

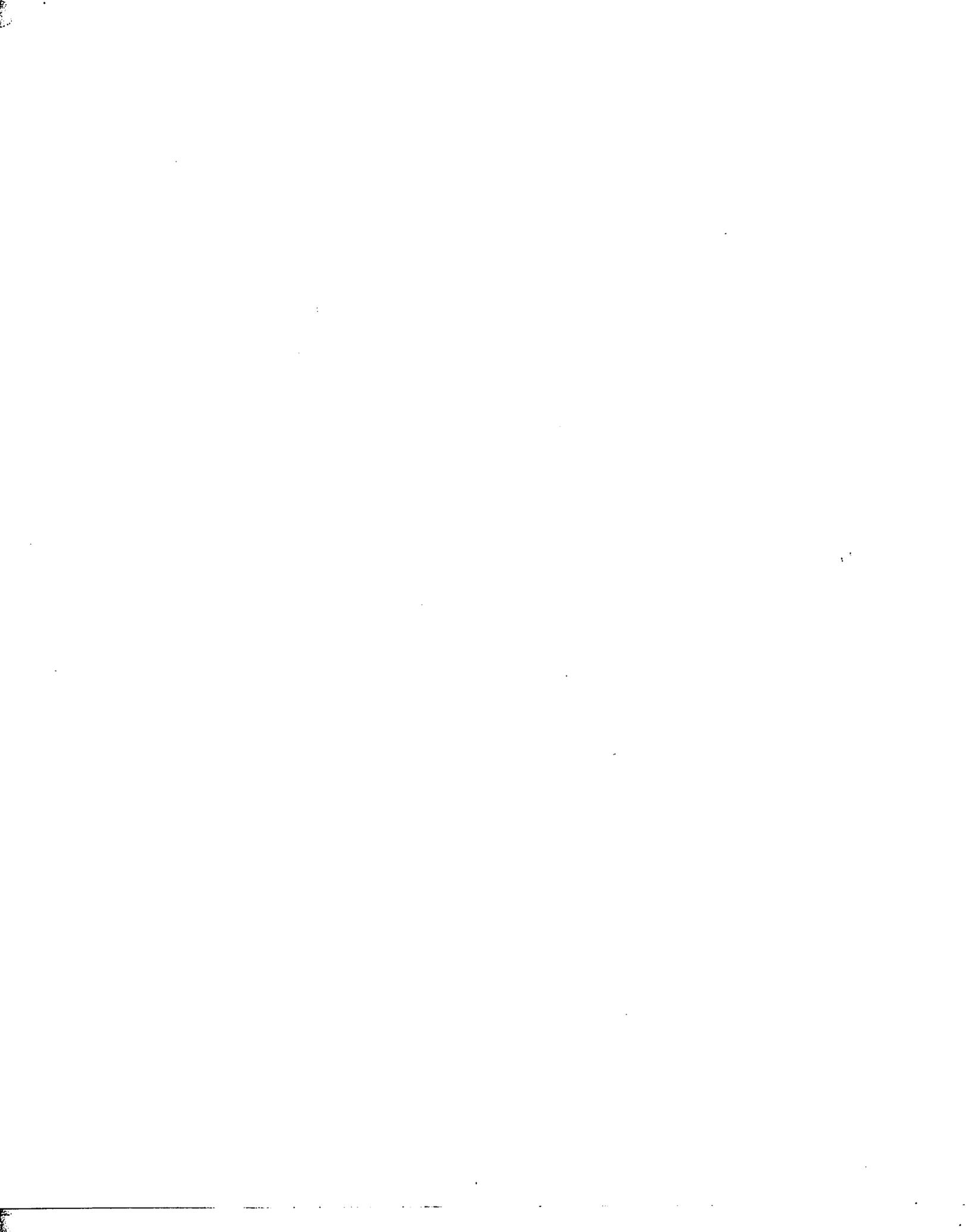
INFORMATION TO USERS

This reproduction was made from a copy of a document sent to us for microfilming. While the most advanced technology has been used to photograph and reproduce this document, the quality of the reproduction is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help clarify markings or notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting through an image and duplicating adjacent pages to assure complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a round black mark, it is an indication of either blurred copy because of movement during exposure, duplicate copy, or copyrighted materials that should not have been filmed. For blurred pages, a good image of the page can be found in the adjacent frame. If copyrighted materials were deleted, a target note will appear listing the pages in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., is part of the material being photographed, a definite method of "sectioning" the material has been followed. It is customary to begin filming at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. If necessary, sectioning is continued again—beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. For illustrations that cannot be satisfactorily reproduced by xerographic means, photographic prints can be purchased at additional cost and inserted into your xerographic copy. These prints are available upon request from the Dissertations Customer Services Department.
5. Some pages in any document may have indistinct print. In all cases the best available copy has been filmed.

**University
Microfilms
International**
300 N. Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48106



Order Number 1333592

**Curriculum guide for all day program for three and four year
olds**

Fordemwalt, Elizabeth, M.A.

The University of Arizona, 1988

U·M·I
300 N. Zeeb Rd.
Ann Arbor, MI 48106

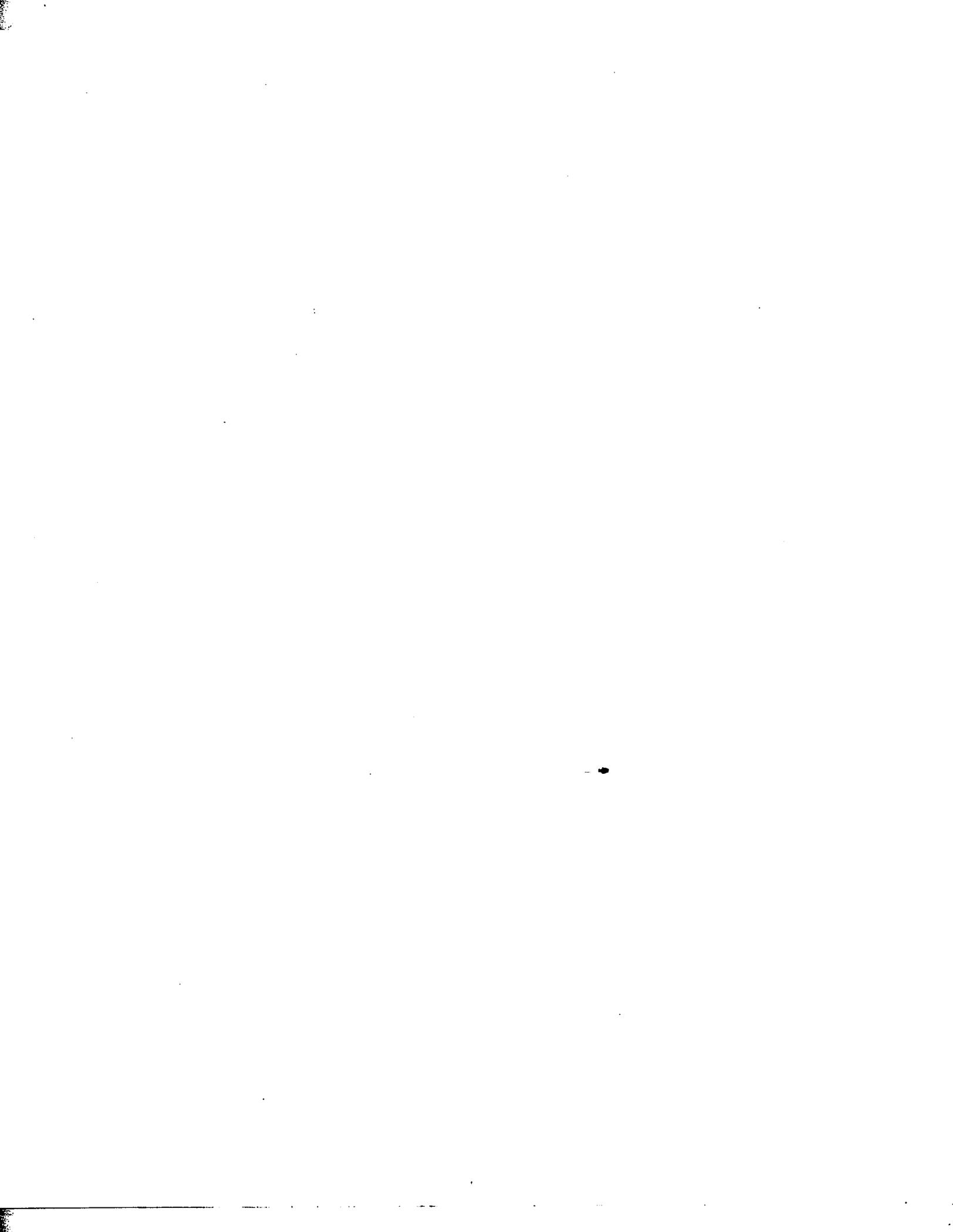


PLEASE NOTE:

In all cases this material has been filmed in the best possible way from the available copy. Problems encountered with this document have been identified here with a check mark .

1. Glossy photographs or pages _____
2. Colored illustrations, paper or print _____
3. Photographs with dark background _____
4. Illustrations are poor copy _____
5. Pages with black marks, not original copy
6. Print shows through as there is text on both sides of page _____
7. Indistinct, broken or small print on several pages _____
8. Print exceeds margin requirements _____
9. Tightly bound copy with print lost in spine _____
10. Computer printout pages with indistinct print _____
11. Page(s) _____ lacking when material received, and not available from school or author.
12. Page(s) _____ seem to be missing in numbering only as text follows.
13. Two pages numbered _____. Text follows.
14. Curling and wrinkled pages _____
15. Dissertation contains pages with print at a slant, filmed as received _____
16. Other _____





CURRICULUM GUIDE FOR ALL DAY PROGRAM
FOR
THREE AND FOUR YEAR OLDS

by
Elizabeth Fordemwalt

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the
DIVISION OF TEACHING AND TEACHER EDUCATION
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS
WITH A MAJOR IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

In the Graduate College
THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

1 9 8 8

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to thank the members of my Thesis Committee, Dr. Alice S. Paul, Dr. Vivian Cox, and Dr. Yetta Goodman, for their continuing support, advice and encouragement.

I am indebted to the readers who gave so freely of their time to read and comment upon this curriculum guide. These readers were: Filomena Brooks, M.ed.; ReLou Dowdney, M.ed.; Rosemary Harrington, M.A.; Ann Heilmann, CDA; Paula Hokanson, B.A.; Elizabeth Klein, M.A.; Lucy Peck, M.A.; Cheryl Potter, B.A.; Susan Severson, M.ed.; Audrey West, B.A. A special thank you for their understanding and encouragement.

I wish to acknowledge the contribution of my husband and sons who courageously encouraged the entire project.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. CHAPTER 1: STATEMENT OF THE CHILD CARE PROBLEM	8
DEFINING CHILD CARE	9
THE BEGINNINGS OF CHILD CARE	11
CHILD CARE DURING WORLD WAR II	13
CHILD CARE IN THE '60'S	15
PROCEDURES AND METHODS	18
POSSIBLE APPLICATIONS	19
2. CHAPTER 2: SIGNIFICANT PROGRAM CHARACTERISTICS	21
EARLY RESEARCH	21
NATIONAL DAY CARE STUDY	23
PUBLIC POLICY	24
LATER RESEARCH	25
SUMMARY	29
3. CHAPTER 3: EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION NEEDS IN CHILD CARE ...	30
EARLY EDUCATION BEGINNINGS	30
CURRENT EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATORS	32
SUMMARY OF EARLY CHILDHOOD NEEDS	36
AVAILABLE CURRICULUM GUIDES	38
SUMMARY	40
4. CHAPTER 4: SUGGESTED CURRICULUM GUIDE	42
DEFINITION OF CURRICULUM	42
DEVELOPMENTAL EXPECTATIONS FOR 3 AND 4 YEAR OLDS	43
THE ROLE OF THE CHILD CARE CENTER	46
Philosophy & Purpose	48

Child Development	49
THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER	52
The Teacher-Observer	54
The Teacher's Role in Guidance and Discipline	58
The Teacher's Role in Classroom Management	61
Summary of Teacher's Role	62
THE WRITTEN PROGRAM	63
Goals	63
Program Design	67
The Learning Centers	68
Outdoor Learning Centers	70
Indoor Learning Centers	72
Daily Schedule	74
Sample Daily Schedule	77
CONTENT AREAS	79
PLANNING	81
Sample Plan	81
Weekly Plan	83
Monthly Plan	84
Times Requiring Special Planning	85
EVALUATION	87
CONCLUSION	89
5. CHAPTER 5: COMMENTS, CONCERNS AND CONCLUSIONS	90
COMMENTS	90
Appropriateness	91
Completeness	91

Practicality92

SUMMARY OF COMMENTS92

CONCERNS93

CONCLUSIONS95

6. REFERENCES97

ABSTRACT

The teaching of young children has been of varying interest to educators, but with as many as 62% of women with children under the age of six in the workforce early childhood education in all-day programs assumes added significance. While many good quality curriculum guides are available for half-day programs there are few for all-day programs. This curriculum guide for an all-day program for three and four year olds addresses the physical learning environment of the center and the role of the teacher as well as the written program. A set of goals encompasses the entire day, acknowledging the role of the center in socialization and acculturation. Sample plans and evaluation techniques show clearly how these goals may be accomplished. It is hoped that such a curriculum guide may enable the non-education major to achieve an excellent program which will foster the social, emotional, cognitive and physical growth of the children.

Chapter 1

STATEMENT OF THE CHILD CARE PROBLEM

No longer is woman's place in the home, caring for the children. The number of children younger than six with mothers in the work force was 5.8 million in 1970 and will have nearly doubled -- to 11.5 million -- in 1990, according to projections (Children's Defense Fund, 1987). The National Commission of Working Women (NCWW) compiled the following statistics citing the Census Bureau, Association of Junior Leagues, Children's Fund, Women's Legal Defense Fund, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the Children's Foundation. In March, 1986, 62.8% of all women with children under 18 years of age worked outside the home. At that time 49% of mothers with one year olds, 54% of mothers with two year olds, 57% of mothers with three year olds and 58% of mothers with four year olds worked outside the home.

These statistics clearly show that one of the most pressing problems for families today is what to do with the children while the parents are at work. The reason for the large number of working mothers is threefold. In many families it takes two incomes to support the family. For other families it is a matter of pursuing two rewarding careers (Trotter, 1987). The prevalence of one-parent families, mainly through divorce, has created another population of children who must be cared for by a person who is not the mother for most, or all, of the day. In 1986, one in every five mothers in the work force were single heads-of-household (NCWW, 1987). Many of these families are non-professionals, living near or below poverty level. In 1985, 23% of the children in the United States under age five were living in poverty

(Children's Defense Fund, 1987). These statistics clearly show the need for child care availability.

Of the twenty-five million children under the age of thirteen in 1986 whose mothers worked outside the home, seven million received group care in homes or centers, eleven million were cared for in their own home -- either by relatives or a mother-substitute -- and seven million cared for themselves (NCWW, 1987). Obviously, child care arrangements vary. The adequacy of these arrangements will be discussed in a later chapter.

It is the three and four year olds receiving group care, and those who would be in group care if their parents could find a satisfactory arrangement, which are the focus of this project. The first task of the project was to specifically define child care for this purpose.

DEFINING CHILD CARE

For the purpose of this project, child care shall be limited to licensed centers. A licensed center is one complying with the regulations of the state agency governing child care centers. These regulations vary from one state to another, as do the agencies which administer them. In Arizona child care centers are regulated by the Department of Health Services. These regulations are reviewed every two years as ordered by the Arizona Revised Statutes. They were last reviewed in 1986.

Child care arrangements have come into being in response to parental need (Greenman, 1986). Since each child care center is different there are a wide range of programs. This creates a certain

problem with the definition of the child care program. The program may be viewed as an education, a service to families, or concerned only with the health and safety of children -- babysitting.

Keyserling defines it as "direct care and protection of preschool children outside of their homes on a full-day, year round basis" (Keyserling in Almy, 1982). The emphasis here is on care, not on education. Further, it excludes two groups of children in need of out-of-home supervision: infants & toddlers, and school-age children (NCWW, 1986). Almy expresses concern over the early childhood education in child care. She says "day care has sometimes received less than the best of early childhood education, and the question of whether day care can afford to include early childhood education is still raised" (Almy, 1982). In answer to this question, Almy states: "federal government involvement is likely to decrease, necessitating search for other kinds of support. Resources will need to be found or developed within families and their neighborhoods, in churches, private agencies and foundations, unions and industry" (Almy, 1982).

Almy is clearly stating here that early childhood education must be part of child care, regardless of cost. Others feel that child care and early childhood education should not be combined. The proponents of this view are the social workers, who feel that young children need only safe, healthful care, not education (Almy, 1982).

Still another view of child care is as a service to families. Greenman writes: "Another picture emerges if we shift our attention from day care in the public arena to the private sector. From this vantage point, the growth of day care paralleled the rise of fast food restaurants, nursing homes, even massage parlors -- institutions arising

to provide for the needs of modern life once met within the family" (Greenman, 1984). The busy family may treat child care as just such a service -- a convenience rather than a family experience in education.

Almy raises the point that for many children the world of child care is totally separated from the world of the family (Almy, 1982). Zigler & Turner studied this issue at a university child care center where parents were "strongly encouraged" -- but not required -- to participate, visit, and observe. This study found a "miniscule amount of participation in the day care center" by parents (Zigler & Turner, 1982). Clearly, cooperation between the home and center environments, while it is necessary to the cohesion and continuity of the child's life, is difficult to achieve.

It may be accurately stated that out-of-home care of children is viewed by educators as early childhood education, by social workers as child welfare, and by consumers as a service to families. While not mutually exclusive, these views require different components -- such as trained teachers vs. untrained caregivers, developmental programs vs. merely safe and healthful environments, and catering to family needs vs. catering specifically to children's needs (NAEYC, 1986). The reason for this confusion over child care may be found in its evolution.

THE BEGINNINGS OF CHILD CARE

As far back as 1825, when the infant school -- founded in Britain by Robert Owen to meet the needs of working mothers in his factories -- migrated to the United States, mothers welcomed the chance to let someone else care for their children (Pence, 1986; Spodek, 1985). The infant school was heralded as "a positive influence on the poor and

wayward; a prep school for the advantaged; a blessing for the working class; a charitable undertaking for the wealthy; an experiment in early learning" (Pence, 1986).

The infant school movement, so joyfully welcomed, lived approximately ten years. Pence cites three major reasons for this abrupt about-face. First, at that time the ideal of the Victorian family appeared with a redefinition of the mother, father, and child roles. The father became the breadwinner, the child the protected dependent and the mother chief-child-nurturer (Pence, 1986). Second, Pence lays some of the blame for the decline of the infant schools on Rousseau, who was concerned about over-using little minds. In a popular book of the time, Remarks on the Influence of Mental Cultivation and Mental Excitement Upon Health, Rousseau is given credit for the concept: "Early mental excitement will only serve to bring forth beautiful, but premature flowers, which are destined soon to wither away, without producing fruits" (Brigham, 1833 in Pence, 1986). Finally, Pence finds economics playing a large part in the fall, as in the rise, of the infant school. He writes: "The Victorian family with its tightly prescribed roles of: mother/homemaker; father/breadwinner; and child/dependent was a socially attractive alternative that more closely complimented the needs of the labor force than did the institution of the infant schools" (Pence, 1986).

The weight of these social, philosophical, and economic factors has stigmatized out-of-home care for children in America (Pence, 1986; Spodek, 1985). Pence states: "Every day care movement in North America since 1835 has floundered in that shadow. Existing somewhere beyond the

pale of social desirability, preschool day care in North America is a neglected and financially starved institution" (Pence, 1986).

Spodek also finds this to be true. He writes:

"Calls for the development of child care centers are countered by the argument that prematurely wresting young children from the bosom of their families plays havoc with our social, cultural and economic system. Child care has been accused of destroying family life...Women are often burdened with guilt for seeking services for their children outside the home just as they were in the pre-Civil War days of 'Fireside Education'" (Spodek, 1985).

This beautiful picture of the Victorian family was sadly untrue. In Spodek's words: "In reality, many women had to work outside the home and could not dedicate themselves wholeheartedly to their children...the idealized picture of the education of the young at the knees of their mothers has led to a neglect of the needs of many children in our society" (Spodek, 1985).

Friedman writes of this period that child care services rose and fell in response to societal needs: after the Civil War when many women were heads-of-households; in the early 1900's to give acculturation to the American way of life, emphasizing cleanliness and hard work; and in the 1930's to save the children of the destitute (Friedman, 1984).

CHILD CARE DURING WORLD WAR II

More than one hundred years after the rise and fall of the infant schools, during the second world war, women again entered the labor force in large numbers. This time, with an inadequate male labor pool and the immense production needed for the war effort, they were welcomed (Zigler, 1982). The government quickly passed the Lanham Act

to create the necessary child care facilities (Zigler, 1982). Child care was "in" again, but the major emphasis was on making it possible for mothers to enter the labor force -- not on the intrinsic value of early education for young children (Zigler, 1982). Still, in order to lure women into the workforce, and to quiet the public conscience -- after all, woman's place was still in the home-- these all-day centers were designed to provide the best of early childhood education.

Zinsser describes two such centers hastily created by the Kaiser Corporation: "to serve 1125 children (in) each (center), open 24 hours a day, 364 days a year." The centers were identical, having "round wheelplans with 15 large rooms in the spokes and a protected playground at the central hub (Zinsser, 1987)." These centers were "placed at the plant entrances so that every worker passed by and mothers could drop their children off in the most convenient way" (Zinsser, 1987). The best qualified people in the country were chosen as administrators and they assembled staffs of professionals at salaries roughly twenty-five times what they could earn anywhere else (Zinsser, 1987). No expense was spared in obtaining equipment and the supply budgets were more than adequate. Indeed, the only problems experienced were due to war-time shortages.

Children and parents thrived in this atmosphere of early childhood education, child development, and family support delivered by the ample staffs of professional educators, nurses, and social workers (Zinsser, 1987). In 1945, delighted women deluged Congress and the President with pleas to keep them open. The centers, however, could not be self-supporting. Zinsser writes: "Parents...paid a fee of five dollars for six days of child care, but this covered only a small part

of the cost. The deficit was paid by Kaiser, who in turn passed the cost on to the government. In effect, the centers were federally supported through industry" (Zinsser, 1987).

In 1945 these expensive centers were quietly closed. Women, however, continued to work after marriage or to return to work after raising a family (Zigler, 1982). Some hardy souls -- increasing in numbers steadily through the years -- even dared to continue to work while raising a family, but they were either very poor or affluent enough to have a live-in mother substitute (Zigler, 1982). Zigler quotes Gilbert Steiner regarding the reason why centers were dropped even though women were still in the workforce: "the Lanham Act was a 'win-the-war' program, not a 'save-the-children' program" (Steiner in Zigler, 1982). Zigler adds his own commentary: "If policy makers had had the foresight to build on the Lanham system in 1946, we would not be faced with such a tremendous day care dilemma in 1980" (Zigler, 1982).

Women in the workforce continued to increase, and pressure on the Congress to do something for young children continued. When the change arrived, however, it was in response to a plea for early childhood education, not for childcare. Early research showing dramatically improved school performance by low socio-economic-strata (SES) children who had preschool experience resulted in the founding of Head Start (Berrueta-Clement, 1984; Schweinhart, 1986; Zigler, 1982).

CHILD CARE IN THE '60'S

While the advent of Head Start in 1959 did not change the public image of child care, it did attract the attention of educators (Zigler, 1982). Again, early childhood education had intrinsic value,

and child care was redefined as "including child development and education, rather than existing purely as a custodial service" (Zigler, 1982). Of this period, Greenman writes:

"...social institutions were seen to possess great potential to cure many of society's difficulties, day care lay at the junction of numerous social concerns: eliminating poverty and inequality, welfare reform, the liberation of women, and the maximization of human potential through the recognition of the importance of early childhood. The growth of day care was intermeshed with the rise of Head Start and similar early childhood programs with the growing belief in the ability of government, primarily the federal government, to engineer a 'great society' through social welfare programs" (Greenman, 1984)

In 1971 Walter Mondale and John Brademas sponsored the Comprehensive Child Development Act. This bill proposed \$700 million for federal funding of child care for welfare recipients for the first year; authorized \$50 million for the creation of new child care facilities; increased income tax deductions for child care services; increased the maximum income of families permitted to use the child care tax deduction; expanded the Head Start program; and provided for health care, adequate nutrition, and educational enrichment for preschool children (Zigler, 1982). There was large scale support for this bill. It passed both houses of Congress (although with a small majority in the House) and was supported by the secretary of Health, Education and Welfare. Edward Zigler, then director of the Office of Child Development, writes:

"By the time the Comprehensive Child Development Act reached President Nixon's desk, a political wind from across the country reached Washington that may have prompted the narrow victory margin in the House, and definitely influenced the fate of the bill. Right-wing activists, from fundamentalist church groups to the John Birch society, formed a giant coalition to stop the bill. They wrote thousands of letters to their representatives and the President protesting that the bill was an 'invasion of the family'" (Zigler, 1982).

After President Nixon vetoed the Comprehensive Child Development Act on December 9, 1971, other child development bills were consistently voted down in Congress (Zigler, 1982). In spite of this fact, the entry of women into the workforce increased steadily. One projection is that by 1990, 85% of those women with children under five years of age will be working outside of the home (Children's Defense Fund, 1987). The lack of funding other than parent fees and individually raised monies, coupled with increased demand, puts severe burdens on both child care programs and their regulatory agencies (Greenman, 1984).

Fifty to seventy-five percent of the cost of a child care program is labor. Individual program directors, in most cases, must meet the challenge of keeping this expense within budget limits. The result of this economic pinch is frequent hiring of staff with minimal training. In Arizona, a child care center teacher must have six months experience working with young children. This is minimum training, indeed. Centers with private sources of funding and/or affluent clients try to maintain a staff of teachers with degrees in child development or early childhood education, subject to availability. Zigler has made the statement that there are not enough early childhood/child development majors to staff existing programs for young children, even if funding were available (Zigler, 1981). It seems clear, therefore, that teachers of early childhood programs will continue to have little training or education.

In undergraduate programs, most universities offer curriculum planning courses which enable graduates to design curricula for their individual classes. Without this training, curriculum planning suffers.

This lack of curriculum planning skill often results in programs which tend to over-emphasis cognitive development in a pseudo-school manner (Weikart, 1987; Williams, 1987; Elkind, 1986; Ames, 1986; Charlesworth, 1987; Blank, 1987; Almy, 1982; Castle, 1985).

Curriculum planning is facilitated by the use of guides, of which there are many for the half-day program (Vance, 1973; Read, 1966; Taylor, 1964; Eliason, 1986; Mitchell, 1987) After much searching, it was found that there are few all-day curriculum guides. There are many half-day curriculum guides, but the very nature of the all-day program requires that it assume many child development responsibilities with which the half-day program need not be concerned, such as self-help skills involving toileting & eating, socialization & acculturation and standards of behavior. This project proposes to develop a curriculum guide for an all-day program for three and four year old children which will meet the unique needs of children who are away from their parents for a major part of the day and which will be applicable in classrooms run by personnel without extensive training in early childhood education or child development.

PROCEDURES AND METHODS

After establishing the need for a curriculum guide for an all-day program for three and four year olds, as shown in this chapter, research was examined to find the needed program elements, which are given in chapter two. The literature was examined for the opinions of experts published in the field of early childhood education to ascertain the needs of young children which should be met in the all-day program. This compilation of needs became chapter three. Using these elements

and opinions, chapter four is a suggested curriculum guide developed for use by staff with little training in early childhood/child development to provide an all-day program of excellent quality for three and four year olds. Copies of the proposed curriculum guide were then given to a panel of five directors of all-day programs and five early childhood educators, for evaluation of its appropriateness, completeness, and practicality. Their responses are included in the final chapter with comments, concerns and conclusions.

POSSIBLE APPLICATIONS

As previously stated, the lack of adequate curriculum guidance for all-day programs results in many inadequate programs which tend to over-emphasize cognitive development in a pseudo-school manner (Weikart, 1987; Williams, 1987; Elkind, 1986; Ames, 1986; Charlesworth, 1987; Blank, 1987; Almy, 1982; Castle, 1985). These programs impede the developmental progress of children, rather than fostering it. Given a readily available curriculum guide which can be easily used to generate activities both developmentally and individually appropriate, it is hoped that child care teachers may decide to try it experimentally, using developmental progress as the assessment criteria. It is expected that readily available resources specifically designed for the all-day program run by personnel who are not early childhood or child development majors, will result in programs which will show measurable improvement in the development of young children physically, socially, emotionally, and cognitively.

In spite of empirical evidence to the contrary, there is some feeling that the best solution for working parents is to have someone

come to the home and the second best solution is to take the child to someone else's home where his/her health and safety will be monitored along with a few other children. In 1986 less than one-third of the children under thirteen whose mothers were in the workforce received group care (NCWW, 1987). There are two logical conclusions to this line of thinking. Either early childhood education is not important in the lives of young children, or all children should have tutors. It has been established quite conclusively that early childhood education is important in the lives of young children (Schweinhart, 1986, Clarke-Stewart, 1984; Goelman & Pence, 1987; Rescorla, 1982). It has also been found that public education can be accomplished effectively in groups taught by professional educators using curricula designed for the purpose rather than having tutors. Further, the person hired to care for children in their own homes is rarely a tutor (Clarke-Stewart, 1984). It is the position of this thesis that curriculum guidance would significantly increase the adequacy of early childhood programs which employ teachers without extensive training in early childhood education/child development.

Chapter 2

SIGNIFICANT PROGRAM CHARACTERISTICS

In order to better plan a curriculum guide unique to the all day program, it was necessary to look at the characteristics unique to an all day program shown to foster child growth and development. In this chapter, research studies are reviewed to isolate those elements best fostering physical, social, emotional and cognitive development of young children. These elements will then be incorporated into the development of the curriculum guide which is the object of this project.

EARLY RESEARCH

Before the beginning of Head Start and the federally funded programs for children, research into child care looked mainly at the effects on young children of institutional care (Pence, 1981; Rutter, 1982). One early researcher stated with authority: "Maternal care in infancy and early childhood is essential for mental health" (Bowley, 1951, in Pence, 1981). Not surprisingly, therefore, the first focus of post '65 research was on this issue -- comparisons of "day care children" with "at home children." The findings were reassuring, but since many of the studies were done in university settings, the generalizability of the results was limited (Pence, 1981; Rutter, 1982; Caldwell, 1970; Kagan, 1978).

This university focus led leaders in the field to give cautious opinions on the beneficial effects of child care, and the term "quality" first appeared as the limiting factor to generalizability of research. Belsky summarizes available research and finds "no evidence that day

care influences the intellectual...emotional...or social development" of children. He adds, however, "it cannot be emphasized enough that (there are)...potentially deleterious consequences of early experience in poor quality care" (Belsky, 1984). He further found that socially "this form of childrearing may also make children less oriented and responsive to adult socialization" (Belsky, 1984).

Clarke-Stewart found that "care in a decent daycare facility has no apparent detrimental effects on children's intellectual development" (Clarke-Stewart, 1982). Rutter looked at many adjustment measures taken during studies, and made the following statement:

"While it is clear from this review...that some of the more alarming stereotypes about day care can be rejected, it is equally obvious that we have some way to go before we are in a position to make well-based policy decisions on what type of care is most suitable for which children in which circumstances... We know that good quality day care does not disrupt children's emotional bonds with their parents, moreover children continue to prefer their parents over alternative caregivers. Furthermore, even day care for very young children does not usually result in serious emotional disturbance. On the other hand, there are indications that day care influences to some extent the form of children's social behaviour ... Further, there are indications that the ways in which it does so may be determined by the specific characteristics of the family...It would be wrong to conclude that day care, any more than home care, is without effects, and it would be misleading to assume that it carries no risks..." (Rutter, 1982).

Pence was much more positive (Pence, 1981). He said: "Standardized tests measuring cognitive, emotional and social development for the most part suggest that the short-term, developmental effects of non-exclusive maternal care for middle-class children are not significant statistically or socially" (Pence, 1981). Caldwell, in summarizing her 1970 study of infant care and attachment, stated: "one

can have infants in quality day care without having jeopardized the child's primary emotional attachment to his mother" (Caldwell, 1970).

NATIONAL DAY CARE STUDY

While all of the research and reports were reassuring, the government required specific criteria upon which to pay for Head-Start and Aid-to-Families-with-Dependent-Children child care services. They therefore asked the knowledgeable people in the field to write regulations for child care centers that would receive federal money. These regulations were called the Federal Interagency Day Care Regulations (FIDCR), and were based upon university program standards at the time. There was, however, "only limited empirical evidence to support the basic but tacit assumptions that link various provisions of the regulations to quality ..." (Travers, 1980). Moreover, the estimated cost of the care specified by the FIDCRs was high (Travers, 1980). In 1974, in an effort to test the validity of the FIDCR measures of quality, the Office of Child Development commissioned Abt Associates to do a National Day Care Study. The study took five years to complete, and it looked specifically at three policy questions:

"How is the daily experience and consequent development of preschool children in day care centers affected by variations in staff/child ratio, group size, caregiver qualifications and other regulatable center characteristics?

"How is the per-child cost of center-based day care affected by variations in staff/child ratio, group size, caregiver qualifications and other regulatable center characteristics?

"How does the cost-effectiveness of center-based day care change when adjustments are made in staff/child ratio, group size, caregiver qualifications and other regulatable center characteristics?" (Travers, 1980).

The study used the age group from three to five years, since this was the largest group receiving federally subsidized care, and those attending urban day care centers serving low-income families (Travers, 1980). Travers summarized the findings briefly, before giving a lengthy description:

"Perhaps the most general and important finding of the study was that variations in regulatable center characteristics do make a difference in the well-being of children... the NDCS showed clearly that it matters how day care classes are arranged and who staffs them...for preschool children (ages 3-5), the smaller the group in which children are placed, the more they tend to engage in creative, verbal/intellectual and cooperative activity. Also, children in small groups make more rapid gains on certain standardized tests than do their peers in larger groups...the NDCS showed that qualifications of caregivers also affect quality of care. While years of formal education, degrees attained and years of experience per se made no discernible difference in quality of care, those caregivers who had education or training specifically related to young children provided more social and intellectual stimulation to children in their care than did other caregivers, and the children scored higher on standardized tests...The costs of maintaining small groups and of employing staff trained or educated in child-related fields were found to be small, whereas the costs associated with maintaining high staff/child ratios were significant" (Travers, 1980).

PUBLIC POLICY

Conferences and symposia continued to deal with this issue of maintaining environments in child care most conducive to growth of young children. While the NDCS was still in progress, the Office of Child Development published a lengthy report by Cohen and Brandegge describing the needs of young children and giving suggestions for curricula to meet these needs in child care settings (Cohen, 1974). At a 1974 national symposium on Implementing Child Development Programs, leaders in the field expressed their views (Early Childhood Report #10). An even longer document published by the Office of Education in 1975 included

discussions on current issues in education for all ages. The portion on child care, by David Burke, reviewed what was known about the education of young children in child care and the policy issues pertaining to it (Lipham, 1975). In 1978, the state of California formulated a five year plan to meet their child care needs with developmentally appropriate programs (Child Care, 1978). In the meantime, the FIDCR were still being tabled by Congress, and no definitive national policy on child care had been implemented.

In 1980, at the Research Forum on Family Issues of the National Advisory Committee of the White House Conference on Families, Irving Lazar made the statement: "The research findings are clear...that...an organized instructional program during the preschool years can make for permanent and cost/beneficial positive benefits to low income children" (Lazar, 1980). In the same year, the Illinois White House Conference on Children had this to say about "Supplemental Child Care":

"child care which provides protection and meets developmental needs is especially important for preschoolers. Research has demonstrated the importance of the early years of a child's life for later development. Financial commitment for child care at various levels does not reflect the importance of these years. At this time such financial commitment is inadequate and inconsistent with the importance of early childhood...In the face of this overwhelming need, the U.S. has no national policy or program for child care, rather it has a multitude of programs. Some herald this diversity as particularly appropriate for the U.S.; others charge it as inefficient and costly and leaving some of those in greatest need without child care. Indeed, the U.S. provides far less in child care services and other child support benefits than France, Sweden, East and West Germany, and Hungary" (Report, 1980).

LATER RESEARCH

In response to this pressure to precisely define the elements of the child care environment positively affecting physical, social,

emotional, and cognitive growth of children; and to propose policy regarding it; research proposals poured into Washington and many were funded (Zigler, 1982). This time the research was designed to isolate specific indexes of quality in a "normal" center setting, and, if possible, separate the effects of the family from the effects of the center (Belsky, 1984).

Robertson, in her doctoral research, studied 121 children from Black and Caucasian families, mixed SES, aged five to nine years, both boys and girls, to measure the effects of their group day care experiences prior to first grade (Robertson, 1982). The specific areas of testing were: responsiveness to adults, cooperativeness and obedience, and achievement. The results of the study indicated that "type of preschool care, interacting with other factors, significantly influenced children's behavior in three ways" (Robertson, 1982). These were in responsiveness to social reinforcement, imitation and attention seeking, with the specific effect depending on SES and sex; on the cooperativeness and obedience of boys in school; and on the academic achievement ratings of the middle, but not lower, SES subjects. This last finding does not agree with other research, perhaps because standardized achievement tests were not used (Robertson, 1982).

Clarke-Stewart looked at the effects on two to four year olds of four types of care: home care with a sitter, care in a family day care home, care in a half day preschool, and care in a child care center (Clarke-Stewart, 1985). Two hundred fifty-two children in sixty-three different care environments were studied using interviews and site visits. The physical and social environments were rated, and the children were tested on eight measures of developmental competence:

autonomy, social reciprocity with mother, social knowledge, sociability with adult stranger, sociability with an unfamiliar peer, negative behavior to the peer, social competence at home, and cognitive ability. Competence in these areas seemed to be related to age and the form of care -- "children attending nursery school programs scored consistently higher across the board...Least advanced were children with sitters in their own homes" (Clarke-Stewart, 1985). Characteristics of care related to competence were: education of caregiver in child development; frequency of positive interactions with caregiver; choices and freedom in use of materials; least time spent interacting with, imitating, or simply watching other children; neat & orderly environment; child-centered environment; small classes; non-aggressive interaction with peers. Clarke-Stewart adds one note of caution:

"children in this study whose development was advanced not only had the advantage of being in high quality day care programs, but also came from families that gave them support, stimulation, education -- and good genes. There was evidence in the study that day care programs had some direct effects on development but clearly they were not operating alone" (Clarke-Stewart, 1985).

Goelman & Pence studied the effects of three types of care on children's language development (Goelman & Pence, 1987). These were licensed day care homes, unlicensed day care homes, and licensed child care centers. The study included 105 children from both high and low SES families over a period of two years. This study found:

"(While) no one single variable sufficiently explained children's performance on measures of receptive and expressive language development...data strongly suggested a complex interaction of child care structure and process variables...Quality of care in the family day care settings appeared to be much more variable, and a much more potent predictor of children's language development, than quality in the centers...Striking differences were found between the highest and lowest quality family day care homes along a number of dimensions, including mean test scores and

children's involvement in developmentally facilitative activities" (Goelman & Pence, 1987).

Elements of care affecting development of language were: maternal education level, frequency of informational utterances by the child care teachers, materials available, level of caregiver education, infrequency of solitary play. A finding related to SES of families was particularly disturbing:

"children from homes characterized by lower levels of economic and educational resources attend family day care homes run by women with lower levels of training, interest, and commitment. These settings are generally rated as being of minimal quality in terms of the physical environment and the kinds of materials available to the children. The interactions, experiences, and activities the children had while in care were not considered to provide the optimal conditions for child development" (Goelman & Pence, 1987).

The most extensive study to date was done by McCartney et al on 156 families with three to five year olds and 189 children in fourth grade, who had been in child care as preschoolers in Bermuda, where 90% of the children are in some form of substitute care by their second year of life (McCartney, 1982). Ten center sites were chosen -- all of the centers in Bermuda which accept infants through five year olds. Interviews, questionnaires, on site visits, and standardized tests were used. This study found that "many aspects of children's development are moderately to highly related to differences in their day care environments" (McCartney, 1982). They rated centers on overall quality using the Harms & Clifford Early Childhood Environmental Rating Scale. There was a great deal of variation on quality among the centers (S.D. = 35, with a possible 259 points). The children from higher quality centers scored higher on measures of language development. Caregivers at higher quality centers rated their children as more sociable and considerate than caregivers at centers with poorer overall quality.

They found, however, that high adult/child verbal interaction was a better indicator of cognitive development than overall quality. They found that neither mother's educational levels nor scores on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test were related to differences in children's day care experiences -- a finding not in agreement with Goelman & Pence, quoted above. They also found, however, that parents knew very little about their children's day care experiences, which may mean that choice was not based on specific center characteristics. Characteristics of care affecting development were: adult-child verbal interaction on an information level; age of entry into care; and quality rating of care for infants (McCartney, 1982).

SUMMARY

In summary, good quality child care is beneficial to children from low SES families and is not harmful to children from middle SES families. The elements of center environment seeming to affect child development are: positive informational child-adult interactions, group size, choices with freedom of exploration of materials; and caregiver training/education. The influence of the family on children's development is very strong. Kagan says: "The family has a mysterious power, which is perhaps one reason why it has been the basic and most stable social unit in this and other societies for so long a time" (Kagan, 1978). It is quite possible that further research may find even stronger family related effects which relate to choices of care and attitude toward care, especially among middle SES families (Goelman, 1987; Phillips, 1987; Clarke-Stewart, 1987; Bradbard, 1986).

Chapter 3

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION NEEDS IN CHILD CARE

Previous chapters traced the need for curriculum guidance from the beginnings of child care to the present and added research findings regarding elements of child care affecting growth and development. This chapter looks to the "experts" who are published leaders in early childhood education to establish the basis for an all-day program of excellence in early childhood education. The literature was searched to provide a description of the needs of three and four year olds which should be met by such a program. Available curriculum guides intended for all day programs were evaluated against these needs. The list of needs was then incorporated into the curriculum guide which is the purpose of this project.

EARLY EDUCATION BEGINNINGS

Our understanding of children has evolved from the "children are demons" theory, through "children are little adults" to our current view of the "development of the whole child" (Williams, 1987). It wasn't until Erick Frobel started his kindergarten that anyone thought seriously of educating the young child. Frobel founded his kindergarten -- the first school of its kind -- on the premise of an earlier philosopher, Pestalozzi, who believed that "sense impression of Nature is the only true foundation of human instruction, because it is the only true foundation of human knowledge" (Ozman, 1986). Frobel used special teaching materials -- which he called gifts -- songs and games to foster the development of young children (Ozman, 1986). Much later,

Dr. Maria Montessori based her early childhood program on this discovery of the world through use of the senses (Montessori, 1964). Dr. Montessori believed that we can know children by observing them and that they can teach themselves by use of sense perception and object lessons (Montessori, 1964).

John Dewey, the well known educator and philosopher, felt that we should teach children to think in an orderly and coherent fashion. Dewey believed experience was of nature -- not about nature. He urged that "each situation be looked upon as unique and dealt with experimentally by investigating the probable consequences of behaving in particular ways" (Ozman, 1986). He believed the learning process was just as important as the product. Dewey called his school at Chicago the "Laboratory School" for this reason (Ozman, 1986).

While Piaget, noted Swiss researcher, essentially agreed with Dewey about allowing children to experiment and discover the world around them, he was more interested in how children learn and develop (Piaget, 1974). Through 60 years of observing, studying and researching, he found that children go through cognitive stages of development (Peterson, 1986). Further, Piaget found that these levels of development build upon experience and social interaction (Piaget, 1974). Preschool children constantly try to make sense of a world which keeps changing (Thibault, 1986). While the stages are sequential, and triggered by maturation, social interaction, and experience, the chronological age at which they occur is very individual. Our current understanding of the young child's cognitive processes and much of our early childhood education practices are based on Piaget's work (Peterson, 1986).

The enlightenment Piaget brought to our understanding of the young child's thinking, Erikson brought to our understanding of the young child's feelings. Here again, there are developmental levels during which the young child learns trust, autonomy, and independence through experiences in the strange world of powerful adults (Erikson, 1950). As with the cognitive stages discovered by Piaget, these emotional stages occur sequentially but individually as to chronological age. Erikson says: "Ultimately, children become neurotic not from frustrations, but from the lack or loss of societal meaning in these frustrations" (Erikson, 1950). Erikson felt that the early years "profoundly influenced the psychological profile of adolescents and adults" (Kagan, 1978). In the frightening world of adults children experience many losses, but ultimately experience their own individuality and power (Viorst, 1986). Elkind reminds us of the often forgotten fact that while children's thinking is not like the thinking of adults, their feelings are very much like adults feelings (Elkind, 1979). Perhaps this is because, as Erikson says, the developmental process is cyclical -- adults continue to go through the stages (Erikson, 1950).

CURRENT EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATORS

Based upon the opinions of the philosophers and psychologists, leaders in the field of early childhood education are reexamining the needs of young children in the light of parents' need and/or desire to work outside of the home. The preschool philosophy of experimentation is still good, and new values are being discovered in the use of play as

a learning tool (Williams, 1987; Elkind, 1986; Ames, 1986; Charlesworth, 1987; Blank, 1987; Almy, 1982; Castle, 1985).

The environment for young children must have a physical component. It must include areas for using large & small muscles; areas for experiencing the senses; areas for creativity and expression; and areas for experiencing the out-of-doors (Honig, 1972; Mitchell, 1979). This environment needs to be supportive, safe and healthy, comfortable, nurturing, and emotionally secure (Greenman, 1984). Further, the environment needs to be specifically designed for exploration, discovery and flexibility of activities (Prescott, 1984).

Young children need environments that are carefully prepared to release and encourage self-regulated behavior, where their individual levels of knowledge are accepted with respect, where the child's logic is understood, and where the child is treated as a feeling person (Elkind, 1979).

Second, the adults in the life of the young child are very important. The child requires emotional support from them to develop the discipline necessary to achieve at his/her own level of development (Kagan, 1978; Rutter, 1982; Blackwell, 1979). The adults in the life of the young child must plan together to keep his/her environment emotionally consistent (Blackwell, 1979; Almy, 1982; Greenman, 1984). At the same time children need to learn how to cope with adversity when entering a peer group (Mitchell, 1979). Young children need the social stimulation of being with their peer group and the cognitive stimulation of discovery among manipulatable materials (Mitchell, 1979). In addition, the young child needs the emotional stimulation of being helped to develop competence, knowing "how to do" and "how to behave"

through the gentle guidance of nurturing adults using age-appropriate activities, materials, and equipment (Almy, 1982; NAEYC, 1986).

The adults in young children's lives must be interested in them and in their development (Friedman, 1984). This development must include the areas: gross and fine motor, language, auditory-perceptual, personal-social, auditory-memory and problem-solving (Cowles, 1985). Young children need play, both self-directed and teacher directed (Brown, 1985).

Young children need adults committed to their education, development and well-being because they cannot protect themselves (Spodek, 1985). These adults must fight for the kind of education which will prepare the children for the years ahead (Keliher, 1986). This education accepts individualism, uses meaningful experiences with nurturing adults, melds the home and school philosophies and allows for change (Keliher, 1986). Young children need to learn that they are "the owners of their bodies" and have the right to regulate who touches them.

Another educator separates children's' basic needs into seven areas: to have a sense of safety; to develop self-esteem; to experience his/her life as worth living; to make sense of experiences; to have adults who accept the authority that is theirs by virtue of their greater experience, knowledge and wisdom; to associate with adults and older children who model desired behaviors; to have relationships with adults who are willing to take a stand on what is worth doing, worth having, worth knowing, and worth caring about (Katz, 1987).

Third, young children need a carefully planned program, age-appropriate and developmentally sequential (Berrueta-Clement, 1984; NAEYC, 1987). This program, says Dr. Burton White, long time researcher,

must meet the four fundamental needs of young children: language development, curiosity encouragement, social development, and the development of "the roots of intelligence" (White, 1974). White calls these "the foundations of intellectual capacity" (White, 1974). White issues a warning to educators "educational failure begins to show itself toward the end of the second year of life. It is often very reliably detected at three years of age" (White, 1974).

From his many years of observation and study, Dr. Arnold Gesell separates the needs of young children into motor development, language development, adaptive behavior development, and personal-social development (Gesell, 1977). He has evolved a system for testing children to find out at what level of development they are, and what prescriptive education is required to further that development (Gesell, 1977).

In an article entitled, "Day Care: Serving Preschool Children" published by the Office of Child Development, Cohen and Brandegge list "preconditions to development." These are: adequate nutrition; immunizations; medical check-ups; regular dental care; protection from physically harmful substances; affection; intellectual stimulation; opportunity to form secure social attachments; accepting and responsive attention; limits; standards of behavior; consequences; flexibility and diversity to stimulate curiosity; a balance between variety & stimulation and stability & predictability according to individual needs (Cohen, 1974). After these preconditions are met, developmental needs are: language experimentation and practice; daily successful experiences to build self-concept, physical and personal identity and feeling of competence; an opportunity to grow mentally; the chance to interact

meaningfully with nurturing adults; and a chance to practise new roles and skills through play (Cohen, 1974; Caldwell, 1974).

The program must recognize the young child as a unique person who has naturally occurring characteristics affecting the way he/she functions socially, emotionally, physically and cognitively (Radin, 1982; Fuqua, 1984). These characteristics predispose the child to a certain learning pattern (Radin, 1982). If parents and teachers recognize this unique pattern in planning the program, the child will experience fewer negative feelings and frustration (Radin, 1984).

The best program for young children includes "responsible choices," which means that the child accepts the responsibility for the choice made and follows the task through to completion (Weikart, 1987; Veach, 1986; Kamii, 1984). Only by allowing children to make their own choices and experience the consequences of them can we hope to develop their moral judgement (Kamii, 1984). Kamii says: "Children learn to make wise decisions not by being obedient, but by making choices and decisions for themselves (Kamii, 1984).

SUMMARY OF EARLY CHILDHOOD NEEDS

In summary, young children need to be cared for in an environment prepared for their development which is: cognitively stimulating; allows choice making, exploration, and problem solving; physically safe, healthy, and promotes activity; inviting and appealing; enjoyable. Within this environment, young children need nurturing adults who help them develop confidence in their own worth and competence; who have knowledge of development; who foster expression of feelings and creativity. In other words, young children need adults and

peers who allow three year olds to act like three year olds and four year olds to act like four year olds, but who inspire them to reach for the next developmental level. The curriculum followed by the caring adults in the child-oriented environment must be one of discovery. The child should be involved in the planning of these exciting discoveries, and report on the results. The child learns during his/her entire day, not just two and one-half hours of the day. The value of parent input -- hopefully in the classroom as well as behind the scenes -- deserves recognition. All planning of activities must be centered around the social, and emotional as well as cognitive needs of the children.

According to Cohen, day care supports these needs of children in four ways:

- "1. It promotes the child's physical health by identifying problems, helping the family to obtain medical help, and working to prevent the occurrence of new disease.
- "2. It provides the child meaningful social experiences with competent and concerned caregivers and with children of the same age.
- "3. It creates opportunities for learning by making materials and situations available in an organized, thoughtful manner.
- "4. It supports the child's family life by involving parents in the care of their children keeping them informed about their children when they are in day care, making parenthood a pleasant and rewarding opportunity rather than an extra burden and helping parents feel secure that their children are receiving quality care" (Cohen, 1974).

All of these program elements need to be melded into a cohesive whole. This does not happen by accident. Careful planning is required to design such a program. It begins with a philosophy, continues with a framework, and ends with meaningful choices for exploration (Langenbach, 1977).

AVAILABLE CURRICULUM GUIDES

There are many curriculum guides for preschool programs meeting the criteria outlined above (Vance, 1973; Taylor, 1964; Eliason, 1986; Read, 1966; Hohmann, Banet & Weikart, 1979; Rescorla, 1982). These program guides do not take into consideration the length of day which enlarges the scope of needs the center must fill for each child. In the half-day program, the teacher arrives before the children, the activities are set-up -- either on the tables or on the shelves, the children all arrive together, there is some form of opening exercises, the day proceeds in an orderly fashion without coming and going of children, and all children depart at the same time.

It is possible to have this form of program during the child care day -- in fact, Mitchell advocates this (Mitchell, 1987). In her book, I Am, I Can!, Mitchell advocates a program which includes enrichment activities for the children who stay all day (Mitchell, 1987). In addition to the preschool program there is the child care part of the program -- which often consists of "free play" without much planning involved by the teacher (Mitchell, 1979). Mitchell's program does include enrichment activities for the children who stay all day (Mitchell, 1987). Thematic plans are suggested for each month of the year. Good material is also included on guidance, discipline, and acceptable teacher behaviors. This is probably the best of the guides available. The one criticism which can be made of it, other than the inadequate all-day emphasis, is that it would encourage the inexperienced teacher to fit the children into the program instead of fitting the program to the children (Weikart, 1987).

Mitchell's curriculum guide is one of nine books and/or articles written specifically for the child care center. Roberta Noonan wrote a manual of "Procedures for Developing Policy for Nursery Schools and Day Care Centers" (Noonan, 1978). This manual is mainly concerned with the smooth running of the entire center (Noonan, 1979). Beverly S. Gulley of Southern Illinois University wrote two checklists for starting up and operating day care centers (Gulley, 1986). The checklists are exactly that. They have fifty-nine and thirty-seven items respectively, of which six deal with program. These are intended for the person who will be running the program, not the person who will be teaching the children (Gulley, 1986).

The state of New Jersey published an article written by Felicia Frierson and Tynette Hills entitled "Planning an Educational Program for Young Children; A planning guide for teachers in schools and child care centers" (Frierson & Hills, 1981). The steps in designing a curriculum are explained in educational terminology, which would be helpful to everyone conversant with the terms. The emphasis is on physical, social, emotional, and cognitive education (Frierson, 1981).

The American Home Economics Association has written a Child Care Handbook (Child Care, 1981). This is an outline of general goals, content areas, and a broadly defined schedule of activities (Child Care, 1981).

In the October, 1987 issue of Childhood Education, Cassidy, Myers and Benion of Northern Illinois University have written an article entitled "Early Childhood Planning" (Cassidy, Myers & Benion, 1987). This article presents an excellent case for good planning for programs for young children. Of specific interest is the encouragement of

teachers of young children to plan for the sequential nature of experiences for young children, to make sure the activity is neither too difficult nor too easy. Good questions are suggested for decision making at the director level -- for example "How do you want the teachers to facilitate the use of the materials?" (Cassidy, 1987). This would be a good addition to the curriculum guide, but not a substitute for it.

There are two other curriculum guides which are for all day programs (Cherry, 1987; and Seefeldt, 1974). Cherry's guide, The Nursery School and Day Care Center Management Guide, is for directors of child care centers and does not include much material pertinent to the inexperienced classroom teacher (Cherry, 1987). Seefeldt's book, A Curriculum for Child Care Centers, is for education students. Included are study topics and projects at the end of the chapters (Seefeldt, 1974). While this book is exceedingly well written, and would be all the curriculum guide needed by the education student, it does not fit the needs of many teachers in child care programs.

SUMMARY

When the available curriculum guides are evaluated against the needs of young children in an all-day program they appear deficient in several areas. These guides are written for people who can translate half-day programs into all-day programs, and who can relate education terminology into minute-by-minute activities. Children need stimulating, interesting activities for the entire day. Hours of free play, or waiting for class to start are not conducive to an exciting day. There seems to be a void of curriculum guides written simply and

specifically for the teachers in child care centers who want to develop programs to fulfill the needs of the children in their classes, but who are not educators. The next chapter is an attempt to fill this need. the challenge to early childhood educators is: many such guides are needed to adequately encompass the differing philosophies of child development and education represented by current programs. In the void of adequate guides, educators are finding "psuedo-school" activities in child care centers where emphasis is placed on academics more suited to first grade (Williams, 1987; Elkind, 1986; Ames, 1986; Charlesworth, 1987; Blank, 1987; Almy, 1982; Castle, 1985).

Chapter 4

SUGGESTED CURRICULUM GUIDE

The need for a curriculum guide was explored as in Chapter 1. Subsequently, research was reviewed to determine the elements of an all day program of excellence for three and four year old children. Written works by leaders in the early childhood education field were examined to compile the needs of young children which should be met by such a program. Chapter 4 is a suggested curriculum guide to fulfill the purpose of this project.

This curriculum guide is intended for the use of the child care center teacher of three and four year old children who does not hold a degree in child development or early childhood education. Its purpose is to aid in day-to-day planning of classroom activities to best meet the needs of the children. This is not intended to answer every problem a teacher will have. Rather, guidance and discipline is stressed, and program planning is dealt with in depth to offer to the child care center teacher a curriculum guide comparable to those already available to the half-day preschool teacher (Vance, 1973; Taylor, 1964; Eliason, 1986).

DEFINITION OF CURRICULUM

The word "curriculum" has many meanings. It can mean just the goals and objectives for the children, or as suggested by Langenbach, "the written plans for the experiences for children and the activities of the people involved in developing, using, and revising such plans" (Langenbach, 1977). In this guide the word "curriculum" means all of

the experiences of the children in the center environment, including the nurturing by center teachers, and the activities of the center program. All experiences affect a child's development (Piaget, 1952). Every interaction with peers and adults is part of the child's view of him/herself (Erikson, 1963). The needs of young children are not limited to cognition (Katz, 1987; Spodek, 1985; Caldwell, 1986). Therefore, the curriculum encompasses all of the experiences at the center. All of these experiences are planned to further each child's growth and development.

DEVELOPMENTAL EXPECTATIONS FOR 3 AND 4 YEAR OLD CHILDREN

The chronological age of a child is a poor indicator of physical, social, emotional and cognitive development. The reason it is so widely used as a criterion is, unfortunately, it is more easily measured than any other. Measuring the developmental level of 3 and 4 year olds with any accuracy requires painstaking observation and individual testing after the manner of the Gesell Institute (Gesell, 1977). Most programs do not take such measures since observation and informal teacher evaluation suffice for most diagnostic needs. Since only two percent of preschool children have developmental dysfunctions, it is safe to diagnose the remaining ninety-eight percent informally (Weikart, 1987). It is most important to remember that developmental relationship to chronological age is general. Children develop at their own individual rate, so that all three year olds and all four years are not developmentally identical. The following lists of approximate developmental expectations are adapted from Washington Guide to Promoting Development in the Young Child (Campbell & Ramsey, 1965).

The Three Year Old

- Motor Skills:
1. Walks downstairs alternating feet
 2. Hops on one foot
 3. Swings and climbs
 4. Balances on one foot for 10 seconds
 5. Copies circles
 6. Copies cross
 7. Draws person with three parts

- Self-Help Skills:
1. Pours well from pitcher
 2. Serves self at table with little spilling
 3. Rarely needs assistance eating
 4. Interested in setting table
 5. Takes responsibility for toilet if clothes are simple
 6. May have occasional toileting accident
 7. Greater interest and ability in dressing
 8. Intent on lacing shoes
 9. Does not know back of clothes from front
 10. Washes and dries hands, brushes teeth
 11. Can button

- Sleep:
1. Daily range: 10 to 15 hours
 2. Naps: beginning to disappear
 3. Prolongs process of going to bed
 4. May awaken crying from dreams
 5. May awaken if wet

- Play:
1. In playing with others, beginning to interact, sharing toys, taking turns
 2. Dramatizes, expresses imagination in play
 3. Combining playthings; more use of constructive materials
 4. Prefers two or three children to play with; may have special friend

- Language:
1. Expresses appropriate responses when asked what child does when tired, cold, or hungry
 2. Tells stories
 3. Common expression: I don't know
 4. Repeats sentence composed of twelve to thirteen syllables
 5. Has mastered phonetic sounds of p, k, g, v, tf, d, z, lr, hw, j, kw, l, e, w, qe, and o

- Discipline:
1. Displays more interest in conforming.
 2. Shows greater understanding when simple reasoning is communicated
 3. Will respond to simple commands such as putting toys away
 4. Displays a greater independence in general activities

Four Year Olds

- Motor Skills:
1. Balances well
 2. Skips and jumps
 3. Can heel-toe walk
 4. Copies square
 5. Catches bounced ball

- Self-Help Skills:
1. Feeds self well
 2. Social and talkative during meal
 3. General independence in toileting
 4. Dresses and undresses with care except for tying shoes and buckling belts
 5. May learn to tie shoes
 6. Combs hair with assistance

- Sleep:
1. Daily range: 9 to 13 hours
 2. Naps: rare
 3. Quieter during sleep

- Play:
1. Dramatic play, and interested in going on excursions
 2. Fond of cutting and pasting, creative materials
 3. Completes most activities

- Language:
1. Points to and names penny, nickel, or dime on request
 2. Carries out in order command containing three parts
 3. Replies appropriately to questions such as "What do you do when you are asleep?"
 4. Defines simple words
 5. Asks questions
 6. Can identify or name four colors

- Discipline:
1. Can be given two or three assignments at one time; will carry out in order
 2. Complies readily with reasonable, well-defined, and consistent requirements
 3. Understands reasoning

THE ROLE OF THE CHILD CARE CENTER

Since each child develops in accordance with his/her internal time clock, the activity needs of each group of children are different. These needs will not be met by accident. A carefully planned curriculum based on child development and early childhood education principles encompassing the entire day in a child oriented environment peopled by trained, nurturing adults is needed (NAEYC, 1987).

The curriculum for each class, both in preschool and in a child care center, is unique to the needs of the class -- and the process of designing such a curriculum is on-going. This curriculum guide is actually a guide to planning the curriculum day-by-day. The concept that "one size fits all" in child care center curricula is definitely not validated by research (Mitchell, 1979; Clarke-Stewart, 1982; Elkind, 1979; Honig, 1972; Johnson, 1981; Seefeldt, 1987). A good deal of pain and frustration can be generated by attempting to impose The XYZ Child Development Curriculum on a center (Langenbach, 1977).

The all-day child care center has an awesome curricular responsibility. Its program for three and four year olds encompasses the hours from six o'clock in the morning until six or six-thirty in the evening (Mitchell, 1987; Cherry, 1987). During that time children receive input affecting their physical, social, emotional, and cognitive development (Langenbach, 1977). This input is both planned or unplanned. Children receive messages about themselves -- whether they are interesting, competent, valuable people by hearing and observing how others are treated. They reach conclusions about the worth and importance of others in the same way. They make decisions about the adult/child power structure, about the values held by adults and peers,

and about acceptable behaviors toward people and objects (Kamii, 1984). If the adults in their lives are mature, nurturing people with a knowledge of child development and how children learn to cope with the world, children have a better chance of growing into mature, nurturing adults who are able to function successfully (Spodek, 1985).

It is through experiences and interactions that children build their knowledge of the world and move from one developmental level to the next (Piaget, 1952). One of the vehicles children use to test their experiential knowledge is play (Almy, 1982). Play experiences of developmental significance will aid a child in this task of developmental growth (Vandenberg, 1986).

Making choices is another way in which a child learns to cope with world. If the choices are accompanied by responsibility appropriate to the child's developmental level, the child will learn wise decision-making and will learn to think independently (Veach, 1986).

The lovely Victorian image of the world of childhood as a garden full of love and tenderness is not the world in which most children live. Contemporary children's lives are especially filled with unexplained -- and sometimes unexplainable -- comings and goings, beginnings and endings, over which they have no control. Well before kindergarten children often experience loss, abuse and neglect (NAEYC, 1986). Parents and child care teachers have a responsibility to help children deal with their real world, their real feelings, and the stress they feel when shunted from "home" to "child care" to "daddy's new house." When the child knows what to expect in terms of happenings and in terms of adult reaction, stress is diminished. Children can also

learn simple techniques for dealing with stress by themselves for those stressors which cannot be eliminated (Smith, 1986).

As more children spend major portions of their early years in child care centers, these centers must meet not only their physical, cognitive, and social needs, but their need for an emotionally stable, stimulating and enjoyable environment for many hours of the day. The center must accept the responsibility of becoming a home-away-from-home while still preserving the role of the parent as the primary teacher in the child's life.

Philosophy and Purpose

The purpose of the child care center is to care for young children for five or more hours per day in a manner which fosters their development and emotional maturity, furthers their knowledge, and helps them see themselves as competent, productive members of the group (Langenbach, 1977). The realization of this purpose requires the environment, the teacher, and the plan or written program all functioning smoothly together (Langenbach, 1977).

The basic beliefs about learning and child development -- the philosophy -- of the center will determine how the center goes about its purpose. It is important to have an agreed upon philosophy for the center so that everyone is proceeding in the same direction, otherwise the program tends to assume the stance of a rowboat in which everyone rows at will.

The philosophy of this curriculum guide is that children are worthwhile human beings who need to be treated with dignity. Each experience of life is part of each child's world. Children react in

learned or instinctive ways in an effort to make sense of this world. These reactions, or coping behaviors, are repeated if they achieve their purpose, discarded if they do not. The behaviors observed by parents and teachers are the coping behaviors children have found successful, that is, that help them make sense of the world. Feelings of worth or failure are generated by the reactions of the significant adults in children's lives to these coping behaviors. It is the responsibility of the teacher as well as the parent to look beyond the coping behaviors to the needs and encourage children to cope with the world in ways which will further their development -- which will help them make sense of the world.

Two people who have made significant contributions to our knowledge of the cognitive and emotional development of children are Jean Piaget and Erik Ericson (Piaget, 1952; Erikson, 1963). Their work is briefly described in the following section.

Child Development

Piaget spent sixty years working with young children collecting data from specific tasks showing how children learn. According to Piaget's theories three and four year old children are in the preoperational stage, which occurs roughly from age two to age seven (Piaget, 1952). A division of this preoperational stage is the pre-conceptual sub-stage, occurring from two to four years -- approximately. It is important to remember that although Piaget's stages are sequential, each child progresses at an individual rate. Peterson describes the preoperational stage concisely:

"The child relies on using the senses, but is increasingly able to use language and words to represent things not visible. Thought is egocentric. Not only does the child see things from her point of view, she is unaware that the viewpoint of others might not be the same as hers. Furthermore, she thinks that much of what occurs in the world was created for her own purposes and enjoyment. Rather than using logic, the preoperational child reasons and explains events on the basis of intuition, of hunches, and how things look to her" (Peterson, 1986).

Piaget learned that the developmental stages build upon each other, a child does not skip one. The factors which enable the child to move on to the next stage are maturation, experience, and social interaction melded together to form a state of equilibration in which the child views the world as "making sense" (Piaget, 1952). The preoperational child cannot understand the conservation of quantities, i.e. that the same amount of a substance in a differently shaped container is really the same. Preoperational children also cannot perceive intermediate steps to an event, so they cannot conceive of any event being reversible, e.g. they cannot realize that an object, having been changed from one shape to another could be returned to the original shape (Langenbach, 1977).

It is very important to remember these characteristics of the preoperational child when planning the curriculum, in order to plan for discovery experiences which will enable the child to get on with development (Langenbach, 1977). Further, this understanding of cognitive development enables the teacher to avoid the frustration of expecting the preoperational child to understand conservation and reversibility, but allows for the excitement of perceiving the child's construction of reality changing with growth (Peterson, 1986).

Erikson describes the social and emotional development as a series of stages (Erikson, 1962). While children move through these

stages, they continue to go through the previous stages again. In other words, the person continues to develop socially and emotionally throughout life (Langenbach, 1977). Langenbach describes the forces which enable the child to move through a stage:

"a conflict or crisis that arises within the individual and demands resolution. A different conflict arises at each stage and stems from the struggle within the person to come to grips with two opposing attitudes. For example, the crisis in the infant arises from the conflict between the opposing attitudes of trust and mistrust. The crisis in the toddler arises from the conflict between the altering attitudes of autonomy versus shame and doubt. At every stage the person is forced out of equilibrium by internal forces and is required to make personal adjustment before equilibrium can be regained. The task is difficult and unsettling, and often requires a long period of time for resolution" (Langenbach, 1977).

Most three and four year olds are in the third stage, which is initiative versus guilt, having already moved through the first two stages: trust versus mistrust and autonomy versus shame and doubt. Since the stages are sequential, not chronological, it is possible that some three year olds are still struggling with autonomy versus shame and doubt.

This stage -- autonomy versus shame and doubt -- is the stage in which the child is just achieving physical individuality, able to walk and express its will both verbally and non-verbally. The important issue for this stage is the battle of wills between the young child and the parents and/or teachers. While it is necessary to maintain a safe environment, it is also necessary to allow the child to assert its will, without ridicule or belittling. Langenbach says: "The danger faced by the child in this stage is developing a sense of shame. Adults often use shaming as a disciplinary technique with a child of this

age...Shaming causes a child to become self-conscious and to lose self-esteem and pride" (Langenbach, 1977).

In the stage of initiative versus guilt, children learn to undertake, plan and attack a task just because it's there. They are curious and imaginative, aggressively looking for their purposes in the world. Play is extremely important at this stage. In fact, Langenbach says: "Imaginative play serves children in the same way that planning and thinking serve adults. Children play out their past failures and successes in order to understand how they occurred. They play out their dreams, fantasies and expectations for the future" (Langenbach, 1977). This is also the stage in which the conscience develops. They feel guilty when they do not meet the desires and commands of parents and teachers. It is important for parents and teachers to be very observant to see that the child does not over control and constrict him/herself over acts, fantasies and goals. "The process of gaining a healthy sense of initiative means that children can question, explore, discover, and interact in their own creative and unique ways under the direction of a firm and guiding but not punishing conscience" (Langenbach, 1977).

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

Research shows that the teacher is the most important component of the child care program (Almy, 1982; Travers, 1980; Kagan, 1978, McCartney, 1982; Kontos, 1987; Goelman, 1987; Clarke-Stewart, 1985; Clarke-Stewart, 1987; Rescorla, 1982; Phillips, 1987). Teacher training in child development/early childhood education was related to best achievement and adjustment of children in studies (Clarke-Stewart, 1985; Clarke-Stewart, 1987; McCartney, 1982; Goelman, 1987; Kontos, 1987).

One reason for this is that a trained teacher is purposeful in communicating with the children, knowing what to expect developmentally from them. Another reason for this is that teachers with child development or early childhood education training have an understanding of what kinds of behavior they are attempting to foster. They are then able to use incidents occurring naturally to help the child develop.

Katz says:

"In handling a typical situation, the teacher can thus address not only the individual children involved but also the program as a whole...The professional also considers the long term development of the children involved and not just the incident and the behavior of the moment...the untrained individual is likely to focus on what is happening rather than what is being learned. Similarly, she is likely to see the situation as calling for 'putting out the fire' hoping that will be the end of it, rather than for teaching a variety of skills, knowledge, or dispositions" (Katz, 1983).

Mitchell, in her preschool curriculum, I Am, I Can, describes a child care teacher as one who seems like part of the equipment, helping as needed but in the background, quiet but guiding the experiences to include a little more growth each day; seeing everything, hearing everything, usually smiling, sometimes frowning, indefatigable arms and legs, a gentle voice, a sense of humor, and a sense of fair play & trust; having a sense of beauty; being open to new experiences; and "if a teacher is to foster creativity in children he/she should be an adequate, fully functioning person with a positive view of self -- and the ability to identify with others" (Mitchell, 1987).

Cherry, in her book, Nursery School & Day Care Center Management Guide, Second Edition, has a list of eleven characteristics of the good teacher of young children. These include: concern for personal differences; knowledgeable about age appropriate activities;

creative & resourceful; can work with both individuals & groups; remembers to treat each child with dignity; uses appropriate language; relates behavior to growth & development; uses positive guidance; helps children and adults reduce stress in their lives; and "keeps the program operating smoothly with a variety of activities, fostering exploration, investigation, and creativity" (Cherry, 1987).

Seefeldt, in Curriculum for Child Care Centers, has this to say about the child care center teacher:

"Without a concerned, interested, and competent adult, even the most fully equipped, spacious playroom is inadequate to provide for the needs of young children...the teacher must select and arrange the materials for the children, maintaining a balance between materials that stimulate manipulative, dramatic, social, creative, and physical play...the teacher must set the example in caring for the materials and the room...the teacher will want to provide a background of experiences for the children to act out...Without directing or interrupting the play, the teacher can introduce language through questions and comments...Asking children (pertinent) questions as they play...may extend their play activities...Social skills are also developed by the teacher as children play..." (Seefeldt, 1974).

The Teacher-Observer

The teacher plans the program, with the help of the children's interests, sets up the activities and guides the children as they engage in the activities they have chosen. While the children are engaged in activities the teacher is an observer of the behavior of the young children in her classroom. Research observers learn exact observation skills through education and practice (Bentzen, 1985). It is not suggested that the classroom teacher become a research observer, but observing in the classroom need not entail the same specificity nor attention to detail required by research observers. The Child

Development Associate Credentialing program stresses observing so strongly that a whole unit is devoted to this topic (CDA Module #8).

Observing the behavior of children is a reliable way to measure developmental growth of young children (Weikart, 1987; Goodman, 1985; Bentzen, 1985). With a few guidelines and some experience, the child care teacher can learn to be a very adequate observer, making her much more effective at facilitating child development (CDA Module #8). There are three kinds of observations in which the classroom teacher needs to become proficient.

The first is observing developmental clues. The reason for this is, of course, to maintain an ongoing record -- even if it is only a mental record -- of each child's developmental progress. It is best if the teacher chooses a written developmental record such as the sample at the end of this chapter (CDA Module #9). Developmental information can be quickly recorded by appropriate check marks in the boxes provided -- an individually designed form is as good, or better, since it is designed to meet the needs of that specific classroom. If there is a record for each child which the teacher reviews daily, she can then quietly record instances of growth when observed -- or on a weekly basis she can include an activity which would measure growth and unobtrusively record successful accomplishment as the children "play" at that activity. At no time should a child be made to feel that this is a test, or that unsuccessful performance is shameful (Erikson, 1963).

The second kind of observation at which the child care center teacher needs to become proficient is the observing of behaviors. In this kind of observation it is necessary to separate feelings from action in order to clearly indicate what was seen rather than how the

observer felt about what was seen. For instance, if John and Susan are building a sand castle together and, after the castle is completed, John's foot pushes the castle over in the act of rising, after which Susan rises and shouts at John while pushing him over, this is what should be recorded. The untrained observer, however, tends to "see" the action in this manner: John and Susan were playing happily together in the sandbox when Susan got angry because John accidentally stepped on the castle. The latter account does not tell the reader what it was that brought the observer to the conclusion that the children were playing happily, got angry, or what caused the "accident" involved. When observing, the more detail of a factual nature that can be recorded, the more valuable the record will be. It is suggested that behavior be recorded in little incidents such as the one described above -- called anecdotal records (CDA Module #8). These can be recorded on file cards or pieces of paper and filed appropriately. Then the teacher has an ongoing record of behaviors by each individual child.

Using the anecdotal records and the records of developmental progress, the teacher can see behavior patterns in order to help the child work through problems, avoid frustrations, and encourage growth by making sure the materials for the next step are available. Changes in behavior can be quickly noted, and when conferences with parents are in order, documentation of behavior is ready. It is threatening to a parent to have a teacher say: "Sally is always having temper tantrums," but "Sally had seven temper tantrums last week" puts the problem on an objective basis and invites suggestions for solution.

The quiet child who can be overlooked is brought to the teacher's attention by regularly kept observation records. While every

teacher would like to think the children in the classroom are given equal thought and attention, it is often obvious to an observer that a behavior from one child will draw the teacher's attention, while the same behavior from another child will not. The observation record will not eliminate this problem, but it will help the teacher focus on each child. Review of the observation records on a regular basis, as well as when problems occur, provides the teacher with an overview of each child's personal way of coping with the world.

The third kind of observation the child care teacher needs to learn to do is the observation of participation in the program. By observing how often children use each area of the room, uninviting areas can be revamped to make them more appealing -- or eliminated altogether for a time. If, on the same record, instead of putting a check mark beside the learning center name on the chart the teacher records the initials of the children in that learning center, she will have a social record showing preference of each child for the different centers.

It may sometimes seem that observation is an unnecessary, time-consuming chore without much return for the investment. Bentzen gives three important reasons for ongoing observation: it allows measuring many behaviors of children that could not otherwise be measured; it eliminates need for formal testing, which young children do not take seriously and do not perform well on; and young children behave in the same way whether or not they are being watched -- unlike adults -- so that observing young children gives us an accurate record of their behavior (Bentzen, 1985). Thus, the classroom of the observer functions in a purposeful fashion, offering activities that are developmentally

meaningful to her class and dealing with each behavior as part of a developmental pattern.

The Teacher's Role in Guidance & Discipline

While the teacher observes the children she is also guiding behaviors as necessary to avoid undue frustration, and to maintain a cooperative atmosphere within the classroom. Three and four year olds come to the center with years of coping with adults already behind them. They have been using their experiences and interactions with things and people to construct reality (Smith, 1975). It is important to give children clear, accurate, rational representations of reality. These include listening and responding to what children say; avoiding frightening threats; accepting and dealing with reality even if it is uncomfortable; honesty; dealing with conflict in an open forthright manner; and giving children as much control as possible (Smith, 1975).

Dinkmeyer, in his book, Raising a Responsible Child, lists the following psychological needs of young children:

- "To be loved and accepted.
 - "To be secure and relatively free of threat.
 - "To belong, to identify himself as part of a group.
 - "To be approved and recognized for the way in which he functions.
 - "To move toward independence, responsibility, and decision-making"
- (Dinkmeyer, 1973).

Dreikers, whose book, Children the Challenge, is beloved by many parents and teachers, tells us the mistaken goals of children's misbehavior: "undue attention, struggle for power, retaliation & revenge, and complete inadequacy" (Dreikers, 1964). While teachers must never accuse the child of these mistaken goals, it is helpful to recognize them in order to know how to deal constructively with the

behavior. The situation begins with the child demanding undue attention. The teacher avoids yielding to the child's demand for attention, including walking away after calmly and kindly explaining when there will be time to attend. When a child tries to hurt the teacher to gain power or revenge, (for example: "You are a mean teacher. I hate you!") the teacher makes a calm answer ("I'm sorry you feel that way") and does not retaliate by punishing. Finally, when a child is discouraged, the teacher can arrange experiences whereby the child can see capability and competence (Dreikers, 1964).

We perceive some children as more difficult than others. Each child does have individual characteristics of activity level, rhythmicity (eat, sleep, and elimination patterns), adaptability, reaction intensity, attention span, and distractibility (Radin, 1982; Soderman, 1986). There are some ways of helping children cope with their individuality. These are: respect the child too much to ignore, coerce, shame, label or punish; be objective (by objective observations); make changes in the environment and/or routine to accommodate individuality; set limits and enforce them patiently; and use positive interactions (Radin, 1982; Soderman, 1986).

Marjorie Hipple, of Bent Twig Preschool, lists fifteen "humane" ways to guide children (Hipple, 1978). Hipple suggests that a teacher should accentuate the positive, be a behavior model, help children see the consequences of behavior, and use "I-messages." When the teacher sees a child becoming frustrated, make a suggestion, or ask a pertinent question. Instruct children in correct behaviors, limit choices to a number the child can handle -- adding more when ready, divert or redirect a child to remove a threatening situation, reinforce

appropriate behavior, give children behavior cues (such as the "clean-up" song when it's time to put things away), be aware of behavior -- sometimes a shake of the head or a raised eyebrow will be reminder enough, and sometimes ignore behavior. When none of these strategies work, give a child a chance to be alone to think things over. As a last resort, to protect other children or themselves, restrain the child by holding firmly but gently only until calm is restored (Hipple, 1978).

"It is so easy to take ourselves too seriously, to get lost in the welter of problems, to lose our sense of humor -- and our sense of perspective -- especially on those days when everything goes wrong...Why not revise those plans so carefully made, laugh a bit, and find ways, with the input of the children, to salvage the day?" (Hipple, 1978).

Guidance of behavior and fostering of self-discipline are the goals of the classroom teacher. Punishment, which is a retaliation imposed upon the child by the teacher, has no place in the classroom (CDA, Module #5). Punishment generates hostility, and serves no useful function except to command obedience (Kamii, 1984). It is not the purpose of a child care center to produce a robot who obeys the rules because of the threat of punishment or to gain a reward (Kamii, 1984). The role of the center is to foster self-discipline through encouraging responsible choice making (Kamii, 1984; Veach, 1986; Schweinhart, 1986).

In summary, there are many resources for the classroom teacher to use in dealing with unwanted behaviors. It is important to rehearse them often, so they will be at the tip of the tongue when needed. There are four phrases which have avoided problems on many unsettled days: "This (behavior) is not acceptable, would you like to make another choice?" "If you are not ready to make a choice, would you like to have me help you?" "I will make a choice for you, now" and "I can see you

aren't able to stay here, you can be by yourself until you're ready to come back." These must be used pleasantly, with understanding and empathy for the child who, for whatever reason, is having a difficult day. When in doubt, remember that children do have the same feelings as adults (Elkind, 1979).

The Teacher's Role in Classroom Management

The first rule of classroom management is: groups of children reflect the attitude of their teacher (Mitchell, 1987). A positive attitude will produce a positive group, if the positive attitude is translated into positive messages. These include using the positive form of any direction, for example: you may do this; it is time now to do this; you may help me; these are the choices (Read, 1966). Positive directions contain the words can, do, may. Negative directions contain the words not (added to any word), stop (except in life threatening situations), never, and no. The child care center teacher needs to fill herself so full of positive directions there is room only for them (Read, 1966).

The second rule of classroom management is: sit down with the children and set up the rules of the classroom. There should be approximately five of these, and they must be phrased positively ("We use our walking feet in the classroom" instead of "We do not run in the classroom").

An example of five rules could be:

- We use our walking feet.
- We use quiet voices indoors.
- We respect the rights of other people.
- We know where our toys belong, and we put them back there when we finish playing.

We use our words to help solve our problems.

When the rules are written to everyone's satisfaction, discuss with the children the consequences for breaking the rules (CDA Module #5). Good consequences usually are to return things to their original condition, or restriction of choices (Kamii, 1984). "Time out," which has deteriorated into sitting in the corner out of the corner, should be reserved for severe and prolonged infractions. Only when another logical consequence seems inappropriate should the teacher impose "time out," and then it should merely be a vehicle to enable the child to gain composure or to think about available choices (Dreikers, 1964).

The third and final rule of classroom management is: treat the children as you wish to be treated (Dinkmeyer, 1973). This puts the classroom on a cooperative basis. The children become part of the decision making process, gain experience with problem solving, learn to make group decisions, and feel that sense of belonging so essential to emotional adjustment. The cooperative classroom almost manages itself. Since children and teacher are not adversaries the games played to gain power are not necessary. Each child has power to make suggestions, to argue for his/her point, and quickly learns to accept the decision of the group, knowing each individual has only one vote in that decision (CDA Module #4). The teacher's role is to monitor the process for fairness, and use good questions to bring out any neglected points.

Summary of Teacher's Role

The role of the child care center teacher, then, is one of facilitator, helper, observer, guider, monitor, model and friend (Mitchell, 1987). The more knowledge and training brought to this role,

the better able the teacher will be to perform effectively. This point cannot be overemphasized, in teaching young children training and education are imperative to obtaining good results, i.e. mature, productive members of society.

THE WRITTEN PROGRAM

The written program of the child care center tells how the purpose of the center will be accomplished day by day. The first step is to break the purpose into a set of goals which can individually be met by the program. The following goals were developed by answering the question: what are the basic needs of young children which must be met by the child care center to best enable the children to develop physically, cognitively, socially, and emotionally? (NAEYC, 1984).

GOALS

1. To meet individual needs --

Each child is a unique individual. Teachers will take time to know the child using observation and performance, and by visiting individually with the child. This individual time will be planned for and included in the day's activities, will be child-directed, and will not include teacher lecture or direction-giving.

2. To make special provision for special needs --

Special-needs children can be a problem in a child care setting if the special need requires special, expensive equipment not already in place. Therefore, special needs may have to be met by special fund raising efforts to purchase needed equipment. Time and program needs must be met by normal individual time, or some additional staffing must

be considered. When meeting special needs it is important to remember that each child is special, and one child's needs must not be met by taking time away from another child.

3. To provide a balance of activities --

Activities must include inside and outside, large and small muscle, active and quiet, individual, small group and large group, child initiated and staff initiated, creative and structured, cognitive and physical. The total child must be considered, since the center is where the child spends most of his/her waking hours.

4. To provide developmentally appropriate materials equipment --

The center will contain the equipment and materials for the following centers: family, dramatic play, our world, numbers, literacy, creative media, block & construction, music & listening (CDA Module #1).

5. To promote literacy --

Constant opportunities shall be provided for the children to experience and use language -- both written and spoken. Both planned and spontaneous experiences with language will be fostered. Halliday says that young children learn language because they are trying to find meaning in their world (Halliday, 1975). The center must help the child in these efforts to understand and express.

6. To provide experiential learning activities --

Activities shall be developed sequentially so the children progress from the known to the unknown, without undue repetition on already known concepts. Activities must be life-related and of interest to the children. Numbers of activity books are available in all content areas. Work-shops and seminars are frequently offered by professional associations featuring sharing of the activity ideas of teachers.

7. To allow and promote choice making --

During the child's day choices should be offered more often than directions given. The learning center concept lends itself perfectly to choice making. Where to sit for lunch should also be a choice, and a choice should be implied in any disciplinary situation -- e.g. "This behavior is not an acceptable choice, you may choose to do (choice 1) or (choice 2)." Adequate choice making skills are necessary for living in this world.

8. To provide smooth, ordered transitions --

The nature of the child care center setting, with individual entrance and exit times fosters waiting. It is "easy" to fall into habits requiring children to wait while teachers set up activities or get ready for lunch and naps, because all of these "housekeeping" kinds of things must be done while the children are present. No longer is the classroom all set up for the day before the children arrive, and cleaned up after they are gone. The same classroom used for early morning play time as the children arrive, will later be used for learning center time, and possibly lunch and nap time. Therefore, transitions become very important. It should be an unbreakable rule of the center that children are not required to wait -- except for waiting for children to be "ready" for an activity. Preplanning can enable one teacher to take a large group for transition times while housekeeping is taken care of by another teacher. Many transitioning activities are available, and teacher's ingenuity can suggest many more.

9. To emphasize self-help skills --

It is not always possible for hurried parents to spend time teaching shoe-tying, good table manners, and good bathroom routines.

Self-help skills enhance the child's positive self-concept, allow for independence, and permit more efficient use of teacher time. "Never do anything for a child that the child can do for himself" is an excellent rule (CDA Module #17).

10. To promote problem-solving skills --

Problem-solving should be emphasized separately and as part of other curriculum areas. Children need to learn problem solving skills which then can be applied to all areas of their lives. This is an area receiving too little emphasis in early childhood education (Veatch, 1986).

11. To provide time for verbalization with peers & adults -

Vocabulary and language development require time for practise. Verbalization between peers should be encouraged at all times and small group times for discussion and sharing must be a planned part of the day. The silent classroom has no value in any early childhood program.

12. To emphasize social skills --

The teacher must model good social skills, and specific skills must be developmentally introduced for smooth, comfortable, and enjoyable interaction, between both child-child and child-adult. The child who takes toys from other children may do so from an ignorance of the way to enter a community play experience.

13. To foster positive self-concept for each child --

This goal is, of course, interactive with all of the program goals, and should not be separated into one curriculum area. All activities, at all times of day, should provide positive experiences and/or positive interpretation of experiences.

14. To provide adequate time for rest and relaxation --

The center environment is much more stressful than a home environment, if only because of the numbers of people constantly present. Space should be provided for privacy so a child may be alone if desired. Reading barrels or "hidey-holes" of some kind would serve this purpose. Stress reduction techniques must be taught to children (Smith, 1986) -- preferably at nap time when the teacher could have a routine (such as the Yoga relaxation routine, or the aerobics stretching routine) to help the children relax. Rest time must be an important part of the day, and every possible technique should be used to make it an enjoyable, easy time for the children to lie still and rest, if not to sleep. There should be no exceptions to resting.

Program Design

In accordance with the program philosophy of discovery and exploration in a nurturing, accepting environment, the program utilizes learning centers or areas in which the children will interact with materials to solve a problem or question posed by themselves (with a little help from the teacher's creative questioning). The learning centers reflect the goals of the program in a broad sense. While the learning centers meet the center goals, there is not a separate learning center for each goal.

The overall design of the program is play oriented and child directed, since this design best meets the goals outlined above, and because play serves a not-well-understood long range role in the young child's development. Piaget considered that play was the way children evolved and built on their "schemas of cognition" (Vandenberg, 1986).

Researchers attempted to find out how preschoolers' play could be enriched to accelerate their development, which Piaget called "the American question" (Piaget in Vandenberg, 1986).

In spite of Piaget's rather scornful view of the value of play in accelerating development several well-known researchers hold this view. Vygotsky says that preschool play is a transitional stage between the situationally determined thought of infants and the liberated, abstract thought of adults. Rather than reflecting thought, as Piaget believes, Vygotsky feels that play creates thought (Vandenberg, 1986). Bateson agrees with Vygotsky, but feels that the real focus is not as much on the roles being learned as on the concept of roles. Sutton-Smith adds to this the concept of trying out or generating new meanings in the non-threatening play context which can be later used in real life. Singer feels that fantasy play is "instrumental in developing the capacity for using imagery, which is necessary for thinking about the past and the future, and for developing linguistic skills." Bruner goes still further, saying that play "provides the behavioral flexibility that makes tool use possible. In play an organism plays with its own behaviors, creating novel combinations by splicing together behavioral subroutines that have functional utility in other contexts" (Vandenberg, 1986).

The Learning Centers

The environment of the center, then, will reflect the philosophy of discovery and exploration. The materials will be on low shelves within reach of the children. These materials will be designed to encourage exploration -- organized into centers in which imaginative

and creative play can occur. Organization of space is the third most important element in the life of the center, after the teacher and the program.

Cherry devotes a full section to space and equipment (Cherry, 1987). Mitchell stresses the topic, including planning, organizing and using space efficiently (Mitchell, 1987). Seefeldt spends two entire chapters on the environment and includes examples of appropriate activities (Seefeldt, 1974). Prescott, Jones and Kritchevsky made a study of the child care environment and found, surprisingly "Adults often are not good judges of the workability of a setting" (Prescott, 1984). Prescott emphasizes the need to look at pathways and flow of traffic when organizing space. Adequate storage conveniently located to the area of need is another important planning component -- it is very annoying and time consuming to have to cross the room to the storage cupboard to get another paint brush for a busy center. Prescott considers flexibility to be the third most important point in planning the use of space. Movable shelving and dividers allow space to accommodate new ideas, needs or creativity. Be aware of how space is naturally used -- pathways to bathrooms, lunch tables, space for napping -- and plan around that use so learning center materials need not be moved when not in use (Prescott, 1984). Above all, look at the children and adults who are using the space and plan to meet their specific needs (Prescott, 1984).

Both indoor and outdoor environments make up the learning environment, and must, of course, meet the state regulations pertaining to them.

Outdoor Learning Centers

The arrangement of outdoor equipment will facilitate ease of movement if there are open spaces for running, building, and playing with wheeled toys. The sand box and an area for "just digging," separate from the running and riding space, allows uninterrupted play. Plenty of implements with which to explore the sand and dirt will encourage cooperation. Large muscle equipment for climbing and tunnelling are important. Since the outdoor space is just as much a learning environment as the indoor space, centers should be organized here, also. A good rule of thumb for the number of centers is "approximately two places for each child to play, even if everyone is playing alone" (Cherry, 1987).

Large muscle center -- this center includes the areas for bikes, the climbing chimney, the parallel bars, the slide, the acrobat bars (including the balance beam), the tires for rolling, the horizontal tire swing, the punching bag, and the open area for jumping and running. Organized activity such as obstacle courses and/or games of skill should be included here. Too often this center is ignored at planning time and viewed as a place to "let off steam" or "get all the wiggles out" (Mitchell, 1987; Cherry, 1987).

Creative Media Center -- this center is for sensory experiences with the different textures of the out-of-doors including the sand box, easel painting, water painting, hole-digging, water play, constructions with pieces of wood and nails or glue; and collages of materials picked up on the playground.

Science center -- this center includes such real life things as animals, insects, plants, magnifying instruments, seasonal materials appropriate for outdoors, and the cooking area with play stove, sink, and water.

Cooperative Play Center -- this center has trucks and cars, large blocks, wooden planks, boxes, things children have built, tires, and any materials which can be used to make a community or other construction project of their choice.

Quiet Center -- this center is as appropriate outside as it is inside. The playhouse, the rocking boat, a big tire for sitting or hiding in are all appropriate for this area. It should be understood that children playing in this center want to have a quiet time alone or with a friend (Seefeldt, 1974; Cherry, 1987; Mitchell, 1987).

Other Centers -- may be suggested by children at various times. Teachers need to listen to children when they say "I wish we had a ----" or "Let's pretend this is a ----" because sometimes the addition of a single item can facilitate this kind of play and foster discovery and exploration of the world -- and ultimately the development of the child (Mitchell, 1987).

The Outdoor Times

Teachers sometimes see outside time as a time to relax, visit with other teachers, or plan a later activity (Mitchell, 1987). Piaget reminds us that children are constantly learning (Piaget, 1952) and from this kind of supervision children are learning that outside time is not

a valuable learning time in the eyes of the teacher. Many centers put a great deal of effort into making the playground look attractive and inviting -- what a waste if it is just a "front office" incentive for parents to enroll their children (Deacon, 1979).

Indoor Learning Centers

The indoor space is often viewed as the "learning space" and the temptation is to set it up as a "school" with tables and chairs and "learning materials." Prescott comments on this issue:

"The model of school always implies that there is a curriculum designed to teach certain skills and that the effectiveness of any school setting, be it Head Start or later schooling, is justified by the achievement of certain outcomes. Adults often prefer to conceptualize day care as 'school plus a little more,' instead of taking the more radical step of viewing it as a place for living" (Prescott, 1984).

Creative Media Center -- this center contains materials to be used for "pictures" and "projects" of all kinds: paint, paper of various weights, scissors, paste/glue, collage materials, and the kinds of things Mitchell calls "elegant Junk" (Mitchell, 1987).

Block & Construction Center -- this center should include various sizes and shapes of blocks (much smaller than outside blocks), trucks (also smaller than outside), toy people, and materials for building small structures.

Family/Dress-Up/Imaginative Play Center -- this center is as much like the children's homes as possible, including home-type materials common to the ethnic groups represented in the culture of the area. Dress-ups

include uniforms and types of clothing worn by people in many professions. Careful monitoring of the play in this center will help the teacher to add meaningful materials as desired by the children as they engage in their imaginative play. Added materials encourage children to build on the imaginative play of yesterday to reach deeper understandings of their world and the people in it (Weikart, 1987).

Science or "Our World" Center -- this center includes everything children bring to "show the teacher" such as small rocks, strange insects, feathers, and miscellaneous interesting things. It should also include anything relating to books read, the season, or special happenings of which the class has taken note. In other words, this center must relate to immediate things in which the children are interested. It is of little value to bring an elaborate rock collection for this center if the children are not thinking about rocks this week -- if the teacher decides (hopefully because someone asked) to discover rocks with the children and reads books, takes a walk to look for rocks, explores the colors and textures of rocks, even makes sand out of rocks as can be done with southwestern sandstone, then rocks in the science center are appropriate.

Literacy Center -- actually the entire environment, both inside and out is a literacy center. This particular area, however, is a cozy corner for looking at books, reading, listening to music, perhaps watching filmstrips, and looking at pictures. Part of the center should contain writing materials for the purpose of writing stories, letters, cards, and other communications. This part of the center could sometimes be an

office, a book publishing house, a newspaper printing room, or whatever, and an old typewriter added.

Other Centers -- again, children may suggest other centers, or the direction of play in a center may suggest added materials which ultimately turn it for a time into another center altogether. As long as the ultimate goal of the development and education of the child is kept in view, the center variety is limited only by imagination and resources (Mitchell, 1987; Cherry, 1987; Seefeldt, 1974; Langenbach, 1977; NAEYC, 1985).

Daily Schedule

In addition to purposeful play in the learning centers, a balance of large and small group activities must be part of the child care day. This is when group discussions can be held, group decisions made, and books, stories, and poems read and written. Music and movement experiences take place in the group.

The framework for the program is the daily schedule. While each part of the schedule is necessary to meet the center goals, it needs to be flexible enough to allow changes to meet the class needs on any given day.

Anyone attempting to coordinate the schedules of a family of four busy people realizes that scheduling is a non-trivial task. In actual fact, scheduling time and activities at the child care center is a process rather than a product. The classroom teacher must live within the time framework of the center as a whole, which may dictate when her

class is scheduled to use the playground, the media room, and so on. As stated before, in child care "one size fits all" is false. Each individual class needs its balance of activities based upon the needs of those children. The teacher, then, is the person who takes the schedule of the center as a whole, and, working within that framework, sets up the class schedule to meet the needs of the children. After this planning process, the schedule must remain flexible enough to accommodate the day to day changes without losing sight of the developmental goals of the program outlined previously. The teacher constantly watches for chances to further the development and experiential knowledge of each child in the class. The daily schedule is a tool to help with this task -- the daily schedule is not a magic machine which, if carefully followed, will turn out at the end of the day a class one day closer to mature, productive members of society.

The child care center day seems to fall into sections or blocks of time: the early morning, the morning "class" time, lunch, naps or rest time, afternoon "class" time, and late afternoon (Mitchell, 1987; Cherry, 1987).

With this kind of schedule there are two times of the day during which activities are planned: the morning "class" and the afternoon "class" (Mitchell, 1987). This means that out of a child's nine or ten hour day, five hours are "learning" hours. Suggestions for use of the extra five to six hours of the child's day are called "enrichment activities" (Mitchell, 1987). A more desirable approach utilizing all day as learning time is suggested by this project.

In some centers the teachers have an assigned place and schedule, while the children move freely from one learning center to

another (Mitchell, 1987; Cherry, 1987). This method promotes maximum choice making and minimizes child-waiting times, also allowing great flexibility of activities. The focus of this method is on education -- providing opportunities for the child to discover and explore the materials offered during that time period. The negative side of this type of program is that teachers tend not to be as aware of the individual children as they are of the activity they are dealing with at any given time, and it is difficult to enforce responsible choices. Unless the program is very well supervised -- including a teacher who acts as a facilitator to help children choose an activity and stay with it to completion -- there is a tendency for children to wander.

The preschool approach with two teachers and their class in a classroom with outside time on a scheduled basis, tends to restrict the activity choices and puts more responsibility on each teacher for her share of program planning. It does allow the teachers to become better acquainted with each child, provides more opportunity for observation, and encourages prolonged play in individual centers with less of an emphasis on activities. The focus of this method is on child development, encouraging the children to experiment with the materials rather than do a specific activity.

Both the self contained classroom and the open classroom have much to recommend them. The decision of which to use should be based on best use of space and preference of staff. Whichever method is adopted, the goals of the program remain the same.

The following schedule is not exhaustive, but has been made as complete as possible. Times are approximate since the day will flow from one activity to the next. Beginning and ending "choice" times will

be expanded with children's choices whenever possible, i.e. when multi-age grouping does not preclude an activity for safety reasons, or when adequate supervision is available.

Sample Daily Schedule:

- 6:00 am Children's choice, inside, multi-age grouping
Center's open to include: Family
Blocks & Construction
Dramatic Play
Crafts
- 7:00 am Rug Time -- story, discussion, and follow-up
dramatization which includes exercising all the
big muscles
- 7:30 am Children's choice, outside, multi-age grouping
Centers open to include: Large muscle
Creative Media
- 8:15 am Rug Time -- Verbalization & Self-Concept Dev.
Plan the group project.
- 8:40 am Group Project Time
- 9:10 am Rug Time -- Sharing & Problem-Solving
Discuss the project, how it could have been done
differently, how they felt about it.
- 9:30 am Snack
- 10:00 am Center Time -- All centers open
- 11:00 am Music & Movement
- 11:30 am Lunch -- Health & Nutrition discussions, audio
tapes, video tapes, and verbal games
- 12:00 While lunch should continue until 12:30 for those
children still eating, those who are finished
should be excused from the table to go to the
creative and quiet centers, either inside or
outside. Special emphasis at this time should be
individual interaction with each child.

CONTENT AREAS

The content areas in the all-day curriculum serve as a vehicle for fostering the developmental goals of the center. Self-help skills and problem solving are given special emphasis. Because of the number of hours of attendance it is most important that teachers model acceptable social behaviors, clear communication, and accepted values. It is important to avoid the widespread belief that teaching facts has greater merit than encouraging thinking. The theme for the week is not more important than whatever happened on the way to the center, should a child express an interest. Without interest there is no real development. The following content areas are usually included in a well-rounded program.

Creative Media: This includes not only the elements of art -- color, shape, line, form, and texture -- but the media itself. These include drawing, painting, printing, crafts, collage paste & glue, three-dimensional, and sculpture.

Health & Nutrition: Included in this area are self-help skills & caring for the body, safety, accidents (including what to do in case of), as well as positive mental health.

Literacy: Using a whole-language approach to language development allows this area to enter all other content areas. While immense exposure to books, stories, written and spoken language of all kinds, and continuous verbal interaction both child-child and adult-child, and even journal "writing" should be encouraged, formal sound-symbol recognition and sight vocabulary should not. Enjoyment of the spoken and written language, experimentation with these, and curiosity to know

more are the major goals of the language program in the child care center.

Mathematics: While this is an area often misunderstood, it should include the concepts of sets, counting, symbols, time, and measurement. It should not include formal exercises in any of these, and must be part of the discovery and exploration process. Mathematics experiences in the early childhood years should grow from real-life situations and should never require pencil-and-paper-dittoed-sheets.

Music & Movement: These two categories are being treated as one because of their symbiotic relationship. There are people who can hear music or sing without moving the body, but this may not be desirable. This is the universal language. If there is one area through which all other areas of the curriculum may be experienced, it is through music and movement. There cannot be too much of it, although in many classrooms there is too little. Included, of course, are how and where the body can move, awareness of the whole body, musical skills, elements of music, and enjoyment of music.

Our Feelings: This is the feelings area of life. This is where socialization skills are dealt with, self-concept and self-esteem are fostered, group communication skills are taught, living in families, and living in the world are explored, and cultures are visited.

Science: This is the area in which houses, transportation, birds, plants, animals, insects, dinosaurs, seasons, weather, stars, senses, water, rocks, soil, and technology can all be examined.

Problem-Solving: It can be argued, justifiably, that problem-solving is part of living and must be included in every area of the curriculum. However, problem-solving is a skill. Like study skills in later years,

problem-solving should be taught as well as being incorporated into other curriculum areas. Included should be the five steps of problem-solving: describe the problem, suggest solutions, choose the best-sounding solution, try it, evaluate the outcome (CDA, Module #17). Children enjoy problem solving practise, which is actually a form of imaginative play using "what if" situations. Real life problem solving of social problems in the learning centers should be looked upon as teaching opportunities by the alert teacher.

PLANNING

The best planning book is a three ring binder. Dittoed sheets of daily plan forms and weekly plan forms for the past month and the next month, at least, along with a calendar form with large boxes for the monthly planning ideas should be included.

The daily plan is actually done a week at a time. This series of daily plans -- which include planning for the entire day, not just the morning and afternoon "learning times" avoids repetition and allows enough lead time to gather the materials needed.

Daily changes to the plan should be noted at the time of the activity or soon thereafter for reference in later planning. Always note an activity which did not attract the children, or one which will be done differently next time it is used. Note ideas which come to mind for new activities or variations of activities -- changes to centers, etc. -- to be used in future.

Sample Plan: Theme -- "Me"

6:00 am Hand mirrors in family center
 Toy people in the block center
 Stories about children & a collection of

children's clothing in the dramatic play center
Collage pictures of "Me" in the craft center

- 7:00 am Story: I Went to the Zoo Last Saturday
Discussion about what we like to do best. Each pantomimes favorite activity & children guess. If time permits, discuss why we like that activity.
- 7:30 am Outside: Follow the leader in the large muscle center.
Paint (easel & finger) pictures of "Me" in creative media center.
- 8:15 am Planning time -- group decides on project, or teacher suggests giant picture puzzle (one lies on large sheet of newsprint & others draw around, cut out & make into puzzle -- could paint if time permits) Children plan how to do project, teacher asks questions.
- 8:40 am Children do project with materials assistance as necessary.
- 9:10 am Rug Time: Question: How did it go?
- 9:30 am Snack
- 10:00 am Centers -- special activities available:
Creative Media -- "My Favorite" -- Collages
Dramatic Play -- "I Like To --"
Blocks -- My House
Science -- "How are we Different?"
Literacy -- "The Story of My Life"
Books about Me
Family -- A Day in the Life of my Family
Large Muscle -- Measure how far I can reach
How far I can step, the length of my hand,
Creative Media - outside -- easel painting
Cooperative Play -- our school
Science center -- look at hair & hands under magnifying glass
Quiet center -- I can be myself
- 11:00 am New song: "Who's Important?" written by Dr. Julie Strand.
Movement: Individuals perform and are imitated by the group.
- 11:30 am Lunch: Guessing game -- "What's white and hard and moves real fast? Teeth
What's soft, bends in all the right places and hurts if it gets a hole in it? Skin, etc.

- 12:00 am Centers as before
- 12:45 am Story: "I Can Hold My Hand Up" Teacher makes up story by having the children do something with each part of the body -- repetitive & slow.
Music: Beethoven's Pastoral
- 1:00 pm Rest
- 2:30 pm Center activities: play dough
puzzles
bead stringing
books & writing
- 3:15 pm Rug Time: Group story "When I Was a Little Child" Teacher starts story "When I was a little child just like you, I" then points to one of the children who says something she might have done such as "Jumped." Teacher adds that to the story and continues, giving each child a chance to give a word or phrase to the story. Then children choose to write or draw their own story and get a chance to read it to the class.
- 4:00 pm When all have had a turn, talk about how we feel when its our turn to read. Scared, happy, silly, etc. Concept: We all feel a little scared, it's okay.
- 4:15 pm Centers open as in morning. Children build on the play they started in morning or start something new. Emphasis on depth of play experiences.
- 5:15 pm Evaluation. Visit about "Me", how I feel, what I like, why I can't always do what I want. Then allow each child to choose an activity.

Weekly Plan

The weekly plan is a list of the content areas, and how each one will be satisfied each day of the week.

Content Area	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri
Creative Media					
Health & Nut.					

Language

Math

Music & Move.

Feelings

Science

Problem-Solv.

On a weekly basis the teachers should plan together to include all of the activities which will be offered during the following week, make lists of materials needed, and plan for special events. After the plans are made they should be changed as necessary according to the interest of the children.

Monthly Plan:

The monthly plan is the list of center goals, with the activities meeting those goals noted.

Goals	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4
1. Individual needs				
2. Special needs				
3. Activity balance				
4. Centers				
5. Literacy				
6. Learning Activities				
7. Choices				
8. Transitions				
9. Self-help				

10. Problem-Solving
11. Verbalization
12. Social skills
13. Self-concept
14. Rest & relax

It is most important to keep this set of goals in mind. This is the real key to the development of the children. Activities without reference to these goals are busy work.

Times Requiring Special Planning

There are certain times during the day requiring special attention. Be sure to check these times during advance planning for back-up activities, extra attention, or something just a bit more exciting to do. Experience has shown that these times tend to get "stale" without some special emphasis.

1. Group Times:

In a study of group times, McAfee found "Out of a total of 48 observational checks in 5 classrooms reading books and sharing/show & tell were observed in 56% of the checks. Few instances of music and movement were observed, and no finger plays & action rhymes" (McAfee, 1984). Because of the importance of group times, McAfee suggests:

"The early childhood profession should give serious consideration to the long range deeper goals of classroom activities. What are the reasons we have the typical activities that make up a day in the life of teachers and children in early childhood centers?...Certainly, the experiences themselves are worthwhile, but we are still struggling for deeper meanings and understandings" (McAfee, 1984).

McAfee lists five important competencies which children learn from group times. These are: turn taking, focusing on the person or material

presented, respecting the rights of others, proper participation procedures, enjoyment of learning from a shared experience (McAfee, 1984).

2. Center Times:

It is not enough to have the centers available day after day and allow the children to play in them freely. Materials in each center should build on the children's experiences and interests to allow them to explore their world and the people in it more deeply and thus to grow in knowledge and understanding.

3. Early Morning and Late Afternoon

As the children arrive they need the reassurance that they are welcome and wanted. The early morning center activities should be familiar, allowing for creativity in crafts and dramatic play, and allowing for acting out feelings in the family/dress-up center. It is especially important to have adequate center activities for all the children. Careful planning is required to maintain that level of comfortable familiarity without having the activities become boring and stale. Day-to-day building on observed play is the best way to keep this time of day exciting and enjoyable for everyone.

The end of the day is an evaluating, winding down time. It is a good time for discussions, stories, writing and drawing activities. Quiet activities are best -- if a listening post is available it should be a choice with a story or soothing classical music. Quiet voices at this time of day can become a habit, if the teacher takes time to talk about this at the 5:15 rug time. Too often tired teachers and tired children make this final hour an endurance test for each other. The best planning for this time of day is to have something ready, but to do

what is suggested by the children. When they find their suggestions for activities welcomed they will soon have suggestions ready -- asking for suggestions when not planning to implement them, however, will shut of the supply permanently.

EVALUATION

Evaluation of the program must be done on a daily and continuing basis. Only by continuous evaluation can the teacher know that the program is both meeting the needs of the children and meeting its specific program goals.

Daily Evaluation: On a daily basis the teacher records on her daily plan the changes made, comments regarding activities, ideas, and plans for future development.

Weekly Evaluation: Weekly as the teacher makes her plans for the next week, the previous week is reviewed for clues to children's needs shown by changes to the daily plans. Often a pattern of changes will emerge showing a schedule change is needed, special activities need to be planned to provide experience and/or knowledge to help the children deal with a social or emotional situation frequently occurring during group or center times. An example of this would be teaching appropriate behavior for rug time if the children are having trouble listening, taking turns, or keeping body parts under control.

Also weekly the center observations showing which centers received most use must be reviewed and used in planning what to add or change about the centers for the following week. Sometimes a decision must be made to either eliminate a center, or modify it. Considerations should be weighed in view of how important the center is in meeting the

program goals, and in fostering the development of the children. Questions to ask include: Are these goals met elsewhere? Does this center present a unique opportunity for child development, or not? Can this center be modified to avoid these problems? by limiting the number of children using it simultaneously? by making the space larger and allowing more children at one time? by rearranging the room to put it in another physical area?

Finally, developmental growth observations must be reviewed weekly and decisions made on specific activities to be offered for the next week decided upon.

Monthly the goal sheets showing which activities used during the previous month met the stated goals of the center must be reviewed. Since this is the list of desired outcomes, it is also a valuable evaluation tool. Monthly monitoring of this will ensure that the goals are indeed being met.

At the risk of being repetitive, again, observation is the teacher's best measure of child development in all areas: cognitive, social, and emotional.

Formal Evaluation: Weikart suggests that, to evaluate more exactly how well the program is meeting the developmental needs of the children, a standardized test can be given to a sample of the children chosen randomly (Weikart, 1987). Their scores will show whether the program is providing them with the tools they need to develop. When using this form of evaluation it is important that it is the program that is being evaluated, and not the children. Unless they belong to the two percent of children with physical or emotional problems needing treatment, the

children will develop normally given an adequate program (Weikart, 1987).

CONCLUSION

The focus of this curriculum guide is on the children because it is felt that any other kind of program imposes on children a series of tasks having no real-world significance. Research has shown that this kind of program built on the learning center design, offering opportunities for responsible choices, including a balance of individual and group activities, supervised by well trained, caring adults offers long term benefits for children (Schweinhart, 1986; McCartney, 1982).

Chapter 5

COMMENTS, CONCERNS AND CONCLUSION

INTRODUCTION

It has been the purpose of this project to develop a curriculum guide for an all day program for three and four year olds which will meet their needs as established by research in the field and by leading early childhood educators. To this end, the past and present need for child care was reviewed, research was summarized, leading educators' writings were examined, and a curriculum guide suggested. Five all-day program directors, and five educators were invited to review this curriculum guide for completeness, appropriateness, and practicality. Their comments are given in this chapter. Following that are further concerns and conclusions.

COMMENTS

Five all-day program directors and five educators were invited to read chapter four of this thesis and comment on it regarding appropriateness, completeness and practicality. These global issues were chosen to allow maximum range of comments from readers, while still providing meaningful evaluation of the material. Cherry, Mitchell, and Seefeldt address the all day curriculum in the context of an extended half-day program (Cherry, 1987, Mitchell, 1987, Seefeldt, 1974). The all day program must provide much more support for children and their families than the half-day program (NAEYC, 1984). The curriculum guide contained in chapter four of this thesis attempts to address this need. Comments from educators evaluate how completely this was accomplished.

Appropriateness

All readers commented that a curriculum guide for all day programs was much needed, and that this guide provided material useful for the target population -- non-education majors teaching in all day programs. It was suggested that less formal language would be more appropriate for this population, and opinion was divided over whether too much or too little child development theory was included. All readers were pleased with the process-format as opposed to a content-format for the curriculum, emphasizing the developmental aspects of growth and allowing for both major and minor individual differences in children. One reader commented that this curriculum would allow the all day program to "fulfill the role of the extended family." Another reader felt that this curriculum guide emphasized good record-keeping and evaluation.

Completeness

Readers commented favorably on the wide range of material presented in this curriculum guide, covering as it does many of the complex elements involved in an all day program. It was suggested that existing instruments for program evaluation be included. More emphasis was suggested on drama and field trips as part of a well-rounded program. Concern was expressed on the issue of spontaneity in curriculum. The curriculum, this reader felt, should be dynamic and ever-changing with the written guide as a framework from which to build. Completeness of definitions were questioned for "curriculum," "teachers/caregivers," "classroom observation," and "democratic classroom." Specific activities were suggested for the content areas.

It was thought that the role of parent helpers and teacher-aides should be addressed. The role of physical development was thought to be incomplete. It was felt that state regulation in the functioning of the all day program should have been enlarged upon.

Practicality

Readers commented that this curriculum guide offered concrete suggestions and included material useful for non-education majors. One reader felt that the daily schedule provided too much structure in the late afternoon. Specific suggestions for practicality included: inclusion of the need to integrate content areas wherever possible; inclusion of work sheets for the novice to use for observations, goal setting, and activity planning; clearer explanation of choice making; deletion of the statement "There should be no exceptions to resting" on page 29; inclusion of Mitchell's suggestion of "zoning" the staff to avoid unwanted staff-staff interaction (Mitchell, 198); inclusion of the practice of designating one teacher as a "floater" to facilitate choice making in an "open environment" as advocated by Cherry (Cherry, 1987); further suggestions in the planning process to cover the contingency of plan "bomb-out"; inclusions of examples of good choice making; and inclusion of limits for the use of "time out" on page 22.

SUMMARY OF COMMENTS

It was with some trepidation that this curriculum guide was offered to ten educators for evaluation. Curriculum in early childhood all day programs has long been an informal process based upon individual values, and frequently articulated only on a weekly basis (Langenbach,

1977). Major emphasis has almost always been placed on themes and units, with specific developmental concepts assuming a minor role (Cherry, 1987, Weikart, 1987). Certainly, the program should not be a static, cumbersome document of minute structure slavishly followed exactly from year to year. Less structured early childhood programs fostering responsible choice making have been found to promote most growth and long term benefits in young children (Schweinhart, 1986; Weikart, 1987, Kamii, 1986). It is gratifying, therefore, to find the suggestions for improvement of this curriculum guide to be mainly omissions of specific material with only one suggestion for less structure.

While the comments of the readers were a valuable addition to the project, there was neither consensus nor majority of opinion for any particular change in the curriculum guide. Therefore, no changes were made.

CONCERNS

Young children are a powerless group. The decision on which early childhood program to attend is made by their parents. Certainly most, if not all, parents want this program to be developmentally appropriate, intellectually stimulating, and emotionally nurturing, as well as physically safe.

There is a widespread opinion in the early childhood community that when parents place their children in "undesirable" early childhood programs it is because good quality programs are not available and/or parents are not able to discriminate for quality (NAEYC, 1987). Another, and perhaps more practical, school of thought suggests that

parents place their children in less desirable programs for economic reasons (NCWW, 1986; Zigler, 1982).

Awareness of this issue prompted Zigler to suggest "Project Day-Care." This project is designed as "a practical, affordable solution to the number one problem of American families." (Trotter, 1987). Zigler suggests using public school buildings to house early childhood programs for children aged three and over, to be taught by people with Child Development Associate Credentials (Trotter, 1987).

Concerned groups have, also, sponsored the Act for Better Child Care (S. 1885, H.R. 3660). This bill was introduced in Congress in November 1987 in an effort to force the United States government to assume some responsibility for child care. The United States is "the only major industrialized nation without a specific federal child care policy" (Goffin, 1988). Zigler, however, estimates that child care costs between seventy-five and one hundred billion dollars per year, and doubts that the federal government can afford it (Trotter, 1987). His solution, as stated earlier, rests in Project Day-Care (Trotter, 1987).

The old cliches: "Our future rests on our children" and "Today's children are tomorrow's leaders" are such household sayings that their originators are lost in antiquity. Their truth is still current, however. The changes in our society's method of bringing up children are already being blamed for increased teen pregnancies, increased out-of-wedlock births, increased use of drugs, and increased juvenile delinquency (Trotter, 1987). Zigler says, "We cannot have a society in which some children at 3 weeks of age are sent into a child-care system that helps their development while another group is put into a system that is damaging." (Trotter, 1987). Zigler continues, "We are only

getting from caretakers what we pay for. If you want quality child-care, you have to pay for it. But 58 percent of the caretakers in day-care centers are earning poverty-level wages or less... An absolutely number one item for us must be improving the training, the status and certainly the pay for people who decide to give their lives to the care of other people's children." (Trotter, 1987).

CONCLUSION

There are many problems unique to the all day early childhood program, in addition to economics. For this reason the half-day preschool curriculum is inadequate to meet the needs of this population. Such basic issues as time scheduling become mind-boggling when juggling group size/ratio, teacher hours, child hours, and hours of operation; with the added burden of teacher planning time, set-up time, and clean-up time. The socialization and acculturation of the young child is a further problem in the all day program. Frequently the parent picks up the child in time to provide a late dinner and put her to bed, resulting in the major portion of the child's socialization and acculturation occurring at the all day early childhood program. In the all day program, parent interaction, involvement, and need are of paramount importance. In a half-day program the recognition of the needs of the family are limited to providing cultural experiences for all cultures represented by the population. In the all day program the teacher often is called upon as a counsellor in the day to day family problems inherent in balancing one or two work schedules with the needs of one or more children. At best, parents often are too busy, too rushed, and too

weary to concern themselves with the finer points of child development on a day to day basis.

The question was asked of a parent by Representative Leslie Whiting-Johnson at the Human Resources Committee Hearing, Phoenix, Arizona, on March 21, 1988: "Do you think money would solve the problems of child care?" It is quite true that money would not solve the problems outlined above. Money would, however, allow early childhood programs to provide real career opportunities for dedicated people instead of providing a stopping-off place while waiting for a better position. With such a stable staff, training would be a sequential process and curriculum planning could build from year to year, as it should to result in maximum social, emotional, cognitive, and physical child development.

REFERENCES

- Almy, Millie. Day care and early childhood education. Day Care: Scientific and Social Policy Issues. Edward Zigler & Edmund Gordon, eds. Boston, Mass.: Auburn House, 1982.
- Ames, Louise Bates. Your child -- from birth to twelve. Early Childhood Education 85/86. Judy S. McKee, ed. Guilford, Conn.: The Dushkin Publishing Co., 1986.
- Bentzen, Warren, R. Seeing Young Children: A Guide to Observing & Recording Behavior. Albany, New York: Delmar Publishers Inc., 1985.
- Belsky, Jay. Two waves of day care research. The Child and the Day Care Setting: Qualitative Variations & Development. New York, N.Y.: Praeger Publishers, 1984.
- Berrueta-Clement, John R., et al. Changed lives: the effects of the perry preschool program on youths through age 19. Changed Lives. Ypsilanti, Michigan: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation, 1984.
- Blackwell, Jacqueline. Day care programs: a part of the educational continuum. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1979.
- Blank, Helen. Early childhood and the public schools. Early Childhood Education 86/87. Judy S. McKee, ed. Guilford, Conn.: The Dushkin Publishing Co., 1987.
- Bradbard, Marilyn & Endsley, Richard. Sources of variance in young working mother's satisfaction with child care. Advances in Early Education and Day Care, Vol 4. Sally Kilmer, ed. Greenwich, Conn.: Jai Press Inc. 1986.
- Brown, Mac. The value of play. Acting on What We Know: Guidelines for Developing Effective Programs for Young Children. New York, N.Y.: Teachers College Press, 1985.
- Caldwell, B.M.; Wright, C.M.; Honig, A.S.; Tannenbaum, J. Infant care and attachment. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 40, 1970.
- Caldwell, Bettye. All day care. Printed in Implementing Child Development Programs, report of an August 1974 National Symposium. Early Childhood Report #10. 1974.
- Caldwell, Bettye. What is quality child care? Paper presented at the National Conference, National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1983.

- Caldwell, Bettye. Our children, our resources. Early Childhood Education, 85/86, Judy Spitler McKee, ed. Guilford, Conn.: Dushkin Publishing Group, Inc., 1986.
- Campbell, M.M., & Ramsey, O.E. Developmental screening scales. Seattle, Washington: Clinic for Child Study, University of Washington, 1965.
- Cassidy, Deborah; Myers, Barbara K. & Benion, Pamela E.. Early child planning. Childhood Education. Journal of the Association of Childhood Education International. October, 1987.
- Castle, Kathryn & Swick, Kevin. Acting on What we Know: Guidelines for Developing Effective Programs for Young Children. New York, N.Y.: Teachers College Press, 1985.
- Charlesworth, Rosalind. Readiness: should we make them ready or let them bloom? Early Childhood Education 86/87. Judy S. McKee, ed. Guilford, Conn: The Dushkin Publishing Co., 1987.
- Child Development Associate Materials. Modules 1, 8, 9, 58. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children.
- Children's Defense Fund. A Children's Defense Budget, An Analysis of the FY 1987 Federal Budget and Children. Washington, D.C: Children's Defense Fund, 1986, 1987.
- Cherry, Clare; Harkness, Barbara; & Kuzma, Kay. Nursery School & Day Care Center Management Guide, 2nd.Ed. Belmont, CA: David S. Lake Publishers, 1987.
- Child care & development services. Sacramento, Calif: Report of the Commission to Formulate a State Plan for Child Care and Development Services in California, 1978.
- Child Care Handbook. Washington, D.C.: American Home Economics Association, 1981.
- Clarke-Stewart, Alison K. Daycare. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press, 1982.
- Clarke-Stewart, Alison K. What day care forms and features mean for children's development. Paper presented at the AAAS Conference, Los Angeles, CA., 1985.
- Clarke-Stewart, Alison K. In search of consistencies in child care research. Quality in Child Care: What Does Research Tell Us? Washington, D.C: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1987.
- Cohen, Donald J. & Brandegeer, Ada S. Day care: serving preschool children - 3. Washington, D.C.: Office of Child Development, 1974.

- Cowles, Milly. Early childhood curriculum. Acting on What We Know: Guidelines for Developing Effective Programs for Young Children Kathryn Castle & Kevin J. Swick, eds. New York, N.Y.: Teachers College Press, 1985.
- Deacon, Gene E. Secrets to Day School Success. North Wilkesboro, N.C.: Gold Crest Publishing, 1979.
- Dinkmeyer, Don & McKay, Gary D. Raising a Responsible Child. New York, N.Y.: Simon and Schuster, 1973.
- Dreikers, Rudolf & Soltz, Vicki. Children the Challenge. New York, N.Y.: Hawthorn/Dutton, 1964.
- Early Childhood Report #10. Implementing child development programs. Denver, Co: Report of an August 1974 National Symposium.
- Eliason, Clausia F. & Jenkins, Loa T. A Practical Guide to Early Childhood Curriculum, 3rd Ed. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Co., 1986.
- Elkind, David. The Child & Society. New York, N.Y.: Oxford University Press, 1979.
- Erikson, Erik H. Childhood and Society, 2nd Ed. New York, N.Y.: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1963.
- Friedman, David B. & Others. Child care and the family. Chicago, Ill.; National Committee for Prevention of Child Abuse, 1984.
- Frierson, Felicia & Hills, Tynette W. Planning an education program for young children; a planning guide for teachers in schools and child care centers. Early Childhood Education Resource Guides, New Jersey State Dept. of Education. Washington, D.C.: Office of Human Development Services, 1981.
- Fuqua, Robert W. Improving program evaluation in day care. Making Day Care Better. James T. Greenman & Robert W. Faqua, eds. New York, N.Y.: Teachers College Press, 1984.
- Gesell, Arnold. The Mental Growth of the Preschool Child. New York, N.Y.: The MacMillan Co., 1977.
- Goelman, Hillel & Pence, Alan. Effects of child care, family, and individual characteristics on children's language development. Quality in Child Care: What Does Research Tell Us? Washington, D.C: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1987.
- Goffin, Stacie G. Pulling our advocacy efforts into a new context. Young Children. Journal of the National Association for the Education of Young Children. March 1988.

- Goodman, Yetta. Kidwatching: observing children in the classroom, in Observing the Language Learner, Angela Jaggear & M. Trika Smith-Burke, eds. Published by the International Reading Association and the National Council of Teachers of English, 1985
- Greenman, James T. & Fugua, Robert W., eds. Making Day Care Better. New York, N.Y.: Teachers College Press, 1984.
- Gulley, Beverly S. & others. Checklists for starting up and operating a day care center. Southern Illinois University, 1986.
- Halliday, M.A.K. Learning How to Mean. Baltimore, Maryland: Edward Arnold Publishers Ltd. 1975.
- Higberger, Ruth & Schramm. Child Development for Day Care Workers. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1976.
- Hipple, Marjorie L. Classroom discipline problems? Fifteen humane solutions. Childhood Education, February, 1978.
- Hohmann, Mary; Banet, Bernard; & Weikart, David P. Young Children in Action. Ypsilanti, Michigan: The High/Scope Press, 1979.
- Honig, Alice S. The family development research program with emphasis on the children's center curriculum. New York: Syracuse University; Washington, D.C.: Office of Child Development; Syracuse, N.Y.: Onondaga Co. Dept. of Health; Syracuse, N.Y.: State University of New York; Syracuse, N.Y.: Upstate Medical Center. June 1972.
- Kagan, Jerome. The Growth of the Child. New York, N.Y.: W.W. Norton & Company, 1978.
- Kamii, Constance. Viewpoint. Obedience is not enough. Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives, Joanne Brown McCracken, ed. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1984, 1986.
- Katz, Lillian. What is basic to young children? Early Childhood Education 86/87, Judy Spitler McKee, ed. Guilford, Conn.: Dushkin Publishing Group, Inc., 1987.
- Katz, Lillian. The professional preschool teacher. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1983.
- Keliher, Alice. Back to basics or forward to fundamentals? Young Children. Journal of the National Association for the Education of Young Children, September 1986.
- Kontos, Susan & Fiene, Richard. Child care quality, compliance with regulations, and children's development: the Pennsylvania study.

Quality in Child Care: What Does Research Tell Us? Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1987.

- Langenbach, Michael & Neskora, Teanna West. Day Care: Curriculum Considerations. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1977.
- Lazar, Irving. Child care in the United States. Washington, D.C.: Paper presented at the Research Forum on Family Issues, National Advisory Committee of the White House Conference on Families, 1980.
- Lipham, James M. Ed. A candid discussion of the issues in education. Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, 1976.
- McAfee, Oralie. Group time in early childhood centers: an exploratory study. Los Angeles, CA: Paper presented at the annual meeting of National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1984.
- McCartney, Kathleen, et al. Environmental differences among day care centers and their effects on children's development. Day Care, Edward Zigler & Edmund Gordon, eds. Boston, Mass.: Auburn House, 1982.
- Mitchell, Grace & Chmela, Harriet. I Am! I Can! A Preschool Curriculum, Rev. Ed. Marshfield, Mass: Telshare Publishing Co., Inc., 1987.
- Mitchell, Grace. The Day Care Book. New York, N.Y.: Stein and Day Publishers, 1979.
- Montessori, Maria. The Montessori Method. New York, N.Y.: Schocken Books, 1964.
- NAEYC, Accreditation Criteria & Procedures. Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Early Childhood Programs, 1984.
- NAEYC, Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives, Joanne Brown McCracken, ed. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1986.
- NAEYC, Quality in Child Care: What Does Research Tell Us? Deborah Phillips, ed. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1987.
- NCWW, Fact Sheet. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Working Women, 1986.
- Noonan, Roberta L. Procedures for developing policy for nursery schools and day care centers. Educational Policy Systems. Nova University: Practicum report in partial fulfillment of requirement of Doctor of Education degree, 1978

- Ozman, Howard A. & Craver, Samuel M. Philosophical Foundations of Education, Third Edition. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Co., 1986.
- Pence, Alan R. Infant schools in North America. Advances in Early Education and Day Care, Vol. 4. Sally Kilmer, ed. Greenwich, Conn.: Jai Press Inc., 1986.
- Pence, Alan R. Two worlds of day care: the practitioner and the researcher. Canada: Dept. of Health & Welfare, 1981.
- Peterson, Rosemary & Felton-Collins, Victoria. The Piaget Handbook for Teachers & Parents. New York, N.Y: Teachers College Press, 1986.
- Phillips, Deborah & Howes, Carollee. Indicators of quality in child care: review of research. Quality in Child Care: What Does Research Tell Us? Washington, D.C: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1987.
- Piaget, Jean. The Origins of Intelligence in Children. New York, N.Y.: International Universities Press, Inc. 1974.
- Prescott, Elizabeth. The physical setting in day care. Making Day Care Better, James T. Greenman & Robert W. Fuqua, eds. New York, N.Y: Teachers College Press, 1984.
- Radin, Norma. The unique contribution of parents to childrearing: the preschool years. The Young Child Reviews of Research, Vol.3, Shirley G. Moore & Catherine R. Cooper, eds. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1982.
- Read, Katherine. The Nursery School. Philadelphia, PA: W.B.Saunders, 1966.
- Report of the 1980 Illinois White House Conference on Children. Springfield, Ill: Illinois Commission on Children, 1980.
- Rescorla, Leslie A., Provence, Sally, & Naylor, Audrey. The Yale child welfare research program: description and results. Day Care, Edward Zigler & Edmund Gordon, eds. Boston, Mass.: Auburn House, 1982.
- Robertson, Anne. Day care and children's responsibilities to adults. Day Care: Scientific & Social Policy Issues. Edward F. Zigler & Edmund Gordon, eds. Boston, Mass.: Auburn House, 1982.
- Rutter, Michael. Social-emotional consequences of day care for preschool children. Day Care: Scientific and Social Policy Issues. Edward F. Zigler & Edmund Gordon, eds. Boston, Mass: Auburn House, 1982.

- Schweinhart, Lawrence J. et al. Three preschool curriculum models: how children are affected. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 1986.
- Seefeldt, Carol. A Curriculum for Child Care Centers. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1974.
- Smith, Charles & Davis, Duane E. Teaching children non-sense. Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives. Joanne Brown McCracken, ed. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1986.
- Soderman, Anne K. Dealing with difficult young children: strategies for teachers and parents. Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives, Joanne Brown McCracken, ed. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1986.
- Spodek, Bernard. Early childhood education's past as prologue, Young Children, July 1985.
- Taylor, Barbara, J. A Child Goes Forth. Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Press, 1964.
- Tibault, Jonelle P. & McKee, Judy S. Practical parenting with Piaget. Early Childhood Education 86/87. Judy S. McKee, ed. Guilford, Conn.: The Dushkin Publishing Co., 1987.
- Travers, Jeffrey & Goodson, Barbara Dillon. Research Results of the National Day Care Study. Cambridge, Mass.: Abt Books, 1980.
- Trotter, Robert J. Project day-care. Psychology Today, December 1987.
- Vandenberg, Brian. Play theory. The Young Child at Play, Greta Fein & Mary Rivkin, eds. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1986.
- Vance, Barbara. Teaching the Prekindergarten Child. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1973.
- Veach, Davia M. Choice with responsibility. Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives, Janet Brown McCracken, ed. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1986.
- Viorst, Judith. Necessary Losses. New York, N.Y.: Random House, 1986.
- Weikart, David. The case for developmental curriculum in early childhood education. Presented at the Annual Valley of the Sun Association for the Education of Young Children, October 24, 1987.
- White, Burton. The early years. Printed in Implementing Child Development Programs. Report of an August 1974 National Symposium. Early Childhood Report #10. 1974.

- Williams, Leslie R. Determining the curriculum. The Early Childhood Curriculum: A Review of Current Research. Carol Seefeldt, ed. New York, N.Y.: Teachers College Press, 1987.
- Zigler, Edward F. & Goodman, Jody. The battle for day care in America: a view from the trenches. Day Care: Scientific and Social Policy Issues. Edward F. Zigler & Edmund Gordon, eds. Boston, Mass: Auburn House, 1982.
- Zigler, Edward F. & Turner, Pauline. Parents and day care workers: a failed partnership. Day Care: Scientific and Social Policy Issues. Edward F. Zigler & Edmund Gordon, eds. Boston, Mass: Auburn House, 1982.
- Zinsser, Caroline. The best day care there ever was. Early Childhood Education 86/87. Judy S. McKee, ed. Guilford, Conn: the Dushkin Publishing Group, 1987.