Language
Curriculum Planning
for Deaf Children

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PREFACE

Language and education of the deaf*

Deaf and hearing impaired children present slow language development in all linguistic aspects, due to the sensory deficiency in the speech system, poor cognitive-linguistic experience, and educational, social and environmental restrictions.

The biological and environmental foundations of language allow both an innate potential for cognitive and linguistic acquisition, and a dynamic interaction which is dependent on learning and modifiable by experience for its development.

The language training of deaf children has traditionally reflected two factors - what we understand the nature of language to be, and how we understand language to be acquired by children.

If, for instance, language is seen to be primarily a set of words that are strung together into sentences, and then into larger units, then language training will very likely involve the teaching of words which will be built into sentence paradigms.

If the development of language is regarded as largely an imitation process, then the training programme will include considerable drilling and practice of vocabulary. Or, if the acquisition of language is perceived as essentially the learning of a communication process then the training approach will mainly focus on children practicing how to talk about things.

For many years, these perspectives have, in fact, been the basic assumptions about language and language development. Consequently they have been reflected in the various approaches to teaching language to the deaf, and have influenced both teachers' and parents' views of the deaf child's language ability.

It was noted that in the past deaf persons were viewed as 'concrete' in their thinking; as this was usually the only type of language experience to which they were exposed.

However, a wealth of new information from studies in linguistics over the past twenty years gives us cause to reassess both our understanding of language itself, and how children acquire it, moreover this calls for closer links between linguists and teachers of the deaf.

Today, language is seen to be much more complex and much more dynamic than we ever thought it to be. While it involves learning to communicate, it is much more than that. While words and sentences constitute a critical part of language, language is much more than mere sentence structure.

The implications of this new understanding are that our traditional views of language while not wrong, are too limited, too narrow and too simplistic.

In similar ways, the development of language in children is seen as a much more dynamic and interactive process. Studies show that children in their

language actually provide many of the clues that parents use to modify and build their language input. When those clues are not present or appropriate, as in the case of a deaf child, the parents become anxious and confused, and consequently tend to decrease their levels of speech to the child.

We also know that children are not responding just to the words in the adult model, but to intention, to prosody, and a host of other features. In doing so they are actively identifying the rules of language behaviour and of language structure.

Contemporary research in development psycho-linguistics, socio-linguistics, transformational grammar, child language, etc. has brought about a shift of emphasis in language teaching.

In the light of the foregoing observations, hearing impaired children can benefit from developmental language programmes, thus profiting from exposure to the readiness stages and milestones of normal language acquisition.

In language teaching for the deaf we need to move faster to the cognitively and syntactically complex abstract level. Above all, we must not hold back the input of appropriate language to deaf children. Unfortunately, the level of language used in most classrooms of today underestimates the possibilities of the deaf child and his language abilities.

At present a great majority of language training programmes for deaf children are largely vocabulary-oriented and language teaching approaches very rarely incorporate the levels of intension or concept development. Vocabulary teaching is not an incorrect activity in itself, but it is, however, too limited as a total language curriculum.

Furthermore, as vocabulary teaching is inevitably concrete in its presentation, the child's cognitive experience is limited to the tangible, the perceptual and the personal.

Is it strange, then, that we should observe that deaf children have difficulty with abstract concepts, given that many have been restricted to talking only about things or experiences in their immediate or recent context?

There is another serious implication of this situation. If the language ability of the deaf child is not well established at the intensional and conceptual level, it will be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to move to more abstract linguistic levels, which cannot be presented in a picture or as an isolated word.

These new outlooks have direct bearing on parent as well as teacher training programmes and can be enhanced through the provision of concrete demonstration and models.

Teaching language to the hearing impaired involves not only students and teachers but the complete staff of the school personnel from the director to the janitor, the families, and all involved in the community that surrounds the deaf child. Why? Because language involves every minute of the child's life and language is learned everywhere, not only at school. Language teaching is no longer regarded as a technique in itself. It is a process which involves

the overall development of the child and cannot be isolated from his global situation. A person cannot learn a language unless he is exposed to it and it develops first when used in relevant situations.

In line with the above views and the suggestions put forward by the Consultation to Unesco, this manual was elaborated. It is intended for teachers of deaf children and aims at stimulating discussion on new approaches and methodology for developing a language curriculum for deaf children.

This manual serves as a supplement to Guide No. 4 in the series Guides for Special Education entitled <u>Education of Deaf Children and Young People</u>.

The views expressed in this manual are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect tho: · of Unesco.

TRAINING MATERIALS FOR DEVELOPING A LANGUAGE CURRICULUM FOR DEAF CHILDREN

Training manual for developing curriculum
Slide presentation with accompanying script

The materials provided in this package do not tell you what should be taught in a language curriculum for deaf children. That knowledge does not exist. What might be appropriate in one place may not at all be appropriate for another. The information that might be right for today might not be suitable as the school or the times change. This material suggests ways that teachers can take any information and organize it in a way that it is effective as a language curriculum for deaf children.

The materials presented here are not a product, that is, they are not in a form that a teacher can take and open up and be told how to teach language to deaf children. It is not a 'cook book', nor is a set of materials for children to use. They do not contain papers or books that you can give to students and, by letting them do the exercises, teach them language.

How the teacher would love to have both of these things! A recipe book and materials to give to children. But it really wouldn't work, because a curriculum must be more dynamic than that and there are too many decisions about learning that a teacher must make constantly for materials like that to be helpful.

The development of a curriculum must be a process. It may never be finished in a book and may always be changing. If it does, at least it is alive. Because it is a process, we have been able to take the goals of many different cultures and build them into the approach and find it work for programmes in the Middle East, Northern Europe, the Azores, and Central and South America.

The process is not easy – for anyone. This material is some of the results of over twenty years of work and it is still not finished. It may never be finished because there is always some new information about language and learning that must be added or something else changed. Somehow it will be necessary for you to add that new material in later training, but there is enough to keep busy just using these materials.

So far we have stated what this material is not or what it does not do. What is it and what will it do?

The manual spends a great deal of time discussing why a curriculum is what it is. That is very important. In training sessions teachers are very anxious to get to know how to do a curriculum. Knowing how to do a language curriculum is only as good as knowing why you do it. And it is only as good as the knowledge a teacher possesses about language and learning and the process of curriculum.

Do not be in a hurry to rush into 'doing it'! We need to have knowledgeable teachers, not technicians. Some teachers may regret the lack of material and envy the texts and other teaching aids that they see at conferences or read about in books. Don't! You may be a much better teacher making your own materials that are designed to accomplish goals that you have set rather than use materials that are designed for someone else's understanding of what language is.

The teacher materials study four areas which affect a curriculum. The first section helps you study the nature of your school. The better you understand your programme and the influences around it, the more likely you will have a curriculum that best suits your situation.

The second section looks at the student population you have. A curriculum must be useful for your students. A good curriculum will change your students and so the curriculum itself will have to change.

The third section, the most difficult, discusses what language is. My observation is that most language curriculum programmes are weak because their basic understanding of language is weak. In this package we have not provided a textbook for teachers of language, though that may become necessary later; we hope so. But there is enough for you to have an outline of syntax. Why syntax? My observation of language curriculum outlines in schools worldwide is that they are weak for two main reasons:

Firstly, the curriculum focuses more on 'grammatically correct' language than it does on 'rich language'. One can work on correctness in rich language just as well as in simple language.

Secondly, because the goal is often 'correct language' it is usually too simple in its syntax. Mastery of language requires a mastery of complex syntax. My observation is that most of the time the children in the school have a level of syntax that is more developed than the level of instruction. That makes for a weak curriculum.

The fourth section deals with how to do it. But still as a process. Curriculum work is hard work! The better we understand how learning takes place, the more effective the curriculum will be.

The materials encourage discussion. That is a good thing in curriculum preparation. Teachers, I find, have great intuitions about teaching, but they don't trust them! Sometimes a group can encourage that thinking to develop. Call it sharing the risk (or the guilt), if you like.

FINISH THE TEACHER-TRAINING MANUAL FIRST! This will help the slides make more sense.

The slide presentation is a unit of teaching by a teacher of the deaf who was a teacher at the Rhode Island School for the Deaf and also in Jamaica where he both taught and trained teachers of the deaf using this approach.

I had decided at first to present a much simpler unit of teaching, perhaps from Grade 1, because often the thought of doing Shakespeare or Leonardo is a big step for teachers of the deaf to think about doing with deaf children. That is something I meet everywhere. But at the last minute I changed my mind. I don't want to say something in this package that I would not say to you myself. If you have difficulty believing your students can do this kind of work, it is not really because of your situation or the kind of children you have. It is because that is the situation in teaching the deaf everywhere.

MOST DEAF CHILDREN ARE FAR MORE CAPABLE OF UNDERSTANDING HIGHER LEVEL MATERIAL THAN WE THINK! I hope you discuss this issue well. Argue about it if you wish. BUT TRY IT! Let the children tell you what they can't do. Don't decide beforehand that it is too hard for your children. FIND WAYS TO DO IT!

After many years of working with this curriculum, one of my teachers said to me one day. 'You know, I now believe I could teach anything I want to my children'.

And so I have deliberately pushed you in this material to take risks. If you want a very safe and comfortable curriculum it probably won't be a very effective one. And I am not the person to provide that kind of thinking for you.

I recently had two administrators of schools for the deaf in African countries visit my programme. I have sent staff to South America. I have sent materials to Turkey. I have had a trainee from the Azores and I know of some fine work done in India. All the people I have met recently have been impressive, exciting and excited. Because they do not have to overcome long traditions, and because they are in areas and in programmes where they can only go one way – up – I really believe that there can be more change in curriculum more rapidly in many of these places than in some schools in the United States or the United Kingdom, or other places where educating the deaf has a long tradition.

After seeing the slides, go back to the manual and discuss again how you might take your goals and put them in the format suggested in materials. AND THEN TRY IT! Don't worry about doing it right! I don't know of any children who have been permanently damaged by overexposure to knowledge! They will tell you if they don't understand and then it is a matter of finding what adaptions you need to make next time.

One final word of encouragement. In my experience with curriculum change I have found that even if things go very smoothly (which rarely happens) and even if there are adequate staff and supervision, it takes two years of working at it before you begin to feel comfortable and before you begin to see real results.

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LANGUAGE CURRICULUM PLANNING FOR DEAF CHILDREN

The major elements of curriculum planning

The development of a curriculum requires us to think about four major factors that influence a school or educational programme. Two of the areas are highly variable, that is they make programmes very different from each other. They will be the factors that will vary from one country to another or even account for differences between programmes within a country. They are:

(a) the nature of the context and

(b) the nature of the learner.

The other two factors are:

(c) the nature of knowledge and

(d) the nature of learning.

These two areas share greater similarities world-wide, although we must remember that all of these four factors influence each other greatly. Nevertheless, we shall look at each factor separately before we consider the relationship between them.

1. The nature of the context

By the context we mean the milieu or the surrounding situation that influences a school.

The environmental factors that impact on curriculum planning are things like: what opportunities and educational resources are available; what changes might occur over the next decade; community and government expectations for education, and job or other economic possibilities in the community.

As the essence of curriculum planning is to determine what we want a student to know and be able to do by the time he or she finishes a school programme, it is necessary to make sure that the goals of the curriculum match the expectations of the community, prepare the student to take advantage of opportunities, and help him or her to understand and be able to participate in society.

To identify the nature of the context, it will be helpful to collect as much information as possible. Information separates what is real from what people think is real or what their perception is. People may think things are a certain way but a closer look may show that they are not really that way at all. What people think must not be ignored because it is part of the context. If a curriculum is to be acceptable to a community, the society must believe that the school is meeting the community's expectations and values in the curriculum. If the community misunderstands the school programme, then the school has the task of changing that perspective.

If the community perception is correct, then the school must either bring its curriculum into accord with the community or try to bring the community into agreement with a new and different perspective.

Some of the information that will help analyse the context might include:

1. What is the current level of education available to the general population? _____

_____

2. What is the current level of education available to deaf children?

_____

_____

3. What percentage of the general school population receive post-secondary education? _____

_____

4. What kinds of occupations are available to school-leavers in the region?

_____

_____

5. What kinds of jobs are available to deaf school-leavers at the present time? _____

_____

6. What general goals for education are defined by the government in laws, guidelines, the constitution, etc. _____

_____

_____

_____

7. What subjects are required to be taught in schools by the government, the ministry of education, etc.? _____

_____

_____

_____

8. What changes might be expected over the next ten years:

   (a) in education generally?

_____

_____

(b) in deaf education specifically?

_____

_____

(c) in vocational opportunities?

_____

(d) in post-secondary opportunities?

_____

9. What support resources are presently available to deaf children:

    medical? _____

    audiological? _____

    hearing aids? _____

    infant training? _____

    early education? _____

10. What is the average age that hearing children begin school? _____

11. What are the general attitudes that parents in your context have towards deafness?

_____

12. What do parents expect from your school?

_____

      An analysis of this information will provide two very important items for the school to ask about its curriculum. The first question asks, 'Is the present curriculum of the school realistic in the light of existing conditions?' and the second question asks, 'Will there need to be some changes in the curriculum over the next ten years?' For instance, does the curriculum have firm academic goals, but the parents do not have very high expectations for their deaf children? This means that some kind of parent training or education will be necessary to help parents understand the goals of the curriculum. Or, is the school's vocational training the kind of training that will ensure jobs for your students? If the school has been operating for some time, find out how many of the students that left your school over a period of time are working in jobs that they were trained for at school. At the Rhode Island School for the Deaf, for instance, we have a woodworking programme, but no one from our school has had a job in woodworking for ten years. Woodworking might be a good pre-vocational programme for us, but it is not realistic as a vocational programme. We shall have to make some changes. There are some new industries in our area, however, such as silk-screening, that might be better vocational options. Some of those changes can happen quickly and easily using the teachers we already have. Other changes will take time, will need new staff and may be expensive, at first.

Support services may be very limited in your area. Which one would you want first? Hearing aids or infant training or parent education? What might change in the next ten years? What will it require to improve these services? How will it change what you are doing now in the curriculum? The better the school plans in these areas the greater the possibility that various funding sources can be found to match them.

2.   The nature of the learner

The nature of the learner means looking at the student and identifying the factors that the school must consider in its programme to help each student successfully accomplish the goals of the curriculum. The age at which the deafness was acquired, for example, will identify whether the learner had any normal language development or not. The presence of other handicaps, of course, will be another factor that will affect the rate or success of a student going through the curriculum.

The questions addressed to determine the nature of the learners in a school might include:

1.   What are the major causes of deafness among the school population?

Cause of deafness	Number of children	Percentage of school population
Meningitis		
Measles		
Mumps		
Rubella		
Rh factor		
Heredity		
Unknown		
Other		

2.   What are the ages at which deafness was identified in the students?

Age of identification	Number of children	Percentage of school population
0-3 years		
over 4 years		

3. What other handicaps exist among the school population?

Type of condition	Number of children	Percentage of school population
Uncorr'cted vision		
Physical handicaps		
General health problems		
Mental retardation		
Emotional/behavioural		

4. What is the age at which the students began school?

Age	Number of children	Percentage of school population
3 years and below		
4-5 years		
6-7 years		
8 years and above		

A good understanding of the nature of the learners or the profile of the students in the school also helps in curriculum planning. Several years ago, at the school in Rhode Island, most of the children were deaf from German measles. This meant they were born deaf and often had other problems. When we looked closely at our immigrant children (about 30 per cent of the school) we found most were deaf from meningitis. This means that they often had normal language for two, six or even nine years before they became deaf.

At another time we saw in the data that the average age at which our students received educational services was quite late, and so we worked on getting the children into programming earlier by having brochures put into doctor's offices, talking to parent groups, having nurses visit the school and talking with pediatricians. It is still hard work and there is a long way to go, but we have improved so that the average age of starting school is three years earlier than before. More children starting earlier means that we have had to change the structure of the curriculum.

What kinds of children are in the school? Is the curriculum able to meet the needs of all the students? Providing a good curriculum for children with high potential is just as difficult as designing one for multi-handicapped children. The problem of matching a curriculum to the needs of children involves good assessment. Evaluation of deaf children, especially in the area of language, is one of the most frustrating tasks for educators of the deaf, no matter what language, what country or what kind of school. But evaluation means that the goals of the curriculum have already been established and testing gives us an indication of the student's progress. If the goals of the curriculum are set, it is not so difficult to find ways of measuring progress. We will examine the matter of assessment in more detail later in this study.

3.   The nature of language

Defining the nature of knowledge is probably the weakest part of curriculum planning, and yet it is the most critical area of consideration.

It is really not easy to identify what a student should know and be able to do by the end of his or her schooling. When teachers are asked to think about goals for their students the list usually includes aims like: students should be able to get a job; be responsible; be independent; be able to communicate; be able to think clearly; be able to read and write; understand how society works; be happy as a person, know about their world, and so on. Some of these goals are skills which are the direct responsibility of the school while others are the product of experience and the result of using the skills that have been developed.

If we summarize the ideas listed above, we can develop a set of goals that might be acceptable to almost any programme for deaf students. We want our students to be literate, that is, to read and write; to be able to communicate; to know about their society and the world, and have knowledge that will help them get and hold a job, or help them go on to further education; and we want them to be independent learners, able to think and make wise decisions. In each case, it must be remembered that the details for these goals will be shaped largely by the nature of the society in which the school functions.

We can state these aims formally:

1.   Each student will develop language and literacy skills to a level which will enable him or her to read and write the items by which the community organizes and informs itself and shares its heritage and values, and to be able to use the reading and writing skills associated with an occupation or vocation, or master the skills of reading and writing necessary to enter successfully post-secondary education.

2.   Each student will develop language and the ability to communicate successfully in social and other settings in the community, understanding and using a variety of ways to facilitate communication.

3.   Each student will be able to demonstrate their knowledge of a body of information which society feels is appropriate for citizenship, and to learn such skills that are necessary for successful employment, or knowledge which is considered important for advanced study, and to be able to generalize and evaluate this knowledge.

But what do we need to do to help students reach these goals?

To answer that question, we must understand what it means to develop language or to be literate, or to read and write. What is communication and how does it function? What are the ways in which we categorize the world, and what is involved in being able to generalize?

What is language?

Language does many different things - it has function. Two of its functions are as follows:

1.   Language represents ideas.
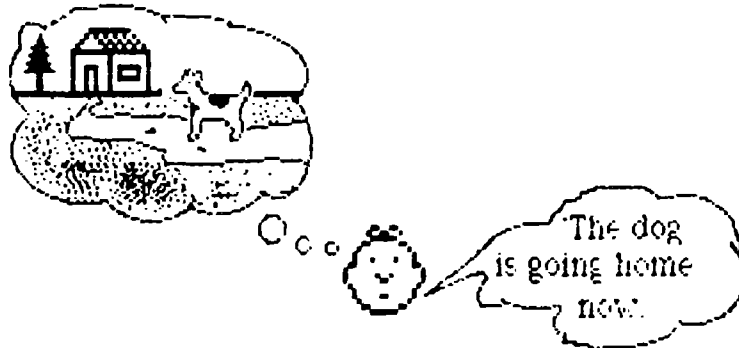
The dog is
going home now

2.   Language is used by people to interact socially.

Language has form or structure. The form of language is often different depending on its function. In other words, what we do with language often determines what the form of it will be.

A.   THE LANGUAGE OF IDEAS

1.   The simple level of language

The hearing child usually comes to school with very well developed language. That is, the child is able to take his or her experience and represent it in a language form. The child's language not only has words for many things (terms of reference), but it has ways of describing the important ideas that the child has come to understand about those things. The child, in fact, seems more interested in the relationships between the objects of the world than in their names. A child will make up a name for an object if necessary.

The earliest and dominant relationship that children seem to recognize is that things act on other things. We call this thing[1] act on - thing[2] relationship transitive which is represented in syntactic form as noun[1] - verb - noun[2].

On the other hand, we do not only speak about things acting on other things. Sometimes things <u>are</u> or just <u>act by themselves</u> - insects crawl, birds fly, babies cry, people sleep, and so on. This intransitive relationship can be simply described as noun - verb in syntax.

We can observe or organize things in other ways. Things have attribute. They are yellow or big or old or soft. Terms that describe attributes are called adjectives so that the semantic relationship thing - attribute is syntactically described as noun - (be verb) - adjective.

We also arrange the things in the world by categories. On one level we group <u>animals</u> together and on another level we group <u>cats</u> which is both part of a larger category as well as a category itself. At first, the 'cats' a child knows will be the various cats that are part of his own experience. Later, school experience may add lions and tigers to the category. The relationship thing - category is represented as noun - (be verb) - noun.

Things also exist in space and time. Paris is in France, mother is at home, uncle is away, lunch is at noon, my birthday is in December. Space (locatives) and time are syntactically represented by adverbials in the relationship noun - (be verb) - adverbial.

Summarizing these simple semantic and syntactic relationships we nave:

Semantic relationship	Syntactic description
1. thing - state/being - intransitive action	noun - verb
2. thing - transitive action - thing	noun - verb - noun
3. thing - attribute	noun - (be)* - adjective
4. thing - category	noun - (be)* - noun
5. thing - location/time	noun - (be)* - adverbial

* The 'be' verb structure is explained in Section 3 below marked with an asterisk.

The Language of Ideas

The language that represents ideas and relationships in the world in its
simple form describes the simple relationships of things in our
experience.

1.   Tortoise walk slowly.

The relationship here is that things act or have
some kind of 'state of being'.

If we understand that the function of this kind of sentence is to
describe the relationship 'things act' then the form NOUN - VERB which
represents that relationship in language will be easy to understand.

2.   The dog chases the tortoise

The relationship here is that
'things act on other things' so
that the form is NOUN-VERB-NOUN.

3.   Tortoises are small. Tortoises are slow

Things have attribute - that is they have colour, shape, size, texture,
etc. The form is NOUN (be) ADJECTIVE.*

4.   Tortoises are animals.

We classify things as animals, people, clothing, etc. The form is NOUN
(be) NOUN.*

5.   The tortoise is in the water.

Things exist in time and space. They have locations. The form is NOUN
(be) ADVERB.*

An important matter to consider at this point is whether these language
relationships and syntactic descriptions are true for languages other than
English. While it is difficult to be absolutely sure about what we call
language universals, that is, things that are evident across all languages,
there are some observations that we can make with some certainty.

1. Most languages seem to share the semantic relationship that we have listed above. Most cultures, it seems, describe the world in terms of state, being, or transitive action. They also identify attributes, establish categories, as well as use concepts of time and space.

2. While most languages share similar semantic categories, the degree to which they do so, and the nature of the categories themselves, may differ greatly. For instance, Bruner et al. (1969) show that some agrarian cultures, where farming has a very important influence, have a much more complex set of terms to describe the attributes of things they grow than non-farming communities. They have ways of accounting for a great variety of the quality of vegetables, for instance. On the other hand, cultures that are technical in nature use more abstract terms to describe complexities in the structures of their society. They talk about ideology, industrialization, or institutions, for instance.

3. The syntax of languages likewise shows similarities and differences. You will notice that in the section above we put the 'be verb' in parentheses. This is because many languages do not use a copula (linking verb) as English does. Romance languages derive the copula from Latin, whereas it is probable that there are more languages that do not use that form. Sign languages also do not use a copula. The semantic categories, however, are not affected at all by this difference - it is purely syntactic.

There are also differences in the matter of word order. English is very fussy about word order, whereas inflected languages, such as the Slavic languages, are more flexible in placing words in a sentence. The important thing to note, however, is that it seems universal for languages to have nouns and verbs and probably adjectives and adverbials.

4. The structures we have discussed thus far are sometimes called content words as they carry semantic importance, are stressed, and are necessary if a sentence is to be meaningful. Function words, on the other hand, do not have as much semantic importance, are usually unstressed, and do not generally cause a sentence to lose its meaning if they are missing. The sentence may appear awkward and strange if function words are missing, but it usually can still be understood. In the syntactic descriptions outlined above, we identified the first part of each sentence type as containing a noun. In actual fact, most sentences contain other elements besides a noun and a verb. There are usually function words such as determiners (a, the, some, all, etc.) related to the noun, or adverbial phrases related to the verb. For this reason we usually identify the two main parts of a sentence in syntactic terms as noun phrase and verb phrase. The more familiar terms subject and predicate more appropriately describe the semantic relationship in sentences, 'subject' being a more formal way of describing what we have been calling 'thing' and 'predicate' having to do with what we want to say about the subject.

It is at the level of function words that we note the greatest differences between languages. While we can say that all languages have noun phrases and verb phrases, the way in which they are formed vary greatly. Some languages have no determiners, some, such as English or French, use separate words, some, such as Swedish or Danish, add them as a suffix to the noun.

2.   The complex level of language

So far we have only discussed language at the simple sentence level, that is, where sentences have just one verb for each sentence. It is not unusual for language programmes for deaf children to include only language that is simple, where teaching time and energy is spent developing 'grammatically correct' or 'straight' language. This kind of curriculum concentrates on agreement of the subject and verb, the use of plurals, and prepositions and determiners.

But language is not confined to a simple level - it is complex, and becomes complex very early in its development.

What do we mean by complex? The concept is best described as "big sentences are made up of little sentences". For instance, in the sentence, "The boy saw an animal which was very frightening", we really have two sets of relationships each of which can be explained by a simple sentence, "The boy saw an animal" and 'The animal was very frightening". Because the word "animal" is the same in both of the simple sentences we can combine the two sentences into one sentence using a pronoun for the second use of the world "animal".

There are many and varied kinds of complex sentence types, but some of the important ones that seem to be important to include in the curriculum are:

(a)   co-ordination in sentences (or compound sentences);

(b)   subordination in sentences (subordinated clauses); and

(c)   movement of structures in sentences.

Co-ordination

If we think of the simple sentences discussed above as a single relationship represented in a sentence that contains one verb, then co-ordinated sentences are simple sentences connected together so that more than one relationship is now represented in sentences that will contain more than one verb. The relationships that are representated in co-ordination include:

(a)   **additive co-ordination**. Additive sentences join together items that share the same actions, attributes or categories.

It is very cumbersome to list separately animals that eat meat, for instance.

Tigers eat meat.

Lions eat meat.

Cheetahs eat meat.

Leopards eat meat.

It is more efficient to say, "Tigers and lions and cheetahs and leopards eat meat", or "Tigers, lions, cheetahs and leopards eat meat". But how does this fit with the definition that compound sentences contain more than one verb. It seems there is a rule in language that says that there is no need to

use in the big sentences words that are identical in the little sentences. If our list of little sentences includes:

Tigers eat meat.

Lions hunt other animals.

Antelopes eat grass.

Zebras graze on the plains.

co-ordination is more difficult. We can say, "Tigers eat meat but /or and/ antelopes eat grass". "Lions hunt other animals but /or and/ zebras graze on the plains". In the first of our co-ordinated sentences here we have the word "eat" used twice. It is possible, though some people find it uncomfortable, to say, "Tigers eat meat and antelopes grass". The conjunctions that are used in additive co-ordination include "and" and "but".

(b) Sentential co-ordination. Sentential co-ordination describes events that occur in sequence or order. These sentences are conjoined with "and then" or "and".

The boy walked along the path.

He saw a bird in a tree.

"The boy walked along the path and then he saw a bird in a tree". It is not unusual in stories for the sentences to remain separate but for the second sentence to begin with a sentential conjunction. "The boy walked along the path. And then he saw a bird in a tree".

(c) Causal co-ordination. Co-ordination is also used to represent relationships that are causal.

It was raining.

We stayed home.

"It was raining (and) (so) we stayed home". The conjunctions used for this kind of causal connection are "and", "so" or "and so".

Subordination

Subordination involves the connecting of sentences together where one or more sentences become subordinate clauses to one sentence which we call the main clause.

(a) Adverbial subordinate clauses. Adverbial subordinate clauses are semantically related to sententially co-ordinated sentences as they also represent the sequence or the order of events.

The boy walked along the path.

He saw a bird in a tree.

"When the boy walked along the path, he saw a bird in the tree". With subordinate clauses, however, there is much greater flexibility in how the order of events can be represented.

Before... after... while... during... when...

Causal adverbial clauses use the structure "because". "We stayed home because it was raining".

(b) <u>Relative clauses</u>. Relative clauses are semantically related to additive co-ordination.

Lions eat meat.

Lions hunt other animals.

Antelopes eat grass.

Antelopes graze on the plains.

"Lions, which eat meat, hunt other animals. Antelopes, which eat grass, graze on the plains".

(c) <u>Movement of structures</u>. As sentences become more complex they get longer. That is because we are putting more and more information in the same sentences. Up to this point, most of the structures have been added to the end or in the middle of sentences. There is a point at which structures in sentences move to the front of sentences. This stage of syntactic development is really a new level of complexity because many changes are made within the sentences.

Marco Polo explored the lands of the Far East

This was a great world event.

"The exploration of the lands of the Far East by Marco Polo was a great world event".

If we look carefully at what happened when these two sentences were combined, we see that the verb "explored" became a noun (the subject) in the big sentence, and a suffix "-tion" was added. The idea of exploration became the focus of the sentence rather than Marco Polo by a rule that we call the passive. The whole first sentence became the subject of the new sentence. These kinds of structures are important if students are to use social studies or science textbooks, as sentences using this type of structure called nominalization are very common, for example, "The development of..., "The movement of".

B. THE LANGUAGE OF INTERACTION

A very important function of language, of course, is that we interact with each other through language. But the language of social interaction is very different from that of the language of ideas.

Some of the differences between the forms and functions of these language types are:

(a) ideas (cognitive) language depends on meaning, social language depends more on how we use it rather than what it means;

(b) cognitive language is usually much more complex in structure than social language;

(c) social language usually changes very little each time we use it, whereas cognitive language is very changeable.

Social language includes a very large group of items such as greetings, farewells, requests, politeness routines, invitations, refusals, and so on. Social routines exist in every culture, but they are performed very differently from culture to culture. In other words, the function of routines are universal, the form is different from culture to culture.

This is where the nature of the context interacts with the nature of knowledge. If people do not use social interaction language properly they are considered by others to be rude, foreign, slow, or different. People are very uncomfortable talking with others who do not have the language skills that help social interaction. Schools usually worry more about cognitive language development in their curriculum than social language skills, whereas the community usually judges the social language skills in the students more than they do the cognitive language.

The issue, of course, is that the school language curriculum must address both types of language in the program. The development of social interactive skills in the hearing child is usually established by the parents and is already very much in place by the time the child starts school. The parents will continue this process. For the deaf child, however, parents will need help to do this, and the school will need to provide much of it. If the school is primarily residential it will have a greater curriculum responsibility perhaps mostly carried out by the residential staff. If the school is a day school, a regular parent-training programme will be very important.

PLANNING ACTIVITIES

The following is a summary of the simple sentence structures that were discussed above. Identify what the sentence patterns are for the sentences provided.

Sentence pattern 1.   NOUN - VERB (ADVERB).

The ADVERB in parentheses means we can use an adverb in a sentence without changing the essential structure or basic meaning of the sentence. If we remove either the NOUN or the VERB then the sentence will no longer make sense or be a sentence.

Sentence pattern 2.   NOUN - VERB - NOUN (ADVERB)

Sentence pattern 3.   NOUN (be) ADJECTIVE

Sentence pattern 4.   NOUN (be) NOUN

The difference between sentence pattern 4 and sentence pattern 2 is that the verb in pattern 2 is transitive indicating action so that the NOUN after the VERB is the object of the verb's action. The NOUN after the "be" verb in pattern 4 is the name of the category that the first NOUN belongs to.

Sentence pattern 5.   NOUN (be) ADVERB

INDICATE WHAT SENTENCE PATTERNS THESE ARE

1.   Birds fly   pattern _____

2.   Alligators are animals   pattern _____

3.   Alligators eat other animals   pattern _____

4.   Alligators are dangerous   pattern _____

5.   Alligators live in rivers   pattern _____
      (Be careful of the verb)

6.   Dinosoars are extinct   pattern _____

What are the little sentences that are the basis of the following big sentences?

1a.   Trees and plants and animals and people are living things but rocks are not.

_____

_____

_____

_____

1b. What is the syntax of the sentence 1a?

(a) simple, (b) adverbial subordination, (c) co-ordination,

(d) relative subordination

1c. What is the sentence pattern for the little sentences?

___

2a. When animals hunt they are hungry

___

2b. What is the syntax of the sentence 2a?

(a) simple, (b) adverbial subordination, (c) co-ordination,

(d) relative subordination

2c. What is the sentence pattern for the little sentences?

___

3a. In some English-speaking cultures, the greeting routine is as follows:

"Good morning. How do you do?"

"Very well, thank you".

What is the greeting routine in your culture if it is different?

3b. In a conversation, after the greeting such as above, what are some of the ways in which the first speaker can continue the social inter-action? For example, the weather is used in some cultures:

"It has been very nice weather lately, hasn't it?"

"Yes, but we need the rain very badly".

What other topics are acceptable?

3c. Think about how people end conversations. "Well, it has been good to see you again, I must go". Are there others?

3d. List what you consider to be some of the important social language routines that deaf children should know and be able to use as they move more and more into society.

4.   The nature of learning

The nature of learning discusses how we take curriculum goals and content and teach them in a way that is efficient and effective? It has to do with the style of the curriculum.

There are many ways in which curriculum outlines are constructed. The type suggested in this paper is called a conceptually based curriculum. Rather than teaching facts or information, the goal of a conceptual curriculum is to establish a framework of ideas where the facts are only illustrations or examples of the conceptual ideas.

Let us see if we can provide an example of what we mean by conceptual development.

If we pose the question,

What is the history of Tasmania (a state in Australia)? We have asked a factual question. We either know the history of Tasmania or we don't.

If we pose the question,

From what you know about the history of other people and places, what might be true of the history of Tasmania? We asked a conceptual question. Assuming that we don't know the history of Tasmania, we can generalize from the concepts that we have formed about history generally and make some "guesses" about what probably occurred in the history of Tasmania or any other place. For instance:

There may have been a group of people who lived there originally, followed by some other "immigrant" peoples.

There has probably been a change in government and political structure throughout its history.

There have probably been some wars in its history.

The geography and climate probably affected the economy of the place and the economy may have changed over time.

In fact, these observations do describe important stages of the history of Tasmania. If we can outline the important concepts of history, it is much easier to find the facts that are specific to the histories of Tasmania, Peru, Latvia or any other place.

From a practical point of view, if we are going to develop concepts of history or any other area of knowledge, then we cannot just give one illustration or example of the concept. We probably need at least three or more examples so that comparisons and contrasts help the concept emerge.

(a) Setting conceptual goals

This approach to curriculum planning suggests that the teacher sets the conceptual goals first. The conceptual goals help discipline the content of knowledge and the skills that should be taught.

It is not at all easy for teachers to state curriculum goals in conceptual statements.

What I usually do first is take a topic that either a teacher would like to teach, or something out of the national curriculum or something that might usually be taught in a particular classroom, and try to write at least five conceptual statements about the topic. Why five? No particular reason except that it begins to make us think what we really want to teach about the topic.

One process that helps us make the statements conceptual is that conceptual statements usually have terms like all, some, most, never, usually, often, always, either stated in the sentence itself or in the meaning of the sentence.

Let us try some

The topic - animals

Possible conceptual statements

1. All animals are living things

2. Some animals are wild and some are domesticated

3. Some animals are pets

4. Some animals eat meat and some animals eat vegetation

5. Some animals have features that help them survive in certain places - e.g. camels in the deserts, polar bears in the snow.

The topic - food

Possible conceptual statements

1. All people eat food but people do not all eat the same kind of food

2. The food people eat often depends on the local geography and climate

3. (All) people need food to grow and keep healthy

4. Some food is eaten on special occasions

5. Some foods come from animals, some foods are grown
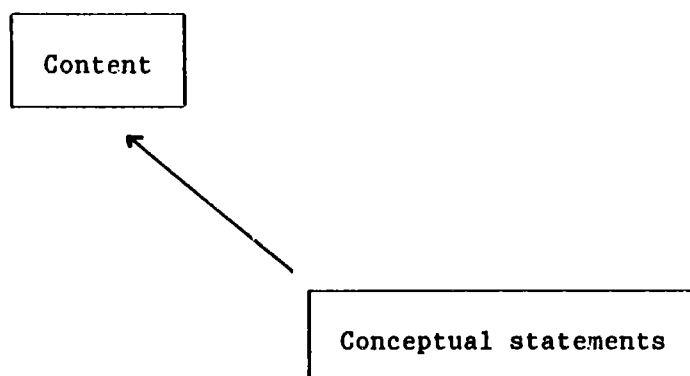
The topic - feelings

Possible conceptual statements

1.   People have both positive and negative feelings

2.   Some feelings are related to what happens to us

3.   Some feelings are related to what we think about ourselves

4.   Some feelings are related to physical factors

5.   Sometimes people express their feelings in poetry or songs

We have certainly not exhausted the possibilities of what we could say about any of these topics, but we have begun to organize the curriculum in conceptual terms. In some cases we might want to change the statements or even write a new set.

Having established the conceptual goals, the next task is to begin to choose what examples might best illustrate the conceptual statements.

(b)   Choosing the content

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│  Content    │
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              │  Conceptual statements  │
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Let us look at one of the topics above - food

The topic - food

Conceptual statements

1.   All people eat food but people do not all eat the same kind of food

2.   The food people eat often depends on the local geography and climate

3.   (All) people need food to grow and keep healthy

4.   Some food is eaten on special occasions

5.   Some foods come from animals, some foods are grown.

Statements 1, 2 and 5 seems to share similar ideas about food. The reason people do not eat the same kind of food may be related to where they live. Statements 1 and 3 are related because they both deal with the idea of needing food. Statement 4 could be related to statement 2 if there is a connection between the foods used in celebration and the g ography and the climate.

The examples we could choose, of course, are many, and there is no right or wrong examples. Some we choose might be more effective than others, but we do not always know that when we are planning.

It might be a good idea to choose three examples of very different and contrasting areas to study so that we can certainly see what effects climate and geography has on food, but we can also see the similarity between these very different areas.

Let us start with the possibility of studying the Bedouins. Why? Because the study of how a people get their food in the desert helps to see the issues in a very clear way. The factors of climate and geography are very clear.

What might be a good contrast with the Bedouins of the desert? People who live high in mountains, perhaps, or Eskimos, or people who live deep in jungles.

We might decide, then, to study the Bedouins, an Indian tribe in the jungles of Peru and the Lapps of northern Sweden and Norway.

These are good examples, except that they are not very good illustrations of statement 5 that some food is grown. We can talk about food from plants and trees, but the examples do not show people who are agricultural in nature. So we may choose to add another group that illustrates agrarian communities rather than hunters or nomads. We might add the rice farmers of Japan to the study.
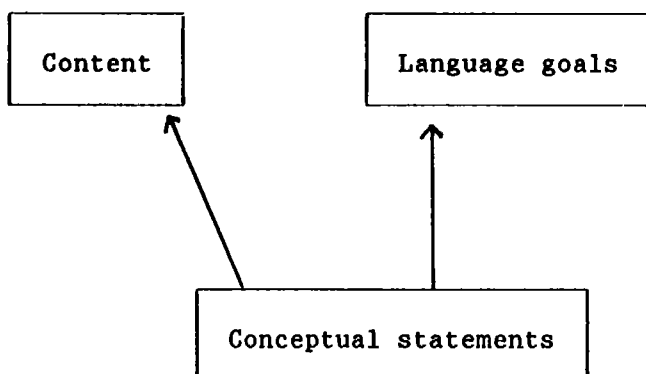
To study these units well we find we need eight to ten weeks for each. Ten weeks each on the Bedouins, Peruvian Indians, Lapps and Japanese farmers is 40 weeks. That is the school year in Rhode Island. If the school year is longer or shorter elsewhere, adaptions in time can easily be made.

If we choose some of these content areas it will probably mean that the teacher has to do quite a bit of study about it first. There is no doubt that if we are going to use this kind of curriculum, the teachers will need to do a lot of preparation at least periodically.

My teachers have found that this keeps them learning, which keeps them professionally alive. I often find that they will choose content areas that they know nothing about so that they will learn something new.

It may be, as I have found in some countries, that the teachers in your programme only have a basic education themselves. I believe this kind of curriculum approach will address that problem because it will be a teacher learning experience as well as a student learning process. The more teaching that takes place, the more sophisticated the teacher becomes. The great English writer Chaucer once said, in The Canterbury Tales, "and so I would teach and so I would learn". May be when a teacher stops learning he will also stop teaching – effectively anyway.

(c)   <u>Choosing the language goals</u>

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┌──────────────┐         ┌──────────────────┐
│   Content    │         │  Language goals  │
└──────────────┘         └──────────────────┘
          ↖                        ↑
            ╲                      │
             ╲                     │
        ┌──────────────────────────────┐
        │    Conceptual statements     │
        └──────────────────────────────┘
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The next task is to determine what new language goals are appropriate for the unit and the students. Unfortunately there are very few formal or very reliable, language-assessment materials available for deaf children. The major task is to find out what level of the language outline provided in the last section are the students at. That is, we want to know what level of language they can comprehend as well as produce. The students' ability to comprehend language will always be greater than their ability to produce language. Therefore if we use their production as a measure, the input goals should at least be the next highest level.

For instance if a student produces (not necessarily in writing) structures like:

I go fish

John sick. John home. Not school

Father far away

Want water

John sick?

Sam catch frog

we can then safely assume that this student is at least on a simple sentence level of language. It is not fluent, the little stuff is 'not there, and the verbs do not agree with the subjects; but, remember, we stated in the language section that the basic semantic and syntactic relationships are present. Do not spend a lot of time correcting this kind of language, expose the child to the next level of syntactic structure. Notice the kinds of sentence patterns that are present in the list.

You can be safe establishing that the appropriate language goals for instruction for this student is that of co-ordination. The goals for production will be accurate simple sentences.

That means that in the language presentations on Bedouins, Peruvians, Lapps and Japanese farmers, a lot of the different kinds of co-ordinators will be used.

If the student is producing structures like:

Found frog, keep, flies, die.

Go home soon, nothing, boring, work, work, work.

I suggest that this student is already semantically at the co-ordination level but has only been exposed to simple language structures. The real goal is sub-ordination, but the co-ordination level will have to be done first. Little correction should be made to this students' language and a great deal of exposure to complex structures. Notice that the student is able to talk about a sequence of things (sentential co-ordination) as well as listing things (additive co-ordination) but does not have the language skills to represent it. It is very easy for teachers of the deaf to become negative about this language because it becomes cumbersome. Actually the student has a higher level of language than the teachers are using in the classroom. Look at what is present in a student's language before you worry about what is not present.

(d) Choosing reading, writing and literature goals
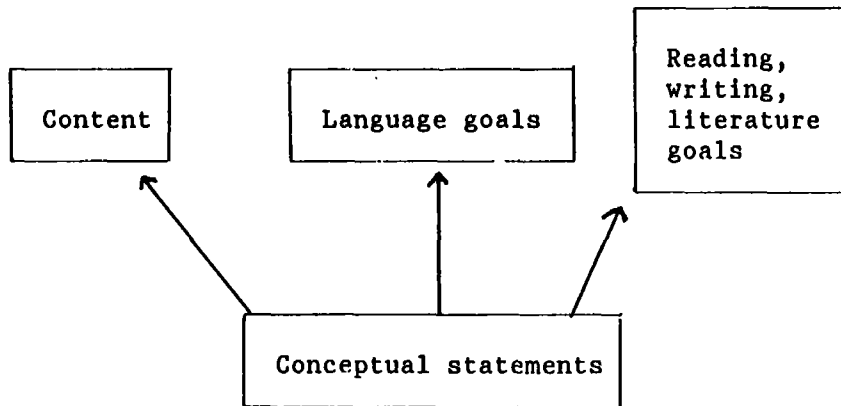
The work on reading and writing is a secondary level of language. It is school oriented language. Sometimes the two types of language get mixed up in programmes for the deaf and, because a child may have reading and writing difficulties, it is assumed that they have no language. This may not be true at all.

For curriculum planning, the better the basic language, the stronger reading and writing will be. How reading is done will depend very much on the nature of the context. Are there reading materials available? If not, then the teacher will need to prepare the materials using experience charts or stories.

For literature and reading most cultures have a very rich literature of legend and fable. It may not always be available in print but it should be part of the curriculum. Stories told by the Bedouins, or Lapps, should be included. The Japanese culture is rich in fairy tales, so they are good to include.

(e) Putting it all together

In the slide presentation you will see a unit done that will seem at firs to be very complex, but is not. This does not mean that you should teach this unit: it is only an example. You might want to take some of the ideas and do a similar history unit yourself.

If you feel that your students are really not ready for the material on the slide presentation, I include here some outlines of units prepared and taught at the beginners' level. Again you should not necessarily try to teach it as it is, but use it as a model for some units you may want to try.

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THE CHILD AND THE FAMILY IN AN ANCIENT CULTURE
ANCIENT EGYPT

Conceptual statements:

A. The world is made up of different people and nations.

B. We can see similarities and differences between cultures by studying
    environment, region, language, education, politics and social structure.

C. The study of ancient cultures helps us to understand the beginnings of
    the different cultures.

D. We can learn about ancient cultures through the study of archaeology,
    literature and history.

1. Geography: During this unit we will focus on the continent of Africa as
we explore the ancient desert culture of Egypt. The new geography will include
learning about the River Nile, the Red Sea, the Sinai Desert, the Delta and
the Mediterranean Sea.

2. Social studies: Most Egyptians lived in villages along the River Nile. We
will learn about the homes and clothes of the ancient Egyptians and the foods
that they enjoyed. We will make a replica of a wealthy Egyptian's home. We
will dress up and apply perfumes and make up like the ancient Egyptians did.
We will sample many of the foods that grew along the River Nile. We will learn
that Egyptians were farmers, hunters, fishermen, inventors, carpenters, sculp-
tors, writers, and painters. We will discuss how each of these occupations
contributed to the well-being of all the people in the villages.

3. Economics: We will discuss the importance of the River Nile which was
like a highway through the desert. We will make an ancient Egyptian boat that
the children can ride in as they take their goods from one village to another
along the Nile. We will compare and contrast the lifestyles of the wealthy
Egyptians with the lifestyles of the poor who served as slaves for the rich.

4. Politics: We will learn that the kings of Egypt were called Pharoahs and
that the country belonged to them. The Pharaoh was commander of the army,
judge, and high priest. Through role play and drama we will experience what it
was like to be a powerful Pharoah and a powerless slave.

5. Religion: The ancient Egyptians were polytheistic, worshipping figures
that represented the animals that they feared. Because they believed strongly
in life after death, they spent much of their life getting ready for their
death. We will learn about the gods and goddesses of Egypt, their ancient
burial rites, and of the great pyramids of the Pharoahs.

6. Writing: The children will be introduced to hieroglyphics in which
pictures were used to represent ideas and sounds. We will make pens out of
reeds and write words and phrases using these ancient pictures just as the
scribes did.

7. Music and Art: The Egyptians were happy people who enjoyed life when they
were not working. They enjoyed listening and dancing to music played on the
zither, lute, drum, harp, tamberine, and flute. We will make some of these

ancient instruments. Egyptians were magnificent artists. We plan to have experiences in pottery-making, sculpture, painting, and jewellery making. Our products will be bartered and traded.

8. Science: Motion and Friction. (These will be studied in the Force and Machines context of the ancient Egyptian machines that were used to construct the great pyramids.)

9. Literature: African Folk Tales
             Kipling's "Just So" Stories

THE CHILD AND THE FAMILY IN AN ANCIENT CULTURE
MESOPOTAMIA

1. Social studies: In our Ancient Culture unit we shall compare and contrast life in Mesopotamia and Egypt by studying their environment, geography, social structure, religion, language, education and politics.

2. Geography: We shall become acquainted with the seas and gulfs of the Middle East. We shall learn about deserts and the important rivers of Egypt and Mesopotamia.

3. Social structure: We shall learn that ancient people lived in families, dressed in clothing made from the wool and skins of animals, and ate indigenous foods such as figs, grapes, dates, cucumbers, peas, etc. We shall learn that there were rich people who lived in big houses with slaves to take care of them as well as poor people who lived and worked in small houses made from mud bricks.

4. Economics: We shall learn that ancient people worked as farmers, potters, weavers, shepherds, priests, boatmakers, teachers, etc. and that they sold what they made to people as far away as Egypt. We shall make pottery, a reed boat, cloth from the wool of a sheep, bricks from sand, mud and reeds and we shall sample many of the local foods.

5. Religion: Ancient Mesopotamian people worshipped many different gods and goddesses in temples called ziggurats. We shall construct a ziggurat.

6. Language: Lessons will be presented on how writing began and where our alphabet came from showing the progression from ancient picture drawings on stone to cuneiform picture-writing on clay tablets and finally to letters that had sounds associated with them. We shall learn some simple Middle Eastern songs and greetings. We shall also make ancient seals so we can "sign" our names the way the Mesopotamians did.

7. Education: Our room will be turned into an ancient Mesopotamian school. We shall sit on benches, write with a stylus made from reeds and write ancient numbers on clay tablets.

8. Politics: The children will learn that cities in Mesopotamia had rulers or kings who were in control of one city each compared with the Pharoah who ruled over all Egypt.

9. <u>Science</u>: Following are some of the science lessons that will be taught:

What is Archaeology?
Digging artefacts from a tell
What is irrigation?
The 'shaduf', a machine used in Egypt and
Mesopotamia
What is a desert?
Why is the camel good for the desert?
Foods that come from goats and sheep
Tree-ring dating

10. <u>Music</u>: We shall make ancient musical instruments using wood and animal skins.

·   We shall learn some simple songs and dances.

Archeolrgists at work

People lived 4,000 years ago. They lived in Mesopotamia and in Egypt. Archaeologists find out how these people lived. Archaeologists dig in tells. They find things that the people left behind a long time ago.

We pretended to be archaeologists. We looked at some things that the people in Mesopotamia left behind. We learned a lot about the people when we looked at their things.

Billy said, "The people made vases." He was looking at some pottery.

Rachel said, "The people lived in houses." She was looking at what was left of a house.

Michelle said, "The people lived and died." She was looking at the bones of some people.

Scott said, "The people made beautiful things." He was looking at a fragment with lots of colours on it.

Dawn said, "The people wore different clothes." She was looking at a picture drawing of some men.

Bella said, "The people wore nice jewellery." She was looking at some beads made out of clay.

Rachel said, "The people learned to write." She was looking at some marks the people made on clay.

Billy said, "The people fought in wars." He was looking at a picture drawing of some men with swords in their hands and helmets on their heads.

A Mesopotamian feast

1. We had a feast

2. We sat on the floor

3. Mrs Blackwell put hats on us

4. We had lots of food

5. We ate the food

6. We ate chicken. We ate lamb. We ate fish

7. We ate peas and beans

8. We ate figs and dates and olives

9. We ate honey on bread. We ate nuts

10. We had milk to drink. We had grape juice too.

We made seals

People in Mesopotamia made seals. People used the seals to sign things.

We made seals too

We went to the pottery shop. We got some clay

We rolled the clay to make a seal. We put marks on the seal

Then we put a hole in the seal

We put the seal in the sun to bake. The sun makes the clay very hard

Mrs Blackwell put some yarn in the hole of the seal

She put the seals around our necks

We shall roll the seal on clay

This is how the people in Mesopotamia signed their names before they learned to write.

We will ride on a camel

1. The bus will come to the school

2. We shall get on the bus

3. We shall ride in the bus

4. Mrs Blackwell will take us to the zoo

5. The zoo is in the mall

6. We shall give a dollar to the man at the zoo

7. The man at the zoo will give us food

8. We shall give the food to the animals at the zoo

9.   A camel will be at the zoo
     We shall have a ride on the camel
     We shall ride on the camel like the people in Mesopotamia. We shall
     pretend we are riding in the desert. It will be lots of fun

10. Mrs Blackwell wants to ride the camel too

11. The camel will be very big

13. When we all have a ride we shall get back on the bus

14. The bus will take us back to school

The camel

  The camel is a good animal for the desert. He can walk on the hot desert
sand because he has pads on his feet. The camel has big bushy eyebrows and
long eyelashes. They keep the sand out of the camel's eyes. The camel also has
special muscles. He can close his nose and ears so the sand cannot get in. The
camel has a big hump on his back. The hump has fat in it. The camel can go for
a long time with no food. He uses the fat in his hump for food. The camel can
take one long drink. He does not have to drink again for many days. Now you
see why the camel is a good animal in the desert.

A UNIT ON JAPAN

In our first unit we shall study the geography, social structure, religion, education and language of Japan.

1.   Geography: We shall learn that Japan is an island nation in Asia with the Pacific Ocean on one side and the Sea of Japan on the other. We shall study the Alps of Japan and its seasonal climate.

2.   Social studies: We shall learn that the people of Japan live in families in simple one-room homes surrounded by beautiful gardens. We shall make such a home in the classroom. The people dress in kimonos and eat foods that come from the ocean and the farmer's gardens. Because a lot of people live in Japan, the people learn quickly to get along with each other. They are very hospitable and always show respect for others. We shall participate in a Japanese Tea Ceremony in class. The Japanese enjoy sports and games as we do. We hope to learn a little about baseball, judo, fencing, table-tennis and soccer.

3.   Economics: The Japanese people work hard as farmers, fishermen, artists and factory workers making radios, cars, boats and machines that they sell to other countries.

4.   Religion: The main religions of Japan are Shinto (nature worship at shrines) and Buddhism (worship of Buddha in large temples). We shall construct a Buddhist temple and visit a real statue of Buddha at the museum. We will celebrate the following Japanese festivals.

    Oshoggatsu - The New Year festival
    Setsubun - The Spring festival
    The festival of girls
    The festival of boys

5.   Language: The Japanese language is a Mora (syllable-like) language made up of consonants followed by vowels. The characters evolved from ancient picture drawings that were used to communicate ideas. We shall have some experiences with Japanese writing.

6.   Education: Japanese children are educated well especially in the arts. We also will involve ourselves in sculpture, calligraphy, scroll painting, puppetry and in making our own Japanese gardens. We shall invite someone from Japan to come to our school to show us origami. We, like the Japanese, shall write our own haiku poetry. Opportunities, during art classes, will also be provided for listening to music from Japan.

7.   Field trip: A field trip is being planned to go to a Japanese restaurant for lunch.

8.   Mathematics: The following material will be covered in Mathematics. The meaning of addition, utilizing enactive and iconic representation with numbers 0-6. Picture graphs. Reading and solving simple math problems. Solving and recording simple math problems

9.   Science: The four seasons
    Investigating matter. Solids, liquids and gases studied in the context of the volcanoes of Japan

10. Literature: The children will be read to every day during 'rest time' and just before going home from school. Some of the literature to be read is as follows:

Favourite Fairy Tales told in Japan
Rikki Tikki Tembo
Crow Boy
Cricket Songs (Japanese haiku)

Japan

This is Japan
Japan is in Asia
Japan has four islands
One island is very big
The big island is called Honshu
Honshu has big mountains
Honshu has water all around
The Sea of Japan is above Honshu
The Pacific Ocean is below Honshu
The people in Japan love the islands,
    the mountains, the Pacific Ocean and
    the Sea of Japan.

A Home in Japan

This is a home in Japan
It is neat and clean
The people in Japan take off their
    shoes before they go into a home
The Japanese home is one big room
The family eats in this room
The family works in this room
The family sleeps in this room.

Hina Matsuri

Hina Matsuri is a festival for girls
This festival is on 3 March
The people in Japan celebrate this festival every year
They put beautiful dolls on the shelves of their homes
Our class celebrated Hina Matsuri
We brought beautiful Japanese dolls to school
We put the dolls on the shelves of our school.

A UNIT ON THE ESKIMOS OF ALASKA

<u>Geography</u>: We shall learn that the continent of North America is made up of the United States and Canada. Our unit will concentrate on the state of Alaska and the Arctic Ocean that surrounds it. We shall study the tundra and climate of Alaska and how each affects the life of the Eskimo.

<u>Social studies</u>: We shall learn how the Eskimos house, clothe and feed their families. Most Eskimos live in homes called innies in the winter and in tupeks in the summer. There are also some Eskimos who wander into barren country where there is no wood or stone and they are forced to build snow homes for protection. We shall make an igloo and a tupek in the classroom so the children can experience these homes. We shall dress up like the Eskimos and learn about the animals that supply them with their clothing. In Eskimo communities family members and family groups are dependent on each other for survival. They work hard at fishing and hunting to supply food. We shall have experiences in constructing and using harpoons, spears bow and arrows, hole-finders, and bola weapons.

<u>Economics</u>: At the end of each season the hunters, fishermen and farmers from the villages meet to exchange their goods. We shall set up such a trading post where the children can trade and sell. We shall do many of our maths lessons in this setting where we can make practical applications of the skills we have acquired.

<u>Religion</u>: In former times the Eskimos worshipped the Spirits of the earth and air, which they believed to be dangerous. Worship was made through the local Angotok or medicine man.

<u>Music/Art</u>: Traditionally, the Eskimos have played only one instrument which is the drum. We shall make drums and learn some simple Eskimo songs, poems and dances. We shall make stone paintings, soapstone carvings, necklaces, animal puppets, etc.

<u>Science</u>: During this unit we shall learn how Arctic animals grow and change, how these animals care for their young, and the Arctic animal habitats. We shall study the homes of many of the Arctic animals that live in the Arctic ocean or on the tundra.

<u>Literature</u>: Some of the Unit related literature that will be read to the children daily are as follows:

Beyond the Clapping Mountains (Eskimo stories from Alaska)

Lakashi learns to Hunt Seals
One Day with Tuktu an Eskimo Boy
The First Book of Eskimos
Eskimo Boy
On Mamma's Lap
The Old Woman and the Storm.