English Curriculum

FOREWORD

The Federation of Protestant Reformed School Societies extends a word of appreciation to Mr. Gary VanDer Schaaf for his determined effort in producing this curriculum. We also extend a word of appreciation to the 1980-1981 teaching staff of Adams Street Protestant Reformed Christian School for their contribution of time and effort to this curriculum.

This, the second edition, has been published by the Federation of Protestant Reformed School Societies. The Federation hopes that this curriculum may serve to benefit all of those who teach English.

Federation of Protestant Reformed School Societies

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A RATIONALE FOR TEACHING TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR IN PROTESTANT REFORMED SCHOOLS

As Protestant Reformed Christian teachers, we must recognize that in the post-fall creation only man has the ability to speak and write. Only man can speak his mind to his contemporaries, only man can read the wisdom – and folly – of his ancestors, only man can preserve his thoughts for his children's children. We must also recognize that man's ability to speak and write is the result of his creation as both a spiritual and rational being. The spiritual and logical nature of man's communicative powers must be recognized and maintained as the foundation of any English program of which grammar is a part, over against the naturalistic, behaviorist explanations of man's speaking and writing abilities.

So we, Protestant Reformed English teachers, teach a language with rational and spiritual foundations to rational and spiritual children. And a large part of this language instruction consists of grammar. We teach grammar because we believe that grammar, correctly understood and effectively taught, gives God-glorifying structure and order to our speech and writing. God commands us in I Corinthians 14:40 to do all things "decently and in good order." (All Biblical references are from the King James Version.) Surely, our speech and writing are included in this command.

The Bible contains clear and basic principles for the proper use of language. Our language, written or spoken, must reflect the fact that we are logical, thinking creatures, for in Philippians 4:8 we are told: "Finally, brethren, whatsoever things are *true*, whatsoever things are *honest*, whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report; if there be any virtue and if there be any praise, *think* on these things." (Emphases ours.) Our language must be gracious, i.e., fitting, appropriate, showing that as a covenant people, we are recipients of God's regenerating grace; Ecclesiastes 10:12a tells us, "The words of man's mouth are gracious," and Colossians 4:6 commands everyone to "let your speech be always with grace, seasoned with salt." Not only is our language to *be* gracious, but it must be an instructive vehicle *of* grace; it must be edifying, for in Ephesians 4:29 we are told: "Let no corrupt speech proceed out of thy mouth, but such as is good for edifying, as the need may be, that it may give grace to them that hear."[1]

Scripture also tells us of the power of effective language; it speaks of the strength and glory of the word "fitly spoken:"

How forcible are right words! Job 6:25a
A man hath joy by the answer of his mouth: and a word spoken in due season, how good is it! Proverbs 15:23
A word fitly spoken is like apples of gold on a platter of silver. Proverbs 25:11

So then, our language must be honest and gracious; it must be clear, effective, and strong that it might be instructive and edifying. We do not violate the meaning of the above scripture passages if we understand that both the content and the form (they are inseparable) of our language must reflect that we are seasoned with the salt of God's grace. If our words are to be gracious and edifying, if our language is to be clear and honest, we must order, according to scripture's standards, both what we say and how we say it.

Scripture's admonitions concerning our language would be unnecessary had man not fallen into sin. Through the fall, man's language and his communicative abilities have

been so thoroughly corrupted that his speech and writing are in need of constant reformation to the standards set forth in the Bible. Therefore, because man's speech and writing are in a fallen state, and because there do exist scriptural standards by which man's utterances may be judged, we Protestant Reformed teachers must teach a grammar that includes ideas of right and wrong, good and bad, correct and incorrect. We cannot subscribe to the "Students' Right to Their Own Language" credo established in 1974 by the board of *College Composition and Communication*, whereby the language/dialect of the student is recognized as fitting and proper for the student simply because it is his own.[2] We cannot agree with the University of Chicago's Joseph M. Williams, who insists that "…'right' and 'wrong' in language are usually 'right' and 'wrong' not in isolation, not against some fixed set of standards, but 'right' and 'wrong' in particular social and stylistic contexts."[3] We cannot accept the opinion of structuralist Charles C. Fries that "…there can never be in grammar an error that is both very bad and very common. The more common it is, the nearer it comes to being the best grammar."[4] These statements declare that there are no standards except those of common usage and whichever "standards" a situation may imply. (The standards for addressing a group of striking longshoremen would be quite different than the standards appropriate for addressing the Ladies Literary League.) Such statements are in direct opposition to the belief that in *all* things, in *all* places, our speech and writing must reflect our best efforts to conform to the standards of the Word. Protestant Reformed teachers do not condemn the sentence "We is the best of them two" while recommending "We are the better of the two" because the latter is more likely to be spoken by those who "…control the money and power or the social prestige in a community," as Williams insists.[5] We do not teach grammar so that our students can become part of the power-prestige elite; we teach grammar so that our students can give expression to complex ideas in language that is carefully composed, in farm and content, according to the principles established in Scripture. We need not be hesitant to label a sentence construction "right" or "wrong." Surely, we need not call down the wrath of God upon a student who says or writes "Them guys gots more money than anybody else," but we must teach that such a construction does not fulfill our duty to use the best clear and ordered expression possible.

Tendentious in the above discussion is our idea of what a good pedagogical grammar is and what it should do. A sound, accurate, teachable grammar is both a description of how language works to express ideas and a prescription of the methods and constructions whereby those ideas can be best expressed. Therefore, a grammar should give the student an idea of how his language works and the power to use it effectively. Protestant Reformed teachers must understand that grammar must be taught and used *as a tool*. It is not a subject matter in itself; *it is a means to an end*. Grammar must be taught to help students speak and write more effectively. Too often, it is feared, Protestant Reformed teachers present grammar as a subject in itself, divorced from its natural settings of writing and literature. Too often, we assign pages of grammar drill in which the student places lines under, puts circles around, and draws arrows to, without ever composing a single sentence or paragraph of his own. Drill, in itself, is not wrong and can be useful; drill, by itself, apart from writing, is never right and is always detrimental. We have done our students and our language a great disservice by failing to implement what Don Wolfe of Brooklyn College identifies as the core of any grammar program: "Once a grammatical concept is taught, the student should immediately use his own prepositional

phrases in a story, his own predicate adjectives to express his moods, his own participles, infinitives, adverbial clauses."[6] For years we have taught grammar in a vacuum, apart from writing, and for years we have wondered why students cannot write a coherent sentence, a unified paragraph, or an essay that cogently develops a thesis. We should stop wondering and get busy developing lesson plans that teach grammar through writing.

If we teach grammar through writing, we will soon realize that we cannot limit grammar instruction to sentence construction. Grammar instruction in Protestant Reformed Schools must move beyond sentence analysis and construction to encompass a grammar of the paragraph and other, larger, written forms. If we wish to teach grammar as a tool for clear and effective communication, we must teach it above the sentence level; we must explore and teach that area where grammar, composition, and literature converge. We believe that point of convergence is *style*.

In "What is English," H.A. Gleason, Jr. first explains why a grammar must move beyond the sentence level:

> … The substitution of pronouns for nouns, the selection of articles, the "tenses" of the verb phrases – all these are subject to grammatical restrictions operating in stretches longer than sentences. And they all represent options that must be considered in analyzing style or evaluated in careful writing.[7]

Gleason then develops the relationship between grammar and style, explaining how a consideration of the latter defines the intersection of grammar, composition and literature.

Consider: a good paragraph, composition, or short story says something. Each sentence is organized, in relationship to itself and to the whole, to that end. Because there are many grammatically correct ways to organize or form a sentence, choice enters the composing process, and *choice* is that element of style working within a grammatical framework. Gleason then makes this assertion: "Style is the patterning of these choices over long stretches… (therefore,) for a student to know the style, i.e., the options, in his own writing; to appreciate and find the options, the style, the patterns in literature… a detailed and extensive knowledge of grammar is necessary…, for it is the grammar more than anything else that presents the stylistically significant options."[8]

We should see, then, that if we are discussing writing or literature, that a discussion of grammar can be very helpful: studying the grammar of a passage can help us see *how* or *why* the passage is effective. We should also see that we cannot content ourselves with teaching only a sentence-level grammar. Any choices made at the sentence level – a period instead of a colon, a comma instead of a period – affect the paragraph of which that sentence is a part. Students must always be reminded that (contrary to what is presented in many grammar workbooks) sentences belong in paragraphs, and that choices made in sentence construction will determine the form and effectiveness of the paragraph. Protestant Reformed teachers should remember that when teaching students to write clearly and effectively, they are teaching students to use a clear and effective style.

In sum, Protestant Reformed teachers must teach an accurate grammar, one based on the belief that language is part of man's rational and spiritual nature. The grammar must be descriptive, to show how the language works and how it can be worked, and it must be prescriptive in order to conform man's fallen abilities to scriptural standards. Furthermore, our grammar must be a tool, and it must be taught as such. As a tool, grammar must not be limited to sentence construction. The grammar must be able to help

us explain why whole paragraphs are memorable and effective, and it must be able to help students write similar pieces.

There is one more characteristic a grammar must have: it must be teachable. We emphasize this obvious fact because over the last forty years, while linguistic research has indeed given us much worthwhile knowledge of our language, it has also foisted upon the English classroom an abstruse arcana of incomprehensible jargon and, as far as the English teacher and student is concerned, a host of inconsequential theories and practices. Linguistic research is important, but the gap between the Master of Arts seminar or the Ph.D. dissertation and the elementary/junior high/senior high classroom is very broad, and that which is of paramount importance in the former settings may be impractical and out-of-place in the latter.

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Protestant Reformed teachers teach traditional grammar. Because most teachers are familiar with the traditional system, I will not describe it. However, I will briefly trace its development since the evolution of traditional grammar reveals its emphases and its purposes.

Traditional grammar has its roots in ancient Greece. The Greeks believed language to be a uniquely human attribute. Furthermore, *their* language was a divine gift, to them representing divine perfection. Therefore, the early Greeks studied language and developed grammars in order to participate more fully in a divine reality and to know and use better that ability which separated them from dumb creation.

Plato distinguished between nouns and verbs. Aristotle recognized conjunctions and defined "word" as "the smallest meaningful language unit." By 300 B.C., the Stoics had defined the article and had determined that Greek nouns had five cases. Dionysius Thrax, a Greek living in Alexandria around 100 B.C., developed eight parts of speech, analogous to the parts of speech of today's traditional grammar. Carefully defining each part of speech and assigning Greek words to each category, Thrax developed a lengthy grammar; it was used throughout the Roman Empire and was a standard text for a millennium afterward.

Thrax included in his grammar the opinion that the only language worth learning was that of the educated, literary classes. Thrax's grammar was based not on the *Koine*, but on the best classical Greek available to him. There were few objections to this elitism, and by A.D. 200, when Quintillian was composing his influential Latin grammar (based on Thrax's Greek grammar), he wrote that should questions of grammar arise, one had only to appeal to reason and authority, which were, of course, embodied in classical writing.

The grammars of Thrax and Quintillian were used throughout the middle ages. Latin was the language of the clergy and the educated. Common languages were just that: common, low, vulgar, and unworthy of a grammarian's attention. It was not until the seventeenth century that English grammars appeared. Grammarians of that time saw themselves as guardians of the tongue in league against the degrading misuses fostered by unlearned speakers. The best defense, it seemed to the self-appointed guardians, was to establish a system of rules regarding the use of the language. Latin grammars had rules aplenty, and since Latin was the prince of languages, what better rules could there be?

Therefore, when John Wallis, a mathematician, published his English grammar in 1653, it was essentially a Latinate grammar. (Wallis imposed the shall-will distinction on

our language. The language in his day did not demand the distinction, and it seems a purely arbitrary rule.) Just over one hundred years later, Wallis' grammar served as a model for Bishop Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar*, published in 1762. Lowth further Latinized English grammar, ignoring English usage practices common for many centuries.

Calvin College English professor Stanley Wiersma outlined the Latinate nature of Lowth's grammar. For instance, because in Latin it is impossible to end a sentence with a preposition, Lowth decreed that English sentences shall never end in a preposition. Splitting infinitives is impossible in Latin; therefore, English infinitives shall not be split. Lowth also created six tenses for English verbs, based on the Latin model. Thus, although it is probable that no one has ever spoken or written "I shall have been being seen," Lowth provided for a future perfect passive progressive tense. Finally, as if not to be outdone by the arbitrary Wallis, Lowth concocted the rule that no English sentence shall contain a double negative, in apparent ignorance of the double and triple negatives of Chaucer and Shakespeare.[9]

Lowth stated the purpose of his grammar in the book's introduction: 1) to preserve English from the misuses of the lower classes, and 2) to provide rules whereby those of the lower classes might make their speech acceptable and thus improve their station in life. If grammar was going to preserve, protect, and promote, it had to be made available to the masses. In the 1790s, Lindley Murray published *English Grammar* (based on Lowth's book), the first widely used English grammar school text. Murray's grammar established a norm for grammar texts that lasted until the 1950s. With just a few changes, our traditional grammar is the grammar of Lowth and Murray.

Clearly, as this brief history reveals, traditional grammar is not perfect (and shame on us if we have ever thought or taught so). The criticisms and insights provided by the structuralists and transformationalists have convinced all but the most hardheaded traditionalist that his grammar was not handed down on tables of stone. Traditional grammarians realize that traditional definitions are sometimes inadequate. The honest traditionalist will also admit that he has often helped to create the popular caricature of traditional grammar: a dry, boring, endless series of word-circling and sentence diagramming, with no apparent purpose other than the circles and the diagrams.

In spite of these shortcomings, teachers continue to teach traditional grammar. Some teach it because it is the only grammar they know, some because they have to teach something during the forty-five minute English period, and some because …well, they had to learn it, and so their students do, too. Yet, there are teachers who teach traditional grammar for another reason: it works.

Traditional grammar works. Traditional grammar, properly understood and imaginatively taught, can give students an understanding of how their language works and help them to write clearly and effectively.

To begin, the grammar itself is a competent grammar. If, because of its Latin origins, it can be called an "imposition," so what? For the most part, and certainly for classroom use, the imposition works. Our language does contain words that can accurately be described as nouns, verbs, and conjunctions. Arrange these words into groups, and these groups can be accurately described as noun phrases, prepositional phrases, and adverb clauses. Form these word-groups into sentences, compose these

sentences into paragraphs, and the need arises for something with which to order the sentences. The emphases of traditional grammar can satisfy that need.

But don't all the rules of traditional grammar stifle student creativity and self-expression? Possibly, if the rules are not taught as means by which one can give clear and forceful expression to one's ideas. Traditional grammar textbook author Robert Morsberger says this about rules and student creativity: First of all, "…language should not be a rigid set of rules to be followed but a supple and flexible instrument to be used… language is a vehicle of communication, not commandment."[10]

Morsberger makes this comment on the relationship between grammar, which he regards as a form of self-discipline, and self-expression:

> Self-discipline does not equal servitude but self-control, freedom from indirection, flab, formlessness…
> …Which self are we to express? A healthy self-expression does not come from slovenliness, and a slovenly style is no more to be commended than slovenly housing and sanitation.[11]

Christian schoolteachers who recognize the debilitating effects of the fall upon man's urge for creative self-expression will realize the importance of Morsberger's observation. Fallen man needs to impose order on his ideas. Traditional grammar, we believe, provides the best means available for ordering our language. Protestant Reformed teachers must never hesitate to teach rules; we need not fear that structure is oppressive.

Rules are good, but does traditional grammar provide good rules? What real authority do traditional grammar rules have? The power behind most traditional grammar rules make sense. At the most general level, traditional grammar works this way: a man wants to communicate an idea, by speaking or writing; the man wants to communicate clearly, in order to get his point across; to do this, he must make sense; traditional grammar helps him make sense.

More specifically, as Dr. Steven VanDer Weele observes, is it effective writing or speaking to end sentences in prepositions? In the English language, sentence ends are often reserved for emphasis. VanDer Weele uses the following example to demonstrate his point:

1) These are the barracks the soldiers live in.
2) These are the barracks in which the soldiers live.[12]

Which is more effective? In general, it is simply more effective not to waste a sentence-ending on a preposition.

Similarly, common sense demands that infinitives are not split. Which of the following sentences is clearer and communicates its idea more effectively?

1) The chairman agreed today to, if the rest of the board agreed, present the union with a contract.
2) The chairman agreed today to present the union with a contract, if the rest of the board agreed.[13]

Common sense tells us that the meaning of the second sentence is clearer, and that therefore the second sentence is more effective. Clarity and common sense dictate that participles do not dangle and that modifiers are not misplaced. Clarity and common sense demand that pronouns have antecedents and that the relationship between pronoun and antecedent be clear and unambiguous. As Morsberger notes: "The enduring conventions

have a built-in logic."[14] It is this logic that generates the power and authority of traditional grammar.

It should be clear, then, that traditional grammar is worthy to be taught in English classrooms. Of the three grammars available – traditional, transformational, structural, we believe traditional grammar most suitable for the classroom. It is the simplest of the three grammars. It has, believe it or not, the fewest terms to master. In addition, traditional grammar has a long history of pragmatic effectiveness, much longer than the twenty-five year life of structural grammar or the fifteen year vogue enjoyed by transformational grammar. Traditional grammar has the greatest power to help students analyze and construct sentences, and it has the greatest potential to move beyond the sentence level.

Why then does the grammar instruction in Protestant Reformed schools bear so little fruit? It is a truism that good teachers can make the poorest program work. Protestant Reformed schools have, I believe, good teachers, and we have a good program in traditional grammar. What, then, is the problem?

Donald Wolfe provides us with the beginnings of an answer when he writes: "Our problem is not to abolish traditional grammar in favor of a rarefied new science, but to devise new ways of dramatizing the parts of speech and the grammar of the sentence in daily lessons."[15] We would add that we must also develop new ways to show how grammar can deal with forms of expression larger than the sentence. We must develop lesson plans and teaching methods which present grammar as a tool for producing good writing and understanding good literature.

In conclusion, when Protestant Reformed teachers teach traditional grammar, they are teaching a good grammar, an accurate, reliable grammar, the best pedagogical grammar available. Protestant Reformed teachers know that traditional grammar reflects the belief that language is the rational, logical, expression of man's spiritual and rational nature. Protestant Reformed teachers know that traditional grammar is a tool that can enable students to write clearly, accurately, and convincingly. It is time for Protestant Reformed teachers to take what they know and develop efficient and effective ways to teach this knowledge to their students.

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[1] The National Union of Christian Schools, *Course of Study for Christian Schools*, 2nd ed. revised (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Wm. B. Eerdmans Pub. Co., 1953), p. 137.

[2] Richard L. Larson, "Students' Right to Their Own Language," *College Composition and Communication* 25 Special Issue (Fall, 1974).

[3] Joseph M. Williams, *The New English: Structure/Form/Style*, (New York: The Free Press, 1970), pp. 11-12.

[4] Charles C. Fries, *Teaching of English*, (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The George Wahr Publishing Company, 1949), pp. 33-34.

[5] Williams, *The New English*, p. 27.

[6] Don M. Wolfe, "Grammar and Linguistics: A Contrast in Realities," *English Journal* 53 (February, 1964): 73.

[7] H.A. Gleason, Jr., "What is English," *College Composition and Communication* 13 (October, 1962): 6.

[8] *Ibid.*, 5-6.

[9] Stanley Wiersma, "Babel Revisited: Some Observations on Language," *Dialogue* (November, 1975): 22-23.

[10] Robert Morsberger, *Commonsense Grammar and Style*, (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1972), p. 11.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 338.

[12] Steven VanDer Weele, "Dialects, Latin, and Language Change: A Reply to Mr. Wiersma," *Dialogue* (December, 1975): 8-9.

[13] *Ibid.*, 9.

[14] Morsberger, *Commonsense*, p. 19.

[15] Wolfe, "Grammar," 100.

OBJECTIVES FOR THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

These objectives are adapted from "Objectives for the Teaching of Writing" in A Writing Program for the Covenant Child, Darrel Huisken, ed., (Grand Rapids, Michigan: The Federation of Protestant Reformed Christian Schools, 1972).

1. We teach the covenant child grammar so that when he writes, despite the corruption of the curse, he may fulfill the creation mandate to use his talents to subdue the earth (cf. Genesis 1:28; 3:17-19; Psalm 104:23).
2. We teach the covenant child grammar so that he may appreciate the language God has given him (cf. Genesis I1:1-9; Acts 2:5-11; James 1:17; John 1:1-3; Psalm 68:11).
3. We teach the covenant child grammar so that when he writes he may be trained to express his heart-directed response to reality, i.e., God and His Works (cf. Psalm 51:10; Proverbs 4:23; 16:1-2; 22:6; Ephesians 6:4; I Thessalonians 1:11-12).
4. We teach the covenant child grammar so that when he writes he may discover and interpret reality in the light of the Scriptures (cf. Psalm 19: 14; 119:105; Ephesians 5:16).
5. We teach the covenant child grammar so that when he writes he can communicate precisely his interpretations of reality to his fellow man (cf. Job 19:23-26; Isaiah 30:8; I Corinthians 14:8-9).
6. We teach the covenant child grammar so that the exercise of writing will stimulate, cultivate, and refine the imagination, a function of the mind (cf. Proverbs 21:5; 29:18; Joel 2:28; Isaiah 26:3; Acts 2:17-21; II Corinthians 2:1b; 10:5; Colossians 3:23-24; I Timothy 3:17).
7. We teach the covenant child grammar so that he may experience the delight of communicating effectively and precisely a fresh insight into and about reality (cf. Proverbs 15:23; 25:11; Matthew 13:16-17; James 3:17).
8. We teach the covenant child grammar so that when he writes he may be able to express the revelation of God in a stimulating and provocative mode (cf. Psalm 150; I Corinthians 12; Ephesians 5:19; Colossians 3:14-17).
9. We teach the covenant child grammar so that when he writes he learns to share knowledge and insight by writing in a clear and vivid style, thereby fostering the nurture and growth of the body of Christ (cf. Psalm 149:1; I Corinthians 12; Ephesians 5:3-7; Philippians 4:8; Colossians 3:14-17).
10. We teach the covenant child grammar so that his efforts at communication will be ordered and gracious, a fit vehicle for nurture and instruction, reflecting God's Spirit and grace in him (cf. Ecclesiastes 10:12; I Corinthians 4:40; Philippians 4:8; Colossians 4:6).

PRIMARY CURRICULUM
GRADES 1-3

GRAMMAR IN THE PRIMARY GRADES, 1-3

Children in the primary grades like to write. They have not yet learned to fear a blank page or to hate a writing assignment. Young students enjoy writing, and the primary teacher should be ready to exploit this advantage. If the primary teacher can convince his students that grammatical rules and concepts are tools which can help them do better something they already like to do, he will have done his students (and his students' future teachers) a great service.

In addition to a roomful of eager writers, the primary teacher has two more advantages when teaching grammar. To begin, he has the same students for the entire day (this advantage is shared by many upper-level teachers in our small Protestant Reformed schools). Secondly, the primary teacher teaches the same students reading, writing, diction, and usage. Such conditions provide countless opportunities for grammar instruction and facilitate the constant correction, repetition, and reinforcement necessary to make good grammar a habit.

Because the primary teacher has so many opportunities to teach grammar as a tool for effective speaking and writing, he should never say to his class, "And now we'll study grammar." In the primary grades, grammar must never be taught as an independent discipline. All grammar instruction in the primary grades can and should be taught only as it relates directly to student speaking and writing.

The primary teacher has an important and difficult task.. He must preserve the enthusiasm his students bring toward writing, at the same time providing a firm foundation of grammatical knowledge while instilling in his students the idea of grammar-as-tool. The job is taxing and often frustrating, time-consuming and tiring, but the dedicated and imaginative teacher will prevail and take advantage of all the opportunities for instruction available. I remember such a primary teacher. On cold days, when the class could not have recess outside, we would play games in the room. One game involved sending a student out into the hall. Then, the teacher would hide a piece of chalk, and the student would re-enter the room and begin looking for the chalk, asking as he looked, "is it under the piano? Is it by the windows? Is it on Teacher's desk?" and so on, the class answering "yes" or "no" to each question. We had great fun, we did not miss going outside, and, unaware, we learned about prepositions.

SUGGESTED SEQUENCE OF INSTRUCTION

Concept *	1	2	3
I. Writing skills			
A. Sentences			
1. Recognition	♦		
2. Complete/fragment		♦	
3. Types			
a. Telling	♦		
b. Asking	♦		
B. Paragraphs			
1. Recognition in reading	♦		
2. Indenting first line of a story	♦		
3. Indenting first line of any paragraph		♦	
4. Expressing one idea		♦	
5. Transitions between		♦	
II. Mechanical skills			
A. Punctuation			
1. Period			
a. After telling sentences	♦		
b. After abbreviations			♦
c. After initials	♦		
2. Question mark: after asking sentences	♦		
3. Exclamation mark: very limited use, only after "expression words"		♦	
4. Comma			
a. After greeting of friendly letter		♦	
b. After closing of letter		♦	
c. Separating day of the month and year			♦
d. Separating names of streets and cities			♦
e. Separating names of cities and states			♦
f. In a series		♦	
g. In dialog		♦	
5. Colon			
a. Awareness		♦	
b. To list items within a sentence			♦
c. In expressions of time			♦
6. Quotation marks: in dialog		♦	
7. Apostrophe: use in contractions		♦	
B. Capitalization			
1. First and last names of all persons	♦		
2. Names of pets	♦		
3. Days of the week	♦		
4. Names for the Bible, the Old and New Testaments, and books of the Bible	♦		
5. Names of God and Christ	♦		

	1	2	3	4
6. Names of streets, cities, and states		♦		
7. Initials			♦	
8. Abbreviations: titles, streets, and states		♦		
9. Names of schools and churches		♦		
10. Months, holidays, and special days		♦		
11. Mr., Mrs., Miss, and other titles		♦		
12. The word *I*	♦			
13. The greeting of a letter	♦			
14. The closing of a letter	♦			
15. First, last, and "important" words in the titles of stories and poems			♦	
16. First word in a line of poetry		♦		
17. The first word of a sentence	♦			
18. Names of Peoples (e.g., Indians)		♦		
19. Names of Geographical Features (continents, oceans, rivers, lakes, mountains)		♦		

III. Parts of speech
  A. Nouns

	1	2	3	4
1. As naming words	♦			
2. As receiver words – direct objects			♦	
3. As "doer" words – subjects		♦		

  B. Verbs

	1	2	3	4
1. As action words	♦			
2. Helping verbs – auxiliary verbs			♦	

  C. Adjectives

	1	2	3	4
1. Words that describe		♦		
2. Words that tell how many		♦		

  D. Adverbs

	1	2	3	4
1. Identify and use as *ly*-words		♦		
2. Words that tell how		♦		

  E. Prepositions

	1	2	3	4
1. Recognition of single prepositions		♦		
2. Recognition and use of prepositional phrases			♦	

* Any concept taught in grade one will be reviewed in grade two, etc.

IV. Usage – by grade level
  A. Grade One
    1. Verbs
      a. is
      b. am
      c. are
    2. Naming self last

  B. Grade Two
    1. Verbs
      a. see-saw-(helping verb) seen
      b. do-does-did-(helping verb) done

c. run-ran-(helping verb) run
  d. go-went-(helping verb) gone
  e. bring-brought-(helping verb) brought
  f. come-came-(helping verb) come
  g. To be
      1) is-was-(helping verb) been
      2) are-were-(helping verb) been
      3) have-had-(helping verb) had
      4) has-had-(helping verb) had
      5) give-gave-(helping verb) given
  2. Double negatives

C. Grade Three
  1. Verbs: eat/ate (helping verb) eaten
  2. You (with plural verb)
  3. Use of those (not them) with plural noun

IDEAS FOR TEACHING GRAMMAR IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

I.   Parts of speech
   A. Nouns – naming words

      1. Each child tells what he is wearing: *shirt, blouse, pants, dress*. List the nouns on the board, pointing out that in each case an object is being named. This method lends itself to a discussion of adjectives as well. Ask the child *what kind*, or *what color* clothing he is wearing – blue, plaid, new, wrinkled, dirty.

      2. Ask each child whom he touched or what he used this morning at home. The teacher lists the words – *mother, father, bed, spoon, toast* – telling the class that each word names an *object* or a *person*.

      3. Tell the children that they will have one minute to bring three objects from their lockers to their desks. Each student tells the class what he brought. Stress that words such as *coat, glove, lunch, boot,* and *cap* are naming words.

      4. In the second and third grades, the teacher can take sentences from student papers and write them on the board, omitting the subject nouns (use only sentences with transitive verbs). Direct students to complete the sentences by supplying "doer-words." For younger students, supply the missing words, in scrambled order, on the board. This method can be used to introduce and reinforce the concept of noun-as-subject and the idea of a complete sentence.

      5. To teach nouns-as-direct objects, use the above method, omitting direct objects from the example sentences.

      6. Another method to teach direct objects involves the students carrying out a series of "action-orders" from the teacher. The orders – "lift the flowerpot," "paste the picture," "throw the nerf-ball" – can be given orally or can be printed on slips of paper and given to each student. After the activities, the children write about what they did: "I lifted the flowerpot. I pasted the picture. Then I threw the nurf-ball." The teacher reviews the compositions, pointing out the "receiver words" in each sentence. This method is useful for teaching a host of grammatical concepts. The idea of forming a paragraph around a main idea or topic sentence can be introduced, the idea or sentence being "My teacher told me to do some things." Transitions within a paragraph can be highlighted by pointing out words such as *first*, *next*, and *then*. Older students can learn to use commas in a series by writing "I had to lift the flowerpot, the piano bench, and the globe" or "I lifted the flowerpot, threw the nurf-ball, and pasted the picture in my book." The colon can be introduced here as well, as in "My teacher told me to do these things: hit the piano keys, open the windows, and stack the books."

      7. Use "noun ladders" to teach the subject and direct object use of nouns. Put the words of student sentences on cards and place these cards on the floor where they are visible to all students. Each student has his own supply of cards to write new words on. Display the cards of the example sentence, and call for other words to fill the subject and direct object slots. As students volunteer words, their contributions can be added under the appropriate slot. Here is an example:

The | wicked | witch | stole | my | ring.
man | hat.
boy | ball.
girl | book.

This method can be used to teach any part of speech.

8. Make notebooks or pictures of objects (nouns) collected on a certain topic (example: the zoo, the garden) and label each below its picture.
9. Make a picture dictionary of any objects (nouns) labeled and alphabetized.
10. Use a charade-type of activity for children to demonstrate nouns that show emotion (example: fear, hate, etc.)

B. Verbs

1. To teach the idea of verb as action word, ask students what they did before they came to school. Write the entire sentence or just the verb on the board: "I *ate* breakfast," "I *washed* my face," "I *went* to the bus stop." Explain that action words are words which tell what people (and objects) do. Students can then write about or dictate what they do at school or what they will do when they get home, and the action words can again be listed and discussed.

2. To develop in students a feeling for vivid action words, take a sentence such as "I went to the bus stop" and ask the class to replace *went* with more active action words. List student suggestions in ladder-fashion:

I | went | to | the | bus | stop.
ran
skipped
hopped
flew

3. To teach that verbs are indeed action words, the class can enact or sound out verbs. This can be done with the entire class responding to the teacher as he reads, or with student partners, whereby one student acts out what the other student reads or says. For instance, if the teacher reads "The bell clanged," the entire class makes clanging noises. Or, if one partner says "The bunny hopped," the other partner hops around the room.

4. Show pictures portraying action to the class. Students dictate action words to the teacher, who writes the words on the board, or, if possible, the children can list the words on paper. In class or at home, children can cut-out action pictures for discussion in class.

5. To help older primary children decide if a word is a verb or not, Paul Anderson suggests this method. If the words I, you, or he can be put before the word in question to form a sentence, then that word is a verb. "I eat," "He sleeps," and "You walk" are sentences; "I piano" and "You newspaper" are not.

6. To teach the idea of auxiliary verb, the teacher can prepare puzzle-pieces, parts of sentences, on cardboard or paper strips. Initially, the verb is omitted:

On other cards, the teacher writes correct and incorrect verb choices. Incorrect choices will not fit:

Correct choices will fit:

Variations on this method include dividing the complete verb into separate parts: "has going" and "had running" parts do not fit. "Is running" and "is going" pares do fit. More capable students will be able to construct their own cards.

7. List helper-pairs on the board:

is going	*are* playing
has gone	*have* drawn
have seen	*has* seen
was singing	*am* running

Explain that the words not underlined cannot work or do things by themselves. Demonstrate how the unaided words fail in sentences; such words need helpers to help them do the work or action in a sentence. Students then use helper-pairs in their own sentences.

8. Paul Anderson also suggests a game called "Employment Agency" to give children oral practice with helping verbs. Several children can play. Give verb cards to all but three children:

Children holding these cards are "employers." The other children (the "employees") have cards with helping verbs. Taking turns, the employers show their cards to the helper group, asking, "Do I need help? Does anyone need a job?" The helper with the correct card raises his hand and walks to his employer. The teacher picks another child to use the words in a sentence.

C. Adjectives

1. Some of the activities described for teaching nouns can be adapted for teaching adjectives. See I, A, 1; I, A, 2; I, A, 5; I, A, 6; and I, A, 7 above.

2. Use pictures. Students write down or dictate words that describe what they see. Once the list of adjectives is completed, the class can write a paragraph around the idea or topic sentence "What I see in the picture is…"

3. Compare plain sentences to vivid sentences. For instance, the teacher can put these two sentences on the board:

The car stopped by the house.
The dark blue car stopped in front of the scary, old, haunted house.

Lead discussion of these sentences to show that adjectives make the second sentence more interesting.

4. Build up bare sentences by soliciting adjectives from the class. Here is an example:

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The        dog bit the        girl.
   big                 little
   brown               fat
   small               skinny
   dirty               young
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5. Construct "mystery boxes" filled with objects for students to touch and describe without seeing what they are handling. To involve the sense of smell, have blindfolded children sniff banana slices, orange peels, or a lock of dog's hair and describe what they smell.
6. Make a bulletin board display of a noun surrounded by descriptive adjectives that suit it.
7. Articles – Hold up pictures of real objects. Have children at their seats hold up an *a* or *an* card at their desks.

D. Adverbs
1. In the early primary grades, when adverbs are best approached as *ly*-words that tell how something is done, use a variation of the action-order game. Each student picks a card on which is printed a verb and an underlined *ly*-adverb:
    walk *swiftly*   talk *slowly*   sing *loudly*
2. Use pictures that portray action, and have children describe the action using *ly*-adverbs.
3. The teacher tells the class to think about adverbs. When the teacher is sure that each student has at least one adverb to volunteer, he solicits the words, writing them on the board as students offer them. Depending on the class level, the list may be something like this:

slowly	strangely	often
soon	suddenly	loudly
quickly	then	quickly
early	smoothly	secretly

    If students offer non-adverbs, explain why the words are not adverbs. Individually, in teams, or as a class, the children can write or dictate stories using the adverbs.
4. Taking sentences from student stories, the teacher can show the class effective and ineffective adverb use. For instance, the teacher can point out that "We walked to the store. We looked at the candy. We bought some" is not as good as "We walked quickly to the store. We looked hungrily at the candy. We bought some eagerly."
5. "Brainstorm" with the class, listing adverbs to describe a recent, shared, event. For example, the teacher can say, "Let's talk about the thunderstorm last night. What did you see and hear?" List responses on the board for the students to use in writing a paragraph about the topic. Responses could take the following form:

The thunder boomed *mightily*.	The lightning flashed *jaggedly*.
The thunder crashed *loudly*.	The rain fell *swirlingly*.
The lightning flashed *brightly*.	The trees bent *shakily*.

E. Prepositions and Prepositional Phrases

1. A simple but effective way to demonstrate that prepositions show where is to walk around the room saying sentences such as "The pot is on the windowsill," "The globe is in the cabinet," "The wastebasket is by my desk," and so on.
2. Use action-order cards to show the direction-nature of prepositions:
   Walk into the closet. | Walk around the desk. | Push against a wall.
3. To demonstrate that prepositional phrases can describe nouns, place similar objects around the room. Tell students to pick an object. The student must say exactly where the object he wants is. For instance, the student will say, "I want the ball *on Teacher's desk*," or "I don't want the apple that's *behind the flowerpot*. I want the apple *in the box*."
4. Use phrase ladders. Provide a noun or a verb, and the class can add the phrases. This is a good way to show that prepositional phrases can act as both adjective and adverb:

   The man…   He threw the ball…
       by the window   into the basket.
       on the floor   through the window.
       under the sink   over the fence.
       from church   to his friend.
5. Any time children generate a list of prepositions or prepositional phrases, they should write sentences or paragraphs using the prepositions and phrases. Using their own writing, the class can do other activities:
   a. Review sentences of their own, identifying prepositions and prepositional phrases.
   b. Review especially good uses of prepositional phrases, imitating good examples.
   c. Review ineffective uses of prepositional phrases, rewriting poor sentences.

II. Sentence Sense

It does little good simply to tell primary students that a sentence expresses a complete thought. Show them; better still, have them show themselves. The following exercises are designed so that students can discover the unity of subject and predicate that creates a sentence. Furthermore, if children are going to be writing sentences, they should be learning to punctuate them correctly at the same time. For this reason, we have included a few methods of teaching capitalization and punctuation in this section on developing sentence sense.

A. Younger students can dictate stories to the teacher. The teacher writes the story on the board as it is offered, punctuating the sentences, telling the class that periods mean stop while capital letters mean go. When fragments appear, the teacher can tell the class, "These words are not strong enough to be a sentence all by themselves. How can we help these words grow up to be a strong sentence?" When the appropriate words are offered, the teacher can say, "Good. Now you have made a strong sentence." If children offer run-on sentences, the teacher might say, "This group of words is too busy. It's doing too many things. Let's change it so that each sentence is doing only one thing." In this way, a run-on such as "We went to the store, we went home and we watched TV" can be

changed to "We went to the store. Then we went home. We watched TV at home."

B. A variation of the above method, used if the teacher wants to emphasize periods and capitals, is to write the entire story as given and then add periods and capitals as the class reviews the story.

C. Anderson describes these methods to teach sentence sense to primary students:

1. Show the class a picture. Tell the class that you are going to tell them a story. Suppose the picture is of a boy playing basketball. The teacher's "story" is "basketball, shots, boy, tennis shoes, scores, playing, backboard, two points." The class should respond that that is certainly no story. The teacher should ask the class why her "story" was not very good, leading the class to answer that the teacher's story did not say anything. The teacher then asks the class if it can make Teacher's collection of words say something. Possible responses are:

   The boy is playing basketball.
   The boy shoots the basketball.
   The boy is wearing tennis shoes.
   The basketball is going to hit the backboard.
   The boy will score two points.

   Older primary students can arrange these sentences into paragraphs.

2. Start with a short sentence – "A fire burned" – and expand it in steps:
   Example: A fire burned.
   Step 1: Tell where.
   A fire burned on the beach.
   Step 2: Tell when
   A fire burned on the beach one May night.
   Step 3: Add a color word
   A red fire burned on the beach one May night.

D. Hennings also discusses developing sentence sense:

1. To teach that each sentence has a "doer" and a "doing" part – a subject and a predicate – the teacher makes subject and predicate cards. Keeping a subject or a predicate card for himself, the teacher gives the remaining cards to the class. Then, the teacher places one of his cards, in this example a subject card, on the floor under the category marked "doer" or "subject" and asks if anyone can make his "doer" do something. Any student with a predicate or "doing" card may place his card beneath the predicate or "doing" category:

| Doers – Subjects	Doing – Predicates
The monster	went to the city.
	chased the man.
	flew in the sky.

This method also instills a feeling for the subject-predicate pattern of English sentences. An interesting variation for older students is to invert the order, creating periodic sentences. The teacher might also point out to older students that it is possible to list the subjects and predicates in a series. The teacher

should provide comma cards to separate the listed parts. Capital letter, question mark, exclamation point, and period cards can also be made for students to use as they create their own sentences.

2. To teach that each sentence has a subject and a predicate, make a set of twenty or more "sentence card dominoes." Each card bears a subject on one half and an unrelated predicate on the other half. A dealer gives four cards to three players and exposes one card on the table. In turn, the players try to make sentences by adding cards to the chain on the table. If a child is unable to form a sentence that makes sense (the dealer acts as judge), he must draw another domino from the dealer. The first player to empty his hand is the winner.

3. Construct "sentence buildings." Begin with a simple sentence – "The zebra runs" – and add to it, putting the words on cards assembled to resemble a building:


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                    The            Articles

                                   Add  adjectives to this card

        zebras          zebra      Subjects/nouns

  run                     runs     Add more verbs to these
                                                     cards.

                                   Add adverbs or preposi-
                                   tional phrases on this card.
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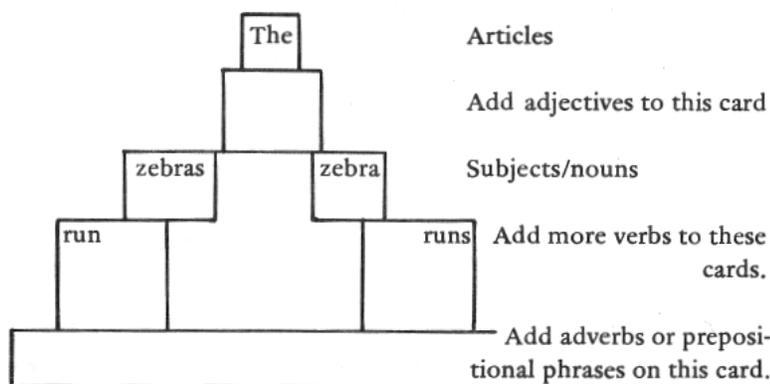
E. Here are three ways to teach declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences to primary students:

1. Word cards can be used to show that interrogative sentences can often be made by switching around a few words of a declarative sentence:

Prince can do tricks . → Can Prince do tricks ?

This paper is finished . → Is this paper finished ?

Students add capital, period, and question mark cards.

2. Read a student story. Stop at the end of every sentence. Have the students tell what end-mark belongs at the end of each sentence.

3. To re-enforce sentence end-marks, read a story, stopping at the end of each sentence. The students flash the appropriate punctuation card.

F. Make two equal lists of subjects and predicates, which work together to make a rhyme. Have the children match up the subjects and predicates to make a sensible rhyme.

SUBJECTS	PREDICATES
witches	descends
Halloween	howl
ghosts	ends
night	prowl

G. On tag board, make a set of both singular and plural subjects (i.e., two policemen, our jolly milkman, etc.) and another set of both singular and plural forms of the

verb be. Children match cards to show agreement, then provide ending of sentence.

III.   Paragraphs

In the primary grades, the students should learn that each paragraph expresses one idea. The following methods are directed toward that goal:

A. In Sparkling Words, Ruth Kerny Carlson outlines methods for teaching paragraph construction to primary children. Three of her ideas are described below:

1. After presenting the class with a concrete object – in this case, a flower arrangement – the teacher lists with the class possible controlling ideas: beauty, shape, odor, or color. After choosing a controlling idea, the class lists details pertaining to that idea. Carlson suggests a series of paragraph drafts, adding color words, vivid verbs, and simple similes to produce a good paragraph.

2. Describing a picture can develop an awareness of spatial order, at the same time producing an opportunity to use prepositions, as in "the boat on the lake," "the dog behind the tree," or "the children under the table."

3. Teach the "implied because." Present the class with the topic "I dislike rainy days" and direct them to list reasons why. The teacher can provide them with an outline:

> I dislike rainy days
>   (Because)
>   (Because)
>   (Because)

B. To re-enforce the idea that each paragraph expresses one idea and to provide practice in basic paragraph transitions, write two topic sentences on the board, such as "What I like about recess," and "What I don't like about recess." The class lists ideas under both topics and then writes paragraphs. Because the topics share feelings about recess, the transition is built-in.

1. Use a series of pictures for children to build sequential sentences to place in paragraph form.

2. Collect pictures for a bulletin board display. Have each child write an opening sentence to be placed underneath his picture. Others will build paragraphs from these opening sentences.

3. To illustrate paragraph unity, use a magazine picture of an Arctic scene, for instance. Paste cut-out palm tree and/or camel on snow. Lead into discussion of inappropriate details.

C. Take a jumble of student sentences and have the class compose the sentences into a paragraph.

IV.   Punctuation

A. To teach the use of apostrophes with contractions, write the word to be contracted on one side of a card. On the other side, write the apostrophe and the contracted letters. The card can then be folded to produce the contraction. This method can also be used for teaching the period with abbreviations.

B. The use of a comma in a series can be taught using the ladder method described earlier. Whenever the students generate a list of subjects, verbs, adjectives,

adverbs, or prepositional phrases, the teacher can introduce the comma as used in a series.

C. A good time to introduce the colon is when direct objects are being taught. If the class is listing direct objects, the teacher can point out that all the direct objects can be included in one sentence by using a colon:

> We took peaches.
> pears. → We took fruit: peaches, pears, apples,
> apples. and bananas.
> bananas.

D. Another good way to teach the use of colons and the use of a comma in a series is to take short sentences from student papers and direct the class to combine them into one sentence using a colon and commas:

> We played outside at recess. We played on the swings. We went on the bars. We went down the slide. →
> We played outside at recess: we played on the swings, on the bars, and on the slide.

E. Periods
  1. Have children list their names on the board with their initials showing periods.
  2. Make a list of frequently used abbreviations.

F. Question Mark
  1. Make a question mark bulletin board display stressing sentence beginnings as when, where, who, etc.
  2. Using asking sentence beginning words, have children write original questions (i.e., 5 sentences beginning with "who," 5 beginning with "what," etc.

G. Comma
  1. Write a list of classmates' birthdays, inserting comma between day and year.
  2. Make charts and bulletin board displays of the uses of commas with examples.

V. Capitalization
  A. Second and third graders can make a telephone directory. Capitalization of first and last names, cities, streets, and states, as well as address punctuation, are covered in this activity.
  B. Primary students can make a class calendar showing that the months, days, and any special days or holidays in the month are capitalized.
  C. The students can keep lists of Bible verses memorized, under headings of Old Testament and New Testament. Capitalization of Bible books, as well as another use of the colon (as in John 3:16) is taught.
  D. Any time the students use sentence cards to construct their own sentences, capital cards can be used as needed.
  E. Create fantasy maps. Children create their own cities, countries, or continents, imagining and capitalizing streets, cities, rivers, mountains, and countries.
  F. Write on the chalkboard or duplicate sentences containing names, dates, holidays, etc. Have the children identify what should be capitalized in the sentences.
  G. Make charts and bulletin board displays to show when capital letters are used.
  H. Place "empty" sentences on board. Play a game in which the class is divided into two teams. Points are scored when the capital needs are found and corrected. Teams alternate turns.

VI. Usage
   A. Have the class choose a topic to discuss together (example: the woods, the sea, etc.). Talk about what you would see there. Have each child give a sentence beginning: *I saw...* Similar exercises may be accomplished with other usage forms as *I am, I came*.
   B. Play word games where children must use a certain term of usage (example: At the circus I saw…). The next child chosen must repeat previous responses before adding his own.
   C. Use student sentences leaving blanks for usage. Children may do these on dittoed sheets or at the board.
   D. Make posters to illustrate differences in usage (example: lie-lay, sit-set, bring-take).
   E. Double negatives – Show children incomplete pictures of objects. Have them make oral statements using *has no* and *hasn't any*.

GRAMMAR IN THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES, 4-6

The intermediate teacher has a rough time of it. As children proceed through the middle grades, they somehow, from somewhere, develop the idea that school is not a fun place to be. The subjects are hard: learning about geography, history, and mathematics does not generate the enthusiasm that learning to read and write did. School is a bore, and already students complain, "Why do we have to learn this stuff, anyway?"

English and English grammar fall victim to this new attitude as well. Too often, beginning in the intermediate grades, English and grammar become synonymous, interchangeable terms for both teacher and student. I believe this confusion stems from the introduction of grammar texts and workbooks into the intermediate classroom.

Grammar texts and workbooks pose a double threat. First, the teacher is tempted by a year's worth of ready-made lesson plans and easy-to-grade workbook exercises to forget that English class is the time to teach students to communicate effectively. Too quickly, grammar workbook drills and exercises can become the means and measure of a student's English competency. Only by remembering that the aim of English instruction is clear and accurate communication and that grammar instruction is subordinate to that aim can the intermediate teacher safely use grammar texts and workbooks.

If the teacher can successfully resist the temptation to confuse subject means with subject matter, it is because he knows better. The intermediate student does not, and there lies the second danger of "teaching English" through texts and workbooks. If the teacher spends English class-time teaching grammar as a subject in itself, divorced from speaking and writing, the student will soon learn to equate English with the underlining, circling, diagramming drills on which his teacher spends so much time and places so much importance. If adverbs and adjectives, if predicate adjectives and predicate nominatives have no life beyond the text or workbook page and do not find a place in the student's own writing; if, in pragmatic terms, the student cannot see the use of knowing what a subject or a predicate is and does, then the student will view grammar at best as just another assignment to finish and at worst as a confusing and useless tangle of labels and definitions he must learn in order to avoid Teacher's red checks and squiggles in his workbook and on his paper.

Therefore, as in the primary grades, grammar must not be taught as a formal discipline. The direction of grammar instruction in the intermediate grades is not

rules + definitions-workbook drill—more rules + definitions
+
a little writing, maybe

but

writing activities—grammatical concept through—more writing activities writing to improve writing

The teacher must remember that most intermediate students do not have the ability to understand grammatical abstractions. The teacher must make concrete those abstractions,

not through stark rule memorization and bare workbook drill, but through methods and examples that derive from and lead to student writing.

Planning and executing such lessons is hard work. The rewards, however, are great. The teacher no longer dreads meeting the sour attitudes he once encountered in English class because those attitudes are gone. The student no longer approaches an English assignment with fear and loathing because he sees it, not as something to get over with as quickly and painlessly as possible, but as an opportunity to express himself, to create something that he, his classmates, and his teacher will enjoy. Writing in the intermediate grades should be fun; grammar must be taught to help student and teacher alike to get the most out of an enjoyable activity.

SUGGESTED SEQUENCE OF INSTRUCTION

Concept	Grade Level 4	5	6
I. Writing skills			
A. Sentences			
1. Completeness			
a. Subject	♦		
b. Predicate	♦		
2. Sentence types			
a. Interrogative	♦		
b. Declarative	♦		
c. Exclamatory	♦		
d. Imperative	♦		
3. Inverted order			
a. Initial adverbs		♦	
b. Initial adjectives		♦	
c. Initial prepositional phrases		♦	
4. Simple sentences		♦	
5. Compound sentences		♦	
B. Paragraphs			
1. Indent every time a new speaker begins	♦		
2. Transitions within and between	♦		
II. Mechanical skills			
A. Punctuation			
1. End marks	♦		
2. Comma			
a. After introductory *yes* and *no*	♦		
b. In direct quotations	♦		
c. Separating last name from first name when last name is written first	♦		
d. To set off name of person in direct address	♦		
e. To separate *too*, meaning *also*, from the rest of the sentence		♦	
f. To separate phrases in a series of phrases		♦	
g. After initial adverbs and adjectives		♦	
3. Quotation marks			
a. In continuous quotations	♦		
b. In broken quotations			♦
c. Around titles of poems, articles, short stories, songs			♦
4. Apostrophes			
a. In singular possessives		♦	
b. In plural possessives		♦	
5. Colon			
a. In writing time (5:30)	♦		
b. After greeting in business letter			♦
6. Underlining	♦		

Outline	C1	C2	C3
Titles of books, magazines, newspapers, radio and TV programs			
B. Capitalization			
1. First word of direct quotations	♦		
2. Following strong interjections after exclamation point		♦	
3. Proper nouns			
a. Titles with personal names	♦		
b. Historical events		♦	
c. Particular places		♦	
d. Names of Languages		♦	
e. Names of Clubs and Organizations	♦		
f. Names of Newspapers, Ships, Railroads, Magazines		♦	
III. Parts of Speech			
A. Nouns			
1. Common and proper			♦
2. Collective			♦
3. Abstract			♦
4. Singular and plural	♦		
5. As objects of prepositions			♦
6. As predicate nominatives			♦
B. Pronouns			
1. Person			♦
2. Gender			♦
3. Types			
a. Personal			♦
b. Interrogative			♦
4. Antecedent agreement			♦
C. Adjectives			
1. Articles			♦
2. Predicate adjectives			♦
D. Adverbs			
1. Initial adverbs	♦		
2. Transition words	♦		
E. Verbs			
1. Six tenses			♦
2. Voice			♦
3. Principal parts			♦
4. Irregular verbs			♦
5. Being-verbs			♦
F. Prepositions and prepositional phrases			
1. Introductory prepositional phrases		♦	
2. Prepositional phrases as adverbs and adjectives			♦
G. Conjunctions			
1. Coordinating conjunctions		♦	
2. Subordinating conjunctions			♦
H. Interjections			♦

IV.   Usage – by grade level
   A. Grade Four
      1. Verbs
         a. grow-grew-(helping verb) grown
         b. ride-rode-(helping verb) ridden
         c. know-knew-(helping verb) known
         d. take-took-(helping verb) taken
         e. draw-drew-(helping verb) drawn
      2. Distinction between:
         a. teach-learn
         b. can-may
         c. bring-take
         d. who-which
         e. good-well
      3. Unnecessary words
         a. John he
         b. this here
         c. them there
         d. off of
         e. have got
      4. Use of *a* before a consonant
            an before a vowel
      5. Proper use of might, have, would have, should have, could have
   B. Grade Five
      1. Verbs
         a. begin-began-(helping verb) begun
         b. throw-threw-(helping verb) thrown
         c. drive-drove-(helping verb) driven
         d. break-broke-(helping verb) broken
         e. wear-wore-(helping verb) worn
         f. speak-spoke-(helping verb) spoken
         g. ring-rang-(helping verb) rung
         h. catch-caught-(helping verb) caught
         i. write-wrote-(helping verb) written
         j. sit-sat-(helping verb) sat
         k. climb-climbed-(helping verb) climbed
         l. sing-sang-(helping verb) sung
         m. blow-blew-(helping verb) blown
         n. say-said-(helping verb) said
         o. tear-tore-(helping verb) torn
      2. Use of *I* not *Me* in compound subject
      3. Use of *Me* not *I* in compound objects
   C. Grade Six
      1. Verbs
         a. swim-swam-(helping verb) swum

b. steal-stole-(helping verb) stolen
c. set-set-(helping verb) set
d. rise-rose-(helping verb) risen
e. raise-raised-(helping verb) raised
f. lie-lay-(helping verb) lain
g. lay-laid-(helping verb) lain
h. choose-chose-(helping verb) chosen
i. sink-sank-(helping verb) sunk
j. drink-drank-(helping verb) drunk
k. fly-flew-(helping verb) flown
l. freeze-froze-(helping verb) frozen
m. drown-drowned-(helping verb) drowned
n. teach-taught-(helping verb) taught
o. ought-ought to have
p. dive-dived-(helping verb) dived
q. flow-flowed-(helping verb) flowed

2. Review of words commonly misspelled

METHODS FOR TEACHING GRAMMAR
IN THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES

I. Sentence Skills
   A. Sentence Completeness
      1. Collect sentence fragments from student papers and have students complete the fragments. Students then incorporate the sentences into a new paragraph.
      2. Start a chain story on the board, or on paper. The teacher provides the first subject, and a student provides a complete predicate. The next student provides another subject, the next student another predicate, and so on. Once the story is completed, the class can use it to learn many grammatical concepts. The sentences can be expanded, adding adjectives, adverbs, vivid verbs, and prepositional phrases. Discuss capitalization and punctuation. Experiment with sentence type and length. The strongest point about this method is that it provides *student* writing on which to work.
      3. Make a list of groups of words. Have children determine which are phrases, which are complete thoughts. Punctuate the complete thoughts.
   B. Sentence Order
      1. To introduce students to inverted sentence order, begin with adverbs. First, solicit sentences from the class (or begin with sentences from student papers) that demonstrate natural adverb position. Then, move the adverb to the initial position and direct the student to write the rest of the sentence:

         The plane glided smoothly to a stop. →
         Smoothly, _____.

         The teacher can point out the use of a comma after initial adverbs.
      2. Teach initial adverbs (and transition words) by giving the student an index card with the adverbs written in positions they might occupy in a paragraph:

         First, _____. Then, _____
         _____. Next, _____. Afterward,
         _____
         _____. Finally, _____
         _____.

         Using this model, the student writes his own paragraph.
      3. Adjectives in the initial position can be taught using the method described in I, B, 1 on the preceding page. Because adjectives in the initial position are often in a series, the teacher can use this activity to re-enforce the use of a comma in a series:

         Small, lonely, hurt, the boy walked home.
         High, bright, and blue, the sky hung above us.
      4. Teach initial prepositional phrases using the same methods described for adverbs and adjectives above. The index card method described in I, B, 2 on the preceding page can be used as well. If the teacher has word and phrase cards, the class can construct sentences demonstrating the natural and inverted ordering of prepositional phrases, discussing the merits and effectiveness of each. As with adverbs and adjectives, this method provides an ideal opportunity to re-enforce correct comma use.

5. Keep a bulletin board or spot on the blackboard entitled "How Else Could You Say It?" Put here one new sentence each day. During a spare 5 minutes in the day, try to find other ways of stating the same thought. Note together change of emphasis through a word or phrase.

C. Compound Sentences

1. Provide students with a list of simple sentences (preferably from their own papers) and a paper with conjunctions spaced as they might be within a paragraph:

_____, and _____.
_____. _____, but
_____. _____, or _____
_____. _____.
_____, and _____. _____
_____, but _____. _____
_____. _____, and _____
_____.

Children use the list of sentences to fill in the blanks.

2. Give students diagram structures to complete with their own sentences:
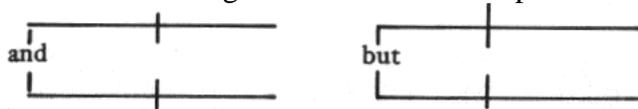
This method shows that each "half" of the compound sentence must have a subject and a predicate.

3. To stress that a compound sentence is really two simple sentences combined by a conjunction, have the students diagram elementary compound sentences. Initially, use sentences two years below the average reading level of the class.

4. Have the students rewrite a story from a first or second grade reader, changing the simple sentences into compound sentences.

5. This is a two-step plan. Begin by composing with the class a story built of entirely simple sentences. Tell the class the story will be read to first graders: older students will try to make sure then that all punctuation is in good order. After the formulation and punctuation of simple sentences is thus re-enforced, the class rewrites the story using compound sentences.

D. Write weekly spelling words in sentences.

E. Have a weekly sentence writing session on a current happening of interest to the children.

II. Punctuation and Capitalization Skills

A. Every intermediate teacher should develop what Don Wolfe calls "creative grammar drills." Such a drill demands that the student use the grammatical convention in his own writing. A few examples for the intermediate grades are presented here: in each drill, the student must respond in complete sentences.

1. Comma drill
   Question: Did you eat breakfast this morning? List the items you had for breakfast.
   Reply: Yes, I had cereal, milk, and orange juice.

Question: When were you born? Begin your sentence with "I" and include your name in the sentence.
Reply: I, Joan Dice, was born on August 12, 1969.
    2. Capitalization drill
Question: Where do you live? Give street, city, and state.
Reply: I live at 1600 Shady St., Grand Rapids, Michigan.
Question: What holiday do we celebrate in July?
Reply: We celebrate the Fourth of July (or Independence Day) in July.
    3. Apostrophe and Possessives drill
Question: What is the color of your house? Use the possessive of "it."
Reply: Its color is white.
Question: What is the color of your house? Use the contraction of "it is."
Reply: It's white.
    4. Punctuating dialog drill
Question: What did you say when you met your best friend this morning? Begin your sentence with "I said." What did your friend reply? End this sentence with "he replied."
Reply: I said, "What did you do Friday night?"
"I went to the basketball game," he replied.
  B. To re-enforce contraction and dialog skills, Hennings suggests providing the class with a series of conversational quotations:

"I can't," said the ant.   "The asp isn't," hissed the snake.
"I won't," hooted the owl.   "You'll fall," called the fawn.
"I'm a brain," insisted the ape.   "They aren't," chirped the bird.

Students must use at least three of the sentences in their own conversation tales.
  C. Time-lines and "Happening-Maps" can re-enforce capitalization rules. Construct a time-line of United States history. Items such as "The Revolutionary War," "The Great Compromise," "The Gettysburg Address," and other items can be put on the line. The events on the time-line can then be put on maps. Rivers, mountains, cities, and states can be added to the map as well.
  D. Select a paragraph of conversation. Remove all quotation marks. Find and enclose in quotation marks the words spoken.
III. Parts of Speech
  A. Nouns and Adjectives
    1. Noun and adjective ladders as described for the primary grades can be constructed for intermediate use.
    2. To generate lists of adjectives and to develop a feeling for synonyms and the appropriate word, construct "adjective grids." The following is from Hennings:

	fat	broad	wide	plump	big	thick
door		♦	♦		♦	♦
boy	♦			♦	♦	
river		♦	♦		(♦)	
chicken	♦			♦	(♦)	
book	♦				♦	♦

3. Hennings also describes ways to integrate poetry and grammar instruction. In these activities, poems provide structure, based on parts of speech, for student writing:
   a. Rossetti's "Sea-sand and Sorrow" can be used to generate nouns, to provide examples of noun-verb agreement, and to provide a "back-door" entrance to predicate adjectives:

   > What are heavy? Sea-sand and sorrow:
   > What are brief? Today and tomorrow:
   > What are frail? Spring blossoms and youth:
   > What are deep? The ocean and truth.

   The pattern is as follows:
   > Noun___ and Noun____
   > What are adj.___? Noun___ and Noun___:
   > What are adj.___? Noun___ and Noun___:
   > What are adj.___? Noun___ and Noun___:
   > What are adj.___? Noun___ and Noun___:

   b. "Beans, Beans, Beans" by Lucile and James Hymes provides a structure for creative noun and adjective use:

   > Beans,
   > Beans,
   > Beans.
   > Baked beans,
   > Butter beans,
   > Big fat lima beans,
   > Long thin string beans –
   > Those are just a few.
   > Green beans,
   > Black beans,
   > Big fat kidney beans,
   > Red hot chilly beans,
   > jumping beans, too.
   > Pea beans,
   > Pinto beans,
   > Don't forget shelly beans.
   > Last of all, best of all,
   > I like jelly beans!

   The structure is as follows:
   > Noun___,
   > Noun___,
   > Noun___.
   > Adj.___ Noun___,
   > Adj.___ Noun___,
   > Adj.___ Adj.___ Adj.___ Noun___,
   > Adj.___ Adj.___ Adj.___ Noun___,
   > Those are just a few.

<pre>
Adj.____ Noun____,
Adj.____ Noun____,
Adj.____ Adj.____ Adj.____ Noun____,
Adj.____ Adj.____ Adj.____ Noun____,
Adj.____ Noun____, too.
Adj.____ Noun____,
Adj.____ Noun____,
Don't forget Adj.____ Noun____.
Last of all, best of all,
I like Adj.____ Noun____!
</pre>

4. Construct "plural and singular stories." Provide a list of similar singular and plural subjects:

the king	the kings	the king and queen
a knight	the knights	the knights and squires
the mountain	the mountains	the hills and mountains
the dragon	the dragons	the dragon and her eggs

Students must use these subjects in their own stories. Use sentences from the stories to establish noun-verb agreement rules.

5. Develop a wall chart listing frequent noun endings. Children can discover new endings to add to the list. List examples of each:

-age, storage	-ness	-dom
-ance, ence	-th	-hood
-ant, ent	-ment	-ian
-er, or	-tion	-ism
-ce	-ure	-ist
-ity	-y	-ship

To begin to teach the characteristic noun endings, place on the chalkboard a frame like this:

    The _____er.

Have the students fill in the blank space with words which end in *er* or any other noun ending, but only do one at a time. (The students might have a reading passage or a dictionary to which they can refer for words.) To reinforce the concepts have the students practice locating *-er* words following a reading lesson or an oral story.

6. Develop a chart listing common adjective endings and examples.

-able, -ible (laughable, sensible)	-like
-al	-ous
-ar	-some
-ary, -ory	-ish
-ic	-ful
-er (for many comparatives)	-ive
-est (for many superlatives)	-less
-ate (usually schwa, as in separate)	

7. Write advertisements for a book, product, vacation spot, etc. using appropriate adjectives. Illustrate if possible.

B. Verbs

1. To teach and re-enforce the principal parts of irregular and troublesome verbs, construct playing cards with a principal part of a verb on each card. Two to four children can play with a deck of twenty-four cards. After the cards are dealt, unwanted cards are passed to the player on the left, as in the card games "Spoon" and "Pit." The first player to collect the three principal parts of a verb wins. The dealer can act as judge. Verb tense cards can be made to teach verb conjugation.

2. Another way to teach verb tense is to compose "silly-sentences" with the class. For instance, starting with the sentence "Everyday Sally sings silly songs," the next child in the group changes the tense of the verb and adds another word starting with the "s" sound: "Sad Sally sang silly songs yesterday," "Sad Sally will sing seven silly songs tomorrow," and so on. Hennings suggests other starting sentences: "Everyday Robert rings rusty bells," "Betsy begins batting balls at dawn," and "Everyday George goes to Georgia."

3. An effective means of introducing students to being-verbs is to let them write one-paragraph descriptions of themselves. Such paragraphs can take this form:

   I am Todd Bloom. I am ten. I will be eleven in two weeks. My hair is brown, and my eyes are blue.

4. Such paragraphs as the previous lead naturally to discussions of predicate adjectives and predicate nominatives. Diagram student sentences, showing how the relationship of the predicate noun or adjective to the subject is established by the being-verb:

   hair | is \ brown   name | is \ Todd Bloom
   ──────   ──────
   my   my
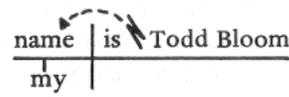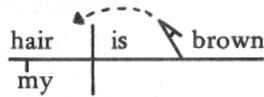
5. The "Happiness is" game stresses the linking nature of beingverbs. Provide the students with sentence beginnings such as those given below; students complete the sentences. The teacher may wish to discuss predicate adjectives after the sentences are completed.

   Happiness is _____.   School is _____.
   Vacations are _____.   Mornings are _____.

   A variation of this game is to give the students a list of being-verb openers that, when completed, tell a story. Once the story is completed, the teacher can point out that writing with too many being-verbs is often dull, and the class can substitute vivid verbs into the story.

6. If the class diagrams often, the teacher may wish to compare diagrams of sentences with being-verbs to diagrams of sentences with direct objects, emphasizing that predicate nouns and adjectives occupy the "slot" in the sentence where direct objects are found – after the verb.

7. Use diagramming to introduce the active-passive voice concept. Diagram two sentences:

```
  Jack | hit | ball                    ball  |  was  |  hit
  ──────┴─────┴──────              ─────┴──────┴────────
              | the                 the  |       | by | Jack
```

Point out that a) the passive sentence has no direct object, b) the direct object of the active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence, c) the subject of the active sentence becomes part of a prepositional phrase (the object) in the passive sentence, and d) the passive sentence takes more words to say than does the active sentence.

8. Have students transform their own active sentences into passive sentences and their own passive sentences into active sentences.

9. Present the class with a paragraph written entirely in the passive voice. Here is an example:

> The fort was being attacked by the Apaches. The stockade was set aflame by burning arrows. The farmers were chased inside by the Indians. Arrows were shot over the wooden walls, and Captain Smith was killed.

The class rewrites the paragraph in the active voice. Later, the teacher should compare student paragraphs to the original, showing how the active voice, in fewer words, produces more excitement than the wordy passive voice.

10. Develop a wall chart with frequent verb endings and examples:

	and inflections
-ate (operate)	-s
-en	-ed
-ify	-t
-ize	-ing

See III, A, S (p. 45).

11. To begin teaching past tense ask the students to write a statement about what they did yesterday. List several of these responses on the board in a column. Ask the children what they notice about the spelling of the verbs in sentences which are present tense as compared to those which are past tense.

12. To begin to teach the idea of change which occurs in the third person singular, present tense of a verb, ask a student to make a statement about what he does in the morning. (For example: I walk to school.) Then ask him to make a statement about what another member of his class does in the morning. (For example: Sandy rides to school.) Record several of these responses in columns on the board, the first person in one list, the third person in another. Ask the students to notice any similarity in the words in the first list, compare these words to the second list. If necessary, direct his attention specifically to the verbs; don't use terminology if you can possibly avoid it.

    To reinforce the concept, have students examine reading passages to locate verbs in the third person singular, present tense.

C. Adverbs

1. Construct adverb ladders to show alternative adverb choices.

2. To teach the definition of an adverb, place a kernel sentence on the board with the headings when, where, how, and why behind the sentence. Students add words and phrases (and clauses) under those headings:

when	**where**	**how**	**why**

I ran		today	at the gym		to get in shape.
We found it	yesterday		at home.		
He sang			in church	loudly.	

This is an especially effective method because it covers all the functions of an adverb as well as developing naturally an understanding of adverbial phrases and clauses.

3. Let the class compare adverb-rich writing to adverb-poor writing. Here are two paragraphs you may wish to use:

   Adverb-poor

   Dan Boone ran to the wounded man and lifted the limp body onto his back. He trudged back to the safety of the fort. The settlers ran to meet Dan. When Little John saw his wounded father, he said that he would have revenge.

   Adverb-rich

   From out of the forest he suddenly heard the twang of an arrow. Jeremiah screamed fearfully and clutched tightly his arrow-pierced arm. The blood flowed rapidly from the wound. He gasped painfully, then fell heavily to the ground.

   Most students will prefer the second paragraph because the adverbs provide authentic and exciting detail. Students can add adverbs to the first paragraph, and use adverbs in paragraphs of their own.

4. Develop a chart of characteristics of adverbs.

common endings	compounds like:
-ly	sometimes
-ward	anywhere
-wise	everywhere

words of time, place, manner

example: The girls *usually* come *here quietly*.

time	place	manner
(when)	(where)	(how)

D. Pronouns

   1. To enforce the idea that pronouns take the place of nouns, direct each student to write a "baby-talk" story about himself, using only his first name:

      Tom went to the drugstore. Tom wanted some baseball cards. Tom looked, but could not find the baseball cards. Finally, Tom told the sales-lady, "Tom can't find the baseball cards."

      "Oh, the sales-lady will help Tom find the baseball cards," said the sales-lady.

      So, Tom bought the baseball cards and went home.

   The student will know that this is immature writing, and will want to replace the often-repeated nouns with personal pronouns. If the nouns to be replaced are reviewed in order, this exercise provides an excellent opportunity to introduce antecedent agreement.

2. To help clear up antecedent problems, review student errors in class, letting students repair their own sentences.
3. Show the class brief passages of correct and incorrect pronoun usage. This is especially effective for teaching the importance of antecedent agreement. Here are example paragraphs:

Correct usage

The New England Indians taught the Pilgrims many things about food. They learned how to dry deer meat so it would not spoil. They were also introduced to maple syrup by the Indians.

The Indians taught the Pilgrims to grow squash and corn. They learned how to grind corn and to cook it in different ways. The pilgrims also learned about the "corn that flowers," which is the popcorn we enjoy so much today.

Incorrect usage

The Pilgrims decided to have a feast and invite the Indians to show how thankful they were for the good harvest. In preparation for the feast, they sent a few men into the woods to hunt for wild turkey. The women picked wild berries and prepared many delicious foods. They came back with enough turkeys to last a week. They worked in the kitchen for many days.

E. Prepositional Phrases
   1. The activities described for teaching prepositional phrases in the primary grades can be used profitably in the intermediate grades as well. In review, those activities included:
      a. action-order cards: walk around the room
      b. action pictures that can be described using prepositional phrases
      c. placing objects about the room: on the piano, in the desk
      d. prepositional phrase ladders
   2. Diagramming can reveal the structure and construction of prepositional phrases and can show the adjectival and adverbial functions of the phrases as well. Begin with partially empty prepositional phrase diagrams:
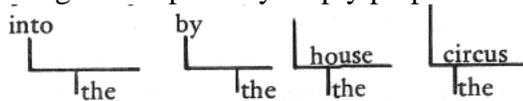
Previous experience with prepositional phrases makes obvious the types of missing words. In the first two diagrams, nouns (or objects) are missing; prepositions are needed to complete the second pair of diagrams. If the teacher provides a sheet of such incomplete diagrams, the student can fill in the missing objects and prepositions and use the phrases in his own sentences and stories. Once the students have written their own sentences or stories, select sentences with adjective and adverb prepositional phrases. Provide a list of diagrammed sentences without the prepositional phrases. On the same paper, list the prepositional phrases, already diagrammed, and direct the students to place correctly the phrases in the sentence diagrams:

```
        man │ ran
        ─────┼──────
        │the │

        cat │ meowed
        ─────┼──────────
        │our │loudly

        house │ burned
        ──────┼──────────
        │the  │

around          through          in
  │corner         │night           │suit
    │the            │the            │the  │blue

to              in               into
  │ground         │garage          │crowd
    │the            │the            │the  │large
```

3. Another way to teach the adjectival and adverbial uses of the prepositional phrase is to have students fill in blanks with prepositional phrases:

    A dog _____ barked loudly _____.
                what kind?   where?

F. Conjunctions
   1. Activities for teaching coordinating conjunctions in the intermediate grades are described in this section's discussion of compound sentences. See I, C, 1-4, pages 41, 42.
   2. A teacher can introduce subordinate conjunctions to sixth graders without going into the details of dependent clauses. Select subordinating conjunctions from student papers and list them for the students:

        if   since   because   that
        unless   before   although   when

      Tell the students that they must use these words at the beginning of sentences. Some fragments will result, but enough correctly constructed complex sentences will be generated to provide enough student examples to get the class started on subordinating conjunctions.
   3. Provide the students with sentences to complete:

        If I was _____, I would _____.
        I _____ because I overslept.
        When I heard that _____, I _____.
        We will go unless _____.
   4. Compare initial conjunction to internal conjunction use:

        I will wash my hair before I go.
        Before I go, I will wash my hair.

      If the class reads such sentence pairs aloud, the teacher can point out that the natural pause after the opening words is a good place for a comma. If the students do enough of these exercises perhaps they will learn by themselves that a comma belongs after (what they will come to know as) an adverb clause.
   5. Let the students prepare word, phrase, conjunction, and punctuation cards and build sentences according to these patterns:

Subordinator	Subject	Predicate	,	Subject	Predicate	.
Since	I	came late	,	I	left late	.

Subject	Predicate	Subordinator	Subject	Predicate	.
I	always knew	that	he	would leave	.

IV.   Paragraph Structure
  A. Choose a paragraph constructed on sequential order. Take the paragraph apart, Mix up its sentences. Have the children write them in sequential order.
  B. Have a small box filled with topic sentences. Children may select from it to write paragraphs.

JUNIOR HIGH CURRICULUM
GRAMMAR IN THE JUNIOR HIGH, GRADES 7-9

Formal grammar instruction begins in junior high. We must remember, however, that formal grammar instruction does not consist solely of rule memorization and workbook drill. Rather, formal grammar instruction consists of teaching students how their language works so that they may use the language more effectively. Junior high students should learn about adverb clauses, participles, and gerunds not because these are in themselves good concepts for junior high students to know, but so that the students can use such constructions effectively in their own writing.

Critics of traditional grammar instruction argue that students use noun clauses, verbals, and prepositional phrases naturally, and that therefore it is unnecessary (perhaps even harmful) to teach such constructions formally. However, we believe that if we are going to teach the student how to use his language effectively and forcefully, we must teach him how to utilize the many grammatical forms our language takes. In other words, if we want to teach that a periodic sentence can be used for special emphasis, our students must first know what a periodic sentence is and how to construct one. Similarly, if we want to teach that participles aid word economy, our students must know what participles are and how to form them.

If grammar is taught to improve writing, it will be taught through writing: preferably, student writing. Many workbooks teach sentence subordination by having students combine pairs of simple sentences. This is not a bad exercise, but it is much more effective if the student works on sentences from his own work. The student sees, by combining his own sentences, that he can improve his own writing through his use of complex sentences. And although one may use passages by famous authors to teach grammar, we have found that using student examples, wherever possible, has the greatest positive effect on student writing. It is one thing to point out Ray Bradbury's brilliant use of adjectives: it is quite another to read and praise a student's effective adjective manipulation before the class.

In short, the junior high grammar teacher has two goals: he must teach a complete, thorough, and rigorous grammar, and he must convince his students that they can use their grammatical knowledge to produce good writing. The enthusiastic, imaginative teacher can accomplish these goals through a coordinated use of literary examples and student writing. junior high students should enter high school confident (honestly so) that they know the basic grammatical requirements of effective writing. The junior high English teacher must give this confidence.

SUGGESTED SEQUENCE OF INSTRUCTION

Concept	7	8	9
I. Syntactical skills			
A. Sentence order			
1. Periodic	♦		
2. Loose	♦		
B. Sentence types			
1. Complex	♦		
2. Compound-complex		♦	
C. Sentence sense			
1. Avoiding fragments	♦		
2. Avoiding run-ons	♦		
II. Paragraphs			
A. Transitions within	♦		
B. Transitions between	♦		
III. Mechanical skills			
A. End marks	♦		
B. Comma			
1. To set off introductory remarks and parenthetical expressions	♦		
2. To set off non-restrictive clauses		♦	
3. After initial adverb clauses			♦
4. After adverbial conjunctions			♦
5. To set off appositives		♦	
C. Semi-colon			
1. Between the clauses of a compound sentence when the clauses are not separated by a comma and a conjunction			♦
2. After a conjunctive adverb			♦
D. Parentheses	♦		
E. Dash: limited use			
1. In place of parentheses			♦
2. In place of a comma			♦
3. To create suspense		♦	
F. Hyphen			
1. In compounded words	♦		
2. With some prefixes	♦		
3. In spelling compound numbers	♦		
4. In spelling fractions when used as modifiers	♦		
G. Ellipses			
1. In quotations			♦
2. In dialog to represent a pause			♦
3. To create suspense		♦	
H. Quotation marks			
1. Around title of poem	♦		
2. Around title of short story	♦		

IV. Parts of Speech

Item			
A. Nouns			
1. As indirect objects	♦		
2. As appositives		♦	
3. Noun clauses			♦
B. Pronouns			
1. Case	♦		
2. Antecedent agreement	♦		
3. Classes			
a. Possessive	♦		
b. Indefinite		♦	
c. Intensive			♦
d. Reflexive			♦
e. Relative			♦
C. Adjectives			
1. Degrees of comparison	♦		
2. Adjective phrases			♦
3. Adjective clauses			♦
D. Adverbs			
1. Adverb phrases			♦
2. Adverb clauses			♦
E. Verbs and Verbals			
1. Transitive and intransitive verbs	♦		
2. Mood		♦	
3. Participles and participle phrases			♦
4. Gerunds and gerund phrases			♦
5. Infinitives and infinitive phrases			♦
F. Conjunctions			
1. Subordinate conjunctions	♦		
2. Correlative conjunctions		♦	
3. Adverbial conjunctions			♦

V. Usage: Junior High
- A. Grade Seven
  1. The nominative and objective cases of pronouns
  2. Correct use of positive, comparative, superlative degrees of modifiers
  3. Problem words, such as between and among
  4. Synonyms, antonyms, homonyms
- B. Usage instruction in grades eight and nine consists of review and re-enforcement of concepts previously taught.

**IDEAS FOR TEACHING GRAMMAR
IN THE JUNIOR HIGH**

I. Syntactical Skills
    A. Varying sentence type and structure
        1. Present the class with examples (from their writing) of loose sentences. Point out that in the English language, the natural word order is subject – predicate, and use students' sentences for examples of this pattern. Then, invert the order in a few of the examples, creating periodic sentences:

            George ran into the barn. → Into the barn ran George.
            The stars twinkled above our heads. → Above our heads, the stars twinkled.

            The class can invert the rest of the example sentences. Because periodic sentences may seem awkward at first, give students an opportunity to use them in their own writing as soon as possible.
        2. Another way to demonstrate the pattern of periodic sentences is to provide blank patterns for the student to complete:

            _____ _____ _____.
                modifiers   verb   subject

            _____ _____ _____ _____.
              Modifiers   verb   subject   modifiers
        3. Some students will notice that many periodic sentences open with prepositional phrases: have the students write sentences with initial prepositional phrases as another type of sentence inversion. Here are two examples from ninth graders:

            Into the forest, through the trees and bushes, across the bridge over the stream, ran the dogs, chasing the convict.
            Across the sea, into the desert by the shore, along the rivers into the middle of Africa, the birds flew with their messages.
        4. Show the class that "ing-words" and "ed-words" can be used in various positions throughout a sentence. Depending on grade level, you may or may not wish to tell the class that these words are participles; nevertheless, students will see that they can use these words in a variety of positions:

            Jack came into the house and threw his books on the table → Coming into the house, Jack threw his books on the table.
            Bill was tired and exhausted. He fell asleep quickly. → Tired and exhausted, Bill fell asleep quickly.
            Tom was frightened by the sound and ran home. →
            Tom, frightened by the sound, ran home.
                      or
            Tom ran home, frightened by the sound.

            Students should immediately use such sentence patterns in their own writing. Here are two ninth-grade examples:

            Running, staggering, he hit the wall and fell to the sidewalk. The boy, groaning in pain, rolled on his back, staring at the cold, overcast sky.

> The tree, standing straight and reaching almost to the clouds, stood blowing in the wind. Through its branches a chattering, scampering squirrel looked at me. Suddenly, a cawing, swooping, diving blue jay flew from the tree, aiming at my head.

5. Complex and compound-complex sentences should be taught as effective means to vary sentence structure and to reduce sentence monotony. To introduce the idea of complex sentences, give the class two simple sentences to combine:

> This is the car. My brother drove it in the race.
> I will wash my hair. It is dirty.

Some students will write "My brother drove this car in the race" or "I will wash my dirty hair," but at least one student will write "This is the car which my brother drove in the race" or "I will wash my hair because it is dirty." Tell the class that here we have sentences that are neither simple nor compound. Ask the class to break the sentences into two parts, both of which can make a complete sentence all by itself. It cannot be done. In addition to convincing students that these sentences are not compound, this will produce the independent and dependent clause. Place the clauses on the board on a chart:

Independent clause	Subordinator	+ Dependent clause
This is the car	which	my brother drove in the race.
I will wash my hair	because	it is dirty.

The chart highlights the three components of a complex sentence, as well as revealing that each clause has a subject and a verb. Solicit complex sentences from the class, putting the sentences into the chart. The teacher may wish to give charts to the students so that they can write down the examples, too.

6. If the students have generated a list of complex sentences, they will also have produced a number of the words which commonly introduce independent clauses. List these words, adding any the students did not provide:

which	until	than
because	why	how
since	after	before
while	who	although
what	that	as
whom	whose	though
unless	when	where

Learning such a list will help students recognize dependent clauses and complex sentences. More importantly, each student can draw words from this list to construct his own complex sentences.

7. To reinforce the complex pattern, have students fill in sentence blanks:

> Because _____, I _____.
> The man who _____ called yesterday.
> Unless _____, I _____.
> Although _____, we _____.
> The camp where _____ is in the Rockies.

8. Here are the best ways we have found to teach the correct punctuation of introductory clauses:
   a. Do not make a "big deal" out of it.
   b. Be sure to include commas in all examples, mentioning that a comma belongs after initial clauses.
   c. Read the sentences aloud: where students pause naturally, tell them to place a comma.
9. Don Wolfe recommends "directed sentence expansion" (*Creative Ways*, p. 213) as a means of writing complex sentences. Beginning with a simple sentence, the student follows prescriptions, building a complex sentence:
   Simple sentence: I met a friend. Add a clause beginning with "who" to describe the friend. →

   I met a friend who told me about the game.
   Simple sentence: My friend helped me. Add a clause beginning with "since" or "because" telling *why* the friend helped you. →
   My friend helped me because I could not do it myself.
10. Students will naturally use many complex sentences if they write argumentative paragraphs. Argumentation calls for the use of clauses beginning with "since," "if," "although," and "because."
11. Most complex sentence activities can be expanded to teach compound-complex (Cd-Cx) sentences as well. The students can fill in Cd-Cx sentence patterns:
    Although _____, we_____, but _____.
    _____, and _____ what _____.

B. Varying sentence type and structure through literary examples
   Show the students examples of Cd-Cx sentence patterns written by their favorite authors. Students write sentences patterned after the examples:
1. Ursula K. LeGuin, *The Farthest Shore*:
   The boat rounded a short promontory, and he saw what he took for a moment to be a ruined fortress.
   Pattern: _____, and _____ what _____
   _____.
2. J.R.R. Tolkein, *The Fellowship of the Ring*:
   The night was nearly gone, and they were all exhausted, when at last they reached the top.
   Pattern: _____, and _____
   when _____.
3. Vera and Bill Cleaver, *Where the Lilies Bloom*:
   The window of the drugstore was dim but inside I could see a white-coated man moving about and I wondered what medicine he was concocting from what roots and herbs.
   Pattern: _____(,) but _____
   _____(,) and _____ what _____
   _____.
4. John Tunis, *His Enemy, His Friend*:

It is not easy to obey orders when the orders are to have your friends shot; it is hard to issue orders when those orders mean a firing squad for your friends.

Pattern: _____ when _____; _____ when _____.

5. J.R.R. Tolkein, *The Fellowship of the Ring*:

Aragorn sat with his head bowed to his knees; only Elrond knew fully what this hour meant to him.

Pattern: _____; _____ what _____.

Note how the last two examples show how semi-colons can take the place of a comma and a conjunction.

C. As a general approach to sentence improvement, take good, student sentences and present them to the class under the heading of "Good Sentences That Could Be Made Better." Dangling participles, split infinitives, missing commas, subject-verb agreement, all these problems and others can be reviewed using this student-centered method.

II. Paragraphing Skills

A. Ninth grade is the time to begin teaching an appreciation of how the type and length of the sentences within a paragraph can help reflect the action or mood of the paragraph. It is best to start with obvious examples, such as these paragraphs from Tolkein's story, *The Fellowship of the Ring*:

Fear now filled all Frodo's mind. He thought no longer of his sword. No cry came from him. He shut his eyes and clung to the horse's mane. The wind whistled in his ears, and the bells upon the harness rang wild and shrill. A breath of deadly cold pierced him like a spear, as with a last spurt, like a flash of white-fire, the elf-horse speeding as if on wings, passed right before the face of the foremost Rider.

Frodo heard the splash of water. It foamed about his feet. He felt the quick heave and surge as the horse left the river and struggled up the stoney path. He was climbing the steep bank. He was across the Ford.

Frodo's fear and the fast-paced action are reflected and conveyed by the short, simple sentences. Even the compound and complex sentences are so broken with commas and conjunctions that they read as single, short utterances.

B. Teach students to vary sentence type and length to avoid monotonous paragraphs. Show the students a monotonous paragraph:

The house sat on a hill. It was old and run-down. The shutters were open and some of the windows were broken. The front door and the upper-floor windows were boarded. The boys could not get in without breaking one of the first-floor windows.

Students can rewrite the paragraph, using a variety of sentence constructions.

C. Another activity to teach students to avoid paragraph monotony is to have the students write a paragraph with each sentence beginning with a different "part of speech." The "part of speech" can be a single word, a phrase, or a clause.

D. Teach synonyms and "echo-word" paragraph transitions at the same time. Identify the subject in a tentative topic sentence. Then, list as many synonyms for the

subject-word as the class can offer. Each sentence in the paragraph that the students will write must use a word from the list.

E. Discuss how different types of writing call for different sentence and paragraph types. For instance, short, simple sentences and short paragraphs are generally ineffective in argumentative writing because a staccato, choppy, style is not the best way to develop a persuasive argument.

F. One way to impress upon students that choices between punctuation and sentence-type influence the rhythm, style, and force of the paragraph shaped by those choices is to present the students with an unpunctuated paragraph and let them add the missing marks. Compare student versions, discussing which choices are effective and how the choices give voice to the paragraph's content or mood. Here is a paragraph (punctuation in parentheses, capital letters omitted) from Robert Newton Peck's novel *A Day No Pigs Would Die*:

> I don't know why I walked out toward the orchard(.)all the work there was done(.)but I guess I had to give a goodnight to Papa(,)and be alone with him(.)the bugs were out and their singing was all around me(,)almost like a choir(.)I got to the fresh grave(,)all neatly mounded and pounded(.)somewhere down under all that Vermont clay was my father(,)Haven Peck(,)buried deep in the land he sweated so hard on and longed to own so much(.)and now it owned him.

Student versions:

1. I don't know why I walked out toward the orchard; all the work there was done, but I guess I had to give a goodnight to Papa and be alone with him. The bugs were out, and their singing was all around me, almost like a choir. I got to the fresh grave. It was all neatly pounded and mounded. Somewhere, down under all that Vermont clay, was my father. Haven Peck, buried deep in the land he had sweated so hard on, and longed to own so much. Now, it owned him.

2. I don't know why. I walked out toward the orchard. All the work there was done, but I guess I had to give a goodnight to Papa, be alone with him. The bugs were out; their singing was all around, almost like a choir. I got to the fresh grave, all neatly pounded and mounded. Somewhere down under all that Vermont clay was my father, Newton Peck, buried deep in the land he sweated so hard on and longed to own so much: and now, it owned him.

Discussion could take this form: "The words tell us that the author is describing a sad and melancholy scene. Which paragraph best conveys that sadness? How does sentence length affect the feeling the words create? Do the longer, pause-filled sentences of paragraph two convey the sorrow as well as, or better than, the shorter sentences of paragraph one?"

G. Have children collect samples, from magazine and newspaper articles, of the various ways of structuring a paragraph. Make a descriptive bulletin board display. Practice writing paragraphs in the various structures illustrated.

III. Mechanical Skills

A. We have used this method to teach the different "meanings" of punctuation marks. Present this sentence to the class:

It is hard to imagine a cattier woman than Mary Jane her best friend was cut to ribbons with a few clawing words.

Show the class that the two ideas in the sentence can be separated according to how much separation the class wants to establish:

Full break: _____.//_____.

A break, but close relationship: _____;//_____.

Close relationship: _____, for _____.

Suspense: _____–_____.

Balance: _____: _____.

Discuss the effect each punctuation mark has on the sentence: how each mark is valid, how the choice of punctuation marks depends on what one wants the sentence to convey in the paragraph in which it occurs.

B. Introduce students to the necessity of correct comma placement for the sake of clarity by presenting them with sentences that can be read two ways depending on comma placement:

Carol thinks her employer is attractive.

Carol, thinks her employer, is attractive.

No people are allowed here.

No, people are allowed here.

Jack, my friend is here.

Jack, my friend, is here.

C. A similar activity is to let students punctuate unclear sentences (necessary punctuation is provided in parentheses):

The fight over(,)the boys came home.

As I was singing(,)the organ stopped.

Just opposite(,)a tall building was in flames.

To cope with these(,)people must be energetic.

Her crying over(,)the girl went home.

If James is sure(,)there can be no mistake.

Lord Wellington entered(,)upon his head a helmet(,)on his feet a pair of polished boots(,)on his brow a cloud(,)in his hand his favorite walking stick(,)in his eye(,)fire.

If students have written unclear sentences such as those above, use the sentences in class. This activity can be reversed, with students writing intentionally unclear sentences for other students to clarify.

D. Correcting confusing sentences is a good way to teach punctuation of appositives as well.

Peter(,)the mailman(,)is here.

Bill Blackwell(,)a preacher(,)gave the sermon.

Go with my boys(,)Fred and Dave.

E. To help remedy comma splices, list a number of splices from students' papers along with the missing conjunctions. Tell the students to match the conjunctions to the comma splices.

F. Edgar Shuster recommends oral reading to teach the punctuation of restrictive and non-restrictive phrases and clauses. Natural pauses separate the non-restrictive item from the rest of the sentence:

The teacher(,)coming into the classroom(,)found that the desks were gone.
George(,)who was wearing a tie that glowed in the dark(,) came late.
His butler(,)whom he did not like(,)served supper.

Oral reading works well for teaching the punctuation of parenthetical expressions, introductory remarks, and introductory phrases and clauses.

IV. Parts of Speech
  A. Noun clauses
    1. Robert C. Pooley recommends stressing first the direct object function of noun clauses by having the class write sentences with verbs such as "said," "learned," "heard," "discovered," and "thought." Students will write sentences with noun clauses as direct objects:
        We heard *that you were sick*.
        He said *that he was going*.
        I thought *that we would lose*.
        Beware, however, of the occasional infinitive phrase.
    2. Students can also complete sentences with noun-clause direct objects:
        The members discovered _____.
                                                what?
        She learned _____.
                                what?
    3. If the methods described above generate one-word direct objects, do not despair. Diagram those one-word direct object sentences. Then, diagram some sentences with noun clauses as direct objects to clarify that function of the clause:
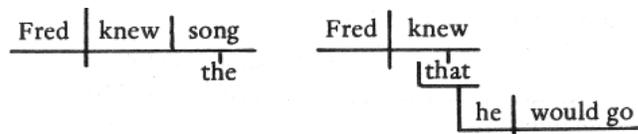
        Diagram-comparisons such as this are useful for teaching all the functions of the noun clause: subject, predicate nominative, object of a preposition, and appositive. Providing blank diagrams for students to complete with their own noun clauses is another good way to teach the many functions of the clause.
    4. Approach noun clauses as subjects as a type of sentence inversion used to prevent monotonous sentences and paragraphs. In addition, show the class that sentences with introductory noun clauses used as subjects are especially effective in persuasive writing:
        It is important that we vote Republican. →
                                    That we vote Republican is important.
        It is clear to everyone that our recesses are not long enough. →
                            That our recesses are not long enough is clear to everyone.
        Noun clauses as subjects create a sense of urgency and importance about the subject. Students should be able to see that the second sentence in each of the pairs above is more forceful than the first sentence. Assign paragraphs of argumentative writing to give students practice writing noun clauses as subjects.
  B. Verbals

1. Participles
   a. Begin with the present participle, stressing the adjective function by showing students examples from their own papers or from literature. Show the students that using present participles is a way to add life and action to sentences and paragraphs. I use this paragraph from Mark Twain's *Roughing It*:

      > There were eighty pony riders in the saddle all the time, night and day, *stretching* in a long scattering procession from Missouri to California, forty *flying* eastward, and forty toward the west, and among them *making* four hundred gallant horses earn a *stirring* livelihood… In a second or two it becomes a horse and rider, *rising* and *falling*, *rising* and *falling* – *sweeping* towards us nearer and nearer – *growing* more and more distinct…

   b. Teach participles as sentence-openers and as a means of sentence inversion by having students complete sentences by adding participles:

      The boys, _____ and _____, raced to the tree.
      _____, _____, _____, the enemy leapt from ambush.

      From these sentences students can progress to writing their own participle-filled sentences.

   c. To prevent dangling participles, Wolfe (*Creative Ways*, p. 200) suggests this creative drill:

      Skating across the pond, _____.
      <div align="center">who skated?</div>
      Whispering in the dark, _____.
      <div align="center">who whispered?</div>
      Howling mournfully, _____.
      <div align="center">who or what howled?</div>

   d. J.N. Hook recommends showing the class sentences in which the dangling modifier produces a ridiculous picture:

      Standing on my tiptoes, the horse was barely visible.
      Laughing aloud, his teeth fell out.
      Sailing toward the plate, the batter said that the ball looked as big as a balloon.

   e. Wolfe (*Creative Grammar*, p. 201) suggests that the student outline a story in present participles. Wolfe gives this example:

      <div align="center">In the School Cafeteria</div>

1. swishing open the door	6. lifting the milk
2. hearing the clatter of dishes	7. balancing my tray
3. choosing a ham sandwich	8. waiting for my check
4. sliding my tray along	9. slipping out my money
5. laughing with my friends	10. talking with the gang

      These phrases can be put into a story.

2. Infinitives
   a. Wolfe (*Creative Grammar*, pp. 201-202) suggests the following activities to give students practice writing infinitive phrases:

1) Listing infinitives and infinitive phrases to complete a sentence:

I know how   to bake a cake.
                                     to snow-ski.
                                     to take a bicycle apart.
                                     to drive a car.
                                     to type a letter.

2) Listing hopes or ambitions using infinitive phrases:

My Five Ambitions

To play center on the basketball team
To get an "A" on the next English test
To not get in trouble so often
To buy my own car
To get a good job this summer

b. Students can discover the predicate nominative use of infinitives by adding "My hope is" or "My ambition is" to the list of phrases above.

c. Students can write subject-infinitives by inverting the sentences they wrote for the above exercise. Compare the two uses of the infinitive phrase, pointing out that there is something arresting, something forceful, about an opening infinitive phrase:

It is our goal to make the school proud of us. →
                              To make the school proud of us is our goal.

I want to play my trumpet before 10,000 people. →
                    To play my trumpet before 10,000 people is what I want.

d. Pooley (*Teaching English*, pp. 157-158) suggests that students complete sentences in order to understand the adverb function of infinitive phrases:

The girls came _____.
                  why?
The teacher repeated the question _____.
                                     why?
He screamed _____.
                 why?

e. Have students place adverbial infinitive phrases first; they will then have another method of sentence inversion:

_____ (,) the man ran quickly.
              why?
_____ (,) six horses were brought.
              why?
_____ (,) he covered his tracks.
              why?

3. Gerunds

a. Comparative diagramming highlights the many functions of gerunds:
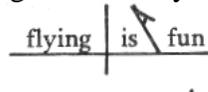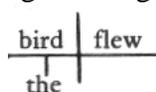
1) As subject:
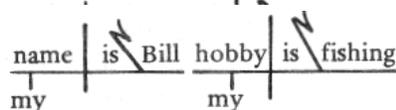
2) As predicate nominative:

3) As direct object:

`I | sang | song` / `the`   `I | enjoy | singing`

Pairs of diagrams can be made for the appositive and object of a preposition functions of the gerund as well.

    b. Students can complete sentences with gerunds:

I can earn money by _____ and _____.

My hobby, _____, is dangerous.

_____ is no fun at all.

    c. Use gerunds to combine and enliven sentences:

I was tired because I ran all the way. →

Running all the way tired me.

The storm stopped, and we sailed on. →

The storm over, we continued sailing.

You must practice every day. It is one of the requirements if you want to win. →

Practicing is one of the requirements for winning.

C. Adjectives

   1. Wolfe (*Creative Grammar*, p. 220) recommends that students describe the objects listed below:

_____ apple (touch)   _____ sweater (touch)

_____ burrs (touch)   _____ sweater (touch)

_____ bird (sound)   _____ frost (sight)

_____ bonfire (smell)   _____ frost (touch)

_____ bonfire (sight)   _____ air (smell)

   2. Adjective clauses are perhaps best taught when discussing complex sentences. Provide students with a list of relative pronouns, relative adverbs, and subordinating conjunctions and have the students complete sentences:

That is the man _____.

who what?

Bill, _____, came over last night.

who is? who what?

Do you remember the day _____?

when what?

That is the place _____.

where what?

   3. Expand sentences with adjectival prepositional phrases:

The man _____ cried for help.

in the blue suit

by the shore

under the car

between the boulders

   4. Show students literary passages with the adjectives omitted. Students fill in the adjectives. Compare their adjective-choice with that of the author. In the following example from Joy Chant's *Red Moon and Black Mountain*, the adjectives are in parentheses:

So (tall) she was, so (beautiful), (proud), and (gay).

Her hair was very (long) and (black) as (jet), blowing out behind her: her face was (pearl-pale), and her (lovely), (laughing) mouth the color of (ember).

D. Adverbs

1. To reinforce the idea that adverbs modify three parts of speech, Wolfe (*Creative Grammar*, pp. 170-171) suggests that students complete this list:

Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
came _____	_____ bright	_____ early
saw _____	_____ tall	_____ skillfully
said _____	_____ angry	_____ softly
sang _____	_____ pretty	_____ politely

2. Wolfe (*Creative Grammar*, p. 170) recommends that students list words on the board, under these headings: "How Words," "When Words," "Where Words," and "How Much Words." Students can make copies of the lists for reference, and add to the lists throughout the year.

3. Reinforce the idea that adverbs and adverbial prepositional phrases make good sentence openers. Have the students complete sentences with opening adverbs and adverbial prepositional phrases:

_____, and_____, the enemy crept forward.

E. Pronouns

1. Develop a chart of personal pronouns on the board.

	First Person		Second Person	Third Person
	S	Pl	S & Pl	M F N Plural S S S
Subjective				
Possessive				
Objective				

Use a blank chart for races.

2. Other games can be developed as: divide the class into two teams. Player from team I calls for a sentence with "first person pronoun used as object of preposition." Player from team II gives a sentence, team I player judges whether it is correct.

APPENDIX: KINDS OF WRITING ACTIVITIES

These activities we have taken from *A Writing Program for the Covenant Child*, Darrel Huisken, ed., (Grand Rapids, Michigan: The Federation of Protestant Reformed Christian Schools, 1972).

PRIMARY COURSE OF STUDY
GRADES K – 3

I.   Primary Grades
- A. Creative writing
  1. Stories
     - a. True
     - b. Make-believe
  2. Poems
     - a. Rhymed
     - b. Free verse
  3. Songs
  4. Prayers
  5. Biographies
  6. Autobiographies
  7. Descriptions
  8. Reactions to stories
- B. Expository writing
  1. Daily plans
  2. Directions
  3. Definitions
  4. Reports
  5. Biographies
  6. Autobiographies
- C. Correspondence
  1. Friendly letters
  2. Business letters
  3. Invitations
  4. Announcements

INTERMEDIATE COURSE OF STUDY
GRADES 4 – 6

Intermediate writing skills are introduced in the fourth grade, reinforced in the fifth grade, and reviewed in the sixth grade. The exceptions to this are noted in the outline.

II.   Intermediate Grades
- A. Creative writing
  1. Poetry
  2. Narrative stories
  3. Descriptions
  4. Humorous writings
  5. Prayers

            a. Praise

            b. Thanks

            c. Petition

      6. Dialogues

      7. Biographies

      8. Autobiographies

B. Expository

      1. Opinion writings

      2. Literary analyses

      3. Reports

            a. Informative

            b. Book

            c. Sermon

            d. Speech

      4. Definitions

            a. Word to be defined

            b. Class to which it belongs

            c. Distinguishing features

C. Correspondence

      1. Social

      2. Business – know complete form by the end of the sixth grade

      3. Announcements and invitations

JUNIOR HIGH COURSE OF STUDY
GRADES 7-9

III.   Seventh Grade

A. Short narrative

      1. Diary

      2. Autobiographical sketch

      3. Anecdote

      4. Incident

B. Description

      1. People

      2. Places

      3. Things

C. Friendly letters

D. Exposition

      1. Supporting an opinion

      2. Book report

      3. Explanation of a process

      4. Definition

      5. Report

E. Creative works

      1. Poetry

      2. Myth

      3. Fable

      4. Allegory

5. Short Story
IV. Eighth Grade
   A. Exposition
      1. Persuasion
      2. Essay answers to questions
      3. Explain a process
   B. Narration
      1. Real
      2. Imaginary
   C. Description
      1. Person
      2. Place
      3. Thing
   D. Social correspondence
      1. Formal
      2. Informal
   E. Business correspondence
   F. Creative works
      1. Poetry
      2. Dramatic monologue
      3. Short story
V. Ninth Grade
   A. Exposition
      1. Exposition based on literature
      2. Essay answers to questions
      3. Précis writing
      4. Reporting
      5. Writing the whole composition or essay
   B. Narration
      1. Narration based on personal experience
      2. Narration based on vicarious experience
      3. Short story
      4. Anecdote
   C. Description
      1. Learnings reinforced from grades seven and eight
      2. Description by narration
         a. Monologue
         b. Dialogue
         c. Soliloquy
      3. Scientific and literary description
      4. Description in exposition
   D. Creative works
      1. Blank verse
      2. Sonnet
      3. Short story
      4. Autobiography

5. Informal essay