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California State University
San Bernardino

THE COMBINING OF EXPLICIT PHONICS AND THE LITERATURE BASIS OF
WHOLE LANGUAGE

A Project Submitted to

The Faculty of the School of Education

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of the
Degree of

Master of Arts

in


Education: Reading Option

By

Patricia A. Garnett, M. A.
San Bernardino, California

1991

APPROVED BY:



Advisor: Dr. Adria F. Klein



Second Reader: Dr. Kathy O'Brien

To my husband Sherman and my children Khara, Sherman Jr., and Lisa. Thanks for putting up with me for three years. I love you all.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this project is to present current research that indicates that children become competent and fluent readers when the theory of whole language is combined with an explicit phonetic foundation. This project will focus on this theory and make teachers aware of the newly updated studies in the teaching of reading. In addition, the project will explain the components that make up the theories of whole language and explicit phonics.

The focus of this project will be in answering vital questions that teachers encounter when trying to provide an adequate reading program. The project will begin with an introduction to the most recent research that calls for the combining of the literature-basis of whole language and explicit phonics. A history of reading will be included to give the teacher some background knowledge on the controversy that has plagued the teaching of reading. The difference between implicit and explicit phonics will also be addressed.

This project will incorporate the explicit phonetic method of Romalda Spalding's, The Writing Road to Reading, and the use of literature in a classroom setting. This will hopefully enable teachers to combine

the two philosophically different approaches in the teaching of reading and provide a well balanced reading program.

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INTRODUCTION

For over a century, there has been a raging controversy over the methodology/approach to the teaching of reading. While educators have been wrangling over the differences, the nation's literacy needs have risen to an all time high. However, the illiteracy rate among native-born Americans have become a national disgrace. "One out of three American adults are considered functional illiterates. The state of California alone has 2.7 million functional illiterates and the number of illiterate Americans who use English as a second language is estimated well over the fifty percent mark" (Miller, 1990, p. 18 A). It is estimated that over 52 million adults cannot read at the twelfth grade level -- a level of reading considered imperative for the informational and technological age which exists in our rapidly changing society.

The methodology/approach to the teaching of reading has been sharply divided into two opposing theories: Whole language and Explicit decoding. The skills model, on the reading theories continuum, is considered the middle ground for both of these theories. The literature based theory of whole language teaches children learning how to read by reading in a literature

rich environment. On the other side, explicit phonics teaches reading by learning the sounds of each letter and the rules that govern our English language. Proponents of both reading approaches agree that: (1) obtaining meaning from print is the ultimate goal of reading; (2) that a literate environment is important; and (3) reading selections should be meaningful and serve important functions such as entertaining, directing, or informing. Where the theories disagree is the role explicit phonics should play in the teaching of reading. While each reading approach has its own innate components, many educational researchers, Adams (1990), Heymsfeld (1989), Samuels (1988), and Winograd and Greenlee (1986) have called for the combining of the two reading approaches in order to provide a more balanced reading program that combines explicit decoding skills with the skills of reading in context. Heymsfeld (1989) reminds teachers to "use common sense and experience to create a combination program" (p. 68) of good literature and explicit decoding skills.

The purpose of this project is to provide teachers with the most recent research on the teaching of reading. This research (Adams, 1990) "... indicates that the most critical factor beneath fluent word reading is the ability to recognize letters, spelling

patterns, whole words, effortlessly, automatically, and visually. Moreover, the goal of all reading instruction -- comprehension -- depends critically on this ability" (p. 14). Research also points out "... that explicit phonics, which is the process of building instructions systematically from letters to words, is more effective than implicit phonics, which is the process of teaching from words to letter sounds" (Adams, 1990, p. 12) in the teaching of reading.

In whole language, reading is viewed as a process of obtaining meaning where subskills, such as phonics, are only taught incidentally when all other cues have been utilized to determine meaning. Reading, via explicit phonics, is viewed as a complex skill composed of many subskills; therefore direct teaching of phonics becomes a crucial first step in the teaching of reading. "The vast majority of the studies..." states Adams (1990), "... indicated that approaches including intensive, explicit phonics instruction resulted in comprehension skills that are at least comparable to, and word recognition and spelling skills that are significantly better than those that do not... Approaches in which a systematic code instruction is included with meaningful connected reading resulted in

superior reading achievement overall" (p. 12). Therefore the combining of the two reading approaches provides a balanced reading program that produces competent and fluent readers.

This project will enable teachers to find common ground for the combining of the two reading approaches. Teachers will learn that whole language is not the "fluff" that most critics say it is, nor explicit phonics the return to the "dark ages" in the teaching of reading. The California State Language Arts Framework(1987) states that we must teach phonics, but the question is "how much?" and for "how long"? Teachers will be made aware of the fact that implicit "basalized" phonics is totally different from the intensive explicit and systematic phonics that research shows provides a solid foundation for readers to become competent and fluent readers.

The task of teaching a child how to read is one of the most important endeavors a teacher will have to undertake. Heymsfeld (1989) agrees that explicit phonics plays a key role in the teaching of reading. Heymsfeld (1989) also states that whole language theorists, led by Kenneth Goodman and Frank Smith, come under attack with their position on teaching phonics in

reading. "Because they believe that children will develop their own phonetic principles as they read and write, whole language advocates oppose teaching phonics in any structured, systematic way" (Heymsfeld, 1989, p. 66). Research to date shows us that children learn how to read more fluently when their reading lessons are structured and their skills are taught directly. Heymsfeld (1989) goes on to say that we cannot become dependent upon "... haphazard, amorphous instruction to teach something as critical as the alphabet code" (p. 66).

Research indicates that all types of reading disorders play an important and causative role in the violent behavior of school children (Mosse, 1982). The correlation between violent and nonviolent juvenile delinquency and reading disorders have been well documented by juvenile-court judges (Mosse, 1982). According to the Sentencing Project, a nonprofit social agency, "one out of four black men in their 20's are in jail, in prison or otherwise under the control of criminal courts through probation or parole... With prison sentencings increasing, more black men in their 20's are under court control than there are black men of all ages in higher education" (p.1). A study by the

American Council on Education announced "... that the proportion of Latino students completing high school slid from 60.1 percent in 1984 to 55.9 percent in 1989" (Merl, 1991, p. A 1).

The inability to read will undoubtedly produce poor self-concepts in children according to Black (1974) and continue into adulthood if the problem is not addressed and corrected. Reading "... is the key to education, and education is the key to success for both individuals and a democratic society" (Adams, 1990, p. 1). Therefore looking to research and combining a whole language approach with an explicit decoding foundation will enable us to provide the tools our youth will need to carry us into the 21st century.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

People have always had the need to express their thoughts, feelings, and ideas in some form of written expression. Earliest written records were pictures painted on cave walls. Picture writing was an ideal form of written expression as communicative needs remained simple.

A problem arose when people attempted to transmit complex messages. As civilization advanced so did vocabulary. Picture writing became obsolete due to its inability to keep up with advanced vocabulary needs. Therefore the invention of a writing system had to take the place of picture writing. "... Symbols were used for their phonological not their pictorial significance. This practice gradually evolved into syllabic writing systems" (Adams, 1990, p. 2).

The words in any language can be analyzed into syllables but a syllabary is only practical if the number of syllables are relatively small in a language. A system based on a set number of vowels and consonants had to be invented. The Phoenicians developed such a system and gave the word its first alphabet.

The Alphabet

The invention of the alphabet is indeed one of man's finest inventions. It freed man from having to remember thousand of "picture graphs" to communicate to one another. The Phoenician alphabet was adopted by the Greeks who made some improvements upon this alphabetic system. It was later embraced by the Romans who perfected this alphabetic system and passed it along to the lands and people they conquered during the Roman Empire.

The advantages of having an alphabet is that it is made up of symbols that are easy to reproduce, interpret, and remember. The draw back of an alphabetic system is that one must learn to breaks its code in learning how to read. This problem is compounded in learning the English language.

English is a wonderful language that adopts words from other countries and adds them to its own ever changing vocabulary. English is not one hundred percent phonetic and due to this factor many educators feel that teaching phonetics in reading us unnecessary. The English language according to Flesch (1981) is only eighty-seven percent purely phonetic. Words that are unphonetic are in some part phonetic themselves (Flesch, 1981). The question arises on how teachers should teach

such a complicated code as our English language. In addition, teachers teach this code without infringing on the ultimate goal of learning how to read --- comprehending what one has read.

The major European influence upon the teaching of reading in Colonial America was the Protestant Reformation. The Reformation produced an emphasis on reading, questioning, and the importance of an individual's approach to his spirituality (Tate, 1974). In this context, the Pilgrims and the Puritans came to America to exercise their rights and fulfill their dreams for religious freedom. Martin Luther's concept of "justification by faith", which the Pilgrims and Puritans embraced, demanded that individuals should be able to read and comprehend the Bible for themselves (Tate, 1974). This position of "justification by faith" necessitated a need for the schools in Colonial America to teach young people how to read.

The Massachusetts Bay Colony instituted a law in 1642 which compelled its adult citizenry to provide basic education for all of its children. The New Englanders expressed concern that all its community must be able to read the scriptures and interpret them for themselves (Tate, 1974).

In 1647 the famous "Old Deluder Satan Law" was imposed upon towns that had fifty or more families to establish an elementary school. Towns with one hundred or more families had to maintain a secondary school as well. Early New Englanders were very strict in enforcing this law and levied fines upon those who did not comply with this law.

Books used in the schools during the Colonial period were based on breaking the alphabetic code of our English language (Adams, 1990). "Students were first required to learn the alphabet. The phonemic significance of the letters was instilled, for example, through the presentation of key words (for example, /G/ is for glass), practice in reading simple syllables, and exercise in spelling" (Adams, 1990, p. 4). Teachers were instructed to teach the alphabetic code and the children will learn how to read.

The books used in the schools during the Colonial period consisted of The New England Primer, Noah Webster's Spelling Book and the Bible. School books were of both English and American printing. The materials covered in these books were the three R's of reading, 'riting, and religion (Tate, 1974). Arithmetic replaced religion in later years. Other books also used

in the early American classroom were: The Shorter Catechism, John Cotton's Spiritual Milk for Babes, George Fox's Instruction for Right Spelling and Plain Directions for Reading and Writing True English, Warren Colburn's Arithmetic, William Holmes' Mc Guffey's Readers, and Webster's Blue Backed Spellers. "In Colonial times, reading instruction in the United States followed a straightforward, two-step process: Teach the children the code, then have them read" (Adams, 1990, p. 4). This form of teaching reading remained prevalent in the classroom until educational experts decided to simplify the teaching of reading for American school children.

Looking at Whole Words in the Teaching of Reading

The teaching whole words in learning how to read was introduced in America in the nineteenth century. It was a philosophy that was embraced by Jean-Jacques Rousseau in the 1700's. Rousseau believed that "... teaching should follow nature. Nature presented man with wholes--- a flower, a tree, an animal, a mountain. To learn about wholes; man had to analyze what they ere made of going from whole to it parts" (Flesch, 1981, p. 15). Many educational leaders, such as Horace Mann, believed and endorsed Rousseau's approach to education

in teaching children how to read.

Horace Mann, a lawyer and Secretary of Massachusetts Board of Education, in 1843 proposed a "new method" of learning how to read to the Boston School Masters. This "new method" of reading began with the memorization of whole words rather than learning the letters, sounds, and blending them together to form words. Mann's "new method" was based upon the work of Thomas A. Gallaudet who had developed this method to teach deaf children how to read (Armstrong, 1989).

Since deaf children did not have the ability to "sound-out" letters, syllables, or words, the constant repetition of "sight" words from a controlled vocabulary seemed to be the most efficient way to teach them how to read. The "new method" was tried for six years in the Boston schools, and was rejected by the Boston School Masters in 1844 (Armstrong, 1989). The whole-word or "look-say" method was not picked up again until John Dewey embraced it for his progressive movement in education.

John Dewey has had a profound affect upon the educational establishment. His pragmatic movement in American education has been one of monumental importance. Dewey felt that the school should be the

place where all the other environments that a child encounters-- the family environment, the civic environment, the work environment, and others-- are coordinated into a meaningful whole (Ozmon & Craver, 1986). Dewey believe that education is a necessity of life. It renews people so that they are able to face the problems encountered by their interaction with the environment. "Civilized society exists, Dewey pointed out, only because education is transmitted from generation to generation, occurring by means of the communication of habits, activities, thoughts, and feelings from the older to the younger. Without this, social life cannot survive; therefore, education should not be looked upon as the mere acquisition of academic subject matter, but as a part of life itself. Education is basically an art, and the teacher expresses the highest concept of this art when he or she keeps it from becoming routinized and lethargic. All living educates, but social living helps us to extract the new meaning from our education" (Ozmon & Craver, 1986, p. 113).

Edmund Burke Huey's book, The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, written in 1908, became the bible of Dewey's progressive movement in education. Huey's book disregarded the importance of teaching explicit

decoding in teaching reading. Huey felt that it was wiser and easier to teach reading by memorizing whole words. He also emphasized that "new words" were best learned by hearing or seeing them in context (Flesch, 1981). In his book, The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, Huey explored the whole history of the alphabet, reading, and writing and included a detailed survey of how reading was taught in America during his time. On the basis of his psychological theory, Huey endorsed the look-and-say (whole word) method in the teaching of reading (Flesch, 1981). Huey summarized his book by ending with thirteen "practical pedagogical conclusions". The four major conclusions in Huey's (1908) book state:

1. "The home is the natural place for learning to read, in connection with the child's introduction through story-telling, picture-reading, etc...
2. The school should cease to make primary reading the fetish that it has long been, and should construct a primary course in which reading and writing will be learned secondarily, and only as they serve a purpose felt as such by the pupil, the reading being always for meaning.

3. The technique of reading should not appear in the early years, and the very little work that should be tolerated in phonics should be entirely distinct from reading.
4. The child should never be permitted to read for the sake of reading, as a formal process or end in itself. The reading should always be for the intrinsic interest or value of what is read, reading never being done or thought of as "an exercise." Word-pronouncing will therefore always be secondary to getting whole sentence-meanings, and this from the very first" (p. 379-380).

To meet these "practical pedagogical conclusions", in reading, Huey felt that reading should consist of the literature of Teutonic feudalism and chivalry and of medieval romanticism (Flesch, 1981).

A problem according to Flesch (1981), was that children were unable to break the "alphabetic code" of good literature and by the 1930's the books had to be "dumbed down" with a limited vocabulary in order for children to read their textbooks. The "Dick and Jane" reader series were introduced to facilitate this need to memorize simple easy words. Flesch (1981) states that

reading disorders prevailed and not until 1955 with the publication of his first book, Why Johnny Can't Read?, did phonics become a topic with the educational establishment in the United States.

Controversy over Flesch's book, Why Johnny Can't Read? and the teaching of Implicit Phonics

In the 1950's many educators felt that phonics should not have been abandoned in the teaching of reading. This concern was compounded by the publishing of Rudolph Flesch's book, Why Johnny Can't Read? in 1955. Flesch argued "... that for English, as for any other alphabetic language, phonics instruction is the only natural system of learning how to read: Teach children the identities of the letters, teach them the sounds that each represents, and teach them by having them write. Once this is done, he assured, the children will forever after be able to read and write, not just the words they are taught, but any word in the language" (Adams, 1990, p. 6). Flesch further argued, that fluent readers, were good readers because they could spontaneously catch on to the alphabetic nature of print.

Flesch's arguments were not new, according to Adams (1990), but the political genre that surrounded his

arguments. Flesch believed that there was a connection between teaching phonics in reading and the fundamental rights of Americans living in a democratic society. "He developed conspiratorial motives, alluded to communists, and made insinuations about the intellectual predispositions and capacities of females and minorities. Thus not only was the debate politicized, it was politicized on dimensions that were wholly irrelevant to the question of how best to teach reading" (Adams, 1990, p. 6). In 1956, the International Reading Association was established and basal authors during that time created their own kind of phonics. The "new" phonetic method was to teach children phonics through isolated initial letter sounds over a long period of time. The year, 1956, gave birth to implicit phonics the phonics of the "basalized" skills model on the reading theories continuum. This methodology of teaching phonics have been prevalent in American classrooms to this day.

Flesch's book, Why Johnny Can't Read?, blurred the issues on how reading should be taught in American classrooms. Today's whole language instruction cannot be perceived as a new reading methodology. "To some, the very term "whole language" is translated to mean an

uninformed and irresponsible effort to replace necessary instruction with "touchy-feely" classroom gratification-- and more unstructured approaches. Similarly, the term "code-emphasis" is translated by others into an unenlightened commitment to unending drill and practice at the expense of the motivation and higher order dimensions of text that make reading worthwhile--and worse" (Adams, 1990, p. 7).

The debate and misinterpreting of each reading theory has continued for a period of time. Each side proclaims it has the best methodology to teach children how to read. As the year 2000, rapidly approaches the literacy needs of our nation have risen (Adams, 1990). To understand each reading methodology we must closely examine each reading theory/approach in the teaching of reading.

Whole Language

Whole language theorists view reading as language. Kenneth & Yetta Goodman (1979) believe that children learn to read naturally in the same manner in which they learn how to speak and listen. In whole language instruction, all the systems of language which are graphophonemic, syntactic, semantic, and programmatic are kept intact or "whole" as children read and write.

The Goodman's (1979) object to the teaching of subskills directly that they feel will "fractionates" the reading process and therefore destroy meaning which is the ultimate goal of reading.

Smith (1985) views reading as an on going process. Children must become members of the "literacy club" where they become written language users in order to become fluent and competent readers. The advantages of being a member of the "literacy club", according to Smith (1985), is that children see themselves as readers and as writers. Children learn by observing and imitating more experienced members of the "club". Smith (1985) states that errors are to be expected and are not frowned upon or punished as undesirable behaviors. "All of the learning takes place without risks. There are not formal texts, no examinations, and no one expects new members of the "literacy club" to be as good as each other or to "progress" at the same rate. There are not planned schedules of learning, no curriculum committees, no accountability, no objectives, no prerequisites, and nothing is tested except in use" (Smith, 1985, p. 125).

Kenneth Goodman (1976) believes that reading is a "psycholinguistic guessing game". Skill in reading, according to Goodman (1976), does not involve a greater

precision in decoding skills but more accuracy in "...first guesses based on better sampling techniques, greater control over language structure, broadened experiences and increased conceptual development. As a child develops his/her reading skill and speed, he/she will use fewer graphic cues in reading" (p. 266).

Smith (1985) concurs with Goodman in that "guessing" in reading has been given a negative image. Guessing "... is not a matter of blind impetuous behavior, but rather the fundamental process of "prediction" (p. 63), which Smith refers to as employing prior knowledge (nonvisual information) to eliminate unlikely alternatives.

Goodman (1989) and Smith (1985) agree that phonics instruction in reading is only one of the cueing systems that children use during the reading process. A cueing system that should only be used after all other systems have been utilized. Carbo (1988) also feels that phonetic instruction in reading is inefficient in producing competent and fluent readers. "If phonics is so effective and so much has been taught for the past 20 years one might ask why the U. S. ranks 49th in literacy" (Carbo, 1988, p. 226). Smith (1985) agrees with Carbo and further states that many nations, like

the Chinese, learn to read without an alphabet. The Chinese language is an ideographic language where written words are symbols for ideas, not for specific sounds or specific words. For fluent readers of English the fact that the words of our written language are made up of letters is largely irrelevant -- words are recognized in the same way that fluent Chinese readers recognize the words of their nonalphabetic written language, as self-contained and immediately recognizable units (Smith, 1985).

Goodman (1989) continues his argument by stating that phonics must be put in its proper perspective. Children invent spellings as they begin to write. These inventions allow them to build their own rules for how the sound system of language relates to their spelling system. "Students must read and write, real texts so they can invent their systems and bring them into harmony with conventional spelling" (Goodman, 1989, p. 69). In this way, Goodman feels, that children will feel comfortable to take risks while their development is supported by an abundance of reading and writing in a classroom setting. This according to Goodman (1989) is a natural learning process that cannot be reconciled with instruction in explicit phonics that would only hinder this natural process. Whole language unifies and

integrates oral and written language development with the development of thinking and building knowledge in the reading and writing process. Students learn to read and write while they are reading and writing to solve problems in the reading and writing process (Goodman, 1989). The learner in whole language is a child who is strong, active and on his way to becoming a literate individual (Goodman, 1989).

The basic principles of whole language can be summarized as:

1. Children learn to read by reading as they feel the need to communicate.
2. Reading is a single process of obtaining meaning from print. Children see whole words from the beginning and learn phonics incidentally as they read meaningful print.
3. Reading is not an exact process. Even beginners hypothesize what the author is going to tell them and use letters or grammar cues only enough to confirm or reject their hypothesis. Dr. Goodman (1976) calls this a "psycholinguistic guessing game".

4. Materials should be functional print, predictable books and learner-generated stories, so children will see that reading is useful and meaningful.
5. Teachers are facilitators of learning by providing meaningful print, relevant, functional materials, and an appealing environment (Goodman, 1979).

Whole language, according to Goodman (1989) and Smith (1985), is not a reading methodology but a philosophy of curriculum, of learning, of teaching, and of language. "Whole language redefines reading and writing as a process for making sense out of and through written language" (Goodman, 1989, p. 69).

Explicit Phonics/Decoding

Explicit phonics/decoding theorists believe that learning to read is totally different from learning to speak. Reading is a translation of going through necessary steps/skills that allow children to start out with small units of letters and their sounds and to build upon them to make the transition from simple reading material to more complex and abstract reading material. Samuels (1979) points out that "... all humans have developed language systems, but not all

societies are literate" (p. 306). Learning to read is different than learning to speak. In English symbols represent sounds rather than meaning units as in languages such as Chinese. The sounds must be put together to create meaning units -- words according to Samuels (1979). Learning to speak is accomplished with little difficulty, whereas learning to read requires considerably more effort. "The process of speech acquisition is gradual, beginning at infancy and extending for a considerable period of time; the introduction of reading is much more abrupt and less gradual" (Samuels, 1979, p. 360). Thus Samuels (1979) believes that reading is a more complicated skill than learning how to speak. Therefore skills must be taught in order for the child to progress through the reading process and become a competent and fluent reader.

Jeanne S. Chall (1963) found that children get a better start in reading if they were given a code-emphasis basis in reading rather than a meaning-emphasis. Chall (1963) substantiated her findings in her book titled, Learning to Read: The Great Debate. She examined methodologies in the teaching of reading from 1911-1963. Her findings were controversial in 1963 because at the time Chall did not

fully examine which code-emphasis/phonics worked better for children learning how to read. In 1983, Chall updated her findings and continued to prove that initial readers became competent and fluent readers if they were given a phonetic basis in learning how to read. She further stated that the phonetic methodology that worked best for initial readers was explicit phonics/decoding. Chall (1983) found through her research that letter knowledge correlates more highly with reading than did intelligence on learning how to read. The book titled, Becoming A Nation of Readers (Anderson, 1985), concurred with Chall that children indeed got off to a better start in learning how to read if they are taught explicit phonics/decoding in the initial reading process. "Readers must be able to decode words quickly and accurately so that this process can coordinate fluidly with the process of constructing meaning of the text. ... What distinguishes good and poor readers in this case is speed, not accuracy. What this fact means is that typically poor readers have barely mastered spelling-to-sound patterns, whereas good readers have a command that goes beyond simple mastery to automaticity" (Anderson, 1985, p. 11-12).

Chall (1987) iterates that children go through six

stages of reading development that they must progress through and master in order to become competent and fluent readers. Chall (1987) six stages of reading development are:

"Stage Zero, Prereading, from birth to about age six, is characterized by growing control over language. Current estimates are that average six-year olds can speak or understand about 5,000 words. During the prereading stage, most children living in a literate society acquire some knowledge and insight into print, and learn to recognize letters, common signs, and common words. Many can write their names and pretend they can read a story that has been read to them several times.

Stage One, Initial Reading or Decoding (Grades 1-2), involves the alphabetic principle--developing skills and insight into letter-sound relations and into the decoding of words not recognized immediately. Children learn to recognize the words in their books, and to "understand" the material they read. But what they can

read at this stage is considerably below what they can understand in speech. Their ability to decode and recognize printed words is limited but growing rapidly.

Stage Two, Confirmation, Fluency, and Ungluing from Print (Grades 2-3), consolidates what students have learned earlier in the recognition of words and in the use of decoding skills to help them gain further insight into reading and comprehending of familiar texts. By the end of this stage, they have developed fluency and ease in recognizing words, in "sounding" others they do not recognize immediately, and in "predicting" still others from context. The material that they can read fluently is basically within their knowledge linguistically and cognitively.

Stage Three, Learning the New (Grades 4-8), marks the beginning of reading as a tool for acquiring knowledge, feelings, values, insights, and attitudes. It is at this stage that the books students read go beyond their background knowledge, and

beyond simple narrative presentation.

Stage Four, Multiple Viewpoint (High School), requires more complex language and cognitive abilities, since the reading tasks involve more complex texts in many more advanced content areas. Students are also required to comprehend varying viewpoints at even greater depth.

Stage Five, Construction and Reconstruction (College Level), the most mature stage, is characterized by a world view. Students read books and articles in the detail and depth that they need for their own purposes. Readers in Stage Five know what not to read as well as what to read. Reading here is basically constructive. From reading what others say students construct knowledge for their own use" (p. 7).

Explicit phonics/decoding theorists believe that when a reading methodology is not focused on these stages of reading development a child will never progress to being able to decode accurately and automatically. A child unable to decode accurately and automatically will

not be able to progress toward fluency in the reading process (Chall, 1983).

The basic principles of explicit phonics can be summarized as:

1. Reading is a complex skill that requires mastery of many subskills before skilled reading is achieved (Samuels, 1988).
2. Beginning readers do not see whole words instantly as skilled readers do. The majority of students must be taught to put sound together first accurately, then automatically (Anderson, 1985).
3. Reading is an exact process of obtaining meaning from print. Beginning readers must learn to first read what is there. As readers become more skilled, they learn to skim and scan for specific purposes.
4. Instructional materials should teach phonics and integrate instruction in listening, speaking, writing, and reading comprehension (Adams, 1990).

5. Teachers are imparters of specific information, as well as, facilitators of learning (Adams, 1990).

Skillful reading depends, states Adams (1990), upon thorough familiarity with individual letters and their sounds. Thus learning how (skills) to read must go hand-in-hand with just knowing how (enjoyment) to read in order to provide a solid foundation for readers to spring from and become competent and fluent readers.

The Combining of the Two Opposing Approaches in the Teaching of Reading

The combining of the two opposing approaches in the teaching of reading has become a necessity in order to provide a more balanced reading program that will produce competent and fluent readers. Educational researchers such as Winograd and Greenlee (1986) have recommended a balanced reading program that combines explicit decoding skills with the skills of reading in context. Samuels (1979) agrees that through his research findings that successful classrooms in the teaching of reading had teachers who did not use a holistic approach in the reading process. These successful teachers devoted a great deal of time to the teaching of explicit phonics drills. The drills

involved breaking words into their smaller components of their sounds. This is the most widely respected value of letter-sound instruction. "It provides students with a means of deciphering written words that are visually unfamiliar" (Adams, 1990, p.88). Combining contextual support with useful knowledge of letter-sound correspondences, students should be able to sound out and then identify any written words that is in their listening vocabulary (Adams, 1990).

Trachtenburg (1990) purposes a "whole-part-whole" sequence of integrating explicit decoding instruction with quality children's literature. Her guidelines are:

1. Whole: Read, comprehend, and enjoy a whole, quality literary selection.
2. Part: Provide instruction in a high utility phonic element by drawing from or extending the preceding literary selection.
3. Whole: Apply the new phonic skill when reading (and enjoying) another whole, high quality literature selection" (p. 649).

Trachtenburg (1990) feels the "whole-part-whole" framework connects learning to pronounce words with real

reading.

Adams (1990) focuses on learning explicit decoding skills through the context of spelling. She states that "skillful reading depends uncompromising upon thorough familiarity with individual letters, words, and frequent spelling patterns. Only to the extent that we have developed such familiarity can the written word flow effortlessly from print to meaning..." (p. 115). Spalding (1986) also agrees that "the teaching of phonics and the analysis of the sounds and the composition of words properly belongs in the teaching of written spelling..." (p. 24). Spalding (1986) continues "... that the purpose of reading is to learn what the author has to say, not to learn phonics and that this is the main problem with most of the phonetic methods that do not teach the forty-five basic sound phonograms through the context of spelling" (p. 24). The process of sounding out both constrains and reinforces the child's memory for the word's spelling patterns (Adams, 1990). "These relations between spellings and sounds become so well built into the system that, with experience, skillful readers tend to sound out words quite automatically. As a result, even the occasional, never-before-seen word may be read with little outward

sign of difficulty" (Adams, 1990, p. 116). Phonics instruction can be summarized in these categories according to Adams (1990):

"Phonics instruction is not only a means of teaching children to sound out words but also of directing their attention to the spellings of words.

To maximize word recognition growth, the wording of children's early texts should be carefully coordinated with the context and schedule of phonics lessons.

The ability to recognize letters is extremely important to the development to the development of word recognition.

For children with little letter knowledge on entry to school, current learning theory suggests it is unwise to try to teach both upper case and lower case forms of all twenty-six letters at once. For attention to a particular spelling pattern, or providing strategies for coping with difficult decoding patterns. Phonic rules and generalizations are best, of temporary value. Once a child has

learned to read the spellings to which they pertain, they are superfluous" (p. 125-126).

The problem with so many programs is that the phonics instruction they present is both poor and unbalanced (Adams, 1990) and thus poor results occur.

Combining the strengths of whole language; good literature, immersion in proper oral language usage, and meaningful text must go hand-in-hand with an explicit phonics/decoding program. This will provide the basis for a balanced reading program. Adams (1990) believes that beginning reading should consist of;

"Approaches in which systematic code instruction is included along with the reading of meaningful connected text results in superior reading achievement overall, for both low-readiness and better prepared students.

Writing and spelling activities, in general, are a means of developing and reinforcing of spelling and spelling-sound patterns.

Independent writing activities are a means of developing children's deeper appreciation of the nature of text

and its comprehension.

The learning of regular spelling patterns and their phonic significance may be hastened through methodically use of onsets rimes.

Classroom encouragement of invented spellings is a promising approach toward the development of phonemic awareness and knowledge of spelling patterns " (p. 125-126).

The combining of the strengths of these two opposing approaches, in the teaching of reading, will provide a balanced reading program. An effective reading program depends upon what a teacher does, and also on the depth and quality of the instruction he/she provides in the teaching of reading (Adams, 1990). Teachers need to implement good curriculum that depends upon a solid understanding of the principles and goals on the teaching of the reading process.

The research reviewed in this project gives ample evidence that we know a great deal about the reading process (Adams, 1990). "Yet the divisiveness over code-emphasis, which is explicit phonics, versus meaning-emphasis or whole language rages on. Isn't it

time for us to stop bickering about which is more important? Isn't it time we recognize that written text has both form and functions? To read, children must learn to deal with both, and as teachers we must help them" (Adams, 1990, p. 123). Therefore combining the strengths of these two opposing approaches on the teaching of reading will provide the necessary skills and enjoyment that a child will need in order to become a competent and fluent reader.

GOALS

The goal of this project is to provide information/data on combining explicit phonics with the rich literature basis of whole language. Many educational researchers have called for the combining of these two programs. Current research has shown that children learn to read fluently when explicit decoding skills are taught with the skills of reading in context. The combining of these two approaches will provide a more balanced reading program. The project will enable teachers to use their prior experiences in creating a combination program that incorporates good literature and explicit phonics skills in their reading program.

This project will help teachers to find common ground for combining the two reading approaches. Teachers will be made aware of the fact that whole language is not the "fluff" that many critics say it is nor that explicit phonics is the return to the "dark ages" in the teaching of reading. In addition, the project has addressed the questions of "how much?" and "how long?" phonics should be taught and which phonetic method is proven to be more effective in the teaching of reading. The teaching of reading is one of the most important endeavors that a teacher will undertake and

this project has provided some guidelines in combining the two approaches in producing a balanced reading program. Teachers using the handbook will be able to distinguish the differences between explicit and implicit phonics. This will enable teachers to use the correct phonetic method in combining the literature basis of whole language with explicit decoding skills.

LIMITATIONS

The limitations of this project are that teachers who do not have prior background knowledge of letter to sound correlations and the rules that govern our English language will have a difficult time trying to implement a combining of the two approaches. It must be noted that many explicit phonics programs do not meet the needs of all students. Some of the programs are fine for initial readers but are inadequate for older and remedial readers due to their nonsensical reading material. In addition, most universities/colleges do not offer courses on teaching explicit phonics. Therefore teachers attempting to teach their own phonetic programs run the risk of becoming over zealous in teaching the letters and the speech sounds they represent. Many teachers neglect to incorporate good literary selections in their reading programs as well as including the spelling rules that govern our English language. This in turn produces children who concentrate only on initial letter sounds of the words in reading and become merely "word callers".

Students who are second language users will need to have a sufficient oral language usage in English. Due to instructing the students on their tongue, lips, and

teeth positions in pronouncing the phonograms this will be very difficult to explain if the teacher is not conversant in his/her students primary language. The project can be adapted to all grade levels but teachers must remember to go at a faster pace so that their students will not become bored and loose interest in learning explicit decoding skills.

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Handbook Introduction

The teaching of reading is one of the most important endeavors that a teacher will undertake. To teach reading well is to ensure that the students will become productive members of society. To teach reading poorly will place the students into the ever growing pool of functional illiterates. The latest figures for functional illiteracy have risen to 3.1 million in the state of California alone according to an article on the California Literacy Programs in the November 13, 1990 issue of the Los Angeles Times.

The California State Language Arts Framework

(1987) states that we must teach phonics. The questions are "how much?" and for "how long?" As educational professionals we know a great deal about how a child learns to read but we do not know which explicit phonics/decoding program works best and effectively includes meaningful and interesting literature. Research has given us the answers and the right to combine explicit phonics in a literature-based whole language setting but it is important/significant to report that all explicit phonics programs are inadequate in meeting the needs of every student in becoming competent and fluent readers.

The Spalding Method

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The Spalding Method

After looking over numerous explicit phonics/decoding programs, the one I recommend that can be used for all grade levels and utilize the mandates of our Language Arts Framework (1987), is Romalda Spalding's Method of teaching explicit phonics through the context of spelling. Her method of teaching phonics through the context of spelling correlates with Jeanne S. Chall's "stages of reading development". Mrs. Spalding's book titled, The Writing Road to Reading, is an excellent explicit phonics program that reaches all the avenues (visual, auditorial and kinesthetic) that students will use in learning how to read.

Mrs. Spalding is a retired teacher who received her training, in teaching children how to read, from the eminent neurologist Dr. Samuel T. Orton. Dr. Orton was famous for his work in helping dyslexic children learn how to read. Mrs. Spalding learned that the teaching of reading must use the four avenues/pathways to the brain, (1) speaking, (2) writing, (3) hearing and (4) reading. This is to enhance retention of what was learned in teaching a child how to read. A good phonetic program, according to Mrs. Spalding, must show and teach their representation on paper as the students read it from their own papers. Thus visual learners see what they are doing, auditorial learners hear what they are doing,

sound/sounds that represent the letter/letters.

Our English language is an alphabetic language. We do not rely upon ideographs or pictures to derive meaning from reading or written materials. In the Spalding Method the teacher will learn that English has seventy common phonograms (twenty-six letters of the alphabet and forty-four fixed combinations of two, three, or four letters) that we must utilize in order to become competent and fluent readers. Under the Spalding Method, the class will start by learning the first fifty-four phonograms and hearing them correctly pronounced by the teacher and saying themselves as they write them on their own paper or lap boards. Kindergarten students do not have to write the phonograms until they are ready. (They may still see the phonograms as they are written on the chalk board/overhead projector. They can pronounce the phonograms after the teacher who has pronounced them correctly.) Students can then progress to write the phonograms from the teacher's dictation of them. The phonogram sounds are taken from the most frequently used 150 words in our English language. The phonograms are marked if the phonogram represents two or more sounds. For example, the phonogram "a" has three different sounds. The first sound is like the "a" in the word "at". The second sound of the phonogram "a" is marked

by a line underneath the phonogram. That phonogram is pronounced like its alphabet sound in the word "ape". The third sound of the phonograms "a" is marked by number three above it. It is the sound of the "a" in the word "wa³nt". Once the first fifty-four phonograms have been introduced and reviewed the rules that govern our English language can be introduced through the context of spelling. The spelling patterns of our English language maybe seen at first to be very inconsistent, however, the spelling of English does indeed follow certain patterns and rules (with few exceptions) that use phonograms to express the spoken sounds in words. The teaching of spelling patterns through dictation connects the written symbols to the spoken sounds of our English language. All children are given an opportunity to learn as the Spalding Method addresses the three types of learners (visual, auditorial and kinesthetic).

The Spalding Method will also help the teacher to include precise techniques for good penmanship skills in both manuscript and cursive letter formations. For example, a clock face is used to teach proper letter formation and is an easy way for children to learn how to write letters properly and easily.

The Spalding Method does not use easy or

nonsensical words in the spelling lessons. The words are taken from the Extended Ayres Word List and they are not so difficult that the students will become discouraged but they are also not so easy that the students will become bored. Over the course of the spelling lessons the students will learn the twenty-nine second order rules that also govern our English language. The five reasons why the silent "e" is attached to the end of a word. Given the seventy phonograms and the twenty-nine rules that the students have been taught they now have the ability to spell 80 percent of our English words. Spelling words are written in their own notebooks. Each student will accumulate a personal list of hundreds of words for which the spelling has been worked out and repeatedly practiced. The personal spelling notebooks will have a remarkable psychological impact upon the students and serve as a wonderful spelling reference book.

When the students have approximately 150 words in their spelling notebooks, reading can begin. After hours of learning phonograms, sequential word analysis, and graphic markings, the students will be able to read good meaningful literature. This is one of the remarkable accomplishments of the Spalding Method.

How Will It Work in the Classroom?

The Spalding Method can be adapted for any age group. Older students can learn the phonograms at a faster pace while writing them. It is also a program that does not embarrass the learner by having him/her read nonsensical reading material. The formation of numbers are also taught as well making this a complete language arts program.

The problem that many teachers experience in implementing an explicit phonetic program in reading, is that many teachers become too engrossed in teaching letters and the sounds they represent. Teaching the correlation between letters and their sounds is important in learning how to read but it is not the only aspect used in teaching a child how to read.

Incorporating good literary selections into the classrooms reading material will stimulate the students desire to want to read. Although many school districts have literature books for appropriate grade levels literary selections should be based on the classroom interests and enjoyment. For initial readers, the teacher can read to the class long before the students are able to read for themselves. This will enable the students to hear good oral language usage. In turn, this will help them to develop their own oral language development. The book, Charlotte's Web by E. B.

White, was placed on the third grade reading list. Students of all ages will enjoy this story about Charlotte, the spider and Wilbur, the pig, adventures. The only criteria for any literary selection is whether or not it is appropriate for the classroom. If the teacher has some doubts about certain books he/she should enlist the help of the site principal and the parents of the students. Inviting them to provide feedback on the selection before the book/books are introduced to the class will eliminate the embarrassment and friction that might arise from not informing them of the selection in the beginning.

The Spalding Method does incorporate some fine techniques on letter and number formations but this is not a total writing program. This is only a technique to teach children the phonograms through writing them. Journal writing should be included in the students reading program. Research has shown us that writing is an important first step in learning how to read. Initial readers can make their "marks" on their journal pages. They can dictate their stories and illustrate them. This will allow the students to experience the freedom of expressing themselves in the writing process. "Author circles" of published works will further encourage the students to continue in the writing

process. In addition, it will serve as a marvelous tool to show the progress that each student has made. The teacher must remember that the journals are "theirs" and that it is a time for free expression and not graded written work. The looking for "correctness", in writing, should be reserved for the formation of the letter/letters that represent the phonograms. This should also be done in a relaxed and non-threatening manner. The Spalding Method is indeed one of the best explicit phonics/decoding reading program. It provides a solid foundation in teaching the "skills" of learning how to read. Teachers need to remember that it teaches the "skills" and that they must provide the enjoyment and pleasure of learning how to read. Using appropriate literary selections for the classroom, geared toward their enjoyment, will stimulate their desire to learn how to read. Reading to the class will help the students in their oral language development and enable them to know how a story begins and ends in the writing process.

The handbook has tried to address and show the advantages of combining explicit phonics with the literature basis of whole language. "...Isn't it time for use to stop bickering about which theory/methodology is more important? Isn't it time we recognize that the

written text has both form and functions? To read children must learn to deal with both, and as teachers we must help them" (Adams, 1990, p. 123). The combining of these two opposing approaches on the teaching of reading will provide the necessary skills and enjoyment that a child will need in order to become a competent and fluent reader. This is the ultimate goal of every teacher and providing a well balanced reading program is a step in achieving that goal.

APPENDIX B

Teacher Directed Lesson on Teaching the Phonograms
Using Literature:

The seventy phonograms used in this lesson are based upon Romalda Spalding's book, The Writing Road to Reading. The phonograms can be adapted for any grade level. Non-English and limited English speakers need to have a working vocabulary of the English language before embarking upon this reading program. This criteria is not necessary if the teacher can speak the language of his/her students. The teacher can then translate the tongue positions needed to pronounce the phonograms correctly. If the teacher is unable to translate this information, the students will need to develop their oral language usage in English.

A. The first twenty-six phonograms should be taught orally to the entire class. Use the phonogram cards provided by the Spalding Educational Foundation or the teacher may make his/her own cards. Teach four or more phonograms orally at a time. Older students may learn the phonograms at a faster pace than the initial learners. Explain to the class that the phonograms are being used to teach them the "skills" of learning how to read.

B. Holding the phonogram card up to the class pronounce the phonogram precisely and correctly but do

not exaggerate your speech when pronouncing the phonograms. Have the students to pronounce the phonograms each time after the teacher has pronounced it. After four phonograms have been introduced then randomly choose individual students so the teacher may make sure that the students are pronouncing the phonograms correctly. If the student pronounces the phonogram incorrectly the teacher should pronounce it correctly and the entire class should repeat the phonogram again. Spend at least twenty minutes at first on teaching the phonograms. The time can be increased/decreased depending upon the ability of the class. Review the previous phonograms that have been taught each day before introducing the new phonograms to be taught. This will enable the students to remember what has previously been taught and explained.

C. When introducing the literature to the class, explain to the students that they are to listen first for the sounds of the phonograms that they have learned. Poetry will lend itself well to developing this type of listening skill. Jack Prelutsky's, The New Kid on the Block, is a wonderful book of poetry that the students will enjoy and hear a variety of phonogram sounds. Prelutsky's poem titled, "Baloney Belly Billy", is a wonderful poem that can be used to emphasize the first

four phonogram sounds. Read the poem to the class several times each time asking them to listen for the phonogram sounds in the poem. Make a list of the phonogram sounds that the student's thought they might have heard. Remember to only write the phonogram sound and not the words that make up the initial or ending sounds of the phonograms. The lesson is concentrating on the sound of the phonograms and not on isolated words out of context. The students will probably use the phrase like the "b" in baloney or the "d" in dollar. The teacher just writes the "b" or "d" on the board/butcher block paper. Go over the listed sounds that the students have compiled and have the students to say the phonogram sounds after they have been pronounced by the teacher.

Read the poem again to the class this time emphasizing that now the class is listening to the poem to find out more about "Baloney Belly Billy" (the teacher will need to read the poem at least twice to the class). Make another list on the board/butcher block paper and list the things that the class has found out about "Baloney Belly Billy". Once again go over this list with the class. At the end of the lesson point out the differences of each list. The list for learning the "skills" of reading and the list for learning about

"Baloney Belly Billy" or the "meaning" of the poem. The students need to learn that reading has two purposes. The first to teach "how" to read and the second to teach "what" has been read.

D. The directed lesson should be finished with the students writing in their own journals. Tell the students that these journals are for their own personal writing experiences. They do not have to worry about the fact that they cannot write. This is especially true for initial readers. Explain to the class that listening and writing are essential components of learning how to read. Let the class know that they may make any "marks" on their journals entries and that they may illustrate the journals as well. This will enable the students to connect the listening, writing and reading processes together.

APPENDIX C

Directed Lesson on Manuscript Writing of the Phonograms:

Manuscript writing is very important for initial learners to master. Many teachers feel that teaching their students how to form the letters of the alphabet will hinder the reading and writing processes. Recent research has shown that "letter knowledge" correlates highly with the ability to learn how to read. This single factor is more important than intelligence according to some educational researchers.

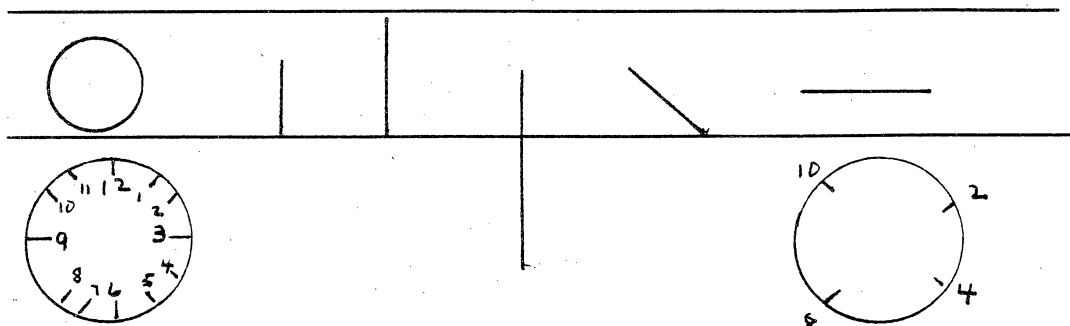
A. After introducing and reviewing the first twenty-six phonograms orally for about a week or two the directed lesson can now include the techniques for the teaching of writing manuscript letters. Introduce the lesson by explaining the difference between manuscript writing and the print that students have seen in literature books. Pass out several books to the class so they may actually see the difference as the teacher prints some manuscript letters on the board. In addition, further explain to the class the difference of learning how to form their letters correctly from their journal writings. Manuscript writing is to learn the technique of forming letters correctly while journal writing is expressive writing to put down thoughts,

ideas and to write stories.

B. Start the lesson by passing out to each student his/her pencil and paper. Tell the class to pick up the pencil and feel how light it is in their hands. Explain to the class that they only need to use the point of the pencil for writing the phonograms in manuscript form. The Spalding technique of using a rounded "cat paw" will help the students to grasp the pencil properly with the thumb and index finger. Emphasize that cats are very gentle animals and they do not have to round their paws very tightly. Do the same kind of technique for the paper. Show the class once again how light the paper is and it does not take much pressure to keep the paper on the desk. To determine if the students are right or left handed the teacher needs to raise the correct hand in demonstrating which hand the students like to write with. Asking younger students about left or right handedness will only confuse and frustrate them. Tell the class to gently place the hand that they do not write with on the top of the paper so it does not move around the desk. Both hands have important jobs in writing manuscript letters. Teaching the students that the pencil and paper are very light objects will help to relieve some of the pressure that students sometimes exert in the writing process. For initial learners use

paper with lines $\frac{5}{8}$ inches apart. Wider spacing forces the students to draw letters instead of writing them. Third graders and above may use paper with standard $\frac{3}{8}$ inch spacing between the lines.

C. Illustrate the symbols that make up manuscript letters. Have the students to copy the symbols as the teacher dictates and writes them on the board. Emphasize to the students that all manuscript letters are made up of these symbols.



The Clock Face

These are the four points we use most often.

D. Tell the class that manuscript letters are either tall with tall parts or short with short parts. Tall letters or tall parts reach to the line above it but they do not touch the line. Short letters or short parts are half as high as tall letters. Manuscript

letters are made from a clock face or parts of it and straight lines. The teacher will hold up the phonogram card for "a" and pronounce each sound for "a" in a staccato manner but do not run the sounds together. Explain to the class that the phonogram "a" is a short letter and will only fill the space halfway between the lines. Start at the edge of the paper to make a clock face. Begin at two and go around the clock face and stop at two where the students began. Without lifting the pencil from the paper make a straight line down the base line. The class will be saying the three sounds for "a" as they write the letter across their papers with their proper markings for each phonogram sound. This is done with all seventy phonograms. The teacher always explaining if the letter is short or tall and how to make the letter using the clock face.

E. After each directed lesson literature is introduced for the class to listen for the phonogram sounds that are heard in the literary selection. List the phonograms sounds on the board and then continue the lesson by reading the selection for "meaning".

Using the list of Spalding phonograms and incorporating the markings for the phonograms the students are reviewing the sound/sounds of the phonograms as they learn to write them.

Manuscript writing is always taught first to the students no matter what age or grade level. Older students need to master manuscript lettering for maps, diagrams and drawings. The main purpose of teaching manuscript lettering is to make a visible link between the student's writing and all printed material that they will come into contact with. Capital letters are introduced after all the lower-case manuscript lettering has been mastered. This gives the teacher ample time to instruct the class on the proper usage of capital letters. Cursive writing and number formations are also included in the Spalding Method. I have concentrated on manuscript lettering because it is needed by older as well as initial learners.

APPENDIX D

Directed Lesson for Spelling Rules and the Notebooks:

A. The spelling notebooks are used to teach the students the rules that govern our English language. The spelling notebooks are started after fifty-four phonograms are mastered by pronouncing them and writing them in manuscript letter formation. Third graders and older students may write their notebook pages in cursive writing.

B. The first page of the spelling notebook will consist of all the single consonants, the rules for letters /c/ and /g/, and the pronouncing of the vowel sounds. At the bottom of the page will be a list of words that explain the five reasons why the English language have final /e's/ in some words.

The teacher will dictate the first word "Consonants". Explain to the class that it is the title of the first page therefore it needs to go in the middle of the top line and it needs to begin with a capital letter. The word is then divided into syllables and the class repeats each syllable after the teacher has pronounced them. The class writes the word "Con so nants" in their spelling notebooks as the teacher dictates the correct pronunciation of the syllables. The students write in their notebooks as the

teacher demonstrates the correct format by writing the first page of the spelling notebook on the board/overhead projector.

C. The first page of the spelling notebook should look like this:

Consonants

b c d f g h j k l m n p q r s t v w x y z

c before e, i, or y says ¹c, and if g is before e, i, or y it may say ²g.

Vowels

a	at	na vy	want ³
e	end	me	
i	In di an	si lent	
y	ba by	my	
o	odd	o pen	do ³
u	up	my ² sic	put ³

Silent final /e's/

time

have₁

chance₃

little₊

are₅ (no job /e/)

blue₁

charge₃

D. The students must learn to understand and apply the following seven rules that are explained as they write the first page of the spelling notebook. The first seven rules are taken from Spalding's book, The Writing Road to Reading and they are listed below:

"Rule 1. q is always written with two letters /qu/ when we say the sound "kw." The u is a consonant here.

Rule 2. When /c/ by itself has a sound, it always says "s" if followed by e, i, or y (cent, city, cyclone); otherwise its sound is "k" (cat, music). In many words /ci/ is pronounced "sh," and then it is a two-letter phonogram and thus does not have either sound of /c/. ch is always a two-letter phonogram. Rule (2) applies on where /c/ is a single phonogram.

Rule 3. When /g/ has a sound by itself it can say "j" only if it is followed by e, i, or y. When followed by any other letter, it says "g." (Get, girl, and give show that e and i do not always make /g/ say "j." Explain the exceptions to the class.) In spelling if /g/

is used to say "j" it must be followed by e, i, or y, as in pigeon, religious, energy.

Rule 4. Vowels a, e, o, u usually say "ā," "ē," "ō," "ū," at the end of a syllable:
 (nā vy, mē, sī lent, my, o pen, mū šic.)
 This is one of the three ways a vowel may say ā, ē, ī, ō, or ū.

Rule 5. i and y can say "ī" at the end of the syllable but usually they say "i̇." This is shown at the end of the second syllable of both Indian and babẏ.

Rule 6. y, no i, is used at the end of an English word, except for the pronoun I.

Rule 7. There are five kinds of silent e's. In short words, as me, she, he, the e says "ē," but in longer words where a single e appears at the end, the e is silent. (There are very few exceptions.) In Chaucer's day they were sounded. Now they are silent. We retain the first four kinds of silent e's because we need them. The fifth kind is

probably a relic from Chaucerian days" (p. 95).

E. Continue to teach the spelling patterns of our English language by dictating and explaining the rules. After the students have acquired a hundred words in their spelling notebooks they are ready to start their own oral reading. Since the teacher has continued to read literary selections throughout the entire period the students should have numerous books to choose from. Make a list of the books the students would like to read and have them to vote for the one they would like to read first. The books that receives the most votes is the book that the class will read first. Read for "skill" development at first and then proceed to read for "meaning".

F. To evaluate the students progress during this time the teacher may give "quizzes". These "quizzes" are only to see what help each student may need. The "quizzes" should not be graded and the students should know why they are taking them. The phonograms, the clock faces and the spelling notebooks are all based upon the Romalda Spalding's The Writing Road to Reading. The lessons can be adapted for all grade levels.

APPENDIX E

The Romalda Spalding's Seventy Phonograms:

1. b rib
2. c ("k" can and "s" cent)
3. d lid
4. f if
5. g ("g" bag and "j" gem)

g can say "j" only when followed by e, i, or y.

Thus the sound of this letter can readily be determined and no number is needed to indicate the use of the second sound. (Words like tiger, girl, and get are exceptions to this rule. Students need to follow the rule. If the word does not sound right when pronouncing the word the student should try the first sound of g "k". Students will have heard the word "tiger" for example long before they have encountered the word in print.)

6. h him
7. j (jam) Used at the beginning of a syllable.
8. k ink
9. l (lag) "l" is sounded with the tongue point pressed against the roof of the mouth. This is also true of "d", "t", and "n".
10. m am

11. n in
 12. p map
 13. qu ("kw") quit

These two letters have separate sounds. Since in English they are written together they are considered a phonogram. The u is a consonant with the sound of "w".

14. r rat "r" is sounded with the tongue rounded far back in the mouth. "r" is not "er".
15. s "s" us and "z" a^zs never says "z" at the beginning of a base word: zoo, zebra, zero, etc.
16. t bat
17. v viv id The teeth are placed on the lower lip at the same place for "f" as for "v". In writing many children confuse these two sounds unless they are taught to hear and feel the differences.
18. w (wit) Round the lips to say "w". The sound is not "w^u".
19. x ("ks" box) x is the only single letter with two sounds ("ks"). This is the reason we do not write two x's in words such as boxing and boxed.
20. y (yet) This consonant letter y is used only at the beginning of a syllable, usually the first one.
- "i^u" ba by "i" my
 y never needs a number above it.

21. z (zest)
22. a "ä" at
 "ā" na vy
 "ah" wānt
23. e "ē" end
 "ē" me
24. i "i" In di an
 "i" si lent

Both i's in Indian say "i." i and y at the end of a syllable usually says "i." The other vowels should say ā, ē, ō, ū at the end of a syllable.

25. o "ō" odd
 "ō" o pen
 "oo" dō
26. u "ū" up
 "ū" mū sic
 "oo" pūt

27. er her

Her first nurse works early.

This sentence gives the five spellings for the sound of "er."

28. ir first

Her first nurse works early.

29. ur nurse

Her first nurse works early.

30. wor works

Her first nurse works early.

(wor is made of two phonograms, or may say "er" when w comes before it.)

31. ear early

Her first nurse works early.

32. sh dish

sh is used at the beginning of a word, at the end of a syllable, but not at the beginning of a syllable after the first one in a base word.

33. ee "ē" see

34. th

"th" thin (Breath hisses between tongue-tip and upper teeth.)

"th" ²this (Tongue position is same as above but the voice gives sound as air is forced out.)

35. ay "ā" day

36. ai "ā" paint

Never used at the end of a word.

37. ow "ow" how

"ō" ²low

38. ou "ow" round

"ō" ²four

"oo" ³you

"u" ⁴coun try

39. oy boy

40. oi point

Never used at the end of a word.

41. aw law

42. au fault

Never used at the end of a word.

43. ew "ō" grew

"ū" new

(Same sounds as for ui.)

44. ui "ō" fruit

"ū" suit

(Same sounds as for ew.)

Never used at the end of a word.

45. oo "ō" boot

"oo" foot

"ō" floor

46. ch "ch" much

"k" school

"sh" chivalry

47. ng rang

(ng is a nasal sound. It is neither "n" nor

"g", nor is it a combination of them.)

48. ea "ē" eat

"ē" head

"ā" break

49. ar far

50. ck neck

(Used only after a single vowel which says ^uā, ^ue, ^ui, ^oō, ^uū.)

51. ed "ē" grad ed

"d" loved²ed

"t" wre³cked

This card is the past tense ending--not the "ē" and "d" of red.

52. or or

53. wh when

Blow softly on the palm of your hand. This air should be felt when saying: when, wheel, where.

There is no air when saying we, witch, wear. The difference between "wh" and "w" should be taught.

54. oa boat

55. ey "ā" ²they

"ē" ²key

"i" ³val ley

56. ei "ē" con ceit

"ā" ²veil

"i" ³for feit

See page 3 in the notebook for the rule for the use of ei and ie.

57. ie "ē" field

"i" ²
 pie
 "i" lil ³ ²
 ies

See page 3 in the notebook for the rule for the use of ie and ei.

58. igh "i" sigh

59. eigh "a" weigh

60. kn "n" knot

Used both at the beginning of a base word.

61. gn "n" gnat

Used both at the beginning and at the end of a base word. (reign)

62. wr "r" wrap

There is no sound of w here.

63. ph "f" phan tom

64. dge "j" bridge

May be used only after a single vowel which says
 ā, ē, ī, ō, ū.

65. oe "ō" toe

66. gh "g" ghost

Used at the beginning of a base word.

67. ti "sh" na tion

ti, si, ci say "sh" when they are together for the sound. See page 4 in the notebook.

68. si "sh" ses sion

"zh" vi sion

ti, si, ci say "sh."

si is the only one which can say "zh." See
page 4 in the notebook.

69. ci "sh" fa cial

ti, si, ci say "sh."

si is the only one which can say "zh." See
page 4 in the notebook.

70. ough	"ō"	² <u>though</u>
	"oo"	² <u>through</u>
	"uf"	³ <u>rough</u>
	"of"	⁴ <u>cough</u>
	"aw"	⁵ <u>thought</u>
	"ow"	⁶ <u>bough</u>

APPENDIX F

Suggested Games to Teach the Phonograms

Games and a listening post can be used to teach the phonograms. The teacher can make several games that can be laminated that will further reinforce the retention of the phonograms as well as enhancing the students enjoyment of the literary selections.

Game One - is a simple game based upon the Memory game. Students just need to match the the correct cards and say the correct pronunciation before collecting the cards. Initial learners who are just learning the phonograms may simply match the letter/letters until they have acquired more knowledge in in pronouncing the phonograms.

Game Two - is a board game based upon Monopoly. Initial learners can play the game by learning the alphabet. They can use a "spinner" to determine how may spaces they can move. In addition, they can land on certain squares and draw different colored cards that tell them to "lose turns",

collect more pegs when they pass the "Alphabet Factory" or get stuck in the "word pond". A player getting stuck in the "word pond" would lose a turn before continuing in the game. This game can be adapted to the students level as they learn more phonograms. An advanced version can be made up for older students as well.

Game Three - is based upon the game "Old Maid". This game can be played after the first twenty six phonograms have been introduced and reviewed. Additional phonograms can be added to the game as the class learns them. Pass out six cards to each player (no more than four players at a time). Use the extra cards to make a "draw pile". Picking a card from the person on the left see if the card can be matched. If the card can be matched the phonogram sound must be pronounced. To keep the cards you must pronounce the phonogram correctly otherwise the cards must be discarded in another "pile". Pick a new card from the "draw pile" and add it to the cards you possess. The player with the

most cards at the end of the game is declared the winner.

Game Four - Literature Book Game

(1) Design a game that can retell a story that has been read to the class over numerous times. For example the book, Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What do I See? by B. Martin, is an excellent book to make into the literature game. (2) The game board will be designed like a large brown bear. (3) Design all the characters that make up the story. Make sure you use the same colors as well. (4) Place the characters on top of the brown bear. (5) Have the students to sit in a circle and starting with the person on the right he/she must pick up the correct character that follows the line, "brown bear, brown bear, what do you see?" (6) The students all say the line that precedes each character and the student who picks up the correct character must retell what his/her character said in the book. (7) This is done until the story is completed and each student has had a turn. This game can be adapted for all literature books. It is more appropriate for initial readers or first and second graders.

Game Five - Baseball Using Literature

(1) Design a baseball diamond with home plate, first, second, and third base. (2) Using any literature book create open ended, true and false, and literal questions on different colored cards that are placed in the middle of the baseball diamond. (3) Each student is given three opportunities to answer the questions correctly. (4) When an answer is answered correctly the player moves to first base. This is done until the player reaches home base and gets to collect a colored peg to keep until the game is completed. (6) A player who answers incorrectly gets additional turns until he/she strikes out or is called out if they have reached a base. (7) The player with the most pegs is declared the winner. This game can be adapted for all age levels. A basic knowledge of the game of baseball is necessary to play the game.

A "listening post" can also be incorporated into the classroom procedure. Students can listen to the phonograms and repeat them. When they have learned to write the phonograms they can then write them on paper from dictation.

APPENDIX G

Suggested Literary Selections to Teach the Phonograms:

Aardems, V. (1978). Why mosquitoes buzz in people's ears: A West African tale. New York: Dial Books.

A West African folktale that reveals the meaning of why mosquito's buzz.

Aliki, (1983). Use your hear, dear. New York: Greenwillow.

Charles, a young alligator means well, but gets things mixed up until his father gives him an invisible thinking cap for his birthday.

Arno, E. (1973). The gingerbread man. New York: Scholastic.

A delightful predictable story about the adventures of a gingerbread man.

Graboff, A. (1970). Old MacDonald had a farm. New York: Scholastic.

A wonderful story about the animals on Farmer MacDonald's farm. The animal characters can be used wonderfully for the "Literature Book Game".

Martin, B. (1983). Brown bear, brown bear, what do I see? Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

A great predictable book that children of all ages will love. The characters in this book can be used for the "Literature Game".

Prelutsky, J. (1984). The new kid on the block. New York: Greenwillow.

Wonderful contemporary poetry that children will love to recite and hear.

Silverstein, S. (1981). A light in the attic. New York: Harper & Row.

Silverstein's humorous poetry that is illustrated with the author's drawings.

Silverstein, S. (1974). Where the sidewalks ends.
New York: Harper & Row.

Silverstein's humorous poetry that is illustrated with the author's drawings.

Steig, W. (1977). Amos and Boris. New York:
Penguin Books.

Amos the mouse and Boris the whale have a little in common except that they are both mammals and save each other lives.

Zolotow, C. (1977). Do you know what I'll do?.
New York: Harper & Row.

A wonderful book by Zolotow that all children will love to hear over and over again.

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