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Margaret Stevenson's Lectures-
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The elementary language curriculum is a natural continuation of the language curriculum given during the early childhood years. At an age of about four or four and a half, the child is able to actively develop the acoustic and mechanical aspect of language with respect to sounds. The child of this age is a student of linguistically meaningful sounds. The child learns how to pronounce more proficiently more and more words as well as being able to recognize more and more words in the speech of others around her. As well, the child enjoys tracing the sand paper letters and then writing out words on their own either on paper or with the moveable alphabets. At this point, the child is encouraged only to spell, not necessarily to spell correctly. Learning how to represent the sounds of words the child is familiar with in the medium of written letters is the primary goal, not to represent them according to a normative set of rules.

During the ages of about five to seven, as the child enters into the elementary curriculum, she begins the study of words. The notion that there can be different kinds of words opens up to the child the study of grammar and syntax. Even though the child at this stage in her development is not a prolific generator of complex ideas, she can nevertheless enjoy the study of grammatical concepts as an immediate means to constructing representations of her own ideas that she does have. It is when the child begins to use language to represent her own ideas that Montessori thinks the child is ready for the elementary curriculum. Grammar is then given to the child so that the child may express what is growing in her mind. Grammar is not given to the child as a lesson on how to generate and express “her own” ideas; grammar is given as a means by which the child may express the ideas that are already generating in her mind. This is the second “heresy” Maria Montessori admits to being guilty of: that construction should precede analysis.

The old prejudice that Montessori is rejecting is the belief that grammatical analysis should be taught before children are encouraged to construct sentences that represent the generation of their own ideas. It was thought that a child could not be linguistically creative without first being given the tools then thought to be needed to do so. What has been forgotten is that grammar, and the talk of all its concepts, is a relatively late historical development. For thousands of years people communicated by means of language without any explicit knowledge of the “grammar” of their

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1 The Advanced Montessori Method-II p.9
The person who puts the house together knows it in its minutest details and has a far more accurate idea of its construction than the man who tears it down...the builder has a point of view different from that of the man who destroying. The sensation of seeing a harmonious whole fall into meaningless bits has nothing in common with the alternating impulses of hope, surprise or satisfaction which come to a workman as he sees his edifice slowly assuming its destined form. (AMM-II, p10)

This, Montessori states, is why there is no grammar book used. Children are encouraged and enabled to actively build sentences using the grammar boxes. In this way, children are introduced to the grammatical concepts....

Using the grammar boxes in this way is a method that has its roots in the early education curriculum. The first lesson in reading at this level, Montessori states, is the placing of a word written on a strip of paper on top of the object that the word names. In this way, the child is already distinguishing the noun from the other parts of speech. The child may not be aware of this, but she is nevertheless learning how to use nouns.

The elementary language curriculum begins with the 4th Great Lesson called The Story of Communication in signs. Before this lesson is given, however, it is a good idea to at least briefly introduce the children to the ideas of commerce and ancient civilizations. These may not be concepts the children have thought much about. The children are introduced to language as a grand idea only later to engage in the more detailed subject areas. The 4th Great Lesson is followed by a series of follow up stories about the alphabet, spoken language and their own language in particular.

The children then move on to the study of words. Montessori thought that a child's burgeoning interest in words, as opposed to sounds and letters, is the beginning of the child's elementary education in language. There is no overall order in which the different subject areas of the language curriculum need to be given to the child. However, there are certain lessons that have others as prerequisites. But it is not as if the child must complete the Word Study lessons before going on to Mechanics. There might be some sense to requiring the child to be at least introduced to a few of the lessons from the Parts of Speech before being introduced to lessons on Sentence Analysis. But this restriction is for the purpose of setting the child up for success, not to force his compliance with a set curriculum.
Review of Primary Language

The child comes into the primary class with a usable language and it is the teacher’s task to give keys to the child in order that he may use this language to explore the world sensorially. He should be given certain points on to which his consciousness can be focused based on that acquired unconsciously in his earlier years. If this is done, the child’s language continues to develop and becomes more and more functional.

It is important to remember that the points of consciousness must be connected in a way that considers the tendencies and psychological characteristics of the child at this age. This is why an understanding of the sensitive periods is important so that the wrong points of attachment are not given. As in the use of the sandpaper letters, they must be given to the young child not just to help him realize he knows something, but that he had not realized he knew it and at the same time make the child interested. At an older age, the child is disinterested in this kind of work.

The child making his language has already made classifications of sounds: (the human voice). When he comes into the primary class, almost immediately at 2 ½, we help him become conscious of the facts of language, that words are made of sounds and that he knew this but did not realize it. His language training goes on with preparation of the hand through the touch boards, geometric cabinet, fabrics and through enrichment of vocabulary exercises.

The child is first introduced to language visually with the sand paper letters which provide the key to language: the alphabet. Work with the sand paper letters is neither reading or writing but to help the child come to the realization that language, as well as spoken and heard, can be seen. The sand paper letters provide a tool for two-fold development: to help the child develop the mental ability to use language and the manual ability to write it.

Enrichment of Vocabulary:

The child at this age is interested in and at a sensitive period for learning words for their own sake. This built in interest for words should be catered to in the home environment and carried on in the primary classroom. Throughout the child’s time in the primary class, he will work with nomenclature material as a never ending source of words - even more than he already knows. The language program has to be built on discovery taking into account the tendency of children for the exploration of words.

Language Training:

Here the child is not given single words but sees them in relation to one another in stories, poems and prose. These should be…

One phenomenon which influenced Dr. Montessori was the ability of the young child to create his knowledge and that he does this wherever he is born at the same age. She compared this faculty with the difficulties faced by adults in learning a new language. Where adults find it almost impossible to learn a new language in a native accent, by the time a child is 2 ½ he has created a vocabulary in a native accent incorporating grammar, sentence structure, classification and an understanding of the language. This ability lead Montessori to the idea of the absorbent mind through which the child stores the language impressions he takes from his environment to develop his own language in his mother tongue. Because of his tremendous need for language to become part of the environment, he posseses a power which we do not have in later life.

The child’s activity in the first 2 ½ years of his life are geared to making that language. His ear is attracted to the sounds of humans as he begins to classify these. At 3 months he will turn his head to voices he hears while at 6 months he begins to practice syllabic sounds fixing his muscles for speaking the mother tongue. This ability leads the child to take what is necessary to fix his own language. A Language will never be as perfectly constructed as that made in the first 2 ½ years of life.
The child comes into the primary class with a language prepared to go another step by the environment afforded him in the Casa.

**Self-expression:**

Self expression should be allowed and encouraged in the classroom. There should be opportunities for the children to talk with each other and carry on conversations. This should not be in the form of a group lesson or “show-and-tell”, or something that must begin the morning. It should come about naturally as part of the life of the classroom and belonging to it.

**Preparation for Visualizing Language:**

The child begins this work with the sand paper letters and the moving alphabet, in which the teacher dictates the words so the child hears they are broken into sounds. He progresses to longer words and is gradually encouraged to use the movable alphabet for creative expression.

**Preparation for Reading:**

This is the process of analyzing words into their component parts. If the child does not do this spontaneously and begin to read back words he has constructed, then he has not done enough word building analysis. When the child is writing, he is working with his own language, making it visual. When he reads, he is working towards an unknown language until he analyzes, then synthesizes the words. The child will discover reading only at this sensitive period between 3 to 4½ and 5 if it is built up to. If missed, it must be taught the other way with reading first then writing.

**Other Helps to Writing:**

Along with the work with letters, the children also use the metal insets as a last preparation for writing, helping them to make their marks regular and within limits. When starting to write, certain points of interest should be taken up to help the child perfect his writing performance. The use of colored inks can be introduced to encourage this perfection and help the children see their writing as a work of art. If children have an interest in writing, this will be carried to the elementary class in which writing is of utmost importance.

**Further Helps to Reading:**

The children can be helped to make 3 discoveries. First of all, that some words are straightforward as each letter says a sound. These are phonetic words introduced through the phonetic object box in which the objects are continually changed. Next the child is shown that some sounds require two letters that sit together. This should be made an exploration letting the child know their are a few but not overwhelming him with too many. In the last discovery, the child finds that some words follow neither the phonetic or phonogram pattern, but have a way of their own. These are introduce as puzzle words and should be given to the children based on the ones they will encounter in their reading in a limited quantity. These can be taught through a 3 period lesson.

**Reading Classification Material:**

At this stage, the child goes back and reads the nomenclature material depending on how much work he did at the enrichment of vocabulary stage. This helps the child to intuitively read the material.
Function of Words and Word Analysis:

The child is given the function of word exercises not as grammar but as reading through the written slips of phrases and commands he is given and writing for himself and companions. It is a remote preparation of grammar for the elementary stage.

In his word analysis work, the child sees that words grouped together convey a thought, have a certain structure and order, and a particular place and position in a sentence. This again is reading, not grammar, and should include sentence writing.

Elementary Language Scheme:

The child in the first plane of development is concerned with the facts of language which he has to be allowed to explore sensorially. Because the psychological characteristics have changed in the child of the second plane, we can not give language merely as fact. Some of it may be fact, but our job is to help the child explore the reason behind the fact, the history surrounding it. If the child comes to the elementary class able to read and write, he can use language for the exploration of the origins and the development of language as well as the life of man in our universe.

Language has to be presented imaginatively if the child is to become interested. He should not be given rules of grammar, syntax, and spelling but rather the reasons for these particular rules and the writing skills necessary for his recording, reporting and finding out what can be done with his language. The enrichment of vocabulary, language training, writing, reading, function of words and reading analysis are all continued having set the foundation for these in the primary class but they are treated in a different manner. They now become elements for exploration as they fit into the history of the life of man. As the child has come from an adaptation to his family and home, he enters into the elementary class turning psychologically towards society outside of the home. It is the growth of these societies that have made the development of language possible which is what we open to the child now.

I. History of Language
   A. Writing
      1) (early)
         a. Prealphabetic
         b. Alphabet
         c. Development of Written Symbols
         d. Calligraphy
      2) Development of Printing
   B. The English Language
      1) Language Families Leading to English
      2) Development of English
      3) Etymology

Through his imagination, the child can follow the unfolding of the development of language; in particular his own language and how it changed as time went on. He will study the development of the written symbol, the writing materials and implements used, the story of printing as well as modern forms of communication if he so chooses. The purpose of tracing this story is not to make linguistic scholars of the children, but to give them the…

…of language which he may be interested in and want to find out more for himself.
II. Grammar and Syntax
A. Word Study
   1) Affixes
      a. Prefixes
      b. Suffixes
   2) Compound Words
   3) Word Families
   4) Synonyms
B. Parts of Speech
   1) Verbal Commands Introduction
   2) Grammar Boxes
   3) Written Commands
   4) Classification Charts
C. Sentence Analysis

In order to speak and write clearly, the child must understand the rules of grammar and syntax, but these need not be given as dry exercises. Instead, they should be given as part of history developed through time. In this way, historical reasons become an answer to spelling difficulties, irregular rules, tendencies, and exceptions to the rule. Help the child realize that language is interesting because we attach it to life not to grammar exercises in books.

III. Written Composition
A. Free Expression
   1) Imaginative
   2) Factual
B. Practice
   1) Form and Content
   2) Punctuation
   3) Spelling
   4) Hand Writing
   5) Illustration and Decoration
C. Written Reports
D. Letter Writing
E. Poetry
F. Drama
G. Dialogue
H. Style

Since a great deal of work in the elementary class is concerned with reporting and recording, we need to help the child write factually, clearly and precisely. As he will be recording resources, we need to help him in taking notes and help him to write from these imaginatively. If the child has not come from the primary class and is not accustomed to illustrating his work with pictures or sketches, or decorating it, he should be shown how to make his work artistically pleasant so he will be pleased with it. In this way, written work does not become a task, but a work of art.

IV. Spoken Language
A. Speeches
B. Discussions and Debates
C. Reports
D. Resitations
E. Dialogue
F. Drama

As in the primary class, the children should be encouraged to talk and carry on conversations with one another. Their preparation for speaking in public, i.e. how to approach people, ask for help, make comments to people etc., should be continued. This can be taken care of through their written work as it should result in spoken expositions.

V. Literature
A. Books Read By Children
   1) Class Library
   2) Public Library
B. Stories and Poetry Read By the Teacher
C. Interpretive Reading
D. Biographies of Writers
E. Literature Time Line
F. History of English Literature
G. History of American Literature

In the primary class, children should have heard stories towards the end and have read them for themselves. These would be true life stories about everyday events and life and should include poetry about the same subjects. In the elementary class, there is a twofold approach to continuing the hearing and reading of stories for themselves. There should be a great variety of opportunities for such activity and need not always be real, true to life stories. The children at this age like allegory, personification, myth and begin to enjoy adventure stories. The class library should be limited so the child can be helped to go out and explore elsewhere for reading material. It is important that books be read for pleasure and not analyzed and dissected. The students should be given the opportunity to read widely and to discuss what they liked and disliked in the books. The writers who’s books they read can also be put in historical context; within time in history and the social setting.

VI. Research

Research goes on throughout the program, more towards the end of the 9 to 12 class. Children at all levels should be able to carry out an elementary form of research into the history of language making for themselves, individually or in a group, a special study.

Work in all the chapters must go parallel. The beginning of all the chapters are the beginning of all language work in the class. There is a developmental pattern in all and some in particular have to have the beginning knowledge for an understanding of the later work. Yet there are no ages for the work. When a child is presented a lesson, he may go on if he wishes but is not required to. None of the work belongs to a particular level.

The teacher has to take care to give a variety of presentations. After the initial presentation, introducing the subject of language, one group can follow up one aspect, another on a different one. In this way, it is possible that the children will learn from one another. The teacher should note what work is being done and fill in with presentations in areas that are not being covered by the class. After presentations, as in all areas of work, the teacher should give suggestions for follow-up work until the time the children have their own ideas of what to do.

Where there is no exact knowledge on a subject but only theories and approximate dates etc, information should be given as such stating “some say this”…“perhaps it was like this”…“others say this”. The study of language must be connected to the needs of man chart and tied into the history of it’s own development.
# History of Language

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<td>The Story About Writing</td>
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</table>
History of Language

Communication in Signs Story
The History of Written Language

Notes:
1. Do the activity with 8-10 children
2. Don’t ask the children too many questions; if they are really interested, they will come up with their own questions and wonder on their own, but it is all right to stimulate their minds after.

Materials:
Pictures of pictographs, cave drawings, hieroglyphics, Phoenician writing, modern writing, etc…

Presentation:
Tell the story of writing as on the following pages.

Purpose:
To explain how spoken language became visible. Most importantly, we are exposing the children to prehistory to give them a sense of gratitude and respect for this gift of written language.

Follow Up Activities:
1. Give the details on the development of writing
2. Ask the children to do research on the topics they want.
3. Brainstorm about questions – research, notes
4. Make paper with children so they can see how much work it is
5. Exploration on the other alphabets and picture writing
6. Write their own names with different alphabets
History of Language

Development of the Alphabet
Details on the Development of Writing

Materials:
Research information

Presentation: Topics to Discuss
1. Sumerians
2. Egyptians
3. Phoenicians
4. Greeks and Romans
5. Carolinian
6. End of Middle Ages
7. Invention of Printing
8. Invention of Paper
9. Later improvements in Printing

Follow Up/Extensions:
Discuss international road signs, signs for mathematics as well as astronomy and biology signs and symbols.

Notes:
1. This is for all children and it could help motivate those who haven’t started to research.
2. These are Mini Stories that will serve as a follow up to the communication of sign story.
3. Refer back to the story of communication, and give more details
4. Children should study the culture of the groups studied in relation to their contribution to the development of writing. It should be pointed out that with written records we get a more certain knowledge of human history and with printing an added permanence was established.
5. Details should be given according to the children’s interest
History of Language
The History of the Spoken Language

Presentation:
1. Gather a group of children
2. Ask the children, “I wonder what it was like to be the very first people on earth? Why did they start to speak? What did they need to talk about?”
3. Allow discussion
4. Tell the children “No one really knows for sure, but it may have been that the early people were trying to find food to eat, just like you do when you are hungry. Maybe they needed to try to discover where some edible plants were, or where some animals to hunt were roaming. Maybe they were cold and they were trying to figure out how to put on clothes just like you did when you got dressed this morning. What do you think might have happened?”
5. Ask who would like to pretend to be the very first people on earth and have children put on little skits or plays. Explain that they don’t have language- no words, and they are very hungry and have just found apples to eat and want the rest of their family to know. What would they do?
6. Come up with different scenarios and theories about how language developed and then introduce some of the other theories, explaining that because no one really knows, all of our guesses are possible.

Theories:
- Bow-wow Theory - Language came about as an imitation of natural sounds like those animals make i.e. quack, and splash.
- Poo-Poo Theory – Idea is that humans are expressing emotions, of pain or joy.
- Yo-Hee-Ho Theory– human beings having to work together and needing to synchronise their movements
- Gesture Theory – Idea that early language started with gestures
- Musical Theory– Began with sounds produced in songs
- Contact Theory – Animals calling to each other made sounds and human beings imitated this i.e. hello.
- Command Theory – Maybe first words came from commands i.e. run, hunt, jump, stop

7. Tell the children, “Just as we are not sure how written language originated, we don’t know how or when spoken language began. Early people must have made sounds and these may have had meanings to other people. Without the development of spoken language, human beings could not accomplish much. There are a lot of theories and guesses about how spoken language began. They are all based on the idea that early humans needed to communicate.

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Short lessons (minor stories-The story of the Ox and the house)
2. Let the students come up with their own theories.
4. Dictionary of early cave people’s words
5. Potato printing or linoleum block printing
6. Expedition - Go to print shop, newspaper…

Notes: Tell the children we don’t know if there was only one language or several, we can only imagine how language began and who started it. Until written records of language were developed, history before this can only be speculated on. We can really only know very well as far back as 10,000 years (Fischer 1999).
**History of Language**

**Development of the English Language**

Materials:

- Family tree of English history chart and maps

Presentation: Histories

1. Invite the group.

2. Say, “All the European languages and Persian and Hindustani belonged to one single language group, which is, called Indo-European. And because it was one original language it must have spread out from one single point at a definite historical moment. Author Geoffrey Bibby believes that the ancestor of the language that we speak today came from cattle-herding nomads who moved from Russia to central Europe approximately 4000 years ago.”

3. Throw out questions: “Who were these herders? What did Europe look like at that time?”

4. “Europe at that time was a farming community; the people that we know about include a group of people that built huge tombs as common burial sites. There was also a group that was called the Bell-Beakers due to the shape of their pottery. It was a very peaceful time in history. There were the tomb builders, the bell beakers, and the farmers all living side-by-side. Into this scene came the battle-axe people. Their battle-axes were made of copper and polished stone. One interesting about them is that they buried their men laid on their right sides, heads facing west, while the women were laid on their left sides, heads facing east. Their battle axes were placed in front of their eyes. These people were Caucasian. They came from the steppes of Russia and had domesticated the horse. It is believed that their language was Indo-European (see Bibby for further information).”

5. Show children the charts. Children can expand the charts.


7. Maps should be presented to illustrate where these people came from.

8. “When we come to English, we find there is no single parent. There was Celtic influence, from the Celts who inhabited England even before the Romans. They left a very small mark on the English language. The history of language is like the history of conquest.” (Read Beowulf book of the W. Saxon)
Other Invasions:

1. Latin: Christianity comes to England. This is the reason why we have so many Latin derived words.

2. 8-10th century – The Scandinavians invaded and brought in their words. Our word “are” is an example of a Scandinavian word. Viking conquest.

3. 11th century - the Norman's conquered England, there are French-derived English words but French died out when King John of Normandy lost to the French. French continued to be used until 1362 when parliament was opened by a king speaking English. English was then used from then on becoming the new standard for language and was based on a dialect spoken around London.

4. 16th century – There was a revival in reading and technical terms from Greek.

5. The English of the very first American settlers came from the English of Shakespeare like for the verb

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Shakespearean</th>
<th>English</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To get</td>
<td>begot</td>
<td>gotten</td>
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</table>

6. Some of our difficulties with spelling can be traced to the Norman invasion. With the Norman’s, came their scribes who used a continental style of writing instead of the Celtic scrip of old English. This style of writing lead to great difficulty in telling how many strokes had been made in such letters as “u”, “n”, “m”. In some cases, the scribe began to write “o” instead of “u”. The sounds of the Old English were kept while the scribes changed the way they were written.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old English:</th>
<th>sunu</th>
<th>cuman</th>
<th>lufu</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Middle English:</td>
<td>sone</td>
<td>comen</td>
<td>love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern English:</td>
<td>son</td>
<td>come</td>
<td>love</td>
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</tbody>
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Read poem – “Why English is so Difficult”

$ English language has been enriched by all these different languages

Follow Up Activities:

1. Look at family tree of other languages.
2. Ask the children where a word comes from, what language is at the root of it?
3. Tell the children there are some languages that are not spoken by the whole country.

Notes:

1. Fischer, Steven A History of Language
2. Reference: The Testimony of the Spade by Geoffrey Bibby
3. Reference: 4000 Years Ago by Jeffrey Bibby
4. The histories are short lessons to be told in 5-10 minutes
Once there was a boy who had no name. It was the custom of his people to choose a name once a child had done a brave deed. A drought came to the land of this boy. The river began to dry up and soon there was nothing to eat. The plants had withered and the wild animals had moved on in search for food. The people had to leave and search for water.

The boy had a dog, and some of his tribesman wanted to use the dog for food. The boy pleaded for the life of his dog saying that the dog was a good hunter and that he and his dog would find food. And so the boy and his dog went into the dry mountains to search for food. They hunted many days and became weak from hunger and thirst. Then the boy spied three deer. He and the dog tracked the deer into a canyon. In the hidden canyon were water, grass, and many other deer. The boy cut a strip of birch bark and scratched this message into the bark:

He tied the strip to the dog and the dog returned to the village.

Days later, all the tribes people returned to the canyon, led by the dog. They gave honor to the boy by naming him Boy-who-has-made-his-people-happy-and-healthy-by-finding-a-rich-herd-of-deer-and-water. When the boy was grown and became chief of his people, he was known as Rich-herd.
Minor Stories
The Story of the Ox in the House

Materials:
1. Progression of language control chart
2. Three part cards
   - Picture
   - Title with date
   - Definition
3. BC/AD Time lines

Presentation:
1. Gather a group of children
2. Lay out the progression of language control chart.
3. Tell the children, “These forms of writing were used for ages and ages. It shows the history of at least one letter of our alphabet. Historians call the history of our alphabet The Story of the Ox and the House. The first alphabet was invented by Semitic peoples about 2000 BC in Egypt. The Phoenicians, a later Semitic people, are responsible for having spread the alphabet beyond the Semitic world and to the Greeks. They did a lot of trading and they needed a fast way of communicating.
4. Show the Phoenician chart. Lay out BC/AD timeline on the floor.
5. Use the three part cards, Have the children place the cards in the appropriate date, title and definitions. Start first with picture cards with the control chart, then the title which includes the date and lastly the definition.

Follow Up Activities:
1. Record the information in a language notebook
2. Write their names or sentences or paragraph using the early alphabets
3. Practice letter writing in clay
4. Discuss the development of paper, make paper
Word Study

- Compound Words
- Affixes
  - Suffix
  - Prefixes
- Antonym
- Synonym
- Homophone
- Homonym
- Homograph
- Word Families
- Word Study Extensions
Word Study
This presentation can be done before all of the other word study presentations, as it introduces the concept of root words. Present this right after presenting the noun.

Compound Words

Materials:
Basket with **black** and **red** markers, sentence strips, and scissors; object for each root word used, as well as an object for each compound word formed by the pairs (for example a pin, a wheel, and a pinwheel).

Compound Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Put out a toy bowling pin and ask for name. “Yes, it’s a pin.” Write ‘pin’ in black and place beneath the actual pin on rug.

   ![pin]

3. Show a wheel and ask for name, writing it as above and placing beneath the pin.

   ![wheel]

4. “Watch this.” Slide the two root words together. “Can anyone read that?” When ‘pinwheel’ is read, write the word and place it to the side of the root word objects.

   ![pinwheel]

5. “When I put together ‘pin’ and ‘wheel’ I get a new word: pinwheel.”
6. Repeat for next word, with finger and nail making fingernail.
7. Repeat with foot and ball making football.
8. Indicate the words ‘pin’ and ‘wheel’. “These two words when they are alone, we call root words. A root word is a word that has meaning.” Write ‘root word’ and place it above the column where the root words and objects are located.

   ![root word]

9. “When you take two root words and combine them, the new word you create is a called a compound word.” Write ‘compound’ and place above compound words.

   ![compound]

10. “Pin is a root word, wheel is a root word, pinwheel is a compound word.” Repeat for all the words.
11. “Root words have the power to make new words when they are combined.
12. “I’ve just given you your Compound Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug.
13. Write the etymology on a strip in black and place beneath title.

   *The word ‘compound’ comes from the Latin word ‘componere’ which means to combine.*
14. “Please record this in your language folder and share it with me when you finish. Draw a picture for each root word and compound.”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Various “skyscraper” drawers, such as building an arc of words with cards, each card having a root word to the left and to the right. There is a card with one word on the right to start the arc, and a card with one on the left to end it. The child must match the words up so they all make sense.
2. Make cards of compounds where the child separates the two roots, recording them in her folder.
3. Purchase puzzle cards of compounds from an educational supply company.
4. Make cards that use the same root in combination with many others (pillbox, toolbox, mailbox, etc…)
5. Make charts or booklets of compound words organized in different ways.
6. Provide a word like ball and have children come up with as many compounds as they can using this word.

Notes:
This presentation can be done before all of the other word study presentations, as it introduces the concept of root words. Present this right after presenting the noun.
Word Study
Suffix

Materials:
1. Suffix chart No. 1 – the root has stayed the same and the suffix has changed.
2. Suffix chart No 2 – different roots, suffix stays the same.
3. 2 small movable alphabet – black and red.
4. pencil.
5. 2 pens – black and red.
6. sentence strips, and scissors.
7. a toy motorized tractor or train engine, a trailer or box car that hitches onto the engine and is not motorized.

Suffix Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Turn on or rev the tractor to make it move and make noise for the children.
3. “Have you ever seen one of these? Do you hear that sound? Do you know what the sound represents?” (a motor) “It can move by itself because it has a very powerful motor.”
4. Move the tractor aside and take out the trailer.
5. “Do you know what this is?” Discuss the trailer. “It can’t move on its own, but look! If you fasten it behind the tractor, the tractor has power and now the trailer can move.”
6. Ask two children to go and get a movable alphabets; one black, one red.
7. Bring the students to the chart area in the room.
8. Have one child choose a word in the first column of chart #1. Ask the child to read the word and then read the words across: sing, singer, singing.
9. The child looks at the words and read it a couple of times.
   Go back to the table and have the child spell out the first word using the small black movable alphabet. Then have the child lay out the second and third words under the first word. The child can refer back to the chart if needed.
   sing, singer, singing

10. Ask the 2nd child to look at the chart and choose a line of words to lay out in the same way.
11. Ask the child, if the first word is contained in any of the other words. And if so, where it ends
12. Give the definition of suffix, “These letters that are fastened behind sing are called suffixes, which come from the Latin which means to fasten behind and they change the meanings of these words.” (See below for more on the Latin.)
13. Have the child exchange the black suffix letters to red
   sing, singer, singing
14. Get the chart and check. (The control of error)
15. Repeat with artist, farmer. “Do those letters mean anything to you? (ist, er) Not really, but if you add ‘ist’ to the powerful word ‘art’, it gets meaning. Now it is ‘artist’.”
16. “But if you take the word farm which has meaning and add this ‘er’ behind it, it gets meaning. Now it is ‘farmer’.” Discuss at will.
17. “The word ‘farm’ is a root word. The word ‘art’ is a root word.” Write ‘root word’ in red on a strip and place above the other words. “Root words have meaning.”
18. Indicate the words in red. “These groups of letters are called suffixes.” Write ‘suffix’ in red on a strip and place above suffixes, separating the suffixes and root words.
19. “A long, long, long time ago people didn’t speak English, and they didn’t speak Italian, or French, or many other languages that they speak today around the world. In one part of the world there were people who spoke a language called Latin. This language isn’t spoken anymore but many words in our language, English, come from Latin. The word suffix comes from a Latin word, suffigere, which means to fasten beneath or below.” Pronounced “suf-fig-er-a”. “suf-” is really “sub” that changes to “suf” before figere. “sub” generally means “below” or “underneath”. “figio” means “to bind, fasten”. “sub” can mean “next to or immediately after”. This last sense of “sub” comes from ranking people (like in the military). If you were “directly under” someone in terms of rank, then you were “immediately after him” in terms of rank. Write the etymology on a strip in black and place above title.

‘Suffix’ comes from the Latin word ‘suffigere’ which means to fasten beneath or below.

20. “I’ve just given you your Suffix Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug.
21. “Please record this lesson in your language folder and show me when you are finished. Be sure to write the suffix in red.”

Exercises 2:
1. Same procedure as in steps 6-14.
2. Skip a step, have the children do the roots in black and the suffixes in red right away.

Exercise 3:
1. Introduce part of word that is common to each in line as the root, and tell the children the word sing is called root. Show examples and related to root as part of plant with which it grows.
2. Have the children write down what they have done in the movable alphabet.

Exercise 4: Chart No. 2
1. Refer to the first exercise or second exercise.
2. All the same, except you are using a different chart. The roots are different but the suffixes the same.
3. The children can write down what they built with the movable alphabet.
4. They can write in a grammar book

Purpose:
To lead the children to look for other examples of suffixes in their writing and research. They can make lists of other suffixes, which is why we don’t give every possible suffix to them.

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Various “skyscraper” drawers such as a stack of root words and a stack of suffixes which you place into columns and attempt to match, building words that make sense. Another drawer has root and suffix together and the child can take the two apart and write root separate from suffix in their folder.
2. Make cards that have a few root words with only two suffixes, such as –er and –ing. Children can see how many words take these endings, like farm, teach, bake, etc…
3. Make a set of suffixes and roots and put them in a box with some command cards telling different
activities: choose eight root words and eight suffixes, and see if you can match them all up; choose eight suffixes and make up root words to go with them; choose one root word and think of or find many suffixes to go with it; choose one suffix and think of many root words to go with it

Notes:
1. Suffix is the symbol or letters fixed at the end of an existing word that modifies its meaning. The suffix has no meaning of its own. Most have been taken over from Greek, Latin, or French.
2. Give suffix first before prefix
3. AMI – The chart remains on the wall or the shelf and not to be initially taken to the desk to discourage copying.
4. Make new suffix chart every two years so as not to bore the child.
5. Limit the materials to let the child discover.
6. This word study of suffix should be presented after the history of language as soon as possible.
7. The Montessori language materials are not supposed to replace grammar books, but materials are to isolate each area.
Word Study
Prefixes

Materials:
Basket with **black** and **red** markers, sentence strips, and scissors; a toy wheel, unicycle, bicycle, tricycle, a triceratops and a triangle.

Prefix Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Put out the wheel and ask the children if they know what it is. The wheel should have a line marked in white across it. Place the wheel on a piece of paper with this white line touching the paper, showing the children and making a mark on the paper. Roll the wheel along the paper from this point until the mark on the wheel is touching the paper again. Make another mark at this point.
3. “Do you know what this is called? It’s a cycle. The complete rotation of a wheel is called a cycle.” Write the word in black and place it above the wheel on the rug.

4. Bring out the unicycle. “Do you know what this is?” Write ‘”uni” in red and “cycle” in black, placing them together beneath the unicycle.

5. Bring out the bicycle and have the children identify it, writing “bi” in red and “cycle” in black.
6. Repeat this with the tricycle.

7. “Cycle.” Indicate the wheel and the cycle on paper. “Unicycle. ‘Uni’ means one and a unicycle has one wheel. Bicycle. ‘Bi’ means two and a bicycle has two wheels. Tricycle. ‘Tri’ means three and a tricycle has three wheels.”
8. “Now remember that ‘tri’ means three. What’s this?” Show a triangle. “A triangle is a shape with three sides. And what’s this?” Show a triceratops. “A triceratops is a dinosaur with three horns.” Write each word as above when you introduce it.
9. “Uni, bi, and tri come before the root word.
We call these groups of letters that come before a root word **prefixes**.” Write this in red.

10. Write the etymology on a strip in black and place beneath title.

The word ‘prefix’ comes from a Latin word ‘praefigere’ which means to fasten before or set up in front. (praee---before, figere---to fix, fasten)
11. “I’ve just given you your **Prefix Key Experience.**” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug.
12. “Please record this lesson in your language folder. Be sure to write all the prefixes in red and draw pictures of the words.”

**Follow Up/Extensions:**
1. Various “skyscraper” drawers similar to those for suffixes.
2. Make charts of roots and prefixes.

**Additional Presentations:**

**Note:** Do not give complete lists of affixes; give key to exploring in language.

**Prerequisite:**
- The child should have had a lot of practice with suffixes
- He should be able to pick out the root word

**Materials:**
- The prefix chart
- Two small movable alphabets – black and red

**Exercise:**
1. Tell the child, “I am going to give you some words and see if you can pick out the root.”
   Example: place, misplace, displace
2. Ask the child to spell out the words using the movable alphabet, with the root in black and the prefix in red.
   
   place, **mis**place, **re**place

3. Tell the child we put these letters at the beginning of the word and it is called a prefix. Prefix comes from the Latin word that means to fasten before a word and it changes the meaning of the word.
4. Ask the child, “Does misplace mean to replace?” to reinforce the concept.
5. The child goes to look at the prefix chart when she forgets how to spell a word.
6. Use chart as control to check work.

**Extensions:**
1. Let child explore and find as many words as possible.
2. Write words using black and red pencils.
3. Look in dictionary to find prefixes and suffixes.
Word Study
Antonym

Materials:
Basket with black and red markers, sentence strips and scissors; two ribbons of the same color, one short and one long; two balls of the same color, one small and one large; two jars of the same kind, one full of colored water and one empty

Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Place the two ribbons out for the children to view.
3. Write “the long ribbon” and ask the children to read it. “Can you find the long ribbon?” Place the card.
4. Write “the short ribbon” and have the children read, find, and place the card beneath.
5. Now place out the two balls and repeat, writing “the large ball” and “the small ball”.
6. Now do the same with the jars with “empty” and “full”.
7. “Let’s look at these words.” Read the first cards for the ribbons. “What’s different between these two cards?” Children should notice long and short. Cut those words out of the card and place beneath the ribbons.
8. Repeat for the balls and the jars, cutting out large, small, full and empty.
9. “Let’s look at these groups of words.” Say them in pairs. “What can you tell me about these words?” Reread them. Someone should mention the word “opposites”.
10. “That’s right. The opposite of long is short, the opposite of large is small, and the opposite of full is empty.”
11. “Long, long ago people called the Greeks noticed the pattern of these kinds of words and gave them the name antonymum, which means opposed to the name. Today we call them antonyms.” Write the etymology, as well as the word antonym, placing the latter above the pairs of opposites.
12. “I’ve just given you your Antonym Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug.
13. “Please record this in your language folder and share it with me when you finish. When you write the antonyms I would like you to draw a picture of each one.”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Encourage the children to think of other antonyms and to notice antonyms as they read and do research.
2. Find a good book of opposites, and have the child read it and write down pairs of antonyms.
3. Make charts or booklets of compound words organized in different ways.
Notes:
Synonyms: words that have the same meaning.

Materials:
Synonym chart

Exercise:
1. Build words that have similar meaning
2. Give them two words that have the same meaning and ask them to come up with other words. For example:
   - Dog, mutt, canine, pooch, hound - nouns
   - Petite, little, small, minute, minuscule - adjectives
3. Give the etymology of the word synonym. It comes from the Greek word synonumos (συνονυμοσ). The word literally means “same-name”. “syn” means “same” and “onumos” means “name”.

Extensions:
1. Dictionary of synonyms
Teach this in connection with writing essays. It makes writing their essays more interesting for them. It helps the children write better.
Word Study

Homophone

Materials:
Basket with **black** and **red** markers, sentence strips, and scissors; pairs of objects that represent homophones, such as hair and hare, flour and flower, scent (perfume) and a cent

Homophone Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Place the hair on the rug and ask what it is. Write the word and place beneath. Now show the picture of the hare. Write the word “hare”.
3. Continue showing, identifying, and writing the names for each pair.
4. “Let’s look at these words: hair, hare. Do they sound the same? Are they spelled the same? Do they mean the same thing? (Discuss) These words have different spellings, different meanings, but they sound the same. There is a special name for words like these. They are called homophones.” Write the word and place above.
5. “This word comes to us from the Greek word homosphone, which means same sound. Homophones have the same sound.” Write the etymology.
6. “This has been your **Homophone Key Experience**.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug.
7. “Please record this in your language folder and share it with me when you finish.”

Follow Up/Extensions:

1. Have children read Amelia Bedelia and write down homophones they discover.
2. Make cards for children to match.
3. Make charts or booklets of homophones.
Word Study

Homonym

Materials:
Basket with **black** and **red** markers, sentence strips, and scissors; **pairs of objects** that represent homonyms, such as a calf (animal) and a calf (leg), a picture of the land form ‘cape’ and a person wearing a cape, a toy fan and a picture of a sports fan (person at a sporting event cheering).

Homonym Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Set out the homonyms one at a time, soliciting the name and then writing it on paper strips. Help as needed with terminology or acting out.
3. “Let’s look at these words. Is there anything the same about them? Calf, calf. Cape, cape. Fan, fan.” Children should notice they sound the same and are spelled the same.
4. “Is there anything different about these words?” They should notice they mean different things.
5. “When words sound the same but have different meanings we call them homonyms.” Write this word and put it on the rug.
6. “This word comes to us from the Greek word homosonyma, which means same name.” Write the etymology. “When you look at these words they have the same written name.”
7. “This has been your Homonym Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug.
8. “Please record this in your language folder and share it with me when you finish.”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Make cards for children to match.
2. Children can make charts or booklets of homonyms.

Notes:
Homonyms have the same spelling, they sound the same, but they have different meanings.
Word Study

Homograph

Materials:
Basket with black and red markers, sentence strips, and scissors; pairs of objects that represent homographs, or supplement these with actions/charades as some homographs may not be nouns.

Homograph Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Present the homographs one at a time, soliciting the name and then writing the homograph on a strip of paper. Help as needed with terminology or acting out.

3. “Let’s look at these words. Is there anything the same about them? Bow, bow, sow, sow, wind, wind.” Children should notice they are spelled the same.
4. “Is there anything different about these words?” They should notice they sound different and mean different things. Discuss with the children.
5. “When words are spelled the same but have different sounds and meanings we call them homographs.” Write this word and put it on the rug.

6. Write the etymology.

This word comes from the Greek word ‘homographein’ which means to write the same.

“When you look at these words they are written the same, but they don’t sound the same.”
7. “This has been your Homograph Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug.
8. “Please record this in your language folder and share it with me when you finish.”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Make cards for children to match.
2. Make charts or booklets of homographs.

Notes:
Homographs have the same spelling but have different sounds and meanings. Examples include bow, sow, wind, lead, read, desert, console, invalid, and close.
Word Study

Word Families

Notes:
In word families we have words that are related to each other through their root but add a prefix and or suffix, sometimes both to make other words.

Materials:
Word families chart, two small movable alphabets, black and red pens, and paper

Exercise 1:
1. Have the child to go to the word family chart and read a line of words across.
2. Ask the child to build the words with the movable alphabet with roots in black and prefixes and suffixes in another color.
   politics
   politician
   politically
   political
   impolitic

Exercise 2:
Have the child choose a family of words and write a definition for its root and for each word as it is changed by the affix.

Extensions:
1. Advanced work - ask the children if they notice the changes in the function of the words
   politics – noun, plural
   politician – noun, singular
   politically - adverb
   political - adjective
   impolitic - adjective

2. The children can choose one of the word families and try to write a definition for each word so they can see how the word meanings change. All the words in the same word family have something to do with each other or something in common.
3. Work with a dictionary.
# Mechanics

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Materials:
Sets of lowercase and uppercase letters all cut up into separate letters, a complete alphabet chart with both cases as a control.

Capitalization Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of about five children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Divide up the lowercase letters among them, telling them you are passing out the lowercase alphabet.
3. “Let’s put these letters in order. What letter comes first?” Start them laying out the letters, adding rugs as needed until all are in order.
4. “Now we will match the uppercase alphabet to the lowercase alphabet. The uppercase letters are called capitals.” Divide up the capitals between the children.
5. “Here is the lowercase ‘a’. Who has the capital ‘A’?” If they need help they can consult the chart. Have them put the capital below the lowercase letter.
6. Once complete, leave this work out for a few days so they can copy it bit by bit.
7. “I’ve just given you your Capitalization Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug. “Please fold a paper in your language folder in half vertically. On one side of the fold write the lowercase letter and on the other side write the capital in red.”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Writing first name: have younger children write their first name, using a red pencil for the first letter which is a capital. They can write their name and the names of four of their friends in their folder.
2. Fill in: older children could have a series of statements to fill in, like “my teacher’s name is _______, my name is _______, my mother’s name is _______, etc…” This could be a long list of questions about names
3. Favorite Book/Movie: teach older children how to write book and movie titles and record them in their folder.
4. Places: have children practice writing addresses, city and state, city and country, as well as adding a continent to those others
5. I: show children how to capitalize ’I’, writing sentences with the’ I’ in red, like “I feel happy. How hot I feel. etc…”
7. More: move into days of week, months, geography, brands, events, structures, people, proper nouns and common nouns, etc…”
Mechanics

Period

Materials:

Piece of string, a red bead (from math boards), black and red pens, sentence strips

Mechanics Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Write:

   all vertebrates

3. Read it aloud and ask, “Is that enough? Do you want more? Do you really know what I’m thinking about all vertebrates? Does that make sense-- All vertebrates?” They should want more.
4. Add writing:

   all vertebrates have backbones

5. “Now we have a complete thought. A complete thought is a group of words that make sense. A complete thought is called a sentence.”
6. Cut a piece of string and circle it around the sentence to emphasize completeness.
7. “Whenever you have a sentence you have to stop it. I am going to put a red dot here at the end of my sentence to stop it. This dot is called a period.” Add the red bead, then remove bead and make a red dot (not a circle).

   all vertebrates have backbones

8. “Remember when we talked about capital letters? Which word here needs to be capitalized?” That’s right, the beginning of the sentence. Mark over the ’ a’ in “all” with red to make an ’A’.

   All vertebrates have backbones

9. “I’ve just given you your Period Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug. “Please record this being sure to put a capital letter in red at the beginning of the sentence and a red period at the end...”
10. ‘Period’ is from the Greek “periodos”. “peri” adds the meaning of roundness to a word (“peri-walk” in Greek means to walk around). “odos” in Greek means road, or path (in religion it means “the way”). “periodos” originally meant “a going around” or “a way around” but then came to mean something like “the course of a life” and the “orbit of a heavenly body”. Aristotle then used the word to mean “a well-rounded sentence”, hence the period. Putting a period at the end of a sentence thus means that you think the sentence has come full circle or completed a “course”, i.e. that it is complete.
Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Classify sentences and non-sentences under two heading cards saying: This is a sentence, or, This is a phrase. Be sure there are no clues like periods or capitals.
2. Have them read Nora Gallagher’s book, How to Stop a Sentence.
3. In their second year do a follow-up teaching about abbreviation: Write the days of the week on cards and array vertically. Read them aloud, emphasizing ‘day’. Say, “What do you notice at the end of these words, about the last three letters? That’s right. We can shorten or abbreviate these words. We can cut day off Monday and put a period after it.” Continue to Tuesday, and then talk about how we can shorten Wednesday even more. Continue through the week. Produce a second set of cards with the abbreviated days of the week. Have them record both sets. Give the Latin word for abbreviate-abbreviare - meaning to shorten. Students can then do various skyscrapers with days of week, months, special names, etc…

Notes:
- Do not make your period like a circle or the children will do this. Instead allow the pen to sit on the paper for a moment so it bleeds into a clear mark.
Materials:
A fish hook, a red bead (from math boards), **black** and **red** pens, sentence strips.

Question Mark Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Write:

   ![](image1.png)

3. “Do you remember last week when we talked about sentences? How do you stop a sentence?” (With a period.) Add the red bead like a period at end of sentence.

   ![](image2.png)

4. “This period doesn’t exactly make sense here, because we are asking a question. Asking a question is a lot like fishing: you throw out a question and you hope for an answer. When you are fishing you throw out a line with a hook and hope for a fish. When we are saying something and we hope for an answer we use a question mark at the end of our sentence. It looks a lot like a fishing hook.”

5. Remove the red bead and write in a red dot in its place. Place the fishhook above it so that it resembles a question mark. Then replace the hook with a question mark, written in red.

   ![](image3.png)

6. Write this on a strip:

   ![](image4.png)

   The word question mark comes from a Latin word, quaero, which means to seek. You are seeking an answer when you ask a question.

7. “I’ve just given you your Question Mark Key Experience. Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug. “Please record this being sure to put a capital letter in red at the beginning of the sentence and a red question mark at the end.”

   ![](image5.png)

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Skyscrapers where you separate questions from statements when there is no punctuation.
Mechanics

Exclamation Point

Materials:
A small club, black and red pens, sentence strips, a red bead.

Exclamation Point Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. “In early times great hunters had competitions to see which of them was the best hunter. Prizes were given and perhaps the best hunter was given a beautiful club like this one here. The winner may have raised his club overhead like this, to show great power, and excitement about winning. The hunter may have said things like, ‘I am the best! This hunt was great! Tonight we feast!’”
3. Write these sentences out without punctuation and show them to the children.

```
I am the best
This hunt was great
Tonight we feast
```

4. “Are these sentences?” Read them aloud. “How do you stop a sentence?” Place a red bead at the end of the first sentence in the row and mark a dot on the others.

```
I am the best
This hunt was great
Tonight we feast
```

5. “When we want to show a sentence has great power or great excitement, we stop it with a mark that looks like this club.”
6. Place the club above the red bead, and draw in the exclamation mark on other sentences.

```
I am the best
This hunt was great!
Tonight we feast!
```

7. “This mark I have made in red is called an exclamation point. Exclamation comes from the Latin word clamare, meaning to cry out. (“ex” is a prefix meaning something like “out”. “clamare” means “to call” although it already has the sense of being somewhat forceful (“to cry out”), so adding “ex” to the beginning of the word really makes it forceful.) When we want to cry something out we use an exclamation point.”
8. “I’ve just given you your Exclamation Point Key Experience. Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug. “Please record this being sure to put a capital letter in red at the beginning of the sentence and a red exclamation point at the end.”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Teach about how sometimes you only need one word to make a sentence with an exclamation point. Help! Fire! Wow!
2. Read the book by Chris Raschka called Yo! Yes? First read it with no expression, quickly. Then tell the class you are going to read it differently. (Oh! I forgot what an exclamation mark is. Now I’ll read it paying attention to the exclamation marks.”) Read with great emphasis.

Notes:
For this presentation it is optional to dress as an early cave dweller brandishing a club.
Mechanics

Apostrophe

Materials:
Black and red pens, sentence strips

Apostrophe Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Write a word: was. “What word is that?”
3. Then write a second word after it: not. Children can read that.
4. “We can combine these words. Do you know another way to say “was not” more quickly? Let’s try it in a sentence: ‘She was not happy.” (Say it faster and faster until “wasn’t” is said.)
6. Write: wasn’t. “We take out the ‘o’ and replace it with a mark called an apostrophe.”
7. Cross out the ‘o’ from the first two words, was and not. Then add an apostrophe in red where the ‘o’ would be in the new word, so you have wasn’t.
8. Indicate apostrophe. “This is an apostrophe. It takes the place of a letter or letters.”

   was  not
   wasn  wasn’t

9. “Let’s try another one.” (Give a very different example: I will---I’ll)
10. Repeat with has not, and can not showing how they become contractions.
11. “The word apostrophe comes from a Greek word apostrephein meaning to turn away.” It can be used in the sense of turning someone back or away. ‘apo’ means “from” or “away”. ‘strephein’ means “to turn”. Pronounced “apõstrefain” (õ is a long o). Write this.
12. “I’ve just given you your Apostrophe Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug. “Please record this lesson in your language folder being sure to make the apostrophes red.”
Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Continue at a later date to show how we make he is into he’s, and others with she is, you are, they are, etc… Avoid will not to won’t at this point as it doesn’t fit the rule you are presenting.
2. Command cards: make cards where children match up the two words and their contraction to copy in their folder.
3. At a later date introduce the possessive, first singular and then plural. Write down: the teacher pencil. Read this with the children. “What if we want to show that the pencil belongs to the teacher? That it is her pencil? To show it is her pencil we use an apostrophe followed by an ‘s’. The apostrophe shows it belongs to her.” Add the apostrophe in red: the teacher’s pencil.
4. Introduce cards that have words to match and write with an apostrophe, such as ‘the dog’ and ‘food’, or ‘the child’ and ‘toy’.
5. Introduce the plural possessive by writing: the students globe. “There is more than one student in the class. The globe belongs to all the students. Same as in the singular example I gave, we will need an apostrophe to show who the globe belongs to. Because there is already an ‘s’ we don’t have to add one. The apostrophe just goes at the end: the students’ globe.” You can give more examples.

Notes:
Allow the children to discover the exceptions.
**Mechanics**

**Comma**

**Materials:**
- Black and red pens, one very long strip of adding machine paper.

**Comma Key Experience:**
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. “I am going to name for you some of my favorite things.”
3. Write a long sentence, reading it as you go:

   | A few of my favorite things are dancing and music and cooking and reading a book and taking a nap and petting my cat and having parties and going to museums and playing games. |

4. “Let’s read it again.” Read it. “Wow! That’s a really long sentence! Can you tell me some of my favorite things?”
5. “Did you notice anything about the sentence? Something that appeared again and again?” They should notice the ‘and’.
6. “If we cut out all of the ands I think we can make the sentence much shorter. Let’s try. We’ll leave the first part of the sentence intact.” Cut out all of the ands except the very last one. “We’ll leave the last ‘and’ to help end the sentence.”
7. “Everywhere we took out the word ‘and’ we will replace it with a mark called a comma.” Write a comma in red at the end of each item and place them in a line to make a shorter sentence.
8. Read the new sentence.
9. “Use a comma when you want the reader to pause just briefly.”
10. “The word comma comes from a Greek word koptein meaning to cut.” Prounced “cop-tain” (short ‘o’). Write this. “We cut out the word ‘and’ and replaced it with a comma.”
11. “This has been your **Comma Key Experience**.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug. “Please record this being sure to make the commas in red.”

**Follow Up/Extensions:**
1. Give more sentences which contain lists like the one in the Key Experience. They can take out the ands and rewrite the sentence with commas. Remind them to keep the last ‘and’.
2. Introduce how to use commas in writing the date or their address.
3. In following years you may introduce the comma used in writing city with state, with day and year, and finally the appositive use where the noun is renamed: brontosaurus, a big lizard, roamed the Earth many years ago.

**Notes:**
If you need to use more than one strip of paper, be sure to present the sentence in one long horizontal line. (use several rugs to contain the whole sentence).
Mechanics

Quotation Marks

Materials:
- Black and red pens, sentence strips.

Quotation Mark Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Write a sentence, reading it as you go:
   [Box: Amy said it is lunchtime.]
3. “What were the exact words that Amy said?” Children should say, “It is lunchtime.”
4. “So the sentence has two parts: Amy said, and exactly what she said.”
5. Cut the sentence into these two parts.
6. “We need to place a comma after the first part.” Write a comma after ‘Amy said’.
7. “Then we’ll use these special marks to show exactly what she said.” Mark in quotes using red pen.
8. “These marks around exactly what she said are called quotation marks. We use these to mark off the exact words that someone says from the rest of the sentence. Because what Amy said is a sentence, the first word is a capital.” Change the capital using red.
   [Box: Amy said “It is lunchtime.”]
9. Write this on a strip of paper.
   [Box: The word quotation comes from a Latin word quotare meaning to mark off.]
   “We used the quotation marks to mark off exactly what Amy said from the rest of the sentence.”
10. “This has been your Quotation Mark Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug. “Please record this being sure to make the quotation marks in red.”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Command Cards: you can make cards that ask children to interview their friends and write up what they said using proper quotation marks, or have them punctuate sentences adding in quotes, etc...

Notes:
- Comma and period stay in black for this lesson.
Materials:

Pencil and red pen, piece of large-lined paper so the children can read it (or a white board with markers).

Hyphen Key Experience:

1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Write a paragraph of about three sentences long in front of the children. Be sure to not be able to fit all of a word at the end of each line. When you run out of space you can say “Uh oh! I ran out of room. Maybe I can squeeze it in.”
3. Attempt to write in the rest in very tiny letters up the side.
4. “That doesn’t look very good. You can’t even read it!” Erase the extra letters.
5. Draw in a red hyphen at the correct place to hyphenate the word. Clap out the word to help the children hear the syllables: "mag-ni-fi-cent") “I can fit ‘mag’ on this line. I’ll put in a hyphen after ‘mag” to show that I’m not finished and I’ll write the rest of the word under this line, on the next line: “nificent”
6. “This red mark I used is called a hyphen.”
7. Write the rest of the paragraph to the end.
8. “I’ve written one part of the word on one line and the other part on the line under it. Write this.

| The word ‘hyphen comes from the Greek word ‘upo en’ which means under one. |

9. “This has been your Hyphen Key Experience.” Write this title in red and place it at the top of the rug. “Please record this being sure to make the hyphen in red.”

Follow Up/Extensions:

Do more with showing children how to break words into syllables.
Introduce the other rules for using a hyphen.

Notes:

Practice writing the paragraph so that the word you can’t fit breaks in the right spot between syllables.
Mechanics

Colon

The colon will be introduced in lower elementary when teaching about how to write time using a colon.

Does anyone have a good idea for teaching about colons in a sentence? ---Irene
Parts of Speech

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  - Number p. 49
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-The Adjective
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Parts of Speech

The Noun
Noun Key Experience

Materials:
Wooden black pyramid, strips of paper, piece of coal, pictures of Great Pyramids, and a **black** pen.

Noun Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children.
2. Ask several children to help you: “Can you bring a ___? I need a ___. Quickly!...Go out into the hallway. I’m sure you’ll find it there! Hurry!” (Have a sense of extreme urgency.)
3. If the children return with something in their hands: “NO! Not that. I need...Hurry!”
4. Wait until the children tell you “We don’t know what you want! Tell us what it is.”
5. Tell the children, “You don’t know what to bring me because I haven’t given you a name.
6. Ask each and everyone’s name.
7. Tell the children: “You all have a name.” Name the children in the group one at a time. “If we look around there are millions of things that have names.”
8. “I’m going to write a name.” Write ‘pen’.
9. Ask one child to read the word. “Can you get me a pen?”
10. When the child brings the pen, place the label below it on the rug. “The name of this is pen.”
11. Continue with this game until each child has read a name and brought something.
12. Ask the children, “How did you know to bring me a pen, photograph, a bean?”
13. Wait for the students to respond, “Because you told us the name.”
14. Tell the child, “Yes, because all these objects (pen, photograph and bean) have special names. We call these names nouns. These are all nouns.”
15. “This has been your Noun Key Experience.” Write this on a strip.
16. Write down the etymology.

Noun comes from the Latin word nomen which means name.
The name of something is a noun.

16. “Please copy this lesson into your language folder and show me when you are finished. Draw a picture of all the objects and write the nouns in black.”
1. On another day tell the story of the black pyramid.

**Story of the Black Pyramid**

This black pyramid represents names, because just like names, this pyramid is ancient and seems to exist for all time. The pyramids were built in Egypt so that humans would have a place to protect their earthly body while their souls went on to live forever. You can see this pyramid is stable no matter how I turn it. Do you think it is the strongest structure? The pyramids were built thousands of years ago. No wind is strong enough to destroy the pyramid, no water great enough, no storm large enough. (Show pictures and books of pyramids). These pyramids remain strong and stable on the floor of the desert. They are like silent witnesses to the work of their builders so very long ago. This pyramid we are using as a symbol of the noun has a certain color for a very important reason. It’s black because black is the color of coal. Just like nouns and names that are so ancient, coal formed millions of years ago. Coal was formed when decaying ferns died and rotted. The layers of earth compressed these decaying ferns, putting tremendous pressure on them so that over time coal was formed. Coal is very old and the noun is very old. Perhaps the noun is the oldest part of speech. Coal formed during the Carboniferous Period. This is the period when the tall ferns decayed and turned into coal.

Our symbol for the noun has the shape of the strongest structure on earth. It has the color of one of the oldest materials in the foundation of the earth. When you write the noun symbol you are drawing one face of the pyramid which looks like a triangle. From now on when you write a noun I want you to use your template to make this symbol over it, of the black pyramid.

2. Introduce the four categories of English names. Open a phone book and you will see all the categories of nouns. Children can research name origins.

*Patronymic* – Johnson

Long ago, when people didn’t have last names, sometimes it got very confusing whom you were talking about. You might hear someone come up to you and say, “I just saw John learning how to walk.” “But John has been walking for years, what are you talking about?” “Well, I’m talking about John, the son of Peter.” Then people started calling John Peter’s son and the name became John Peterson. You can ask a child to look for names with son or sen at the end.

*Occupational* – Baker

Sometimes neighbours got confused about which john you were talking about, so they just might identify John by his occupation like John the smith, John the baker.

*Descriptive* – Long

Sometimes folks would have a distinguishing characteristic and they would be called by that descriptive name. For instance if the man were tall you would call him John Long, or if he is short you would call him John Short. If the is fat, John fat.

*Location* – Lake

Sometime you would talk about people where they live. Maybe John lived by the lake. So you would call him John Lake.

Example: There was a man who lived by a river where the cranes cross.

Cranesford

Cairnforth

3. Noun command cards. Draw a picture of the zoo (the beach, the playground, your yard, your house, your room, etc...), write down five nouns from your picture, and show your teacher.
4. Noun Literature: have books at five or six reading levels and children choose a book to read, record nouns and draw a picture, on their own or in a group. Ruth Heller has excellent grammar books for kids.

5. Grammar Baskets: Have baskets each with a different Playmobile set in them like a garden, kitchen, farm, construction site, etc... Two children may play with a basket, building the environment. Then they get the box of noun cards that go with it and label the nouns. They can copy some of these (5 or 6) into their language folder with pictures to go with them. Later on you can add adjective cards to this work.

6. Do the noun grammar box with filler cards, covering up the article slot until it has been introduced.

7. Have children record nouns from the environment.

8. Noun Command Cards: cards used in pairs that have children ask their friend to get a <noun> and bring it over.

Notes:
- Use phonetic nouns at first for beginning readers.
- The filler boxes are not that useful at this stage.
- The story of the pyramid should come on a different day.
- You can introduce noun, article, adjective, noun family and then show the symbols—Sybil prefers this way, the AMS way. AMI goes from noun to pyramid.
- When the young child is learning to talk, he has similar experiences to those of the early humans as they began to use language. Children are extremely interested in the names of things, because they want to identify their environment. The child’s fascination with names has something to do with the need to control the environment in the same way that early man did. It’s very important to capture the child’s interest in the noun by telling short stories about it. In Modern English we have four forms of the nouns. We have singular, plural, masculine, and feminine nouns. As always the older children can study the noun with the history of the noun. We are working on these parts of speech as linked to the history of language.
**Parts of Speech**

The Noun

Number

Materials:
Collection of objects with varying numbers of each item (1-4), filler box II B, and the grammar box.

Presentation:
1. “Look at all of these different things! Can you help me to sort them out?” Group them.
2. Start with one type of object, of which there is only one (toy dog). Ask “Is this a dog or dogs?”
3. Repeat with other groups of objects, laying out single objects in one column and the groups of objects in another. Always ask with both singular and plural forms.
4. Introduce the word singular or plural; ask whether an object is singular or plural. “When we only have one object we call it singular, when we have more than one we call it plural.”
5. Introduce card labels of singular and plural.
6. Have the students put the objects under the correct label card.
7. Do a three period lesson.

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Children can write the words, use the movable alphabets
2. Dictation work, game- spell rock under the singular and rocks under plural
3. Grammar Box with filler Box II B: sort out cards and then match singular to plural.

Note:
- This lesson doesn't come right away as it is harder than other noun presentations.
- Start with words that have different singular than plural.
- You can introduce rules later such as: add es to words that end in sh, ch, s, for example match becomes matches. Words ending in y, change y to ies .
- Children will discover the strange exceptions.
Parts of Speech

The Noun

Gender

Materials:
Noun Grammar Box, filler Boxer II C 1-3, and small male and female figures to place at head of columns.

Presentation:
1. State that this is another lesson to do with nouns. Explain that some kinds of nouns are masculine like boy, some are feminine like girl. Give other examples.
2. Introduce cards labelled masculine and feminine, and place them with corresponding figure for visual aid. Have children read set of noun cards and place each word under the correct gender card and figure. For example uncle and aunt, heir, heiress, duke, duchess.
3. Help children with cards they don't know.

Follow-Up/Extensions:
1. Children can work on their own and make lists of masculine and feminine words they come up with.
2. You can introduce cards with words for masculine and feminine animals, such as fox and vixen or lion and lioness; a set for common gender can also be added or the diminutive. (babies e.g. kitten, cub)
3. Children may work with masculine and feminine in singular and plural.
4. Children can do any of this work with the moveable alphabet.

Note:
This lesson is good for second year students in lower elementary
Parts of Speech

The Noun
Article and Noun

Materials:
Black and light blue pens, sentence strips, filler boxes IIA 1-2, article/noun grammar box, and grammar symbol box.

Key Experience:
1. Review the previous works with nouns.
3. Write these down on paper in black.

| Get apple. | Sit at table. | Give me pencil. |

4. The children should notice the missing articles, or else you could ask if anything is missing.
5. “You’re right. You need a little word before the noun to make it sound right.”
6. Write the articles in light blue, then add them to the previous written phrases.

| an | a | a |

7. “Sit at the table. Get an apple. Give me a pencil.”
8. “These little words that go before a noun are called articles.

The word article comes from the Latin word ‘activus’ which means little limb. An article is like a little limb hanging off of a noun.

Follow-Up/Extensions:
1. Introduce grammar box and filler box.
2. Introduce the symbol: Ask about the symbol for noun and discuss how the article relates to the noun so it has the same shape symbol but it is smaller and in a different color. We are slipping the face off the pyramid because we don’t have enough pyramids. We use a black triangle for the noun and a small blue triangle for the article.

Notes:
1. Give this lesson to a small group.
2. Start with the very first filler box.
3. Have the child work with a partner to correct them.
Parts of Speech

The Article

Definite and Indefinite Article

Materials:
Objects in groups of one or more, with names beginning with vowels and consonants (egg, apples, umbrella, boxes, cats, flower, etc.), pens and sentence strips.

Key Experience:
1. Put all the objects together on the rug. “Wow I have a lot of different objects. Let’s sort them out.” Sort into piles of like objects.
2. Ask a child, “Can you hand me the flower?”
3. Ask another child to hand you an apple. The child can choose any of the apples.
4. The child can choose any one of the beans.
5. Ask another give to bring you a cat.
6. “What did you each give me?” Write them as they say the words, with articles separate from nouns. Write:

   | the flower | an apple | a cat |

7. “Do you remember what these little words are called?” (articles)
8. “When you gave me the flower there was only one. You knew which one I wanted. When you gave me an apple there were many to choose from, so you weren’t sure which. You could pick any one you wanted.”
9. “We call “the” a definite article. We use it with just one, the definite one that I wanted, the definite flower. And when you picked one of these many apples and cats, you had a choice of which apple or cat to bring: an apple, a cat. A and an are indefinite articles.”
10. Write:

   The word ‘definite’ comes from the Latin word ‘definire’ which means to be limited. The definite article limits you to one object or idea.

11. Write:

   The word ‘indefinite’ comes from the Latin word ‘indefinire’ which means to not be limited. The indefinite article does not limit you to one object or idea.

Follow-Up/Extensions:
Grammar Box with Filler Box II A 3

Note:
• This is a second year presentation.
Parts of Speech
The Adjective
Adjective Key Experience

Materials:
Three different flowers, sentence strips, a black pen and dark blue pen

Adjective Key Experience:
1. Gather a group of children.
2. Place the flowers on the table,
3. Write “the flower” on a piece of paper using a black pen and give it to a child.
4. “Can you bring to me what’s written on the paper.”
5. When the child hands you a flower, say “This isn't the flower I wanted.”
6. Ask again for the flower, and say it isn’t the one you wanted.
7. “I’m sorry. It is my fault you didn't choose the flower I wanted. I didn't give you enough information. Can you hand me the yellow flower” (whichever one is left)
8. Tear the original slip of paper right between the words the and flower and add the information, writing “yellow” in a dark blue pen.
9. “How do you know what flower to give me?” (because of the word “yellow”)
10. “You couldn't know which flower I wanted until I gave you more information about the flower. A word which gives us more information about nouns or which describes the noun is called an adjective.”
11. Write out words describing all the flowers in appropriate colors and place below each. Children can suggest words like, the pretty flower, the long-stemmed flower, etc…
12. The word adjective comes from the Latin word adjectivus meaning to add. We use an adjective to add more meaning or description to a noun.

Extension One: AMI Key Experience
1. Ask the child to bring you something e.g. a pen, a book etc.
2. Tell the child, “I didn’t want that, not a red pen! Not a thick book!”
3. Repeat.
4. After having them bring you some more objects, ask the children to bring you a blue pen or a thin book.
5. As they return with the object, ask the children how they knew what to bring.
Extension Two: Grammar Box

1. Bring out the grammar box.
2. Have the children set up the grammar box,
3. Place the cards in the compartment (phrase cards).
4. Have a child take the first phrase card and read it.
5. Lay the phrase cards down and find the matching cards.
6. Read, “the clear water”
7. Read the second phrase, “the colored water”.
8. Change the adjective from clear to colored.
9. Ask the children, “Which word told me what kind of water it was?”
10. Introduce the symbol for adjective, the dark blue triangle, and discuss how it relates to noun and article.
11. Ask the children what grammar symbol do we need for noun water, article the and adjective.
12. Place the symbols below the cards.

Notes:

It’s not necessary to wait until all the cases of the noun are given before introducing this.
Parts of Speech

The Adjective
Comparison of Adjectives
Positive, Comparative, Superlative

Materials:
- Red rods or bead chains of 3 different lengths, a pencil and paper

Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of at least three children.
2. Ask one child to get a bead chain, the second child get a longer bead chain, and a third child get the longest chain.
3. Place the chains in ascending order.
4. Hold the chains up and tell the children, “This bead chain is long, this one is longer compared to this one. When we have two objects to compare, the word long is called the positive adjective and the word longer, which we are comparing, is called the comparative adjective. And what the third child brought is the longest bead chain. It is superior to the rest so we call it the superlative, the longest of the three. We have to have more than two to call it the superlative.”
5. Do this a few more time with other object in the room, asking them which one is the positive, comparative and superlative
6. “Can we say a flower is beautiful, beautifuller or beautifullest?”
   (beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful)
8. Unique, uniquer, most unique?? (No)

Follow-Up/Extensions:
1. Grammar Box and Filler Box III F
2. Adjective Command Cards

Note:
It is important that children have been previously introduced to prefixes and suffixes.
Parts of Speech
Adjective
Classifications of Adjectives

Materials:
Adjective classification chart and cards from the adjective command cards.

Presentation:
When the children are familiar with the different forms of adjective, they can classify these on the adjective classification chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>your</td>
<td>half</td>
<td>first</td>
<td>whose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>my</td>
<td>equal</td>
<td>second</td>
<td>which</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>his</td>
<td>some</td>
<td>third</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>her</td>
<td>many</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>few</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Parts of Speech
Noun Family

Materials:
Three troll dolls of different sizes corresponding to noun family: large troll with black hair, small troll with dark blue hair, smaller troll with light blue hair; three wooden pyramids representing the Noun Family in appropriate size and color; filler boxes 3A through 3G

Noun Family Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson and unroll a rug.
2. Place trolls on the rug and tell a story: “One day a mother went shopping with her teenage daughter and her little sister. The mother went off in the store to look for something. The teenage daughter tried to go off on her own and shop but her little sister wouldn’t let her. The little sister kept following her and wanted them to go back near their mother. They didn’t want to wander away from the mother and ended up staying close by her while she shopped. They needed to be close to her.”
3. “We call this the Noun Family. These are like the noun, the adjective and the article (point at each troll in turn).”
4. “A noun is a word that can stay by itself. It is okay alone. But the adjective and article need to be with the noun in order to make sense. So this is the Noun Family.”
5. “In Egypt, many, many years ago, people built pyramids to hold the bodies of important people. The rulers of Egypt were buried inside of huge pyramids because they were so important (see pyramid story in noun). Important people who were not rulers were put into smaller pyramids.” Talk about coal, etc. and use the three pyramids as props to show size difference, saying how adjectives and articles are not as important as the noun, but they go together and that is why they are the same shape. Explain symbol is a face of the pyramid.
6. “From now on when you are writing a noun family you can use your template to make the symbols for each of the members of the noun family: the noun, the adjective and the article.”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Activities in the filler boxes using command cards and symbolizing.
2. Charts of the noun family

Notes:
This presentation can be done by using the Noun Family chart instead of the troll dolls.
Parts of Speech
The Verb
Verb Key Experience

Materials:
Noun family pyramids, grammar symbol box, objects (like bull and baby), black and red pens, strips of paper, black pyramid, and red sphere for verb

Verb Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to a rug.
2. Review the noun, article and adjective symbols using the pyramids and discussing the noun family.
   “Remember how last week we talked about the Noun Family?”
3. Show the children the first item (a bull). “Can someone give me a noun family for this bull?”
4. Write ‘the black bull’ on a strip and place it below the bull.

5. “What kind of word is ‘the’?” It is an article. “What is the function of the article?” It points to the noun.
7. “What kind of word is ‘bull’?” A noun. “What is its function?” It is the name of an object.
8. Add symbols above each word.

9. Introduce another object (a baby) and get a noun family phrase for it (the small baby). Discuss and symbolize.
10. Write verb commands in red on slips of paper and fold them so children can’t see. Have one for each child like hop, blow, nod, run, etc…

11. Have a child choose a slip of paper and act out the word. The rest of the group tries to guess what the word is. Make sure every child gets a chance.
12. “Can you point to the black bull?” Children point. “Can you point to the small baby?” “Can you point to run? Blow? Nod?”
13. “You can point at nouns, but not at actions. You performed the actions and now they are gone. A verb is a word that shows action.”
14. “Let’s add a verb to this phrase “the black bull.” What action can the bull do? (Children suggest a verb, runs. Add the verb to the phrase: the black bull runs.
15. Note that this is a sentence. Change the punctuation so that there is a capital letter at the beginning of the sentence and a period at the end: The black bull runs.
16. Repeat with the other phrase.
17. “This has been your Verb Key Experience.” Write this on a strip.
18. “Please record this lesson in your language folder using a red pencil to write the verbs.
19. Write out the etymology.

| The word verb comes from the Latin word verbum which means the word. |

Presentation 2: Verb Symbol
1. Bring out the black pyramid and the red sphere. Review a little asking the children what they remember about the pyramid.
2. Introduce the verb symbol, holding up the sphere. “This red sphere is our symbol for the verb because it represents the sun. This ball is round and bright like the sun (roll the red sphere around the black pyramid). The sun gives energy to all living things on this earth. Without the sun nothing can grow, nothing can live, nothing can move. Just like the sun, the verb gives energy to the noun. Without the verb, the noun would have no movement. The verb is the source of energy that brings life to the noun.” (The whole time the noun has remains stable and the verb goes around).
3. Place a book on a mat or table and drop the black pyramid on the book.
4. Ask what happen to the noun: did it move or did it remain stationary?
5. Replace the wooden red sphere with a red rubber ball of the same size. Drop it onto the book and let it go wherever it will, bouncing, rolling, across the floor. Make the observation that the verb has energy and movement.
6. Introduce the symbol for the verb. “Just like we slipped the face off the pyramid for the noun symbol, we slip the face off the red sphere and this red circle is the symbol for the verb.”
7. “From now on when you write a verb I would like you to use your template to put a red circle over it.”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Grammar and Filler Boxes: Fill the box with the color-coded cards. Read a phrase card. Find the words of the phrase card in three compartments. Put out the symbols for each part of speech. Have the children do the actions. Keep trading the verbs. Ask the child if there is no verb, is there anything to do? You need the verb to have the actions.
2. Verb command cards of things to do in the room that can use with a friend: dust a shelf, polish the metal insets, sweep the floor, etc…
3. Blank sentence strips with symbols glued on one side and parts of speech written on the other. Children can make up words to make phrases that match the symbols. These cards could be used from now on, adding different parts of speech.
4. A box of cards that are color-coded for noun family and verb. There are manipulatives in the box and the child must build a sentence about the objects, write them in their book and symbolize them. For example, the black bull runs, with a small bull manipulative.
5. Verb literature where children pull verbs from reading and record them in their language folder
6. Command cards that tell children to draw something, writing verbs about it: Draw a picture of your friend and write 6 things that person can do (verbs) Draw a picture of yourself and write 6 things you can do Draw a picture of a fair and write 6 phrases of what you can do at the fair
Notes:

While the symbol for the noun was the pyramid to show it as static, the symbol for the verb is the red sphere illustrating its energy and constant activity unless an obstacle gets in its way. Various aspects of the verb will be taken up. The verb always takes the voice of I who speak and is derived from the Latin word Verbum meaning the word. The fact that verbs are transitive (transmitting action to objects) and intransitive (no object, remaining in the person) is taken up as well as reflective verbs (action back to the doer) and tenses of the verb (action of the verb as a measure of time.)

The tenses of the verb as a grammarian measure of time are given to the 9 to 12 years olds. They will study the facts that in original English there were only 2 tenses, the past and the present and that through the years tenses have been constructive with auxiliary verbs. Tenses structures became more complicated in Middle English times when future tenses came into being with shall and will. Future perfect tenses were established in Old English, but the continuous tenses as in “he is coming” didn’t become common until Modern English. Children should be made aware of tenses and their forms by listening to sentences.

The child should be given a feel for language. The materials are used, as a summary of the tenses while the activity is more in the hearing of small changes and appreciation. The difference between merely memorising and living the language should be made.
Parts of Speech
The Preposition

Materials:
- Black and green pens, paper strips, preposition grammar box, preposition filler boxes, grammar symbols

Presentation:
1. Invite a group of children
2. As each child comes, ask them to bring an object.
4. Ask a child, “Please put the towel on you, behind you, under, around you…”
5. Be playful with the children and try to make an impression.
6. Write down the action with the child’s name: “The towel was behind Abigail.” (The preposition should be in green with the other words in black.) Then change the preposition to show all the different locations (under, over, around).

   The towel was behind Abigail.

7. Always allow every child to participate, placing their object in different positions around themselves or in places in the room. Write each action down on a sentence strip.
8. Review what has happening, asking “where?” to cue children. (“Where did you place the apple?…Oh! On Tashia’s head!) Read all of the words written in green as a list. (under, over, around) Cut the green words out and arrange them in a column.
9. “These words in green tell us where the objects were in relation to each other. These words in green are usually placed before the noun that tells you where to put the object: ‘Put the book under the table’. In this sentence, the word in green, under, is placed before table. These words in green are called prepositions.” Write preposition in green and place that label over the green words laid out in a column.

   “Prepositions put objects in position, or in relation to each other.”
10. Write the etymology and read it.

   The word preposition comes from the Latin word ‘praeponere’ which means ‘to place before’.

11. Introduce the symbol. “This is a symbol of an old, green, ancient bridge, maybe it’s made out of heavy vines and it connects two banks of a river. Just like the bridge connects two banks of the river, the preposition connects two noun families. In this sentence: “Throw the towel on the chair.” it connects the towel and the chair.
12. Tell the child, “This is a boring sentence (“Throw the towel on the chair.”) Can anyone give an adjective to the chair and towel?”
13. Ask a child to come up and symbolize the whole sentence. Do this for as long as you can hold their attention.
14. Rip up the sentence strips and transpose. (“Throw the chair on the towel”. Does that also make sense? Continue transposing. Ask if you can put the preposition in another place. (“On the chair, throw the towel.” Etc.)

15. “This has been your Preposition Key Experience.” Write this on a strip and place at the top of the paper. “Please record this in your language folder and show me. Be sure to write the prepositions in green. You can use the new symbol you have learned for the preposition over each preposition”

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Preposition Command Cards: Make cards that go along with other objects, for example: a coin and a purse, or a pig and a tub. The child reads cards telling where to put the coin in relationship to the purse, etc..
2. Preposition Command Cards: Make cards that a pair of children can use that involve doing things in the classroom: Put a blue pencil next to a red pencil. Put your foot under the table. etc…
3. Preposition Grammar Box and filler cards

Notes:
The first follow up could also be used for the key experience.
Parts of Speech
The Adverb

Materials:
1. Strips of paper, red and orange pens, grammar box, adverb filler box, grammar symbol box.

Key Experience:
1. Gather a group of children.
2. Write a secret word, a verb, using a red pen, and pass it to a child.
3. “Can you read this and perform the action? Don’t tell anyone what it is.” See if they can guess. Child can act out ‘walk.’
4. “What did she do?” She walked.
5. Now write on two slips of paper: the verb again in red, adding an adverb in orange, and hand it to two children to perform. “What did they do?” She walked slowly. He walked quickly.
6. “The word slowly told her how to walk. The word quickly told him how to walk. It gave us more information about the verb walk.”
7. Do more examples so that each child gets a turn. “Sing operatically,” “Sing softly” etc.
8. Ask the child what told them and others how to perform the action.
9. Explain that these little words in orange, which are close to the verb are called adverbs. They tell us how to perform the actions. They told us more about the verb, they added information.
10. This has been your Adverb Key Experience.” Write this down and place at the top of the rug.
11. “Adverb comes from the Latin word adverbium which means close to the verb. The adverb is very close to the verb. It gives us more information about it.” Write down the etymology.

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Grammar box with filler cards
2. Command cards: children can use these in pairs, acting out phrases like cough loudly, cough silently, run swiftly, run crazily, etc…
Parts of Speech
The Pronoun

Materials:
Black and purple pens, sentence strips, grammar symbol box, pronoun grammar & filler boxes.

Pronoun Key Experience:
1. Invite a group of children to the rug.
2. “I am going to write a sentence.” Write a sentence and read while you write:

Pick up the dishes, put the dishes in the sink, wash the dishes, dry the dishes, and put the dishes away.

3. “Whew!!! That was a long sentence! Would anyone like to take a big breath and try to read it?”
4. “Our sentence is so long. I wonder if there is any way for us to shorten it. Do you notice any words that are said over and over in this sentence?” (The dishes.)
5. “This sentence uses ‘the dishes’ so many times! What if we replaced those words with something shorter? Let’s try.”
6. Cross out all but the first ‘the dishes’ and write a purple ‘them’ above. Now read the new sentence.

Pick up the dishes, put the dishes in the sink, wash the dishes, dry the dishes, and put the dishes away.

7. “Oh! That was so much easier. It took us less time to read it. What words did we hear over and over?” The dishes. “When you cross out an article and a noun you can replace them with a pronoun. ‘Them’ is a pronoun. The pronoun replaces the noun.”
8. “This has been your Pronoun Key Experience.” Write this and place above the sentence.
9. Write etymology:

The word ‘pronoun’ comes from the Latin word ‘pronomen’ which means “in place of the noun.”

“We use a pronoun to take the place of a noun. To represent the pronoun we use this purple triangle. It reminds us of the noun triangle so we know they are related. Please copy this sentence into your language folder, writing the pronouns in purple. Show me your work when you finish.”
Presentation Variation:
1. Gather a small group of children.
2. Say, “Karen can sing really well, Karen likes to sing opera. Karen is a great musician. Karen looks like shy because we are talking about her right now.
3. Ask the children if they noticed anything funny about the story, what word did they hear over and over, maybe they even got tired of hearing it.
4. The children will say “you kept saying Karen.”
5. Ask another child to retell the story, so it sounds like the way we talk.
6. Do another one about yourself. “Irene is very tired. Irene can no longer stand up. Irene is sleepy.”
7. Ask if this is normally how we talk about ourselves.
8. Retell the story again in a way that it sounds better. Use I.
9. Introduce the pronoun by saying, these little words like she, and her, are words that we used to replace Karen, and the word I used to replace my name is I. These little words that replace the noun are called pronouns.
11. Etymology: Pronoun comes from pronomen (Latin) meaning in place of the noun
12. Explain that she takes the place of noun like Karen; it takes the place of objects.
13. Introduce the symbol: this purple pyramid is the symbol for the pronoun. This purple pyramid is shaped like the noun but its base is smaller than the black noun symbol. And just like our other symbol, we have these in paper symbols. She took the place of the word Karen and the purple triangle takes the place of the noun.

Follow up/Extensions:
1. Command Cards: these involve matching nouns to pronouns that can replace them
2. Pronoun grammar and filler boxes
Parts of Speech

The Conjunction

Materials:
Three different flowers, a pink ribbon, black and pink pens, sentence strips and the grammar symbol box.

Conjunction Key Experience:
1. Invite a small group of children.
2. Place the three flowers on the rug.
3. Choose a flower and hold it up. “Can someone give me a noun family for this flower?” Write it: the red flower.

4. Continue getting noun families for all three and place the written slips beneath the flowers.
5. Ask a child to symbolize the words.
6. “Can you give me the red flower?” Take it and then replace on the rug.
7. “Can you give me the purple flower?” Repeat process and continue with third flower.
8. “What if I want all the flowers? I could add a word to let you know I want them all together.”
9. Write and on two slips of paper in pink and place between the flower words.

10. “I want the red flower and the purple flower and the blue flower.”
11. Take the pink ribbon and tie the flowers together.
12. Just like the ribbon is joining the flowers together, the word and joins the words together. This word, and, that connects words together is called a conjunction. This has been your Conjunction Key Experience.”
13. Write this title and place it at the top of the rug.
14. Etymology:

The word ‘conjunction’ comes from the Latin word ‘conjugere’ which means to join together.

“Just like the pink ribbon joined the flowers together, conjunctions join words together into a group.”
15. Introduce the conjunction grammar symbol.
16. Ask a child to symbolise the phrase and a number of other ones.
17. Transpose the phrase and discuss if it makes sense.

Follow-Up/Extensions:
1. Conjunction Grammar and Filler Box
2. Conjunction Command Cards
3. Talk about how conjunctions can join words together or make you choose between them. Introduce “or” as a conjunction.
Parts of Speech

The Interjection

Materials:
Black and gold pens, sentence strips, and grammar symbol box.

Interjection Key Experience:

1. Gather a group of children.
2. Write a sentence in black and read it without great expression:
   
   I cut my finger.

3. Take the gold pen and write “Ouch!” Throw it in front of the original sentence.
   
   Ouch! I cut my finger.

4. Read this sentence with great expression. “Does that sound different? There is more feeling and emotion with the Ouch! that I threw into the sentence.”
5. Write another sentence and ask a child to symbolise it:
   
   I ate a cookie.

6. Take the gold pen and add ”Mmmm!” Throw it in front of the original sentence.
   
   Mmmm! I ate a cookie.

7. Read the sentence with a lot of feeling.
8. “Was the meaning of the sentences changed by the words in gold?”
9. Explain that the meaning didn’t change but the sentences are said with more emotion. “This little word in gold is called an interjection.”
10. Etymology:

    The word ‘interjection’ comes from the Latin word ‘interjectio’ which means “to throw between.”

11. Introduce the interjection symbol: “The interjection is the key to the emotion in the sentence and guess what the symbol looks like? A keyhole or an exclamation sign.”
12. Ask the children to symbolise the sentence.

Follow-Up/Extensions:

1. Interjection Grammar Box
2. Interjection Command Card
Materials:
Black and green pens, paper strips, preposition grammar box, preposition filler boxes, grammar symbols.

Presentation:
Introduce children to the concept that there are different kinds of each part of speech. Give them an example and then let them discover others. You can start with one part of speech, such as the adjective:

Kinds of adjectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>red/flat/etc...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>my/our/your/their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative</td>
<td>this/these/that/those</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrogative</td>
<td>which/whose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite</td>
<td>all/some/many</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Follow Up/Extensions:
1. Have children write a poem using only possessive adjectives and nouns, or give similar challenges.
2. Make charts for children to work with.
A noun is a word that names a person, place, thing, quality or act.
girl, school, chair, kindness, love

An article is an example of the following three words used to signal the presence of a noun.
a, an, the

An adjective is a word that “adds to” (modifies or describes) a noun.
red, big, tall, one, many, some, his, hers, mine, this, that

A verb is a word that expresses action, existence or occurrence.
jump, talk, is, to, have

A preposition is a word that shows the relationship of a noun to a verb, adjective, or another noun.
to, with, by, into, across, on, in, of

An adverb is a word that “adds to” (modifies or describes) a verb, an adjective or another adverb. Often it answers the questions “where?”, “how?” and “when?”
red, big, tall, one, many, some, his, hers, mine, this, that

A pronoun is a word that is substituted for a noun.
he, she, her, his, it, they, we, us

A conjunction is a word that connects other words, phrases, clauses or sentences.
and, but, or, either, neither, because

An interjection is a word, phrase, or sound used as an exclamatory and capable of standing by itself.
wow!, fantastic!, oh boy!
The Verb-Advanced

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- Auxiliary Verbs  p. 77
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The Verb - Advanced
Personal Pronouns

Materials: Chart and cards
Tell Story drawing the chart as you speak:

Here we have the “I who speaks”
(First Person)

If I speak to you, then you are drawn into the orbit of the I. I have thrown importance on you.
(First, Second Person Singular)

But I can also talk to you about a third person, he. “That boy over there, he is writing with colored inks.”
(First, Second & Third Person Singular)

I can also speak to you as a group (you).
(First Person Singular & Second Person Plural)

I can also speak to you as a group (you) and speak to you all about a group (they).
(First Person Singular & Second and Third Person Plural)

We can also have a collection of “I’s” (we): “We don’t like the snow.” (Or: “We don’t like it—the snow.”)
First Person Plural & second person singular (it)
Extensions/Follow-Up:
The children can do skits to help absorb the concepts, make sentences to go with the charts, lay out the pronoun cards and add verbs, etc.

Notes:
These charts are not for the children to make themselves, unless they request to. They are impressionistic, not for working with. Each person on the chart should be the same color.

Personal Pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person</td>
<td>he/she/it</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Verb - Advanced

Simple Tenses of the Verb

**Present Tense**

Materials:

Present tense verb packets, personal pronoun packets

Exercise:

1. Invite the children.
2. Start with an experience for them. Ask one child to carry over a bell to where you are. “While you are carrying the bell please say, ’I carry the bell. I carry the bell. I carry the bell.’”
3. The child can place the bell down. “Can you keep saying it now?” (no)
4. “The action is over. It’s finished.”
5. Repeat using different tasks with other kids.
6. “When we talk about things that are happening right now: I talk, you breathe, she writes, things that are happening in the present moment, it is called the present tense. Right now these things are happening in the present tense.”
7. Lay out the personal pronoun cards.
8. Review the categories of the personal pronoun cards.
9. Match the verbs with the personal pronoun cards.
10. Allow the children to read and listen. Make the children aware that they have been using the present tense already.
11. Have the children discover/observe the pattern in the layout. Pattern: when we are in the present tense, the verb is always singular (play, play, play, play, play) except for the third person singular (plays).
12. After completing one set you can complete a second set and compare.

Notes:

For the second person plural you can say “you all” to help the children understand it more clearly.

### Simple Present

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Singular</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
<td>I play</td>
<td>we play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person</td>
<td>you play</td>
<td>you play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person</td>
<td>he/she/it plays</td>
<td>they play</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Verb – Advanced

Simple Tenses of the Verb

Past Tense: Weak and Strong Verb

Materials:
Cards for past tense

Presentation:
1. “Remember when we talked about the history of language? When people were first developing language they probably wanted to talk about things that were happening right now, in the present tense: I give you food, you eat bread, etc... At some point these people needed to talk about something that happened in the past. The present tense is used to talk about things happening right now: Now I speak. But yesterday I weeded my garden. That action is in the past. Am I still weeding my garden?” (no) “The action I was doing is not here now. It’s in the past. We call this the past tense.”
2. Introduce the past tense cards, laying them out and matching verbs to pronouns.

Follow-Up/Extensions for Older Kids:
“There are two kinds of verbs. We call them regular and irregular verbs but a long time ago they were called weak and strong verbs.

Story of the Weak & Strong Verbs:

In Proto-European, all verbs were strong; they showed the change of tense from the present to the past by changing the vowel of their stem., for example, “I sing” became I sang. This change of the vowel was a characteristic of the Indo-European language for a long time. Can you think of a verb like that? That must be a really old word. But as time went on, a new kind of verb was invented in the Proto-Germanic family of language: the weak verb. Instead of changing the vowel, they made the past tense by adding a suffix to the present tense, for example: I walk became I walked, or he talks became he talked. In Old English, the weak verb began to dominate and many verbs that had been strong changed to weak verbs. The word help used to be I healp in the past. It was changed into I helped. New verbs that were formed or borrowed were given the weak form. Now the original strong verbs from the first family are a small minority: there are about a hundred. Strong verbs are now called irregular verbs. Weak verbs are called regular verbs.

Simple Past - Irregular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
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<td>2nd Person</td>
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<tr>
<td>3rd Person</td>
<td>he/she/it</td>
<td>they</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>gave</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
## Simple Past - Regular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; Person</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Person</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; Person</td>
<td>he/she/it</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- dreamed
- dreamed
The Verb - Advanced

Simple Tenses of the Verb

Future Tense

Materials:
All verb tense packets

Presentation 1: Introduction
1. Introduce the future tense of the verb.
2. “We have learned about the present and past tenses, but there is another tense. What if I want to tell you about something that is going to happen but hasn’t happened yet? On Friday I will have a party. It hasn’t happened yet but it will happen in the future. The tense I would use is called the future tense.
3. Have the children listen to some sentences: I will eat my dinner. We will go to the movies tonight. In a few months it will be spring.
4. Ask children to give you some examples.
5. If the children don’t draw attention themselves, draw attention to the two verbs in each sentence (will and eat). One verb helps the other to show the future. The word “will” is a helping verb.

Presentation 2: Packets
1. Give one of the 3 packets to a child.
2. Ask the child with the present packet to lay out the cards.
3. Have the child with the past packet lay the cards to the right of the present packet.
4. Have the child with the future packet lay the cards to the right of the past packet.
5. Allow the children to practice or mix all the cards up.

Simple Future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>will go</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>will go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>will go</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>will go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person</td>
<td>he/she/it</td>
<td>will go</td>
<td>they</td>
<td>will go</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Verb - Advanced

Auxiliary Verbs

Materials:
Packets of the verbs to have and to be, as well as all present, perfect and past tense packets

Presentation:
1. Talk about how there are two important auxiliary verbs, often known as helping verbs:
   to have
to be
2. State that they also have the 3 tenses of the verb.
3. Have the children work with the packets.

Present Tense
To Be and Going

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1st Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>are going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2nd Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>are going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>are going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3rd Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he/she/it</td>
<td>is going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>are going</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Past Tense
To Be and Going

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1st Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>were going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2nd Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>were going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>were going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3rd Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he/she/it</td>
<td>was going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>were going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person</td>
<td>Subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>he/she/it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Verb - Advanced

Compound Tenses of the Verb

Present Perfect

Materials:
Present perfect packet and prepared sentences

Presentation:
1. “Do you remember when we talked about the tenses of the verb? There were three…” (they name them)
2. “What tense is this sentence in?” (Present) Read:

   I work at the library.

3. “What about this sentence?” (Past)

   I worked at the library yesterday.

4. “What about this one?

   I have worked at the library for three years and plan to continue...

This will be new so discuss. “Well, it is saying that I worked there in the past and that the action is continuing into the present. I am not finished working there. My action is not completed. This tense is a new tense, not like the simple tenses we have studied. The verb is in the present perfect tense.”

5. Draw attention to the two verbs. Have children brainstorm more sentences or provide more examples.

6. Lay out the cards with the children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singul ar</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
<td>I have worked</td>
<td>we have worked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person</td>
<td>you have worked</td>
<td>you have worked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person</td>
<td>he/she/it has worked</td>
<td>they have worked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Past Perfect

Materials:
Past perfect packet

Presentation:
1. Do you remember have we talked about the present perfect tense? Do you remember what it was used for?” Discuss
2. “I have a new sentence for you:

```
I had walked to school this morning before the bus came.
```

3. Ask if the sentence is in the present perfect or the simple past. “Neither. It is in the past perfect.”
4. “The action of walking happened before something else that happened in the past. I had walked before the bus came. Both the walking and the bus coming happened in the past. We use the past perfect to locate something before another action that happened in the past.”
5. Give sentences using the past perfect tense:

```
Everyone had eaten before I arrived.

Lee had painted the car before I bought it.
```

6. Have the children work with the past perfect packet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; Person</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>had walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Person</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>had walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; Person</td>
<td>he/she/it</td>
<td>had walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Verb - Advanced
Compound Tenses of the Verb
Future Perfect

Materials:
Future perfect packet

Presentation:
1. Give a short review on the perfect tenses.
2. Give a sentence:

   By the time my mother comes home from work, I will have finished my homework.

3. “This sentence is in the future perfect tense. Both of the actions are happening in the future, with one taking place before the other. My mother isn't home now, and I have not finished my homework now, but I will finish it before she comes home.”
4. Have the children work with packet.

Future Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>will have finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>we</td>
<td>will have finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>will have finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>you</td>
<td>will have finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person</td>
<td>he/she/it</td>
<td>will have finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>they</td>
<td>will have finished</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extensions:
1. Children can mix all 6 tenses and sort;
2. Children can write sentences and indicate the verb used.
The Verb - Advanced
Moods of the Verb

Material:
Verb packets

Presentation:
1. Introduce the moods of the verb. “When we talk about moods of the verbs it means the way a word says something, how a word asserts something.”
2. State that when you have the infinitive mood, there are no tenses or other forms of the verb just to and the verb.
3. Give examples: to swim, to run, to eat.
4. Note that you can have another mood. The indicative mood makes a statement or indicates something to us.
5. Give examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To swim</td>
<td>You swim.</td>
<td>Swim!</td>
<td>If you were swimming you couldn't catch me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To run</td>
<td>You run.</td>
<td>Run!</td>
<td>If I were running you couldn't catch me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To eat</td>
<td>It is time to eat.</td>
<td>Eat!</td>
<td>If you were eating, you would almost be finished</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The word ‘imperative’ comes from the Latin word ‘imperaro’ which means to command.

8. Etymology of imperative:

9. Explain that these examples of verbs that are just one word are the simplest imperatives and one of the oldest forms of verb in Old English.
10. The subjunctive mood can be taught but it is more complicated. It is often used to talk about something that is conditional, something that is not the case. Give an example:

If I had free time, I would learn the saxophone.

11. Have the children work with packets.

Extensions:
1. Make command cards and write the mood.
2. Change a mood of a sentence to another mood.
3. Choose a verb in the infinite form and make it to the indicative or imperative mood.
Presentation:
1. Give children sentences:

   I trace a map.

2. Children can analyze the sentence to see what the action is and who is the subject.
3. “So the subject is I. I am tracing a map. I am active.”
4. Now write another sentence:

   The map is traced by me.

5. Analyze that sentence. This will involve a compound verb and no direct object.
7. “In that sentence, is the map acting? Who is doing the action?” I am.
8. “In these two sentences the same action is taking place but it is being described in two different ways.
   The two different ways are called voices. In the first sentence, I traced the map, I am active. This is
called the active voice. The subject is doing the action.”
9. “In the second sentence, The map is traced by me, the subject is not acting. It is passive. The action
   is being done by someone who isn’t the subject. Because the subject is passive, we call this the passive
   voice. We could even say: The map is traced. In this sentence we don’t even know who is doing the
   action.”
10. Give another example: We eat pizza. The pizza was eaten. Discuss

Extensions:
1. Have the children come up with sentences in the active voice and then turn them into passive voices and
   visa versa.
2. Make charts that demonstrate the active and passive.
3. Choose a verb and write in both the voices.
The Verb – Advanced
The Negative Form of the Verb

Materials:
One packet labeled “Infinitive: Negative Form” and inside the 6 tenses put in negative form.
A second packet with separate cards for the pronoun, auxiliary verb, negative and verb.

Presentation:
1. Write: 
   
   I like peas.

   “What if this isn’t true? What if I hate peas? How could I change this sentence to make it negative?”

2. Write:
   
   do not

3. Cut the first sentence so you can fit the “do not” between I and like. I do not like peas.

4. State that this is another form of the verb – the negative form.

   I do not like peas.

5. “If we want to say something negative in English we need to use an auxiliary (a helping verb) and a negative
   word like ‘not’. We can’t say: ‘I not love’ or ‘I love not’. We must add in the auxiliary of the word ‘do’: ‘I do
   not love.’”

6. Go through all the tenses in the negative form with the children orally. Older children can use the packets.
The children may wish to compare the negative formation in English with the negative formations in other
languages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I do not like</th>
<th>Simple Present</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I did not like</td>
<td>Simple Past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will not like</td>
<td>Simple Future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have not liked</td>
<td>Present Perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had not liked</td>
<td>Past Perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will have not liked</td>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative Form of the Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sentence Analysis

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  - Summary p. 88
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  - Indirect Object p. 92
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who is it that...?
what is it that...?
whom? what?
whence? from what/where?
when?
where?
what for?
what for?
whom?
with whom? with what?
by whom? by what?
by whom? by what?
by means of whom? by means of what?
by means of whom? by means of what?
to whom? to what?
for whom? for what?
from what/where?
where?
what?
Sentence Analysis

Logical Analysis for Simple Sentences

Summary

Materials:
The introductory grammar chart with removable circles: 1 red and 3 black and removable arrows with questions: who is it that? / what is it that? and whom? / what? and to whom? / to what?
Also, you will need a pencil, sentence strips, and a pair of scissors.
Eventually you will add orange arrows and circles, and move on to the large chart with all the adverbial extensions.

Presentation I: Introduction:
1. Invite a group of children to the lesson to a table or unroll a rug.
2. Place the introductory chart in front of the children with the direct object part of the chart covered with a sheet of paper. Lay the circles and arrows over the corresponding ones on the chart.
3. Write a sentence. Lay it above the chart:

   "Can someone read this sentence aloud? That’s right, Birds fly”.
4. “I’m going to cut the verb out of this sentence and place it on one of these circles. What circle would the verb go on, the red or black?” Red.
5. Children can help to find the verb in the sentence and you may cut it out. Leave the noun or the rest of the sentence above the chart.
6. Place the verb on the red circle and then point to the question preceding the verb and say, “Who is it that flies? What is it that flies? “ (Birds)
7. “Birds fly”. On the chart, the question points to the answer, which is the noun (circle). Place the slip reading “birds” on the black circle.
8. Transpose. “Fly Birds?” Does that make sense?
9. Children should practice this type of two-word sentence a lot.

Presentation II: Introduction to Subject and Predicate:
1. Repeat Presentation I, as above. (Note: keep direct object covered with a sheet of paper).
2. Point to the red circle (verb), say, “This part of the sentence is called the predicate.”
3. “Who is it that flies?”
4. Point to the black circle. “This part of the sentence is called the subject.” Then dramatically turn over the arrow that says, subject written on it.
5. Do a three period lesson. (Then have the children draw the chart in their language books.)
6. Have children draw the chart from memory the next day.

Presentation III: The Subject, Predicate, and Direct Object:
1. The sample sentence: ‘Tom reads a book’. Do presentation I with the predicate and subject, leaving the rest of the sentence above the chart. (Note: The direct object part of the chart should be uncovered).
2. Then say, “We still have some words left over from our sentence; let’s see where they go.”
3. Pointing to the direct object questions, say, “Tom reads what? Tom reads whom?” (a book)
4. “That’s right, a book.” Then place “a book” on the direct object circle (to the right of the verb).
5. Another sample sentence:

Close the Window.

The subject is implied because it’s a command and you are looking at the person to whom you gave the command.

6. Note: Another example: ‘Go!’ The verb can be a sentence in itself. Creating a simple sentence using a noun requires a verb, but you don’t need a direct object.

7. Then review with the children. “Do you remember what part of the sentence that is the action of the sentence called?” The predicate. ”Do you remember which part of the sentence asks, who is it that or what is it that?” The subject.

8. Now what is the “whom” and “what” part of the sentence? Then slowly turn over the arrow, “Direct Object”. The direct object answers the questions: Whom?/What? Go over the parts of the sentence again with another sentence example: ‘Wordsworth wrote poetry’.
- In this sentence, what is the predicate?
- In this sentence, what is the direct object?
- In this sentence, what is the subject?

9. Do a three period lesson.

10. Transpose.

Presentation VI: The Subject, Predicate, Direct Object, and Indirect Object:
1. Do the above presentations with sample sentence:

Mel showed her picture to us.

2. You should set up the basic chart but have the new arrow and its circle on the table. Proceed as in above presentations.

3. There will be words left on the table and you will draw attention to this and then introduce the new arrow:

Mel showed his picture to whom?

4. Finish the diagramming
5. "The part of the sentence that answers the question to whom? to what? is called the indirect object." Dramatically turn over the arrow.

Notes:
You can prepare sentence strips in advance and as sentences become more complicated you can have two copies so you remember the original sentence. Each step requires lots of practice. Over time children should move into using proper terminology rather than the question side of the arrows.
Sentence Analysis

Logical analysis of Simple Sentences
Predicate, Subject & Direct Object

Materials:
1. Sentence analysis box
2. Chart
3. Paper
4. Pen
5. Scissors

Presentation:
1. Write a simple sentence on a slip of paper.

Lisa watches the soccer game.

2. Use the whole chart with arrows and circles laid out.
3. Have the child determine the action word in the sentence.
4. Have the child cut the action word and place it on top of the red circle.
5. Read the first arrow. “Who is it that watches?” “What is it that watches?” (answer: Lisa)
6. Have the child cut out the word and place it on top of the subject circle and move the subject arrow in between the subject and predicate circle.
7. “There are still some words on the table. Let’s see if they answer the question on this arrow. Lisa watches who? Lisa watches what? Lisa watches the soccer game.”
8. Place the slip onto the circle.

9. Review with the children. “Do you remember what the part of the sentence with the action is called?” (answer: the predicate) Do you remember what part of the sentence asks, “Who is it that or what is it that?” (answer: the subject)
10. “What is the “What?/Who?” part of the sentence?” Slowly turn over the arrow, “Direct Object. The direct object answers the questions: What?/Who?” Go over the parts of the sentence again with another sentence example: ‘

Wordsworth wrote poetry. ‘In this sentence, what is the predicate? (wrote) In this sentence, what is the subject? (Wordsworth) In this sentence, what is the direct object? (poetry)
11. Do a three period lesson.
12. Transpose.
Materials:
1. Sentence analysis box
2. Chart
3. Paper
4. Pen
5. Scissors

Presentation:
1. Lay out the sentence analysis symbols.
2. Write a sentence on a slip of paper with a direct and indirect object:

   Mary gave a flower to her mother.

3. Have the child determine the predicate, subject and direct object in the sentence.
4. Note that there are some words left.
5. Turn the arrows over to show the structure of the sentence.
6. Read the indirect object arrow and explain that the remaining words answer the question.
7. Do a three period lesson on the parts of the sentence; ask, “Which is the subject/direct object/indirect object/predicate?” You can also ask the child to identify the part of the sentence by choosing words: “What part of the sentence is a flower?” (direct object)
8. Transpose.
Logical Analysis for Simple Sentences

Sentence Analysis

Logical Analysis of Simple Sentence
Adverbial Extensions

Materials:
1. Sentence analysis box
2. Paper
3. Pen
4. Scissors

Presentation:
1. Lay out the sentence analysis symbols; place the orange arrows with the questions facing up to the right of the black arrows with their circles at the end of each arrow.
2. Write a sentence on a slip of paper with a couple of adverbial phrases:

Last May, a garden was dug near the pool by Sam.

3. Have the child determine the predicate, subject and if there are direct or indirect objects in the sentence.
4. Note that there are some words left. State that you will try the orange arrows.
5. Read the arrows from top to bottom, determining if the words left in the sentence go with any of the questions. “The garden was dug when?---Last May. The garden was dug how?---It doesn’t say. The garden was dug from what? Etc…”
6. Place the orange arrows beside, below or on top of the predicate with points pointing to the orange circle. Cut out each adverbial extension and place it on the appropriate orange circle.
7. Turn the arrows over to show the structure of the sentence.
8. Transpose.

Adverbial Extensions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>when?</td>
<td>Time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how?</td>
<td>Manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from what?</td>
<td>Source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>what for?</td>
<td>Purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of whom?</td>
<td>Possessive, Material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of what?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with whom?</td>
<td>Acompaniment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with what?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>where?</td>
<td>Place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>why?</td>
<td>Cause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by whom?</td>
<td>Agent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by what?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by means of?</td>
<td>Instrument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whom?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by means of what?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sentence Analysis

Logical Analysis of Simple Sentences
Extensions off the Direct Object

Materials:
Sentence analysis box, paper ☐, pen ✝, scissors ❌.

Presentation:
1. Lay out the sentence analysis symbols.
2. Write a sentence on a slip of paper with extensions off the direct object:
   
   The girls had a picnic last week at the zoo.

3. Have the child determine the predicate and subject and if there is a direct or indirect object in the sentence. There isn't a direct object because nothing answers the question “to whom?”
4. Go through with the adverbial extension and place (it) with the direct object rather than the predicate.
5. Turn the arrows over to show the structure of the sentence.

Note:
These are no adverbial extensions because they come off a noun.
Logical Analysis for Simple Sentences

Sentence Analysis

Logical Analysis of Simple Sentences
Attributive Extensions

Materials:
Sentence analysis box, paper 📋, pen ✒️, scissors 𝗦✂️.

Presentation:
1. Lay out the sentence analysis symbols. Bring out the blue arrows and triangles.
2. Write a sentence on a slip of paper with attributive extensions:
   
   The summer fair will start next week at the old fairgrounds.

3. Have the child determine the predicate and subject and if there is a direct or indirect object in the sentence and adverbial extensions. They can cut up the sentence and place it on the symbols.
4. After placing all the words, ask the child if s/he can do anything with the blue arrows and triangles. Read the question: “Which?”, “What kind of?”. They may notice the word summer.
5. Read the subject: tell the child that the word summer can be cut off and placed at the end of the blue arrow on a blue triangle. “What kind of fair?--- A summer fair.”
6. Read other phrases too if there are any other attributive extensions:
   “What kind of fairgrounds?--- Old fairgrounds.” “Which week?--- Next week.”
7. Turn the arrows over to show the structure of the sentence.
8. Transpose.

The fair
Who/What is it that?
will start

next

summer

week

When?

The fair will start next week at the old fairgrounds.

Who/What is it that?

will start

next

summer

week

When?
Appositives rename the subject of a sentence, identifying or explaining the noun/pronoun it is set beside. It is different than the adjectival attribute as it is doing more than describing the subject—it is renaming it. We use a black arrow going to a black circle the same size as the one it comes from to represent the appositive.

Two sentences would be:  

*Mary, the Girl Scout, sells cookies.*

*The president, George Bush, gave a long speech.*
Sentence Analysis
Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Materials:
Sentence analysis box, Paper, Pen, Scissors.

Presentation:
1. Give the children a sentence with a subject, predicate and direct object:

   Sam ate the ice cream.

2. Have the children set up the sentence analysis box and work it out.
3. State that there is a special name for the verb when the action goes across to the object.
4. Explain that you can hear the action go across the ice cream.
5. Introduce it as a transitive verb.
6. Etymology: transera (Latin) meaning to go across.
7. Give another sentence with no direct or indirect object to go across:

   Mary sat down.

8. Ask whether the action of the sentence goes across to the object.
9. State that there is no object in the sentence.
10. Give another sentence with no direct or indirect object to go across to:

    John walks quickly.

11. Note that these are not transitive verbs but intransitive verbs. There is not an object for the verb to go across to.
12. As the children do sentences, on occasion ask what kind of verb it is: transitive or intransitive.

Notes:
Direct object: Transitive verb
No object: Intransitive verb
Sentence Analysis
Verbal and Nominal Predicate

Materials:
Sentence Analysis box or charts.

Presentation:
1. Write this:  
   Mrs. Clark is

3. Write it in:
   Mrs. Clark is happy.

4. “The word that completes this sentence is called a compliment.”
5. Give some other sentences like: “She is the president.” “He is a teacher.”
6. Discuss.
7. Write:
   Mr. Brown is here.

“This does not have a compliment because the added word is an adverb. A compliment is a noun or an adjective.

More Advanced Extension:
1. Give sentences with verbal predicate and ask the children to listen.
   “The child reads.”
   “The dog jumps.”
2. Note that in with these sentences you can hear the actions.
3. Give some sentences with nominal predicates and ask the children to listen.
   “John is tall.”
   “The dog is fat.”
4. Ask whether you hear the action in the same way. Note that you can’t hear the action in the same way.
5. State that when you can tell there’s an action going on, it’s called a verbal predicate.
6. State further that when you have the other kind and there is no action, it’s called a nominal predicate.
7. Have the children discuss and say why they think the predicate is what it is.
8. Give the children sentences to practice with the sentence analysis box or charts.

Notes:
A predicate nominative is a noun or pronoun (or adjective) compliment that refers to the same person or thing as the subject. It follows a linking verb like be, look, feel, smell, taste, become…
Sentence Analysis
Elliptical Sentences

Presentation:
1. Sometimes in a sentence, there is a part of it that is not expressed but is understood anyway.
2. Give an example in which the children should be able to identify that the subject is missing:
   
   Thank you.

3. “We hear people say this all the time. It sounds like a sentence, but if we diagrammed it, what would be missing?” The subject is missing but it’s understood or implied.
4. Have the children write down this sentence:
   
   Thank you.

   and then underneath the same sentence rewrite it adding in the part that is understood.

   Thank you.

   I Thank you.

5. Note which part was understood (subject).
6. Give other examples:
   a. “The sooner the better.”
   b. “Sounds good.”
   c. “Whatever you say.”
      (a) seems to be missing a subject and a verb: “The sooner it happens the better it will be.”
      (b) seems to be missing a subject: “That sounds good.”
      (c) seems to be missing a predicate: “Whatever you say goes.”

8. Children can make and find examples on their own.

Note:
This is a good small group lesson. An ellipsis is the omission of one or more words, understood and necessary to make the sentence grammatically complete. I am stronger (than you are).
Sentence Analysis
Direct and Inverted order

Presentation:
1. Introduce the **direct order** by asking the children to **listen** to some examples of **sentences with a subject, predicate, direct or indirect object**:
   
   **"We went to the fair."**
   
   **"She ate a banana."**

2. State that these sentences begin with a subject followed by a predicate and an object or indirect object. When sentences follow this order we say they are in **direct order**.

3. “Now listen to this sentence.” Give a sentence in the inverted order in which the subject isn’t first but the predicate is first:
   
   **"Are you going to the fair?"**

4. State that in this sentence, the **subject is not first**, rather the predicate is first. This is an example of an **inverted order**.

5. Continue with other examples. Have the children **change the order** from inverted to direct or direct to inverted.

Follow-Up Activities:
1. Children can do transpositions with sentences by inverting the order and seeing how many ways it can be rearranged and still make sense.

2. Introduce sentences in the inverted order with **neither the subject or predicate first**.

3. Note that you can find inverted order in **poetry**.
   
   (Maria Montessori Method Book p. 122???)
   
   **Jump goes the cow over the moon.**

Notes:
Inverted order: Are you going to the fair?
Direct order: We went to the fair.
Presentation:

1. Give a sentence in the active voice where the subject is doing the action and ask the children to listen to the sentence:
   
   “The boy poked the balloon.”

2. Ask what part of the sentence forms the action or predicate (answer: poked) and what part was the subject (answer: the boy.)

3. State that the sentence is in the active voice because the subject is doing the action.

4. Convert the sentence into the passive voice and ask the children to listen:
   
   “The balloon was poked by the boy.”

5. Ask the children whether the action was performed by the subject? Is there a direct object? (answer: No)

6. State that the sentence is in the passive voice. Note that the boy was the agent. In the passive voice the subject is doing nothing. In the active voice the subject is doing all the action.

7. Have the children analyse the sentence; note that there is no direct object in the second sentence and that the boy is the agent.

8. Give a sentence in the reflexive voice and ask the children to listen:
   
   “The clown tripped himself.”

9. State that the subject and the direct object in the sentence are the same person. When this happens we say it’s in the reflexive voice. Reflexive means to turn back.

Note:

Teacher may bring up the passive voice as it is used without an actor, like:

“The vase was knocked off the table.”

“The milk was spilled on the floor.”

Who did the action? How can the passive voice be used to keep you from getting the blame?
Sentence Analysis
Compound Sentences

Materials:
Paper strips [], Little tickets with A,B,C, Pen 

Presentation 1:
1. Write and read to the children:
   "We went to the zoo yesterday and I took Maya to the park today."
2. Ask the children how many verbs there are in the sentence. (answer: 2)
3. Ask the children what they are. (answer: went and took). Cut these out.
4. "Which one came first?" (answer: went)
5. Ask the children which part of the sentence it goes with. (answer: We went to the zoo)
6. Cut the rest of the words out and lay them out on the table.
7. Ask if the first part makes sense:
   "We went to the zoo yesterday." (answer: Yes)
8. Label this sentence with the A.
9. Ask the children which words go with "took" and then lay them together to the right of the first group.
   Remove the "and".
10. Ask, "Does -I took Maya to the park today- make sense?" (answer: yes)
11. Label this sentence with the B.
12. Reveal the "and". "Did you notice I cut this out when you weren't looking?" *or* ask the children if they recall the original sentence.
13. "If I put the 'and' back in, I no longer have two sentences that stand alone. I have a compound sentence.

   A
   
   We went to the zoo yesterday and
   
   I took May to the park today.

   B

14. "The word 'and' is called a coordinate conjunction or it can be called a joining conjunction."
15. The Children can write compound sentences for each other.

Presentation 2: Compound Sentences Formed with Three Sentences.
1. Write a sentence and give it to a child to act out. Have the group guess and then the child can read it and place it on the table.

   He opened the window, took a deep breath, and swallowed a bug.

2. Ask how many verbs there are in the sentence. (answer: 3)
3. Ask what the verbs are? (answer: opened, took, swallowed)
4. What part goes with the verb “opened”? (answer: He opened the window)
5. Ask if it can stand alone? (answer: yes)
6. Cut the first part.
7. Ask if there is another part that can stand alone. (answer: yes, if we took “he” and put it with the second part. He is implied.)
8. Cut the second part.
9. Ask about the third part: does it stand alone? (answer, Yes, if we add “he”.)
10. Cut the third part after the joining conjunction “and”.
11. Ask how many sentences are there. (answer: 3)
12. Place a label, part a, b and c.

   A  
   He opened the window  ,  took a deep breath  and  swallowed a bug.

   B

   C

13. Ask what kind of sentence they are. (answer: simple sentences)
14. Note that the first two sentences are joined by a comma and the second and third by “and”. The whole thing together is a compound sentence.
15. Work with other sentences, label the part and determine what they are joined with.

Notes:
A compound sentence is one made out of two or more independent clauses. These are sentences which could stand by themselves but are combined with a conjunction or a comma.
Sentence Analysis
Introduction to Complex Sentences

Introduction:
These are sentences that consist of a main or principle clause and one or more subordinate clause(s) which only make sense when combined with the main clause.

The children will work with three different kinds of clauses which they will be familiar with from simple sentences. The clauses are:

- **Noun clause:** Does the work of the noun in relation to some other word in some other clause.
- **Adjectival clause:** Does the work of an adjective in relation to some other word in some other clause.
- **Adverbial clause:** Does the work of an adverb in relation to some other word in some other clause.

The simple sentence pattern is repeated here: a sentence is written and given orally, broken into its component parts, analyzed with the arrows (questions to ask on one side, name on the other) then with the analysis chart. The questions are the connecting link to the primary work while here the names are given.

Prerequisite:
To begin this work, the children will have had a good amount of practice with analyzing simple sentences. The questions to ask while analyzing should be well fixed in their minds. Children should have also worked with compound sentences and done a lot of oral work. This will enable the children to weigh the sentences and determine if they have equal weight and can stand on their own. Complex sentences deal with clauses of unequal weight which are unbalanced. The children should be able to hear the difference between the two.

Material:
Clause box I with arrows containing questions on one side, the name on the other; clause box II with the same arrows but with no questions, the name or clause only. The black arrows should have the subject, direct object and indirect object clauses, the blue arrows have adjectival clauses and the orange arrows have adverbial clauses. There is also a red rectangular slip with “Principle Clause” printed on it.
Complex Sentences
Sentence Analysis
Complex Sentences
Adjectival Clauses


Presentation:
1. Write and give a sentence, which contains an adjectival clause.

   The frisky cat, which you found in the garbage can, is our neighbor’s.

2. Ask how many verbs there are and what they are. (answer 2: “found” and “is”)
3. Ask which part of the sentence the verb “is” goes with? (answer: “The frisky cat is our neighbour’s”)
4. Cut ↯ the first part and place it together.

5. Ask which part of the sentence the verb “found” goes with. (answer: “which you found in the garbage.”)
6. Ask if the first part makes sense? can it stand alone? (answer: yes)
7. Note that this is the principal clause.
8. Label the sentence as the principal clause.
9. Ask if the remaining words could tell you more? It gives more information about the cat.
10. Determine that the second part does not make sense on its own.
11. Bring out the blue arrows and ask a child which arrow will tell you something more.

12. Turn the arrow at some point.
13. Note that the second part is a subordinate clause and a subordinate clause can’t stand alone; it depends on a word in the main clause. This main word in the main clause, which is in the subordinate clause, is called a relative pronoun. Since the subordinate clause belongs to cat, we call cat the antecedent.
Sentence Analysis
Complex Sentences
Noun Clauses


Presentation:
1. Write and read a sentence to the children:

   Don’t forget to put your clothes away.

2. Ask how many verbs there are in the sentence? (answer: 2- “don’t forget” and “put”)
3. Ask what part of the sentence the verb “don’t forget” goes with. (answer: “Don’t forget”)
4. Cut ❋ the first part.
5. Ask what part of the sentence does the verb “put” go with. (answer: “to put your clothes away”)
6. Ask what part can stand alone? (answer: “Don’t forget”)
7. Label and place it under the principal clause.
8. Go through the blue and orange arrows, noting that the clause doesn’t seem to be an adverbial or adjectival clause.
9. Introduce the black arrows and match which one works.
Sentence Analysis
Correlative Sentences

Introduction:
These should be worked on at the same time as the compound and complex sentences.

Materials:
The same as those used for compound and complex sentences.

Presentation:
The children should be given sentences in which it is hard to distinguish between the main and subordinate clauses. These sentences are given for discussion purposes and the children should have reasons for deciding as they do. Examples might include:

“The cookies were so delicious it was hard not to eat them all.”
“The more you study, the more you learn.”

Note:
Work on analyzing sentences should be finished by the time the children are 9. Children in the 9 to 12 class should take up this work in grammar books. There they will find a different way of treating it, usually with more classifications.
Sentence Analysis
Compound and Complex Sentences

Materials: Sentence analysis box, Paper strips ☐, Pen ✒, ☀.

Presentation: Introduction to Compound and Complex sentences.

1. Write and give a sentence to the children which is both compound and complex:

   We went to the zoo and saw the panda bears because neither of us had seen them before.

2. Ask how many verbs are there in the sentence? (answer: (3) “saw” : “had seen” : “went”)
3. Ask what part goes with “went”? (answer: “We went to the zoo”)
4. Ask what part goes with “saw”? (answer: “saw the panda bears”)
5. Ask what part goes with “had seen”? (answer: “because neither of us had seen them before”)
6. Cut ☀ the three parts.
7. Ask which part can stand alone? (answer: the first two parts can stand on their own)

   We went to the zoo
   [We] saw the panda bears

   (if “we” is added since it is implied)
8. Ask about the last part? (The third part cannot stand alone)
9. Note that they must not all be of equal weight.
10. Ask if it is a compound sentence?
11. Note that the first two parts make up a compound sentence.
12. Label the first two parts as A and B.
13. Ask about the last part?
14. Go through the blue arrows and determine that it is not an adjectival clause.
15. Go through the orange arrows determining that the last part answers the adverbial clause why.
16. Mark the adverbial clause with Roman numeral number I and say this is dependent to the first degree.
Presentation 2: Sentence with Numerous Subordinate Clauses.

1. **Write** and give a sentence to the children containing **two subordinate clauses**.

   

   The young girl bought a dress and made a scarf to wear to the dance which was held on Friday.

2. Ask the children to **name the verbs of the sentence**. *(bought, made, wear, dance)*

3. Ask the children to name the parts that can stand on their own.

   

   The young girl bought a dress

   (The young girl) made a scarf

4. Cut the first and second part.

5. Notice that the first two parts make up a **compound sentence**. Label as part A and B.

6. Determine that the third part is an **adjectival clause** because it tells you more. Why? *To wear to the dance.*

7. Notice that it is dependent to the first degree so place a Roman numeral I beside the clause.

8. Determine that the last part is an **adjectival clause** too because it tells you more. When? *Which was held on Friday.*

9. Note that it is dependent to the second degree so place a Roman numeral II beside the clause.

   

   The young girl bought a dress **and**

   made a scarf

   **A**

   to wear to the dance

   **I**

   which was held on Friday

   **II**
10. Add another clause to the sentence so it reads as above with an addition to the end.

because their homecoming was on Saturday

11. Determine that this is an adjectival clause too because it tells you more. Why? *Because their homecoming was on Saturday.*

the young girl bought a dress and made a scarf

because their homecoming was on Saturday

III
A participle is a verb form used as an adjective. The participle along with its modifiers is called the participle phrase.

Examples:  “I found her crying.”
“Hesitating there for a moment he quickly grasped the situation.”
A gerund is a verb form ending in –ing which is used as a noun.

Examples:  
“Travelling is fun.”
“Good writing comes from much practice.”
“They do not appreciate my singing.”
“By studying you can pass the course.”
An **infinitive** is a **verb form**, usually preceded by “to” and generally used as a **noun**.

Examples:

“*To wait is tiresome.*”
“*Everyone wanted to go.*”
“*We study to learn.*”
Language Development

- Literature p. 115
- Reading p. 116
- Writing p. 118
- Research p. 119
- Margaret Stevenson’s Lectures p. 120
Teacher should read to children in the classroom, and kids can draw or use metal insets to make complicated mandalas while they listen.

Children should read to each other.

There should be a class library that changes slightly depending upon what is being studied. The teacher is the reference librarian and needs to be sure the books are meeting the students’ needs.

The classroom library should not be so expansive as to discourage “going out” in search of more knowledge.

Teacher and students should forge relationships with the local libraries.

Books in the classroom should be of a high standard and of all types: poetry, history, social life, biography, drama, nonfiction, fiction, etc…

Classroom can include audio books, or audio of people reciting their book or poem, people from other cultures and their readings, folktales, etc…

The three aspects of Literature:

- Literature as it relates to grammar: Grammar affects language. One of our goals is to enrich vocabulary. Practicing transposition shows children ways of making writing more interesting. Children study grammar so they will learn how to use words correctly and in more interesting ways. This enhances children’s understanding and appreciation of literature.

- Literature as treated through study of style: Children can look at the different styles of authors and poets, as well as different styles of poetry, or the styles of different cultures. They can try to see what the author is trying to convey through the choices she makes in style.

- Literature as treated historically: Always present a background and history to things presented in the classroom. You can give children an idea of what life was like during the time a poem or book was written. You can talk about such things as first editions; look at diaries, chronicles, letters, etc… Children should read literature from both the present and the past. Children should feel the connection between the flow of life over time and the flow of literature, and be aware that it is part of life rather than something separate. You can discuss oral traditions, and how certain kinds of things were written down and others less so – scholarly versus entertainment. Children can build time lines of children’s literature. They can study Alfred the Great who wrote the first history.
Reading

The teacher should always be encouraging and assessing reading in the classroom.

Pay attention to where children are so that they are able to get their hands on material at the correct level that they will understand. Because they will be researching independently, there needs to be reading material on all topics in the classroom at all the needed levels. Many books can be purchased, but the teacher may also create books with minimal text at an early reading level to help the more basic readers. The book Guided Reading, by Fontas and Pinnell, gives a system of placing books into levels. This can be a good way to find out what books there are on topics at each reading level.

Be aware that children who have trouble reading may be embarrassed and try to conceal this. There are also likely to be children who have taken on a role of helplessness and reliance upon the teacher or other children. The teacher should find ways to encourage these children, working one-on-one with them but in a way that doesn't make them feel “dumb” or behind.

Assessment and Skill Building:
- Every day there is the possibility for informal assessment, asking children about their reading or reading with them.
- Formal assessments can take weeks and can be more stressful. It is important to choose reliable and consistent assessment. Sibyl Buckner recommends DRA (Direct Reading Assessment).
- Children may self assess.
- When children first come in the class they can simply go through the sandpaper letters and phonograms to see which they already know.
- You can assess reading level through the San Diego Assessment. Start using a list that is two levels below their grade. Go through the lists until you find a list with three or less errors. This is their reading level.
- The CAP assessment looks into concepts about print.
- CLOZE

Retelling for assessment involves reading silently and then answering questions, reading orally and retelling, both with fiction and nonfiction. This is good for 3rd and 4th graders.

There is the Take Two series by Wright Group that pairs books for children to read, and Reading Naturally.

Some schools bring in a reading specialist and do Open Court.

Reading Skills: Process to Reading
- Decoding — match letter to sound.
- Word Recognition — sight words.
Fluency — children can read aloud daily for five minutes.

- Vocabulary — teacher can go through a book to go over difficult or new words with children before reading.

- Comprehension — teacher can read to children and have them draw about what they are hearing, comparing drawings for fun, or ask simple questions.

- Study Skills — teacher helps to build skills by reading together both fiction and nonfiction, encouraging silent reading/SSR (Silent Sustained Reading)/DEAR (Drop Everything and Read), guided reading in groups of 4-6, shared/paired reading, choral reading, also use RIGBY/Great Books.
Writing

Spelling:
- Words their Way.
- Spelling is a Montessori challenge.
- Start year with BEAR assessment.
- Make spelling command cards asking children to write words alphabetically, shortest to longest. Add a prefix, use in a sentence, etc…
- Give word lists every week but no testing.
- Write in a journal twice a week and teacher can choose spelling words from there.
- Make a personal spelling dictionary. Teacher writes words she finds misspelled with the date on a card and children add it to their book. These words become their list for the week. They can see which words keep coming up as errors.

Handwriting:
- AMI uses cursive from the beginning because they feel it is easier for children to write.
- Sibyl Buckner uses D’Nelian print, and begins cursive in 2nd year for those who can. By third year they must use cursive.
- Encourage decorating margins as it is good for the pincer grip.
- Metal insets are still used by first years.
- Children can move on to study calligraphy as they get older and more capable at writing, using a book like Usborne’s. They can use calligraphy markers or real ink pens and make titles this way, timelines, or copy out poems.
- Teacher should model beautiful handwriting and include examples in the environment.

Factual Writing:
- Research is everywhere in the classroom, so children should be exposed to different resources and models like encyclopedias, dictionaries, internet with a filter, nonfiction books, etc…
- Children can make their own books as culmination of research.
- Get books on how to draw things to help children illustrate books.
- After 1st year, teacher should discuss plagiarism issues as a concept, introducing the term plagiarism in the 3rd year. Children can practice changing things into their own words, paraphrasing, etc..
- Read the Scholastic Book, Alternatives to Book Reports, giving children new ways of writing and presenting

Letter writing:
- Read the Postman books that have real letters in them.
- Make a book of your own correspondence.
- Have children write real letters to pen pals, as thank you’s to people who visit or help them when they go out.

Journal Writing:
- Have children write in a journal for two days during the week. Teacher can do a response to entries.

Children should be writing in different ways: Expository, Narrative, Descriptive and Persuasive (for older ones).

DWA and Step up to Writing are assessments and programs for writing.
Teacher can assess penmanship and vocabulary by asking children to make a list of words they know.
Use Six Traits to work on different areas of focus.
Research

Research is central to the elementary classroom.

The classroom should have a library where children can do research at their reading level on topics that are currently of interest.

The children should not find all the answers in the school—going out to libraries and museums should be encouraged and supported.

Children should learn about taking notes and plagiarism as they progress through lower elementary.

Children should become familiar with their local library and librarians. They should learn what materials and services are offered and where to find them: reference materials, videos, microfilm, magazines, etc… They should also become familiar with the Dewey Decimal System and how to find their topics in the stacks as well as in a computer catalogue.

Children should be given good examples of research literature, as well as being encouraged to write their own to add to the classroom library.

Children can be paired up with others of different levels to help them build skills in weaker areas.

The teacher should help children to go after a reasonable research project so that they can be successful. If children have bitten off too large a topic, the teacher can lead them to begin with a smaller inquiry, or help them restructure their topics as needed. The goal is for the children to have appositive experience with minimal frustration. Scaffolding by the teacher can help.
Margaret Stevenson’s Lectures

- Children’s Literature  p. 121
- Literature II  p. 124
- Remedial Language  p. 126
- Spoken Language  p. 130
- Style  p. 132
- Writing in the Elementary Classroom  p. 134
- Written Composition  p. 138
Children’s Literature

Children’s literature is an aspect of literature that can be treated historically. A history time-line can be made. When we think of children’s books and their place in history, we can see that there are many books available and what we present to the children should be good and based on what they give to the child’s development.

If we go into a study of the children’s book in literature, we find that children as children weren’t recognized until very late in western civilization. Before there could be children’s books, children had to be accepted as beings with their own needs and interests rather than the view of children as miniature men and women. Although children have always been around, they were trained for adult life. Because children were seen as smaller adults they were trained as such and there were no books for interest or to amuse them. This is more understandable, considering that books were at one time made by hand, which took a long time, as well as being very expensive.

Children heard stories of the adult world passed on by word of mouth. Even when books were first written for children these were not stories, as such tales weren’t considered appropriate for children. Instead, books written for children were school books or books concerning manners and morals.

In the 17th century, an early book entitled *A Book for Boys and Girls* was considered a children’s book. This was a strict explanation of manners and morals and was not by any means pleasure reading. But by the 18th century, children were thought of in a different way. Books such as *Gulliver’s Travels* and *Swiss Family Robinson* became children’s literature although they were written as adult books. With the arrival in England of King William of Orange and Queen Mary in 1688, the new government brought time, money and education to more people making it possible for more and more people to read. Because of this, publications of books was more frequent and more books became available.

In 1744, John Newberry published the first book for children called *The Little Pretty Pocket Book* containing pictures, rhymes and games for children. In 1745, he opened a children’s bookshop in London. Newberry wrote some 30 children’s books and now has an award named after him for outstanding books. This was a first step toward recognizing children as children with their own needs and interests (and not just in need of being trained morally and intellectually).

By the end of the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th century, the writing of children’s books in
England was taken up by genteel women. The most famous of these was Maria Edgeworth who wrote such books as Simple Susan and Waste not Want Not. These still tended to be didactic and moralizing; imagination and fantasy were thought of as unnecessary for children. In 1839, Kathy Sinclair wrote Holliday House which was a tale told to a child by an uncle about giants and fairies in a nonsensical story. It was a first attempt to give children something interesting and amusing. With the Grimmes Hans Anderson fairy tales, fairy tales became more available and accepted, beginning the modern age in children’s literature. Didactic stories continued to be written, but were done so along with a new kind of story, that of adventure stories.

Between 1840 and 1855 history and adventure were mingled into many children’s books. Then with the writings of Louis Carroll and Kingleys the age of fantasy in children’s literature began. Some, such as George McDonald’s Princess and the Goblin were too scary for children. Later, animal stories began to appear. These were of two kinds: humanized animals and animals as animals. Stories such as Kipling’s Jungle Books and The Wind in the Willows were written at this time. Finally, fantasy like The Hobbit of Tolkein came into being and then a new kind of writing based on the real lives of real children developed such as Arthur Ransonm’s Swallows and Amazons.

If we look at literature in the United States for children, we find that books in the early days of the Colonies were shipped from England. Children both here and in England were read Book of Martyrs by John Foxx. In 1671, the writing of Jane Janeway whose principle book title was changed in the United States to read A Token for Children of New England (rather then a reference to Europe). This was again stiff reading with not much joy in it for children.

The most important book in the USA was the New England Primer, which was a combination of abc’s and catechism presented in rhyme and illustrated with wood cuts. This was followed by the softer writings of Watts who wrote Divine Songs for Children which was popular both here and in England. In the early 18th century, the Puritans exerted an influence here condoning most of the traditional writing for children done in England. Things became a little lighter with more adventure stories, but it wasn’t until a printer named Wooster introduced the work of John Newberry to us that there was true writing for children here. These books were made American by changing details at the printers.

One of the first American writers of children’s literature was Peter Poly who wrote Tales of America in 1827. Tales about Europe followed this. Poly wrote about 120 books for children based on travel, nature
and art as he thought children loved the truth and didn't need fiction. In the early 19th century, Jacob Abbot wrote approximately 180 books for children that include several series such as Rollo Books, Lucy Books and Jones Books. These were instructive but interesting. Fairy tales and tales of imagination were beginning to be written, including The Legend of Sleepy Hollow and Rip Van Winkle. Frank Baron brought the fairy tale land to the U.S. with his Wizard of Oz. In the 1920’s, the first imperial stories were written such as the Little House series.

After World War II, with the publishing of paperbacks, there was a greater chance of getting books into children’s hands. American fantasy came into being as with C. S. Lewis and his Chronicles of Narnia and Mary Naughton’s Borrower’s Books.

Children can do a number of things with literature other than reading or having books read to them. They may want to make a time line of a writer they enjoy, noting the chief events of his or her life. Older children can write their own biographies recording the main events of their lives. This work should form part of a deeper study undertaken by the older children. It should be started with exposure to literature giving children the keys and as they become engaged, develop it into a deeper search into literature.
There are three aspects to keep in mind when thinking of literature in language: it is related to grammar, which provides the tools for writing (and is the backbone of the language, particularly in English); it can be treated from the point of view of analyzing style; and it has to be treated historically as it is affected by the tone and manner of the period.

Literature as Related to Grammar

The young child is exposed to grammar as it affects language from the time she is born. She hears it from the people speaking around her and develops a foundation so when she enters the Casa she is prepared for a formal introduction into the many aspects of language. Through the enrichment of vocabulary exercises the child is given the names of objects in the environment and in doing so helps her to distinguish between items that are the same but have different names. When the child is introduced to a piece of material her vocabulary is extended through these names and as the child's language preparation continues with the function of word exercises, she begins to see what words do in language and what their function is in a sentence. Transposition helps to make the children aware of the sequence and placement of words as they appear in sentences. This is taken a step further with the exercises of analysis.

In the 6-9 class, this work is taken a step further with the grammar box activities. This helps the child to realize the placement of words in sentences. Work with the permutations makes them even more aware. This continues with the word analysis work as well. At the same time the children are encouraged to write for themselves, allowing them to work on their own creative expression.

Grammar symbols are another piece of material adding a different dimension to the development of language. These make the young child aware of different patterns and the fact that some patterns never exist. The child is made aware that the verb and noun seem to hold an important pattern. In the 6-9 class, the symbols are also used for the child to note grammatical patterns.

Another factor which helps the child to understand literature has to do with words and why one word is used instead of another. Why the meanings of words have changed can also help this understanding. The study of grammar is necessary in making sure children are getting the right picture about the use of words. How words were used historically enhances the children's understanding and appreciation of literature.
Literature as Treated Through the Study of Style

The study of style should proceed alongside the child’s work with literature so that the child can begin to appreciate what others have written. The child should be brought to total reading as it relates to language so the child is not just helped to understand each word, groupings of words or the grammatical expression of the author, but to understand the feeling of what has been written. One way to help the children to do this is to acknowledge the history of the writer, his background and the world he lived in. The styles of authors stem from both the historical time in which the author lived and the kind of impact that the author wanted to have on people at the time.

Literature as Treated Historically

The child needs to have a background for what she is reading. She should be given an idea of what life was like at the time the book was written. Getting first editions of books can help with this as well as encouraging the children to read historical diaries, chronicles and letters. Particularly with the older children, their study of literature should be connected with the life of the people as shown historically by the evolution of language, how it developed and from what sources it has come. Introduce them to the literature of the past and present. Our knowledge usually begins with Chaucer while the literature of the Anglo-Saxons has been discounted, because there has been none left. Other remains have shown there was evidence of culture but because verse was generally spoken there were no written manuscripts (other than one which is in the British museum which gives a picture of what life was like in society around 6 or 7 A.D). It was the work of chronicle writers under Alfred the Great who wrote his first continual history in their own language in prose. The study of literature inside of this kind of historical content is fundamental.

The child sees through his studies that before man could develop his literary skills, he first had to satisfy his basic needs. As the child studies history, the question of books should be brought up. If the children don’t ask about them, we need to draw the question out of them. When they do ask, it is time to bring out the literature timelines. Note that when few men wrote, time wasn’t wasted on unimportant matters. Life was about journeys and work; the literature of recreation was left to the minstrels and singers and passed on orally through memory. The flow of literature is then connected to the life of people in history. This study enables the children to appreciate the part played by writers both of old and now. Literature is not divorced from the life of man but rather has its own special part to play in it.
There are a number of factors to consider when implementing remedial language. The first, of course, is that there is an immediate need to enable those children unable to read and write to do so. They need to know the shapes of the letters, be able to form them on paper and know that they are able to put their thoughts on paper as well. They need to recognize that sounds of letters combine to make words and when words are strung together they make sentences.

We also need to be aware that “the sensitive periods for language as discovery, tactile touch and letters as letters” has passed. If we understand the importance and significance of these sensitive periods it gives us a guide of what to do and not to do. This means that the sandpaper letters and moveable alphabet are not much use to the older children. Because of the change in psychological characteristics and the passing of sensitive periods there is a sense of frustration in the child. He knows by intuition that he should be able to read and write and may be resentful and unhappy that he is unable to do so. It is the teacher’s responsibility to give the child a feeling of success and to arouse the cooperation of the other children in the class to help him realize he is not a failure.

The regular work in the classroom should continue along side the remedial work. The children without skills should not be set apart. They need to be a part of the presentations going on. Even with the story of language, the child needs no ability to read or write to participate. By taking part in everything, the child will not feel as different from the others.

The child will begin to succeed in learning to read and write and in learning his math facts if a short period of time is devoted to this several times a day. Short lessons given every day will help the children the most because they can be successful with small doses and can build on this base of success. It is also easier to find a few minutes here and there then to work in a whole hour. An important fact to remind ourselves is that the longer the child goes on not reading or writing, the longer it will continue.

Because of the change in psychological characteristics and the passing of the sensitive periods, not all the usual materials for teaching reading and writing are used for remedial work in the elementary class. Some of the significant materials are used to fill in the gaps as the child acquires skills and builds on them. In this way we cut down on what we give the children. We need to keep in mind also that we shouldn't make a fuss over the fact that the child can't read or write or is lacking in math skills. We need to make the parents
aware that they should not pressure their child. The child is bothered enough and doesn’t need his parents on his back. The parents can help by reading to their child but parents shouldn’t make the child read. Make sure the parents know you can help the child with their cooperation and that if there is too much pressure put on the child she will become even more discouraged.

Normally, children in the sensitive period for language should write before reading. In writing, the child is in touch with his own language and we give him the signs to make his own language visible by analyzing words into their component parts or sounds. Reading is working to get to someone else’s language and this adds an unknown factor. The visible language must be taken and analyzed into its component sounds by recognizing the symbols. Then a synthesis of the sounds is made by putting the sounds together. With older children, this sequence of writing before reading has passed and it is easier to teach reading first, quickly followed by writing, without too great a separation. (Basically running parallel –reading and writing.)

It is important to find out what the child knows--this may be done though a game. The child should be tested on how many letters she knows (sounds) and should be congratulated on those she is familiar with. Don’t insist that the children feel the sandpaper letters but let them pick out the ones they know.

In the primary words are built with the large moveable alphabet. Short, 3-letter words have a contrasting vowel sound in the middle to help the child compose based on the principle of contrast. The contrasting colored alphabets aren’t necessary with the elementary child. He is presented, “ba” then asked to watch as a “t” is added to the end. He is then asked to sound this out. Present another letter such as “d,” ask if he remembers how it sounds and add this to the end of the “ba” to form another word. Note other words that the child can make just from these few letters to show that out of a few letters they can learn a lot of words. The child can then list the words he knows on paper and decorate this paper and make booklets. The child can use these to read from and as more letters are added to the child’s knowledge, they can be added to the books. After the child knows 5 or 6 letters, she can then start with a different beginning 2 letters and continue in this manner until the child has built facility in making words.

The child can then be introduced to phonograms, sh, st, etc., in the same manner, all the time writing them down. The child can use a book of examples of phonograms for reading the sounds and will begin to read four letter words. As the number of phonograms the child works with increases, introduce puzzle words to go parallel with the phonetic and phonogram work. For these, begin with ones in the article and noun, and
adjective grammar boxes. The child should continue making booklets he can read from. The child needs to practice reading but shouldn’t be given lists to memorize. If writing fluently is difficult you do the writing until he can do it on his own. He should also be shown how to put a cover and back page on his booklets. The child should be treated as a human being who can quickly succeed. They should know you are giving them a key, which will help them.

Writing

To begin this, use the green board sandpaper letters as they may think of the red sandpaper ones as too babyish. Explain to the child that in order to write, the shape has to be known by our hand and our head and that this is a way to get it there. If the child is given the reason why, she will be willing to cooperate. After going over these sandpaper letters quickly, let the child go on to copying on paper, not tracing the letters. Later, the child can be given short words in cursive to copy. If the child has trouble while practicing letters, he can be helped by tracing the shape of the letter in the air, then on the black board then on paper. The copies the child is working from must be beautifully written.

This should be a two-fold approach to writing-- reading first then writing, the two going together. The teacher shouldn’t try to teach the child how to read out of books. The child should be allowed to look at books in the classroom and to be involved with children who read better. They should be encouraged to interact with children doing research work. For example, children who aren’t yet reading can be the illustrators of a joint research project.

The child needs to be given the necessary keys which are the keys to the alphabet and shown how few letters are needed to learn a lot of words. In the primary class, the child took the word, analyzed it to find the symbol and put these together. With the older children, we go the other way, by giving the sounds and having them read back.

The children should be encouraged to use books in the class to look at and find words they can read. If giving nomenclature lessons, make sure these children are part of the lessons. Take care that the child doesn’t feel he has to take a book and stumble through it. When a book is taken, it should be enjoyed. The child should look at it, find words he knows or go through it with a friend reading it with him.

If the child is still having trouble, finding any way to help him to read is acceptable. This includes almost any reading scheme or ways the children may concoct themselves. It is our ingenuity that will help these
children; we shouldn't get stuck to any one method. One way is to make booklets for the children by folding pieces of paper in half, find a picture (or have them draw one) and have them tell you about it. The teacher writes what the child says on the opposite page of the picture. This can be read back to the child then ask if there are any words the child recognizes and can read. They can then bring over the booklet of puzzle words and pick those words out of the story. This can be done with phonograms as well. Note how many words the child can find.
Spoken Language

Spoken language makes up a large part of the elementary program. As in the primary class, rich use of language within the elementary class is a sign that there is an active, living environment in which the children can share their thoughts and ideas. Spoken language at this level has a large part to play, as it frees the intellect and allows for the sharing of thoughts. With this in mind, we have to be sure not to impose a level of quiet just because it appeals to us. Common sense should be a guide here. Children should be made aware that a particular tone of voice is acceptable in the classroom and only when they're outside should they use a different tone. When this is established, spoken language becomes part of the structure of the classroom and not something to be stopped.

The children should be allowed to talk about other things then their work and they need times to rest as well. One time for conversation to take place is during lunch. This shouldn't be a time when everyone sits down together. A corner in the room should be set aside for several children to have lunch together. They should have the tools necessary for laying a table and should learn how to clean up after themselves. The children should be free to eat when they want and with whom. This is a responsibility that the child needs to take on. If a child engages in horseplay, he shouldn't be allowed to eat with a particular group of children. This allows the children to converse and doesn't interrupt their work as a scheduled lunch can.

Children should also be free to discuss the work they are doing and to watch what others are doing as long as they themselves are keeping up with their work. This promotes the teaching of one child by another.

Another kind of discussion that should be a part of the class falls under the category of debates, particularly towards the end of the 9 to 12 class. The students need to know how to pick topics and set up a formal debate with speakers and the general format.

The children's reports provide another opportunity for discussion and sharing ideas. One child can give a report to the class on behalf of the group or children can divide it so each relates a different aspect of the report such as one explaining the illustrations, another speaking on the books used, etc. In this way the children get used to speaking to other people as a preparation for speaking in public later on.

Another form, particularly towards the end of the 9 to 12 class is the spoken dialogue. These can
be based on historical or literary characters. The children should begin by finding out about the characters and their lives. They can then write a dialogue between the characters. The dialogue should be authentic as possible and should be about things that they would have actually been said.

Another form is that of drama. A build up for this from interpretive reading slips which are read and then interpreted by the child in action according to his own understanding of what’s on the slip. Some of this work is done by one child, others by small groups. The set of slips labeled series I and II belong to the primary class, the others to the elementary. The slips are not intended to be read out loud because to read out loud involves a control of the breath and the ability for the eyes and intellect to go ahead of the voice. It may not yet be possible for the child and he should not be asked to do this. Instead the child reads the slip silently and then acts it out. The slips are meant to help the child to express from within his own person and the children should do these on their own without the teachers help. If the child does an interpretation in front of the class, the other children should act as the critics.

From this interpreting work should come the writing of plays for one another. After the interpreting work, the child may have a need to perform in another way. This should be the child’s own work and if they don’t seem to be doing it, help them to do so. The same kind of interpretation is wanted for doing drama. You may have to give hints as to how to project their voices or remind them to speak more slowly, but the children should help and work with one another on the creative aspect. If the children get together for a play they’ve written, they need to discuss together how the characters behave and can discuss the voices noting that the tones may need to change. The children can also be encouraged to make up their own examples of interpretive reading slips and can make collections of these for themselves.
Style

When, considering style, we have to remember that what we're helping to develop is the personality of the child, not just his language (which is an expression of the human person). This is the reason it's important at the 3-6 level to give language work as things to be discovered rather then just reading and writing. In the same way, the written work of the child in elementary shouldn't be interfered with. The child's work should never be criticized. In discussing it with the child, you may find that they are unhappy with their and request your constructive criticism/feedback.

One facet of writing to address is style. We need to also help the children with expression of the content and style of what they are writing. We need to show the child how to put down the content in a way which is clear and beautiful and not just a group of words strung together. One help to this is reading out loud in both the primary and elementary classes. The children should experience many different authors and become aware of the differences in their styles and that each has their own way of expressing. We need to help the children develop form in their own writing and to appreciate the styles of others.

Writing should be grammatical, clear and appropriate for the subject. As the children work through the language program, there are many helps for the use of correct grammar. This area should not be so rigid that it makes the language dead and no longer an expression of the child's living spirit. The grammar must flow from the living expression and not be tied to rules which stiffen it. One aid to this is the grammar symbols. By working with these, the children can begin to see patterns in their sentences.

The children also have to be helped with their clarity of expression. If the child isn't clear on his thoughts, he can't be clear in expressing them. Work with the compound and complex sentences should help the children write more clearly. The style of writing should also be appropriate to what is being written. The children should be helped to use a style that brings out the point of what they're writing about and reflects its essence. We need to ensure that the child develops her own individual style as it is the child herself actually being expressed. If the children can think independently and clearly they can write independently and clearly.

One way to help the child to continue her writing and develop her style is to expose her to prose and poetry throughout the elementary class. The children shouldn't be required to finish every book to the end. They need to find what is appealing to them. Let the children make a list of the authors they enjoy so they can
look for other books by the same people. It is important not to examine too closely why the book appeals to the students as dissecting it can take the enjoyment out of it. They should be helped to discuss what the book was about, what parts they liked etc. In the class library there should be a variety of books.

Another way to help the child in looking at her own form of writing is to have her put grammar symbols on her work from time to time. They can draw these on their paper the relative size of the moveable symbols and color them their appropriate colors. Then they can look at what they’ve written and determine if they’re heavy in one part of speech or another noting what kinds of patterns they see.

Another thing to do with the children is to let them take short passages of two authors out of books that they’ve enjoyed, have them symbolize and compare the two styles. (Noting, for example if one author uses adjectives heavily and the other uses them sparsely.) They can do the same with two descriptive passages of two authors again comparing and noting similarities and differences. They can do this with one author as well by taking two different passages and noting if the style is consistent. You can ask if the style had to do with the time that the author lived and note whether it was drawing attention to something in particular and if the essence of the author’s style was conforming to the life of the time. Older children can symbolize and note if a symmetrical pattern emerges by grouping the phases. They should start with something small and build up.
We need to help children to write with skill and style and to make their writing an art form. They have come from the primary class able to read and write and have developed the skill of concentration enabling them to complete tasks. They should have developed independence and the initiative to think their own thoughts and express these in their own unique ways. This independence, initiative and self-discipline is what permits the child to do honest work and allows them to trust the counsel of adults willingly and joyfully. When these attributes integrate with the new characteristics of the child, in the second plane of development and the new power of the imagination, an exploration of language and creative writing should fill the classroom.

What form does their writing take? Children at this plane want to do expository writing and research in history, biology, geography, and even on what they’ve learned in math or on the history of math. They want to write creatively about their feelings in both prose and poetry. Their prose writing can take the form of monologues, for example, of a historical person as integrated with the time they lived. It can take the form of describing a place or an event or may be a mystery story (particularly popular with 9-year-old boys).

The children need a way to exhibit their research writing. Large sheets of paper should be available for the students to mount their work on. These can be displayed in the classroom. The teacher needs to prepare the child on how to display their work which may include advice on graphics, how to space the exhibits, how to label them, cutting, measuring and titling it. The titles tend to be gregarious reflecting the characteristic of the child who wants to work on a large scale as it fits their new, strength and ability. Their work may also be exhibited in scrolls, timelines, books and posters. If the child is doing creative writing, it should first be done in a rough draft to get the ideas down on paper. Later the spelling, punctuation and style can be refined when it is recopied and embellished with illustrations. It is important that the finished copy be as beautiful as possible with decorations and lovely handwriting as this aesthetic aspect gives the work another dimension.

To Motivate Writing

In order to express ideas with clarity and style, children have to have an ear for language developed by hearing and reading the best that is produced in literature. The teacher has the job of bringing great literature to the class if she wants to clear the students’ minds of the trash and ungrammatical commercial
lingos children are subjected to. The teacher should select books and poems to read to the children that are worthwhile and then read these with enthusiasm and a sense of drama. There should be time afterward to talk about these and the children's reactions to them.

More advanced materials can be presented to the children in annotated versions or by playing a recording of a work and having the children read along with it. Don't be afraid to read poetry to the children; the child is the natural ally of the poetry, both share the natural wonder of the world. The more the child hears and reads, the greater his capacity for future enjoyment and concentration will be. Memorization of poetry is helpful for the child. Children can also read and do productions of plays. We need to give suggestions for improvement in effective writing style; the following can serve as guides:

1) **Make the paragraph the unit of composition.** This serves all forms of literature work and sets forth a literary idea. For this reason, each person's speech in dialogue needs a separate paragraph. The paragraph should begin with a leading statement serving to tie together the details that follow. When the children have had the experience in constructing a polished paragraph, they gain confidence in writing longer pieces as well; they see that writing is just an extension of the technique they've already mastered.

2) **Choose a suitable design and hold to it:** write down thoughts as they come to you and later reorganize for structure and design. It's important to recognize the architecture of the piece as well as the thought expressed. This is what gives pleasure to the reader: the order and symmetry. Sonnets can be pointed out to the children so they can see that if someone can put meaning into such a tight structure, other structures will seem easy.

3) **Verbs should be used in the active voice** when the writer wants the prose to be more direct and vigorous.

4) **Positive statements are better** than negative ones, e.g., “not very often on time” vs. “usually late”.

5) **Omit needless words.**

6) **Use definite, specific, concrete language.**

7) **Keep related words together; writing may become ambiguous otherwise.**

8) **Keep to one tense in a story; this is easier if the child knows some guidewords:** Present tense-- today; Past—yesterday; Future—tomorrow.

9) **Avoid use of timid qualifiers,** rather, very, little, pretty. Note that overused words lose their effectiveness.

10) **Avoid clichés.** Ask the children if they've ever heard a combination of words before, if so, they
shouldn’t use it.

11) Write with nouns and verbs-- these are what give prose it’s toughness and color.

Spelling

All the etymology work will aid the child with his spelling while the word study exercises will help him to focus his attention on the proper order of the letters. The child will remember this from his work with phonograms and this will be reinforced with the grammar exercises in the elementary class. The children seem to enjoy the challenge of spelling harder and harder words. They are aware from their study of the history of language that we have been left with a perversity and inconsistency of spelling. We need to point out that the language is still logical enough that we can make some guidelines for help with spelling. This can be started with a list of rules. These can be read over with the children, then they can try to find examples of these and make list that can be made into a booklet. The teacher needs to allow for variations in the way the students learn these rules such as making scrolls of these, having the students work from charts of these, assigning a specific amount to each child to study, etc. It is important to teach the children how to break these words into syllables, making them aware if they can spell a syllable, they can spell a word of any length. They can also team up for their spelling study in any way that they want. This may include dictating to one another (the one spelling the word should be encouraged to write it). One child can also write a list of words for another with some misspelled so the other can try to identify the misspelled ones. The words that are missed can be added to the next list. This enables the children to help each other master all the spelling words at their own pace. The words most often misspelled are homonyms. It is good to go over the meanings of these and to have the students do some written work to show they know it. Having them write these words and place the correct grammar symbol over them can do this. The children can also be asked to write a sentence containing all the same homonyms.

Punctuation

To help children realize the necessity of punctuation, read a story without any pauses or inflections in a dull, monotonous tone. The children should be given free reign in inventing exercises to learn these. This may include copying passages without punctuation, then filling in the punctuation, having them write their own paragraph with the punctuation marked in color s. At some point, quiz the children with a three-period lesson.

Research Writing
After the key lessons, the children will have to collect more information, as all the answers are not given in the classroom material. To do this, the children will have to use outside resources such as going to the library. The children need to be oriented to the library and shown how to find books. To introduce this they can be given the story of Dewey and the system he developed. To help the children remember how the system is set up, tell them that the categories are arranged in order of priority as primitive man may have seen it. He first questioned, “Who are I? Where did I come from?” the answer to this is between 100 and 199.

Note that 000–099 category is for general information and reference material. The child may not be content with just the 100 categories and may want to go down to the tens and units. The teacher can play a game with them once they know these categories, stating, for example: “I want to find something about life in the Middle ages” then send someone to get a book on this in two minutes, and so on.

Handwriting, Illustrating and Decorating

If the children know how to research, use spelling, punctuation etc. they’ll want to put it on paper so that it looks beautiful. We need to show them how to do this either by having an expert come in and demonstrate or better yet, showing them ourselves. We need to think carefully about what paper and pencils the children use. The students should be encouraged to draw and do illustrations and if tracing is outlawed, their drawing will become proficient much more quickly. The students shouldn’t be restricted to just colored pencils and metal inset paper. If the children's work is well expressed with beautiful handwriting and illustrations, it will have an aesthetic wholeness that will satisfy them and make them want to do more.

Our aim is to help the child develop a style of writing unique to herself. While the students may do work on similar themes, they can see that there are differences of style by symbolizing (with grammar symbols) and that everyone writes in a way which is unique to him or her. The child should realize that writing well is an art form he can master. He should also see that the task of art is enormous and that it is this that keeps humans in touch with our feelings.
There are two areas of written work: the recording of information and the transmission to paper of the original thoughts of the child. The study of language was started with a story of writing and we have to remember as we go on with writing that the development of the alphabet can’t be separated from the history. Writing has touched people, and civilizations throughout geographic regions and time. One area of discussion about the story of writing is the materials which were used to write with. This takes the children into a study of biology and art as they study the various utensils used to write with and materials used to write on as well as the different hands and styles used throughout the ages. The history of the illumination of manuscripts, the varieties of printing which evolved, and other facets of the development of writing should be explored.

The study of symbols and signs as they have developed through time is taken up further in the 9 to 12 class through the study of heraldry. This is the study of signs and symbols used in shield decoration, crests, beasts of heraldry and the like. The children can start by studying their own city or state crest and begin to see these as another kind of sign language.

The beginning of written work came with the activities in the primary classroom, such as the sandpaper letters, moveable alphabet etc. which helped the child to analyze his own language into sounds which helped him to make the discovery that these could be made visual. This work had a two-fold purpose, to prepare both the hand and the mind. The work in the elementary class has the same purposes. If the mind has no ideas there will be nothing to put down on paper, while if the hand isn’t properly developed, the child will be handicapped in communicating his thoughts in writing. It is important in the elementary class to make sure that chunks from books are not copied but rather that the child is putting the ideas into her own words. The preparation of the hand should be taught in primary and continued in the elementary so that letters are shaped and joined together in a legible fashion. Cursive, not printing should be used as the child has the muscular ability to move the hand along from one letter to the other easily.

The child discovers that in writing she can make her mind visible and the two preparations (mind and hand) are key for this. In the primary, they should be exposed to all areas of language enrichment as these will help to develop ideas in the mind of the young child and give him some material he can write about. Once this work begins, the child should be helped to develop ideas through stories, talking and discussions
as well as helping him to perfect the different shapes of the letters. One reason there is not more exploding into writing is that children aren't seeing as much writing going on. To offset this, the teacher needs to set examples herself and have the older children in the class set examples by doing writing work in the morning when the younger children are there to observe. The contents of the child's mind in the primary needs to be enriched as well, through the nomenclature materials and the language training activities.

So the ability to express oneself clearly, to give information, and to tell stories in both speech and in writing should be established by the time the child enters the elementary class. Otherwise, the difficulty that the teacher faces is that the child at this age has made the change to an unrestful mind and has the urge to know more but doesn't have the tools to do so. But hopefully the child will come to the class ready to continue to develop her writing skills.

The children should be encouraged to use colored inks, to color their capital letters and punctuation, embellish their papers with decorated margins, underline their titles and finish off with decorations. The more they decorate, the more pleased they'll be with their work, satisfying a need of children at this age for self-evaluation and perfection. They should do their work on single sheets of paper rather than a notebook and be encouraged to discuss the things they're displeased with in their work rather than throwing them away. The children may need to be given the idea of decorating their work, and we should show them another hand such as italic. A parent can give a demonstration on this or a visiting lecturer can come in. For a particularly beautiful piece of work, children can do the capital letters in gold or silver. Beautiful hands of the past can be shown to the children to encourage them to develop a clear hand in their own style and to help them take pleasure in their own writing.

Another side of written work to take into consideration is the content of the writing. The children may have to be helped in all the areas of content: spelling, punctuation, style, grammar etc. The children should be aware that they're writing because they want to share something, keep a record for themselves or others, or merely for the joy of writing.

There are many ways to help the child correct her spelling without requiring too much list memorization. Reading itself is a help to spelling. While the child is learning to read and write there are many ways he can be helped with his spelling through his work with the moveable alphabet, puzzle words etc. In the elementary there is a new world of words to explore and the history and etymology of the word is given to help the child focus on these words. In her language studies, the studies of roots and affixes, etc. all help the child become aware of the way words are spelled. As much as possible this creative and historical approach
should be used. Lists become a chore and if lists are used too often, the rest of the language work becomes so as well.

The psychological characteristics of the child should be kept in mind. The child has a reasoning mind which needs to be freed up. In this way it becomes not a question of memorization but rather a matter of helping the child reason. All the word study work as well as the verb and tenses work can be an aid to the child's spelling. Children can look up words they don't know in the dictionary and keep their own booklets of spelling words. Recording the words helps the child to remember them as well.

When working with spelling rules, the rule should be given, then it should be left up to the children to find the exceptions to the rules. In this way the exceptions are isolated, making them stand out more. As children find words that don't follow the rules, they can look these up in an etymology dictionary to determine why they don't follow the rules.

The parts of speech and analysis work are another help to the child's writing by helping to fix the logical order of the words that we use. This helps the child to work on his own writing and structuring of sentences to make what is said become more clear.

Before the child can go out and look for information, she needs to be shown how to find this information and to record it. The children need to learn how to take notes and to write the key words which will bring back the information to their minds so they can write on it in their own words. To help them do this, give them a short story or passage of information and ask them what were the important words in the passage that help them to recall the information. Begin this in a small way and slowly develop the children's note taking abilities. As children do this, they can go back to the original place they took notes from and check to see if they've presented all the information accurately.

The best way to prepare the child for creative writing is for her to hear literature being read and to read it herself. In this way the children will have a pattern to follow.

The written work in the classroom can take a number of forms. The written page itself can be decorated. Pages can be held together with a piece of ribbon loosely threaded through a couple of holes along the edge. A visitor could also come in and talk about book binding which the children can do. Another form the written work can take is that of a scroll. Pages can be fastened together at their top and bottom and a cylinder form can be attached at the bottom to facilitate rolling. Written work and illustrations can be alternated throughout the work. Children can also take a large sheet of paper and mount both their written and illustrative work. This can be done for projects in any subject area. There should be a variety of ways
the children can do their written work and they should be free to choose how.

If a child comes into the class and hasn’t had exposure to creative writing, there are a number of ways to help him acquire the skills he needs. One way to do this is to gather a group and discuss something with them which they find interesting. Turn this into a creative writing by having the children take turns giving you sentences which you then write beautifully on the board (colored capitals and punctuation). Make this a short lesson so the students don’t tire of it and do it often but don’t by any means have the children copy it! Some children may take off writing on their own from this. For those who don’t, try telling them a short story or give them some information on a subject which interests them and have the children tell the facts back to you and write them down. If necessary, you can alternate writing sentences with the child. Note when you are finished that the child has written a little story and maybe they’d like to make a book of these. Don’t worry about spelling at this time. The child’s writing should not be interfered with. If there are grammatical errors, spelling mistakes, etc., these should be noted, and taken care of later, when you are giving a lesson on that topic.

One big area of writing the children will work with is research— that of factual writing. This is written work which includes information rather than imagination. In the area of geography, their experiments and follow-up work can be recorded, such as writing on the lives of peoples of various geographic areas or making an account of some geographic characteristic. The children should not be writing on the lessons you give but can be given suggestions as to things that can be taken up after the lessons and they can be guided towards books and places where they might find the information they need. This work can take the form of scrolls, posters, booklets (or whatever else the students may come up with).

Within their history work, the children can write about characters and events they’ve encountered in their studies. They should participate in research after the key lessons and should always illustrate the work they do. The time lines and history question charts also work as a skeleton for the children’s written work. Again, this work can take almost any functional form. The children can do the same kind of research and recording of their biology work in the classroom, particularly when making repeated trips to an area for observations, they can make written accounts of their visits.

Another type of writing is that of reports. This goes with work the children have done in all subject areas. These can either be group or individual reports to do with areas other than academic, such as reporting about a trip to a museum or the zoo or about an experiment the children have completed.

A third area of writing is that of imaginative stories. This can only come about if the children have heard
many stories and hopefully have read them themselves. At this level, the stories can be imaginative and fantasy as the children enjoy allegory, fairy tales, myths, legends and the likes. Children should have a wealth of these as a background. As the children become involved and capable of creative writing, if they haven't already discovered it for themselves, suggest that they try this kind of writing. These stories can also be illustrated.

Letter writing is another form of writing taken up in the elementary class. All different type of letter formats should be introduced and children should be instructed about the different mechanical aspects of letters: how to begin and end, how to space, do paragraphing etc. A variety of different kinds of paper and stationary should be available for this.

Dialogue is another form of writing the children can participate in. This work can start towards the end of the 6 to 9 class through an exercise using the moveable alphabets. Children should use these alphabets to carry on a discussion between two students or two characters. Punctuation can be introduced with the symbols written on slips of paper and placed in the appropriate spots. Later show the children how to use quotation marks. When the idea of dialogue is set, they can develop this by using different verbs to introduce a quote (she answered, he cried). The children should gradually transfer their work to paper.

Another form of written work is that of descriptive writing. This can be of anything: a scene, action, landscape, etc. If the children need help with this, take them somewhere that they can describe easily. Talk with the child about the elements that make up the landscape such as the sky, people etc.

The writing of plays is another kind of writing to take up in the elementary class. This can be centered on a historical event or celebration to start with. In the 9 to 12 class these can become imaginative drama. As far as possible, let the children write their own plays. They don't need to be too elaborate to begin with.

The writing of poetry is another kind of writing which should be going on. To get the children started, they have to have heard poetry. There should be a variety of styles read.

In this way, there will be a variety of written work going on in the class at all times and not just reporting or giving back what you've given the students.