Understanding the Outcomes in Literacy

The Literacy outcomes are divided into 5 strands

The first strand we'll look at is READING COMPREHENSION

When teaching Reading Comprehension

- 1. Introduce to students a wide range of genres or different types of texts to read and comprehend. For example, pictures/diagrams/illustrations, poems, narratives (story books/short stories), moral stories, and technical passages such as expository, reports, newspaper articles, extracts from other subjects and encyclopedia.
- 2. Reading materials should be educational and entertaining for children.
- 3. Keep the reading materials of the students' standard.
- 4. Teach students the comprehension skills. Demonstrate to them how they can get answers from the text.
 - For example, if it is a picture/illustration, engage in class discussion of the picture/illustration. If it is a story or passage read and explain it to students. Then read and discuss each question, making sure students understand what the question means and know where in the passage they can get that answer from, and why something is an answer and why other things are not an answer.
- 5. Please, do not just give all answers on board without any explanation and feel good about your coverage. This is no teaching but wasting time, resources, and cheating students.

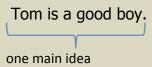
The next strand is Grammar

In order to teach the Grammar component well, it is imperative that every English teacher up skills him or herself with the rules of the English language called grammar, using text books and (or) internet.

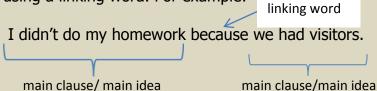
However, for teachers' convenience some rules of the English language and explanations are provided below on topics such as:

Types of sentences

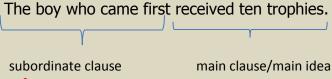
1. <u>Simple sentence</u>- a short sentence with one main idea. For example:



2. <u>Compound sentence</u> – a sentence with two or more main ideas (main clause) joined using a linking word. For example:



3. <u>Complex sentences</u> – a sentence with one main clause (main idea) and one sub ordinate clause (incomplete idea which cannot make sense on its own but has to depend on the other half of the sentence to make sense). For example:



Parts of Speech

- 1. **Nouns** are naming words or words that name things, people and places.
 - a) Types of nouns:
 - i) common (names of common things e.g. cup, tree, etc.)
 - ii) proper nouns (names of people and places, must start with a capital letter e.g. Fiji, Suva, Lau, Samu, Bua, Tom)
- 2. **Verbs** are doing words or words that describe /express an action.
- 3. <u>Adverbs</u> are words that describe or tell more about a verb. Most adverbs usually end with [ly].
- 4. <u>Adjectives</u> are words which describe a noun. <u>Adjectives are classified</u> under three categories:
 - i) Positive adjective e.g. This is a **big** house.
 - ii) <u>Comparative adjective</u> e.g. This house is <u>bigger</u> than the last house I saw.

NB: Notice the use of [than] when using comparative adjectives.

- iii) <u>Superlatives</u> e.g. This house is *the* **biggest** house from all the houses I have seen.
 - **NB:** Note the use of [the] before any superlative.
- 5. **Pronouns** are words used in place of a noun. <u>Types of pronouns</u> for Primary English are:
 - i) Personal pronouns e.g. I, you, he, she, it, we, me, him, her,

us, them

- ii) Possessive pronouns e.g. his, hers, ours, theirs, mine, yours
- iii) <u>Reflexive pronouns</u> e.g. myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, themselves, yourselves
- iv) Relative pronouns e.g. who, whose whom, which, that
- v) <u>Demonstrative pronouns</u> e.g. this, that, these, those

6. Articles

a) **Types of Articles**

- i) The indefinite articles [a] and [an] are used:
 - with nouns that have an indefinite or general sense.
 For example:

I saw <u>a</u> boy yesterday. (it can be any one boy from the many boys, no particular boy is being referred to)

- before a countable noun or for things which are many e.g. <u>a</u> book, <u>a</u> man, <u>a</u> tree
- ii) The definite article [the] is used for:
 - things which have a definite or particular sense. For example:

The boy I saw yesterday is my friend's son. (we are referring to a particular boy only - friend's son)

things or positions that are only one in its context.
 For example:

the sun, the earth, the moon, the Principal, the Prime Minister, the President, etc.

b) When to use a (or an)?

- i) A is used before a consonant sound.
- ii) An is used before a vowel sound /a, e, i, o, u/.

NB: **An** is used before a vowel sound **not** vowel letter. Vowel sounds are /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/ For example:

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an apple
an elephant
an orange
an honest person (silent h)
an umbrella
a uniform
an ice-cream
an essay
an SMS (letter [s] has the same sound as in essay)
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b) When to use the?

i) General vs specific

We do not use *the* when we refer to nouns or things used in a *general* or universal sense.

But we use *the* when we refer to a **particular** person or thing.

ii) **Buildings and places**

We do not use *the* when we refer to the purpose for which the building exists, or to a place in general. For example:

We are going to school. Every Sunday, we go to church. We had lunch in town.

We use [the] when we refer to a particular building or place. For example:

The motorist went to *the* school to ask for directions.

I went to *the* church to ask for donations.

They had to go to **the** town to buy a new machine.

iii) Roads

<u>The</u> is not used before names of roads, streets, lanes, drives, crescents, avenues, ways, etc. For example:

Along Grantham Road, you will find several stalls.

However, we use [the] when we refer to a nameless road, lane or path which leads somewhere. For example:

<u>The</u> road beside our house is flooded. Can we use <u>the</u> lane beside the supermarket?

iv) Business and government departments

[The] is not used when these places begin with a personal name. For example:

Have you eaten at McDonald's? He is a graduate of Fiji National University.

However, [the] is used before the names of government departments, associations, hotels, bank, shops, business or industrial concerns. For example:

<u>The</u> Ministry of Education is the biggest ministry in Fiji.

<u>The</u> Fijian Resort is one of the nicest places to go for a holiday.

The Bank of the South Pacific has many customers.

v) Games

Do not use *the* before the names of games. For example:

Are you playing soccer today? Rugby is a very popular game in Fiji. (not the rugby)

vi) The superlative

[The] is used before the superlative form of an adjective. For example:

This house is *the* biggest house.

A or The?

- ❖ If something has not been referred to earlier, use [a].
- ❖ If something has been referred to or even merely thought of, use [the]. For example:

I saw a road accident yesterday. *The* accident was caused by careless driving.

7. Prepositions

Types of prepositions

- 1. <u>Simple prepositions</u> are single words e.g. under, between, for, with, against, etc.
- 2. <u>Complex prepositions</u> consist of two or more words e.g. along with, in front of, owing to, etc.

Functions of prepositions

- 1. Locate the place of the activities e.g. at, in, under, from, near, etc.
- 2. <u>Indicate the time or duration of the activities</u> e.g. since, till, until, for, by, during.
- 3. <u>Indicate direction</u> e.g. to, into, towards, away, out of
- 8. **Linking Words** (also called conjunctions or connectives)

Functions of connectives

- a) Connectives to show addition
 - i) to show an addition of ideas within a sentence, examples are:

and

as well (as)

besides

together with

not only...but also

both...and

ii) to show an addition of ideas between sentences or paragraphs, examples are:

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in addition
              moreover
              furthermore
b) Connectives to show comparison
          to compare objects, persons or situations within a sentence,
          examples are:
              as
              as well as
              as if
              like
    ii)
          to indicate a comparison between sentences, examples are:
              likewise
              similarly
              in the same way
              in like manner
    iii)
           to indicate a comparison between paragraphs, examples include:
              likewise
              similarly
              in the same way
              in like manner
c) Connectives to show contrast
      to show a contrast in ideas within a sentence, for example:
              but
              yet
              while
              whereas
              although
              even though
              despite
              in spite of
ii)
      to show a contrast in ideas between sentences, for example:
              on the contrary
              alternatively
              on the other hand
              however
              nevertheless
d) Connectives to introduce an illustration
           to expend a sentence or to make a sentence clearer, for example:
    i)
              such as
              that is
              for example
              for instance
              in particular
              namely
    ii)
          to illustrate an idea or a point given in the preceding sentence, for
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example:

To illustrate

In other words

To give an example

iii) to begin an illustration in a paragraph, for example:

As a further illustration Another example

e) Connectives to indicate an alternative

i) to show alternatives within a sentence, for example:

or Have you seen Wati <u>or Veena?</u>
nor They didn't eat <u>nor did they drink.</u>
either...or <u>Either Wati or Veena will be going.</u>
neither He didn't sing, and <u>neither did she.</u>

neither...nor <u>Neither</u> Wati <u>nor</u> Veena went to the party. instead of Wati went to the wedding <u>instead of</u> the party.

ii) to show alternatives between sentences / paragraphs, for example:

On the other hand

Alternatively

f) <u>Connectives to indicate a conclusion or summing up</u> for example:

plainly

accordingly

therefore

thus

in short

in fact

to sum up

to conclude

as a result

consequently

hence

in conclusion

in all

all in all

in my opinion

g) Connectives to show order, for example:

first/firstly/in the first place/to begin with second/secondly/in the second place third/thirdly/etc.

next/then

to conclude/in conclusion/finally

h) Connectives to show means, for example:

by

by means of

through

Question Tags

1. The question tag is always derived from the verb and the pronoun in the first half of the sentence. For example:

It was raining yesterday, **wasn't it**?

2. If before the comma is positive, then after the comma will be negative. For example:

It <u>was</u> raining yesterday, <u>wasn't</u> it?

positive negative

- 3. If the first half of the sentence does not show any helping verb, the question tag will either have doesn't he/she/it (for singular subject) or don't they (for plural subject). For example:
 - Mary likes ice-cream, <u>doesn't</u> she? (it means Mary does like ice-cream)
 Singular subject singular verb
 - Mary and Ana like ice-cream, **don't** they? (it means they do like ice-cream)

Plural subject plural verb

Direct & Reported Speech

Features of Direct Speech

- 1. Punctuation
 - a) Inverted commas have to be used. Commas and full stops are placed within the closing inverted commas. For example:

 "I'm going to make fruit juice," said Elina.
 - b) Uses other punctuation marks such as a question mark [?] and exclamation mark [!] to quote the exact words of the speaker. For example:

"Has anyone seen my bag?" the teacher asked.

2.) Contains the phrase which tells who the speaker is, for example:

"Has anyone seen my bag?" the teacher asked.

Phrase that tells who the speaker is

Features of Reported Speech

1.) No punctuation mark used except full stop.

2.) Tenses change as follows:

Direct	Reported	
eat	ate	
am eating	was eating	
have eaten	had eaten	
shall eat	should/would eat	
may/can eat	might/could eat	
ate	had eaten	
was eating	had been eating	
had eaten	had eaten(no change)	

3.) Time changes as follows:

jcs a	cs as rollows.		
	Direct	Reported	
nov	W	then	
toc	lay	that day	
yes	sterday	the previous day, the day before	
ton	norrow	the next day, the following day	
las	t night	the previous night	
las	t week	the previous week, the week before	

4.) Personal pronouns change as follows:

Direct	Reported
I	He /she
You	He/she
My	His/her
Our	their
we	they

5.) Determiners change as follows:

Direct	Reported
this	that
these	those

6.) Change in place occurs as follows:

Direct	Reported
here	there

7.) For Questions, the verb in reported speech comes at the end of the sentence, unlike the verb for a question in direct speech which comes near the beginning.

Or changes occur in the positioning of the verb so that the reported speech do not remain a question but changes into a statement.

Direct	Reported	
"Why <i>are</i> you <i>laughing</i> , Tom?"	?" The teacher asked Tom why he was	
asked the teacher.	laughing.	

"What <i>is</i> the correct answer? asked	Pita asked what the correct answer
Pita.	was.

8.) That and Whether

Use **that** to record the reported speech for statement, and whether for questions. (**That** is nowadays omitted in spoken language.)

The next strand is Punctuation Punctuation Rules

- a) The Apostrophes are used to show when:
 - i) something belongs to one person/thing, for example:

the tail of the rat becomes the rat's tail

ii) things belong to more than one person/thing, for example:

the toys of the boys becomes the boys' toys

iii) letters have been left out of a word, for example:

do not becomes don't

- b) <u>Capital Letters</u> are used in the following places in a sentence:
 - i) at the beginning of a sentence
 - ii) in the middle of a sentence for proper nouns, for example:

Timocis' birthday is in January.

- c) The Question mark vs Full stops
 - If a sentence is a question, it should end with a question mark [?].
 - Question marks are also used at the end of a question tag.
 - If a sentence is a statement, it should end with a full stop.
 - Question mark is not used in reported speech or in a question where no answer is expected.
- d) The Exclamation mark
 - Comes at the end of a sentence to replace the full stop when there is a need to indicate surprise or any strong emotion, e.g. I've won! Wow!
 - Is also used if a sentence ends with a high note or a louder voice, indicating/ showing someone is calling loudly, shouting, yelling, etc. e.g. Help! Help! No!
- e) The Comma

The comma is used:

i) to separate items in a list.

 If the items belong to the same group, or if the activities or emotions are related to one another, a comma is not necessary before and:

I bought oranges, apples and a basket of bananas.

• If the last item is a separate or unrelated unit, a comma is used before *and*:

She is kind, gentle, polite, and the Head Girl of our school.

A comma is not included after the last item:

His aunt, grandmother, cousins and close friends (*no comma*) came to his graduation.

- ii) to clarify the meaning of a sentence.
- iii) to separate the clauses in a sentence.
- iv) to separate the adjectival or relative clause which merely gives additional information in the sentence, for example:

Ram, who swims regularly, is our national swimmer.

NB: The comma is not used for adjectival clauses which give necessary information, for example:

The boy who rescued the children from the fire was honoured.

- v) to separate the phrase in a sentence.
- vi) to start off direct speech and replies to questions.
- vii) to indicate question tags.

The 4th strand is Spelling

There is no set criterion when it comes to teaching spelling. However, teachers are advised to teach spellings of words that students have been exposed to in the decodable readers.

Alternatively, students can also be taught the spelling of commonly used words starting from level one.

It would be interesting to see that as a teacher your students are able to do the following in spelling:

- Can spell simple words correctly.
- Can spell commonly used words.
- Can spell words with two syllables.
- Can spell words with three syllables.
- Can spell polysyllabic words correctly.
- Can spell difficult words correctly.
- Can arrange words in alphabetical order.
- Can spell words correctly using prefixes.
- Can spell words correctly using suffixes.
- Can spell plural nouns correctly.
- Can spell words in past tense.
- Can spell words in past participle.
- Can spell new words. (a word they have never seen before)
- Can spell tricky words. (words not easily pronounced using the phonemes)

Spelling Rules

i) E goes away when *ing* comes to stay, for example:

hope becomes hoping.

ii) I before E except after C, for example:

chief, piece; receive and ceiling.

iii) Silent E at the end of a word can change the vowel sound, for example:

cap becomes cape.

Or

- iv) For short words, if the vowel letter in the middle sounds just like saying the alphabet name, then the [e] at the end is silent e.g. came, hope
- v) Add an *S* to make a plural of most words, for example:

star becomes stars.

vi) For words that end in a 'hissing' sound, for example words that end with *S, CH, SH, X*, add an *ES* to the word when changing to plural. For example,

one clas<u>s</u> becomes many class<u>es</u>.

- vii) Ask them to break the word into chunks or syllables.
- viii) Get them to look for little words in bigger words, for example: believe is made up of be, lie and eve; soldier is made up of so, sold, old and die.

Spelling rules from Jolly Phonics

Vowels

The way vowels work is probably the least understood aspect of phonic teaching. Many of the vowels have more than one way of being written. In addition, vowels often have irregular spellings. Some knowledge about the vowels is useful, but it is important that you do not get too bogged down in rules.

Vowels: helpful hints for spelling

funny

When the children have been taught to listen for the short vowels /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/ and /u/ and can easily identify them in words, they can understand and use the following hints:

- 1. If a short word contains a short vowel, followed by a /c/ sound, the /c/ is written with <ck>, as in the words, black, neck, tick, tock and duck. However, if the vowel sound is not one of the short vowels, and the word ends with a /c/ sound, then the /c/ is written <k>, as in the words, look and dark. This rule does not apply to polysyllabic words; in words such as magic, fantastic and plastic the final /c/ sound is written <c>.
- 2. In a short word with a short vowel, ending in $\langle f \rangle$, $\langle s \rangle$ or $\langle z \rangle$, the final consonant needs to be doubled, as in *cliff*, *spill*, *miss*, *buzz*. The exceptions to this rule are the very short words *if*, *is* and *of*.
- 3. If the suffixes (ing), (ed), (er) or (y) are added to a short word with a short vowel, there must be at least two consonants before the suffix. If the short word has only one consonant at the end, then this consonant is usually doubled before the suffix is added. For example, in the words, *running*, *stopped*, *thinner* and *funny*, the final consonants of the original words, *run*, *stop*, *thin* and *fun* have been doubled.

Final consonant is doubled:

doubling needed:

running
chopped
thinner

Two final consonants already so no
bending
landed
blonder

However, if there are already two consonants at the end of the word no such doubling is needed. Furthermore, if the word does not have a short vowel, it is not necessary to have two consonants before the suffix, so *looking*, *heated*, *lighter* and *dreamy* have only one consonant before the suffix. Lastly, if the short vowel is spelt with a digraph, it is not necessary to have two consonants before the suffix, as is seen in the words *headed* and *plaited*.

handy

The 5th strand is writing. There are also notes and explanations on: Changing Questions into statement

When changing questions into statements ensure the following:

- i) the tense remains the same
- ii) the meaning does not change

Conditional Sentences

The conditional is used when we want to express a situation which is dependent on a certain condition or conditions.

The real condition

If + simple present tense and shall/will + basic form of the verb

The real condition is used for a likely event, the fulfilment of which is dependent on another.

<u>If</u> it <u>rains</u> this afternoon, I <u>shall</u> not <u>attend</u> the wedding. If I am free, I will give you a call.

The unreal condition I

If + simple past tense and should / would + basic form of the verb

The unreal condition I is used for **an unlikely event**.

If she came, I would be happy. (It is unlikely for her to come.)

If he participated in the race, he would lose. (It is unlikely for him to participate.)

The unreal condition II

If + were and would + basic form of the verb

The unreal condition II is used for <u>an impossible assumption; a situation</u> that can never arise.

If I were you, I would not take that insult lying down. If I were a bird, I would fly.

The unreal condition III

If + past perfect tense and would + present perfect tense

The unreal condition III is used for an **irrevocable event**.

If they had studied hard, they would have passed their exam. (But they didn't study hard, and they didn't pass the exam.)

If we had had good teamwork, we would have won the game.) (But we didn't, so we lost.)

Writing instructions (Procedures)

Always follow the logical order of events to arrive at the desired outcome.

Giving/Following Directions

- a) Teach students the importance of giving directions accurately in our everyday lives. What happens if a wrong direction is given?
- b) Students should know their right and left.
- c) Discuss with them the importance of other landmark features that assist in following a direction.

Formal and personal letters

The following table summarizes the important features of formal and personal letters:

	Formal Letter	Personal Letter	Comments
Salutation	Dear Sir/Madam	Dear Sam *	*Use first name only, do
			not use 'Dear friend'
Complimentary	Yours faithfully	Yours sincerely	Formal letter
Close	(only)	Yours truly	Write both names when
		Your friend	signing off
		Yours	Personal letter
		Cheers	Write your first name
		Love	only when signing off.
		(all the others except	
		Yours faithfully)	

Continuous Class Based Assessments and appropriate & timely feedback to students are very important in order to improve students' learning. The table below summarises the types and nature of assessments suitable for teaching and assessing various outcomes.

Outcome	Type(s) of CBA
Identifies the author of a story/book.	Book Review (written)
	Book Review (oral presentation)
Knows what an illustrator does in a book.	Book Review (written)
	Book Review (oral presentation)
Can write a paragraph by arranging sentences in the correct	Paragraph writing
order of events.	
Writes instructions in a proper order.	Activity on writing instructions
Writes directions clearly in a logical order.	Activity on writing directions
Uses salutation correctly in a personal/informal letter.	Letter writing activity
Uses salutation correctly in a formal letter.	Letter writing activity
Uses complimentary close correctly in a personal/informal letter.	Letter writing activity
Uses complimentary close correctly in a formal letter.	Letter writing activity
Uses correct layout in personal/informal letter.	Letter writing activity
Uses correct layout in formal letter.	Letter writing activity
The rest of the outcomes in Literacy	Continue teaching using
	explanations, demonstrations and
	notes, and assess using a variety of
	activity questions and short tests.

Reference:

Choy, T. W. and Chew P., 2001, *English the basics: A Practical Handbook*, Second Edition, SNP Pan Pacific Publishing Pte. Ltd., Singapore.

Compiled By:

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