o respond in ways adults can te child, however, by leaving to make sounds and by imiegins to use the language, it nd distinctly so the child can rds. Teachers also may want ocus on language development

ronment should include books derstand their importance and e primarily for the teacher to e children to read themselves—ures, or those with no words ildren especially enjoy looking to them many times.

g engage children in experiences ays. Besides the housekeeping on make-believe situations, the ramatic improvisation: for exeth (or pumping gas or buying playing a record (or making a

gh either dictation or invented or make up poems as the teacher ig spelling, children write down est spelling they can, and the nventional spelling. After seeing lren eventually learn to spell, wn stories. Furthermore, they r lives and an enjoyable way to

ide letter recognition and soundensional letters, letters printed ts, animals, and so forth, will can become familiar with the e.g., printed on large cards) and rs and putting them in a mold can introduce the names of the know the names of the letters, etters or combinations of letters. h letter cards and pictures. (See for books on language develop-

ng and copying shapes. Metal gns—such as straight lines, wavy

lines, and circles—can be drawn on heavy paper or cardboard by the teacher and covered with clear contact paper (or laminated). The children can trace over these lines and then wipe them off. The children can also copy the designs onto their own paper. Children can begin printing the letters in this way, with the teacher supervising them to make sure they are using the correct strokes.

Of course, language should be integrated with all areas of the curriculum. New vocabulary in every area should be introduced and clearly explained. Once children have learned to print most of the letters, they can write out new vocabulary words by copying them from a card. Children can teach each other new vocabulary words too. They should be given frequent opportunities to talk to the class about something they have done or learned.

Art

Art is the symbol system that enables us to mediate interaction with the unknown. Through art we create visions of future possibilities. It is a way of expressing the unexpressible. Art refers to all artisitic forms—music, dance, theater, painting, sculpture, poetry, literature, etc.

The arts involve processes from all five areas—psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional. Particularly important are the psychomotor processes that control body movements for the execution of a work of art (painting, dance, plaving the piano, or any of the other art forms), the perceptual processes that sensitize the individual to the world around him or her, and the affective processes, which tell the individual how he or she feels about the world around him and about the unknown world. The content of art includes information about the various artistic media and the techniques for using them, and knowledge of the history of art and the artistic creations of others.

Young children can engage in artistic expression as fully as adults. They can be introduced to a variety of media and can be taught beginning techniques for using them. Children can be encouraged to express their feelings and their ideas of the future through activities that are structured enough to give them a start, but unstructured enough to allow each child to express his or her own idea. When working with children, it is important not to teach too much at once. If the child is concentrating on getting the glue in the right place, he or she should not have to worry about using the right color or the right size paper.

Sample goals are:

- 1. to participate in a dramatic production:
- 2. to express a feeling in a work of art;
- 3. to learn to appreciate music;
- 4. to integrate one form of artistic expression with another.

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Sample objectives are:

- 1. to play the role of a character in a story that the teacher reads;
- 2. to paint a happy picture;
- 3. to listen to a record of a piece of music and say how it makes him or her feel;
- 4. to draw a picture that represents a piece of music.

The environment will sometimes require special arrangements for art activities. Wet art activities will require a floor that can be washed easily, access to the water supply, smocks to protect the children's clothes, and so on. It is important that all the necessary materials be available and that the procedures for using them be thought out ahead of time and clearly explained and demonstrated to the children. Music activities will have to be done in a place where they do not disturb the other children. Headphones should be provided for listening activities. Singing, movement, and drama will often be done in large groups, so a large space and possibly a stage or platform will be needed for this.

Suggested basic materials to provide for visual art activities include:

- 1. wood and woodworking tools;
- 2. scraps of paper and material, strings, and odds and ends for collages;
- 3. glue or paste;
- 4. scissors;
- 5. paint, brushes, and easels;
- 6. wash basin, paper towels, soap, and water for cleaning up;
- 7. crayons, oil pastels, chalk, pencils, felt-tip pens;
- 8. clay or play-dough (with pieces of linoleum or oilcloth to work on);
- 9. finger paints; and so on.

Guiding the interaction will take different forms for the various art activities. Sometimes the teacher will give very specific directions about what the children should do (e.g., "move your left foot up and down slowly"), and sometimes the teacher will give very general directions (e.g., "make up a dance to go with the music"). In any case, it is important to have the ground rules clearly established so the children know in what areas or at what times they can be creative (e.g., cleaning out brushes is not the time to be creative). In general it is best to begin with more structured activities at the beginning of the year. In this way the children will have the chance to acquire the skills and techniques they will need to make their own creations.

It is important to build on existing skills and to introduce new ones from time to time. Easel painting, for example, may be an ongoing activity in which children move from one color to several colors, and from a simple design that they copy to complex designs that they create. Working with papier mâché miş once during the year for a fe activities will allow children to will keep their interest alive by i

HIGHER-ORDER COMPETENC

The higher-order competencies: with the environments that material be called technological competerment, moral competence (in and religious/philosophical correnvironment). Competence in in all the curriculum areas alrenvironment (content), develo (process), and the mastery of within it (symbol systems). Ea and its place in the total curriculum content.

Technological Competence

Technological competence is the with the physical environment science. Technological compete and to use natural and manufachemical compounds, etc. As they have about the physica to develop their psychomotor, tional capacities with relation begin to take shape. At a youn either as being capable of funcunable to cope with the physical to negotiate it for him.

Teachers of young childr value systems until they view and appreciate the physical wo or circumstances as ends in th homes without spending our er and better houses. Teachers c and their application to real-lift to do things for themselves an possible. It requires a develop given tasks and problems that

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Working with papier mâché might be an activity that is introduced only once during the year for a few days. A combination of new and old activities will allow children to develop their skills in certain areas and will keep their interest alive by introducing the new ideas.

HIGHER-ORDER COMPETENCIES

The higher-order competencies refer to the individual's ability to function with the environments that make up the individual's world. They may be called technological competence (in reference to the physical environment), moral competence (in reference to the human environment), and religious/philosophical competence (in reference to the unknown environment). Competence in this sense involves continual progress in all the curriculum areas already mentioned: information about the environment (content), development of the processes to deal with it (process), and the mastery of the symbolic mode for communicating within it (symbol systems). Each of these competencies will be defined and its place in the total curriculum will be explained.

Technological Competence

Technological competence is the conscious ability to interact effectively with the physical environment by applying the laws and principles of science. Technological competence includes the ability to understand and to use natural and manufactured objects, such as tools, machines, chemical compounds, etc. As children begin to use the information they have about the physical world and about scientific laws, and to develop their psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional capacities with relation to the physical world, their value systems begin to take shape. At a young age children learn to perceive themselves either as being capable of functioning in the physical world, or as being unable to cope with the physical world and having to rely on others to negotiate it for him.

Teachers of young children strive to help children develop their value systems until they view themselves as technologically competent and appreciate the physical world without adopting material possessions or circumstances as ends in themselves. For example, we can enjoy our homes without spending our entire lives earning the money to buy bigger and better houses. Teachers can help by teaching scientific principles and their application to real-life problems. This means allowing children to do things for themselves and to solve their own problems whenever possible. It requires a developmental approach in which each child is given tasks and problems that he or she can handle (i.e., not too easy

and not too difficult). It implies a positive attitude on the part of the teacher toward science, mathematics, and problem solving; it is the attitude that most problems are solvable if we can gather enough information and apply principles correctly. It would be a good idea for the class to work together on problems that do not have apparent answers. For example, the class might try to determine how many brothers and sisters it has as a group, or how much liquid to add to make good playdough, or what the best method is to get mud off your shoes.

The primary goal for technological competence is to approach the physical environment with optimism and to solve problems using the scientific method.

Moral Competence

Moral competence refers to the conscious ability to discover and apply the principles of human relations to one's interactions with others. The principles center around the greatest release of potential in oneself, in others, and in society and around the continual enhancement of the quality of survival for all people—in action, the Golden Rule. As children interact with others, they develop moral values, their idea of right and wrong.

There are many factors that influence the formation of a child's moral values. Teachers may influence values in several ways: by the ground rules they set and how they enforce them, by their example, by the love and respect they show toward children, and by the kinds of discussions they have with children about moral issues. The major goal of the teacher would be to help children become increasingly independent in deciding and acting morally (based on the principles mentioned above). Achieving this goal requires several things.

First of all, the children must be given an idea of what the principles are and how they are put into action. The ground rules used in the classroom serve as examples of applied principles. They demonstrate how cooperation among the members of the class can serve the interests of the individuals. The rules must not be arbitrary, but simple and reasonable. They should be enforced consistently, but open to change if the situation warrants it. The example of the teacher is another important way in which children learn how to apply moral principles. If teachers do not follow the ground rules themselves, they will be teaching deception and will confuse children about the principles and their application. Furthermore, children will not be able to trust or respect them and will not accept the teachers' word on moral issues. If teachers do not respect the children themselves, children will be see this as an inconsistency between word and action, with the same effect.

Second, children can be assisted in the development of their ability to think about moral issues and to make decisions based on principle.

Teachers can do this by engage them to give reasons for the opportunity to converse wit points of view to their peers dren to realize that their points other people can accept one is living by the Golden Ru

Third, children need to which leads to the conviction Teachers contribute to this f potential: that every child tinuously, whether at a fast member of society and a low attitude is that every child' assisted to develop and learn the apparent capabilities migh

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Teachers cannot teach their own beliefs are certai but they can encourage characteristic formulate their own ideas a might be asked to write pose a picture, or create a dance universe. Also, the teacher knowns, such as God or the fu

Part of religious/philos the future with confidence. which is a result of feeling and being able to rely on a ce Children should be given as their own as possible.

GUIDELINES FOR DEVELC FOR YOUNG CHILDREN

The following eight points wand the development of exp

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he development of their ability e decisions based on principle.

Teachers can do this by engaging children in discussions and encouraging them to give reasons for their opinions. It is best if children have an opportunity to converse with each other and to communicate their points of view to their peers. The object of these discussions is for children to realize that their points of view must be supported by reasons that other people can accept. This is one way of testing whether or not one is living by the Golden Rule.

Third, children need to feel that they are valued as human beings, which leads to the conviction that human beings in general are valuable. Teachers contribute to this feeling by viewing children in light of their potential: that every child has the ability to grow and develop continuously, whether at a fast or slow rate, and to become a contributing member of society and a lovable human being. The implication of this attitude is that every child's opinion is respected, and every child is assisted to develop and learn at his or her own rate, no matter what the apparent capabilities might be.

Religious/Philosophical Competence

Religious/philosophical competence refers to the conscious ability to arrive at basic beliefs about the ultimate truths of the universe (including the purpose of one's life) and to use those beliefs to give perspective to one's life. Acting on one's beliefs requires faith-faith in the basic order of the universe.

Teachers cannot teach about ultimate truths directly (although their own beliefs are certainly communicated to children indirectly). but they can encourage children to focus on ultimate truths and to formulate their own ideas about the unknown. For example, children might be asked to write poetry (or to dictate it to the teacher), paint a picture, or create a dance as their way of expressing the order of the universe. Also, the teacher might engage children in discussion of unknowns, such as God or the future.

Part of religious/philosophical competence is the ability to face the future with confidence. This ability depends on faith in oneself, which is a result of feeling accepted by parents, teachers, and friends, and being able to rely on a certain amount of stability in the environment. Children should be given as much opportunity to solve problems on their own as possible.

GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING EXPERIENCES FOR YOUNG CHILDREN

The following eight points will serve as guidelines for curriculum planning and the development of experiences in all the areas mentioned above.

- 1. Active Participation. For the most part, children should be active participants in their own learning. Young children especially need to use their bodies, their hands, and their senses as they learn. For example, taking children to a farm to show them farm animals would be better than simply showing them pictures of farm animals. It is better for them to have three-dimensional shapes and letters they can manipulate than to have just print in a book. This means that enough materials should be provided so that each child can be actively engaged, instead of sitting by and watching another child or the teacher. When planning curriculum, try to think of the most active experiences possible to meet the particular objectives.
- 2. Individualized Instruction. If children are to learn and develop at optimum rates, the experiences planned for them must be geared to their developmental needs. Children learn at different rates and in different ways. Each child needs a plan designed specifically for him or her. (See paragraph 7 on record keeping.) At the same time, the plan for each individual has to be coordinated with the entire class. Thus, the teacher might find that one experience can serve the needs of several children in different ways. Both materials and activities have to be diverse, and the arrangement of the classroom environment has to accommodate an individualized program (see Chapter III). Individualization means that, most of the time, children have choices about what they will do. A program designed to meet individual needs is in a good position to integrate children with special needs, such as learning disabilities.
- 3. Identifying Difficulties. There are some general indicators that tell the teacher that a child may be having difficulty with a particular activity. If the child seems restless, sleepy, or high-strung, the activity may be either too easy or too difficult. Such a child may have a perceptual problem—for example, of sight or hearing—that should be checked.
- 4. Grouping. Individualization does not mean that each child works alone all the time. Some activities may be carried out alone, others in small groups, and some in large groups. To accommodate individual needs, however, the groups should be flexible. For example, several children might work together on a long-term or short-term project; children might work on individual art projects but share materials; one child might teach another child how to do something; the teacher might work with a small group on a particular lesson; the teacher might lead the entire group in singing or in discussion; the whole group might take a field trip. All of these are possibilities that the teacher can use at one time or another. Some groups will be planned; others will arise spontaneously as children find they have similar interests.

Sometimes the teacher will want to group children for a specific purpose based on either an informal or a formal assessment. Informal

assessment refers to teacher of to see what children can and notice that a few children are r for extra psychomotor exper that some children know how for a reading or writing expuse of standardized tests that or cognitive abilities as well to assess school readiness or assessment is not recommend ficiencies are suspected. Subjective to be more detrimental curate due to young children more, children may be pigeon low expectations.

- 5. Goal Orientation. In gen cording to the goals of the cu it will be necessary for the 1 which goals the child might The teacher must observe the perceives what he or she is (goals to work toward and wh example, imagine one child color. She begins to make m what criterion she is using fo the child is concentrating on t up a button and letting it go more experiences for manual centrating on the sound of th teacher might provide her wi cup and discover the differer try out experiences to see if perience, changing or modifyir
- 6. Balancing the Schedule. I children have opportunities to and have some rest time as w best the first thing in the most time (one to one-and-a-hale on their own or in small group that meet their individual nee next according to their own a a rest, such as a snack or outcalternate during the day. It is snack time or large group tim

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group children for a specific 1 formal assessment. Informal assessment refers to teacher observation or surveys taken by the teacher to see what children can and cannot do. For example, a teacher may notice that a few children are rather clumsy and may be grouped together for extra psychomotor experiences. The teacher may have observed that some children know how to read. These children may be grouped for a reading or writing experience. Formal assessment refers to the use of standardized tests that measure various psychomotor, perceptual, or cognitive abilities as well as valid observational protocols designed to assess school readiness or social development. The use of formal assessment is not recommended before age 5 or 6 unless extreme deficiencies are suspected. Subjecting young children to test taking may prove to be more detrimental than helpful. The results may be inaccurate due to young children's limited ability to communicate; furthermore, children may be pigeon-holed and their potentialities stifled by low expectations.

- 5. Goal Orientation. In general, experiences should be planned according to the goals of the curriculum. In a specific situation, however, it will be necessary for the teacher to take cues from the child as to which goals the child might be working toward at a particular time. The teacher must observe the child and try to determine how the child perceives what he or she is doing. Then the teacher will know what goals to work toward and what experiences would be appropriate. For example, imagine one child sorting buttons into groups according to color. She begins to make mistakes and the teacher cannot figure out what criterion she is using for sorting. Then the teacher realizes that the child is concentrating on the finger movements necessary for picking up a button and letting it go into a cup. Now the teacher can give her more experiences for manual dexterity. Or perhaps the child is concentrating on the sound of the button hitting the cup. In this case, the teacher might provide her with a variety of objects to drop into the cup and discover the different sounds. The teacher should continually try out experiences to see if they fit the child, then extend each experience, changing or modifying it depending on how the child responds.
- 6. Balancing the Schedule. The school day should be balanced so that children have opportunities to work on a variety of different activities and have some rest time as well. Most children are able to concentrate best the first thing in the morning. This is the time for a long period of time (one to one-and-a-half hours) when children work on activities on their own or in small groups. This allows children to work on activities that meet their individual needs and to move from one activity to the next according to their own attention span. Then they will usually need a rest, such as a snack or outdoor play. Periods of work and rest should alternate during the day. It is important that some activities, such as snack time or large group time, become routine and that others remain

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flexible. This creates stability without rigidity, an important feature of programs for young children.

- 7. Record Keeping. In order to individualize instruction, the teacher will have to keep records on the progress of each child so the teacher will know what experiences to plan next. This can be done in several ways; the way most suitable to each teacher (or each school) will have to be decided on. A list of goals and objectives could be kept for each child and a check mark made when the child accomplishes each objective. A list of activities (or materials or both) could be kept and a check made when a child completes the activity (with comments about how the child did). Finally, a folder could be kept for each child, and notes could be written each day about how the child is doing in the various areas and what the child might do on the following days. Usually a combination of these methods is used. Whatever the method, it is important to think about and discuss the progress of each child and what the child's next step will be at least two or three times a week, if not every day.
- 8. Integrating the Curriculum. Although the various goals of a curriculum for young children have been mentioned according to specific categories (process curriculum, content curriculum, symbol systems, and higher-order competencies), it is important to remember that children do not learn each part of the curriculum separately. Rather, process and content are integrated in every experience. Even though the teacher may be focusing on the process of classification, there are still objects with specific characteristics (for example, shape, size, or color) that must be classified. Knowing the different sizes, shapes, and colors is the content aspect of the experience. If a teacher says, "Put all the red blocks here," and the child cannot do it, the difficulty may be in not knowing the name red rather than in not knowing how to classify. The teacher must be aware that both aspects are involved. Furthermore, the child will lose interest in classification if red and blue blocks are always used for the task. Some new and interesting "content"-cars, balls, pictures, for example—may have to be used.

SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the components of a curriculum for young children. From this outline, basic goals and objectives can be established, and activities can be planned to meet the needs of the individual children. Administrators will probably want to sit down with their staffs and decide how they are going to develop and implement the curriculum. They may even want to formulate some goals and objectives on a schoolwide basis. However, it will be important for the teachers to have free-

dom to determine their own based on their knowledge of in their charge.

It is equally important if ment the curriculum according dren, and not to be bound by a objectives and activities, may on the children and on how teachers are responding to can serve those needs indirection in a positive way. When open and administrators, teachers and administrators can speak

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The job of an administ relation to curriculum the a between providing help and and allowing them to estab knowledge of the children ar these curriculum guidelines, the programs of the school withe teachers and their ideas wi

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It is equally important for teachers to have the freedom to implement the curriculum according to the needs of a particular group of children, and not to be bound by a rigid set of guidelines. Goals, and especially objectives and activities, may have to be changed on the spot depending on the children and on how the teachers perceive their needs. If the teachers are responding to the needs of the children, administrators can serve those needs indirectly by responding to the teachers' needs in a positive way. When open communication exists between teachers and administrators, teachers will feel that their needs have been heard, and administrators can speak frankly about their abilities to fulfill them.

Every educational program strives for continuous improvement that is only possible through evaluation. Chapter XI describes the formal evaluation methods for day care and preschool programs. Informal evaluation is necessary too, and it usually helps to maintain communication among the staff and between the staff and the administrator. Informal evaluation is accomplished in two ways. First of all, the administrator should spend time in the classrooms to know what is going on. It is best to become actively involved in the program at hand rather than to just sit by and observe. It will be less threatening to the teachers and it will give the administrator a better idea of the teachers' point of view. Second, the administrator should solicit ideas for improvement from the teachers themselves. Periodic teachers' meetings at which problems and solutions are discussed are most effective in fostering an open atmosphere where excellence is valued.

The job of an administrator is both challenging and exciting. In relation to curriculum the administrator must strike a delicate balance between providing help and direction for teachers, on the one hand, and allowing them to establish independent programs based on their knowledge of the children and their own expertise, on the other. With these curriculum guidelines, administrators should be able to monitor the programs of the school without dictating their content and to support the teachers and their ideas without ignoring them.

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