests in adulthood is greatly influenced by his early childhood developmental experiences.

3. **Development is the product of maturation and learning**

Development according to this principle is a process which results from a constant interchange of energy or forces within the human organism and his/her environment. In other words, hereditary forces inherent in the genetic constitution of the individual and environmental forces which influence his/her development. However, it is very difficult to quantify the contribution of either hereditary forces or environmental forces to the development of the human organism. The nurture/nature controversy is yet to be resolved.

4. **Developmental pattern is predictable**

Although individuals differ in the rate of growth and development, research evidence has shown that development follows an orderly sequence in all individuals and has a high degree of similarity in the order in which it occurs. Consequently the pattern of development in the human being is predictable. Hurlock (1978) maintained that in both prenatal and postnatal development, there is a sequence, with certain traits appearing at fixed intervals. Research evidences on the predictable pattern of development have led to the formation of two laws: the "cephalocaudal" law and the "proximodistal" law. According to cephalocaudal law, development starts from the head to the foot. For example, a foetus is well developed before the legs assume their final form. According to the proximodistal law, development proceeds from near to far, that is from the centre line of the body to the outer parts more directly to the centre. In locomotion also the pattern of development in children of all cultures is the same. The sequence is creeping, crawling and walking.

5. **Developmental pattern has predictable characteristics**

Developmental pattern is not only predictable but has certain common and predictable characteristics. This is true of physical as well as mental development (Hurlock 1978). Hurlock (1978) identified five predictable characteristics. These are:

- (a) Similarity in developmental patterns. This is all children follow a similar pattern of development, with one stage leading to the other. For example, babies crawl before they stand, and stand before they walk and walk before

they run. There may be variations in the speed but the pattern remain the same in normal children.

- (b) Development proceeds from general to specific responses. (Hurlock (1978) said in both mental as well as motor responses general activity normally precedes specific activity. For example the babies first learn to wave the whole arm before they learn to use specific fingers in holding objects or they learn to turn the whole body, before the head. In emotional behaviour too they learn to respond to situations with a general fear before their fears become specific to different situations.
 - (c) Development is continuous. Development is a continuous process which begins from the time of conception in the womb to death, but that it occurs at different rates, sometimes slowly and sometimes rapidly. Since it is continuous, what happens at one stage influences the next stage.
 - (d) Different areas develop at different rates. Even though the development of different parts of the body (physical and mental) is continuous, the development is not uniform for the entire organism. Hurlock (1978) observed that if the body is to attain its adult proportion, then inequalities in the rate of development must occur. For example, the feet, and nose reach maximum development early in adolescence while the lower parts of the face and the shoulders develop more slowly. Similarly creative imagination develops rapidly in childhood and reaches its peak in early adolescence, while reasoning develops more slowly.
 - (e) There is correlation in development. Terman (1959) as cited by Murlock (1978) concluded on the basis of genetic studies they carried out that available traits tend to go together. In the study they did not find negative correlations for example between intelligence and size, strength, physical well-being or emotional stability.
6. **There are individual differences in development.** As discussed earlier, the pattern of development is similar in all children. However, each child has his own rate of physical, mental, emotional and social development. Some children may develop in a smooth, gradual, step-by-step manner, while others may move in spurts. If we observe a group of say 5 - year old children, we may find some differences in their height, weight, emotional and learning readiness. According to Hurlock (1978) and Chauhan (1983) all children do not reach the same point of development at the same time or age.
7. **There are periods in the development pattern.** Although development is continuous, available evidence shows that at different ages certain aspects of development stand out more conspicuously than others because their development is taking place at a more rapid rate (Hurlock, 1978). There are five major periods of development (Bijou, 1968) beginning from the time of conception to the time when the child becomes sexually mature. The periods are:
- (a) Prenatal period (conception to birth)

- (b) Infancy (birth to 10-14 days).
 - (c) Babyhood (2 weeks to 2 years).
 - (d) Childhood (2 years to adolescence).
 - (e) Puberty (11 to 16 years)
8. **There are social expectations for every development.** In every cultural group there are certain behavioural patterns and skills expected of every age level. The child at every age level is expected to exhibit certain behavioural characteristics and at the same time perform certain tasks. A child who exhibits behaviours similar to children below his age level or fails to perform tasks appropriate to his/her age level is not developing normally.
 9. **Every area of development has potential hazards.** Hurlock (1978) said even when developmental pattern is progressing normally there may likely be, at every age, hazards in areas of development that may likely interfere with the normal pattern. The hazards may be environmental in origin or it may originate from within. Their origin notwithstanding, can, and does affect the physical, psychological and social adjustment the child is attempting to make (Hurlock, 1978).
 10. **Happiness varies at different periods in development.** According to Hurlock (1978) childhood is the happiest period of life. Childhood should be a happy, carefree time to guarantee good adjustment to adult life. Studies of childhood happiness have revealed that, for some children, childhood is a happy age while, for others it is an unhappy age.

ACTIVITY IV

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| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. List all the principles of child development.2. Discuss five of the principles you have listed. |
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SUMMARY

- This unit examined the general principles of child growth and development. In examining the principles, some attention was given to the definition of “growth and development”. The reasons why the knowledge of child growth and development was useful to the teacher is also examined.

ASSIGNMENT

1. Define the concepts of “growth” and “development”.
2. Explain growth cycles and factors responsible for variations in growth cycles.
3. List and explain the general principles of child growth and development.

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UNIT TWO: PIAGET'S THEORY OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

In this unit we will examine Piaget's theory of cognitive development. We will specifically examine Piaget's stages of cognitive development and the characteristic features of each stage. We will also examine the curricula and pedagogical implications of the theory to early childhood education.

OBJECTIVES

The specific objectives of this unit are to enable you:

1. state and explain Piaget's theory of cognitive development;
2. list and explain Piaget's stages of cognitive development and their related features; and
3. discuss the curricula and pedagogic implications of the theory to early childhood education.

THE SYSTEM

Much of the contemporary attention to children's cognitive development has been closely associated with the stimulation of Jean Piaget. Piaget began his ingenious study of child development with the careful observation of his own three children. It was from this beginning that his investigations were gradually extended to other children, and which has resulted in the publication of a large number of papers, monographs and books (Evans 1975).

Of fundamental concern to Piaget and his colleagues has been the identification of the processes underlying, and governing qualitative changes in thinking throughout the child's developmental stages. Piaget and his colleagues began by defining 'mature individual behaviour' as the ability to reason and think critically, objectively abstract and hypothetical terms. This form of ability according to Piaget is superordinate; that is on top of a hierarchy of subordinate elements which are developmental to their predecessors. These complex predecessors are in a distinct sequence, and define qualitatively distinct form of intellectual growth, beginning in infancy with sensory co-ordinations and ending with formal reasoning ability.

THE SEQUENCE OF DEVELOPMENT

The sequence of development which a child's cognitive stage involves begins with a state of egocentrism and ideally in a state of perspectivism (Evans, 1975). Egocentrism according to Piaget refers to the inability of the child to differentiate between his viewpoint and that of others and to differentiate himself or herself from his/her actions. In other words egocentrism refers to inability to differentiate between the subjective and the objective. Piaget's definition of childhood egocentrism is thus different from the common use of the term. Piaget's centric

adult is one who deliberately refuses to consider the view point of others that is, not because he is unable but because he does not wish to. On the other hand, to Piaget he/she is egocentric because he/she cannot behave otherwise. Out of cognitive immaturity, the child develops greater objectivity and the ability to think reflectively. The order in which evolution proceeds is the hallmark of Piagetian theory and has two features: (a) invariance and (b) cumulative development. Invariance means that the sequence of development has a fixed defined order. To reach point “Z” in development a child might have started at point “A” and proceeded through B,C,D,E,FG and so on; until he gets to point “Z” (Evans, 1975).

This order is said to be the same for all children, although individual differences in the rate of progression are possible and likely.

The concept of cumulative development is closely related to invariance. This means that the quality of a child’s sensory behaviour at any point in time is dependent upon the quality of the sensory-motor and symbolic experiences relevant to a particular cognition that came before. This pre-supposes that cognitive structures develop and become complex through processes which reflect the interaction of genetic and experiential cognitive structures which define behaviour at one point in development are incorporated into those of a later period. These stages are hierarchically arranged and qualitatively distinct. Piaget identified four (4) qualitatively distinct stages of cognitive development. The stages are (a) sensory-motor stage (birth to 2 years), (b) the pre-operational stage (2 to 7 years), (c) the concrete-operational stage (11 years), and (d) the formal operational stage (11 years to adolescence).

An important feature of this theory of cognitive development is not the age at which a child moves from one stage to another, but the fixed progression from one stage to the other. The child cannot adopt the strategies of a later stage at early stage of development without having first acquired and exercised the strategies of an earlier stage.

ACTIVITY I

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| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Briefly explain the sequence of cognitive development from Piaget’s point of view.2. List and explain the two important features of Piaget theory of cognitive development. |
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STAGES OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

1. Sensory Motor Stage (Birth to 2 years)

This stage covers the first two years of life, which is marked by an extra-ordinary development of the mind. This starts from reflex domination and reaches the stage of sensory motor schemes as a means to an end relationship. The development of this period is very important for future life.

It is during this period of life that sensory motor co-ordinations (such as looking at things heard, grasping at things seen and heard, manipulating things seen) form the action for subsequent symbolic thought (Evans, 1975). Gradually cognitive behaviour gives way to goal seeking sensory-motor language, the beginning of the formation of the concepts of time, and causality. Piaget subdivided this initial period into sub-stages, with the last marking the transition to symbolic thought.

The developmental importance of the sensory-motor period can hardly be over emphasized. One of the most important thing which a child achieves at this stage according to Piaget is the concept of the “object” or “object permanence”. That is the ability to believe or know that an object exists even when it is not physically present before us. Through interaction with the environment, the infant discovers that objects do not disappear when they are out of sight; objects maintain their existence even though they are not in the infant’s presence.

According to Evans (1975) all other subsequent logical thought on development hinges upon this discovery. Another important achievement at the sensory-motor stage is the development of the ability to perceive certain aspects of the environment as subjectively invariant; that is while people or objects may appear in different contexts or forms, their identity does not change. For example a mother is a mother whether she is dressed in her work clothes, ceremonial cloth or kitchen cloth. Also milk looks the same whether in a bottle, cup or dish. A third significant development or achievement at this stage (sensory-motor) is learning that certain actions have effects on the environment such as rudiments of the concept of causality. On the whole these mark the beginning of the gradual differentiation of self and nonself; that is determining what is and what is not (Evans 1975). This leads the infant from a totally self-centred existence to one successfully more object centered (Tuddenham, 1966).

ACTIVITY II

1. Explain the sensory-motor stage of cognitive development.
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2. Pre-Operational Stage (2 to 7 Years)

The child is no longer bound to immediate sensory engagement. The child’s capacity to store images (words and the grammatical structure of language) increases dramatically. Vocabulary development, including the ability to understand and use words is especially noteworthy. Children at this stage delight in imitating sounds and trying out a lot of different words. The mode of learning at this stage is initiative.

The preoperational child is however still faced with limitations in thinking which can only be overcome through maturation and experience. The preoperational child’s behaviour is dominated by his perceptions. His/her understanding is based largely upon what he sees in the immediate present. As Flavell (1963) observed, the child’s judgements are based on his perception of “before the eye reality”. At this stage the child is unaware or cannot comprehend the fact that the quantity of objects remains unchanged despite changes in textual appearance. In other words, children at this stage fail to conserve number in the face of irrelevant transformations. Also failures are noted in regard to object proportions such as weight, length and volume.

Another feature of early preoperational stage is the child’s inability to attend to more than one object proportion or experience at the same time. The child can only categorise objects and experiences on the basis of a single character. For example an

orange may be big or yellow, small or green, a given number of oranges will not be conceived along multiple dimensions of big, yellow oranges or small green oranges. Multiple classifications at this stage seem to be beyond the child's combinatory power.

Transductive reasoning is another characteristics of this stage. That is reasoning from the specific to the specific, from the particular to particular. This according to Evans (1975) takes the form of determining cause-effect relationships simply on the basis that one event follows another and that since event "A" is caused by event "D", then "D" is caused by "A".

Other characteristics are "animism" (the tendency to attribute life or consciousness to inanimate objects, especially where movement may be observed such as in a cloud) "artificialism" (the tendency to conceive of all objects in the world as the product of human creation and made for our own purposes), and "realism" (the tendency to view psychological phenomena such as dreams and pretences as concrete, real occurrences. There exists no other view or experience for the child but his/her own.

ACTIVITY III

1. Explain the preoperational stage of cognitive development.

3. Concrete Operational Period (7 to 12 Years)

At about the age of 6 or 7, intuitive thought is integrated into the next higher structured component in cognitive development which is "concrete operations". Children are longer dreamers at this stage, but are capable of logical thoughts. They understand functional relationships and can therefore test problems to find out facts. Logical operations such as mental acts of reasoning are performed on real concrete objects and events. The distinguishing characteristics of this stage are the increasing extent to which objectivity and logic are applied in thinking. Deductive reasoning is prominent at this stage, although the starting point for thought is in the concrete and real (Evans, 1975).

One major characteristic of this stage of cognitive development is the emergence of the logical rule of "transition" that is the passage from one point to another along a continual continuum. This operation is critical for the continual development of number concepts. Transitivity is a logical operation that underlies the arrangement of objects in an order of "less than", or "greater than". Serial ordering or sections can be performed and symbolically represented as in the sensitivity of length or weight. For example if $A > B$ and $B > C$ then $A > C$. Achievement of conservation concept is an important feature of this period. Children at this stage can measure weight and calculate. They can also classify objects and organize them in various serial orders – along dimensions such as sections, and can understand relational terms such as "X" is longer than "Y".

Another important concrete-operational ability is “class inclusion” which makes it possible for the child (1) to think about the parts and the independently in part-whole relationships and (2) to perform multiple classifications. Technically the operation is referred to as “combinativity”, in which classes of objects can be combined into one comprehensive superordinate class. For example a child can be given about (30) wooden pencils (20 red and 10 blue). You can then ask the child to indicate whether there are more red pencils or more blue pencils. A child at this level would be able to answer correctly.

A third logical thought operation is “reversibility”. Reversibility here implies two meanings. First, reversibility means that for every action there exists another action which cancels it. For example Evans (1975) said, the arithmetization in the operations of addition and multiplication can be reversed by subtraction and division respectively. Secondly, reversibility enables the child to return to the original starting point of his/her thought sequence in problem solving. For example sub-classification of plants can be combined into one superordinate class and reverted into subclasses. According to Piaget’s theory, reversibility is a prerequisite for “conservation acquisition”. A conservative child recognizes that certain properties of objects remain unchanged, despite certain changes in the objects.

Also associated with this stage is the principle of association. This means that the same point or objective can be reached by different routes. In other words, the child is able to recognise that the same parts may be combined in different ways and the identical solution to a problem may be reached through two or more different means.

In summary, a concrete-operational child is capable of logical seriation, class inclusion, the recognition of equality, the exercise of reversibility in thought, conservation and associativity.

ACTIVITY IV

1. Explain the concrete-operational stage of cognitive development.

4. Formal Operation (13 Years and above)

Operations before age 13 are oriented toward concrete means in the immediate present. In the formal operations stage however, they encompass the potential or hypothetical and are non-present. Operational thought systems become integrated logical conclusions deduced purely on a symbolic level (Evans 1975). The ability to combine in thought several rules, or variables to solve problems become apparent, as the ability to formulate and execute symbolic plans of actions.

In this stage, the child is capable of reasoning that a conclusion necessarily follows the premises and that if the premises are true, the conclusion must also be true. The child at this stage also becomes capable of detecting logical incongruities, in hypothetical contexts. Children at this stage can also envisage alternatives to the way

things are done and advance hypothetical reasons for their improvement. During this stage also, the child becomes capable of evaluating the quality of his own thought.

In summary, children at this stage of cognitive development have developed full formal patterns of thinking. They can behave in abstract terms, follow logical propositions and reason by hypothesis. They can also isolate the elements of a problem systematically and offer possible solutions. In other words symbolic meanings, metaphors and similes can now be understood by the child.

ACTIVITY V

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| 1. Explain the formal operations stage of cognitive development. |
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PEDAGOGIC AND CURRICULA IMPLICATION OF PIAGET'S THEORY TO EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Piagetian theory according to Evans (1975) is a theory in the making. This is because important theoretical problems still obscure some aspects of the theory. He therefore argues that curricular derivations from the theory are premature. He contended that even Piaget himself systematically addressed the possible pedagogical application of his theory. According to Duckworth (1973) Piaget seemed to have thought of important things which include offering teachers three related point advice. These are that teachers should:

- (e) provide children with actual objects to manipulate;
- (f) assist children in their development of question-asking skills; and
- (g) know why particular operations are difficult for children.

In spite of these observations however, Piagetian theory has remarkably appealed to many educators; and this has led to a variety of general and specific educational implications. At the general level according to Evans (1975), several behavioural teaching-learning principles were stressed. These are:

- (1) active self-discovery and inductively oriented learning experiences in which a child is able to perform transformations on materials from the environment (where direct teaching is necessary, to follow rather than precede period of manipulation and exploration);
- (2) arrangement of moderately noble experiences which can capitalize upon and facilitate the stage of relevant thinking operations while accommodating the child's present intellectual capabilities;
- (3) a variety of patterned and enriched concrete sensory experiences;
- (4) the symbolization of manipulative, play and aesthetic experiences;
- (5) a variety of models for imitative learning;
- (6) a high rate of interpersonal interaction among children with ample opportunity for role playing, sharing of different viewpoints and corrective discussions led by adults under appropriate circumstances and environments;

- (7) the use of the clinical method to study children's progress, specifically for noting the steps which a child takes in finding solution to a problem.

Evans (1975) observed that statements of implications focus upon the need to find ways that would govern children's environmental encounters so that their intellectual potential is maximized, particularly in respect of analytical thinking. Piaget however was not very specific about the implications of the theory to curricula and teaching methods. This statement made by Piaget as cited by Ripple and Rockcastle, (1964) may perhaps assist in clarifying his view point

The goal in education is not to increase the amount of knowledge, but to create the possibilities for a child to invent and discover. When we teach too fast, we keep the child from inventing and discovering himself. Teaching means creating situations where structures may be assimilated at nothing other than a verbal level.

Thus, at the nursery and kindergarten level, the aim of education would not be to teach concrete operations, but to provide experiences with their prerequisites so that operativity will subsequently be fewer (Kamii and Radin, 1967).

In summary, a significant educational implication of Piaget's theory of cognitive development is that, development in any one stage depends on activity. In other words the development of the brain power is not fixed at birth; but is a function of appropriate activity during any particular stage. Children must engage in appropriate activities to learn. A critical point for us is the key phrase in all of Piaget's writing that – activity produces cognitive development. Thus over and over in his writings to educators, Piaget calls for the "active school".

ACTIVITY VI

1. What are the three related points of advice which Piaget gave to teachers?
2. List and explain the seven basic teaching-learning principles stressed in Piaget's theory.

ASSIGNMENT

1. Statement and explain Piaget's theory of cognitive development.
2. Describe Piaget's stages of cognitive development pointing out the features of each stage.
2. Discuss the curricula and pedagogical implications of the theory to early childhood education.

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UNIT THREE: THEORIES OF HAVIGHURST AND ERICKSON

INTRODUCTION

In this unit we will examine the developmental theory of Havighurst and Erikson and their implications to early childhood education.

OBJECTIVES

The specific objectives of this unit are to enable the students to:

1. explain the developmental theories of Havighurst and Erikson;
2. list and explain the developmental stages proposed by each theory;
3. explain the developmental task of each stage proposed by each theory; and
4. discuss the curricula and pedagogic implications of each theory to early childhood education.

HAVIGHURST'S THEORY OF DEVELOPMENT

Havighurst developed a specific task model of development for children. He developed 9 developmental tasks for children from birth to 6 years and 9 other developmental tasks for children of ages 6 to 12 years. According to him each stage of development has certain tasks, skills, attitudes and understandings to be achieved. In the course of development therefore every child must meet or achieve the developmental tasks before he can move to higher levels of development. Thus, at every period of development in the life of an individual successful achievement of the specific developmental tasks will lead him to happiness and to be successful with later developmental tasks, while failure will lead to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society and difficulty with later developmental tasks.

Below is a table showing Havighurst's developmental tasks for children.

HAVIGHURST'S DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS FOR CHILDHOOD

<u>BIRTH TO 6 YEARS</u>	<u>6 TO 12 YEARS</u>
1) Learning to walk	1) Learning physical skills necessary for coordination.
2) Learning to take solid foods	2) Building wholesome attitudes toward oneself as an organism.
3) Learning to talk.	3) Learning to get along with age-mates.
4) Learning to control the elimination of body wastes.	4) Learning an appropriate masculine or feminine roles
5) Learning sex differences and sex modesty.	5) Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing and calculating.

6) Achieving physiological stability.	6) Developing concepts necessary for everyday living.
7) Forming simple concepts of social and physical reality.	7) Developing conscience morality, and a scale of social values.
8) Learning to relate oneself emotionally to parents, siblings and other people.	8) Achieving personal independence.
9) Learning to distinguish right and wrong and developing a conscience.	9) Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.

Commenting on the motivating factors behind developmental tasks, Hurlock (1978) identified physical maturation, cultural pressures and personal values as the motivating forces. Thus, some developmental tasks arise as a result of physical maturation such as learning to walk; others develop due to cultural pressure from society such as learning to read or in learning appropriate sex roles. He further suggested that values and aspirations of the individual, such as in children are attributed to these three forces or factors.

ACTIVITY I

1. List the 9 developmental tasks identified by Havighurst for children from birth to 6 years.
2. List the 9 developmental tasks identified by Havighurst for children of 6 to 12 years.

PURPOSE OF DEVELOPMENTAL TASK

Hurlock (1978) identified three very useful purposes of various developmental tasks identified by Havighurst.

In the first place, developmental tasks serve as guidelines which help parents and teachers to know what children should learn at a given age. This is particularly important for curriculum planning and development.

Secondly, developmental tasks serve as a motivating factor for children as to what the social group expects them to learn at that age. Thirdly, developmental tasks provide parents and teachers an understanding of what will be expected of children in the immediate future. Such an understanding will make parents and teachers alert to the necessity of preparing children to meet the new expectations.

ACTIVITY II

1. Explain why a knowledge of the developmental task of children is important to parents and teachers.

FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE THE MASTERY OF DEVELOPMENTAL TASK

A number of factors influence the mastery of developmental tasks. According to Hurlock (1978) some factors facilitate the mastery of developmental tasks while others are obstacles. He further observed that while some of these factors can be controlled others cannot be controlled to a certain degree. Hurlock (1978) identified seven factors that could aid the mastery of developmental task and seven factors that serve as obstacles to the mastery of developmental tasks.

(a) **Factors that aid the Mastery of Developmental Tasks**

- (i) Accelerated physical development.
- (ii) Strength and energy above average for age.
- (iii) Above average intelligence.
- (iv) An environment that offers opportunity for learning.
- (v) Guidance from parents and teachers in learning.
- (vi) A strong motivation to learn.
- (vii) Creativity accompanied by a willingness to be different.

(b) **Factors that serve as Obstacles to the Mastery of Developmental Tasks**

- (i) Retardation in development whether physical or mental.
- (ii) Poor health resulting in low energy and strength.
- (iii) A handicapping physical defect.
- (iv) Lack of opportunity to learn what the social group expects.
- (v) Lack of Guidance in Learning.
- (vi) Lack of motivation to learn.
- (vii) Fear of being different.

According to Hurlock (1978) the inability of a child to master the developmental task of his age has three serious consequences. Firstly, that such a failure will make the child to feel inferior among his more successful age-mates. This feeling of inferiority will lead to unhappiness. Secondly, failure to master developmental tasks will lead to social disapproval and social rejection. Thirdly it will make the mastery of new developmental tasks difficult.

ACTIVITY III

1. List and explain the factors which aid the mastery of developmental tasks.
2. List and explain the factors which abstract the mastery of developmental tasks.
3. What are the consequences of failure to master developmental tasks?

CURRICULA AND PEDAGOGIC IMPLICATIONS OF HAVIGHURST'S THEORY TO EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Learning tasks for children should be graded according to their level of maturation. The learning tasks should be interesting and appealing to children and should be such that the mastery of the learning tasks at one level will aid the learning of tasks at the subsequent higher levels of development.

In teaching children to master specific developmental tasks, teachers should use a lot of play activities that are interesting and appealing. Teachers should assist children to see relationship between present learning task and the future anticipated developmental task to be learnt. The use of practical or concrete examples or learning materials in the mastery of developmental tasks is very important. The theory calls on teachers and parents to create an enabling learning environment for children to master the developmental tasks for each stage of development. Parents and teachers should strive to eliminate or reduce to the minimum level those factors which serve as obstacles to the mastery of developmental tasks.

ACTIVITY IV

1. Discuss the curricula and pedagogic implications of Havighurst's theory to early childhood education.

ERIK H. ERIKSON'S THEORY

Erik Homburger Erikson was born in 1902 in Germany, and raised by his mother and step father. His biological father abandoned his mother before he was born. Although this information was hidden from him, he noticed the differences between his body physique and that of his step father Dr. Theodor Homburger. This made Erikson to suspect that his mother and his step father were not his biological parents. This question of family identity may perhaps have influenced Erikson's ideas regarding the role of "identity in the growth and development of personality.

Erikson also reported that while he was attending the local Gymnasium, he often felt rejected by his peers because of his Jewish surname. On the other hand his bland feature made him unacceptable among members of his step father's religious group because he did not look like a Jew. These experiences might have also influenced his ideas about identity.

Instead of going to a medical school as proposed by step his father, Erikson chose and studied art. After a brief period in the art school, Erikson decided to travel out with the aim of discovering Europe while trying to earn a living as an artist. In 1927, at the age of 25 years, Erikson got a job in Vienna, at a school, attended mostly by children whose parents had accepted the ideas of psychoanalysis as developed by Sigmund Freud. It was while working at the school that Erikson came into contact with psychoanalytic theory and major personalities of the Freudian school. The personalities included Freud himself, his daughter Anna, Heinz Hartman and others. These individuals and their theories greatly influenced the life and ideas of Erikson.

While working at the school, Erikson also received training in child psychoanalysis under the direction of Anna Freud. Shortly after he completed his studies, he and his wife came to the United States as a result of Hitler's rise to power in Germany.

ERIKSON'S PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORY OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

It is important to bear in mind what is meant by "psychosocial" when used in conjunction with development. It means specifically that the stages of a person's life from birth to death are formed by social influences interacting with a socially and psychologically maturing organism.

Erikson is a stage theorist like Freud. He believed that human personality develops through a series of predictable steps. Under conditions of normal development, the individual will move from a state of complete self gratification and dependency to a state of independent operation and mutual regulation with others in a social world.

Erikson employed many of the concepts of classical analytic theory in formulating his theory. He argued that personality is not complete at the end of childhood. Although the individual experiences many important crises during the period of infancy and childhood, Erikson believed that the ego continues to pass through other developmental stages up to adulthood, with each stage having its own effort.

Erikson proposed eight stages of ego development, each stage having its developmental task to be achieved. At each of the eight proposed stages, Erikson was interested in tracing the development of the ego's sense of "self" and "identity". According to Erikson, "identity" develops the resolution of specific crisis that the ego faces at every stage. The successful resolution of specific crisis at each stage makes the individual to emerge as a stronger and integrated personality. Unsuccessful resolution of these will lead to a weak, less adjusted and less integrated individual. Erikson believed that healthy identity, required both positive and negative aspects of each crisis.

Erikson's first five stages correspond with Freud's psychosexual stages of development. The eight stages are shown in the table below.

S/No.	State	Psychosocial Crisis
1.	Infancy	Trust Vs mistrust
2.	Early Childhood	Autonomy Vs Shame And Doubt
3.	Play Age	Initiative Vs Guilt
4.	School Age	Industry Vs Inferiority
5.	Adolescence	Identity Vs Identity Diffusion
6.	Young Adult	Intimacy Vs Isolation
7.	Adulthood	Generativity Vs Self Absorption
8.	Mature Age	Integrity Vs Despair.

Stage I: Infancy-Goal: Trust Vs Mistrust

This is the first stage of ego identity. This also corresponds with Freud's oral stage of developmental crisis which the infant faces. This stage is that of establishing a sense of basic trust versus mistrust in those who provide for his physiological needs. If the child's physical needs (food, water, rest and elimination) and emotional needs (warmth and affection) are well satisfied on a regular basis, and if he/she feels safe and free from danger, then he/she sees the world as a comfortable place. A child growing with such a supportive environment will develop a balanced sense of trust vs mistrust, and feels "all right". The sense of "all rightness" is the basis of confidence and self worry for the infant. On the other hand if the child's physiological and emotional needs are not well satisfied and are erratically inconsistent, he will develop a sense of mistrust. A child who grows up in such an environment that is not supportive will lack self confidence and self worth. He will see the world as a harsh place with people that are not to be trusted.

The child's successful resolution of the crisis of trust vs mistrust at this stage will enable him/her to emerge with ego strength (hope for the future). The response of mothers and other caretakers to the physiological and emotional needs of infants is a critical factor in the development of basic trust. Erikson argued that the child's experience at this level is very significant to his adult life. If the child does not receive enough at this level, he will find it difficult to make sacrifices and provide for others in his adult life.

State II: Early Childhood-Goal: Autonomy vs Shame and Doubt

With the successful resolution of the crisis of trust, the child moves on to this second stage which corresponds to Freud's anal stage. The crisis to be resolved by the child at this stage is that of autonomy Vs shame and doubt. The child at this level has started to walk, and would therefore like to be left alone to freely explore his/her environment. Appropriate bowel and bladder control is also expected of the child at this stage. The child is also expected to control his temper tantrums. However, at this stage the child would like to test his/her found self-autonomy. If left uncontrolled, the child asserts this autonomy with such a force that is beyond the normal and may physically injure himself or loose self-control. Erikson argued that the child needs firm handling and enforced guidelines during this period. Where the child lacks firm control, he may loose self control and consequently self-esteem and pride. This may result into an overdeveloped sense of shame and doubt.

Erikson argued that a child who is encouraged to establish his autonomy in a framework of clear guidelines for acceptable behaviour, whose mistakes are acknowledge and corrected in a firm but understanding manner will establish a positive ego identity. Such a child will also develop an adequate sense of autonomy and his ego stressed by the presence of "will" which will result into unbroken determination to exercise both free choice and self-respect.

Stage III: Play Age-Goal: Initiative Vs Guilt

This third stage corresponds with Freud's phallic stage. This is a stage of expanding mastery and responsibilities. This stage presents the child as being decisively more advanced and more "together" both physically and mentally. With his newly developed sense of autonomy,

his advanced motor skills and his rudimentary languages, the child has enough energy to devote to a variety of activities.

A sense of initiative combined with autonomy gives the child the ability to select a goal, plan how to achieve, and pursue it. At this stage, the child is willing to learn well. "Purpose" is the virtue that ascends during developmental stage. Purpose is the courage to envisage pursued valued goals. Playing is the major activity at this stage. The child engages in both physical and mental games. He imitates the roles of parents and other adults in a make-believe world.

The emerging sense of initiative however may be threatened by some of the child's desires especially those relating to the Oedipus complex. The child feels guilty and develops fear. As a result the child tries to identify with the sense and morals of the parent whom he fears. An appropriate level of guilt, well mixed with the child's drive for initiative will keep him within the limits of society's acceptable behaviour and thus direct him/her towards practical goals and dependable activities. Successful resolution of this crisis adds purpose to the ego which has acquired hope and will at the earlier stages.

State IV: School Age-Goal: Industry Vs Inferiority

At this stage, the child's interest in toys and play is gradually superseded by an interest in productive situations and the implements and tools used for work. During this period the child directs his/her energy outside the family where he is to learn to be a productive participant in the larger society. Such learning may be in school work or in other productive activities. The child is concerned with this ability handle to a productive situation to completion, and to see the result of his efforts. If the child is successful, the ego is strengthened and competence is added to the other quality the ego has previously acquired. If the child is unsuccessful he may lose faith in himself and his skills and develop a sense of inadequacy and inferiority.

The virtue of competence, hope, will and purpose prepares the child with a view of future tasks (although not very specific). At this stage the child is ready and willing to learn about tools, machines and methods preparatory for the work. He/she therefore needs specific instruction in fundamental methods to become familiar with a technical way of life.

State V: Adolescence-Goal: Identity Vs Identity diffusion

This stage is the stage of adolescence. The onset of adolescence brings with it a new set of problems to the developing ego. Physiologically, the child experiences rapid changes which result into general maturity. The adolescence also recognises the fact that he is about to face adulthood. The adolescent begins to sense a feeling of his own identity, a feeling that he is a unique person who must fit into some meaningful role in society. The adolescent becomes aware of his unique characteristics such as his likes and dislikes and his anticipated goals for the future. This is the stage of identity formation for the adolescent. The adolescent at this stage of identity formation suffers more deeply from confusion of roles. The crisis at this stage resulting from the process of identity formation may cause the adolescent to feel isolated, empty, anxious and indecisive. The adolescent may feel that the society is pushing

him/her to make decisions he is not capable of. The adolescent is deeply concerned with how others view him/her.

The successful resolution of the crisis of this situation results into a sense of ego identity which Erikson defined as “being at one with oneself”. Before this identity could be forged however, the individual must integrate the identity and the experiences derived from the struggles of infancy and childhood. On the other hand failure to integrate one’s previous identifies may result in role conflict, that is, the inability to form an identity, often manifested by some erratic choices, denial of commitment and by the extension of the adolescent period into adulthood.

At the adolescent age, the virtue of fidelity develops. Although now sexually mature in many ways, the adolescent is not yet adequately prepared to become a parent. Fidelity is the ability to sustain loyalties from pledges in spite of the inevitable contradictions of value systems.

Stage VI: Psychosocial Stage – Young Adult-Goal: Intimacy Vs Isolation

In this stage, young adults are prepared and willing to unite their identity with others. They seek relationships, intimacy, partnership and affiliations, and are prepared to develop the necessary strengths to fulfill these commitments despite the sacrifices they may have to make. Now, for the first time in their life, the young can develop true sex genitality in mutuality with a loved partner. Sex life at previous stages was restricted to a searching for sexual identity and a striving for transitory intimacies. For totality to be of lasting significance it requires someone to love and to have sexual relations with, and with whom one can share in a trusting relationship.

The virtue of **love** comes into being during the intimate stage of development. The dominant virtue of the universal love appears in many forms throughout earlier stages beginning with the infant’s love for its mother, then the adolescent infatuations, and finally the love one exhibits in caring for others as an adult. Although love is apparent in the early stages, the development of true intimacy transpires only after the age of adolescence. Young adults are now capable of committing themselves to a joint relationship in which the mode of life is mutually shared with an intimate partner.

State VII: Psychosocial Stage: Adulthood-Goal: General Vs Self absorption

The stage of generativity is characterised by the capacity with what is generated – products, ideas and so on and the establishment and setting forth of guidelines for coming generations. When generativity is weak or not given expression the personality regresses and takes on a sense of impoverishment and stagnation.

The virtue of **care** develops during this stage. Care as expressed by one’s concern for others; by wanting to take care of those who need it and to share one’s knowledge and experience with them. This is accomplished through child rearing and teaching, demonstrating and supervising.

Stage VIII: Psychosocial Stage: Mature Age-Goal: Integrity Vs Despair

The last stage can best be described as a stage one reaches after having taken care of things and people, and ideas, and having adapted the successes and failure in existence. Through such accomplishments individuals make the benefits of the first seven stages of life and pretend that their life has some order and meaning within a large order. Although one who has reached a state of integrity, aware of various life styles of others, he or she is presented with dignity their own style of life and defends it from potential threats. This style of life and the integrity culture thus become the “patrimony of the soul”.

Wisdom is the virtue that develops out of the encouragement of integrity and despair in the last stage of life. Physical and mental activities of everyday functions are slowing down this time in the life cycle. Simple wisdom maintains and conveys the integrity of accumulated experiences of previous years. Those in the stage of wisdom can represent to your generations a style of life characterized by the feeling of wholeness and completeness. This feeling of wholeness can counteract the feeling of despair and disgust, and the feeling of being finished as present life situations pass by. The stage of wholeness also alleviates the feeling of helplessness and dependence that can mark the very end of life.

ACTIVITY V

1. List and explain Erikson’s eight stages of psychosocial development.
2. What are the major crises associated with each of the eight stages?

PEDAGOGIC AND CURRICULA IMPLICATIONS OF ERIKSON’S THEORY TO EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Of the eight stages proposed by Erikson, stages two and three are the stages which fall within the period of early childhood. The major crisis which the child faces and which he has to resolve at stage two is that of “autonomy versus shame and doubt”; while that of stage three is the sense of “initiative versus guilty”.

The child at these stages of development wishes to develop a sense of autonomy and the ability to be initiative. If the child is therefore not properly guided by the teacher, he loses self control, self esteem and sense of pride. This result into the development of a sense of shame and doubt.

The curricula for stage two should therefore be rich with a variety of play activities. The child with his newly acquired capacity to use his legs, should be encouraged to freely explore his environment under the watchful eyes of the teacher. The teacher needs to guide the child, so that he/she does not engage in play activities that will injure him/her physically. Erikson argued that the child needs to be handled very firmly. He should be encouraged to develop his autonomy within the frame work of clear guidelines for acceptable behaviour. Teachers handling a child at this stage, should acknowledge the correction of the child’s mistakes in a firm but understanding manner. In other words, teachers can help children to develop a high sense of autonomy through a balance of firmness and permissiveness. Teachers and parents

should decide the limit of freedom for children, taking into consideration the conditions of the environment.

The child at stage three with his newly developed autonomy newly developed locomotor skills and rudimentary language has a lot of energy to devote to a variety of activities. The curricula at this stage should also be made up of a variety of play activities both indoor and outdoors; telling stories and other activities which will encourage the development of language as part of the curriculum. The child should be encouraged to initiate goals in his play activities and to pursue such goals to their logical conclusion. Children should therefore be encouraged to engage in goal oriented play activities. Children at this stage of development begin to develop a sense of right or wrong. If the feeling of right is overtaxed by moralistic parents and teachers, children develop feelings of badness which may inhibit their urge to test themselves in an expanding social world.

ACTIVITY VI

1. Explain the pedagogic and curricula implications of Erikson's theory to early childhood education.

SUMMARY

- In this unit, we examined Havighurst's theory of development and Erikson's psychosocial theory of development. The unit examined the various developmental tasks proposed in Havighurst and Erikson's eight stages of development and their related crisis. Curricula and pedagogic implications of the two theories to early childhood education were also examined.

ASSIGNMENT

- (a) Explain the developmental theories of Havighurst and Erikson.
- (b) List the developmental tasks proposed by Havighurst.
- (c) List the eight stages of psychosocial development advanced by Erikson.
- (d) Discuss the curricula and pedagogic implications of each theory to early childhood education.

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UNIT FOUR: THEORIES OF KOHLBERG AND VYGOSTSKY

INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we will examine the theories of Kohl and Vygostsky. We will also examine the implications of these two theories to early childhood education.

OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this unit are to enable you;

1. discuss the theories of Kohlberg and Vygostsky;
2. list the various stages of development identified in the theories of Kohlberg and Vygostsky; and
3. discuss the curricula and pedagogic implications of the two theories to early childhood education.

KOHLBERG'S STAGES OF MORAL GROWTH

Born in Bronxville, New York, Lawrence Kohlberg is known for his research in the psychology of moral development of children.

According to Kohlberg, morality develops in stages, each successive level representing a more mature form of reasoning. After a careful study of the responses of many persons to different imaginary moral dilemmas, Kohlberg concluded that we pass through three levels of moral development: (a) a pre-conventional level in which morality is essentially one of external rather than internal stands; (b) a conventional level in which morality is derived from performing correct roles; and (c) a post-conventional level in which morality is basically one of shared standards, rights and delegations. Each of these three levels of moral development comprises stages of orientation (see table below).

KOHLBERG'S STAGES OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT

PRE-CONVENTIONAL LEVEL	Stage One:	Moral judgements are backed up with obedience and punishment which demonstrate obedience for authority and allow the individual to avoid punishment viewed as "good".
	State Two:	Actions which satisfy individual needs are viewed as "good", while those which do not are viewed as "bad".
CONVENTIONAL LEVEL	Stage Three:	Actions which are approved of by others are viewed as "good", and those which are disapproved of are labelled "bad".

POST-CONVENTIONAL LEVEL	Stage Four:	Actions through which an individual “does his or her duty” or which show respect for law and authority are viewed as “good”. Action which violate this sense of duty are viewed as “bad”.
	Stage Five:	Actions which are consistent with the rights and well-being of others are viewed as “good”. Those which violate such or harm others are seen as “bad”.
	Stage Six:	Actions which are consistent with an individual’s self chosen standards of justice are viewed as “good”. Actions which are inconsistent with such standards are viewed as “bad”.

State 1: This corresponds to the earliest stage described by Piaget in which the physical consequences of an act determine whether it is good or bad. At his stage, there is a primitive obedience to power and authority, in that power and authority have control over the rewards and punishments.

State 2: Action that is right is action that satisfies one’s own needs and, to a lesser extent, the needs of society. There is a bargaining element in morality at this stage. “If you do what is good for me, then I will do what is good for you”. Relationships among children at this stage involves notion of fairness in how people should treat one another.

Stage 3: Action has to be in accordance with the notions of the various groups to which the individual belongs. He/she not only conforms to the social order but manifests it by even giving up some immediate source of satisfaction for the sake of the group.

State 4: Respect for authority and the maintenance of the social order becomes important. Doing one’s duty is the very essence of right behaviour. The fixed rules of society have to be obeyed, and good behaviour involves showing respect for authority.

State 5: Although the behaviour involved in this stage is very commonly observed, that stage 5 is far more rare. It involves the sophisticated idea that right action involves the rights of the individual and the rules and standards of the rest of the society. There is an understanding that values are relative but that there have to be constitutionally agreed on rules of conduct. Rules of conduct are not fixed for eternal standards, as they are in stage 4, but even though they are represented by laws, the laws can be changed.

Stage 6: At this stage, there is reliance on what we all believed to be carefully thought out universal principles which are self-chosen, and arrived at by decisions of conscience. These are principles that involve the concept of the quality of rights of all human beings, a belief in the dignity and worth of the individual, and the idea of universal justice.

ACTIVITY I

1. Briefly explain the three levels of moral development put forward by Kohlberg.
2. List and explain the six stages of moral development put forward by Kohlberg.

CURRICULA AND PEDAGOGIC IMPLICATIONS OF THE THEORY TO EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Kohlberg & Turiel (1971) and Tunel (1973) have considered the issue of how education can raise the level of morality. They took the position that children do not acquire new levels of moral behaviour either by being told what to do, or how to behave, or by being corrected. There are the traditional ways in which churches and other religious organisations have attempted to change moral standards and most religious educators would agree on their ineffectiveness. Kohlberg and Turiel took the position that, at each stage, the individual has to discover the possibility of new ways of thinking about morality and that these discoveries permit him/her to move to the next stage. What the teacher has to do is to produce conditions that permit children to manage these discoveries for themselves. Such conditions include focusing attention on real-life moral issues and conflict helping the child to use his reasoning to arrive at various solutions, and then evaluating the solutions. The child needs to be helped to see flaws in his reasoning, inadequacies, his solutions and consequences that he did not first envisage. Then he is helped to improve on his solutions. Although the usual techniques of providing stories of exemplary characters or of preaching are quite ineffective, stories from history may serve to bring out moral dilemma that students can discuss.

There is some evidence that the stages of morality are not culturally determined, in the sense that different cultures might produce a different series of stages. It should be noted that children brought up under disadvantaged condition in various parts of the world, remain typically at stages.

As with all taxonomies having a relationship to the theory of Piaget, the assumption is made that a person has to complete each stage before he can proceed to the next stage. A child cannot be raised so that he can go directly to stage 6 but to start at stage 1 and then proceed to stage 2 and so on. Furthermore, the developing individual does not necessarily and automatically move from one stage to the next but must have the experiences necessary to promote the transition. The experiences do not direct the child where to go in his thinking but permit him to discover, for himself/herself a new approach to moral problems.

ACTIVITY II

1. Discuss the curricula and pedagogic implications of Kohlberg's theory to early childhood education.