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LINGUISTICS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, INTERMEDIATE LEVEL.
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THIS GUIDE, BASED UPON THE NEBRASKA CURRICULUM
DEVELOPMENT CENTER MATERIALS, IS DESIGNED TO EXPLAIN THE
VOCABULARY AND BASIC ELEMENTS OF LINGUISTICS TO THE
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER WHO HAS HAD LITTLE OR NO FORMAL
TRAINING IN LINGUISTICS. TO THIS END, A GLOSSARY OF
LINGUISTIC TERMINOLOGY, GUIDING TEACHING PRINCIPLES, A
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF RELEVANT BOOKS AND PERIODICAL ARTICLES, AND
SECTIONS ON THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE, PHONOLOGY, MORPHOLOGY,
FORM CLASSES, SYNTAX, DIALECT, USAGE, AND THE HISTORY OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARE INCLUDED. EACH OF THE SECTIONS CONTAINS
A BRIEF, INTRODUCTORY EXPLANATION OF THE LANGUAGE ELEMENT
UNDER DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR LINGUISTIC ACTIVITIES
AND GAMES FOR CLASSROOM USE AT THE INTERMEDIATE-GRADE LEVEL.
(SEE TE 000 348 FOR THE PRIMARY-LEVEL GUIDE.) (RD)

Sam Houston Area
Cooperative Curriculum Center for Improvement
of Educational Opportunities

Linguistics In The Elementary School
Intermediate Level

Sam Houston State College

Huntsville, Texas

August, 1967

LINGUISTICS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Written and Compiled
by
Title III Language Arts Workshop Participants

Under the Direction
of
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Sam Houston Area

Cooperative Curriculum Center for Improvement

of Educational Opportunities

May, 1967

Dr. Fred Mahler, Project Director

Wondrous the English language, language of live men,
Language of ensemble, powerful language of resistance,
Language of a proud and melancholy stock, and of all
    who aspire,
Language of growth, faith, self-esteem, rudeness, justice,
    friendliness, prudence, decision, exactitude, courage.

                                        Walt Whitman

FOREWORD

Much of the new instructional material in elementary school language arts includes sections on linguistics. Many elementary classroom teachers having had little or no formal instruction in an area entitled linguistics have some apprehension as their background of understanding and ability to utilize this in their own classrooms. In this Guide, therefore, the vocabulary and basic elements of linguistics have been explained in such a manner that the average elementary school teacher can understand the content and can identify many aspects of their present-day instruction which are actually part of linguistics.

Teachers have many incidental teaching opportunities in which phonology, morphology, and the nature of language are natural ingredients. These opportunities in addition to direct instruction during the spelling, reading, oral and written language periods of the school day will extend the child's understanding of the various levels of spoken English, of the history and development of our language, of usage, and of the basic structure of language forms. Suggestions are made to assist the teacher in her efforts to make the study of linguistics interesting and effective.

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USING LINGUISTICS TO ADD LUSTER TO THE LANGUAGE ARTS

Intermediate Grades

One of the most interesting and exciting frontiers
to be explored in the English language arts in the twenti-
eth century is the frontier of language itself. Useful
insights for teaching language and strengthening language
skills can be found in the nature of language and, more
particularly in the structure of American English.

Children learn the basic sound and grammatical struc-
tures of English during pre-school years. Long before they
enter school they speak with meaning and listen with com-
prehension. School brings the necessity to learn to read
language and write it.

Children's interest in language is evident to anyone
who listens to them. Teachers can capitalize on this inter-
est to teach basic ideas about language. As Bruner has ar-
gued convincingly in The Process of Education (Cambridge,
Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960) any important concept
can be taught in some honest form to all age levels. As
early as first grade, elementary school children can be
helped to develop several fundamental concepts about lan-
guage, concepts which can be expanded and deepened through-
out the years of elementary school.

The materials included in this guide for language
study in the elementary grades consist of (1) a brief in-
troduction to modern language study (for the teacher who

has not had an opportunity to acquire such knowledge) (2)
linguistic games and activities useful in elementary class-
rooms.

The language program for the elementary school is
directed toward the following goals:

1. Giving children an understanding of the nature
   of language.

2. Giving children an understanding of the sound
   (phonology) of the language and showing them
   that punctuation is a written representation
   of the suprasegmental features of spoken discourse.

3. Displaying to children the nature of word for-
   mation (morphology).

4. Showing children that English is primarily a
   word-order language and that their written sen-
   tences can be revised by adding, cutting, shift-
   ing, and changing.

5. Giving children a basic understanding of the his-
   tory of our language, including such concepts as
   the origin of words, the levels of usage, and the
   dialects of our language.

It should be understood that a formal study of lin-
guistics is not feasible for the elementary school child.
Yet the study of phonology, morphology, syntax, the history
of the language and its dialects, does have a place in the
elementary school; it can serve first as a preparation for

a later formal junior high school study of linguistics and
second as a device for freeing students and teachers from
prescriptive attitudes toward language. Since the child
ordinarily enters school with a full intuitive grasp of the
sound, morphology, and syntactic repertory of his language,
he may appropriately be exposed to a language program which
will strengthen his grasp.

A GLOSSARY

Linguistics. The study of human speech in its various aspects (as the nature, structure, and modifications of languages, or a language including especially such factors as phonetics, phonology, morphology, accent, syntax, semantics, grammar, and the relation between writing and speech.)

Phonology. The science of speech sounds including especially the history and theory of sound changes in a single language or in two or more related languages considered together for comparative purpose.

Morphology. A study and description of word-formation in a language including inflection, derivation, and compounding.

Syntax. Sentence structure: the arrangement of word forms to show their mutual relations in the sentence.

Semantics. The historical and psychological study and the classification of changes in the meanings of words and forms including such phenomena as specialization and expansion of meaning, meliorative and pejorative tendencies, metaphor, and adaptation.

Phonemics. A branch of linguistic analysis that consists of the study of phonemes.

Phonetics. The study and systematic classification of the sounds made in the spoken utterance as they are produced by the organs of speech and as they register on the ear.

Phonics. A method of teaching beginners to read and pronounce words by learning the phonetic value of letters and

letter groups.

Phoneme. The smallest unit of speech that distinguishes one utterance from another.

Phonetic Alphabet. A set of symbols used for phonetic transcription.

Morpheme. A meaningful linguistic unit whether a free form (as pin, child, load, spray) or a bound form (as the -s of pins, the -hood of childhood, and the -ed of prayed) that contains no smaller meaningful parts.

Grapheme. The sum of all written letters and letter combinations that represent one phoneme.

Segmental Phoneme. One of the phonemes (as K, A, T in cat, tack, act) of a language that can be assigned to a relative sequential order of minimal segments.

Suprasegmental Phonemes. One of the phonemes (as pitch, stress, juncture) of a language that occur simultaneously with a succession of segmental phonemes.

Inflectional Form. A morpheme added to a word which changes the base word's grammatical meaning without changing its part of speech classification; e. g.the plural -s, the past tense -ed.

Derivational Form. A morpheme added to a word which changes the part of speech classification of the base word; e. g. -ly which changes an adjective to an adverb.

Determiner. A word belonging to a group of limiting noun modifiers that in English consists of a, an, any, each,

either, every, neither, no, one, some, the, that, those, this, these, possessive adjectives (as my), and is characterized by occurrence before descriptive adjectives modifying the same noun (as that in "that big yellow house" or his in "his new car").

Transformation. A change in a phrase or sentence pattern which alters grammatical items or grammatical structures while keeping the same (or as nearly as possible the same) total meaning.

Expansion. The addition of optional elements to a basic phrase or sentence pattern; e. g. the very amiable man is an expansion to the man.

Intonation Pattern. A unit of speech melody in a language or dialect that contributes to the total meaning of an utterance.

Dialect. A variety of language that is used by one group of persons and has features of vocabulary, grammar, or pronunciation distinguishing it from other varieties used by other groups.

Stylistics. The study of optional variations in the sounds, forms, or vocabulary of a language as characteristic of different users of the language, different situations of use, or different literary types.

Levels of Usage. Varieties of style which are correlated with the social level of the speaker or writer and the situation in which he speaks or writes.

Adapted from: Nebraska Curriculum Center. A Curriculum
for English: Language Explorations for the Elem-
entary Grades. Lincoln, Nebraska: University of
Nebraska Press, 1966.

SOME GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER

1. Principles of phonology can be employed in teaching reading, spelling, and punctuation.

2. The recognition of morphemes and what they do can lead to the mastery of vocabulary. The knowledge of meaningful affixes, both inflectional and derivational, not only serves to identify words according to the form classes but also helps to identify the lexical meaning of words. The skillful teacher will teach base words and affixes only where they are relevant and understandable.

3. The parts of speech may be approached as either form classes or structure words. The emphasis here is on slots or frames, possible positions in the sentence, and the structure words which signal each form class.

4. The teacher's knowledge of syntax (meaningful combinations of words) can be incidentally included in explanations of sentences from reading selections. The teacher can also use his knowledge of syntax to help the student become more competent in written expression by teaching the student to vary basic sentence patterns by adding, cutting, shifting, and changing.

5. Until recently, teachers have concentrated on teaching students the "rules" that govern our speech and writing.

Under the linguistic approach teachers attempt to des-
cribe the workings of our language. This new emphasis
on description makes the idea of "correctness" less im-
portant than it has been in the past: instead of em-
phasizing conformity to a single standard, linguists
and English teachers are now investigating the many
different ways in which a single idea can be communi-
cated. Emphasis on the variety of the English language
leads almost inevitably to questions about the history
of the language--such questions as the origins of words,
the dialects of the language, the levels of usage, etc.

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

Language, which has always been a "tool" for teachers, is
now not only a tool but a field of exploration in its own
right. Teachers now need to recognize the necessity of un-
derstanding the workings of the language they use in teach-
ing. Linguistics has contributed the following facts about
the nature, structure, and function of language which should
be basic to each teacher's understanding.

1. Language has a pattern; it consists of an orderly
   arrangement of sounds.

2. The system of language which we use is without na-
   tural, necessary, or logical reason. For example,
   a dog is the same animal whether we use the English
   word dog, the Spanish word, perro, or the French
   word, chien. This arbitrary nature of language re-
   fers to the choice of sounds and to the meanings
   which a particular society attaches to them.

3. Language is a human activity. Hence we deny that
   animal communication is language, even though an-
   imals undoubtedly do communicate through sounds.
   These animal sounds, however, are neither system-
   atic nor arbitrary. And neither are all sounds
   made by human beings language; involuntary cries
   of rage, pain, and joy are not examples of language.

4. The purpose of language is the communication of
   thought. Human beings choose to utter certain

patterned sounds that are purposeful, that will

transfer thought from speaker to hearer.

5. Languages manage this communication by articulated

sounds (sometimes called vocal symbols).

6. The definition of language does not include the writ-

ten symbols which we use to express words. Writing

is a representation of sound; but writing is not

language itself.

These concepts can be introduced incidentally to students in

the primary grades through such activities as those on the

following pages.

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

Intermediate Grades

Activities

Verbal and Non-Verbal Signs

After the students have read any story that mentions the sign language of Indians, lead a discussion of sign language which we use in daily communication, such as gestures.

The Prior Nature of Oral Language

Discuss such pairs of words as the following:

honor	defense	recognize
honour	defence	recognise

Call attention to the fact that the second word in each group represents British spelling. This discussion should lead to the understanding that letters are only symbols for sound and that the sequences of sounds are the real words.

Language as Symbols

After students have read a story that uses Spanish (or French, etc.) words, lead class into a discussion of the fact that a word like Mother or Madre is simply a custom of a particular country.

Language Has System

Ask students: Can you determine what kinds of words will go into the following blanks:

The_____and_____like each other.

The circus was_____.

Mary is an_____.

Point out that students can predict the kind of words which regularly fill the blanks. Lead students to an inductive conclusion that our language has system.

Discussion of Language Concepts

Use questions or statements such as the following to explore the nature of language:

1. We often read in stories how a mother animal senses danger and warns her offspring of danger. Could this be classified as language? Why or why not?

2. Is Braille language? Is it writing?

3. If a boy riding a roller-coaster loudly expresses his delight and fear by screaming "Whee!" is this an example of language? Why or why not?

4. Is every arrangement of words English? For example:

   Eats cake Mary

   Was beaten Joey the neighborhood bully boy?

Lead class to discuss what the matter of word order shows about language.

5. Lead pupils to investigate special "ways of talking" within a field of work by inquring of their parents, neighbors, or other sources. Lead che class to collect special groups of words and their specific meanings. A discussion of special usages within a number of fields can help learners to see that a community of speakers can use the language so that it does the work they want it to do.

Adapted from: Nebraska Curriculum Center. A Curriculum for English: Language Exploration for the Elementary Grades. Lincoln, Nebraska: Univ. of Nebraska Press, 1966.

Example:

```
3_____O_____

2____o___o_____

1_____o_____
        You are going.


3_____o_____

2____o___o___O_____

1_____
        You are going?
```

Note: See the activities for the primary grades for other
        phonology exercises. The preceding exercises were
        adapted from:

        A Curriculum for English; Language Explorations for the
        Elementary Grades.   Lincoln, Nebraska: Univ. of Nebraska
        Press, 1966.

PHONOLOGY

The sounds of our language are called <u>phones</u>. The study of how we produce speech sounds is called phonetics. The linguist listens carefully to people as they speak. When he hears someone say <u>pat</u>, he notes that three distinctive (different) sounds are made. By an elaborate system of analysis, he can note three distinctive sounds. He also notices that if <u>b</u> sound is substituted for the beginning of <u>pat</u> that a different word is developed. He concludes, therefore, that <u>p</u> and <u>b</u> are distinctive units of sound. Distinctive units of sound then make for differences in meaning.

The linguist, therefore, keeps track of the sounds used in a language, puts down the distinctive sounds (such as <u>p</u> and <u>b</u>), and calls these units of sound phonemes. Phonemes, then, are the names given by the linguist to the categories within which we group sounds or "phones" that are distinctive in our language.

Two methods are used to analyze the sounds of language: the <u>phonetic</u> method and the <u>phonemic</u> method. The phonetic method is concerned with actual sound differences, whether meaningful or not. Thus, there is a real difference in the way in which we say the two <u>p's</u> in <u>pip</u>. Linguists usually employ brackets [ ] to indicate phonetic transcription. However, most modern linguists employ the phonemic method of analysis, which means that they analyze the sounds of the

language only to the extent that there is a difference implied in the word pip, namely/p/. (Note that phonemic symbols are enclosed in slant lines.)

In determining what the phonemes are, we do not start from the letters from which our language is written. On the contrary, we try to put spelling out of our minds and to listen to the sounds of speech as they strike our ears. The method that is most widely used is that of describing the parts of the organs of speech which are used in making the sounds.

We start with the observation that sounds fall into two major types: those in which the stream of air coming from the lungs passes through the mouth and nose with no audible friction (vowel sounds), and those in which audible friction is produced (consonant sounds). Vowel sounds may be further classified according to the position in which the tongue is held in the mouth during their pronunciation: is it raised toward the roof of the mouth, or is it down in the bottom of the mouth, or is it midway between the two positions? According to its position we classify a vowel sound as front, central, or back. In some vowel sounds it makes a difference whether the tongue muscle is tense or lax.

The vowels of English are described in Chart I. Note that two phonemic transcriptions are given. The column on the left, labeled "IPA-Kenyon-Pike", is based on the system of the International Phonetic Alphabet as adapted to American

English by John S. Kenyon and Kenneth L. Pike. The column
on the right is headed "Trager-Smith" from the names of the
two scholars (George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith, Jr.)
who developed it. Neither of these two transcriptions has,
as yet, been completely accepted throughout the field of
linguistic analysis.

CHART I

VOWEL PHONEMES OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

The vowel sound of:	Phonetic Description	IPA-Kenyon-Pike	Trager-Smith
beat or beet	high-front-tense	/i/	/iy/
bit	high-front-lax	/I/	/i/
bait or bate	mid-front-tense	/e/	/ey/
bet	mid-front-lax	/E/	/e/
bat	low-front-lax	/æ/	/æ/
hot	low-central-lax	/a/	/a/
but	mid-central-lax	/ə/	/ə/
bought	mid-back-lax	/ɔ/	/o/
boat	mid-back-tense	/O/	/ow/
book	high-back-lax	/U/	/u/
boot	high-back-tense	/u/	/uw/

DIPHTHONGS OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

The diphthong of:	IPA-Kenyon-Pike	Trager-Smith
bite, height, etc.	/ay/	/ay/
cow, loud	/aw/	/aw/
boy	/y/	/oy/

The consonant phonemes involve audible friction produced by obstructing the breath-stream at various points along its way from the lungs through the windpipe and mouth. We can classify consonants in terms of the characteristics of the obstruction: Where is it formed in the mouth? How is it formed? During the pronunciation of the consonant, are the vocal cords vibrating or not? Consonants may be of the following types:

> Labial (produced with the lips)
>
> Labio-dental (produced with the upper teeth and lower lips)
>
> Dental (produced with the tip of the tongue against the inside of the upper front teeth)
>
> Alveolar (produced with the tip of the tongue against the inside of the gum ridge)
>
> Palatal (produced with the top of the tongue raised against the front of the palate)
>
> Velar (produced with the top of the tongue raised against the back of the palate)

Further, consonants may be produced with the breath either completely stopped off or being pushed past an obstruction. In case there is an obstruction, it is normally formed by the lips and teeth, or else by the tongue inside the mouth. The breath may be forced evenly over the entire area of obstruction (fricative); down a depression in the center of the tongue (a hissing or sibilant sound); over one or both sides of the tongue (lateral). The top of the tongue may be curled over or the tongue may be bunched up in the back of the mouth

(retroflex). A sound produced with the nose used as a res-
onance chamber is nasal. If the vocal chords are vibrating
during its production, a consonant is called voiced; if not
it is voiceless. Chart II indicates the usual consonant
sounds of American English.

CHART II

CONSONANT PHONEMES OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

Initial Consonant of	Technical Description	Phonemic Transcription
pin	voiceless bilabial stop	/p/
tin	voiceless alveolar stop	/t/
kin	voiceless velar stop	/k/
bin	voiced bilabial stop	/b/
din	voiced alveolar stop	/d/
get	voiced velar stop	/g/
fin	voiceless labio-dental fricative	/f/
thin	voiceless dental fricative	/e/
vim	voiced labio-dental fricative	/v/
this	voiced dental fricative	/ð/
sin	voiceless dental sibilant	/s/
shin	voiceless palatal sibilant	/š/ or /ʃ/
zip	voiced dental sibilant	/z/
z in azure	voiced palatal sibilant	/ž/ or /ʒ/
chin	voiceless palatal stop	/č/ or /tʒ/
gin	voiced palatal stop	/g/ or /dʒ/
mint	voiced labial nasal	/m/
name	voiced alveolar nasal	/n/
final sound of sing	voiced velar nasal	/ŋ/
limb	voiced dental or alveolar lateral	/l/
rim	voiced retroflex	/r/

The vowel and consonant phonemes are often referred to
as _segmental_ phonemes, since they seem to come one after the
other and form, as it were, segments of the stream of speech.
In addition to these, there are other kinds of phonemic fea-
tures, which occur together with sequence of these segment-
al phonemes; under this heading the linguist includes features
of stress, intonation (or pitch) and juncture. Since they
seem to be over and above the segmental phonemes, they are
often called suprasegmental phonemes.

Under the heading of stress, we must distinguish at
least three levels in English. Every normal simple word of
more than one syllable has a syllable which is more heavily
stressed than the others; we say that such a syllable has
full or primary stress, and that the other syllables have
weak stress. In phonemic transcription the acute accent (')
is normally used to represent full stress, being written over
the symbol standing for the vowel phoneme; weak stress is
left unmarked. Furthermore, in compound words, there is an
intermediate level of stress, which takes the place of full
stress in one or more of the words which make up the compound.
This intermediate stress is normally marked in phonemic tran-
scription with a grave accent (ˋ).

Phonemes follow each other in the stream of speech
and are joined or separated in various ways; to refer to
the way phonemes are joined, we use the term _juncture_. There
are four degrees of juncture, "plus" juncture (+),"single

bar" juncture (/), "double bar" juncture (//), and "double cross" juncture (#). In brief, as applied by phonemic analysts, the juncture marks may be thought of as follows: plus juncture roughly indicates word divisions, single bar juncture roughly indicates word divisions, single bar juncture roughly indicates word-group or phrase divisions, double bar juncture roughly indicates comma breaks, and double cross juncture roughly indicates end-punctuation breaks.

PHONOLOGY IN THE ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL PROGRAM

The fact that phonological description begins with speech and has provided an objective phonemic symbol for each meaningful sound distinction means that linguists can study the extent to which the conventional alphabet is or is not a systematic sound alphabet and construct reading materials which rely on the element of system in the alphabet's representation of sound. The linguist can further reduce English spelling to a system by collecting words which start with a specific sound as well as noting the different spelling variations for the sound. Many of the exercises provided in the activities aim to show the relationship between sounds and letters. Other exercises show the relationship between intonation and punctuation patterns of written English.

PHONOLOGY ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

Phonemes

Segmentals and Their Graphemes

Vowels

/i/, /r/, /æ/

1. The teacher may pronounce the series bit, bet, bat, and
    then ask students to do so, noting the direction in which
    the tongue moves as each word is pronounced. The students
    will observe that the tongue is relatively high for bit,
    at a middle position for bet, and at a low position for
    bat. The teacher can call attention to the fact that
    these three vowel sounds are produced in the front part
    of the mouth. Then other sequences may be introduced
    to illustrate further the differences in "tongue height"
    which produce the different vowel sounds.

    For example:

rid, red, rat	hid, fed, fad
fill, fell, fat	think, head, mat

    The group should be asked to make observations concerning
    the tongue height distinctions and to suggest which sound
    should go in each of the boxes which stand for the front
    of the mouth.

Example:

	FRONT	MID	BACK
High	bit; rid		
Middle	bet; red		
Low	bat; fat		

Be sure to use full words; not just letters to signal which sound should go in each box.

2. After students have decided which vowels are high, middle, and low in the front of the mouth, have them collect all of the words which they know which have the /i/ sound as in <u>bit</u>. Then have them observe how many different letters or groups of letters (graphemes) stand for this sound. Have students keep a notebook in which the /i/ sound occurs, and the letter or letters used for it.

3. Repeat the process in 2 for the /e/ sound.

4. Repeat the process in 2 for the /æ/ sound.

Sample lists of words which students might collect for the /i/, /e/, and /æ/ sounds:

/i/	bit	/e/	pet	/æ/	bad
	busy		says		laugh
	women		said		meringue
			friend		

Collecting Sounds

This same procedure may be repeated for the other vowel sounds, as well as for the consonant sounds. From a study of this nature students and teacher may make up charts to be mounted in the classroom, on which may be listed all of the more common spellings for each of the vowel and consonant phonemes.

Stress Patterns

After the students have begun to pay particular attention
to stress patterns, introduce them to the differences in
meaning that can occur by varying stress patterns in sen-
tences. Copy each of the following sentences on the chalk
board twice. Place stress marks over underlined item only
to show contrast in meaning between each pair of sentences:

1. She is a <u>Spanish</u> teacher.
    She is a Spanish <u>teacher</u>.

2. They live in the white <u>house</u>.
    They live in the <u>White</u> House.

3. We saw the racing <u>horse</u>.
    We saw the <u>racing</u> horse.

Homonyms

Children enjoy the curiosity of homonyms. Devise an exercise
such as the following based on <u>Children of the Covered Wagon</u>.
Directions: Fill in the blank with the correct word of each
numbered set.

(1) heard	(2) two	(3) reined	(4) way
herd	too	rained	weigh
	to		

Suddenly we_____the thundering hoofs of a_____buffalo.
       1   1

_____of our cowboys were_____far away_____hear our
 2   2   2

warnings. As the first of them appeared over the hill, we_____
          3

our horses to the edge of the canyon and_____a shower of
                            3

rocks down on the_____men. Just then they_____the
         2   1

thunder of the_____and galloped out of the_____.
        1   4

List other sets of homonyms. Let the students try writing
a paragraph with them.

Sound Grouping

Read the following words to the students and have them attempt
to put them in columns according to their sounds. (1) initial
ch sound (2) final ch sounds (3) initial sh sound (4) final
sh sound.

chop	sheep	splash
inch	brush	chin
flash	shall	chair
crash	ranch	shoe
fresh	fish	cheese
pitch	she	should
cheer	lunch	wish

Suprasegmentals, Method of Symbolizing, and Punctuation

The teacher may explain to the students that levels of stress
may be marked as follows:

Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	Quaternary
/	∧	\	∨

1. Use this method of marking stress in such sentences as
   the following:

   We shall read together.

   Rest while I am gone.

   "Keep your filthy hands off me, lout!" he shouted.

   "Will you teach me to write?" asked Robin.

2. There are at least three levels of pitch in most intonation
   systems:

   (a) low   (b) medium   (c) high

Use pitch levels to reinforce the rules of punctuation.
After putting many sentences on the board and analyzing
them, elicit from the class the following generalizations:

(a)   Sentences ending with periods usually end
      with the 2-3-1 pitch pattern.

(b)   Questions which elicit a "yes" or "no"
      answer usually require the 2-2-3 pattern.

MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is the study of word forms. It is con-
cerned with the meaningful grouping of sounds that make up
the words of a particular language. The emphasis is on the
grammatical grouping of sounds, rather than on the meaning
that the grouping signifies.

A morpheme is a single piece of meaning expressed by
a word or a piece of a word. The idea of the morpheme may
be further clarified by means of an illustration. Let us
consider boy's. Boy's contains the meaning of the word boy,
which we might define as a small child. But it also contains
the possessive meaning. The apostrophe and the s tells us
that the boy has something. So the single word boy's con-
tains two meanings: it has the meaning of boy and also the
meaning of possession. Therefore, boy's is two morphemes:
boy + possession. In a similar way, boy and -hood are two
morphemes because they are two meaningful units. Although
boyhood is only one word, we still have two morphemes.

The study of modern English morphology properly con-
cerns itself with different sorts of word-forms. One of
these is inflectional classes in our language. There are
four such classes:

1. Nouns regularly have forms for plural and geni-
tive cases which are made by adding /s/, /z/,
or /ez/ to the uninflected stem; poets, kings,
and cabbages.

2. Verbs regularly have forms for past tense which

are made by adding /t/, /d/, or /ed/ to the un-
inflected stem; <u>helped</u>, <u>encouraged</u>, and <u>aided</u>.

3. Adjectives regularly have forms for comparison
which are made by adding /er/ and /est/ to the un-
inflected stem; <u>bigger</u>, <u>biggest</u>.

4. The pronouns have an odd set of variant forms which
express objective case; <u>I</u>, <u>me</u>; <u>he</u>, <u>him</u>; <u>she</u>, <u>her</u>;
<u>we</u>, <u>us</u>; <u>they</u>, <u>them</u>; and <u>who</u>, <u>whom</u>; in addition,
they have genitive and reflexive forms.

The inflectional morpheme does not change the word class but

expresses a grammatical category like tense in verbs or plu-

rality or comparison in adjectives.

A derivational morpheme is one that usually changes

a word from one word class or subclass to another. For ex-

ample, <u>er</u> makes a noun of the verb <u>work</u>. (See chart for

others.)

Some morphemes are said to be "free" in that they carry

meaning in the language all by themselves (<u>boy</u>, <u>large</u>, <u>help</u>);

others are said to be "bound" in that they express meaning

only when connected with another morpheme (<u>boys</u>, <u>boyish</u>, <u>boy</u>-

<u>hood</u>; <u>larger</u>, <u>largeness</u>, <u>enlarge</u>; <u>endanger</u>, <u>dangerous</u>; <u>help</u>-

<u>ed</u>, <u>helpful</u>, <u>helpless</u>). Bound morpheme affixes may be either

prefixes or suffixes. There is a third and somewhat more

complex morpheme, the "bound base morpheme." The word <u>cran</u>-

<u>berry</u> contains an example. The form <u>cran</u>- in <u>cranberry</u> is

not an affix morpheme; neither does it regularly stand alone.

<u>Cran</u>-, then, is neither a free nor an affix morpheme. It

does, however, occur in a posibion that free morphemes do

occupy, as in <u>blueberry</u>, <u>blackberry</u>, <u>strawberry</u>. The bound

base morpheme, which is what <u>cran-</u> is called, may be defined
as a morpheme that regularly stands where free morphemes
stand but is itself neither free nor an affix.

Sound variations within a particular morpheme are
spoken of as allomorphs. For example, the plural is the
sound /ez/ in dish<u>es</u>, the sound /s/ in cat<u>s</u>, the sound /z/
in mother<u>s</u>. The three distinct sounds that indicate plural-
ity are allomorphs of the same morpheme since all three mean
"more than one." Some English words form their plural with-
out any addition to the word: <u>man-men</u>, <u>tooth-teeth</u>, <u>sheep-
sheep</u>. Linguists refer to this as a zero or unmarked allo-
morph of the plural morpheme. Others such as <u>ox-oxen</u>, <u>cri-
terion-criteria</u> are listed as exceptions.

Morphology is an interesting part of structural ling-
uistics, one that can perhaps be well used in teaching vocab-
ulary mastery and growth.

The following charts (taken from <u>A Curriculum for Eng-
lish</u>, University of Nebraska) may be used as guides to serve
teachers of all levels of elementary school. They could form
the nucleus of class discussions and observations of word for-
mation in the literature that is read to students or in the
children's composition.

CHART I

NOUN SUFFIXES

ac	maniac, hypochondriac
ace	grimace, populace, furnace
acy	diplomacy, efficacy, accuracy
ade	decade, serenade, lemonade
aire	millionaire, solitaire
an	Anglican, human, artisan
ance	constancy, pregnancy, flippancy
ant	servant, applicant, confidant
ar	mortar, vicar, calendar
ard	blizzard, standard, drunkard
ary	dictionary, aviary, granary
asm	enthusiasm, iconoclasm, chasm
ate	acetate, mandate, candidate
cy	normalcy, residency
dom	Christendom, kingdom, freedom
e	naivete, fiance, finale
eau	portmanteau, chateau
ee	employee, filigree, refugee
eer	volunteer, engineer
en	kitten, mitten, heathen, citizen
ence	correspondence, dependence, permanence
ency	dependency, emergency, despondency
end	dividend, legend, minuend
ent	rodent, assent, correspondent
er	teacher, meter, customer
ery	fishery, cookery, bindery
ese	Portuguese, Genoese, Chinese
ess	actress, goddess, songstress
et	cabinet, blanket, pocket
ette	cigarette, etiquette, kitchenette
ety	society, piety, propriety
eur	amateur, chauffeur, connoisseur
hood	childhood, likelihood, brotherhood
ial	credential, official
ian	physician, barbarian, centenarian
ice	justice, service, prejudice
ics	italics, statistics, dynamics
ide	cyanide, sulfide
ier	cavalier, cashier, premier
ine	discipline, medicine, gasoline
ion	solution, ambition, million
is	basis, crisis, emphasis
ism	capitalism, idealism, rationalism
ist	scientist, dentist, Buddhist
ite	socialite, granite, bauxite
itis	arthritis, appendicitis
ity	mobility, creativity, longevity

ive	motive, detective, directive
kin	mannikin, lambkin, catkin
le	castle, ladle, cattle
let	bracelet, ringlet, leaflet
ling	hireling, gosling, duckling
ment	fragment, instrument, government
or	error, favor, elevator
ry	jewelry, foundry, cavalry
ship	friendship, scholarship, lordship
sion	illusion, expansion, erosion
ster	youngster, songster, jokester
t	plant, weight, height
tain	captain, mountain, chieftain
th	birth, growth, health, truth
tion	action, caution, condition
trix	aviatrix, directrix, executrix
try	deviltry, casuistry, artistry
tude	altitude, fortitude, multitude
ty	liberty, beauty, novelty
ule	molecule, capsule, globule
um	curriculum, medium, linoleum
ure	picture, culture, furniture
us	chorus, syllabus, sinus
y	story, Italy, dolly

CHART II

VERB AFFIXES

Prefixes

be	beset, bemoan, besmear
en	enthrone, endanger, enclose
em	embark, emblazon, embed
y	yclept
re	rebuild, reawaken, reconfirm, reheat
with	withdraw, withhold

Suffixes

ate	refrigerate, delineate, animate
en	darken, strengthen, weaken
esce	acquiesce, coalesce
ify	justify, simplify
ize	ostracize, utilize, economize

Ify and ize are almost always verb affixes; the other affixes
may go with other parts of speech, and are not certain signals.

CHART III

ADVERB SUFFIXES

ly	quickly, haltingly, suspiciously
time	anytime, sometime, everytime
where	anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, everywhere
way	anyway, someway
long	headlong, sidelong, endlong
place	anyplace, someplace
ward	homeward, forward, westward, inward
ways	sideways, endways, lengthways
wise	clockwise, sidewise, weatherwise, otherwise
day	someday
meal	piecemeal
side	beside, aside, inside, outside

Some word endings with suffixes may undergo a shift
to the adjective function: a _piecemeal_ solution, an _outward_
threat. A few _ly_ words function as adjectives, but _ly_ ad-
verbs seldom function as adjectives (He was a quickly man).
Such words as _everywhere_, _beside_, _elsewhere_, _otherwise_, _like-
wise_, _backward_, and _sometimes_ are rarely shifted. Words
using the inflectional suffixes characteristic of the adverb
do not generally shift to another function.

CHART IV

ADJECTIVE AFFIXES

Prefix	
a	asleep, afloat, adrift, alone

Suffixes	
able	drinkable, peaceable, comfortable, lovable
ac	cardiac, maniac, demoniac, zodiac
al	casual, annual, economical, hysterical
an	American, urban, European, human, Anglican
ant	radiant, defiant, valiant, pliant
ar	regular, singular, popular
ary	auxiliary, military, primary, voluntary
ate	graduate, separate, passionate, proportionate
ed	molded, covered, cultured, exchanged

en	hidden, written, risen, golden
ent	despondent, insistent, consistent
eous	courageous, beauteous, aqueous, vitreous
escent	convalescent, obsolescent, adolescent
ese	Portuguese, Chinese, journalese
esque	picturesque, grotesque, burlesque
ful	graceful, beautiful, harmful
ial	special, artificial, superficial
ian	artesian, Brazilian, Italian, Grecian
ible	edible, feasible, dividible, eligible
ic	specific, Olympic, photographic, classic
ical	economical, physical, historical
id	humid, fluid, morbid, sordid
ile	fragile, agile, docile, mobile, virile
ing	reading, writing, talking
ine	feminine, masculine, divine, crystalline
ious	religious, rebellious, anxious, contagious
ish	girlish, snobbish, devilish, bluish
ite	infinite, definite, favorite, exquisite
ive	native, motive, restive, creative
less	merciless, homeless, colorless, treeless
like	godlike, homelike, childlike, lifelike
ly	lovely, heavenly, fatherly, hourly
ory	sensory, auditory, deprecatory
ose	verbose, morose, grandiose, cellulose
ous	jealous, pious, poisonous
uous	sensuous, ambiguous, virtuous, strenuous
some	lonesome, tiresome, meddlesome
th	ninth, fourth
y	fiery, rosy, rainy, spicy
ual	visual, residual, sensual

None of these is necessarily confined to the adjective, since almost any adjective may be converted into a noun through the use of the noun indicator (as the beautiful).

MORPHOLOGY ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

*Inflectional Affixes-Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives

The teacher may ask students to arrange words in three separate boxes on the basis of the kinds of endings which they will take.

Box 1	Box 2	Box 3
_____s	_____s	_____er
_____'s	_____ed	_____est
_____s'	_____ing	

Such words as the following may be used for this exercise:

dog	pretty	runner
walk	mat	lovely
fine	plow	milk
cat	tiger	fast
wiggle	baseball	shoe

*Derivational Affixes

The teacher may play a record of her choice and ask students to listen for words containing either prefixes or suffixes. The base or root word should be found and then specific prefixes or suffixes which have been introduced to the class. Example: _farmer_, which contains the root form and the affix _er_ can be discussed as to meaning. The students may also form other words which use the affix _er_ or _or_.

Inflectional Affixes-Verb Forms

The teacher may read a chapter of _Johnny Texas_ or any other story. Examples of inflected verbs ending in _ed_ and occurring

in the story can be put on the chalkboard. The students may then discuss the words with inflectional affixes as to (1) how they are alike and (2) the meaning of ed. Typical ed words might be the following:

walked	rolled
crawled	roamed
	galloped

Students could then make sentences of their own using ed words.

*Root Words-Prefixes and Suffixes

The teacher may give the following explanation: "A root word is a base word to which parts may be added. A prefix is added at the beginning of a root word. Suffixes are added to the end of a root word." Then the students can find the prefixes and suffixes in such words as the following:

rebuilding	powerful
unkindness	disappearing
refilling	motionless
painless	

Students may also be asked to write the prefix or the suffix which correctly completes such sentences as the following. They are directed to choose from this list of affixes: ness, re, un, ful, and pre.

1. The_____expected letter surprised her.

2. Exercising too long may cause sore_____.

3. Outdoor games can be health_____.

4. Old houses are often_____built.

5. Litterbugs are thought_____people.

*Compound Words

On the chalkboard the teacher may write such a sentence
as "A boat with sails is called a_____." Then she
may ask the pupils to read the sentence silently and to
decide what one word completes the sentence. Then she will
write the compound sailboat on the board. Similar procedures
may be used with such words as houseboat, sunbeam, moonlight,
football, headache, rattlesnake.

Root Words and Affixes

The teacher may write the following sentences on the chalk-
board and ask students to read them:

> 1. Everyone needs friends.
>
> 2. I lost my friend's address.
>
> 3. He is a friendly person.
>
> 4. Jim acts friendlier than Ted.
>
> 5. Ed is sometimes unfriendly.
>
> 6. I hope I never am friendless.
>
> 7. I need your friendship.

The underlined words may then be discussed and the pupils be
permitted to tell what each underlined form means ("more than
one friend," "of a friend," "like a friend," etc.)

Derived Forms

The teacher may write the following sentences on the chalkboard:

> 1. I prefer candy.
>
> 2. His preference is ice cream.
>
> 3. The soldier was a hero.
>
> 4. His heroic acts were rewarded.

Then the class may discuss the meaning of each root word and of its derived form. Other words that might be used are as follows:

custom	customary
pursue	pursuit
advise	advisory
act	active

*"Ful" Game

The class is divided into two groups. Group I writes a noun on the board. Group II makes an adjective or noun by adding "ful." When either side fails, the other side can make a score by correcting a spelling, naming a noun, etc.

Example:

mercy + ful (merciful)	pity + ful (pitiful)
dread + ful	hate + ful
force + ful	sin + ful
boast + ful	success + ful
bounty + ful (bountiful)	duty + ful (dutiful)
spoon + ful	dish + ful
plate + ful	arm + ful

FORM CLASSES

The study of morphology directs our attention to the structure of words, to their forms. When the various phonemic elements are combined into meaningful units, these units can be recognized by their particular form, so that boy carries meaning of and by itself, and skip does the same thing. But ignoring meaning, we can say that they represent two classes of words.

The linguist then classifies words into two large groups: the form classes and the structure or function words. The form classes include four large classes: Nouns or Form Class I; Verbs or Form Class II; Adjectives or Form Class III; and Adverbs or Form Class IV. The linguist further uses four basic considerations to determine the characteristics of the Form Classes: (1) affixes, inflectional or derivational (2) word order in the basic English sentence patterns (3) structure or function words and (4) stress.

See the accompanying chart for the explanation of the inflections, derivational affixes, word order and function words for each of the four large classes. In order to understand this chart the following information concerning the structure or function words will probably be helpful.

Among the function words that are used to identify the four form classes the following are important:

1. Determiners signal, or warn us that a noun will follow shortly.

They also point out and limit. The list below
is partial:

DETERMINERS

the	my	that	several
a	your	this	most
an	his	those	all
some	her	few	no
many	their		one, two, etc.

2. Auxiliaries precede verbs and are used largely
to give a finer shade of meaning. They have
been divided into two groups:

AUXILIARIES

Modals	Verb-Form
can	have
may	be
will	
shall	
must	
could	
might	
would	
should	

3. Intensifiers are words that pattern like <u>very</u>
and that signal both adjectives and adverbs.

CLUES FOR IDENTIFYING THE FORM CLASSES

Form Class	Inflections	Function Words	Syntactic Positions (Slots)	Typical Derivational Affixes
Noun	-s, -es(plural) -'s, -s'(poss.)	Determiners	I saw the _____. _____ are here. His _____ is here.	-ment -ness -ity etc.
Verb	-s(3rd per. sing.) -ing -ed, d, t	Auxiliary	They will _____ (it). They _____ (it). Please _____ (it).	en- be- -ify etc.
Adjective	-er -est	Intensifier(very) more, most	He was (very) _____. He seemed _____.	-able -ible -ish etc.
Adverb	-er -est	Intensifier(very) more, most	He worked _____. He walked _____. He left _____.	-ways -ly etc.

FORM CLASS ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

Inflectional Affixes-Nouns

The teacher instructs the children to listen for words that end with "s" as she reads a paragraph that contains plural nouns, singular possessives, and plural possessives. Write the words on the board as the students recall them. Discuss what the "s" in each word means.

Inflectional Affixes-Verbs

Ask the students to rewrite a paragraph which is written in the past tense. The teacher may wish them to write it in the present or future.

Inflectional Affixes-Adverbs

Write these sentences on the board.

    1. The man walked_____toward home.

    2. The girls_____went into the building.

    3. The dog howled_____last night.

Have the children suggest words to fill the slots. What does each word have in common? Can we place these words in other places in the sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence?

SYNTAX

Syntax is the study of meaningful combinations or infinite variety of order of words. This is parallel to the commutative law of addition in mathematics.

Structural Classifications

English has at least ten basic sentence patterns.

Here are the five most basic ones:

Pattern 1	Noun Squirrels	Verb run	(Adverb) quickly	
Pattern 2	Noun Man	Verb seems	(Adjective) good	
Pattern 3	Noun John	Verb is	Noun 1 boy	
Pattern 4	Noun John	Verb saw	Noun 2 Bill	
Pattern 5	Noun John	Verb gave	Noun 2 Bill	Noun 3 a present

Expanding Sentence Patterns

The basic noun-verb pattern can be expanded in various ways. A realistic way of expanding by modifying is by adding adjectives, adjective phrases, adverbs, and adverb phrases or clauses to a very simple sentence. This does not change the pattern but makes the sentence more specific.

Example:

The little brown/squirrels\in the tree/played\happily.

The sentence now tells the size and color of the squirrels, where they are and how the squirrels played. The is always a determiner.

Methods with Appositives

Any major sentence pattern may be expanded by the addition of appositives; that is; two interchangeable elements.

Example: Gary, my brother, went on a picnic.
                    appositive

Adjectives, verbs, and adverbs might be used in the same way.

Methods with Compounding

We can also expand our sentences by compounding equivalent elements.

Example: Gary and Bob went on a picnic.

Adjectives, verbs, and adverbs might be used in the same way.

Example: Gary went skating and swimming.

Syntax is much too complicated for children to understand fully; but if we get them to realize that there is a reason for shifting, changing, adding, and cutting words, we will have more mature writers. Encourage children to rewrite so that they might have a chance to revise and find mistakes. By the time a child reaches school age, he has fairly well mastered the pattern of English sentences and can use the structural forms, although he cannot yet identify or describe them. He makes use of the most important feature: word order.

Transformations

The approach to syntax described above is basically an I-C (Immediate Constituent) structuralist description. It has its uses for the teaching of composition, but another quite rigorous approach to syntax is gaining attention: the

transformational generative approach.

When linguists speak of transformation, they are referring
to the kinds of moves which may be made with the parts of
basic English sentences. The phrase structure rules of mo-
dern English is the background against which transformation
work. Th ; phrase-structure may be thought of as a system-
atic series of divisions of the sentence as a whole. A trans-
formation is a systematic shifting of the parts of the phrase-
structure patterns. Examples are the transformation for
passive voice, of verb particles, for negation of stress,
and for various questions. Transform;:ional grammars are
synthetic, rather than analytic. They begin with general-
izations about the language - about the phrase structure,
possible transformation, and the effect of syntactical changes
upon morphology and phonology.

The Roberts English Series: A Linguistics Program (grades
3-9) uses the transformational generative approach to syntax.

SYNTAX ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

Syntactic Form Classes

The teacher writes the following words on the board. The
students are instructed to write each word on a separate
slip of paper: face, my, never, his, dog, usually, car,
struck, the, liked, a, washed, window, sometimes, seldom,
George, stroked, he, she, Annabelle, her, goldfish, often,
Sam, touched. Put the slips into a pile and draw out five
slips one at a time. Record each word as you draw it so that
the first word will be the first word in the "sentence."
Record the sequences of words on the board. The chances
of getting a grammatical sentence are very small. Now have
the students group all the verbs in one pile and all the nouns
in another pile. Draw one slip from the noun pile and one
slip from the verb pile and three from the other pile. The
chances of drawing a grammatical sentence are greatly increased.
If all the words are classified and a certain order is followed
in drawing, each group of five words should make a grammatical
sentence.

Fun of Changing - Asking to Telling

Make several interrogative sentences and let the children
change them as many ways as they can but make them declarative.

Example:

1. May I go to the store?

2. You may go to the store.

Questions

The teacher writes <u>What</u>, <u>Where</u>, <u>When</u>, <u>Who</u>, <u>Why</u> on the board.
She tells students that very often they use these words to
start sentences. She lets the children choose one of the
words and ask a question to the class. She asks the students
if they can answer these questions with <u>yes</u> or <u>no</u>. She
asks them to tell whak kind of answers would they need to
give for these questions. (In general, the reply must
supply some information.)

(Mabel O'Donnell. <u>All Through the Year</u>. Evanston, Ill.:
Harper & Row, Publishers, 1966, p. 144.)

Appositives as Synonyms

Give the students some very descriptive sentences and have
them arrange the descriptive words as appositives.

> Example:
>
>> The curious and mischievous boy ran around
>> the corner after the dog.
>>
>> The boy, a curious and mischievous boy, ran
>> around the corner after the dog.

Expanding with Verbals

It will probably be best to have children learn about verbals
by imitation sentences containing them.

> Example:
>
>> The children returned home, <u>exhausted</u> from
>> a day of school.

*Slots, Fillers and Syntactic Form Classes

Each child makes a "frame" (two sheets of construction paper

about 7" x 11", stapled or glued together at each end; a
slot approximately 12" wide cut across the center of top
sheet). Then, on a series of "slot-filler" paper strips
of different colors (2" x 9"), the teacher writes words of
different form classes. The children insert these strips
into their frames in various combinations, trying to make
as many sentences as possible. Either the teacher or the
children may make the "slot-filler." The teacher may wish
to add more words to those given.

<div align="center">"Slot-Filler" Paper Strips</div>

Green	Tan	Orange	Blue	Yellow
the	brightest	years	burned	slowly
the	newer	snows	started	sadly
these	white	months	turned	down
the	bigger	boys	cried	fast
those	straight	dogs	walked	suddenly
these	smallest	ladies	settled	quickly
those	warm	soldiers	moved	happily

Further work with slot-fillers and syntactic form classes may
be done through the following activities:
Place the following sentences on the chalkboard using an
orange chalk mark for the open slot.

1. (The) _____ raced.

2. (The) _____ killed (the) bear.

3. (The) _____ was (my) friend.

4. (The) _____ was red.

Ask students to fill the blanks with words other than <u>he</u>, <u>she</u>, <u>it</u>. Then ask them to see if the words go into Box 1, 2, or 3 (see activities in Morphology Section). The students will observe that most of the words which will fit in the open slots are words which will take the endings <u>s</u>, <u>'s</u>, <u>s'</u>.

Comparing While Transforming

Give the children two true sentences and make one sentence from it, comparing something.

Example: 1. An orange is juicy in Texas.

2. An orange is juicy in Florida.

Combined: An orange is+as+juicy in Texas+as+an orange is juicy in Florida.

An orange is as juicy in Texas as in Florida.

*Negative Sentences

Before introducing contractions, give the children some positive sentences and read them together. Have a discussion as to how we can make the sentences negative. Then let them make negative sentences keeping the same tense.

Example:

I study every day.

I do not study every day.

DIALECT

One of the most interesting aspects of language is dialect. The imagination and ingenuity of people is reflected in the endless variety of dialects. Dialects can sometimes help us understand the history of our language.

A dialect may be defined broadly as a speech pattern which is used by members of a small group within a large speech community. The term dialect is often used to describe the speech pattern of people who are geographically isolated from the larger speech community. Social dialects are not limited to geographical locations, but are related to educational and social positions.

Dialects generally differ from the main language in pronunciation and vocabulary rather than in grammatical structure.

An understanding of dialect and its major forms is important in every teacher's training. The teacher who is familiar with dialects will understand that local dialects are adequate to describe the ideas and thoughts of the people. This is especially true of teachers who are working with culturally disadvantaged or culturally different children.

Most teachers will, at one time or another, have students from other areas of the country who have dialects quite different from the local community. The teacher should familiarize the student with other dialects so that he will be prepared for times when he will meet people from outside

his own community. The teacher should not attempt to sub-
stitute new words for the local dialect if that dialect is
sufficient to describe materials being used in the class-
room.

For information concerning dialects in America, the
teacher might consult Jean Malmstrom and Annabel Ashley,
Dialects - U. S. A., available from the National Council
of Teachers of English.

DIALECT ACTIVITIES

Intermediate Grades

Regional Variations in Speech

By the third grade level teachers may begin to acquaint chil-
dren with the nature of dialect. One possible way of doing
this is to take a poll of the class to discover if any of the
children have moved recently (within one or two years) from
another area of the country. If there are several children
in this category the teacher can obtain a large map and point
out where these children are from, perhaps by marking former
home towns with colored flags. By consulting charts such
as those used by dialect geographers (see below), the teach-
er may be able to prompt the "immigrant" children to recall
some of the dialect peculiarities of their home towns. Some
children may need no prompting, but most children are not
terribly conscious of the existence of dialectal variations.
They tend to regard children whose dialect pattern varies
from their own as "out-group" people and to make fun of them
as eccentric without understanding that "everybody talks
the way Johnny talks" in the area from which he came. By
using the charts below the teacher allows the children to
show themselves that dialects consist not only of vocabu-
lary differences, but pronunciation differences as well.
Once a child's general dialect area has been established,
he can be asked "which word he uses" to describe the items
in Chart I below. Other children may volunteer variant

dialect words, and the different words may be written on
the chalkboard. Using Chart I, the teacher can "test" for
pronunciation differences and call these differences to the
children's attention. An exercise of this sort should be
carried out in an enthusiastic and broadminded manner, so
that the children will respect, rather than ridicule, various
dialects and pronunciations. The geographical divisions in
Chart I apply to areas on the east coast of the U. S. The
northern area extends from northern New England to central
Pennsylvania; the midland area extends from central Pennsyl-
vania to South Carolina in the area which lies west of the
Blue Ridge Mountains. Dialect variations are still most
pronounced along the east coast but the major linguistic
areas have fanned out in a westward direction, so that many
of the dialect differences found in the major east coast areas
will also be found in the respective northern, central and
southern states as far west as the Rocky Mountains. The
term "General American" is often used to denote the common
speech of the midwestern and western states.

CHART I

North	Midland	South
cow yard	barnyard	barn lot, lot
burlap bag or sack	gunny sack	croker sack
pail	bucket	bucket, slop bucket
wish bone	wish bone	pulley-bone, pull-bone
skunk	skunk, polecat	polecat
angle worm, fish worm	fish worm, fishing worm	earthworm, redworm .
spider	skillet	frying pan

CHART II

Eastern New England and New York City Area	Middle Atlantic and Western Pennsylvania (Similar to the General American Area)	South
far/fa/	far/far/	
farm/fam/	farm/farm/	
law/lor/		law/lo/
cart/kat/	cart/kart/	cart/kat/
ideas/aydiyrz/		
	greasy/griysiy/	greasy/griyziy/
	tune/tuwn/	tune/tjuwn/

General American
(Midwest, Northwest, Southwest and West Coast Areas)

---

far/far/	orange/orindz/	tune/tuwn/
farm/farm/	dog/dog/	ask/ask/
cart/kart/	fog/fog/	aunt/ænt
	Dorothy/dore ə iy/or /dor ə iy/	

Have children who have lived in "others areas" say the same word. Ask the children if they can hear differences in the way the words are said. If a child's speech patterns reveal a dialect difference in respect to the majority of the class, record on the chalkboard test words which are pronounced in a manner like the majority as well as the test words which are pronounced in a manner different from that of the majority.

Adapted from Nebraska Curriculum Center. A Curriculum for English; Language Explorations for the Elementary Grades. Lincoln, Nebraska: Univ. of Nebraska Press, 1966. pp. 165-167.

Dialect Comparisons

Children can read stories such as The Sooner Hound and Casey
Jones, and compare the dialects used in each.

Dialect Imitation

Children might read a story with a dialect peculiar to them.
They might pick a particular passage from the story and try
imitating the dialect.

Occupational Dialect

To acquaint children with occupational dialect, he might make
a list of words used in connection with his father's work.

For example:	Physician	diagnosis prescription
	Photographer	enlarger photographic

Changing Dialect

Children might substitute other words (or other dialect words,
if possible) for the dialect words in passages from Huckleberry
Finn.

Rewriting Dialect

Children should be able to rewrite a good many of the unusual
sentences written in another dialect. Have the children,
for example, consider such excerpts as the following from
"A Shamrock for O'Toole":

> "Tis a shame, but thank ye anyway. Now then, me boy, ye
> be keeping your eyes open, and fetch it to me if you find
> one."

> "Thank ye kindly. But for one thing, I'd niver enjoy the
> things you eat, me stomach bein' that delicate. For another,
> your folks would niver be knowing I was there. 'Tis only

a few people who can see or hear leprechauns. Away
with ye, now. And don't forget to be looking for me
shamrock. I'd like to be takin' a trip home to visit
me auld mither."

USAGE

Linguists believe that a prime function of an English program is to bring the child to familiarity with and an easy use of the forms of the language that are approved in polite and prosperous society. One of the main problems is to identify what is appropriate in polite society.... Authorities disagree on the acceptable speaking form. Some say that it is not incorrect to say "can I" while other authorities do not agree on this.

Linguists usually distinguish three levels of usage: formal, colloquial and illiterate. Formal language is identified as that used in a scholarly article or speech. Colloquial is the type of vocabulary found in a friendly level or an ordinary conversation. Illiterate usage comprises that system of vocabulary of people with little or no education.

Sometimes linguists use two major categories--standard and nonstandard. Standard English usage is that form of speaking and writing used by literate people communicating with each other. Nonstandard English usage is the forms used by uneducated people.

Nonstandard English usage is an adequate means of communication for its users. This nonstandard English is not socially adequate for most of the cultural activities for which the school prepares the child. The teacher should suggest to students standard substitutes rather than condemn existing patterns. The following is a list of nonstandard

words or phrases commonly used by the children:

That was real good.	He don't
We is or He are	He has took or He taken
Haven't got any	Has broke
Leave me do it	Have saw
Gimme	Have ran
Brang	Couldn't hardly
John and me are going	He played good

Robert C. Pooley in Teaching English Usage suggested this

list of nonstandard words or phrases:

Ain't or hain't	My brother, he
Hair or aire	He run
A orange	Have saw
Have ate	I says
He give	He seen
I got	

Linguists believe that by structuring oral sentence patterns

for children to repeat, children will become familiar with

acceptable usage. Such activities as the ones listed in the

following section are examples of pattern drills that can

be used.

The following examples of pattern drills are suggested:

1. To encourage correct usage of good and well. Discuss
    with the children how someone may be a good dancer but
    dances well. Children can then make up other sentences
    using good and well. One example might be - He bats
    the ball well. He is a good batter.

2. To encourage correct usage of he. Tell children that if
    they will listen to these three sentences, it will help

them to remember to use <u>he</u> in the right place. "He did. John did. John and he did." Ask each student to think of three similar sentences to give orally to the class. Instead of the name John, suggest that they use another name. Let each student say his sentences. Encourage other students to listen to see if the reciting student is "playing the game fair," or using <u>he</u> correctly.

3. Play a game with <u>has gone</u> and <u>have gone</u>. Two players plan to act out a sentence telling where they have gone together. They tell the teacher what they will act out. As they act out their sentence, the teacher may ask, "Where have _____ and _____ gone?" A player will answer, "They have gone to _____." The player who guesses right may choose someone to act out a sentence with him.

4. To encourage children to say "I have not any." Discuss with students the word <u>any</u> and have them use it in sentences answering the question "How many?" Give students a copy of the following poem:

<p align="center">How Many?   Not Any.</p>

How many teeth do you have on your toes?
How many horns on the end of your nose?
I do not have _____.

How many lions do you have under your bed?
How many eyes in the back of your head?
I do not _____ _____.

How many stars do you have in your eyes?
How many cars do you have in the skies?
I do _____ _____ _____.

How many whales do you have at school?
How many seals in your swimming pool?
I _____ _____ _____ _____.

How many mistakes do you have today?
How many, I wonder, how many?
Oh, that is very easy to say.
I'm sure _____ _____ _____ _____ _____.

After students have read poem several times with teacher let them make up their own verses to read orally to the class.

Collins, Nora. <u>Elementary English</u>, "I Ain't Got None," XLIV (Jan. 19, 1967) p. 36.

5. Use a picture such as one of a fireman rescuing a small
    kitten from a tree. Direct the students as follows:
    When you talk about animals, you often use the work
    climbed. Let's make sentences about this picture in
    which we use climb.
    Examples:

> A kitten _____ from his soft basket.
> He _____ from the lap of a little girl.
> He _____ down and ran outside.
> He _____ up a tree.
> A fireman _____ up to rescue the kitten.

This procedure may be used for drill with any standard
forms which students need drill on.

A PROCEDURE FOR ATTACKING USAGE PROBLEMS

There are a variety of ways to attack a problem in usage.

The following sequence of steps is adapted from a similar

list by Hatchett and Hughes.

1. Find what your group needs. What abilities, what
    experiences, what interests, and what weaknesses does
    the group possess?

    Procedures:
    Note most conspicuous errors.
    Listen to children during all types of oral language
    activities. Listen for language patterns.
    Listen to children in out-of-school situations, i.e.,
    playground, lunchroom, organization meetings.
    Examine written work for errors that are common.
    Make inventories from either standardized or teacher-
    made tests to find out what children need.

2. Determine which errors should be attacked.

    Procedures:
    Help children incidentally.
    Make an individual diagnostic rating sheet.

3. Select errors to attack.

    Procedures:
    Check class errors against generally recognized usage
    errors.
    Make a composite chart showing types of errors and

members of the group.

4. Give individual help.

   Procedures:
   Give specific help when needed by an individual.
   Group children by common problems.

5. Help child find his most outstanding errors in his own speech and writing.

   Procedures:
   Use a tape recorder to help him spot speech errors.
   Keep a notebook of his own errors.
   Teach child to proofread for errors.

6. Expand language experiences.

   Procedures:
   Encourage audience situations such as reading, listening to stories, dramatizing, sharing poetry.
   Give praise for good use of language.
   Read good literature.
   Listen to good literature.
   Enjoy choral speaking.
   Listen to recordings.
   Select and view good television shows.
   Use reference charts and posters.
   Use cartoons to illustrate actions of verbs, power of adjectives and adverbs.
   Display children's written work.

7. Help children evaluate.

   Procedures:
   Set up standards with children.
   Take time to evaluate work during and after an activity.
   Use an opaque projector to show written work to group.
   Use an overhead projector to illustrate errors and corrections. Copy a part of written work on chalkboard for class to discuss and evaluate.
   Give children help where it is needed when they are proofreading.

8. Guide children in practice.

   Procedures:
   Use skills periods for common errors.
   Use oral situations.
   Use devices to interest children in usage practice.
   Use language games.

> Use workbooks as they are needed in small groups or pairs.
> Use textbooks as resource books.

A teacher is most successful with usage teaching if the children are highly cooperative. Such cooperation rests upon the interpersonal relationships existing in the classroom. Children respond to corrections made quietly and with regard for their feelings.

In her usual succinct way, Applegate has made an important point regarding wrong speech patterns. She has said that to help children change wrong speech patterns, first of all there must be a "rich wanting" on the part of the child. Using sarcasm and ridicule in correcting children will never promote a "rich wanting" to change. A child must know what sounds right and he must have a great deal of "good" speech practice.

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THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The history of the English language is divided into
three periods. The first period is called the Anglo-Saxon,
or Old English period and it dates from 450 A. D. to about
1100 A. D. The second, or Middle English period, dates
from 1100 A. D. to about 1500. And the third, or Modern
English period extends from 1500 to the present. This history
reflects the social, political, and cultural history of the
English people, and can be traced to the invasions upon the
Britons who inhabited the British Isles.

The earliest known inhabitants of the British Isles
were the Celts. Their language was the first Indo-European
Language spoken in England. The Celts were forced to move
about the land because of poor living conditions caused by
the Ice Age glaciers. As the people moved, regional dialects
were formed along with a group of closely related languages.
These languages are (1) Indian, (2) Iranian, (3) Armenian,
(4) Albanian, (5) Balto-Slavonic, (6) Hellenic, (7) Italic,
(8) Celtic, and (9) Teutonic. English is a member of the
large Indo-European family of languages. It is a branch
of the Teutonic group of languages.

Roman invasions in 55 B. C. proposed by Julius Caesar
were not successful against the Celts, but in 43 A. D. the
Roman emperor Claudius conquered Britain. The Celts remained
under Roman rule for almost 400 years. Even though many

evidences of the Roman rule can be seen in the culture of Britain, little change in the Celtic language is noted.

Early in the 5th century the Roman groups withdrew from Britain and fifty years later Britain was invaded for the second time--this time by the pagan tribes of the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. This invasion marked the beginning of English as a separate, distinct language. Commonly called Old English, the language consisted of a fusion of the few Roman and Celtic words already in use and a new purely Teutonic vocabulary.

Many of the Anglo-Saxon words have been incorporated into Modern English. These words constitute the everyday words that we use most frequently. Most of our prepositions, pronouns, auxiliaries, and conjunctions are of Anglo-Saxon origin; and many of the words we use in speaking of the practical necessities of life--good, house, family--come from the Angles and the Saxons. The following list shows but a few of our "Modernized" Anglo-Saxon words:

of	he	man
so	it	wife
on	her	child
or	I	eat
and	we	drink
at	they	live
is	him	house
but	you	horse

The Roman invasions in 597 A. D. resulted in the addition of about five hundred words to the language. This period was marked by the addition of many ecclesiastical

terms--alms, bishop, hymn, and priest. It is also a period marking the beginning of the practice of freely adding words from another language to English.

The invasions of the Danish from the 8th to the 11th centuries brought Scandinavian elements into the vocabulary. These words are words beginning with harsh, guttural sounds, particularly the g and sk sounds. Most of our words beginning with gn and kn can be traced to the Danish invaders.

The most significant and long lasting influence on the development of English was that of the Normans who gained control of England after the Battle of Hastings in 1066 A. D. When William the Conqueror assumed the throne, England became for the only period in its history, a bilingual country. The masses spoke Old English while the royalty and nobility spoke French. In fact, the English language almost ceased to be a written language at all; and because it was no longer carefully set down by scribes and scholars, it lost much of its grammatical refinement.

During the 13th and 14th centuries English gradually regained status as "the" language of England. Following the Hundred Years' War the middle class helped restore prestige to the English language. The English language penetrated all levels of society, and once again became a written language.

This period of Middle English was marked by changes in pronunciation of existing words and by adding words

brought back from returning Crusaders and traders. New words were also added by the use of root plus prefix and/or suffix.

Grammatical gender was abolished. Gradually many inflections found in Old English were lost. The increase in weak verb forms (adding a suffix to the root verb to indicate tense as in <u>walk</u>, <u>walked</u>, <u>walking</u>), almost eliminated strong verbs (internal vowel change, as in <u>sing</u>, <u>sang</u>). Only a few are still in common with us.

Some scholars refer to the "Great Vowel Shift" of the 15th century. Nouns and adjectives lost their endings and the ending <u>e</u> was adopted. Long vowels gradually came to be pronounced with a greater elevation of the tongue and closing of the mouth. When this could not be done, gliding sounds were uttered, forming diphthongs. Unaccented vowels were weakened and the tendency was to obscure the vowel sound. This indeterminate vowel sound pointed the way to our modern schwa vowel tone.

Spelling suffered from these changes in pronunciation, for the scribes tended to preserve traditional forms as they copied old manuscripts. Many of our present-day spelling difficulties are traceable to this period because spelling was left largely to individual taste.

The period of Modern English, 1500 A. D. to the present, has witnessed further expansion of the language. The Renaissance was marked by intellectual changes all over

Europe, a growth of social consciousness, and an increase
in communication. The invention of the printing process
made much of this possible, through the books that were made
available for distribution.

The English language was ready for further expansion.
It had thrown aside many cumbersome features of the languages
from which many of its words had come, and had developed
a new type of structural pattern. For centuries, Latin had
dominated the legal and classical realms of expression.
English was gradually assuming this role.

The 18th century produced efforts to standardize
the English language. Grammarians attempted to refine the
language, and to establish a permanent form. Two more
problems were yet to be faced: the expansion of vocabulary
to meet increasing demands for terminology representing
new knowledge, and the development of a uniform system of
spelling. Samuel Johnson's _Dictionary_ was influential in
this reform movement.

The expansion of the English language has been ex-
panded and enlarged in the following ways:
1. Borrowings from other languages.

A large percentage of the words in the English language
are non-native. The major sources of English words are
Greek, Latin, and Anglo-Saxon. Many words have been "borrowed"
from other languages, including the list on the next page.

Arabic	cotton
Chinese	chop suey
South Indian	cashmere
Turkish	coffee
German	hoe
Australian	boomerang
African	gorilla
French	gallery
Persian	bazaar
Italian	contralto
Japanese	kimona
Dutch	Yankee
Spanish	tobacco
Russian	vodka
American Indian	moccasin

2. Creation of compound words

    a. Self-explanatory compounds - skyline, sidewalk, farmyard.

    b. Compounds formed by combining elements from two other languages, usually Greek and Latin--homogeneous, microscope, thermometer.

3. Using suffixes and prefixes--transcontinental, descend, semicircle.

4. Coining new words--kodak, nabisco, victrola.

5. Creation of portmanteau words--smog from smoke plus fog, chortle from chuckle plus snort, snark from snake plus shark.

6. Making common words from proper nouns--sandwich, mackintosh.

7. Old words with new meanings--steward, record, bonfire.

8. Journalistic jargon--a business deal, hop the Atlantic.

9. Slang--jive, hep, okidokee.

10. Clipping--gas-gasoline, phone-telephone, plane-airplane.

The English language is said to be the most advanced language in its grammatical simplicity, but spelling and pronunciation of the language offer no definite guide.

These difficulties and inconsistencies are traceable
to the changes in pronunciation of borrowed words without
changing the spelling, representation of several spellings
for the same sound, little relationship between spelling
and pronunciation, regional differences, uncertain syllabication,
and the usage of the original pronunciation of borrowed words.

The mastery of the intricacies of spelling and pro-
nunciation of the English language is dependent upon a
thorough knowledge of the language, its history and structure.

Adapted from Evelyn S. Thompson. A Zest for Words: A Hand-
book for Phonetic and Structural Analysis in Reading.
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HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

Varieties of Language

By using stories containing Spanish words or French words,
children may be made aware of other languages in the world.
There are many stories and songs suitable for this activity--
The Story of Ferdinand, Frere Jacques, and O. Tennenbaum are
examples.

Language Map Study

The history of language and language families can easily
be traced in map study. Language families such as English
may be traced to Dutch, German, Swedish, Danish and Norwegian.
When the French conquered England the English family became
a member of the Latinate or Romance languages. The French
family consists of Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, Romanian,
and Latin. A third family of languages related to ours is
Czech and Polish. The point should also be made that there
are languages unrelated to English-American--Indian, African
and Chinese languages.

Interpreting Middle English

The period of Middle English and Early Modern English can
be traced by reading "Chanticleer and the Fox" and having
the children interpret passages and phrases from the story
into Modern English.

Tracing Words

Etymologies and meanings of words and how they entered the English language can be traced by reading stories such as "Christopher Columbus and His Brothers," "Hiawatha's Fasting," Theseua and the Minotaur," "The Flight of Icarus," and other mythologies. Students may trace the origins of the unfamiliar words in Webster's Third New International Dictionary.

Families of Languages

Families of Languages may be traced by substituting words:

		English Speaking People	
burro	(Spanish)		
sheriff	(Anglo-Saxon)		
mesa	(Spanish)	gasoline	(petrol)
corral	(Spanish)	cop	(bobby)
canyon	(Spanish)	cracker	(biscuit)
coyote	(Mexican Indian)	bonnet	(hat)
mesquite	(Mexican Indian)		

State Names

It might be very exciting for the children to investigate and locate the origin of state names. Texas, for example, is of Indian origin and was the word meaning "friends" or "allies."

Language in Literature

English and Germanic languages can be traced and examined through stories such as "Leif the Lucky," "Hans Brinker," "The Fisherman and His Wife," "The Goose Girl," and "The Golden Goose." The children may be surprised to note the language the characters speak in these stories is closely related to their own.

Dutch Words

Many Dutch words appear in the story The Queen and the Pauper and these may be made interesting by making a chart of the English and Dutch words.

> Rex - king
>
> Mijnheer - Mr.
>
> Ikben - I am
>
> Kaatje - Katie
>
> Willam - William .
>
> Jan - John
>
> Regina - queen

Days of the Week

The study of mythology leads well into the study of the origin of the names of the days of the week from Norse mythology.

> Wednesday - Woden's Day
>
> Thursday - Thor's Day
>
> Friday - Freya's Day

Origin of Affixes

The study of prefixes and suffixes leads itself to an interesting study of languages: many of our English words are made by using the prefix and suffix from other languages.

Adjective Suffixes

able - Latin	capable	ful - Anglo-Saxon	thankful
ish - Old English	impish	ous - Latin	dangerous
ic - Greek	historic	y - Anglo-Saxon	windy
ward - Anglo-Saxon	southward	less - Anglo-Saxon	helpless
est - Old English	highest	like - Modern	manlike

Prefixes

a - Greek   afoot

be - Anglo-Saxon   befriended

de - Latin and French   descend

fore - Anglo-Saxon   forecast

re - Latin   rewrite

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