A LANGUAGE ARTS CURRICULUM GUIDE was developed by the Reading School Staff for the Model Developmental Reading School, a Title III ESEA project, sponsored by the Piedmont Association for School Studies and Services, Greensboro, North Carolina. Since reading should be taught in the course of developing a well-rounded language arts program, this curriculum guide contains the essential elements of a language arts program -- listening, speaking, reading, and written expression. A brief resume of each area is given. However, since the main objective of the project is to improve reading instruction, reading is treated more extensively than the other areas. Activities and procedures for developing word recognition skills, comprehension skills, study skills, and rate of reading are presented. To provide for individual needs, a nongraded, developmental approach is used. The skills, understandings, and activities proceed from simple to complex rather than by grade levels. A bibliography of references is included. (NS)
Model Developmental Reading School
Title III ESEA Project

Sponsored by
THE PIEDMONT ASSOCIATION
FOR
SCHOOL STUDIES AND SERVICES

WOLFF, HELEN D.
LANGUAGE ARTS CURRICULUM GUIDE

FOR THE

MODEL DEVELOPMENTAL READING SCHOOL

Prepared by the
Reading School Staff

Mrs. Helen D. Wolff

Director

Teachers

Miss Lou Bradley Kindergarten
Mrs. Rachel Carter First Grade
Miss Pricilla Hoy Second Grade
Mrs. Nancy Sands Third Grade
Mrs. Mary Purnell Fourth Grade
Mrs. Greta Johnson Fifth Grade
Mrs. Sondra Aheron Sixth Grade

1967
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreword</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word Recognition Skills</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture clues</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sight words</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context clues</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phonics</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural analysis</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictionary usage</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation and Comprehension</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appreciation</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Reading</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Skills</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library and locational skills</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizing materials</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retaining and using information</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Rate</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written Expression</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative Writing</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handwriting</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibliography</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the staff of the Reading School began planning the program of the school, they recognized the need to develop a curriculum outline of the Language Arts.

Although the primary purpose of the project is to improve instruction in the area of reading, it is recognized that the interrelatedness of the total language arts program demands that reading be taught in the course of developing a well-rounded language arts program. What a child learns in one phase of the language arts affects his performance in all other phases. When teachers take advantage of the many opportunities to strengthen and reinforce each of the skills through natural association and experience, and weave these into a composite program, the students benefit accordingly.

It was agreed that this outline could not be completely comprehensive, but that it should contain the essential elements which constitute a well-rounded language arts program, and that the staff should attempt to arrive at a meeting of minds on the material which would be included. This required reviewing research and consulting leading authorities on order to substantiate opinion and arrive at responsible conclusions.
There was unanimous agreement that the outline should not be geared to traditional grade levels but should proceed, when possible, from simple to complex skills, understandings, and activities within a given area. This is in keeping with the belief that a non-graded approach to all learning is necessary in order to provide for individual needs.

When necessary for clarity of thought, activities or learning tasks have been included and examples have been used.

The need for continuous evaluation and revision of such a guide is obvious. The ink is hardly dry before one is ready to make some changes. We will continue to do this with the hope that our efforts will provide more effective learning for girls and boys.
The importance of developing effective listening habits has long been given prominent position in the language arts program. "Research in the area of listening indicates that (a) listening ability can be improved with instruction, (b) listening is affected by such factors as maturity, rate of presentation, and the intrinsic interest of materials presented; and (c) listening is in some way related to reading." (5)

I. PURPOSES FOR LISTENING

When children are aware of definite purposes for listening they practice this skill more effectively. The child sets many of his own purposes for listening but others must be provided by the teacher. The evolution of adequate listening abilities includes the following:

A. Listening to identify and distinguish among sounds in the environment, e.g., listen for noises far and near

B. Listening to discover similarities and differences in words and sounds

C. Listening for information

D. Listening for enjoyment

E. Listening to anticipate outcomes, draw conclusions, form opinions, and make inferences

F. Listening critically so as to evaluate and interpret what is heard

G. Listening for moods, e.g., happy, angry, etc.

H. Listening for feelings and moods in music

II. LEVELS OF LISTENING (as defined by Ruth Strickland) (27)

A. Half listening: holding fast to own ideas and waiting to insert them at the first opportunity.

B. Listening passively: apparent absorption but little or no reaction.

C. Off again - on again listening: mentally entering into what is said if and when it is closely related to own experience.
D. Listening: responding with items from one's own experience as a result of associations brought to mind.

E. Listening: some reactions through questions or comments.

F. Listening: some genuine emotional and mental participation.

G. Listening: a meeting of minds.

SPEAKING

The oral language skills are the most frequently used of all the communication skills. Their development is a continuous process. Ruth Strickland says "No element can be assigned to the course of study for a given grade level to be attacked, practiced and mastered at that grade level." (27)

The most essential prerequisite to effective speaking is gaining the freedom to speak easily and confidently. When he comes to school, each child brings with him the speech of his own environment. The task of the teacher then is to provide numerous dynamic experiences which will enable all the children to practice and refine speech patterns, enlarge vocabulary, and improve sentence structure. The resulting speech must permit each child to communicate adequately and effectively as a contributing member of society.

Loban's study of 1963 showed that competence in spoken language appeared to be an essential basis for competence in reading; therefore the logical sequence of skills places speaking - oral language - before reading.

Effective speaking is accomplished when:

A. An atmosphere in which language can flourish is proved.

1. Physical environment

   a. Effective furniture arrangement
   b. Use of many and varied materials
      (1) Tape recorder
      (2) Record player
      (3) Film strips and films
      (4) Maps and globes
      (5) Books and booklets
      (6) Puppets
      (7) Resource people
      (8) Costumes
2. Emotional environment

a. Relationship between teacher and children - comfortable and wholesome. The teacher listens to the child.

b. Relationship between children and among children is happy and considerate.

c. Many dynamic, ongoing interests are present.

B. The teacher helps the children improve their speaking when she

1. Makes each child feel comfortable in conversation

2. Is aware of interests and needs of each child

3. Creates desire within each child to participate

4. Provides opportunities for children to speak (e.g., conversation, reports, story-telling, choral speaking, dramatization, social courtesies, interviews, telephoning, appreciation, panel discussion, debating, parliamentary procedure, book reviews)

5. Develops class standards for various types of oral language

6. Sets a good example by her own speech

7. Provides various curriculum experiences for teaching of word sensitiveness and vocabulary development
The complexity of the reading process demands that all teachers, in order to be effective reading teachers, have a comprehensive understanding of the reading skills. These include word recognition skills, interpretation and comprehension skills, study skills, and fluency and rate skills. A brief resume of each of these areas is given in order to promote continuity in the reading program. One does not take precedence over another but they are so interwoven that the best program of instruction is one that launches the whole complex array of reading activities from the beginning and then provides continuous guidance to insure continuous improvement. The skills evolve from the simple to the more complex stages in a developmental sequence. The diagnosis of individual pupil's abilities and needs begins in the first year of school and must proceed into the secondary school level. Based on the results of the diagnosis the pupil is then given instruction on the reading level which is appropriate for him, regardless of his chronological age or the grade to which he may be assigned. The teacher needs to be adept at using several different methods of instruction, because it is not likely that any one method will prove successful with all children in any class.

In adjusting a program of instruction to meet the wide variations among children in a class of thirty or more pupils it is necessary to employ flexible schemes of subgrouping within a class. There must be an abundance of reading material covering a wide range of difficulty and subject matter, and good use must be made of tests, diagnostic materials and self-teaching materials.

Planning individual, small group, and class projects in which children are given opportunities and taught how to assume responsibility for their own learning makes it possible to meet the reading needs of a typical class reasonably well. (8)
Word Recognition Skills

Word recognition should be taught in situations meaningful to the child. Materials should be appropriate to the child's reading level and systematic instruction based on a logical sequential skill program is required. The six techniques of word identification are: picture clues, sight words, context clues, phonics, structural analysis, and dictionary usage.

I Picture clues

In presenting an outline of techniques used in word identification, picture clues are included because these are particularly important in the very earliest stages of learning to read. They may be considered a temporary aid before the child progresses to the skills which have significantly greater value in attacking unknown words independently.

Use of pictures for the purpose of word identification is fostered by:

A. Identifying and classifying objects, people, places in pictures.
B. Arranging pictures in sequence.
C. Telling stories in sequence by pictures.
D. Identifying words by means of picture cards, picture dictionaires.
E. Comprehending and interpreting the meaning of events and settings as portrayed in a picture.
F. Noting details in pictures.
G. Predicting outcomes from pictures.

II Sight words

This term denotes immediate recognition of words with no utilization of other word attack skills. Sight words are useful at all stages of reading. A stock of words easily recognized usually forms the starting point from which beginning readers learn to use other methods of word attack. Mature readers use the sight technique more often than they use all other word recognition techniques. Sight words are learned as whole words. They enable the child to function as a reader from his first steps in the reading process.

The perception of a sight word may include some, or all, of the following steps:

A. Initial exposure to word (preferably through child-dictated material recorded by an adult)
B. Self-identification with the word by associating it with his own personal experience
C. Discovery of the distinguishing characteristics of the words
D. Recognition of interest clues
E. Encounter of the words in different contextual settings
F. Voluntary recall of words

III Context clues

Context clues are utilized by the reader when he identifies an unknown word by inferring which word fits into the meaning of the sentence. In other words, the nature of the text leads to the recognition of the word. To guess without thinking of the appropriate meaning is often termed "wild guessing". If this becomes a habit, it can be a serious handicap to the reader; but proper use of context clues demands inferential thinking and is an essential part of the reading process at all levels. Teachers need to place emphasis upon helping the child derive the meaning of words from the sense of the sentence. Obviously this is intimately related to comprehension of the total text which is the ultimate goal of all reading.

A. McCullough's Studies (22) identify the types of context clues to be utilized. These are:

1. Experience
   Example: Bring me the salt and pepper.

2. Comparison or contrast
   Example: Daddy is tall, baby is short.

3. Familiar expressions
   Example: He was quiet as a mouse.

4. Definition
   Example: The elephant was the largest animal at the circus. He was old and gray.
   (see dictionary skills)

B. Artley (22) defines the following aids to word meanings.

1. Typographical aids of quotation marks, italics, bold face type, parentheses, footnotes, glossaries
2. Structural aids: apositive, nonrestrictive, and interpolated phrases and clauses
3. Substitute words: synonyms, antonyms
4. Word elements: roots, prefixes, suffixes
5. Figures of speech: similes, metaphors
6. Pictorial clues: pictures, diagrams, charts, graphs
7. Inference
8. Direct explanation
9. Subjective clues: tone, mood, in ent
IV Phonics

"Without attention to meaning, reading becomes word-calling; without a background of phonics, reading becomes a guessing game; with phonics alone, reading becomes nonsense syllable analysis." (6)

Phonics is only one technique of word recognition. There are six techniques of word identification.

Reading is a thought-getting process, not just a word recognition process.

In teaching the basic principles of phonetics and word structure, it isn't necessary to have children memorize rules; they should be led to form, from their own observation, generalizations that will help them in attacking new words.

SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAM IN PHONETIC AND STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

- Single Consonants
- Consonant Blends
- Consonant Digraphs
- Single Vowel Sounds
- Diphthongs
- Vowel Principles
- Syllabication
- Accent
- Use of Dictionary
A. CONSONANTS

Consonants are all the letters of the alphabet except the vowels.

There are 21 consonants - including the semi-vowels w and y.

"Consonant sounds are either voiced or voiceless. In the production of a voiced sound, the vocal bands vibrate; in a voiceless sound, the vocal bands do not vibrate. This may be studied by placing the finger on the larynx and noting whether a vibration is felt as the sounds are made. By holding the hand before the mouth when these sounds are produced, it will be noted that voiceless sounds require more breath force than the voiced sounds." (Betts, Foundation of Reading, p. 626)

(For description of utility of rules see Clymer's study in Appendix)

1. Consonants with one sound

   b as in boy --- voiced
   k as in hat --- voiceless
   j as in jam --- voiced
   f as in kite --- voiceless
   l as in look --- voiced
   m as in man --- voiced
   n as in nail --- voiced
   p as in pot --- voiceless
   r as in rat --- voiced
   v as in vase --- voiced
   w as in want --- voiced
   y as in yea --- voiceless

2. Consonants with two or more sounds

   The consonants c, d, f, g, s, t, x, y, and z have more than one sound.

   Sounds of c - c like k, as in car --- voiceless
       s like z, as in cent --- voiceless

   When the consonant c is immediately followed by e, i, or y, it usually has the sound of s.

   Sounds of d - d like d, as in doll --- voiced
       l like l, as in soldier --- voiced

   Sounds of f - f like f, as in fast --- voiceless

   Sounds of g - g like g, as in goat --- voiced
       j like j, as in giant --- voiced
       zh like zh, as in garage --- voiced
Sounds of **s** -
- s like s, as in Sam - voiceless
- ʃ like ʃ, as in his - voiced
- s like ʃ, as in sure - voiceless
- s like ʃh, as in treasure - voiced

Sounds of **y** -
- y like y, as in yes --- voiced
- ɨ like ɨ, as in my --- voiced
- ɨ like ɨ, as in baby --- voiced

Sounds of **z** -
- z like z, as in zebra --- voiced
- ʒ like ʒ, as in waltz --- voiceless
- ʒ like ʒh, as in assure --- voiced
3. CONSONANT BLENDS

Consonant blends consist of two or more letters which are blended into a single speech sound.

- br as in bread
- cr as in crop
- dr as in dress
- fr as in frog
- gr as in green
- pr as in pretty
- tr as in tree
- sm as in smile
- sn as in snow
- sc as in scold
- sk as in skate
- sw as in swim
- tw as in twin
- bl as in blue
- cl as in clay
- fl as in flag
- pl as in play
- sl as in sleep
- sp as in space
- st as in story
- spl as in splash
- spr as in spring
- squ as in squash
- str as in string
- tch as in watch
- thr as in three

4. CONSONANT DIGRAPHS

Digraphs are combinations of two letters which result in one speech sound. The sound heard is not a blend of the two letters involved, but is a completely new sound.

- sh as in shop, fish
- th as in then, thin
- qu as in quack, queen
- ok as in back, pack, stick
- ng as in sing, long, stung
- ch as in church (tsh)
- ch as in chorus (k)
- ch as in mustache (sh)
- wh as in white, whip, what (hw)
- wh as in who, whole, whoop (h)
- ph as in telephone (f)
- ph as in Stephen (v)

B. VOWELS

The letters a, e, i, o, u are called vowels. Each word or syllable must contain one or more vowel sounds.

- w and y used as vowels
  
  w is a vowel when it immediately follows another vowel in a word. Example: down, show, blew, new
\[ y \text{ is usually a vowel when it is at the end of a word.} \]
Example: by, baby

\[ y \text{ is usually a vowel when it is the only vowel in a word or syllable.} \] Example: bicycle

\[ y \text{ is usually a vowel when it immediately follows another vowel.} \] Example: day, stay

1. Short vowel sounds

If a word of one syllable contains only one vowel, it is usually short unless it is at the end of a word.
Example: top, map, set, nut, fit

2. Long vowel sounds

When a word of one syllable contains two or more vowels, the first vowel is usually long. All other vowels in the word are silent.
Example: boat, rain, geese, rope, cake

The vowels may come together as in boat, or they may be separated by a single consonant as in rope, cake.

When a vowel is not followed by a consonant in a word or syllable, it is usually long.
Example: so, me, apron

3. Vowels in unaccented syllables

The vowel in many unaccented syllables is often pronounced almost like a short u. Example: zebra, caboose, circus, local, obtain

Note: The sound referred to as almost like short u is often called the schwa

4. Some exceptions to vowel rules

The vowel o followed by ld usually has the long sound.
Example: old, bolt

The vowel i followed by nd, gh, or ld frequently has the long sound.
Example: find, light, wild

The vowel a followed by ll or tt has a pronunciation like aw.
Example: ball, salt, halt

5. Vowel sounds determined by word meaning and context

When a single vowel or a single group of vowels has more than one sound, the word containing the vowel or vowel group is partially phonetic.

In a partially phonetic word, word meaning and context are used to determine the sound of the vowel or group of vowels.
Examples of vowel sounds determined by word meaning and context

Sounds of o
- ò as in do
- ù as in come

Sounds of a
- ê as in many
- ë as in away

Sounds of e
- ë as in pretty

Sounds of i
- é as in police
- ë as in animal

Sounds of ow
- ou as in cow
- ọ as in show

Sounds of ea
- ë as in been
- ë as in great
- ë as in bread

Sounds of ei
- ë as in veil
- ë as in heifer
- ë as in foreign

Sounds of u
- ù as in use
- ò as in put
- òo as in prune, true, fruit

Sounds of ou
- ou as in house
- ọ as in four
- òo as in you, ọo as in could
- ù as in rough
- ò as in thought
- ò as in flew

Sounds of ear
- â as in bear
- er as in hear
- ur as in earth

Sounds of ie
- é as in friend
- ë as in chief
- ë as in cookie

Sounds of ui
- ù as in suit
- òo as in juice

6. Vowel sounds affected by r

A vowel (or vowels) followed by the letter r results in a blended sound which is neither the short nor long sound of the vowel.

"It is doubtful that this phonic fact - as it relates to learning to read - is of paramount importance." (13)

C. DIPHTHONGS

Diphthongs are two adjacent vowels, each of which contributes to the sound heard. In pronouncing diphthongs, the two vowel sounds are blended as in house, owl, oil, boy.
D. PHONOGRAMS

These 14 phonograms that occur with high frequency should be memorized.

ight as in night
at as in cat
in as in pin
ot as in not
an as in can
en as in send
ay as in day
et as in wet
ill as in will
all as in ball
un as in fun
old as in cold
ell as in well
ing as in sing

E. SIGHT WORDS

Primary level words that cannot be pronounced by phonetic analysis

any live to many
are lived two mother
build one very Mr.
buy other where Mrs.
come pretty who of
could pull do said
get push does shoe
give put done some
have thought father you
here there would yours
sure

F. SYLLABICATION

A syllable is a vowel or a group of letters containing a vowel which form a pronounceable unit.

"The ability to break words into syllables is a very important word-analysis skill and cuts across both phonic and structural analysis." (13)

1. Rules for dividing words into syllables

a. There are as many syllables as there are vowel sounds. Syllables are determined by the vowel sounds heard - not by the number of vowels seen.
   Example: release - re les
   precaution - pri ko shun

b. Syllables divide between double consonants - or between two consonants.
   Example: hap - pep
   bas - ket
c. A single consonant between vowels usually goes with the second vowel.
   Example: fa - mous
   spi - der
   (Note: The exceptions to this rule are numerous!)

d. As a general rule, do not divide consonant digraphs and consonant blends.
   Example: teach - er
   se - cret
   ath - lete
   a - gree

e. When a word ends in le the preceding consonant usually begins the last syllable.
   Example: mar - ble
   mus - cle
   bu - gle
   ket - tle
   no - ble

f. In general prefixes and suffixes form separate syllables.
   Example: un - fair
   hope - less
   re - late
   pre - heat - ed

G. ACCENTING WORDS

Accent is taught because a vowel in an unaccented syllable does not always get a true sound.

Most vowels in unaccented syllables get the neutral vowel sound.

1. Clues for identifying the accented syllable

   a. Compound words - both are accented, but greater stress is put on the first word.
      Example: bird'-house, in' to

   b. Accent the first syllable in a word with double consonants.
      Example: but' ton, bliz' zard

   c. Usually accent the syllable which contains a ck
      Example: nick' el, buck' le

   d. Syllables comprised of a consonant plus le are not usually accented.
      Example: ta' ble, un' cle

   e. Accent the syllable with more than one vowel.
      Example: re mote', con tain', re lease'

   f. Prefixes and suffixes, as a rule, are not accented.
      Example: un hap' py, re fresh' ment

   g. Two syllable words ending in y are usually accented on the first syllable.
      Example: cit' y, sto' ry, can' dy, par' ty
V. Structural Analysis

1. Root word defined: a word from which other words are derived - and to which a suffix or prefix may be added.

2. Prefix defined: (to fix before) a vowel or syllable placed before a root word to change its meaning and to form a new word.

3. Some of the most frequently used prefixes (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Word Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dis</td>
<td>(not, a part)</td>
<td>dismiss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>(not)</td>
<td>invade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mis</td>
<td>(wrong)</td>
<td>mistake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anti</td>
<td>(against)</td>
<td>anti-climax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non</td>
<td>(not)</td>
<td>nonsense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>com</td>
<td>(with)</td>
<td>combine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>con</td>
<td>(with)</td>
<td>connect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre</td>
<td>(before)</td>
<td>prepare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super</td>
<td>(over)</td>
<td>superior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tri</td>
<td>(three)</td>
<td>tricycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub</td>
<td>(under)</td>
<td>submarine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post</td>
<td>(after)</td>
<td>postscript</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ab</td>
<td>(from)</td>
<td>abnormal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trans</td>
<td>(across)</td>
<td>translate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>em</td>
<td>(in)</td>
<td>embark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de</td>
<td>(from)</td>
<td>depart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inter</td>
<td>(between)</td>
<td>inter-urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pro</td>
<td>(in front of)</td>
<td>promote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex</td>
<td>(out of, out)</td>
<td>explain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en</td>
<td>(in)</td>
<td>enter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ob</td>
<td>(against)</td>
<td>object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per</td>
<td>(fully)</td>
<td>perfect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. **Suffix defined:** (to attach to) a syllable placed at the end of a root word to change its meaning and to form a **new word.**

5. **Some of the most frequently used suffixes (2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ness</td>
<td>(being)</td>
<td>sickness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ment</td>
<td>(result of)</td>
<td>movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ward</td>
<td>(in direction of)</td>
<td>backward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ous</td>
<td>(full of)</td>
<td>joyous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ous</td>
<td>(abounding in)</td>
<td>gracious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eous</td>
<td>(of the nature of)</td>
<td>aqueous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>et</td>
<td>(little)</td>
<td>leaflet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>able</td>
<td>(capable of being)</td>
<td>capable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ible</td>
<td>(capable of being)</td>
<td>credible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ic</td>
<td>(like, made of)</td>
<td>magic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ish</td>
<td>(like)</td>
<td>foolish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ant</td>
<td>(being)</td>
<td>vacant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ent</td>
<td>(one who)</td>
<td>president</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>(collection of)</td>
<td>baggage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ance</td>
<td>(state of being)</td>
<td>disturbance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ence</td>
<td>(state or quality)</td>
<td>violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wise</td>
<td>(ways)</td>
<td>crosswise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ling</td>
<td>(little)</td>
<td>duckling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cy</td>
<td>(state)</td>
<td>unity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ity</td>
<td>(state)</td>
<td>vicinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ure</td>
<td>(denoting action)</td>
<td>pleasure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ion</td>
<td>(condition or quality)</td>
<td>action</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. **The suffix ed has one of three sounds.**

   a. The sound of t when it immediately follows any voiceless consonant
      Example: helped, looked, wished

   b. The sound of d when it follows a vowel sound or any voiced consonant sound except d
      Example: played, filled

   c. The sound of ed when it follows the consonant t or d
      Example: wanted, shouted, loaded
I. PRINCIPLES CONCERNING CHANGES IN THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS WHEN INFLECTIONAL ENDINGS OR SUFFIXES ARE ADDED

1. Most words add s to the root forms without any changes.
   Example: barn - barns

2. Words ending in sh, ch, ss, x, and z, add es to form the plural.
   Example: bush - bushes
   church - churches
   kiss - kisses
   box - boxes
   buzz - buzzes

3. Words ending in a consonant and y change the y to i and add es.
   Example: party - parties
   fly - flies

4. Some words ending in f change the f to v and add es.
   Example: calf - calves
   thief - thieves

5. Some singular words have different words for their plural forms.
   Example: man - men, mouse - mice, goose - geese

6. Words of one syllable ending in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double the consonant before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel.
   Example: bat - batter, big - biggest, plan - planned

7. If the word has more than one syllable, the final consonant is doubled only if accent is on the last syllable.
   Example: confer - conferred, shine - shining

8. Words ending in silent e drop the e before a suffix.
   Example: create - creator, shine - shining
   The e is usually kept before a suffix beginning with a consonant.
   Example: hope - hopeful, fierce - fierceness

VI. Dictionary usage

For the dictionary to become an important source of reference for the child in word identification, it must be used frequently in functional situations. The teacher has many opportunities to make this an interesting book for children by using it with "on the spot" situations in which infor-
mation about a word is needed. This may occur during discussions at any time in the day; it may happen while reading in any subject area.

(22) Looking up meanings, pronunciations, and the proper spelling of words can be exciting and fun if approached with the right attitude. A study of the origin of words is a natural way to lead children to appreciate the contributions which have been made to our own language and culture by other people of the world. The history of words promotes an interest in other languages and such information is basic to laying a foundation for more advanced work in the secondary school.

The use of this tool should begin in the early stages of the child’s school experience. Through kindergarten and first and second grade pictionaries are needed. Many published pictionaries are attractive to children and the use of them is the logical first step in introducing dictionary skills. Pictionaries made by the teacher and the children serve as an excellent reference source and are geared to a child’s experience and level of understanding.

The development of the skills needed to use the dictionary effectively must be planned and taught in proper sequences. The following outline is suggested: (25)

A. Skills needed in locating a word
   1. Identification of individual letters of the alphabet
   2. Alphabetical sequence of letters position in the alphabet
   3. Alphabetical arrangement of at least the first three letters of a word
   4. Use of guide words in locating a specific word

B. Meaning skills
   1. Recognize that a word may have many meanings
   2. Apply different meanings to a context and select the most appropriate
   3. Understand terms and abbreviations
   4. Know functions of parts of speech and the appropriate usage to fit context

C. Pronunciation skills
   1. Knowledge of consonant and vowel sounds and the symbols which designate the sound in the pronunciation key
   2. Ability to blend letter sounds into syllables, and these in turn, into complete words
   3. Recognition of syllabic division in words and the use of primary and secondary accent
   4. Recognition of diacritical marks as used to indicate vowel sounds
   5. Skill in translating phonetic spelling
   6. Recognition of need to pronounce words orally
   7. Recognition of the effect of pronunciation on usage

Example: pro'gress, prog ress
INTERPRETATION AND COMPREHENSION

The skills involved in reading comprehension and interpretation are numerous and interrelated.

A word does not have any meaning. The word only represents the meaning intended by the author. McKe has emphasized the idea that "no one reads a word, a sentence, or a paragraph unless he understands adequately the meaning intended by the writer of that word, sentence, or paragraph. Securing such understanding usually requires the reader to do much more than merely identify or recognize the words at which he looks" (18).

Gates has said that reading is not a simple mechanical skill; nor is it a narrow scholastic tool. Properly cultivated it is essentially a thoughtful process. However, to simply say that reading is a "thought-getting" process is too restrictive a description. It should be developed as a complex organization of patterns of higher mental processes. It can and should embrace all types of thinking, evaluating, judging, imagining, reasoning, and problem solving. (7)

The following skills are recognized in order to develop and maintain a high degree of comprehension and interpretation:

1. Understand the correct meaning of a word with its printed symbol (see picture clues)
2. Understand vocabularies relating to specific subject areas
3. Comprehend phrase and sentence meaning
4. Draw conclusions from given facts
   Example: What do you think will happen next?
5. Follow printed directions
   Example: Science experiments, recipes
6. Read for general understanding: get the main idea
7. Find details
   Example: a. find facts to support the main idea
   b. verify answers
8. Recall what has been read silently or aloud
9. Place events in sequence
10. Read for a definite purpose
    Example: a. for pleasure  b. for information or to answer a question  c. to get the general idea of context
11. Associate ideas of material read
    Example: a. draw logical conclusions  b. predict outcomes
    c. associate text with pictures  d. associate theme, mood, and tone with material previously read
11. Separate fact from fancy
   Example: Why do you think this could really happen?

12. Compare and contrast - see relationships
   Example: discover how two people handle a problem

13. Classify items (see study skills)

14. Make inferences: read between the lines

15. Identify the mood of a reading selection
   Example: Sleepy Hollow
   Johnathan Bing

16. Know techniques of scanning

17. Determine which source to use to find information
   Example: a. dictionary
            b. encyclopedia
            c. almanac

18. Use maps and charts (see study skills)

APPRECIATION

Attitudes toward reading as a part of life begin very early for the child. In the years before children learn to read, they must get their literature experiences through listening. It is in these early experiences that reading tastes and interests are initiated and developed. Values, attitudes, interests and tastes are further developed during the elementary school years.

Appreciation is fostered when students

1. Derive pleasure from listening and reading
2. Dramatize stories read
3. Develop imagery
4. Gain insight into own personality and problems
5. Form sensory impressions
   Example: Lose themselves in the setting of the writing
6. Understand characters
   Example: a. physical appearance
            b. emotional makeup
            c. identify themselves with characters

7. Tell a story which has been read

8. Illustrate story or poem read

9. Recognize reading as an opportunity for fun and escape

10. Develop permanent interests in reading

11. Develop desirable attitudes and habits in reading selectively

12. Appreciate the oral reading of poetry

13. Appreciate, enjoy, and use book illustrations

14. Explore various sources of information to answer questions
    Example: quest for more knowledge about a certain topic

15. Understand figurative and idiomatic expressions
    Example: a. metaphor
             b. simile

16. Develop appreciation of all cultures and gain insight
    into the lives of people representing a multiplicity of
    race, color, and creed.

CRITICAL READING

Critical reading requires the highest level of comprehension. Children
are encouraged to evaluate, judge and give objective criticism when
reacting to printed material. Effectiveness in reading critically
will be dependent upon the extensiveness and the accuracy of meaning
background.

Students need to learn how to:

1. Investigate sources
2. Make personal interpretation
3. Define author's purpose
   Example: a. bias
            b. accuracy
            c. viewpoint
4. Predict outcomes
   Example: (see Comprehension)

5. Consider opinion and fact
   Example: a. over-generalization
             b. unverified statement

6. Make inferences
   Example: recognize author's inference by choice of words

7. Form judgments
   Example: a. author's purpose
             b. draw conclusions from facts

8. Detect propaganda devices
   Example: advertisements

9. Consider new ideas or information based on one's previous
    knowledge and beliefs

10. Evaluate
STUDY SKILLS

Smith has appropriately defined study skills as skills used when there is intention to "do something with" the content read. As a pupil works in science, geography, history, health, arithmetic, or in areas not directly related to the school curriculum, he needs to select and evaluate, organize, recall what he has read, locate information in many sources, and follow directions. (22) An introduction to the study skills begins in the kindergarten in a small way and evolves into a set of complex skills during the seven year program in the elementary school. These skills are in accordance with reading demands made on the student. Thus, the immediate goal of training in study skills is to prepare the pupil to deal effectively with all areas of the curriculum which require reading.

I. Library and Locational skills

Some children learn, even in their pre-school days, that a library card is a passport to enjoyment and information. Through the cooperative endeavor of the classroom teacher and the school librarian, an effective and purposeful program of library skills should be developed. If a librarian is not available, the classroom teacher must assume the responsibility alone or with the help of the principal and other teachers. The library is perhaps the most important place in the elementary school, and it is a place where work-study skills are applied individually, in groups, or with an entire class.

Library skills and activities to be developed:

A. Frequent visits to the library which build enthusiasm for the place as a center for excitement and happy associations

B. Opportunities for selecting books and hearing stories told and read

C. Training in care of books and borrowing procedures

D. Utilization of magazines and newspapers

E. Familiarity with reference materials

1. maps  4. globes  7. films
2. encyclopedias  5. almanacs  8. filmstrips
3. atlases  6. gazetteers  9. picture file

F. Knowledge of the major classifications of the Dewey decimal system

G. Training in the use of the card catalogue
II. Organizing materials

When a child recognizes relationships, he has begun to organize. This skill enables him to better develop comprehension and retention.

Organizational ability as a part of the thinking process must be developed before the child can become skilled in arranging the order of his facts in his written or spoken expression. (10) This is the foundation of all good study skills. Until a child has developed this ability, his information is "simply a hodgepodge of the important and the unimportant, the related and the unrelated, the essential and the nonessential." (15)

Skill in organizing material is developed by

A. Classifying objects, words, phrases, and sentences for a variety of purposes

B. Arranging sentences in order - beginning with picture stories to help children understand sequence of ideas by first listening to the story and then arranging the pictures in sequence - continuing to more difficult written sequence order.

C. Recalling time order - beginning with time of day (arrival at school, lunch, school closing, bedtime) and progressing to complex time lines.

D. Making written records - experiments, diary, lists of plans for a dramatization, health rules, playground rules

E. Selecting an appropriate title, main idea, and related topics, or topic sentence

F. Skimming or scanning - locating a word in the dictionary, index, table of contents, page for specific information

G. Summarizing - beginning with a paragraph summary and refining with a sentence summary

H. Organizing facts to justify a conclusion

I. Training in the use of the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature

J. Assistance in taking notes, outlining and organizing material (see organizing materials)
I. Taking notes

J. Finding and compiling information from several sources on a specific problem or topic

K. Reading, composing, and using an outline - beginning with picture outlines and progressing orally in a group with the teacher doing the writing; continuing with main topics, adding subtopics, and progressing to details

Example:  

I. Main topic  
   A. Subtopic  
   B. Subtopic  
      1. Detail  
      a.  
      b.  
      2. Detail  
      a.  
      b.  

II. Main topic

L. Organizing information from reading tables, graphs, and charts

M. Evaluating simple reports

N. Finding irrelevant or repetitious words, phrases, or sentences

O. Identifying opinion, feeling, or fact

P. Constructing a rough draft of a report, proof reading, rewriting in final form

Q. Compiling a bibliography - beginning with a prepared list of books to arrange alphabetically by authors last name and progressing to the compilation of a list on a given topic using books by one or two authors, pamphlets, magazines, newspapers, encyclopedias, etc.

III.: Retaining and using information

In and out of school, and for one purpose or another, the child frequently needs to retain important and valid ideas which he finds in reading. (18) He should be made aware that not all of the ideas that he reads can be remembered, but a selection of important ones, depending on his purpose, should be retained. Retention can be developed to its fullest capacity using a variety of following procedures, keeping in mind that interest, motivation and a clever use of gimmicks also play an important part.
A. Use of pictures
B. Repetition of words
C. Reading followed by discussion
D. Use of topic sentences, headings, and subheadings
E. Outlines, notes and summaries
F. Posing questions about material
G. Associating new concepts with things which are familiar
H. Using delayed recall
I. Rereading
J. Scanning and skimming
K. Memorizing
L. Composing and using a study schedule
M. Verifying exact recall of facts
N. Answering specific or general questions
O. Use information in writing reports, stories, essays, projects, experiments
P. Developing techniques for taking tests
The most efficient readers use many different reading rates, depending upon their purpose for reading. The major emphasis should not be directed toward increased speed, but rather toward flexibility in adjusting rate to different reading materials, and developing the understanding of which rate to employ.

Four major rates of reading have been defined by Yoakam (31)

A. Skimming
   Work type reading: to locate answers to specific questions; get the general idea; review a familiar story

B. Rapid reading
   Recreational reading; re-reading familiar material; to get information for temporary use

C. Normal rate
   Work-type reading: answer questions; note details; solve problems
   Recreational reading: appreciate style; read to retell later; current events

D. Careful rate
   Work type reading: master content; get details in sequence; solve problems
   Recreational reading: read material with unusual style or vocabulary; read poetry; read to memorize; judge literary value

Primary level

The rate of reading increases as the skills of word identification, interpretation, and comprehension, and study skills are developed; therefore, at the primary level no pressure or undue emphasis should be placed on faster rates of reading.

There are some specific things that can be done from the early stages to promote growth in this skill. These are:

A. Develop phrase reading rather than word calling

B. When lip-reading persists beyond the second grade reading level make concentrated effort to correct it
C. Discourage finger pointing
D. Assist children in developing well-defined purposes for reading
E. Encourage wide use of easy interesting material

Intermediate level

At the intermediate level more formal emphasis should be given to reading rate, although the fact remains, that if the subject matter is sufficiently interesting, and the material easy enough, the desire to find out what comes next provides natural motivation to read quickly without the pressure which may be created by rate drill of one sort or another.

Considerable emphasis must be placed on helping students understand the types of reading rates which they may employ and then make a wise selection of the one to use with any given material.

The following techniques for improving rate are suggested:

A. Teach pre-viewing of material
   1. Study the title
   2. Examine the illustrations
   3. Read the subheads
   4. Skim the selection

B. Set purposes for reading and decide on rate needed

C. Give systematic timed practice to fifth and sixth graders whose instructional level is well beyond grade placement and who do not react negatively to timed exercises
WRITTEN EXPRESSION

I. Creative writing

All writing should be considered creative writing. Having something to say is not only the starting point but also the main emphasis in creative writing. An over-emphasis on structure often destroys a child's desire to write. A rich background of experience, supplying both ideas and stimulation, is the most important prerequisite to writing creatively.

Composition writing usually develops in this sequence:

A. Rich language experiences enabling children to put ideas together and to develop awareness of the purposes writing serves.

B. Self expression through stories dictated by individual children to the teacher and through group-dictated stories

C. Simple, spontaneous, independent writing

D. Factual writing

E. Fanciful writing

F. Mature, independent writing

* G. Sharing products of writing efforts with someone else

II. Spelling

The function of spelling is to symbolize spoken words. Our only purpose for teaching spelling is to help children gain writing independence. The words that a child needs for writing and therefore needs to spell, are those words in his speaking and understanding vocabulary. Spelling should be taught as it is needed by the child for expressing his thoughts and feelings in purposeful situations.

Because children do not have the same needs, interests, background, and capabilities, their spelling vocabularies will differ.

Spelling instruction should not be undertaken until the child is able to handle a pencil in a manipulative fashion and be reading on a first reader level.

* May take place at all steps except step one
In order to motivate a favorable attitude toward spelling and promote a feeling of pride in this skill the teacher needs to perform certain instructional tasks. These are:

A. Make diagnostic study of the spelling needs of each child

B. Plan individual or small group instruction based on the needs

C. Determine causes of spelling disability (4)
   These may be: 1. intellectual factors, 2. nonreading skills, 3. poor auditory and visual discrimination, 4. poor memory, 5. inadequate phonetic ability, 6. poor handwriting, 7. ineffective study methods, 8. undesirable attitudes

D. Evaluate with the child his spelling in functional writing and have child compile list of words he needs to learn

E. Encourage proof-reading of all written work

F. Teach spelling rules only when child is mature enough to understand them and can arrive at them through application

G. Allow children to correct own spelling test

H. Administer periodic tests and standardized tests for appraising growth of the child rather than using weekly spelling test.

I. Stimulate child to want to engage in purposeful writing

J. Avoid using the copying of spelling words as a means of punishment

K. Assist each child in developing self-study skills in learning how to spell
III Handwriting

Because handwriting is largely muscular, rather than mental behavior, physical maturation plays an important role in individual readiness. Handwriting should be taught as the need for writing arises in the classroom, allowing maximum consideration for the varying needs and abilities of the pupils. The best motivation for writing comes through actually writing something to be read. This eliminates all writing for punishment.

The essential requirement of all handwriting should be legibility. Handwriting skill may be developed in this sequence:

A. Writing one's own name, labels, and simple, meaningful sentences in manuscript writing
B. Writing stories, poems, etc. in manuscript
C. Making the transition to cursive writing as children are ready and providing small group instruction when needed
D. Improving legibility of cursive writing while developing some individuality of style

Mechanics of handwriting:

Research has not proven that using large pencils at the primary level produces better handwriting than the standard size pencil; however, research has shown that the length of the pencil is very important. Short, stubby pencils require a cramped, tense position and should not be used. The position of the fingers on the pencil is very important. It is recommended that rubber bands be used to encourage children to place fingers well above the pencil point.

The position of the paper on the desk or table should be at an angle which insures good vision of the paper for the pupil without the pupil having to assume a cramped position, cocked head, or having the head too near the paper.

Writing is often shunned because the position and technique used quickly produces tension and fatigue on the part of the writer. An overemphasis upon handwriting form, and frequent written assignments, fail to produce written products which bring satisfaction and stimulation to the child. The important task for the teacher is to help the pupil establish an eagerness to write and reasonable correctness of form.
Clymer's Analysis of the Utility of Phonic Generalizations (25)

"Theodore Clymer and his students analyzed the manuals, workbooks, and readers of four basal series to determine the phonic principles taught. Amazingly, over 121 different statements were offered: 50 on vowels, 15 on consonants and 28 each on endings and syllabication. The variation from one basal series to another was remarkable, ranging from 33 principles in one series to 68 in another. Of the 50 vowel rules, only eleven were found in all four programs. Many rules were trite or repetitious and, as Clymer notes, almost useless as an aid to word recognition.

"Clymer selected 45 reasonably useful principles for evaluation and counted the number of examples and exceptions to each in the entire word list of the four combined basal series, plus the words in the Gates Reading Vocabulary for the Primary Grades." (25)

Spache has grouped the results, omitting rules dealing with syllabication, in the following manner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowel Rules</th>
<th>Per Cent of Utility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. When y is the final letter in a word, it usually has a vowel sound.</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If the only vowel letter is at the end of a word, the letter usually stands for a long sound.</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. When there is one e in a word that ends in a consonant, the e usually has a short sound.</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. When a vowel is in the middle of a one-syllable word, ending in a consonant, the vowel is short.</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. When there are two vowels one of which is final e, the first vowel is long and the e is silent.</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. When words end with silent e, the preceding a or i is long.</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. One vowel letter in an accented syllable has its short sound.</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. In many two and three syllable words, the final e lengthens the vowel in the last syllable.</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The letter a has the same sound (ö) when followed by l, w, and u.</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. When a follows w in a word, it usually has the sound of a in was.</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11. When \( y \) is used as a vowel in words, it sometimes has the sound of long \( i \).

12. When \( y \) or \( ey \) is seen in the last syllable that is not accented, the long sound of \( e \) is heard.

**Vowel Digraphs**

13. When the letters \( oa \) are together in a word, \( o \) always gives its long sound and the \( a \) is silent.

14. Word having double \( e \) usually have the long \( e \) sound.

15. In \( ay \) the \( y \) is silent and gives \( a \) its long sound.

16. When \( ea \) come together in a word, the first letter is long and the second is silent.

17. The first vowel is usually long and the second silent in the digraphs \( ai, ea, oa, \) and \( ui \).

18. When there are two vowels side by side the long sound of the first one is heard and the second is usually silent.

19. \( w \) is sometimes a vowel and follows the vowel digraph rule.

20. In the phonogram \( ie \), the \( i \) is silent and the \( e \) has a long sound.

**Vowel Diphthongs**

21. The two letters \( ow \) make the long \( o \) sound.

22. When \( e \) is followed by \( w \), the vowel sound is the same as represented by \( oo \).

**Vowels with \( r \)**

23. The \( r \) gives the preceding vowel a sound that is neither long nor short.

24. When \( a \) is followed by \( r \) and final \( e \), we expect to hear the sound heard in \( care \).

**Consonants**

25. When \( c \) and \( h \) are next to each other, they make only one sound.

26. When the letter \( c \) is followed by \( o \) or \( a \) the sound of \( k \) is likely to be heard.
27. When ght is seen in a word, gh is silent.  
28. When a word begins kn, the k is silent.  
29. When a word begins with wr, the w is silent.  
30. When a word ends in ck, it has the same last sound as in look.  
31. When two of the same consonants are side by side only one is heard.  
32. When c is followed by e or i, the sound of s is likely to be heard.  
33. Ch is usually pronounced as it is in kitchen, catch, and chair, not like sh.  
34. The letter g often has a sound similar to that of j in jump when it precedes the letter i or e.  

Phonograms

35. When the letter i is followed by the letters gh, the i usually stand for its long sound, and the gh is silent.  
36. When ture is the final syllable in a word, it is unaccented.  
37. When tion is the final syllable in a word, it is unaccented.  

"To summarize Clymer's highly significant study of phonic generalizations, we see that of the 37 rules only nine are sufficiently valid and widely applicable. Two of these, rules 1 and 3, concern vowel sounds; one deals with vowel digraphs, rule 14; one concerns vowels with r, rule 23; and five control consonant sounds, rules 25, 26, 31, 32, and 33. Neither of the rules regarding vowel diphthongs are acceptable." (25)
BIBLIOGRAPHY


6. Durrell, Donald D., Improving Reading Instruction, Harcourt, Brace and World, New York. 1956


15. Johnson, Eleanor, *How to Get Best Results in Reading*, American Education Publications, Columbus, Ohio. 1955


19. McKim, Margaret; Caskey, Helen, *Guiding Growth in Reading*, Macmillan, New York. 1963


