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THE EFFECT
OF TEACHING
ENGLISH
GRAMMAR
FROM THE
TRADITIONAL
AND
STRUCTURAL
APPROACHES

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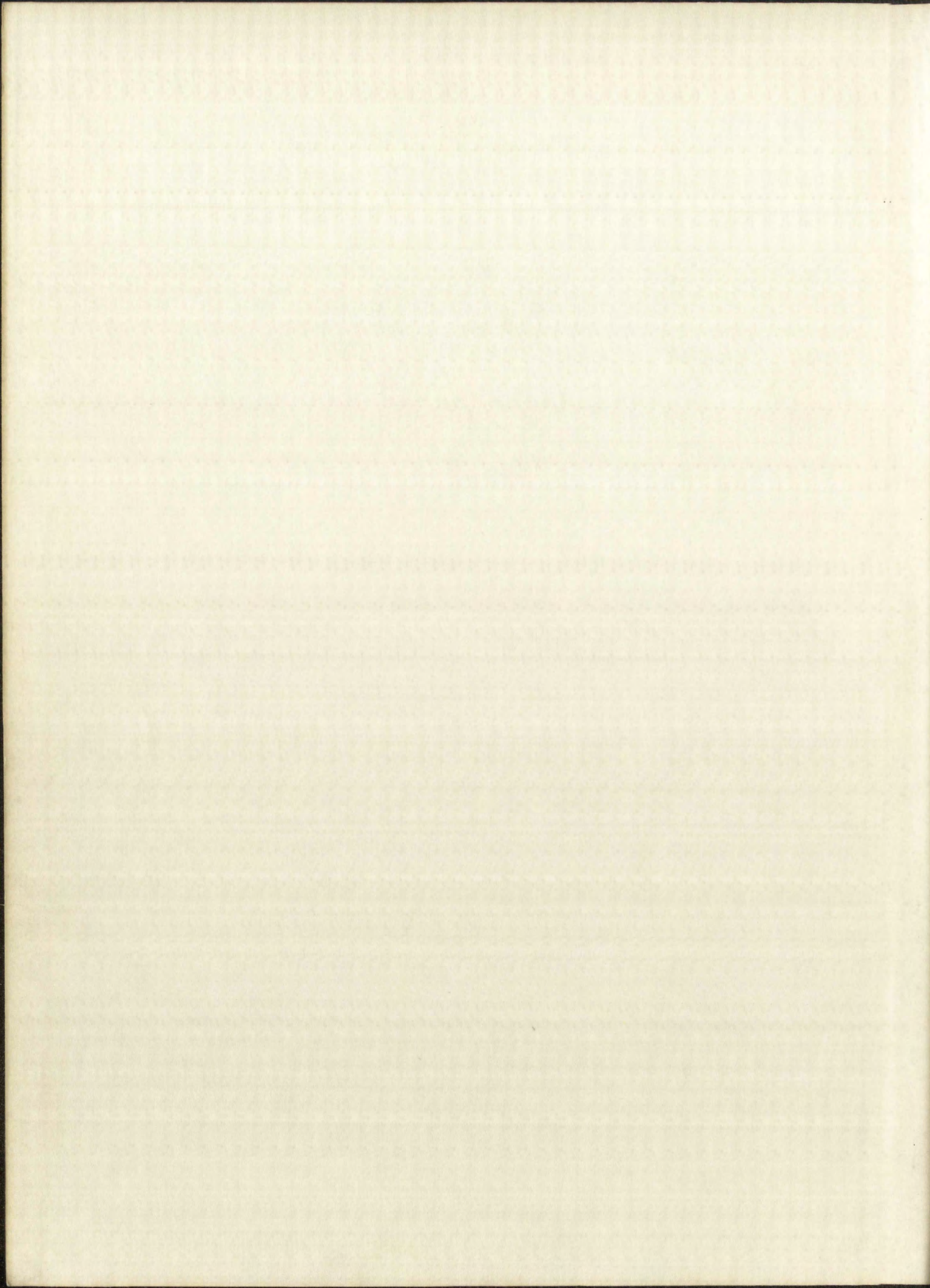
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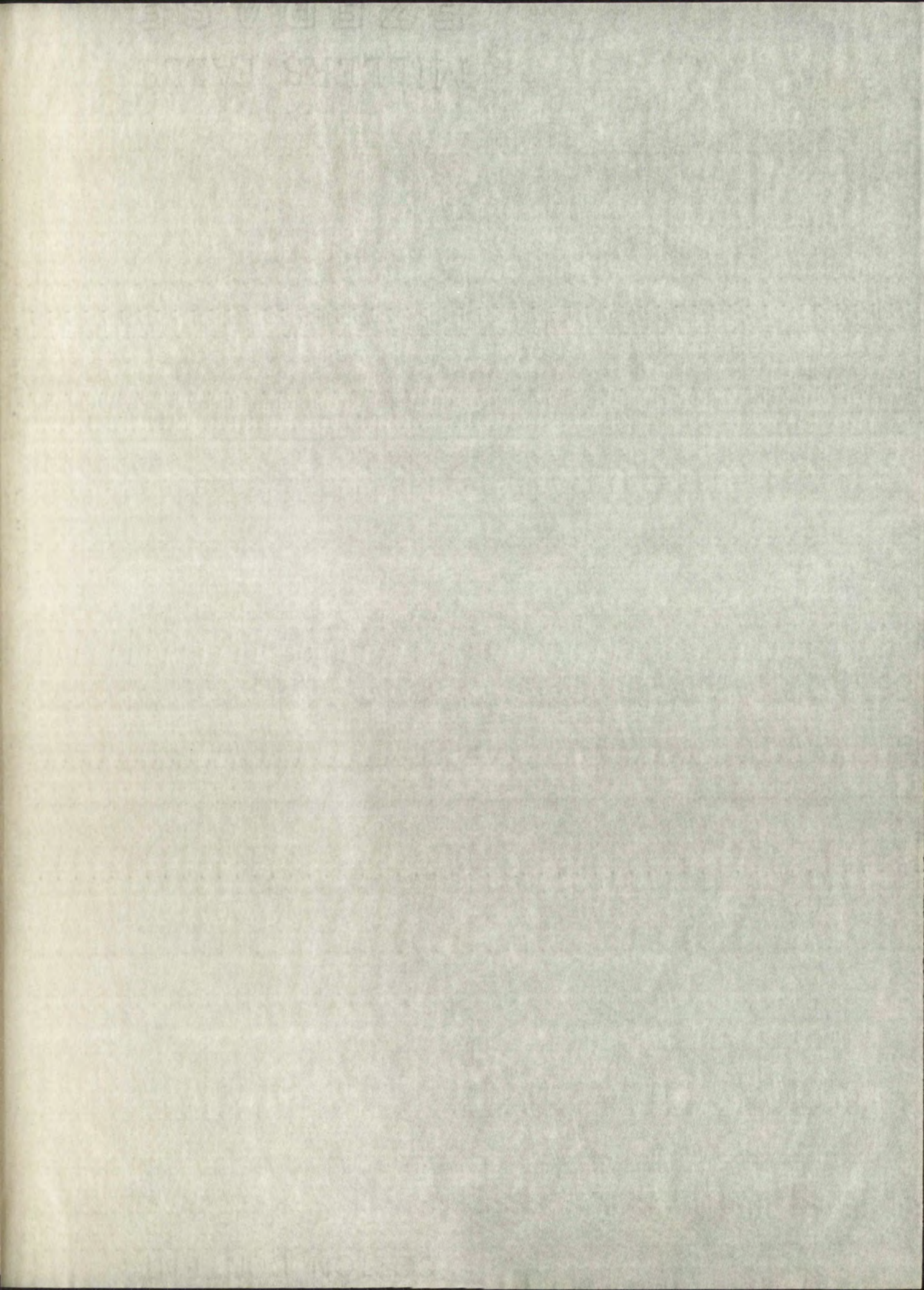
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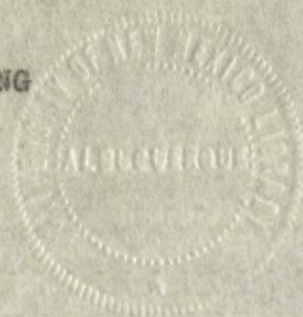
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AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF TEACHING
ENGLISH GRAMMAR FROM THE TRADITIONAL
AND STRUCTURAL APPROACHES



A Thesis
Presented to
the Faculty of the College of Education
The University of New Mexico

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts in Education

by
Bobbie Carlene Anthony Walker
August 1961



AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF

THE APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLES OF

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

Prompted by their personal observations of the inability of many graduates of American public schools to communicate their ideas in clear and forceful sentences, leaders in business and industry, college teachers of composition, and high school teachers have questioned for many years the effectiveness of the schools in helping students to learn to use their native language effectively.

Why, in spite of increasing emphasis upon English, and the improvement both in editing of English classics and in textbooks on rhetoric, do high school graduates continue to fall so far short of the eminently reasonable requirements of the normal schools? Why are they not only slipshod in expression and indifferent as to spelling and punctuation, but also sometimes glaringly ungrammatical in speech and in writing? (47:351)

This question, asked fifty years ago in The English Journal, is echoed in recent critical comment. David R. Dilley, an accounting manager with the United States Steel Corporation, stated in 1961 that:

"Students entering business today are seriously deficient in ability to express themselves effectively in writing!" This thought undoubtedly has been mentioned so frequently--particularly by employers--that teachers of English probably consider such criticism as an occupational liability. The unfortunate aspect of such comments is . . . that they are generally true (18:265)

In The Case for Basic Education, Donald R. Tuttle, Professor of English at Fenn College, after having quoted a number of critical comments made by business and educational leaders on the inability of American students to express themselves effectively, states, "Hundreds of vigorous criticisms could be quoted, but it is hard to find an expression of approval of the writing of American students." (64:80)

Graduates of American schools have been and are being criticized for their inadequacies in language use, despite the fact that "English" or "language arts" has been a major part of the curriculum for grades one through twelve, almost from the inception of our American public school system. Dominant as a part of "English" or "language arts" has been the study of grammar. This dominant portion of the English curriculum has been also perhaps the most controversial. Does grammar have value in promoting the ability of a student to construct sentences which adequately and effectively convey the thought which he intends? If so, what system of grammar is best to use in helping the student achieve mastery in the use of his language? Does the formal, analytical approach to grammar, traditional in our schools, have value in providing students with the ability to construct effective sentences? Is there justification for the point of view of the linguist, typified by the following

statement of Charles C. Fries?

The study of the usual "formal grammar," then, has much the same sort of value and usefulness as the study of the astronomy of Ptolemy, or of the medical beliefs and practices of Galen, the great Greek physician. Being falsely oriented, "formal grammar," as it is studied in relation to English, cannot be expected to provide any satisfactory insight into the mechanisms of our language or any grasp of the processes by which language functions. (24:277)

Does the philosophy of grammar offered by the linguists embody a better approach than the traditional approach to teaching English in American schools?

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. It was the purpose of this study to conduct an experiment in a junior high school classroom situation to compare, through pre-testing and post-testing, the achievement of a group of ninth grade students taught English grammar from the traditional approach, the achievement of a group of ninth grade students taught English grammar from the structural approach, and the achievement of a group of ninth grade students taught literature in English class with no specific instruction in grammar, with the evaluation to be limited to measurement of gains or losses in the ability of students to (1) recognize specific types of sentence structure errors, (2) perform on a standardized language test, and (3) do original writing free from specific

types of sentence structure errors.

This study was based upon the attempt to provide data to test the following null hypotheses:

1. No differences in performance may be expected between groups* on the pre-test scores of the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test.
2. No differences in performance may be expected between groups* on the post-test scores of the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test.
3. No significant difference in means of pre-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test may be expected in a comparison of any two groups.
4. No significant difference in means of post-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test may be expected in a comparison of any two groups.
5. No significant difference in means of pre-test and post-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test may be expected for any one of the groups.
6. No significant difference between group means of scores on the California Test of Mental Maturity, (Short Form) may be expected.

*Three groups, two experimental and one control, were considered in the analysis of variance. "Between" means "among three."

Delimitation of the problem. This study involved 134 students enrolled in four ninth grade English classes taught by the investigator and one other teacher at Madison Junior High School in Albuquerque, New Mexico. The four classes were arranged, in the manner explained later in this study, to form two experimental groups and one control group.

It seemed necessary to use a class other than one of those taught by the investigator as a control group in order that more students could be included in the experimental groups and so that the needed comparative group could be provided.

The investigator taught selected parts of English grammar by the traditional approach to one experimental group and by the structural approach to the other experimental group. The control group received no instruction in grammar during the time of the experiment.

Matters of usage, points of writing craftsmanship, and aspects of the language arts program other than those specifically included in the plan of this study and shown in the outlines of instructional material included later in this thesis were considered beyond the scope of this investigation.

The investigator noted several limitations of the study which require mention as possible contaminating factors. The relatively late time in the school year during which the exper-

Comparison of the two groups

134 students enrolled in the first semester of the first year of the Junior High School in Chicago, Illinois, were arranged, in the second semester, to form two experimental groups and one control group. It seemed necessary to use a control group because these taught by the investigator as a control group in order that more students could be included in the experimental groups and so that the needed control group could be provided.

The investigator carried out a study of the grammar by the traditional method, to the control group and by the structural approach to the experimental group. The control group received the traditional grammar during the time of the experiment.

Matters of usage, points of view, and other aspects of the language arts were covered by the traditional method. The list of items included in the plan of the experimental group outlines of instructional material included in this thesis were considered beyond the scope of this investigation.

The investigator noted several differences in the results which require mention as possible consequences of the relatively late time in the second semester when the experiment was carried out.

iment was conducted made it inevitable that both experimental groups had been subjected to identical teaching earlier in the year, with such teaching having involved literature, grammar from the traditional viewpoint, and theme-writing. It is possible that carry-over from this earlier instruction was reflected in the data.

The difference in the number of students involved in the two experimental groups must be regarded as a definite limitation, as must be the fact that the control group was taught by someone other than the investigator.

The investigator, having had most of her training and teaching experience in traditional grammar with only a limited formal introduction to the linguistic point of view basic to structural grammar, was far more familiar with the subject matter used by the group studying traditional grammar than with that used by the other experimental group. This familiarity with the traditional material may have resulted in better teaching of it; however, the intensive study of the structural material which the investigator had to make in order to teach it may have resulted in better teaching of it.

Having to work at a very rapid rate in order to meet the six week time limit of the study was a definite limitation. Also undeniably limiting was the fact that it was possible, during the short duration of the study, to cover

Experiment was conducted under the following conditions: the groups had been subjected to identical training for the year, with each teacher having received the same training from the traditional grammar. It is possible that carry-over from this earlier training was reflected in the data.

The difference in the amount of material learned by the two experimental groups must be regarded as a limitation, as must be the fact that the groups were not taught by someone other than the investigator. The investigator, in fact, had not only the traditional teaching experience in traditional grammar but also a formal introduction to the instructional methods of the structural grammar, was the only teacher who had used the group teaching method. The traditional grammar that was used by the other experimental group was identical with the traditional material, but the investigator had no knowledge of its power, and the amount of material which the investigator had to teach was not the same. It may have resulted in better learning of the

Having to work at a very rapid pace in order to meet the six week time limit of the study was a definite limitation. Also, unless the investigator had the time and resources possible, during the short time of the study, to

approximately only one-half of the study material included in the structural grammar textbook used as the basis for the instruction of one of the experimental groups.

An important limitation was the lack of a standardized instrument for measuring sentence structure errors and errors made in composition.

In conclusion, it should be noted that this study proceeded and was carried out under the basic assumptions concerning the differences in the philosophies and methodologies of traditional and structural grammar as they are detailed in Chapter II of this paper.

Importance of the problem. According to the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English, the language arts program "... attempts to develop in students the ability to think and to communicate in the English language and to understand the humanizing values of literature." (15:7) A foremost goal of the program, according to the Commission, is the development of the ability to use the English language as an effective instrument of thought, expression, and communication. This goal implies that young people need to understand and be able to use sentences and paragraphs as important media of expression. (15:8)

About the importance of the ability to use the language effectively there is unanimous agreement. However, inquiry

approximately one-half of the total number of students
the structural grammar method is used. The results of the
investigation of one of the experiments are as follows:
An important limitation was the lack of statistical
instrument for measuring sentence structure. Errors were
errors made in composition.
In conclusion, it should be noted that this study
proceeded and was carried out under the best of conditions
concerning the difference in the performance of students
of traditional and structural grammar. It was noted that
Chapter II of this paper.

Importance of the problem.

on the English Commission of the National Council of Teachers
of English, the language arts program. The purpose of
develop in students the ability to read and to write
in the English language and to understand the meaning of
of literature." (1957) A foremost goal of the program is
ing to the Commission, is the development of the ability
use the English language as an effective means of
thought, expression, and communication. It is
that young people need to understand and be able to use
sentences and paragraphs as important units of communication.
About the importance of the problem to the National Council
effectively there is unanimous agreement.

among practicing teachers of English and a survey of the literature do not disclose any measure of agreement as to the most effective method to use in helping students achieve the goal of clear and effective communication in their native language. Advocates of traditional grammar insist that the study of it is the only answer to the problem, while the linguists and their followers, declaring that traditional grammar fails to produce desired results because it is falsely oriented, contend that theirs is the superior system.

Some studies show ". . . the great divide which lies between a knowledge of grammar and its application in speech and writing." (42:522) On the other hand, a reputable college instructor of English speaks of grammar as ". . . the stuff logic is based on . . .," and declares that ". . . you have got to teach grammar as an analytical and theoretical study just as you teach anatomy to a medical student or stress and tension of steel structures to an engineering student." (35:207) While some authorities argue for the effectiveness of relating grammar to direct practice in composition, other researchers offer results from experiments which they contend "prove" the superiority of a thought approach to a grammar approach in teaching sentence structure.

In a thorough search of the available body of literature dealing with the various approaches to the teaching of

among practicing teachers of English as a second language. Literature do not discuss the most effective method to teach the goal of clear and effective communication in the target language. Advocates of traditional methods of language study of it is the only method to teach the language. Linguists and their followers, however, have been unsuccessful in their efforts to produce a more effective method. Indeed, it is the only method to teach the language. Some studies show that the most effective method is the one between a knowledge of the language and the ability to use it and writing. The instructor of English as a second language is based on the logic of teaching grammar as an end in itself. Just as you teach a subject in a new language, you teach the formation of a new language. While some authorities argue for the direct method of teaching grammar to direct practice in the target language, others offer results from experiments with the direct method. The superiority of a thought experiment in a grammar classroom in teaching sentence structure. In a thought experiment, the teacher is dealing with the

English, the investigator failed to find the report of a study specifically designed to compare the effect of the use of traditional and structural grammar approaches on the ability of students to deal with particular types of common sentence structure errors. However, the writer admits, such studies may have been conducted at some time in the past.

In the present study an attempt was made to determine if one system of grammar could be deemed more effective than the other and also to add to previous efforts to ascertain if a knowledge of grammar is related to the ability to write well-structured sentences in original composition work.

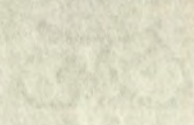
II. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

The following meanings were given to and refer to terms used in this study.

English grammar. The part of English language study that pertains to the different classes of words, their relations to one another, and their functions in sentences. (28:252)

Traditional grammar. Study of the principles of the English language as "rules," emphasizing definition of and drill on the eight parts of speech, phrases, clauses, and simple, compound, and complex sentences.

Formal grammar. Used in this study as a synonym for traditional grammar.



English, the investigation of the English language is a study especially for those who are interested in the history of traditional and modern English literature. The study of students to deal with the English language is a study of structure errors. However, the study of the English language may have been conducted in the past.

In the present study, the English language is studied in one system of grammar, which is a study of the English language. The other and also the study of the English language is a study of the English language. The study of the English language is a study of the English language. The study of the English language is a study of the English language.

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following definitions are used in this study.

English grammar: The study of the English language that pertains to the structure of the English language. It is a study of the English language. It is a study of the English language. It is a study of the English language.

Traditional grammar: The study of the English language as a study of the English language. It is a study of the English language. It is a study of the English language. It is a study of the English language.

Formal grammar: The study of the English language as a study of the English language. It is a study of the English language. It is a study of the English language. It is a study of the English language.

Structural grammar. The study of the English language which emphasizes the devices in the language that signal meaning according to form. These devices include word order, the grouping of words into units which substitute for single words and do the same work, the use of words that serve as pattern-signals to relate other words to each other, and changes in the form of individual words. (41:89)

Functional grammar. A method of learning correct usage in language through activity rather than through reference to rules. (23:252)

Sentence. A group of words which stands by itself as a structurally complete unit.

Sentence structure errors. Run-on sentences and sentence fragments.

Run-on sentence. Two or more sentences incorrectly written and punctuated as one.

Sentence fragment. A group of words, not structurally complete, written as a sentence, beginning with a capital letter and ending with a period, question mark, or exclamation point.

Original writing. A student-written narrative composition, composed in the classroom. The original draft of the composition was used for the purposes of this study.

Linguistics. The scientific enterprise of investigating

Grammatical Systems

which emphasizes the development of the language and the meaning according to the rules. These grammatical systems are the grouping of words into sentences and the meaning of the words and the same word in different sentences. The grammatical systems are changes in the form of the words and the meaning of the words.

Functional Systems

usage in language through the use of the words. The functional systems are changes in the form of the words and the meaning of the words.

Sentence

A group of words which are connected by a grammatical structure and which form a complete unit.

Sentence structure

The arrangement of the words in a sentence.

Run-on sentences

Two or more sentences joined together without a proper conjunction or punctuation.

Sentence fragment

A group of words which are not a complete sentence.

Complete sentence

A sentence which is complete in itself and does not need any other words to be understood.

Original writing

A sentence which is written in the original form.

Composition

The process of writing a sentence or a paragraph.

Alphabetical

The arrangement of the words in a sentence according to the alphabet.

the languages and dialects which are in use, or have been used, by various speech communities throughout the world. Linguistics is concerned with the identification of linguistic symbols, with the discovery of the ways in which these symbols can be arranged in a temporal sequence, and to some extent with the conditions under which these symbols are used in communication. (14:10,14)

Applied linguistics. The educational applications of linguistics. (14:140)

Thought approach. An approach to problems of sentence structure based upon adequate expression of thought. (26:518)

Linguistic approach. Refers to that philosophy of grammar held by leaders in the field of linguistics.

Structural approach. Used in this study as a synonym for linguistic approach.

Traditional approach. Refers to the philosophy of grammar held by those who adhere to the terminology and methodology of traditional grammar.

III. ORGANIZATION OF THE REMAINDER OF THE THESIS

Literature related to traditional grammar and structural grammar is reviewed in Chapter II. This review includes (1) a brief history of English grammar as a subject of instruction, (2) a survey of comments by persons who reflect the two approaches

the languages and dialects... by various speech communities... is concerned with the... with the discovery of... arranged in a temporal sequence... conditions under which these... (14:10,14)

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III. ORGANIZATION OF THE... Literature related to... grammar is reviewed in Chapter... brief history of English... (2) a survey of comments...

to grammar considered in this study, (3) a report of research pertinent to the present study, and (4) a comparison of the philosophies and methodologies of traditional and structural grammar.

In Chapter III the procedures followed in organizing and carrying out the study are described. The calendar of instruction for each of the experimental groups is given, and a description of the teaching methods and materials used with the experimental groups is outlined.

In Chapter IV the methods employed in analyzing the data are described, and the results of the study are reported.

Conclusions and recommendations based upon the findings of the study are presented in Chapter V.

Concluding the study are the Bibliography and the Appendix. The latter includes copies of the instructional material used with the experimental groups, copies of tests used as pre-tests and post-tests, a report of comments made by students involved in the study, and detailed tables of the statistical calculations.

to grammar considered in this study. The first consideration is the relationship between the grammar and the experimental group. The second consideration is the relationship between the grammar and the experimental group.

In Chapter III the experimental group is described and the results are presented. The experimental group is described in terms of its composition and the results are presented in terms of the experimental group. The experimental group is described in terms of its composition and the results are presented in terms of the experimental group.

Conclusions and recommendations are presented in Chapter IV. The conclusions are presented in terms of the experimental group and the recommendations are presented in terms of the experimental group. The conclusions are presented in terms of the experimental group and the recommendations are presented in terms of the experimental group.

Appendix. The latter includes copies of the experimental material used with the experimental group. Copies of the material used with the experimental group are included in the appendix. The latter includes copies of the experimental material used with the experimental group.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Grammar in its relation to the total field of the language arts has been the topic of extensive writing for many years. For the purposes of the present study, it was necessary to gather from the extensive literature a knowledge of the history of English grammar as a subject of instruction, a survey of comments by persons mirroring the different approaches to grammar, an understanding of previous research pertinent to the problem, and a comparative statement of the philosophies and methodologies of traditional and structural grammar.

I. A BRIEF HISTORY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR AS A SUBJECT OF INSTRUCTION

The first English grammar, Grammatica Anglicana, which was written in Latin, appeared in England in 1594. Its author is commonly believed to have been a P. Greenwood. John Hewes's A Perfect Survey of the English Tongue, published in 1624, had as its purpose the task of preparing the pupil for Latin grammar. These initial treatments of the subject were followed by more than four hundred different other ones by 1851. (49:80)

The first text known to be used in America was Thomas Dillworth's A New Guide to the English Tongue, reprinted in

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Grammar in its relation to the study of the English language has been the topic of many books for many years. For the purposes of the present study it is necessary to gather from the extensive literature a survey of the history of English grammar as a subject of study and a survey of comments by persons who have approached the subject, as understanding of the subject is pertinent to the problem, and a comparison of the philosophies and methodologies of the various approaches to the subject.

I. A BRIEF HISTORY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR AS A SUBJECT OF INVESTIGATION

The first English grammar, written by Thomas Digges, was written in Latin, appeared in 1576, and is commonly believed to have been a first attempt. A perfect survey of the English tongue, published in 1669, had as its purpose the task of presenting the English language in its present state. These initial treatments of the subject were followed by more than four hundred different grammars, of which the first text known to be used in American schools was Miller's A New Guide to the English Language, published in 1789.

this country by Franklin's press in 1747, seven years after its original publication in England. The first grammar text written and printed in America was that by Samuel Johnson, the American philosopher and president of King's College. The book appeared in 1765. Robert Lowth's A Short Introduction to English Grammar, written in 1762, found extensive favor in England and America. Noah Webster's Plain and Comprehensive Grammar, published in 1784, was the first to attain wide circulation. (49:82) Lindley Murray's Grammar, first printed in 1795, later went through fifty editions, with an abridgment of the original book going through 120 editions. Murray's text, serving as a model for most succeeding grammars, was so popular for over half a century that its author became known as the "Father of English grammar." (36:432)

The rise of a wealthy middle class in the eighteenth century was an important factor in the development of systematic grammar. Newly wealthy merchants and their wives, aspiring to social acceptance, employed tutors to teach them the refinements of language. Where correctness and elegance were the goals, it was only natural, in the opinion of the writers of The English Language Arts, that the books should reflect the attitude of school-masterly authority rather than scholarly objectivity and that they should perpetuate the system of grammar which the tutor-writer knew, that of

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classic Latin. (15:279)

During the latter part of the eighteenth century, the American academies, catering to the needs of the common man ambitious to rise in the business and commercial world, developed the "English course" as opposed to the "classical course" of the Latin grammar schools which prepared wealthy young men of the upper class for college. The "English course" emphasized the study of English grammar and literature, while the "classical course" had as its heart the study of Latin grammar and Latin classics of literature. (12:276) Indicative of the relatively late acceptance of English as a major subject of study is the fact that Princeton University, evidently the first institution of higher learning to make the study of English an entrance requirement, did not do so until 1819. (50:153)

Language students of the eighteenth century superimposed upon English grammar the principles of Latin grammar, partly because the latter was the one in which they were schooled and partly because of a desire to establish a standard for the language and prevent future changes in it as extensive as those which had taken place in previous centuries. Efforts to establish an English Academy, similar to the French Academy, were unsuccessful, and objections to the system of English grammar which had come into being resulted in the development

classical Latin. (18:230)
During the latter part of the nineteenth century,
American educators, catering to the taste of the American
ambitions to rise in the business world, opened the
opened the "English course" as opposed to the classical
of the Latin grammar schools which had been the mainstay
of the upper class for centuries. The English course
raised the study of English literature and composition, and
"classical course" had as its basis the study of the
and Latin classics of literature. (18:230) The English
relatively late acceptance of English literature as a
study is the fact that English literature was not
first institution of higher learning as was the case of
English as entrance requirement, and this is so still.

1819. (20:155)

Language students of the nineteenth century
upon English grammar the principles of Latin grammar, partly
because the latter was the one in which they were
and partly because of a desire to understand the
the language and prevent errors in its use.
as those which had taken place in the English language
to establish an English Academy, similar to the French Academy,
were unnecessary, and objected to the study of Latin
grammar which had come into being in the nineteenth century.

1819

of a school of thought which viewed a practical use of the language as more important than formal, logical grammar. As early as 1798, Benjamin Rush of the University of Pennsylvania stated;

I affirm that the construction of our language should be learned by a careful attention to the places and uses of the different parts of speech in agreeable composition and not by contemplating them in disjointed state in an English grammar. (50:154)

From 1860 to 1875 there was considerable agitation of the question of language study, and language lessons and grammar were discussed at meetings of the National Education Association in 1874, 1875, and 1877. The question seems to have remained dormant for a number of years, until 1894, when the Committee of Ten released the following statement:

With regard to the study of formal grammar, the Conference wishes to lay stress on three points: (1) a student may be taught to speak and write good English without receiving any special instruction in formal grammar; (2) the study of formal grammar is valuable as training in thought, but has only an indirect bearing on the art of writing and speaking; and (3) the teaching of formal grammar should be as far as possible incidental and should be brought into close connection with the pupil's work in reading and composition. (50:152)

Although defection from formal grammar actually began much earlier than 1894 with the philosophies of Rousseau and Pestalozzi, most recent critics of the study of grammar have tended to restate the position of the Committee of Ten. (50:152)

Particularly vocal critics of grammar as it has tradi-

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tionally been handled in this country are the linguists. Although the tradition of American linguistics may be said to have started with William Dwight Whitney, who lived from 1827 to 1894 and was professor of Sanskrit at Yale College, it was Frank Boas of Columbia University who set the stage for the development of a modern linguistic science in America with his Handbook of American Indian Languages, published in 1912. (14:19-20) Edward Sapir, Leonard Bloomfield, Otto Jespersen, and Henry Sweet made valuable contributions to the field during the first half of the twentieth century, while Charles C. Fries, Benjamin Whorf, Albert H. Marckwardt, Donald J. Lloyd, Robert A. Hall, Jr., and Paul Roberts are among the more recently recognized leaders in linguistics. Bloomfield and Hall led in urging reform in the attitudes of educators on matters of usage. Linguists strongly hold the opinion that the aspects of English grammar which are conventionally used in teaching in American schools are unnecessarily complicated and even unsound. From the linguists has come an attempt to formulate a new, scientifically based structural grammar. This "new" grammar, widely discussed in professional journals, is the center of much controversy between its adherents and those individuals who retain a belief in the worth of the traditional approach to English grammar.

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II. A SURVEY OF COMMENTS BY INDIVIDUALS WHO REFLECT THE TWO APPROACHES TO GRAMMAR

Evidence of dissatisfaction with the place of grammar in the language arts. In an examination of comments related to the different approaches to grammar, it is worthwhile to note, as a background, instances of dissatisfaction with the place of grammar in the language arts. That the current of discontent has existed for at least fifty years is evidenced by some early writings in The English Journal. In 1913, Brown saw a danger in treating matters of correctness so as ". . . to deduce the false conclusion that good English is necessarily parsable and that the reason for the correctness of an idiom lies in its construction rather than in its general and accepted use." (10:83) A year later, Fish, commenting that college graduates could not write letters without mistakes and that high school students could not spell, placed the blame for such a condition on having too much repetition of the same material on different grade levels. Miss Fish suggested more practice on what is learned, theorizing that English is more an art than a science and, therefore, demands skills obtained by practice and not by rule. Her plea for basic fundamentals to be taught at the grade school level seems a statement of the perennial list of skills desirable in students at all levels. The specific habits which she felt

that a grade school student should have are: (1) the ability to read intelligently, (2) the ability to write correctly constructed sentences with no run-on sentences and no floating dependent elements, and (3) the ability to punctuate and spell correctly a list of about two hundred words which 50 per cent of first year high school pupils misspell. (20:168)

Because from 15 to 20 per cent of entering freshmen at the University of Wisconsin were barred from freshman English courses because they were adjudged by the staff to be unfit to pursue an English course of college grade, in 1914 the University published a guide to help high school English teachers prepare their students for college entrance. The bulletin stressed grammar, spelling, capitalization, and other mechanical matters. (72:238)

In 1922, George P. Wilson, lamenting the weakness of high school students in the fundamental mechanics of English, recommended that more composition should be given throughout the four years of high school, with neither grammar nor composition being slighted in the fourth year. He specifically suggested that students should be impressed with the mechanical phase of composition. (71:355)

Echoes of the attitudes of these earlier writers are consistently heard in the literature throughout the decades since their time. Most of what has been written as sugges-

tions for the improvement of language skills can be placed in one of these three categories: (1) the support of traditional grammar, (2) the recommendation of a functional grammar based on the traditional system, and (3) the advocacy of a "new" grammar based on the linguistic philosophy.

Support of traditional grammar. An article in the Teachers College Record of November, 1906 lists these values of formal grammar:

1. It disciplines the mind.
2. It prepares for the study of other languages.
3. It gives command of an indispensable terminology.
4. It enables one to use better English. (8:7)

One of the strongest statements in support of the traditional view of grammar comes from Keller who, speaking from the standpoint of a college instructor in composition, says that students who get only a ". . . feel of the language in high school . . ." without formal grammatical rules do not know how to write logically and coherently when confronted with the task of doing so in college. He demands a theoretical and analytical study of grammar, although he offers no objective reasons for his stand beyond citing his seven years of experience as a teacher of composition on the college and university level. (35:206)

After having established his position that bad grammar is characteristically a matter of going off the track in the course of a sentence because that sentence was not conceived

tion for the improvement of the...
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1. It discusses...
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from the beginning as a coherent, unified whole, Foley states:

No small part of the blame for deterioration in the English of our college students must be laid upon a class of complacent "authorities" who have found it more comfortable to devise pseudo-scientific euphemisms for plain crudity of language than to support any kind of linguistic discipline. In their view, no standards have any validity as against so called "usage," the term used to cover the careless indifference to distinction of those who have least respect for the niceties of any sort. Conveniently overlooked completely is the real usage, the system which the race slowly evolved through the experience of centuries. That system, which we call grammar, is what basically and essentially makes any language what it is. (21:342)

Although Long concedes that certain changes are necessary in the teaching of English, he feels that a strong case can be made for the traditionalists in regard to their taking the word as the basis for grammar, their use of meaning in grammatical analysis, and their insistence on the written language as the standard of usage. (43:196)

A defense against the common criticism made by the linguists that traditional English grammar uses a terminology superimposed upon it from Latin and is, therefore, outmoded, comes from Warfel in his book Who Killed Grammar?. Warfel explains that:

During the Middle Ages and the Renaissance almost all learning in the Occident was transmitted in the Latin language. The earliest grammars of dialects were written in Latin. That the terminology invented by the Greeks and Romans should survive is as natural as that Latin terminology should survive in law, medicine, botany, and other sciences. (63:76)

Recommendation of a functional grammar based on traditional terminology. Complete support of traditional grammar as a subject worthy of study for its inherent value alone is somewhat difficult to find today. However, there are many voices which speak for a "functional grammar" which retains traditional terminology and philosophy, but which places major emphasis upon application of what is learned.

Tressler believes that research is insufficient and not generally well-enough designed to substantiate any theory that the teaching of formal grammar is not valid. Because grammar allows a person to carry in mind the general pattern of his language rather than being forced to remember detached particulars, Tressler states, and because it provides a terminology in which teachers can talk about badly constructed sentences, it is an important subject. Putting his faith in the judgment of thousands of experienced English teachers, Tressler says that teachers should teach the grammar that is functional and then put each item promptly to use in speech and writing. As examples of grammar which is not functional, Tressler gives such terms as "transitive and intransitive verb," "nominative of address," "predicate objective," and "demonstrative pronoun." As examples of terms of functional grammar, he lists such items as "subject," "verb," "direct object," and "antecedent of a pronoun." (63:401-04)

Although Evans defends formal grammar and attacks the "linguisticists" to whom he refers as "kissing-cousins of the educationists," he admits that some students who have been exposed to much formal grammar nevertheless continue to write ungrammatically. He believes that:

Grammar has failed to do what, at best, it can do because our methods have not been designed to establish and maintain a sufficient connection between grammatical knowledge and the practice of writing. (19:215)

Evans declares that it is important to make certain that the study of grammar is not widely separated in time from the practice of writing, and he suggests that a teacher should "throw out" any grammatical element for which he cannot find a very good and honest answer to the question, "What problems that occur in writing will knowledge of this one element solve or help to solve?" (19:216)

The emphasis in language study, according to Kaulfers, as reported by Cook, should be on helping students to find something interesting and vital to say and in creating situations that give reason for and practice in saying it. The effective teaching of communication, in Kaulfer's opinion, requires that the teacher not begin with grammar, but rather end with it or teach it incidentally along the way. (16:38)

Loban concludes, after a review of studies connected with the problems of language teaching, that the content of grammar used in teaching should be reduced to a few items

Although the... the "linguistic... the education... exposed to much... ungrammatically... because our... and explain... knowledge... Evans desires... study of grammar... practices of writing... "throw out" any... a very good... that occur in writing... solve or help to... The emphasis... as reported by... something interesting... tions that give... effective teaching... realizes that... end with it or... Jordan concludes... with the problem... grammar used in...

that are universally recognized as functional English grammar. He is firm in his belief that teaching systematic grammar is no substitute for teaching English usage and effective expression through continuous practice in the use of the language in meaningful situations. Certain problems which need the most attention, in Loban's opinion, include the past tense and participle in fourteen verbs known to be most difficult (see, do, come, write, etc.), the comma blunder sentence, the dependent adverbial clause used as a sentence, and the agreement of the subject and verb. (41:522)

Typical of those who support functional grammar is Briggs who comments:

Faced with the fact that the amount of grammar that is functional, that can be taught so as to prevent or correct errors, and that can be learned so as to influence the production of confident and effective expression is far less than is ordinarily taught, the advocates of extended formal grammar as it is ordinarily taught are forced to defend the subject either as a phase of liberal education or as a discipline with potent transfer value. (9:39)

Pointing out that much time is wasted on drill meant to correct errors which are seldom made by students who hear good English, Briggs suggests that drill be required only of those students who actually need it, while profitable work in effective expression be required of the others. He says that schools should teach students correct and effective speaking and writing, along with the particular elements of grammar which, in application, contribute to this objec-

tive. (9:40-41)

Brickman (7) recommends a method of teaching grammar which shows the function of a given word, such as a direct object, in the language before a formal definition of it is given. He believes this method causes students to grasp grammatical aspects more readily and to see grammar in the language rather than as a separate discipline.

Judging from his analysis of compositions written by 120 college freshmen, the majority of whom were from the upper 40 per cent of their high school classes and who had not received much instruction in grammar, Binney (6) declares that grammatical understanding is necessary if students are to write effectively. Such grammar, according to Binney, should be functional, not prescriptive.

Advocacy of a grammar based on the linguistic philosophy. Going much further than the functional grammarians, who merely wish to change the emphasis of traditional grammar while retaining its terminology, are those individuals who support a system of applied linguistics.

As early as 1919, Pope (52) spoke of the necessity of incorporating a study of linguistics into schools. She believed that a history of word meanings and a study of word structure set as aids in spelling and vocabulary. Pointing out that the linguistic method is used to help French children

learn a feel for their language, Miss Pope stressed that an acquaintance with the linguistic principles of English was important because:

" . . . it not only helps toward a wide choice of words, but it also does away with bigoted ideas as to what is right and wrong in English; it prevents slavish obedience to the hairsplitting and often groundless distinctions as to usage and pronunciation that are advocated by extreme purists. (52:30)

Jespersen, in a 1924 statement as to what he thought was the best way of teaching English, said that:

" . . . the grammar taught should be English grammar, concrete English grammar, not abstract grammar in the clouds. It should deal primarily with the children's own language and show them how that is constructed and how it serves to express thoughts which the children can understand. They should be made consciously to see the rules they have already learned to follow unconsciously; and these rules should not be given them as something to be learned by rote but as far as possible they must be discovered by the pupils themselves under the guidance of the teacher; the inductive method here is absolutely to be preferred to the deductive method. (34:172)

A basic observation of the linguists is stressed by Vallins who reminds his readers that English, originally a highly inflected language like Latin, Greek, and many other languages, had lost most of its inflections by the end of the medieval period. Although the few remaining inflections may be historically interesting, states Vallins, they have little influence on the pattern or syntax of the modern language which depends on sense relationships, word groupings, and order and arrangement of words, phrases, and clauses. (66:15)

learn a few words, and then, when they are
acquainted with the language, they can
important persons.

"It is not only a few words, but a
word, and it is not only a word, but a
to what is right and wrong, and to
elevated and degraded, and to
grounding the child in the
that the child is a human being.
Language, in a few words, is the
was the best way of teaching the child.

"The child is not a blank slate, but
ground, and it is not only a word, but a
ground in the child, and it is not only
the child is not a blank slate, but
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A child is not a blank slate, but
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In an important evaluation of some of the implications of structural linguistics, Anderson (3) emphasizes the necessity for English teachers to understand an accurate, meaningful description of modern English such as that implied in Vallins's observation. Anderson says:

No self-respecting physicist today can teach Newtonian physics as an adequate description of the natural universe. Nor can English teachers continue to teach indefinitely an outmoded and inaccurate description of our language. (3:412)

An interesting observation by Anderson, not found in comments by other writers, is his appraisal that linguistics has had, in the last thirty years, the effect of changing the general idea of usage. He believes that it is because of the more realistic attitude toward language employed by linguists that English grammar textbooks today evidence a rejection of a rigid doctrine of correctness.* However, there is still much to be done, according to Anderson. Continued use of traditional concepts, definitions, and terminology in describing our grammar, especially the inaccurate, misleading use of the traditional eight parts of speech based on meaning must be replaced, in Anderson's opinion, by the more accurate and meaningful description of the language offered by structural grammar. Anderson says:

*Anderson's comment is refreshing to the investigator who found that most other supporters of the linguistic approach tend to speak of traditional grammar for schools as a much more rigid set of rules than an examination of current texts reveals.

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must be replaced... and meaningful... tural grammar...

who found that... tend to speak... rigid set of...

Of particular importance are the basic sentence patterns; they constitute the backbone and central nervous system of the language. There are not very many of them. Moreover, they are the same in speech and in writing. The important point is that all native speakers already know these basic patterns and use them automatically in speaking. Logically and psychologically, then, this is the best place to begin to improve student writing. (3:414)

Structural grammar, states Anderson, helps to make students aware of the resources there are in their language, and then by imitation and drill to learn to use them habitually in writing. (3:415)

Experience with structures should begin in the early grades, according to Long, who believes that the grammar of the 1960's should be entirely analytic and systematic in origin. (42) He says that English usage should be taught ". . . without a hint of righteousness . . ." to children whose English is substandard and that ". . . the pathetic elegances of schoolma'am English should be given up." (42:268) By using structural grammar as a "lever and not as a bludgeon," Long contends, correction of non-standard English can be achieved through composition and reading. (42:268)

Speaking strongly in praise of the linguistic approach to English in use for several years at Maryland State Teachers College, Burnet (11) reports that after a two week structural survey, the incidence of graphic errors in themes, such as misspellings and typographical errors, is greatly reduced.

of the English language, and the English language is a very complex one. It is a language that has been shaped by many different influences, and it is a language that is constantly changing. The English language is a very rich and varied language, and it is a language that is full of life and energy. It is a language that is full of beauty and grace, and it is a language that is full of power and strength. It is a language that is full of love and compassion, and it is a language that is full of hope and faith. It is a language that is full of life and energy, and it is a language that is full of beauty and grace. It is a language that is full of power and strength, and it is a language that is full of love and compassion. It is a language that is full of hope and faith, and it is a language that is full of life and energy.

Structural elements, English language, and the English language is a very complex one. It is a language that has been shaped by many different influences, and it is a language that is constantly changing. The English language is a very rich and varied language, and it is a language that is full of life and energy. It is a language that is full of beauty and grace, and it is a language that is full of power and strength. It is a language that is full of love and compassion, and it is a language that is full of hope and faith. It is a language that is full of life and energy, and it is a language that is full of beauty and grace. It is a language that is full of power and strength, and it is a language that is full of love and compassion. It is a language that is full of hope and faith, and it is a language that is full of life and energy.

Language with structure should be in the mind. It is a language that has been shaped by many different influences, and it is a language that is constantly changing. The English language is a very rich and varied language, and it is a language that is full of life and energy. It is a language that is full of beauty and grace, and it is a language that is full of power and strength. It is a language that is full of love and compassion, and it is a language that is full of hope and faith. It is a language that is full of life and energy, and it is a language that is full of beauty and grace. It is a language that is full of power and strength, and it is a language that is full of love and compassion. It is a language that is full of hope and faith, and it is a language that is full of life and energy.

By using structure, the English language is a very complex one. It is a language that has been shaped by many different influences, and it is a language that is constantly changing. The English language is a very rich and varied language, and it is a language that is full of life and energy. It is a language that is full of beauty and grace, and it is a language that is full of power and strength. It is a language that is full of love and compassion, and it is a language that is full of hope and faith. It is a language that is full of life and energy, and it is a language that is full of beauty and grace. It is a language that is full of power and strength, and it is a language that is full of love and compassion. It is a language that is full of hope and faith, and it is a language that is full of life and energy.

In addition, Burnet says, "Structural trouble, such as problems of agreement, fragment, tense and word order, all but disappear from student writing." (11:39)

Although structural and traditional analyses coincide 95 per cent of the time, in the opinion of Levin, it is in the marginal 5 per cent area that problems arise. Levin points out that statements of definition or explanation in this area, if based on structural facts, are expressed in terms anyone can test for himself. "It is this fact which essentially constitutes the great superiority of structural over traditional grammar," Levin declares. (39:260-65)

Dealing with the objection voiced by many critics of structural grammar that students must have a knowledge of traditional grammar to prepare them for college entrance, Guyer says that:

It should be quite clear to any inquiring English teacher that a knowledge of traditional grammar is definitely not necessary for success on the University of California Subject A Examination. A few further inquiries, moreover, will reveal that no major college or university in the United States today requires evidence of a knowledge of formal or traditional grammar for entrance to its freshman class. Without exception, English entrance tests emphasize evidence of the student's ability to write thoughtful, organized prose in acceptable American English. (32:171)

In regard to the ability of students to write acceptable prose, Warfel says that when a student is allegedly at a loss of words, such is not the case at all. "No student

lacks words; he lacks experience in putting the words he knows into patterns," declares Warfel. Warfel suggests the idea that the system of language must be lifted to the level of awareness in a student and that his known capacity to speak must be utilized by making the crossover into writing a natural one. (67:210-11)

III. SURVEY OF RELATED STUDIES

Of the many studies that have been made in English language arts, a number provide valuable background for the present study.

Studies concerned with the interrelationships among grammar, composition, and related factors. An investigation by Hoyt in 1906 established coefficients of correlation of .18 between grammar and composition, of .21 between grammar and interpretation, and of .28 between interpretation and composition. His findings led him to state that the relationships among the skills tested were not sufficiently great to conclude that proficiency in any one of them depends upon or is materially influenced by a similar attainment in either of the other abilities. (60:2)

In 1916, Diebel and Sears questioned the efficacy of the methods used in teaching the use of pronouns when their research revealed more mistakes in pronouns were made by

eighth-graders who had received instruction in formal grammar than were made by third-graders who had not received any instruction in grammar. (60:4)

Borass reported in 1917 that he found even less correlation between grammar and ability in composition than between grammar and ability in such subjects as arithmetic, history, and geography. (41:522)

In 1923 Asker (5) compared the grades in freshman composition and those on four tests of grammar for 295 freshmen at the University of Washington and found a correlation of .23 between grammatical knowledge and ability to judge correctness in sentences. He also found a correlation of .37 between grammatical knowledge and ability in composition. However, he observed that this conclusion would be valid only if formal grammar were the only factor used in determining ability in composition. From a .63 correlation found between ability in English composition and composite grades in all subjects, Asker decided that ability to write seems to depend more on general ability than on a knowledge of formal grammar. (5:110)

In 1926, Segel and Barr (55) concluded from a study involving more than one thousand sophomores and juniors in Long Beach, California, that formal grammar has no immediate transfer value so far as applied English grammar is concerned. In arriving at their conclusion, Segel and Barr gave a test of formal grammar and a test of applied grammar which involved

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choice in such items as "I (can or can't) hardly see it." They found a correlation of .56 between a knowledge of formal grammar and applied grammar. They also summarized the average grades made in the low and high sophomore and low junior classes, from which summary they found an increase in scores on applied grammar, but a decrease in scores on formal grammar. They concluded that ". . . evidently formal grammar is forgotten, but language usage is improved." (55:402)

Because the use of diagraming as a teaching method has long been a subject of controversy in the traditional teaching of English, several studies have been made to determine the effectiveness of this method. Of particular interest is a study done in 1952 by Tovatt (62) in which he asked a selected group of 150 adults, including college students, teachers, and P.T.A. members, to diagram the sentence "Practically all boys play baseball at a very early age." These adults were also asked (1) if when they wrote, they visualized the elements of their sentences as they would diagram them and (2) what item they would suggest be given most emphasis in high school English classes. Of the 150 persons who participated in the study, only 4 per cent could diagram the sentence. Of the six who diagramed it successfully, only two said that they used diagraming skills in their own writing. However, 82 per cent of those who were unable to diagram the sentence

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88 per cent...

maintained that when they wrote they visualized sentence elements as they would diagram them, and 27 per cent of this group wanted more grammar in the English program with emphasis on diagraming. Tovatt concluded that the carryover value of diagraming to actual writing should be seriously questioned, after noting that persons who cannot diagram still think they use this skill. (62:93) There is sufficient reason, in Tovatt's opinion, to believe that diagraming is a sterile skill. (60:9)

Barghahn, Barnett, Butterfield, and Steward have also done separate studies to determine the effect of diagraming as an aid to growth in reading, usage, and sentence structure. They were in agreement, according to Strom (60:9) in her review of their studies, that diagraming of sentences contributes little or nothing to growth in these skills and that diagraming has little or no value in itself and does not lend itself to correlation with other subjects. However, they also agreed that practice in diagraming produces greater skill in diagraming.

Benfer, working with sixth-grade pupils, concluded, according to Strom (60:5), that there is very little effective transfer between ability to identify subjects and predicates and ability to recognize sentences. The ability to recognize subjects and predicates in sentences, furthermore, seemed to be little related to the ability to identify sentences in a

maintained that the... elements in their... group wanted... on diagnosis... diagraming to... after noting that... use this skill... opinion, to... Hargrave, August... done separate... as an aid to... they were in... review of their... tributes little... that diagnosis... lent itself to... they also agreed... skill in... before, working... according to... transfer between... and ability to... subjects and... be little related to the ability to...

list of isolated groups of words.

According to Strom, Smith found in 1941 that in small town New York high schools emphasizing study of classificatory grammar and drill work rather than motivated practice in writing and speaking, pupils received a percentile rank of only eight in ability to write. (60:5)

In general, the findings of the foregoing studies give rise to a serious doubt as to the value of the study of grammar in promoting practical skill in writing. However, an important observation in this regard is made by Carroll who says that:

Research on the effectiveness of teaching English grammar in improving English composition has been mainly negative, but until this research has been repeated with improved methods of teaching English grammar, I will remain unconvinced that grammar is useless in this respect. (13:324)

Studies concerned with the teaching of grammatical usage, sentence structure, and other problem areas in writing.

Wykoff (73) reported in 1945 on a study conducted at Purdue University to obtain information regarding the truth or falsity of the common assumption that the knowledge which students have of functional grammar and of punctuation has a direct bearing upon the correctness of their writing. For six years the English Department kept records of grades obtained by students on a grammar test taken after a three week

review of grammar which emphasized items of functional grammar couched in traditional terms. The Department also kept records of theme grades given these students on themes written once a week and graded primarily for correctness of composition and secondarily for style and content. From the results of a total of 5,125 individual cases collected during the six year period, the conclusion was drawn that:

. . . students with a knowledge of usable grammatical terms will belong to a group which will, at least 90 per cent of the time, write better themes than students with a smaller amount of knowledge of such grammar. (73:393)

Reservations regarding the conclusion include the possibility of variation in instructors' grading of the themes, the fact that the grading of themes included factors other than grammar and punctuation, the possibility that the themes may have represented an increase in knowledge of grammar obtained in the process of the review and in the correction of errors on individual themes, and the fact that possibly related factors such as intelligence or socio-economic background were not included in the study. (73:393)

Testing grammar approach versus thought approach in teaching sentence structure, Frogner (26) (27) found that the thought approach proved superior, especially for all pupils with an intelligence quotient of 105 or lower. Pupils with higher intelligence quotients seemed to profit as much

from one approach as the other. The investigator reported that the nongrammatical approach took only 80 per cent of the time required by the method involving use of grammar. She indicated a need for further research to determine the extent to which ability in language is a result of:

. . . (1) knowledge of grammar, (2) habit formation and the establishment of patterns of expression, and (3) a realization of the social purpose of language in expressing ideas clearly and effectively. (27:674)

Kraus (37) conducted an experiment involving three methods of teaching sentence structure, the results of which indicated that sentence structure should be taught by the thought method and that greatest gains in learning were effected when instruction in specific errors grew out of the student's own work. Kraus suggested as a specific point of needed research this question:

Will the presentation of sentence structure according to the structural patterns suggested by C. C. Fries and others hasten improvement in writing? (37:231)

Strom (60) reports on an unpublished doctoral study made at Purdue University in 1952 by Maize in which he used experimental and control groups of "retarded college freshmen" to compare the effectiveness of the experience, or thought approach, and the grammatical approach in teaching students effective habits of language application. The group using the grammar textbook, workbook and drill method

showed statistically significant improvement in vocabulary, mechanics, and grammar. However, it was reported that:

Significant changes were made in controlled and free composition by the experimental group taught by the writing laboratory method dominated by the philosophy that students learn their language by using it continuously under the guidance of an instructor who provides the setting, directive force, and motivation for the individual to improve. (60:7)

In a doctoral study made in 1939, which involved 276 New Jersey fourth, fifth, and sixth graders and which was designed to compare the effect on sentence structure of teaching precise, formal grammar and incidental teaching, Milligan (48) found that the incidental method, which gave instruction in grammar only as the teacher saw a need for it in student writing, was slightly more effective in changing sentence structure than was the precise, formal grammar method. Milligan reported that many important items, such as run-on sentences and fragments were not positively affected by either method. (48:92)

Although Mallis (44) offered no objective evaluation of the experiment, she reported in 1957 on the results of teaching a greatly simplified version of the formulas of Roberts and Fries. She claimed favorable reaction from students, their use of greater care in stating an idea, and evidence of clearer and more vivid writing.

In the 1959-1960 school year, Suggs (61) conducted an

experiment to compare the writing progress of an experimental group studying Roberts's Patterns of English with a control group studying traditional grammar during a thirteen week period of time. She reported that a difference of ten points in the average converted scores of the two groups on the Cooperative-Sequential Tests of Educational Progress--Writing ". . . lends definite proof that instruction in the English language according to the principles of linguistic science is superior to traditional grammar in its practical application to writing." (61:178) Suggs also reported that the improvement of the traditional grammar group on the Cooperative English Test--Test E1: Effectiveness of Expression was only 70.5 of that of the experimental group. On a teacher-made test designed to measure understanding of subject matter, the traditional grammar group had an average of 48.5% of correct responses, and the experimental group had an average of 79.5% correct responses. (61:177)

A study related to the status of structural grammar. In 1960, Alva (2) reported the results of a study designed to determine the major criticisms of structural grammar and the extent to which structural grammar was being used in the public high schools of California. He discovered little evidence to support a charge that structural grammar is too difficult to be understood, and he found that teachers report

no serious problems in student or teacher difficulty with the terminology and methodology of structural grammar.

Alva found that structural grammar was being used by almost 4 per cent of the approximately four thousand teachers of English in the public high schools of California. Although instruction in structural grammar was found at all high school levels, it was used especially in the ninth and tenth grades. The texts most frequently used were Paul Roberts's Patterns of English and Charles C. Fries's The Structure of English.

Analyzing the judgments of teachers using structural grammar, Alva reported that three-fourths of them said that there was no serious difficulty with students transferring from instruction in traditional grammar to instruction in structural grammar. Two-thirds of his respondents indicated that use of structural grammar improved class morale. One-third of the reporting teachers felt that structural grammar was more helpful than traditional grammar in improving student writing; one-half of the teachers "did not know"; the rest reported "no difference." Alva observed that:

This judgment needs the most careful investigation since it concerns the hypothesis that a relationship exists between knowledge of structural grammar and improved student writing. (2:610)

In his general conclusions, Alva states:

Teachers, disturbed and irritated by the futility of repeated instruction in traditional grammar, are

finding in structural grammar a far more satisfactory method of studying language. (2:611)

IV. A COMPARISON OF THE PHILOSOPHIES AND METHODOLOGIES OF TRADITIONAL AND STRUCTURAL GRAMMAR

This study proceeded, as noted earlier, from certain basic assumptions regarding the traditional and structural approaches to grammar. An attempt is made in this section to clarify these underlying assumptions. Throughout this discussion, "traditional grammar" refers to the system of grammar which employs traditional terminology and methods, whether it be a system of "pure" grammar or "functional" grammar. "Structural grammar" refers both to the system of analysis implied by the term and to the underlying basis of a linguistic approach to language study.

Comparison of the Philosophies of Traditional and Structural Grammar

Sherwood (57) offers a comprehensive comparison of the two systems of grammar when he declares that:

The difference between the two grammars is not a question of accuracy or progressiveness, but of fundamental premises. What the two grammars really reflect is two ways of looking at language, two ideals of language, and perhaps in the end, two ways of life. (57:280)

Traditional grammar, in Sherwood's opinion, stands for order, logic, consistency, continuity, tradition, and univer-

salinity. It represents, he says, the supremacy of the written language and of the literate classes in setting linguistic standards. A system developed by tradition and the authority of masters rather than by statistical study, it values the language of momentous and dignified occasions over casual talk. It does not accept the chaos of experience, but attempts to establish order within that experience. Sherwood further states:

It is a grammar for the idealistic, for Ortega y Gasset's "select man," who is willing to live up to higher standards than the generality are willing to impose on themselves. (57:276)

The structural linguistic approach, according to Sherwood, stands for the social-scientific view of life which sees the proper standard of conduct as conformity to the mores of the group. Sherwood says of this approach that:

It represents a linguistic Rousseauism, a belief that man's language is best and most real when spontaneous and unpremeditated, and that it is somehow tainted by the efforts of educational systems to order and regularize it. (57:277)

From Sherwood's subjective evaluation, couched in emotionally charged words, it is well to turn to a more methodical examination of the apparent differences between the two systems. Since a search of the literature did not reveal a precise statement of the concepts of traditional grammar, but did provide such a statement for the linguistic approach, the comparison will be made by examining the

self. It represents, he says, the diversity of the spoken language and of the different classes in society. It is a system developed by tradition and the authority of masters rather than by scientific study, and values the language of common sense and practical necessity over formal talk. It does not accept the idea of experience, but attempts to establish order within that experience. Sharwood

Further stated:

It is a principle for the intelligible, for Oshana. Gassat's "selected man," who is willing to live up to higher standards than the majority and willing to impose on themselves. (1912:13)

The structural language is accepted, according to Sharwood, stands for the social-educational view of life which sees the proper standard of conduct as centrally to the moves of the group. Sharwood says of this approach that it represents a linguistic knowledge, a belief that man's language is best and most real when spontaneous and unmediated, and that it is some how defined by the efforts of educational systems to order and regulate it. (1912:14)

From Sharwood's subjective evaluation, covered in emotionally charged words, it is well to turn to a more methodical examination of the apparent differences between the two systems. Since a search of the literature did not reveal a precise statement of the concepts of traditional grammar, we did provide such a statement for the linguistic approach, the comparison will be made by examining the

related traditional opinion for each of the five basic concepts of the linguistic approach. These five basic concepts, as given in the chapter entitled "The Modern View of Grammar and Linguistics" in the 1952 report of the Commission on the English Curriculum, The English Language Arts, (15:275-78) are:

1. Language changes constantly.
2. Change is normal.
3. Spoken language is the language.
4. Correctness rests upon usage.
5. All usage is relative.

Language changes constantly. The difference between the linguistic and traditional approaches in regard to this observation seems to be more a matter of emphasis than anything else. Certainly no one denies that, for instance, the first line of the Lord's Prayer as it was written in A.D. 900, "Faeder ure thu the eart on heofenum, si thin nama gehalgod," is actually quite different from the modern rendition of the line, "Our Father, which art in Heaven, hallowed be thy name." (53:3) However, while the linguistic approach to language calls attention to such change and brings it to the level of awareness, the traditional approach seems seldom to mention it or to attempt to impress the student with the dynamic nature of his language.

Change is normal. A living language, by the very nature of being alive, must change. Linguists accept this

related traditional... cases of the... as given in the... and... English...

- 1. Language change...
- 2. Change in...
- 3. Spoken...
- 4. Written...
- 5. All...

Language change... the linguistic... observation... thing else... first line... "Pader... is actually... line, "Our... name," (33;3)... language... level of awareness... mention it or to attempt to...

dynamic nature of the... Chinese is... nature of being...

change as normal and even desirable because such change, they believe, is in the direction of simplification and clarification. (15:275) Traditionalists, while not denying that language changes, apparently feel that change must be evaluated against an accepted standard before it is to be accepted as desirable.

Spoken language is the language. The linguist points out that the language of today, in his opinion, is not to be found in books but on the lips of those who are currently speaking it. (15:276) He considers the spoken language as primary and the written language as only an inadequate representation of the spoken language. The traditionalist, on the other hand, accepts a system which is built around aspects of the language which appear in the usual written form. (70:389)

Correctness rests upon usage. "The only basis for correctness in grammar must be usage, the usage of those people who are carrying on the affairs of English-speaking people," said Fries (25:637) in 1925. This statement has stood as a major linguistic tenet since that time. That correct usage is defined by dictionaries and grammar books is the stand apparently taken by the traditionalist. In his book Introduction to the English Language, Marckwardt (45) makes an important observation in regard to this appeal by the traditionalist to the authority of the dictionary. In his discussion of

change as normal and even desirable under certain circumstances, they believe, is in the direction of simplification and classification. (12:275) That is, however, while not denying that language changes, apparently feel that change must be evaluated against an accepted standard before it can be accepted as desirable.

Spoken language as the standard. The linguistic point of view that the language of today, in its spoken form, is the one to be found in books but on the lips of those who are currently speaking it. (13:276) He considers the spoken language as primary and the written language as only an inadequate representation of the spoken language. The traditionalist, on the other hand, accepts a system which is built around aspects of the language which appear in the written form. (13:277)

Correctness rests upon usage. "The only basis for correctness is usage," he says, "the usage of those people who are carrying on the affairs of English-speaking people." said Fries (13:287) in 1925. This statement has stood as a major linguistic tenet since that time. That correctness is defined by dictionaries and grammar books is the standard apparently taken by the traditionalist. In his book Introduc- tion to the English language, Greenberg (43) makes an important observation in regard to this aspect of the traditionalist's view to the authority of the dictionary. In his discussion of

the way a dictionary is compiled, Marckwardt points out that although publishers of dictionaries are fond of using in their advertising such phrases as "standard authority" and "final authority," there is a frank admission of the appeal to usage as a standard of correctness found in the Webster Guide to Pronunciation of Webster's New International Dictionary.

Marckwardt quotes from the Guide to Pronunciation:

The function of a pronouncing dictionary is to record as far as possible the pronunciations prevailing in the best present usage, rather than to attempt to dictate what that usage should be. In so far as a dictionary may be known and acknowledged as a faithful recorder and interpreter of such usage, so far and no farther may it be appealed to as an authority. (45:73)

All usage is relative. While the linguistic assumption is that standard usage is not an absolute but rather something determined by social acceptability, the traditional assumption is that the standard language is an absolute which can be taught on the basis of the authority of the dictionary, a grammar book, or the teacher's say-so. (33:186) Carroll summarizes the linguistic concept of usage when he states that:

The problem of correct usage is complex. Linguistic analysis of the various levels of standard and colloquial speech, with their changes in the course of time, show that "correctness" is a relativistic concept. A given form is "correct" for a given variety of speech in a given historical period. But since language usage is a marker of cultural, social, and educational status (whether one likes it or not), a speaker must presumably be careful in choosing

the way a dialect may be regarded, however, points out that although purveyors of dialects are not of kind in their advertising such dialects as "standard English" and "literary authority," there is a large admission of the appeal to them as a standard of correctness found in the Webster's dictionary. Formulation of Webster's new International Dictionary. Markwardt quotes from the Guide to Pronunciation:

The function of a prescriptive dictionary is to record as far as possible the orthographic and grammatical usage in the past and present usage, rather than to attempt to dictate what usage should be. In so far as a dictionary may be known and acknowledged as a prescriptive and interpretive of such usage, no far and no farther may it be regarded as an authority. (45-46)

All usage is relative. While the linguistic assumption is that standard usage is not an absolute but rather something determined by social acceptability, the traditional assumption is that the standard language is an absolute which can be taught on the basis of the authority of the dictionary, a grammar book, or the Webster's dictionary. (35-36) Carroll summarizes the linguistic concept of usage when he states:

That:

The problem of correct usage is complex. Language is the analysis of the various levels of standard and colloquial speech, with their changes in the course of time, now that "correctness" is a relative concept. A given form is "correct" for a given variety of speech in a given historical period. But since language usage is a matter of cultural, social, and educational status (whether one likes it or not), a speaker must presumably be careful in choosing

his forms of expression if he wants social approval from a given group. (14:153)

In view of the frequent charge in traditionalist writing that the linguist stands for an "anything goes" attitude toward usage, it should be stated that the investigator found unanimous agreement among linguistic writers that it is the duty of the schools to teach sensible, socially acceptable standards of usage to students.

A minority report. In 1952, Harry R. Warfel wrote Who Killed Grammar?, a book termed on its book jacket "a minority report" on the chapter from The English Language Arts which was used as the basis for the foregoing comparison. In his book Warfel voiced criticism of Fries's American English Grammar and The Structure of English and of the five basic assumptions outlined in The English Language Arts. Contending that the "new" linguists are to blame for misleading teachers and administrators and effecting a decline in the reputation of grammar in American schools, he presented the principles which he felt were deserving of consideration in the formulation of a new philosophy of English language teaching. Some of his specific suggestions were (1) accepting the written language as a prime concern in obtaining a full and adequate description of the language, (2) providing absolute fixity of terminological meaning, (3) retaining a

...this form of ...
from a given ...
In view of the ...
the ...
usage, it ...
unanimous ...
duty of the ...
standards of ...

A minority report ...
Who Killed Grammar ...
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the written ...
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classification of grammatical categories on the basis of meaning content of the classified material until a better system arises, and (4) providing normative rules of language usage. (68:68-87)

In 1956, Warfel and Donald J. Lloyd (40) published American English in Its Cultural Setting, a book for ". . . all those who have tangled with the English language in school or out and have come away bruised." (40:v) Essentially a college-level textbook, American English in Its Cultural Setting presents a view of language in terms of patterns and their application to reading and writing. Obviously more linguistic than traditional in its approach, the book, nevertheless, reflects some of the suggestions made by Warfel in Who Killed Grammar?. The most important of these is the assumption in the textbook that written English is to be of prime concern in learning about and working with the "patterns" system. (40:288)

Comparison of the Methodologies of Traditional and Structural Grammar

Just as there is not a specific method employed in teaching grammar from the "new" linguistic approach, there has never been a universally approved method used in the traditional approach. Methods employed are, undoubtedly, as numerous as the teachers using them. However, certain

classification of the material... meaning... system... (33:55-57)

In 1956, Warfel and... American... "All those who have... in school or out... tially a college-level... Cultural setting... patterns and... only more... book, newspaper, radio... Warfel in his... is the assumption... be of prime... "patterns" system. (33:58-59)

Comparison of the... Grammar

Just as there is... teaching grammar from the... has never been a... traditional... as numerous as...

basic differences in methodology can be stated from the background of the investigator's experience with both approaches to grammar and from an examination of the literature.

Terminology. The traditional approach to a definition of the parts of the language depends primarily on meaning, while the linguistic approach utilizes structural features. For example, the traditional definition of a noun is "a word that is the name of a person, place, or thing." A structurally-based definition states, "A noun is a word that patterns like the words, apple, beauty, or desk."

I saw the apple.

I was disappointed in the apple.

The apple is gone.

Apples are plentiful in Washington. (53:13)

Usage. The traditional approach appeals to the authority of textbook writers and the dictionary, while the linguistic approach introduces the concept of "levels of usage" and leads the student to accept the usage appropriate at a given level, stressing that the criterion of correctness is fundamentally a social one. (14:54) In this connection, Hall suggests that non-standard speakers should be approached on the basis of "getting what you want out of life," social acceptance, rather than on the basis of some abstract "right" or "wrong," "good" or "bad." (33:189)

basic differences in methodology can be stated from the very
ground of the investigator's experience with both approaches
to grammar and from an examination of the literature.

Philology. The traditional approach to a language
of the parts of the language demands primarily an analysis
while the linguistic approach relies on structural features.
For example, the traditional definition of a noun is "a
word that is the name of a person, place, or thing," a
structurally-based definition states, "a noun is a word which
patterns like the words, apple, banana, or day."

I saw the apple.
I was disappointed in the apple.
The apple is gone.
Apples are plentiful in Washington, D.C.

Usage. The traditional approach appeals to the
authority of textbook writers and the dictionary, while the
linguistic approach introduces the concept of "usage."
Usage" and loads the student to accept the usage approach
at a given level, assuming that the criterion of correctness
is fundamentally a social one. (Hall, 1961) In this connection,
Hall suggests that non-standard dialects and idiosyncratic
on the basis of "feeling that you were out of it," called
acceptance, rather than on the basis of some standard
or "wrong," "good" or "bad."

Analysis of sentences. While both systems agree on the importance of an understanding of the sentence, their definitions of a sentence differ. While the traditional approach views the sentence as a group of words with a subject and a predicate which expresses a complete thought, the structural approach presents the sentence as one of a number of word patterns which is complete when the given pattern has been completed. (53:58)

An analysis of the same sentence by each of the two methods follows in order to clarify this difference.

The boy in the blue coat is handsome.

Traditional analysis

The	-	adjective or article
boy	-	noun used as subject
in	-	preposition
the	-	adjective or article
blue	-	adjective describing "coat"
coat	-	noun used as the object of preposition
is	-	verb, the <u>predicate</u>
handsome	-	predicate adjective, follows a linking verb and describes the subject

This group of words is a sentence because it contains a subject and a predicate and expresses a complete thought.

Structural analysis (following Roberts's Patterns of English)

Basic pattern:

1	2L	3
Noun	Linking verb	Adjective

Expanded pattern: P - G R O U P

D	1	P	D	3	1	2L	3
Deter-	Noun	Prepo-	Deter-	Adjec-	Noun	Link-	Ad-
miner		sition	miner	tive		ing	jec-
						Verb	tive

The - determiner, pointing to a noun that will follow
 boy - noun, a word that patterns like apple, tied to
is and, therefore, the subject of is
 in the blue coat - a P-group modifying boy

(A P-group consists of a preposi-
 tion plus its noun. A preposi-
 tion is a word that patterns with
 a following noun with which it
 forms a tight unit.) (53:87)

is - a linking verb tied to boy
 handsome - a "3" word or adjective (patterns like
happy) which completes the sen-
 tence pattern

This group of words is a complete sentence because it
 contains words which function in such a way as to
 complete one of the basic sentence patterns of the
 English language.

Miscellaneous. Traditionally, English grammar requires
 the memorization of the definitions of many terms and concepts,
 and there is considerable emphasis on analyzing sentences by
 diagraming or some other method. Structurally, English gram-
 mar requires some memorization, such as that of the sentence
 patterns, but there is much emphasis on seeing how words work
 in given sentences and on working orally with patterns to
 learn to build, rather than analyze, sentences.

The use of nonsense terms to emphasize the importance
 of structure, rather than word meaning, in the patterns of the

English system is another feature of the structural approach.

The following word groups are examples of this feature:

The mogwog in the blik dak is frusome.
A yob in the eulb taoc is emosdnah.

These nonsense sentences are intelligible in terms of their pattern, just as is the following sentence using real words which follows the same pattern:

The boy in the blue coat is handsome.

V. SUMMARY

Conclusions from a survey of related literature in the field of traditional and structural grammars and their relation to the total area of the language arts resolve themselves into several main areas.

Historically, English grammar became important as a subject of instruction in the eighteenth century with the emergence of a new middle class which sought to rise in the social, business, and commercial world. English grammar, based on Latin and Greek grammar, has been the subject of controversial discussion throughout the time of its existence. One school of thought holds that grammar in its traditional form has inherent value as a subject of logic. Another school of thought consists of those who believe that although traditional terminology and concepts should be retained, much that is now included in traditional grammar should be dis-

English system is another feature of the structural approach.

The following word groups are examples of this feature:

The morning in the fifth day is known.
A boy in the fifth year is handsome.

These nonsense sentences are intelligible in terms of their pattern, just as is the following sentence using real words

which follows the same pattern:

The boy in the fifth year is handsome.

2. SUMMARY

Conclusions from a survey of related literature in the field of traditional and structural grammar and their relation to the total area of the language arts receive themselves into several main areas.

Historically, English grammar became important as a subject of instruction in the eighteenth century with the emergence of a new middle class which sought to rise in the social, business, and commercial world. English grammar, based on Latin and Greek grammar, has been the subject of controversial discussion throughout the time of its existence. One school of thought holds that grammar in its traditional form has inherent value as a subject of study. Another school of thought consists of those who believe that although traditional terminology and concepts should be retained, much that is now included in traditional grammar should be dis-

carded and that only its functional features should be stressed, with emphasis on their application. A third school of thought believes that grammar, as traditionally presented, is worthless because it is based on false assumptions and should, therefore, be replaced by a structural grammar based on the findings of the study of linguistics.

In the field of educational research, there is considerable evidence of a lack of positive relationship between the study of grammar and ability in writing. Most of the research pointing to this conclusion has been based on a traditional approach to grammar, and there are suggestions in the literature that such research, based on the new approach to grammar, be done before results are accepted as conclusive. There is evidence that structural grammar is becoming more widely used, and there is at least one experiment on record which points to the superiority of structural grammar in producing desired results in student writing. Considerable evidence is recorded to support the claim that a thought approach, rather than a grammatical approach, is more valuable in teaching sentence structure.

In regard to the main differences in the philosophies of traditional grammar and structural grammar, those differences seem to lie chiefly in attitudes concerning (1) the change inherent in language, (2) the desirability of such change,

stated and that only the traditional approach is
 with emphasis on the traditional approach. It is
 believes that grammar, as traditionally understood, is
 idea because it is based on the traditional approach.
 therefore, he rejected the traditional approach and
 findings of the study on grammar.

In the field of educational research, there is
 considerable evidence of a lack of understanding
 between the study of grammar and writing. In fact,
 the research pointing to the relation between the two
 a traditional approach to grammar, and that the traditional
 in the literature field, which is the traditional
 approach to grammar, is not based on the traditional
 conclusive. There is a need for a new approach to
 becoming more relevant to the study of grammar and
 based on research pointing to the relation between the two
 grammar in grammar, which is the traditional approach
 considerable evidence of a lack of understanding
 a thought approach, which is the traditional approach,
 more valuable in research on grammar.

In regard to the study of grammar, it is
 of traditional grammar, which is the traditional
 seen to be the study of grammar, which is the traditional
 inherent in grammar, which is the traditional

(3) the basis--spoken or written language--of grammar, (4) the standard for correctness, and (5) the concept of levels of usage. There is essential agreement among the leading linguists regarding the concepts of the linguistic approach as noted by the Commission on the English Curriculum in The English Language Arts, with the exception of Warfel who emphasizes written language as the basis for sentence patterns in the textbook of which he is co-author.

Differences in the methodologies of traditional grammar and structural grammar center around terminology, usage, sentence analysis, and miscellaneous considerations.

(5) the fact—specimen of a full language of the
the standard for comparison, and (6) the necessity of the
of usage, which is to be taken into account in the
linguists regarding the necessity of the linguistic approach
as noted by the translation of the English language in
the English language, which is the exception of the
emphasis and the language of the English language
in the context of which is to be taken into account.
The difference in the methodology of the English language
and structural grammar is noted around the language, usage,
sentence analysis, and the linguistic approach.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This chapter describes the design of the experiment undertaken in this investigation. Explanations of the procedures used in the organization of the study, of the teaching and testing procedures employed, and an account of the materials used in carrying out the study are included.

I. PROCEDURES USED IN ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Selection of groups to be used in the study. A total of 134 ninth grade students at Madison Junior High School, Albuquerque, New Mexico, was available to act as subjects of this study. Of this total, 102 students were in three ninth grade English classes taught by the investigator, and 32 students were in a ninth grade English class taught by Miss Dawn Hendrix, also of the Madison faculty. In order to have a larger number of subjects available for the two experimental groups, all of the classes taught by the investigator were assigned to instruction by either the traditional approach or the structural approach. The decision to have all three of the investigator's classes serve as the components of the two experimental groups obviously meant having more subjects using one approach than the other, since one of the three

would have to be arbitrarily assigned to one or the other method. A toss of a coin determined the class to be assigned the traditional approach, while the other two classes were assigned the structural approach. The two classes assigned the structural approach were designated as a single group, Experimental Group A. The class assigned the traditional approach was called Experimental Group B, and the class acting as the control group was designated Group C.

Data for eighteen of the original cases were discarded in tabulating the results of the study because of the incompleteness of those data due to absences of the subjects for one day or more during the pre-testing or post-testing. A total of 116 cases was left. Table I shows the numerical total of subjects comprising the groups formed for the experiment, the number of boys and girls in each group, and the mean intelligence quotient for each of the groups.

Intelligence quotients for members of the groups. Intelligence quotients for all members of all groups, derived from the California Test of Mental Maturity, (Short Form) were obtained from the school counselor's office. This test was administered by the counselor during the second week of October, 1959.

would have to be arbitrarily assigned to one or the other method. A total of 100 subjects determined the class to be assigned the traditional approach, while the other two classes were assigned the structural approach. The two classes assigned the structural approach were designated as a single group, Experimental Group A. The class assigned the traditional approach was called Experimental Group B, and the class acting as the control group was designated Group C.

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TABLE I

NUMERICAL TOTAL, MEAN I.Q., AND NUMBER
OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN EACH GROUP
USED IN THE STUDY

	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP A	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP B	CONTROL GROUP C
Original no. in group	70	32	32
No. of cases discarded	14	1	3
Total cases included	56	31	29
Boys	37	16	15
Girls	19	15	14
Mean I. Q.	104	111	105

This report was prepared by the
 Statistical Section of the
 Bureau of Census, U.S. Department of Commerce
 under the direction of the Chief of Bureau
 and under the immediate supervision of the
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Original no. in group	No. of cases discarded	Total cases included	Boys	Girls	Mean I. Q.
1	1	1	1	0	100
2	1	1	1	0	100
3	1	1	1	0	100
4	1	1	1	0	100
5	1	1	1	0	100
6	1	1	1	0	100
7	1	1	1	0	100
8	1	1	1	0	100
9	1	1	1	0	100
10	1	1	1	0	100
11	1	1	1	0	100
12	1	1	1	0	100
13	1	1	1	0	100
14	1	1	1	0	100
15	1	1	1	0	100
16	1	1	1	0	100
17	1	1	1	0	100
18	1	1	1	0	100
19	1	1	1	0	100
20	1	1	1	0	100
21	1	1	1	0	100
22	1	1	1	0	100
23	1	1	1	0	100
24	1	1	1	0	100
25	1	1	1	0	100
26	1	1	1	0	100
27	1	1	1	0	100
28	1	1	1	0	100
29	1	1	1	0	100
30	1	1	1	0	100
31	1	1	1	0	100
32	1	1	1	0	100
33	1	1	1	0	100
34	1	1	1	0	100
35	1	1	1	0	100
36	1	1	1	0	100
37	1	1	1	0	100
38	1	1	1	0	100
39	1	1	1	0	100
40	1	1	1	0	100
41	1	1	1	0	100
42	1	1	1	0	100
43	1	1	1	0	100
44	1	1	1	0	100
45	1	1	1	0	100
46	1	1	1	0	100
47	1	1	1	0	100
48	1	1	1	0	100
49	1	1	1	0	100
50	1	1	1	0	100
51	1	1	1	0	100
52	1	1	1	0	100
53	1	1	1	0	100
54	1	1	1	0	100
55	1	1	1	0	100
56	1	1	1	0	100
57	1	1	1	0	100
58	1	1	1	0	100
59	1	1	1	0	100
60	1	1	1	0	100
61	1	1	1	0	100
62	1	1	1	0	100
63	1	1	1	0	100
64	1	1	1	0	100
65	1	1	1	0	100
66	1	1	1	0	100
67	1	1	1	0	100
68	1	1	1	0	100
69	1	1	1	0	100
70	1	1	1	0	100
71	1	1	1	0	100
72	1	1	1	0	100
73	1	1	1	0	100
74	1	1	1	0	100
75	1	1	1	0	100
76	1	1	1	0	100
77	1	1	1	0	100
78	1	1	1	0	100
79	1	1	1	0	100
80	1	1	1	0	100
81	1	1	1	0	100
82	1	1	1	0	100
83	1	1	1	0	100
84	1	1	1	0	100
85	1	1	1	0	100
86	1	1	1	0	100
87	1	1	1	0	100
88	1	1	1	0	100
89	1	1	1	0	100
90	1	1	1	0	100
91	1	1	1	0	100
92	1	1	1	0	100
93	1	1	1	0	100
94	1	1	1	0	100
95	1	1	1	0	100
96	1	1	1	0	100
97	1	1	1	0	100
98	1	1	1	0	100
99	1	1	1	0	100
100	1	1	1	0	100

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II. PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN CARRYING OUT THE STUDY

Over-all Plan of the Experiment

The experiment began on April 10, 1961, and ended on May 23, 1961, with two class days within this span of time being devoted to necessary school activities other than the teaching of English. The over-all plan of the experiment was to use the thirty class periods of fifty minutes length to (1) administer pre-tests, (2) teach English grammar by the traditional approach to one group and by the structural approach to the other group, and (3) to administer post-tests.

Pre-tests

During the first three days of the experimental period, each group was given three pre-tests.

Recognition of sentence structure errors test. A Sentence Structure Errors Test, Form A, prepared by the investigator, was given to all groups. This test, for which no claims of validity or reliability may be made, was prepared when the investigator failed to find in available reviews of published tests an instrument specifically designed to measure ability to recognize the particular types of sentence structure errors deemed important for the purposes of this study.

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Standardized language test. Test 5, Mechanics of English, The California Language Test for Junior High School, Form X, 1957 edition, was given to all groups. The reliability coefficient of this instrument is .92.

Composition test. A Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test, Form A, prepared by the investigator, was given to all groups. This test consisted of the following procedures:

1. Students were shown the picture entitled "The Blazing Hills," one of the "Face of America" series in The Saturday Evening Post, which appeared in the January 7, 1961, edition of that magazine.
2. Students were instructed to write in class a 300-400 word interpretative theme after viewing the picture.
3. Students were told to interpret the picture in any way they chose and to write their interpretation in complete sentences.

This test of composition, for which no claims of validity or reliability may be made, was chosen when the investigator failed to find in available reviews of published tests an instrument designed to measure in a student theme the presence or absence of the particular types of sentence structure errors considered important for the purposes of this study. The investigator's decision to use this method of testing composition skill was further influenced by Pooley's opinion that experienced teacher judgment is at present a more valid measure of composition skill than any present test. (51:174)

Teaching of the Groups

Following the pre-testing, each group received twenty-four class periods of instruction. Experimental Group A was taught English grammar from the structural approach as interpreted in Paul Roberts's Patterns of English. Experimental Group B was taught English grammar from the traditional approach with English in Practice 9, Revised, by Gray, Sparks, Stephen, and Wagner as the reference for all lessons. Both groups were given practice in composition only to the extent of writing sentences involved in exercises and practices evolving from specific points of the instructional material. All material was prepared by the investigator in duplicated form, with the permission of Harcourt, Brace and Company and McCormick-Mathers Publishing Co., Inc., publishers of Patterns of English and English in Practice 9, respectively.

Table II presents the topics covered in the instructional material for Experimental Group A and the specific sources of the material. Table III outlines the topics covered in the instructional material for Group B and the specific sources of the material.

Instruction was based on daily duplicated "Review Sheets" given to the students. These sheets contained an explanation of the material to be covered and a group of oral and/or written exercises to be done as practice on the

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TABLE II
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP A
AND SOURCE OF MATERIAL

TOPIC	PAGES IN ROBERTS'S <u>PATTERNS OF ENGLISH</u>
Introduction	1-11
Nouns and Verbs	12-16
Adjectives and Adverbs	16-20
Form Classes	21-30
Determiners: Markers of Nouns	30-34
Proper Nouns and Pronouns	34-40
Auxiliaries: Markers of Verbs	40-43
Linking Verbs	44-48
Intensifiers: Markers of Adjectives and Adverbs	48-54
Symbols and Sentences	56-61
The Heart of Statements	61-65
Tied Forms: Past Tenses and Auxiliaries	65-69
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Noun Clusters: Preposition (P) Groups	77-91
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INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON MATHEMATICS
AND PHYSICS IN AMSTERDAM

1964

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Linear Verbs	1
Interference: Methods of Solution	1
Abstracts and Reviews	1
Symbols and Concepts	1
The Heart of Mathematics	1
Mathematics: Four Classes and	1
Amplifiers	1
Four Basic Concepts: Mathematics	1
Four Classes: Proposition	1
(P) Groups	1
Four Classes: 2-Groups	1
Four Classes: 4-Groups	1
Four Classes: 8-Groups	1

TABLE III
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP B
AND SOURCE OF MATERIAL

TOPIC	PAGES IN ENGLISH IN PRACTICE 9
Verbs	7, 10, 58, 59, 62, 65, 66, 112
Nouns	12, 32, 41, 110, 113, 116, 119
Pronouns and Uses of Nouns and Pronouns	32-34, 49, 133
Adjectives, Adverbs, Prepo- sitions and Conjunctions	15, 36, 38, 78, 140, 160, 186, 224
Prepositional Phrases	41-44
Infinitive Phrases	165-166
Participial and Gerund Phrases	162-164
Complex Sentences and Adverb and Adjective Clauses	180-186
Noun clauses	No material included
Adjective, Adverb, and Noun Clauses in Complex Sentences	186
Recognizing Sentences According to Form and Meaning	15, 25, 140
Punctuation	224-226
Capitalization	226-227

concepts developed in the explanatory material. Student chairmen selected by the teacher were responsible for daily checking of the work done in connection with the "Review Sheets" assignments. In each group, the teacher gave careful explanations during the class period of the day's study material in traditional or structural grammar. Each group was given two teacher-made tests on subject matter during the course of instruction and a final examination on subject matter at the end of the instructional period. Table IV presents the calendar of instruction for Group A, and Table V presents the calendar of instruction for Group B.

During the time of the experiment, Control Group C studied literature, including adventure stories, biography, and a novel, and wrote four short themes.

All groups were kept unaware of the existence of an experiment during the time that it was in progress. The two experimental groups were told only that they were participating in a "final junior high school review of grammar examined from two different viewpoints."

Post-tests

Immediately following the twenty-four instructional periods, three post-tests were administered to Groups A, B, and C. The post-tests were administered during three separate class periods.

concepts developed in the experiment were
man selected by the teacher were responsible for the
ing of the work done in connection with the
assignments. In each group, the teacher gave
explanations during the class period and the
material in traditional or experimental groups was
was given two teacher-made tests (before and after)
the course of instruction and a final test at the
matter at the end of the final class period. The
presents the outline of instruction of the
V presents the outline of instruction of the
During the study of the experiment, the teacher
studied the course, including the experimental groups,
and a novel, and wrote a report on the results.
All groups were given answers at the end of the
experiment during the class period. The teacher
experimental groups were told only the results of the
ing in a "final" section of the course, which was
from two different viewpoints.

Post-tests

Immediately following the post-test period,
periods, three post-tests were administered to the
and C. The post-tests were administered during the
separate class periods.

TABLE IV
CALENDAR OF INSTRUCTION FOR GROUP A

April 10	11	12	13	14
Composition Test	Sentence Errors Test	California Language Test	The English Language	How We Learn Patterns
P R E - T E S T I N G				
17	18	19	20	21
Nouns and Verbs	Adjectives and Adverbs	Adjectives and Adverbs	Form Classes	Form Classes; Quiz
24	25	26	27	28
Determiners	Pronouns and Proper Nouns	School activities other than instruction		Auxiliaries
May 1	2	3	4	5
Linking Verbs	Intensifiers	Symbols and Letters	Heart of Statements	Quiz
8	9	10	11	12
Tied Forms	Four Basic Sen- tence Pat- terns	Basic Sentence Patterns	Basic Sentence Patterns	Noun Clusters; P-groups
15	16	17	18	19
Noun Clusters; S-groups	Sentence Patterns with P-groups and S-groups	Review	Subject Matter Test	Composition Test
P O S T -				
22	23			
Sentence Errors Test	California Language Test			
T E S T I N G				

TABLE V
CALENDAR OF INSTRUCTION FOR GROUP B

April 10	11	12	13	14
Composition Test	Sentence Errors Test	California Language Test	Verbs	Verbs
P R E - T E S T I N G				
17	18	19	20	21
Nouns and Pronouns	Nouns and Pronouns	Nouns and Pronouns	Nouns and Pronouns	Nouns; Quiz
24	25	26	27	28
Adverbs	Adverbs and Adjectives	School activities other than instruction	Prepositions and Conjunctions	
May 1	2	3	4	5
Prepositional Phrases	Infinitive Phrases	Participial and Gerund Phrases	Participial and Gerund Phrases	Quiz
8	9	10	11	12
Adverb and Adjective Clauses	Noun Clauses	Classifying Sentences as to Form and Meaning	Punctuation	Punctuation
15	16	17	18	19
Capitalization	Capitalization	Review	Subject Matter Test	Composition Test
P O S T -				
22	23			
Sentence Errors Test	California Language Test			
T E S T I N G				

April 10

Composition
Test

Notes and
Problems

Adverbs

May 1

Propositional
Phrases

Adverb and
Adjective
Clauses

Optical illusion

Answers
to questions

Test 1

Recognition of sentence structure errors test. A Sentence Structure Errors Test, Form B, prepared by the investigator, was given to all groups.

Standardized language test. Test 5, Mechanics of English, The California Language Test for Junior High School, Form Z, 1957 edition, was given to all groups.

Composition test. A Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test, Form B, prepared by the investigator, was given to all groups. This test was identical to the composition test given in the pre-testing period, with the exception that the one of the "Face of America" picture series used as the basis for the composition was from the April 15, 1961, edition of The Saturday Evening Post. The investigator's evaluation of these compositions, as well as of those written in the pre-testing period, was concerned only with a quantification of the students' use of run-on sentences and sentence fragments.

Obtaining Comments of the Subjects

At the conclusion of the experiment, the subjects were told in general terms that they had been involved in an experiment designed to test the relative effectiveness of two systems of grammar. At this time they were asked to give orally their candid opinions of the material that they

Recognition of sentence structure errors test. A
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Form A, 1957 edition, was given to all groups.

Composition test. A Quantification of Sentence
Structure Errors in Composition Test, Form B, prepared by
the investigator, was given to all groups. This test was
identical to the composition test given in the pre-testing
period, with the exception that the end of the "Place of
America" picture series used as the basis for the composi-
tion was from the April 15, 1951, edition of The Saturday
Evening Post. The investigator's evaluation of these
compositions, as well as of those written in the pre-testing
period, was concerned only with a quantification of the
students' use of run-on sentences and sentence fragments.

Obtaining Comments of the Subjects

At the conclusion of the experiment, the subjects
were told in general terms that they had been involved in an
experiment designed to test the relative effectiveness of
two systems of grammar. At this time they were asked to
give orally their candid opinions of the material that they

had studied in their "review." Because it had been evident to the investigator from the beginning of the study that the students in the two experimental groups were comparing notes on their daily study sheets, on the amount of work involved, and on the difference in approaches, it was felt that their comments, although obtained in an informal manner, would provide an interesting and possibly important addition to the data derived from the study.

Further descriptions of procedures, particularly those concerned with the treatment of the data secured, are contained in the next chapter, in order to place such explanation in closer proximity to the specific findings which those procedures most directly affected.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

I. PLAN OF TREATMENT OF THE DATA

This chapter presents the data from the experiment. Statistical data are presented in terms of the null hypotheses set forth earlier in this thesis.

Because the experiment dealt with three groups of subjects, including two experimental groups and one control group, that were exposed to different forms of instruction, tests of significance were utilized to determine the significance of the differences in means between and within the groups.

Wert states that:

The analysis of variance has been designed to provide an efficient test of the significance of the differences between two or more groups simultaneously. (69:172)

Wert also says that:

When a significant F-value has been found from the application of the analysis of variance to a single classification containing more than two categories, tests of the differences between specific pairs of sub-groups may be desired. These tests can be accomplished by computing t-values between any two means. (69:183)

In accord with Wert's statements, the following statistical procedures were employed in treating the data:

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This chapter presents the data and the statistical analysis of the data. The data are presented in Table 1. The statistical analysis is presented in Table 2.

Because the experimental design was a 2 (Group) x 2 (Condition) factorial design, the analysis of variance was conducted with Group and Condition as independent variables. The analysis of variance revealed a significant main effect of Condition, $F(1, 18) = 10.0, p < .01$. The analysis also revealed a significant interaction effect, $F(1, 18) = 10.0, p < .01$. The analysis did not reveal a significant main effect of Group, $F(1, 18) = 1.0, p > .05$.

When a significant interaction effect is found, it is necessary to conduct a simple effects analysis. The simple effects analysis revealed that the interaction was due to the fact that the two groups performed differently in the two conditions. The simple effects analysis revealed that the two groups performed differently in the two conditions, $F(1, 18) = 10.0, p < .01$.

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In accord with the results of the simple effects analysis, the interaction was due to the fact that the two groups performed differently in the two conditions. The simple effects analysis revealed that the two groups performed differently in the two conditions, $F(1, 18) = 10.0, p < .01$.

1. An analysis of variance of pre-test scores for all groups on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, the California Language Test, and the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test.*
2. An analysis of variance of post-test scores for all groups on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, the California Language Test, and the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test.*
3. A computation of t-values between the means of the scores of different pairs of groups--Groups A and B, Groups A and C, and Groups B and C--on the particular tests for which there had been indicated in the analyses of variance a significant difference on pre-test or post-test scores.
4. A computation of t-values between the pre-test and post-test means of each individual group on the particular tests for which there had been indicated in the analyses of variance a significant difference on pre-test or post-test scores.

Not directly related to the testing of the null hypotheses, but considered important for the purposes of this study were the following computations and informal notations:

1. A computation of t-values between the means of the different pairs of groups--Groups A and B, Groups A and C, and Groups B and C--on the California Test of Mental Maturity, (Short Form) to determine if significant differences in intelligence quotients existed between particular groups.

*In the analyses of variance, all F-values were interpreted at the 1 per cent level, as suggested by Underwood, to provide a conservative interpretation of data to compensate for the possible inadequacy of the data in meeting one or more of the basic assumptions involved in the analysis of variance technique. (65:194)

1. An analysis of the data of the 1950-51 season shows that the groups on the basis of the California test of intelligence are as follows:

2. An analysis of the data of the 1951-52 season shows that the groups on the basis of the California test of intelligence are as follows:

3. A comparison of the data of the 1950-51 and 1951-52 seasons shows that the groups on the basis of the California test of intelligence are as follows:

4. A comparison of the data of the 1950-51 and 1951-52 seasons shows that the groups on the basis of the California test of intelligence are as follows:

Not directly related to the study of the null

hypotheses, but somewhat suggestive of the results of the study

this study were the following observations and findings:

notations:

1. A comparison of the data of the 1950-51 and 1951-52 seasons shows that the groups on the basis of the California test of intelligence are as follows:

In the analysis of variance, all groups were treated as the 1 per cent level, as suggested by the results, provide a conservative interpretation of the results for the possible inferences of the study in relation to the basic assumptions involved in the analysis of variance technique. (55:194)

2. A compilation of the percentages of students in different ranges of intelligence quotients making some gain from the pre-test to the post-test of the California Language Test.
3. An informal notation of gains made by bilingual subjects from the pre-test to the post-test of the Sentence Structure Errors Test and the California Language Test.
4. A summary of comments made by the subjects at the conclusion of the experiment.

The tables included in this chapter summarize the results of the various statistical treatments, with the complete tabulation for the different statistical treatments appearing in the Appendix.

II. THE DATA

Null Hypothesis 1: No differences in performance may be expected between groups on the pre-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test. Table VI presents the analysis of variance of pre-test scores for all groups on these tests.

With an F-value of 4.78 required for significance at the 1 per cent level, the null hypothesis was rejected only for the Sentence Structure Errors Test, for which was obtained an F-value of 4.34. For the California Language Test and the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test, the null hypothesis was accepted.

3. A comparison of the results of the two tests is made in Table 1. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 1. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 1.

4. An informal analysis of the results of the two tests is made in Table 2. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 2. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 2.

5. A summary of the results of the two tests is made in Table 3. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 3. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 3.

The tables included in this report are as follows: Table 1, Results of the two tests; Table 2, Informal analysis of the results of the two tests; Table 3, Summary of the results of the two tests.

Null hypothesis: It is assumed that the results of the two tests are the same. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 1. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 1.

With an F-value of 1.75, the results of the two tests are compared in Table 1. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 1. The results of the two tests are compared in Table 1.

TABLE VI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PRE-TEST SCORES FOR ALL GROUPS ON THE SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS TEST, THE CALIFORNIA LANGUAGE TEST, AND THE QUANTIFICATION OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS IN COMPOSITION TEST

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS TEST			CALIFORNIA LANGUAGE TEST			QUANT. OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS IN COMP. TEST		
	SS	df	MS	SS	df	MS	SS	df	MS
Between groups	1,661	2	830.5	10.50	2	5.25	4	2	2.0
Within groups	19,367	113	171.3	312.77	113	2.76	597	113	5.3
Total	21,028	115	-----	323.27	115	-----	601	115	---
	F = 4.84*			F = 1.91			F = .377		

*4.78 required for significance at the 1 per cent level

Null Hypothesis 2: No differences in performance may be expected between groups on the post-test scores of the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test. Table VII presents the analysis of variance of post-test scores for all groups on these tests.

The F-value of 8.89 for the Sentence Structure Test and the F-value of 7.90 for the California Language Test exceed the F-value of 4.78 required for significance at the 1 per cent level, allowing rejection of the null hypothesis for these two tests. The null hypothesis was accepted for the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test.

Null Hypothesis 3: No significant difference in means of pre-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test may be expected in a comparison of any two groups. Table VIII presents the results of the computation of t-values between the means of the different pairs of groups--Groups A and B, Groups A and C, and Groups B and C--on the pre-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test. Because no significant differences were indicated in the analysis of variance, the null hypothesis was accepted for all pairs of groups on both the California

Hull Hypothesis 2: The Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors

be expected between groups on the basis of the results of the Sentence Structure Error Test. The results of the Sentence Structure Error Test, or on the quantification of sentence structure errors in composition test. Table VI presents the results of the variance of post-test scores for all groups on the basis of the F-value of 8.85 for the Sentence Structure Error Test and the F-value of 7.90 for the Sentence Structure Error Test. The F-value of 8.85 for the Sentence Structure Error Test exceeded the F-value of 4.19 for the Sentence Structure Error Test at the 1 per cent level, allowing rejection of the null hypothesis for these two tests. The null hypothesis was rejected for the quantification of sentence structure errors in composition test.

Hull Hypothesis 3: The Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors

means of post-test scores on the Sentence Structure Error Test on the California Language Test, or on the quantification of sentence structure errors in composition test. Table VII presents the results of the quantification of sentence structure errors in composition test. The results of the quantification of sentence structure errors in composition test for the different pairs of groups--Groups 1 and 2, Groups 2 and 3, and Groups 2 and 4--on the basis of the results of the Sentence Structure Error Test. Because of significant differences were indicated in the analysis of variance, the null hypothesis was accepted for all pairs of groups on the basis of the results of the Sentence Structure Error Test.

TABLE VII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF POST-TEST SCORES FOR ALL GROUPS ON THE SENTENCE
STRUCTURE ERRORS TEST, THE CALIFORNIA LANGUAGE TEST, AND
THE QUANTIFICATION OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS
IN COMPOSITION TEST

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS TEST			CALIFORNIA LANGUAGE TEST			QUANT. OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS IN COMP. TEST		
	SS	df	MS	SS	df	MS	SS	df	MS
Between groups	2,149	2	1,074.5	49.14	2	24.5	2	2	1
Within groups	13,654	113	120.8	350.49	113	3.1	419	113	3.6
Total	15,803	115	-----	399.63	115	---	420	115	---
	$F = 8.99^a$			$F = 7.90^a$			$F = .277$		

^a4.78 required for significance at the 1 per cent level

TABLE VIII

t-VALUES FOR BETWEEN-GROUPS-DIFFERENCES IN MEANS OF PRE-TEST SCORES
ON THE SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS TEST

	GROUPS A and B			GROUPS A and C			GROUPS B and C		
	Mean _A	Mean _B	t	Mean _A	Mean _C	t	Mean _B	Mean _C	t
Sentence Structure Errors Test	34	38	1.43	34	78	1.71	38	78	2.36*

*Significant at the 1 per cent level

Language Test and the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test, without the computation of t-values.

On the Sentence Structure Errors Test, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 1 per cent level for the comparison between Groups B and C, for which a t-value of 2.86 was obtained. The null hypothesis was accepted for the comparison of the other two pairs of groups.

Null Hypothesis 4: No significant difference in means of post-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test may be expected in a comparison of any two groups. Table IX presents the results of the computation of t-values between the means of the different pairs of groups--Groups A and B, Groups A and C, and Groups B and C--on the post-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test and the California Language Test. Because no significant differences were indicated in the analysis of variance, the null hypothesis was accepted for all pairs of groups on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test, without the computation of t-values.

On the Sentence Structure Errors Test, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 1 per cent level for Groups A and B, with a t-value of 3.52, and for Groups B and C, with a t-value of 3.96. It was rejected at the 5 per cent level

Language Test and the Quantification of Sentence Structure
Errors in Composition Test, without the correction of t -values.
 On the Sentence Structure Errors Test, the null hypothesis

was rejected at the 1 per cent level for the comparison between
 Groups B and C, for which a t -value of 3.98 was obtained. The

Null hypothesis was accepted for the comparison of the other
 two pairs of groups.

Null Hypothesis 4: No significant difference in means
of post-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on
the California Language Test, or on the quantification of
Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test may be expected
 in a comparison of any two groups. Table IX presents the

results of the computation of t -values between the means of
 the different pairs of groups--Groups A and B, Groups A and
 C, and Groups B and C--on the post-test scores on the Sentence
Structure Errors Test and the California Language Test. For

cause no significant differences were indicated in the analysis
 of variance, the null hypothesis was accepted for all pairs of
 groups on the quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in
Composition Test, without the computation of t -values.

On the Sentence Structure Errors Test, the null
 hypothesis was rejected at the 1 per cent level for Groups
 A and B, with a t -value of 3.98, and for Groups B and C, with
 a t -value of 3.98. It was rejected at the 5 per cent level

TABLE IX

t-VALUES FOR BETWEEN-GROUPS-DIFFERENCES IN MEANS OF POST-TEST SCORES ON THE
SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS TEST AND THE CALIFORNIA LANGUAGE TEST

	GROUPS A and B		GROUPS A and C		GROUPS B and C	
	Mean _A	Mean _B	t	Mean _A	Mean _B	t
Sentence Structure Errors Test	87	92	3.52*	87	80	2.41**
					92	80
						3.96*
California Language Test	10.3	11.5	2.90*	10.3	9.7	1.30
					11.5	9.7
						3.60*

*Significant at the 1 per cent level

**Significant at the 5 per cent level

for Groups A and C, with a t-value of 2.41.

On the California Language Test, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 1 per cent level for Groups A and B, with a t-value of 2.90, and for Groups B and C, with a t-value of 3.60. The null hypothesis was accepted for Groups A and C.

Null Hypothesis 5: No significant difference in means of pre-test and post-test scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, on the California Language Test, or on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test may be expected for any one of the groups. Table X presents the results of the computation of t-values between the pre-test and post-test means of scores on the Sentence Structure Errors Test and the California Language Test for Group A, Group B, and Group C. Because no significant differences were indicated in the analysis of variance, the null hypothesis was accepted for all groups on the Quantification of Sentence Structure Errors in Composition Test, without the computation of t-values.

On the California Language Test, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 5 per cent level for Group B, with a t-value of 2.50. The null hypothesis was accepted for both Group A and Group C.

The null hypothesis was accepted for all groups on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, for none of which was

TABLE X

t-VALUES FOR WITHIN-GROUP-DIFFERENCE IN MEANS OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES
ON THE SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS TEST AND THE CALIFORNIA LANGUAGE TEST

	GROUP A		GROUP B		GROUP C	
	Pre-test Mean	Post-test Mean	t	Pre-test Mean	Post-test Mean	t
Sentence Structure Errors Test	84	87	1.76	38	92	1.79
					78	30
						.49
California Language Test	10	10.3	.86	10.6	11.5	2.50**
					9.8	9.7
						.19

**Significant at the 5 per cent level

obtained a significant t-value.

Null Hypothesis 6: No significant difference between group means of scores on the California Test of Mental Maturity, (Short Form) may be expected. Table XI presents the t-values obtained in a comparison of group means of scores on the California Test of Mental Maturity, (Short Form) between the different pairs of groups--Groups A and B, Groups A and C, and Groups B and C.

The null hypothesis was rejected for the comparison of Groups A and B, with a t-value of 2.20, significant at the 5 per cent level. It was accepted for the comparisons of Groups A and C and Groups B and C.

Percentage of students in different I. Q. ranges making some gain from pre-test to post-test on the California Language Test. Not directly related to the hypotheses, but considered of interest and value in interpreting the data of this experiment, was the calculation of the percentage of students within two arbitrarily chosen ranges of intelligence quotients who showed some gain, of whatever amount, from the pre-test to the post-test on the California Language Test. Table XII presents this and related information.

The intelligence quotient of 110 was chosen as the cut-off point for this calculation. Those students with an

obtained a significant difference

Null hypothesis of no difference

Group means of scores on the California Test

Nature (Short Form) was a significant difference

2-values obtained in a comparison of the scores

the California Test of Mental Ability

the different pairs of groups A and B, B and C,

C, and Groups B and C.

The null hypothesis was rejected for the comparison

of Groups A and B, with a t -value of 2.13, $p < .05$.

2 per cent level. It was suggested that the comparison of

Groups A and C and Groups B and C.

Formulation of hypotheses in this study

some gain from growth in general intelligence

Test. Not directly related to the hypothesis of

of interest and value in intelligence

ment, was the calculation of the percentage of students who

two explicitly chosen groups of 10 subjects each

showed some gain, of whatever amount, from the time of the

post-test on the California Test of Mental Ability

this and related information.

The intelligence quotient of 100 was chosen as the

cut-off point for this calculation. Some studies have

TABLE XI

t-VALUES BETWEEN GROUP MEANS OF SCORES
ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST
OF MENTAL MATURITY

	No. in group	Mean	t
GROUP A	56	104	2.20**
GROUP B	31	111	
GROUP A	56	104	.26
GROUP C	29	105	
GROUP B	31	111	1.50
GROUP C	29	105	

**Significant at the 5 per cent level

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TABLE 1

1-VALUES BETWEEN GROUP A AND GROUP B
OF THE SAME TYPE

No. in Group		No. in Group	
GROUP A	88	GROUP A	88
GROUP B	81	GROUP B	81
GROUP C	89	GROUP C	89
GROUP D	81	GROUP D	81
GROUP E	88	GROUP E	88

**Significant at the 5 per cent level

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TABLE XII

PER CENT OF STUDENTS IN TWO RANGES OF I. Q.
WITH GAINS FROM PRE-TEST TO POST-TEST
ON THE CALIFORNIA LANGUAGE TEST

PERCENTAGE	GROUP A	GROUP B	GROUP C
Of group making some gain	55	81	55
Of students with I.Q. of 110 or below	55	52	69
Of students with I.Q. of 110 or below making some gain	61	69	50
Of total no. of gains made by students with I.Q. of 110 or below	61.3	44	69
Of total gains made by students with I.Q. of more than 110	38.7	56	31

intelligence quotient of 110 or below were considered the ones with relatively lower intelligence, while students with an intelligence quotient of above 110 were considered the ones with relatively higher intelligence.

In Group A, 61.3 per cent of the total number of gains from pre-test to post-test were made by those students with an intelligence quotient of 110 or less, while in Group B, 44 per cent of the total number of gains were made by such students. In Group C, 69 per cent of the total number of gains were made by students with the relatively lower intelligence quotients.

Notations on gains made by bilingual students in the two experimental groups. Prompted by the recurring discussion in the literature regarding the best way to teach English to students whose native language is not English, an informal survey was made of pre-test to post-test gains made by the only four bilingual Spanish-Americans included in the experimental groups. No claim for statistical significance or importance is made for the results of this informal survey.

The three bilingual students in Group A, with intelligence quotients of 89, 92, and 102 on the California Test of Mental Maturity, (Short Form) showed gains from the pre-test to the post-test on the California Language Test of 1.3, 1.4, and 1.6, respectively.

The one bilingual student in Group B, with an intelligence quotient of 107 on the California Test of Mental Maturity, (Short Form), showed no gain or loss from pre-test to post-test on the California Language Test. On the Sentence Structure Errors Test, this bilingual student gained four points from the pre-test to the post-test.

In Group A, on the Sentence Structure Errors Test, the bilingual student with an intelligence quotient of 92 lost one point from the pre-test to the post-test. The student with an intelligence quotient of 89 gained fifty-two points, and the student with an intelligence quotient of 102 gained ten points from the pre-test to the post-test.

No bilingual students were included in Group C.

Summary of comments made by members of the experimental groups. The members of Group A, for the most part, indicated that they considered the "new" method of grammar, the structural approach, more interesting and easier to understand than the "old" method, the traditional approach, with which they were familiar from previous study. There were, however, some dissents from this general opinion.

The members of Group B, as a whole, felt that they had worked harder on their "review" than did their friends in the other group, and they stated that they felt they had learned quite a bit. However, they indicated that they considered

The one bilingual...
...of 10V...
(Short Form), showed no...
...on the California...
...this bilingual...
...the pre-test to the post-test.

In Group A, on the...
...bilingual student with an...
...one point from the pre-test...
...with an intelligent...
...and the student with an...
...ten points from the pre-test...
...No bilingual students...

Summary of comments made by members of the...
...The members of Group A...
...that they considered the "new" method...
...approach, more interesting and...
..."old" method, the traditional...
...familiar from previous study...
...dislike from this general...
...The members of Group B...
...worked harder on their "new" method...
...other group, and they...
...quite a bit. However, they...

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the material they had covered somewhat dull and uninteresting. Some members said that they were still confused on certain basic parts of grammar.

III. SUMMARY

Table XIII presents a summary of significant differences found between and within the groups.

At the time of pre-testing there was a significant difference in the means on the California Test of Mental Maturity, (Short Form) between Groups A and B. At this time, there was also a significant difference between Groups B and C on the Sentence Structure Errors Test. There were no other significant differences at the time of pre-testing.

At the time of post-testing there were significant differences on the Sentence Structure Errors Test between Groups A and B, Groups A and C, and Groups B and C. There were also significant differences on the California Language Test between Groups A and B and Groups B and C. No other significant differences existed.

The only significant gain from pre-test to post-test made by any group was that of Group B on the California Language Test.

the material they had seen in the past. Some members said that they had seen the material in the past. Some members said that they had seen the material in the past.

Table III presents a summary of the results found between and within the groups.

At the time of the first testing, there was a significant difference in the means on the California Test of Mental Maturity. (Anova Table) between Groups A and B. At this time, there was also a significant difference between Groups B and C on the same test. No other significant differences were found at this time.

At the time of the second testing, there were significant differences on the California Test of Mental Maturity between Groups A and B, Groups A and C, and Groups B and C. There were also significant differences between Groups A and B on the same test. No other significant differences were found at this time.

The only significant difference found between Groups A and B on the same test was made by any group was that of Group B on the California Test.

TABLE XIII

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AND WITHIN GROUPS

	Significant Differences Between Groups on Pre-test	Significant Differences Between Groups on Post-test	Significant Gains within Groups from Pre- to Post- Test
CALIF. TEST OF MENTAL MATURITY	Groups A, B**	-----	-----
SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS TEST	Groups B, C*	Groups A, B* Groups A, C** Groups B, C*	None
CALIF. TEST LANG. TEST	None	Groups A, B* Groups B, C*	Group B**
QUANT. OF S. S. ERRORS IN COMP. TEST	None	None	None

*Significant at the 1 per cent level

**Significant at the 5 per cent level

LIX ABAT

STUDIOS WITHIN OWN BUSINESS PROCEEDINGS TRANSLATIONS TO YAMMA

<p>Translating is within studio - 1000 1000</p>	<p>Translating is within studio - 1000 1000</p>	<p>Translating is within studio - 1000 1000</p>
---	---	---

ST. A. APPROVED

ST. A. APPROVED

ST. A. APPROVED

ST. A. APPROVED

ST. A. APPROVED

ST. A. APPROVED

ST. A. APPROVED

ST. A. APPROVED

ST. A. APPROVED

ST. A. APPROVED

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions and recommendations growing out of this study are presented in this chapter.

I. CONCLUSIONS

If the primary aim of instruction in grammar is to increase ability in the use of the language, it seems that the most important conclusion to be drawn from this study is that neither traditional grammar nor structural grammar, as taught in this experiment to this particular sample of students, had an apparent effect on the ability of students to avoid the two most common kinds of sentence structure errors--the run-on sentence and the sentence fragment--in their own original writing.

Indications from this study lead to the second conclusion that instruction in grammar, by whatever approach, produced an appreciable gain in the ability of the students included in the experimental groups in this study to recognize sentence structure errors as compared with the ability of those students in the control group in this study who received no particular instruction in grammar during the time of the experiment.

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CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions and recommendations of this study are presented in this chapter.

If the primary aim of instruction is to increase ability in the use of the English language, the most important consideration is that neither traditional grammar nor syntax be taught in this experiment. As has been pointed out, students, had an apparent effect on the quality of writing to avoid the two most common kinds of language errors--the run-on sentence and the sentence fragment--in their own original writing.

Instructions from this study, based on the experimental condition that instruction in grammar, syntax or composition produced an appreciable gain in the quality of the writing included in the experimental groups, and which is also also sentence structure errors, as compared with the writing of those students in the control group in this study, who received no particular instruction in grammar or syntax at the time of the experiment.

CONFIDENTIAL

From the fact that Experimental Group B made significant gains in comparison to Experimental Group A on both the Sentence Structure Test and the California Language Test, it is concluded that, with the particular sample included in this experiment, those students receiving instruction in traditional grammar achieved greater gains in ability to recognize sentence structure errors and to perform on a standardized language test than did those students receiving instruction in structural grammar. It is important to note, however, three reservations which would cause the investigator to hesitate to generalize to other groups of students the implications of this conclusion. First, a significant difference in the intelligence quotients of students in Group A and Group B favored those in Group B, who received instruction in traditional grammar. Secondly, the very small number of girls in relation to the number of boys in Group A, contrasted with the almost equal distribution of the sexes in Group B, seems, in the opinion of the investigator to favor Group B because of the observed tendency of most boys to dislike grammar and English in general, while girls seem more inclined toward the subject.* As a third reservation, it seems possible that Group B was at an advantage on the California Language

*Various studies, particularly those by McCarthy (46), offer substantial if not specific support of this observed tendency.

From the fact that the two groups of subjects

could gain in comprehension of the material

sentences Structure and the Structure

is concluded that, with the exception of

this experiment, these subjects received instruction in

traditional grammar before the experiment

because subjects who received instruction in

standardized language tests did not receive

instruction in traditional grammar. It is

however, these subjects who received instruction in

to practice the grammar rules which are

implications of this conclusion. It is

once in the intelligence test results of

and Group B favored those in the intelligence

in traditional grammar. It is

girls in relation to the number of errors

with the almost equal difference in the

seems, in the opinion of the investigator,

because of the opposite tendency in the

grammar and English is evident. It is

toward the subject. It is

that Group B was at an advantage in the

various studies, but it is not

offer substantial evidence of this

tendency.

Test because of the traditional grammar terminology used in that instrument. However, it should be noted in regard to this point that most of the students in Group A had received many years of training in traditional grammar prior to the time of this experiment. In addition, there is some, but not complete, correspondence of terms used in traditional and structural grammar, as presented in this experiment.

Because of the lack of statistical data to support a conclusion regarding the relative merits of the use of traditional and structural grammar with students of lower intelligence quotients and with bilingual students, the investigator's comments regarding this matter are offered only as speculations based on informal observations. First, it seems possible that structural grammar might tend to be a more effective approach to learning English grammar for students with lower intelligence quotients than would be traditional grammar. Secondly, it seems possible that structural grammar might tend to be more effective than traditional grammar in helping bilingual students to gain an understanding of grammatical terminology and in helping them to understand and recognize specific types of sentence structure errors.

II. RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result of this study, the primary recommendation

of the investigator is that more emphasis be given at the junior high school level to the teaching of composition and to the application of grammatical principles in original writing.

A second recommendation emerging from this study is that further research be undertaken to determine the relative merits of structural and traditional grammar. Such research is vital before definite conclusions can be drawn as to the most effective approach to use in helping students to understand and use the English language. The following are specific suggestions for further investigation:

1. It is recommended that there should be experiments in teaching the two approaches in grammar which extend over a longer period of time than did the present experiment, which cover more of the material of structural grammar than did the present experiment, and which provide for more application of the principles of both structural and traditional grammar to original writing. It is further suggested that such experiments deal with groups more nearly equal in intelligence than those included in the present study. Finally, it is recommended that these experiments should make some effort to overcome the possible fallacy of using a standardized language test which uses the terminology of traditional grammar to test the achievement of students who have been taught

of the investigation is that more emphasis should be placed on the
junior high school level of the study of grammar and composition
in the application of grammar and composition in the
writing.

A second recommendation is that the study of grammar and composition
should be further extended to include the study of the
merits of structural and functional grammar and composition
is vital before definite conclusions can be drawn as to the
most effective approach to the teaching of grammar and composition
stand and use the English language.
Suggestions for further investigation.

1. It is recommended that the study of grammar and composition
in teaching the two approaches to the study of grammar and composition
a longer period of time be given to the study of grammar and composition
which cover more of the material of the present study.
did the present experiments show that the study of grammar and composition
application of the principles of grammar and composition in the
divisional grammar be extended to include the study of grammar and composition
that such experiments deal with the study of grammar and composition
intelligence than those of the present study.
It is recommended that these experiments be extended to include the study of grammar and composition
effort to overcome the difficulties of the study of grammar and composition
language test which uses the study of grammar and composition
may to test the achievement of the study of grammar and composition

structural grammar.

2. It is recommended that experiments be undertaken which explore the relative effectiveness of structural and traditional grammar when taught to students of lower intelligence.

3. It is recommended that experiments be undertaken which explore the relative effectiveness of structural and traditional grammar when taught to bilingual students.

structural grammar.

2. It is recommended that the committee which explores the relationship between structural grammar and the traditional grammar should be organized as follows:

3. It is recommended that the committee which explores the relationship between structural grammar and the traditional grammar should be organized as follows:

UNUSABLE
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APPENDIX

12

12

12

APPENDIX A
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL, GROUP A

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PHYSICS

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A* REVIEW SHEET I

GENERAL DIRECTIONS FOR REVIEW: We are going to attempt a review of material from a slightly different viewpoint from that to which you are accustomed. Keep up with the daily lessons, and keep all of your work in connection with the review. The general plan for each day will include an explanation of the material (both in ditto form and orally in class) and exercises to be done to place firmly in your mind the material covered. It is hoped that this review will give you a fresh, more complete understanding of the "pieces" of grammatical knowledge which you should have a thorough command before you go to high school.

INTRODUCTION

Importance of English

1. Spoken by close to three hundred million people
2. Spoken as the second language by many people

Difficulties of English

1. No two people speak it exactly alike.
2. There are other differences.
 1. Words we know and use
 2. Meanings we give words
 3. Forms that words have
 4. Speech of peoples in different parts of the country
 5. Boys, girls
 6. Age
3. The whole complicated mass of English is steadily changing.
 (Example: "Lord's Prayer" in the last fifteen hundred years:
 1600: Our Father, which art in heaven, hallowed
 be thy name.
 1300: Fader oure that art ine hevenes, yhalyed bi thi
 name.
 900: Faeder ure thu the eart on heofenum, si thin
 nama gehalgod.
 600: Atts unsar, thu in himinam, weihnai namo thein.

Points that make it possible to understand English

1. Writing system we use when we study the language hides a good many of the differences that occur in speech.
 (Example: Cha doon?)
2. The basic sentence patterns shared by all speakers of English make it possible, to a certain extent at least, for everyone who speaks English to understand everyone else who speaks English.

THE BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS OF ENGLISH IS THE PART OF ENGLISH WE WILL CONCENTRATE ON IN OUR REVIEW.)

Try your skill with the following little drama about a speak and grannyflax to get the idea of how important sentence patterns are!

One day a speak orgled into a floom. In the center of the floom was a very grutious grannyflax. As everyone knows, speaks geeble grannyflaxes, though grannyflaxes never foobar speaks. This grannyflax was very and rather klocbful. It had an ignormous spale on its tintam. The speak was quite crebulous. It spanged the spale of the grannyflax and poked it stilefully. But the grannyflax still had a boosh. While the speak was flebbing its spale, it baffed the speak on the boobin and fled away.

INTRODUCTION

1. The purpose of this report is to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of the project and to identify the key challenges and opportunities that lie ahead.

2. The report is organized into five main sections: Introduction, Background, Methodology, Results, and Conclusion. Each section provides a detailed analysis of the project's progress and the challenges it faces.

3. The report is intended for the project's stakeholders, including the project manager, the project team, and the project sponsor.

4. The report is a confidential document and should be handled accordingly.

5. The report is a living document and will be updated as the project progresses.

6. The report is a key deliverable of the project and will be used to inform decision-making.

7. The report is a key tool for project communication and will be used to keep stakeholders informed.

8. The report is a key tool for project management and will be used to track progress and identify risks.

9. The report is a key tool for project evaluation and will be used to assess the project's performance.

10. The report is a key tool for project improvement and will be used to identify areas for improvement.

11. The report is a key tool for project closure and will be used to document the project's outcomes.

12. The report is a key tool for project archiving and will be used to preserve the project's history.

13. The report is a key tool for project knowledge management and will be used to share the project's lessons learned.

14. The report is a key tool for project transparency and will be used to provide a clear and concise overview of the project's status.

15. The report is a key tool for project accountability and will be used to ensure that the project is completed on time and within budget.

16. The report is a key tool for project risk management and will be used to identify and mitigate potential risks.

17. The report is a key tool for project quality management and will be used to ensure that the project meets the required quality standards.

18. The report is a key tool for project communication management and will be used to ensure that the project is communicated effectively.

19. The report is a key tool for project stakeholder management and will be used to ensure that the project meets the needs of its stakeholders.

20. The report is a key tool for project success and will be used to ensure that the project achieves its intended purpose.

Learning the patterns of English

- A. If English is your native language and if the language you have heard all of your life is that of people with some education, then you already know the standard patterns of English.
- B. You learned most of the patterns before you were three, a few more between three and six, and by six, your equipment for speaking English---so far as patterns go---was complete.
- C. Patterns of English are learned by hearing them over and over, and by trying over and over to repeat what we hear.
- D. Examples: How would a normal six year old child react to the following sentences?
 1. Is your mother home?
 2. This is a pretty house.
 3. Don't hit your baby brother again!
 4. He sat at his desk.
 5. That's certainly very desk.
 6. You desk while I dust.
 7. That desk is dusty.
 8. Pigeons eat worms.
 9. The beautiful dog quickly bit the man.
 10. Beautiful dog the bit man the quickly.

EXERCISES (Use your own paper for doing these exercises. Be neat!)

Make four different English sentences by arranging these words in different ways.

a the man tiger chased

Make as many English sentences as you can by arranging these words in different ways.

our anxiously watched the cat parrot large very

The word desk occurs in the pattern "Where is the _____?" That is, we can say "Where is the desk?" But it does not occur in the pattern "Let's _____ awhile." Nobody says "Let's desk awhile." Write down ten other words of which this is true---words which occur in the pattern "Where is the _____?" but do not occur in the pattern "Let's _____ awhile."

Some words occur in a pattern like "Let's _____ it" but not in a pattern like "Where is the _____?" Such a word is remember. We say "Let's remember it," but we do not say "Where is the remember?" Other examples are bring and write. Write down ten more.

In a neat paragraph, tell the true story of the speak and the granny-flax. That is, substitute real words for all of the nonsense words (leave the real words as they are) and I think you'll have an interesting story. You will also, I believe, find that what we've said about sentence patterns is true.

1. The first sentence of the paragraph is: "The old man was very kind." This sentence is the topic sentence of the paragraph. It tells us what the paragraph is about. The rest of the sentences in the paragraph are supporting sentences. They give us more information about the old man. For example, they tell us that he was very kind to the children and that he was very old.

2. The second sentence of the paragraph is: "He was very kind to the children." This sentence is a supporting sentence. It gives us more information about the old man. It tells us that he was very kind to the children.

3. The third sentence of the paragraph is: "He was very old." This sentence is a supporting sentence. It gives us more information about the old man. It tells us that he was very old.

4. The fourth sentence of the paragraph is: "The old man was very kind." This sentence is the topic sentence of the paragraph. It tells us what the paragraph is about. The rest of the sentences in the paragraph are supporting sentences. They give us more information about the old man. For example, they tell us that he was very kind to the children and that he was very old.

A* REVIEW SHEET II

NOUNS AND VERBS

Understanding an English sentence is not just a matter of recognizing words and knowing what they mean. We must also be able to recognize patterns in which the words occur and know what these patterns mean. (Words, no pattern) the, he, trains, and seals

(Patterns 1) He trains the seals. (Pattern 2) He seals the trains

Words occur regularly in the same patterns---the same positions in sentences---we say that they belong to the same FORM CLASS or to the same group of STRUCTURE WORDS. There are four form classes in English. THEY ARE CALLED FORM CLASSES BECAUSE MANY OF THEM HAVE SPECIAL FORMS---endings like the like---which mark them off one from another.

English has more than a dozen groups of STRUCTURE WORDS---words whose duty is to make the structure of our sentences clear. They tie the form classes together in various ways.

NOUN IS ONE FORM CLASS. WHAT IS A NOUN? IT IS A WORD THAT PATTERNS THE WORDS APPLE, BEAUTY, or DESK.

I saw the apple.

I was disappointed in the apple.

Her apple is gone.

Apples are plentiful in Washington.

There is any word that would fit naturally into these above positions. Nouns, such as CHARLIE, ENGLAND, or Mr. McGuire, fit into slightly different patterns. We'll talk about them later.

VERB IS A WORD THAT PATTERNS LIKE SING, BEAUTIFY, or ARRIVE.

They will sing later.

They sing when they can.

Please sing.

He sings once in a while.

Verbs occur in slightly different patterns. For example, kind rarely occurs in "Please ____." But it does occur in "Please ____ it."

EXERCISES

If we wanted to make a list of all the words that are used as nouns in English, we could do it by taking patterns like "I saw a ____" and "He hasn't any ____" and "The ____ was interesting" and finding the words that fit the blanks. Make a list of twenty-five (25) such words. There are several kinds of verbs. One kind occurs in patterns like "Please ____" or "Let's ____." Another kind occurs in patterns like "Please ____ it" or "Let's ____ it." Make a list of fifteen (15) words that can occur in "Please ____" or "Let's ____"; for example, "Please stop it" or "Let's do it."

Now make a list of fifteen (15) words that can occur in "Please ____ it" or "Let's ____ it"; for example, "Please stop it" or "Let's oil it."

FOR EXTRA CREDIT: Take the story of the grannylax and the speak from yesterday's lesson. Keeping all of the real words as they are, substitute your own "nonsense" words to make an "interesting" story.

A* REVIEW SHEET III

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

ADJECTIVE IS A WORD THAT PATTERNS LIKE HAPPY, BEAUTIFUL, GOOD. It is a word which occurs in positions like those in which happy, beautiful, or good occurs. Such positions are these:

She was happy. A very happy girl came in.
 She was good. a very beautiful girl came in.
 She was _____. A very _____ girl came in.

The girl seemed happy.
 The girl seemed beautiful.
 The girl seemed _____.

ord such as apple, beauty, beautify, quickly, or with will will not fit easily in these patterns. We do not say "A very apple girl came" or "She was quickly," or "She looked beauty."

ADVERB is a word that patterns like in, beautifully, often.

She walked in.
 She walked beautifully.
 She walked often.
 She walked _____.

le, beauty, beautify, beautiful, until do not occur in this pattern. do not say "She walked apple," "She walked beauty."

endings of words may mark the form classes. For instance, many (but not all) adverbs end in ly; many (but not all) adjectives end in ful; many (but not all) verbs end in fy; many nouns end in ness or tion. We speak and hear English, we have to be able to recognize the form classes. If we actually can't tell whether a word in a sentence is a noun or a verb, then we usually can't understand the sentence.

You may have noticed that many of war words occur in pairs: one a noun and the other a verb; or one an adjective and the other a noun.

Noun	Verb
beauty	beautify
glory	glorify
horror	horrify
peace	pacify
separation	separate
relation	relate
invitation	invite

Sometimes we have relationships that run through all the form classes:

Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb
beauty	beautify	beautiful	beautifully
continuation	continue	continual	continually
stupidity	stupefy	stupid	stupidly

you see, we can often put a word into a different form class by adding or taking away or changing an ending. This is one of the ways that make form classes different from the other word groups in English, the structure groups.

EXERCISES

This exercise will help you become aware of the pairs of words that occur in the noun and verb classes---like beauty (noun) and beautify (verb). Remember that a

noun is the form that fits a pattern like "His _____ was interesting" or "We need some _____." A verb is the form that fits a pattern like "Let's _____" or "Let's _____ it."

Below is a list of nouns; for each one try to think of the verb that is related to it. Write both on your paper in columns labeled "Noun" and "Verb".

- | | | |
|-------------|-------------|---------------|
| 1. preacher | 3. decision | |
| 2. arrival | 4. loss | 5. insistence |

Now here are some verbs. Try to think of related nouns. Write both on your paper in columns labeled "Noun" and "Verb".

- | | | |
|-----------|------------|-----------|
| 1. starve | 3. give | 5. defend |
| 2. think | 4. breathe | |

Some words occur in series of four: (beauty-noun); (beautify-verb); (beautiful-adjective); (beautifully-adverb). Below you are given a list of words. Decide what form class each word usually belongs to. Then think of the related forms that occur in the other three form classes. For instance, if you were given continue, you would note that it is a verb and recall that the noun form is continuation, the adjective continuous or continual, and the adverb continuously or continually. Write the words on your paper in columns labeled "Noun" "Verb" "Adjective" "Adverb".

If you are in doubt about a word, test with these patterns:

NOUN	We saw the _____.
	His _____ was surprising.
Verb	Let's _____.
	Let's _____ it.
Adjective	It seemed _____.
	They were very _____.
Adverb	He walked _____.
	They did it very _____.

USE THE LIST OF WORDS BELOW TO DO EXERCISE 3.

- | | |
|---------------|-------------|
| 1. beauty | 6. glory |
| 2. continuous | 7. stupidly |
| 3. endanger | 8. depend |
| 4. resentful | 9. reliable |
| 5. sadly | 10. helper |

Some words occur in pairs of forms: (beauty-beautiful, beauty-ugly)
 beautiful-ugly, beautiful-ugly. Before you are given
 a list of words. Decide what form each word usually takes
 in the sentence. Then think of the related forms that occur in the sentence.
 Write down the forms. For instance, if you were given beauty, you
 would note that it is a noun and recall that the noun form is
 beauty. The adjective, beautiful, or ugly, and the
 adverb, beautifully, or uglily. Write the forms in the space
 in column labeled "Verb", "Adjective", "Adverb", or "Noun".

Now write the forms. Try to think of related forms. Write down
 as many as you can in column labeled "Verb", "Adjective", "Adverb", or "Noun".

Some words occur in pairs of forms: (beauty-beautiful, beauty-ugly)
 beautiful-ugly, beautiful-ugly. Before you are given
 a list of words. Decide what form each word usually takes
 in the sentence. Then think of the related forms that occur in the sentence.
 Write down the forms. For instance, if you were given beauty, you
 would note that it is a noun and recall that the noun form is
 beauty. The adjective, beautiful, or ugly, and the
 adverb, beautifully, or uglily. Write the forms in the space
 in column labeled "Verb", "Adjective", "Adverb", or "Noun".

If you are in doubt about a word, test with these patterns:
 We saw the _____
 His _____ was surprising.

Verb
 Let's _____
 Let's _____ it.
 Adjective
 It seemed _____
 They were very _____.

Adverb
 He walked _____
 They did it very _____.

THE LIST OF WORDS BELOW TO BE EXPANDED 2

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. beauty | 6. glory |
| 2. confidence | 7. originally |
| 3. endanger | 8. demand |
| 4. essential | 9. reliable |
| 5. sadly | 10. helper |

NAME _____ Period _____
A* REVIEW SHEET IV

HOW WE RECOGNIZE THE FORM CLASSES

order to speak or understand English, we must be able to tell one form class from another. Of course we don't have to know the technical names for the different classes, but just the same we must be able to tell these two kinds of words apart so that we grasp or convey meaning, and this is one of the first things we learn when we learn to speak English. Example: Sam seals trains; Sam trains seals. Usually words in our sentences are marked in some way as one class or another. They may be marked BY SOMETHING IN THE WORD ITSELF, by STRUCTURE WORDS THAT ACCOMPANY IT, or BY THE POSITION IN THE SENTENCE.

ARMY DEMANDS CHANGE
ARMY DEMANDS A CHANGE
ARMY DEMANDS WILL CHANGE
ARMY DEMANDS CHANGED
ARMY DEMANDS CHANGES

IS NOT THE MEANING OF A CERTAIN FORM CLASS (A noun names something) IT TELLS US WHICH CLASS A WORD IS IN. IN A GOOD SENTENCE THE PATTERN SETS OUT THE DIFFERENT WORD CLASSES SHARPLY AND CLEARLY.

Examples: Bool that gloob over there.
Let's buy some steekers.
Let's steeker some peanuts.
He was a rather steekerful fellow.
She plays very steekerfully.

EXERCISES:

Each of the sentences below is ambiguous; that is, it can have either of two different meanings. Point out the words that could be either noun or verb. Then change the sentence in some way so as to make clear first one meaning and then the other. Sometimes other words may be substituted to make the meaning clear.

Example: (1) Plan moves slowly.
(2) Plan is moving slowly
(3) Plan your moves slowly.

THESE SENTENCES:

1. Time flies. 2. School requests mount. 3. Navy witnesses smoke

In the sentences below see if you can pick out the nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Then for each sentence write another, substituting other nonsense words.

Example: The grobe was bickling its bompers.
The murgin was stuning its rallolledge.

THESE SENTENCES:

1. His parklip seemed rather stacious. 2. There were no cribbins
3. You tribble the rimbits while I speen the dailylags.
4. A dirty little moggen bloored the strene.
5. You didn't flench that kabe very spoothly, Andrews.

Now, try real, sensible words in the patterns, 1-5 above in No. 2.

A* REVIEW SHEET V

DETERMINERS: MARKERS OF NOUNS

classes can be marked by: (1) some feature in the words themselves; (2) by something distinctive in the positions in which the words occur; (3) BY CERTAIN ACCOMPANYING WORDS CALLED STRUCTURE WORDS.

words but about two hundred pattern in one or another of the four large form classes. These two hundred which do not are structure words. ONE group of structure words are called DETERMINERS. They pattern with nouns. They warn us that a noun is coming in the sentence.

Plan moves slowly. (ambiguous)

Plan the moves slowly.

The plan moves slowly. Determiner the makes meaning clear.

most frequent determiners are: the, these, her, few, either, a, those, its, several, neither, an, my, no, any, one, every, our, both, all, two, each, your, some, most, three, an, my, no, this, their, many, more, our, that, his, much

PLLS of them in use. Notice that they pattern just as the patterns.

The men shot the wolf.

YOUR man shot MY wolf.

HIS man shot THAT wolf.

NO man shot BOTH wolves.

EACH man shot EVERY wolf.

THE grass holds MUCH water.

PLE TO SHOW HOW THEY CLARIFY SENTENCES.

Fence ends there. (Ambiguous)

MY fence ends there. (clear)

Fence THOSE ends there. (clear)

jectives also pattern with nouns, also, but you can tell the difference between an adjective and a determiner. A determiner will not fit the pattern "Cats are very _____." An adjective will fit the pattern.

Cats are very beautiful. (adjective)

Cats are very the. (determiner).

A determiner and an adjective are used in the same pattern, the determiner always comes first: we say "Some small cats came in," not "Small some cats came in."

EXERCISES:

Copy these sentences, using determiners where the blanks occur. Try to use at least once several of the determiners given you above.

EXAMPLE: I saw _____ father in _____ bank. I saw HIS father in THAT bank.

1. _____ boys had _____ elephant. 2. _____ girls had forgotten _____ notebooks.

3. _____ people like _____ movies. 4. _____ men said they needed _____ money.

5. He left _____ car in _____ garage. 6. She has to clean _____ room each day.

7. _____ cat was washing _____ face. 8. _____ trees had shed _____ leaves. 9. Who

put _____ oysters in _____ gravy? 10. _____ people go fishing _____ day.

This time the determiners have been put in and the nouns left out.

Copy the sentences using nouns where the blanks occur. Be sure that the noun you choose sounds all right with the determiner you put with it.

1. The _____ smiled at his _____. 2. A small _____ lives in that _____. #3. Both _____ had forgotten their _____. 4. Much _____ will be needed every _____. 5. The _____ gave his _____ a _____. 6. Several _____ have examined that _____.

Here is another ambiguous sentence. By putting in determiners, show first one meaning and then the other. GUARD WATCHES CAREFULLY.

DETERMINERS: MARKERS OF NOUNS

Classes can be marked by: (1) some feature in the words themselves; (2) by some distinctive in the position in which the words occur; (3) by certain accompanying words called STRUCTURE WORDS.

Words put about two hundred pattern in one or another of the four large classes. These two hundred which do not are structure words. The group of structure words are called DETERMINERS. They pattern with nouns. They warn us that a noun is coming in the sentence.

The plan moves slowly. (Amplify)
Plan the moves slowly. (Amplify)
Determine the moves slowly. (Amplify)
The plan moves slowly. (Amplify)

Most frequent determiners are: the, these, her, few, either, a, those, is, several, neither, any, no, one, every, our, both, all, two, each, your, some, most, three, an, my, no, this, their, many, more, our, that, his, much, this of them in use. Notice that they pattern just as the patterns.

YOUR man shot MY wolf.
NO man shot BOTH wolves.
THE grass holds MUCH water.

SELF TO SHOW HOW THEY CLARIFY SENTENCES.
Fence ends there. (Amplify)
MY fence ends there. (clear)
Fence THOSE ends there. (clear)

Adjectives also pattern with nouns, also, but you can tell the difference between an adjective and a determiner. A determiner will not fit the pattern "Cats are very". An adjective will fit the pattern "Cats are very beautiful. (adjective)"
Cats are very fine. (determiner).
determiner and an adjective are used in the same pattern, the determiner always comes first: we say "some small cats came in," not "small some cats came in."

Copy these sentences, using determiners where the blanks occur. Try to use at least once several of the determiners given you above.
EXAMPLE: I saw _____ father in _____ bank.
_____ girls had forgotten _____ notebooks.
_____ boys had _____ elephants.
_____ people like _____ movies.
_____ man said they needed _____ money.
_____ she has to clean _____ room each day.
_____ cat was washing _____ face.
_____ trees had shed _____ leaves.
_____ people go fishing _____ day.

This time the determiners have been put in and the nouns left out. Copy the sentences using nouns where the blanks occur. Be sure that the noun you choose sounds all right with the determiner you put with it.
The _____ smiled at him. 2. A small _____ lives in that _____.
_____ had forgotten their _____. 4. Much _____ will be needed every _____.
The _____ gave his _____. 6. Several _____ have examined that _____.
_____ is another ambiguous sentence. By putting in determiners, show _____ the meaning and then the other. GUARD WATCHES CAREFULLY.

A* REVIEW QUIZ 1---April 21, 1961

- I. If a statement is correct, write TRUE. If it is false, write FALSE and TELL WHY. You get no credit for a false answer without the correct reason for its being false.

English is an important language, for it is spoken by about 13,000,000 people.

Words we know and use, meanings we give words, differences in speech by people in different parts of the country, and difference in sentence patterns used by people from various English-speaking countries all contribute toward making English a difficult language.

The writing system we use when we study the language hides a good many of the differences that occur in speech.

"Atta unsar, thu in himinam, weihnai namo thein" is a line from the "Lord's Prayer" as it was in about the year 1600.

Most of us will learn all the sentence patterns before we are twenty years old.

Structure words change from generation to generation, while form class words stay just about the same.

Words, used in no pattern, fail to form sentences.

The endings of words may mark the various structure words.

All adjectives end in ful, most verbs end in fy, and all adverbs end in ly.

Meaning, rather than use in a pattern, determines which form class a certain word is in.

- II. WRITE A GOOD SHORT ANSWER TO EACH OF THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS, BEING SURE TO USE THE INFORMATION WE HAVE LEARNED FROM THIS WAY OF LOOKING AT THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Name four ~~some~~ form classes of words in English.

What is a noun?

What is a verb?

What is an adjective?

What is an adverb?

What kind of word fits this pattern: "Let's ____." ?

What kind of word fits these patterns: "His ____ was interesting." or "We need some ____."

What kind of word fits these patterns: "He walked ____." or "They did it very ____."

What kind of word fits these patterns: "It seemed ____." or "They were very ____."

Write all form classes of the following words. Label each.

a. continuation b. beautifully c. stupefy

Copy the following sentence and above each nonsense word write its form class: You migggle the rimbits while I destify the morgalugs.

Write a sentence like that above, substituting real words for the nonsense words.

Make a list of five words that fit the pattern: "Let's ____ it." What form do these words belong to?

Make a list of five words that fit this pattern: "I saw a ____." What form do these words belong to?

Make a list of five words that fit this pattern: "It seemed ____." What form do these words belong to?

: ALL parts of any question must be answered correctly for you to get the point for that question. Check over your paper carefully.

A* REVIEW SHEET VI

PROPER NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

cause some determiners go with some nouns and other determiners with nouns, the big noun class is divided into several sub-classes. The subclass which we will study is the group called PROPER NOUNS. PROPER NOUNS are nouns that do not ordinarily pattern with determiners. They are mostly names of people and places: Charlie, Agnes, Mrs. Jones, Mt. Taylor, New York. When we write such nouns, we always capitalize the first letter. We do not use determiners with such nouns. A set of proper nouns, however, always are used with a specific determiner, the. Examples: the United States, the Netherlands, the Sahara Desert, the Queen Mary.

In this sentence, compare the proper noun in the pattern with the common noun in the same pattern.

We all admired the young lady.

We all admired Agnes.

There are about sixty structure words which pattern almost exactly as proper nouns do: that is, they do not occur with a determiner. These words are called PRONOUNS. These words are like nouns in that they occur in noun positions in sentences. They are like PROPER nouns in that they do not pattern with determiners.

COMPARE: Your SON ~~xxx~~ is very handsome. (common noun)

CHARLIE is very handsome. (proper noun)

HE is very handsome. (pronoun)

COMMONLY USED PRONOUNS: I, me, mine, myself, you, yours, yourself, your-, he, him, his, himself, she, her, hers, herself, it, its, itself, ours, ourselves, they, them, theirs, themselves, this, that, these, such, each, either, neither, both, some, few, many, much, none, all, any, most, each other, one another, anybody, anyone, anything, somebody, someone, something, everybody, everyone, everything, nobody, nothing, one, two, three.

SOME OF THESE WORDS ALSO APPEAR ON THE DETERMINER LIST IN REVIEW #V. Some words, like change, occur as both noun and verb, so some words occur as both determiner and pronoun. These words are determiners when they pattern with following nouns; they are PRONOUNS when they do not.

EXAMPLES: I saw HER mother (determiner)

I saw HER. (pronoun)

EXERCISES

1. In each of these sentences two nouns are capitalized. Rewrite the sentences, using any proper noun or pronoun in place of each noun. Try to get as much variety as possible. Notice what else drops out along with the noun. EXAMPLE: An old GENTLEMAN caught five FISH.

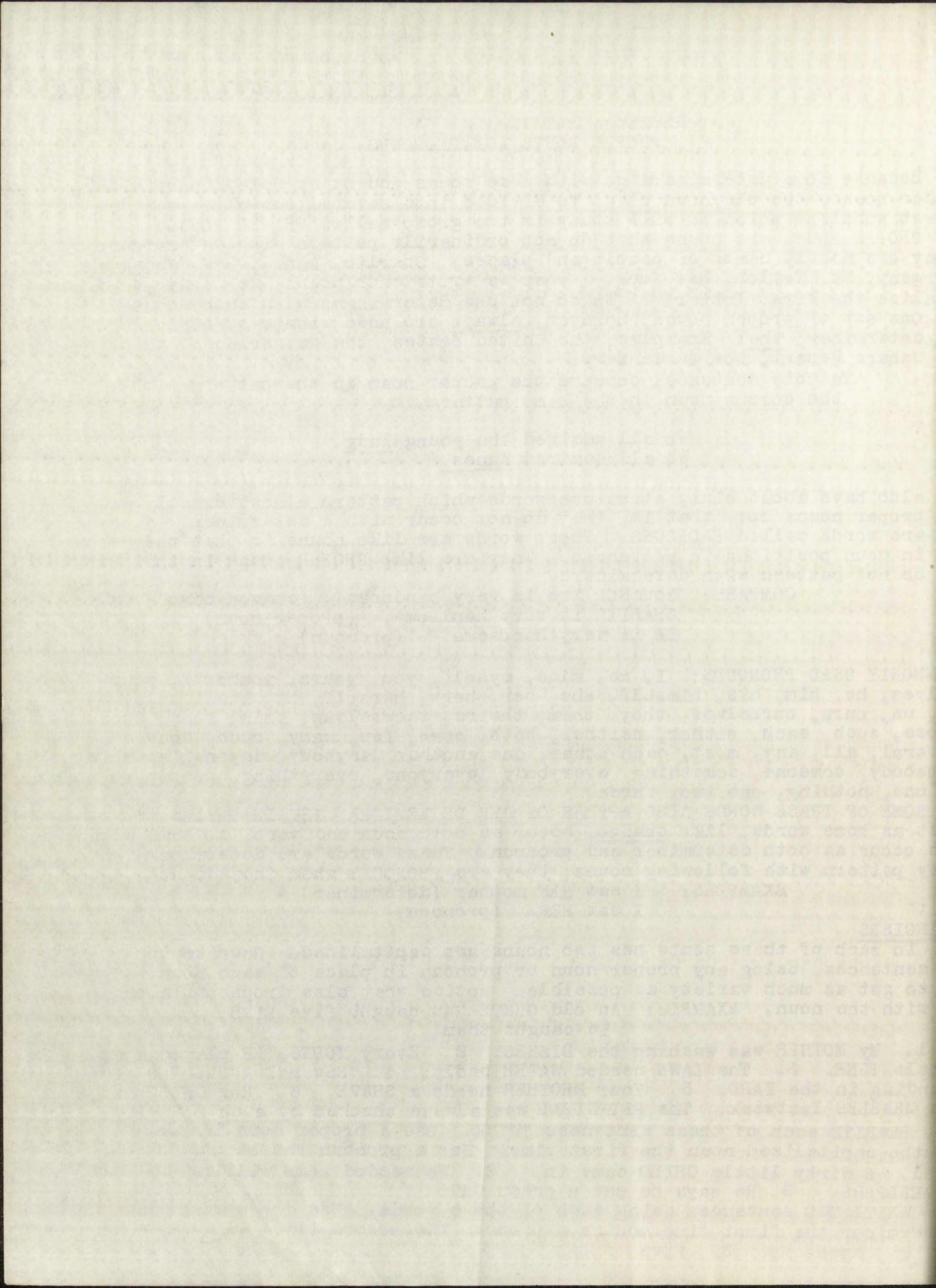
He caught them.

1. My MOTHER was washing the DISHES. 2. Every YOUNGSTER played a game of FOOTBALL. 3. The LAWN needed WATER badly. 4. Several ANTELOPES were grazing in the YARD. 5. Your BROTHER needs a SHAVE. 6. Her CHILD had a FEVER last week. The PRINCIPAL was always shocked by such BEHAVIOR.

7. REWRITE each of these sentences TWICE. Use a proper noun in place of the capitalized noun the first time. Use a pronoun the second time.

1. A dirty little CHILD came in. 2. We needed some willing HELPERS. 3. He says he saw a green CAT.

4. WRITE TWO sentences using each of these words. Use the word as a determiner the first time and as a pronoun the second time. 1. this, some 3. five



NAME _____ PERIOD _____
A* REVIEW SHEET VII
AUXILIARIES: MARKERS OF VERBS

Our next structure group is a set of words that pattern with verbs. These structure words are called AUXILIARIES. They are words like can in can go. AUXILIARY means "helping" or "supporting." Auxiliaries change the meaning of verbs they pattern with in these ways: they may give the time of the action of the verb or indicate whether it is going on now or is completed; they make up a very important part of our system of asking questions.

THERE ARE ABOUT 20 auxiliaries in common use. Most of them pattern with the simple form of the verb---like GO, SING, THINK, REMEMBER.

JUST AS a determiner acts as a signal that a noun is coming, so an AUXILIARY acts as a signal that a verb is coming.

EXAMPLES of auxiliaries that pattern with the simple form of the verb:

They CAN go.	We MUST go.
They DO go.	They OUGHT TO go.
He DOES go.	He WILL go.
I MIGHT go.	You SHOULD go.

One auxiliary patterns with verbs that end in ing, like going, waiting. This auxiliary is generally called the word BE (its parts are am, is, are, was, were). I AM going; You ARE going; I was going; They WERE going.

There are only TWO auxiliaries which can pattern with past forms of the verb---like gone, seen, waited. BE (or its parts, rather) and HAVE are the two auxiliaries. Have has these parts: HAVE, HAS, HAD.

EXAMPLES: I AM gone, They ARE gone; They HAVE gone. He HAD gone.

Auxiliaries help to make ambiguous sentences clear.

Army demands change.	(ambiguous)
Army may demand change.	(clear)
Army may change demands.	(clear)

Most of the forms on the list of auxiliaries occur only as auxiliaries. DO (DOES, DID), BE (AM, IS, ARE, WAS, WERE), HAVE (HAS, HAD) and CAN occur as verbs sometimes. They are auxiliaries WHEN THEY OCCUR BEFORE VERBS. They are verbs when they OCCUR BEFORE SOME OTHER FORM CLASS.

EXAMPLE: He does multiply in class. (auxiliary)
He does multiplication in class. (verb)

EXERCISES.

Copy the following sentences, putting auxiliaries in the blanks. Try to use as many auxiliaries as you can: 1. They ___ go home tonight. 2. You ___ see a doctor. 3. They ___ seeing what they ___ do about it. 4. He ___ ready left when we got there. 5. They ___ think we ___ blaming them. 6. Charlie ___ show you around the plant. 7. We ___ need some oil. 8. I ___ ping that you ___ come. 9. ___ you think he ___ agree? 10. I'm sure ___ invited.

Copy these sentences, putting verbs in the blanks. Notice the auxiliaries that come before the blanks, and be sure that you get the right verb form.: 1. We might ___ an answer by Monday. 2. He was ___ me the same old story. 3. He would often ___ the trail to the cabin. 4. He could ___ the other one if he wanted to. 5. He had ___ a strange thing behind the stairs. 6. They must ___ pretty old by now.

7. Rewrite each of these ambiguous sentences TWICE, using auxiliaries to mark first one word and then the other as the verb.

1. Navy witnesses smoke. 2. Swiss watches crash. 3. Baby swallows fly.

A* REVIEW SHEET IX

INTENSIFIERS: MARKERS OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Just as nouns and verbs pattern with their particular types of structure words, so do adjectives and adverbs pattern with a group of structure words. THIS GROUP OF STRUCTURE WORDS IS CALLED INTENSIFIERS.

AN INTENSIFIER IS A WORD THAT PATTERNS LIKE VERY. That is, it occurs in positions like those in which very occurs. Examples:

That's a very good idea. He spoke very quickly.
Some very lovely girls came in. He did his work very quickly.

Very (or intensifiers) pattern with adjectives and adverbs, but not with nouns or verbs. We do not say "Some very girls came in" or "She was very singing."

English has the following common words which pattern like very, although they can have other uses, too: Learn these: VERY, RATHER, PRETTY, SOMEWHAT, AWFULLY, REALLY, QUITE, MORE, MOST, TOO.

Intensifiers express different shades of meaning and also work to keep the structure of our sentences clear by separating the form classes. They cannot distinguish adjectives from adverbs, but they do distinguish adjectives from nouns and adjectives from verbs.

Under this method of looking at English, both nouns and adjectives are used to modify nouns. When we hear or read a sentence in which a noun is preceded by another word, we have to know, one way or another, whether that other word is a noun or an adjective. Otherwise we can't understand the sentence.

Example: He's a criminal lawyer. (Is the lawyer a criminal or does he defend criminals?)

If we add an intensifier to the above sentence, the intensifier will mark criminal as an adjective, since intensifiers pattern with adjectives but not with nouns. Example: He's a very criminal lawyer.

What is the difference in meaning in these sentences? What makes the meaning clear in the third sentence?

He's a sweet salesman.
He's a sweet salesman.
He's a rather sweet salesman.

INTENSIFIERS may also distinguish adjectives from verbs. Some forms, ending in ing or ed, (for example, entertaining) pattern as both adjectives and verbs. Notice the difference in meaning in the following sentences. What makes the difference in the second one? What keeps the sentence from being ambiguous?

She was entertaining.
She was most entertaining.

SUMMARY: BE sure that you have these structure words in mind:

DETERMINERS (the, a, every, my, etc.) pattern with nouns.

AUXILIARIES (may, should, have, is, etc.) pattern with verbs.

INTENSIFIERS (very, rather, somewhat, etc.) pattern with adjectives and adverbs.

A* REVIEW SHEET X - SYMBOLS AND SENTENCES

In order to discuss more easily the words that make up English sentences, it will be useful to have a shorthand method of referring to them. A little time spent in memorizing this shorthand, or symbols now will save you much time later on.

MEMORIZE THESE:FORM-CLASS WORDS

- | | |
|----|---------------------|
| 1 | any noun or pronoun |
| 2 | any verb |
| 2L | linking verb |
| 3 | adjective |
| 4 | adverb |

STRUCTURE WORDS

- | | |
|---|---|
| D | determiner (patterns w. nouns) |
| A | auxiliary (" " with verbs) |
| ★ | |
| V | intensifier (" " with adjectives & adverbs) |

- ★ The V is from the word very which is such an important member of this group.

WHAT SENTENCES ARE

All of our writing is made up of particular arrangements of form classes and structure words called SENTENCES. In speech we mark off sentences by changes in the pitch of our voice. In writing we mark them off at the beginning with a capital letter and at the closing with a period, question mark, or exclamation point.

We sometimes think of sentences as being "complete thoughts." They are complete, in a way, but in another way they aren't complete at all. Most sentences are closely connected in form and meaning with sentences that come before or after, so a sentence is usually not really complete in meaning. IT IS COMPLETE IN THE SENSE THAT IT CONSISTS OF ONE OF A NUMBER OF WORD PATTERNS, AND THE SENTENCE IS COMPLETE WHEN THE PATTERN HAS BEEN COMPLETED.

Example: 1 2L 3 is one type of pattern.

Brides are beautiful. (complete pattern)

Brides are. (incomplete pattern)

Brides. (incomplete pattern)

THREE MAIN KINDS OF SENTENCES (according to the different effects they have on hearers.)

1. REQUEST SENTENCES (make people do things)
 - Get out of the way. (Hearer gets out of the way).
 - Turn on the light. (Hearer turns on the light.)
2. QUESTION SENTENCES (makes people say things in answer)
 - Are you going? (Hearer answers "Yess" or "No".)
 - Where is he? (Hearer answers "In the bathtub.")
3. STATEMENT SENTENCES (makes people simply keep on listening)
 - The earth is round.
 - He's very fond of spiders.

We'll begin studying the basic patterns of statements. Remember, these patterns are BASIC. We shall see that all of them can be enlarged in many ways by modification and combination. BUT NEARLY EVERY ENGLISH SENTENCE, EVEN THE MOST COMPLICATED, WILL TURN OUT TO BE BASED ON ONE OF A RELATIVELY FEW BASIC PATTERNS.

- I. Learning a set of symbols is a matter of practice. Here is something to practice on. Turn each of the sentences below into a formula by writing the proper symbol for each word. (See page 1 of this Review Sheet for the proper symbols.) For instance, the sentence "All brides are beautiful" would give the formula
- D 1 2L 3.

USE THESE SENTENCES:

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. He shouted loudly. | 6. The girls stayed away. |
| 2. My brother coughed. | 7. His sister was unhappy. |
| 3. His money came. | 8. Those dentists are my brothers. |
| 4. Each boy bought a dog. | 9. Your hands are dirty. |
| 5. We saw Charlie | 10. We built a garage. |

- II. Now try turning some formulas into sentences. For each formula below write a sentence. For instance, for the formula D 1 2 4 you might write
- D 1 2 4
The men came in.

(Copy the formula when making your sentences.)

- | | |
|---------------|--|
| 1. D 1 2L 3 | (You don't have to do the one below, but try |
| 2. 1 2L D 1 | it for fun if you can.) |
| 3. D 1 2 4 | |
| 4. D 1 2 D 1 | D V 3 1 A 2 D 1 |
| 5. D 1 2L D 1 | |

- III. It isn't hard to distinguish statements, questions, and requests. If we couldn't tell them apart, we wouldn't know when to answer, when to act, and when simply to look intelligent. Here are some sentences. Write their numbers on your paper, and for each number tell whether the corresponding sentence is a statement, a question, or a request. (The end punctuation is left out to confuse you.)

1. Has anybody seen Ralph
2. Pick up your clothes
3. Where do you live
4. His aunt died last week
5. Who is she going with
6. I'm not afraid of you or your whole family.
7. Watch out for that truck
8. Do you know where he keeps his shirts
9. What are you going to do this week end
10. Texas is the largest state in the Union

1. Fill in the circles with the words.

1. I saw _____ dogs in _____ yard.
2. She has to wash _____ room _____ day.
3. A young man will sound right in _____ manner.
4. A small _____ lives in that _____.
5. Much _____ will be needed every _____.

REWRITE THESE SENTENCES, SUBSTITUTING A PROPER NOUN OR PRONOUN IN PLACE OF EACH NOUN:

5. The principal was always shocked by such behavior.
6. Several antelopes were standing in the yard.

WRITE A SENTENCE USING THIS AS A PRONOUN:

7.

WRITE A SENTENCE USING THIS AS A DETERMINER:

8.

WRITE A WORD TO BE USED AS AN AUXILIARY IN EACH OF THESE SENTENCES:

9. They seeing what they do about it.
10. I'm sure he invited.

WRITE A WORD TO BE USED AS A VERB IN THESE SENTENCES:

11. He would often the trail to the cabin.
12. He had a strange thing behind the stairs.

WRITE A LINKING VERB FOR THESE SENTENCES:

13. My mother angry.
14. The milk sour.

WRITE A NON-LINKING VERB FOR THIS SENTENCE:

15. He my friend.

WRITE A LINKING VERB FOR THIS SENTENCE:

16. His father a doctor.

FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING WRITE ADJ. IF THE MIDDLE WORD IS AN ADJECTIVE:

WRITE NOUN IF IT IS A NOUN:

17. an old truck
18. a tree surgeon
19. some basketball players
20. those rotten apples

WRITE THE SYMBOLS FOR THESE SENTENCES:

21. Those doctors are my uncles.
22. We built a garage.

WRITE A SENTENCE TO FIT EACH OF THESE PATTERNS:

23. D 1 2L 3
24. D 1 2 4
25. D 1 2L D 1

LIST ANY THREE INTENSIFIERS:

- 26.
- 27.
- 28.

LIST ANY THREE LINKING VERBS OTHER THAN BE OR ITS PARTS:

- 29.
- 30.
- 31.

LIST THE PARTS OF THE VERB BE, OTHER THAN BE ITSELF:

- 32.
- 33.
- 34.
- 35.
- 36.

LIST ANY FOUR COMMON AUXILIARIES:

- 37.
- 38.
- 39.
- 40.

REWRITE THESE SENTENCES, SUBSTITUTING A PROPER NOUN OR PRONOUN IN PLACE OF EACH NOUN:

1. The principal was always shocked by such behavior.
 2. Several antelopes were standing in the yard.
 3. Write a sentence using this as a pronoun:

4. Write a sentence using this as a determiner:

5. Write a word to be used as an auxiliary in each of these sentences:

6. They seeing what they do about it.

7. I'm sure he invited.

8. Write a word to be used as a verb in these sentences:

9. He would often the trail to the cabin.

10. He had a strange thing behind the stairs.

11. Write a linking verb for these sentences:

12. My mother angry.

13. The milk sour.

14. Write a non-linking verb for this sentence:

15. He my friend.

16. Write a linking verb for this sentence:

17. His father a doctor.

18. For each of the following write an if the underlined word is an adjective:

19. Write noun if it is a noun:

20. an old truck

21. a tree surgeon

22. some basketball players

23. those rotten apples

24. Write the symbols for these sentences:

25. Those doctors are my uncles.

26. We built a garage.

27. Write a symbol for each of these patterns:

28. D I S I

29. D I S I

30. D I S I

31. List any three intensifiers:

32.

33.

34.

35.

36.

37. List any four common auxiliaries:

38.

39.

40.

A* REVIEW SHEET XI--THE HEART OF STATEMENTS

Although English statements occur in several different basic patterns, they all have one feature in common: they show a particular connection in form between two parts of the sentence. More exactly, they show a connection between a word in one part of the sentence and a word in the other part. ONE OF THESE WORDS IS ALWAYS A VERB, AND THE OTHER IS USUALLY A NOUN OR PRONOUN, although it may be other things (phrases or clauses) as well.

NOUN FORMS

One characteristic of English nouns is that they have forms to show "one" and "more than one." THE NUMBER FORMS of English nouns are singular (form meaning "one" and plural (form meaning "more than one.")

The great majority of English nouns have plurals that end in an "s" sound, a "z" sound, or an "iz" sound. EXAMPLES: cats, rats, cliffs, guns, trees, dogs, classes, witches, roses, garages.

In addition, a few nouns form the plural in an irregular way. Seven common nouns form the plural by changing the sound without adding anything: man, men; woman, women; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; mouse, mice; louse, lice. A few have en in the plural, such as ox, oxen; child, children. A few nouns add a "z" sound (the letter s in writing), but make other changes too: loaf, loaves; wife, wives; knife, knives; lady, ladies. Some nouns do not change at all: deer, deer; quail, quail. Some nouns come to us from a foreign language and have kept their foreign form for the plural: memorandum, memoranda; alumnus, alumni; criterion, criteria.

VERB FORMS

Verbs do not have singular-plural forms in quite the same way. For instance, the verb drink does not have one form which means "drink once" and another form which means "drink more than once." The form of a verb USUALLY DEPENDS ON THE SINGULAR FORM OF A NOUN IN THE SENTENCE, and so we say that the noun and the verb AGREE with each other, or that they are TIED. The noun tied to the verb is the SUBJECT of that verb. We will use a double arrow (\longleftrightarrow) in our formulas to show this fact that two particular words are tied.

D 1 2 4
The boys drink slowly.

MOST VERBS ADD S FOR SINGULAR NOUN SUBJECTS AND PRONOUNS THAT SUBSTITUTE FOR THEM AND OCCUR WITHOUT S FOR PLURAL SUBJECTS. (Notice that the forms of tied verbs and nouns are in a way reversed, since plural nouns have s and singular nouns do not.

Example: That girl sings constantly.
Those girls sing constantly.

EXERCISES

1. Copy the following sentences, but change the number of the first noun. If it is singular, make it plural; if it is plural, make it singular. Notice what must happen to the form of the verb.

USE THESE SENTENCES: 1. The house was old. 2. The dogs bark angrily. 3. His reasons were good. 4. My brothers have bad manners. 5. The mouse was dizzy. 6. The walls were painted pink. 7. The men do their work happily. 8. His tooth aches in cold weather. 9. The pen was leaky. 11. The child was crying.

II. In an English sentence the number of the subject controls the form of the verb. THE NUMBER OF ANY OTHER NOUN IN THE SENTENCE has no effect on the verb. Show that this is so by rewriting the following sentences, changing the number of the noun that comes AFTER the verb: make it singular if it is plural, and plural if it is singular. Notice that the form of the verb does not need to change, though you may have to change the determiner before the noun. In some sentences you may drop the determiner altogether.

USE THESE SENTENCES:

1. The school needs the building.
2. The boys own the parrots.
3. He has a baseball.
4. They want your address.
5. We know some policemen.

III. Write the plurals of the following nouns. If you don't know what they are, look them up in the dictionary. Some of them may have two ways of spelling the plural.

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|
| 1. shelf | 6. life | 11. tenderfoot |
| 2. louse | 7. half | 12. hero |
| 3. loose | 8. stratum | 13. terminus |
| 4. cherub | 9. fish | 14. phenomenon |
| 5. pair | 10. hippopotamus | 15. stadium |

the following sentences are correct or not. If not, correct them.
 1. The school needs the building.
 2. The boys and the girls.
 3. He has a baseball.
 4. I've sent your address.
 5. We know some policemen.

Use these sentences:
 1. The school needs the building.
 2. The boys and the girls.
 3. He has a baseball.
 4. I've sent your address.
 5. We know some policemen.

Write the names of the following in the blank space.
 1. The school needs the building.
 2. The boys and the girls.
 3. He has a baseball.
 4. I've sent your address.
 5. We know some policemen.

1. The school needs the building.	6. The boys and the girls.	11. He has a baseball.
2. I've sent your address.	7. We know some policemen.	12. The school needs the building.
3. The boys and the girls.	8. He has a baseball.	13. I've sent your address.
4. We know some policemen.	9. The school needs the building.	14. The boys and the girls.
5. He has a baseball.	10. I've sent your address.	15. We know some policemen.

I. For each of the formulas given below write two sentences that will show the tie. For instance, if the formula were D 1 \leftrightarrow 2 D 1, you might write "My sister has the job" for the first sentence. Then, changing sister to sisters, you would have "My sisters have the job" for the second sentence. Use a singular subject in one and a plural subject in the other, and don't use past tenses.

1. D 1 \leftrightarrow 2 3
2. 1 \leftrightarrow 2 4
3. 1 \leftrightarrow 2 V 4

II. Most English verbs form their past tenses regularly, adding a D sound, a T sound, or an ID sound, all spelled ED: walked, started, hoped, stopped, learned. About two hundred verbs form the past tense irregularly. Write the past tense forms of the following verbs. You probably know them, but if you don't look them up.

- | | |
|-----------|-------------------------|
| 1. see | 14. fly |
| 2. hold | 15. fix swim |
| 3. catch | 16. wear |
| 4. ride | 17. seek |
| 5. build | 18. forget |
| 6. send | 19. break |
| 7. steal | 20. sing |
| 8. hit | 21. go |
| 9. choose | 22. swear |
| 10. sting | 23. meet |
| 11. dig | 24. shake |
| 12. bleed | 25. stand |
| 13. bind | |

REMEMBER THESE SYMBOLS:

- 1 noun
- 2 verb
- 3 adjective
- 4 adverb
- A auxiliary
- D determiner
- V intensifier
- \leftrightarrow tie

1. I saw him. The former is used in the first sentence, the latter in the second sentence.
2. I saw him. The former is used in the first sentence, the latter in the second sentence.
3. I saw him. The former is used in the first sentence, the latter in the second sentence.

- 1. I saw him.
- 2. I saw him.
- 3. I saw him.

11. Most English verbs form their past tense regularly, adding a D sound, a T sound, or an ID sound, all spelled ED: walked, started, hoped, stopped, learned. About two hundred verbs form the past tense irregularly. Below are the past tense forms of the following verbs. You probably know them, but if you don't look them up.

1. see	14. fly
2. hold	15. fly swim
3. catch	16. wear
4. ride	17. seat
5. sold	18. forget
6. send	19. break
7. stand	20. sing
8. lift	21. go
9. choose	22. swear
10. sting	23. meet
11. dig	24. shake
12. place	25. stand
13. blind	

NOTE: The first column shows the past tense forms of the verbs.

- 1 noun
- 2 verb
- 3 adjective
- 4 adverb
- 5 auxiliary
- 6 determiner
- 7 intensifier
- 8 M

A* REVIEW SHEET XIII---FOUR BASIC STATEMENT PATTERNS

Although English sentences show a good deal of variety, practically all the sentences we speak and write are built on just A HANDFUL OF BASIC PATTERNS. These patterns can be modified and combined in almost endless ways, but really our sentences are just these few patterns repeated over and over. Although there are a very few more basic patterns, we'll study the four most common ones.

PATTERN ONE

Noun Verb 1 ↔ 2 Birds sing.

This basic pattern---and all the basic patterns---can be expanded and modified in many ways. For instance, the noun may have a determiner in front of it:

D 1 ↔ 2
 Birds sing.
 The birds sing.
 A ghost walked.
 The teacher quit.

The verb may have an auxiliary. When it does, the noun is tied to the auxiliary rather than to the verb:

D 1 ↔ A 2
 Birds can sing.
 This bird is singing.
 Each bird had sung.

The pattern may contain an adverb.

D 1 ↔ 2 4
 Birds sing noisily.
 The team played well.

PATTERN TWO

Noun verb adjective 1 ↔ 2 3 Birds are beautiful.

The verb in this pattern is always a linking verb. (am, is, are, was, were, seem, appear, look, taste, feel, grow, etc.)

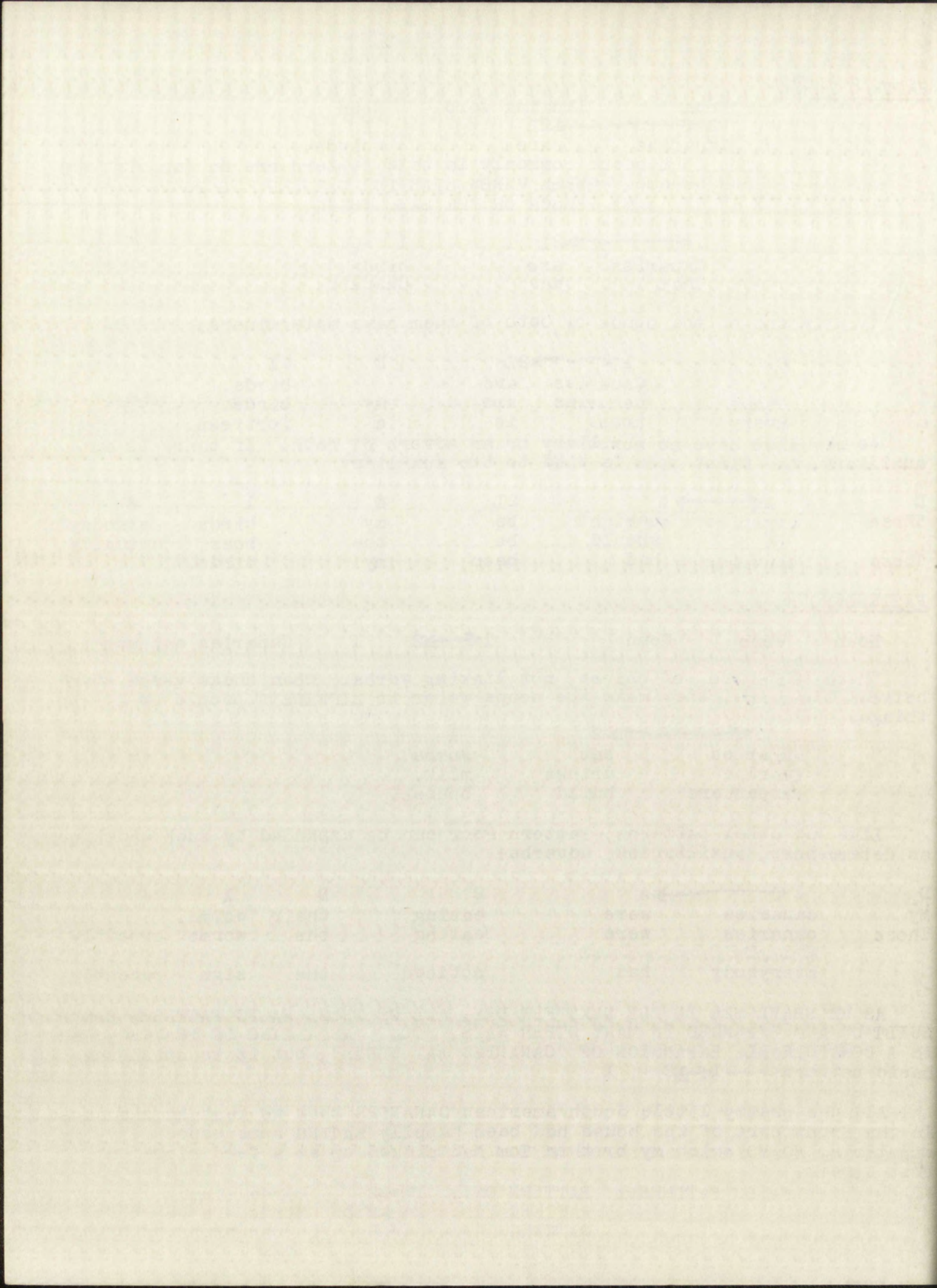
D 1 ↔ 2 3
 Birds are beautiful.
 The birds are beautiful.
 Everyone seems sad.

The verb may be preceded by an auxiliary.

D 1 ↔ A 2 3
 My horse had grown old.
 His story may sound true.

The pattern may contain an adverb.

D 1 ↔ 2 3 4
 He grew old gracefully.
 Her pies taste good sometimes.



EXERCISES

- I. The best way to get a feeling for the basic sentence patterns is to produce a lot of them. To begin with, write 10 sentences to illustrate Pattern One: $1 \leftrightarrow 2$. Use a determiner with the noun, if you wish, and an auxiliary or an adverb with the verb; but don't make it any more elaborate than that. Write your symbols after the sentence.

Examples: Babies cry. ($1 \leftrightarrow 2$)
 My brother came. (D $1 \leftrightarrow 2$)
 My brother came in. (D $1 \leftrightarrow 2$ 4)
 The girl was crying. (D $1 \leftrightarrow A$ 2)
 The girl was crying softly. (D $1 \leftrightarrow A$ 2 4)

- II. Now write ten sentences to illustrate Pattern Two: $1 \leftrightarrow 2$ 3. Write the formula after the sentence.

Examples: Turtles are slow. ($1 \leftrightarrow 2$ 3)
 His shirt was dirty. (D $1 \leftrightarrow 2$ 3)
 Her story had sounded true. (D $1 \leftrightarrow A$ 2 3)
 The milk turned sour later. (D $1 \leftrightarrow 2$ 3 4)

- III. Write ten sentences to illustrate Pattern Three ($1 \leftrightarrow 2L$ 1) Write the formula after the sentence.

Example: His car is a sedan. (D $1 \leftrightarrow 2L$ D 1)
 Charlie is my brother. (D $1 \leftrightarrow 2L$ D 1)
 He had been an actor. ($1 \leftrightarrow A$ 2L D 1)

(The verbs you use above will probably be some form of BE or BECOME)

- IV. Write ten sentences to illustrate Pattern Four: $1 \leftrightarrow 2$ 1. Write the formula after the sentence.

Example: His car hit a sedan. (D $1 \leftrightarrow 2$ D 1)
 Ed helped Charles. ($1 \leftrightarrow 2$ 1)
 The house needed some paint badly. (D $1 \leftrightarrow 2$ D 1 4)
 He needed a shave. ($1 \leftrightarrow 2$ D 1)

The best way to get a feeling for the basic sentence patterns is to write a lot of them. In doing so, write 10 sentences to illustrate Pattern One: I-4-2. Use a determiner with the noun, a verb, and an auxiliary or an adverb with the verb, but don't make it any more elaborate than that. Write your symbols after the sentence.

Examples:

- Babies cry. (I-4-2)
- My brother came. (D I-4-2)
- My brother came in. (D I-4-2)
- The girl was crying. (D I-4-2)
- The girl was crying softly. (D I-4-2)

Now write ten sentences to illustrate Pattern Two: I-4-2. Write the formula after the sentence.

Examples:

- Turtles are slow. (I-4-2)
- His shirt was dirty. (D I-4-2)
- Her story had sounded true. (D I-4-2)
- The milk turned sour later. (D I-4-2)

Write ten sentences to illustrate Pattern Three: I-4-2. Write the formula after the sentence.

Examples:

- His car is a sedan. (I I-4-2)
- Charlie is my brother. (D I-4-2)
- He had been an actor. (I-4-2)

(The verbs you use above will probably be some form of BE or BCOME)

Write ten sentences to illustrate Pattern Four: I-4-2. Write the formula after the sentence.

Examples:

- His car hit a sedan. (D I-4-2)
- Ed helped Charles. (I-4-2)
- The house needed some paint badly. (D I-4-2)
- He needed a shave. (I-4-2)

* REVIEW SHEET XIV----NOUN CLUSTERS: PREPOSITION (P) GROUPS

But several other words are used to modify a noun, we say that we have a NOUN CLUSTER. The noun, itself, is referred to as the HEADWORD. In place of single words modifying the noun, we may have a word group modifying the headword.

MODIFIER	HEADWORD	MODIFIER
the	man	in the truck
the	top	of a mountain

Words IN and OF in these clusters are called PREPOSITIONS. We give them the symbol P. The characteristic of prepositions is that they pattern with a following noun with which they form a tight unit. The preposition and its noun which follows is called a PREPOSITION GROUP or P-group. When a P-group follows a noun, it modifies it.

MODIFIER	HEADWORD	MODIFIER
D	1	P D 1
the	man	in the truck
some	maps	on the wall

English has about fifty words which may occur as prepositions. OF is the most common, but IN, ON, BY, TO, AT, FROM, and a few others are also very frequent in appearance. Here is a fairly complete list of words that may occur as prepositions: ABOARD, ABOUT, ABOVE, ACROSS, AFTER, AGAINST, ALONG, ALONGSIDE, AMID, AMONG, AROUND, AT, BEFORE, BEHIND, BELOW, BENEATH, BESIDE, BESIDES, BETWEEN, BEYOND, BY, CONCERNING, DESPITE, DOWN, DURING, FOR, FROM, IN, INSIDE, INTO, LIKE, NEAR, OF, OFF, ON, ONTO, OVER, PER, ROUND, SINCE, THROUGH, THROUGHOUT, TILL, TO, TOWARD, UNDER, UNTIL, UNTO, UP, UPON, WITH, WITHIN, AHEAD OF, CONTRARY TO, IN SPITE OF.

Although these words MAY occur as prepositions, quite a few of them occur as adverbs, also. They are ADVERBS WHEN THEY ARE USED IN POSITIONS LIKE THOSE IN WHICH BEAUTIFULLY OCCURS.

She walked beautifully.

THEY ARE PREPOSITIONS WHEN THEY FORM A UNIT WITH A FOLLOWING NOUN.

She walked in the yard.

Notice that here BEAUTIFULLY does not fit in the position in which IN occurs. We would not say: She walked beautifully the yard.)

EXERCISES:

I. Write five noun clusters with the formula D 3 1 4

Examples: the thin men there an angry crowd outside

II. Rewrite the clusters and this time substitute a preposition group for the adverb.

Examples: the thin men in my family an angry crowd on the

III. Write five clusters with the formula D 1 P-group.

Examples: a shack behind the barn a hike down the road

A* REVIEW SHEET XV----NOUN CLUSTERS: S-groups

EXERCISES (CONTINUED)

- II. Write five noun clusters with the formula D 1 P-group S-group. Make sure that the P-group and the S-group both modify the same headword.

Example: a man in my home town who was wealthy
the cats on the fence which were fighting

- III. Write four noun clusters with the formula D 3 1 1 P-group

Example: a handsome carnival man in my home town who was wealthy
some silly choir girls in the back row that were always
giggling.

A* REVIEW SHEET XVI - VERB CLUSTERS: P-GROUPS and S-GROUPS AND USING SENTENCE PATTERNS

Verb clusters, like noun clusters, are modified by P-groups and S-groups.

When a preposition group is used, it often comes right after the verb headword:

HEADWORD	MODIFIER
2	P-group
went	into the back room
sat	on a tack
died	of heartbreak

Sometimes two P-groups in a row modify the same verb.

HEADWORD	MODIFIER	MODIFIER
2	P-group	P-group
rode	into the room	on a bicycle
went	to Chicago	with his uncle

S-groups that occur in verb clusters are somewhat different from those that occur in noun clusters. They are introduced by A DIFFERENT SET OF SUBORDINATORS---because, while, if, when, etc. These subordinators regularly stand outside a sentence pattern, and they make that pattern a part of another pattern. For instance, if we say "We went away," we have a sentence. But if we put because in front of this pattern, we no longer have a sentence but something that must be part of another construction.

EXAMPLES

SUBORDINATOR	SENTENCE PATTERN	
because	birds sing	Patt. 1
although	birds are beautiful	Patt. 2
if	he is your friend	Patt. 3
when	he got the money	Patt. 4

NO MATTER HOW LONG AND COMPLICATED THE SENTENCE PATTERN IS, IT WILL STILL BE PART OF ANOTHER PATTERN IF A SUBORDINATOR STANDS IN FRONT OF IT.

EXAMPLE

Subordinator
because

Sentence Pattern
the little birds that nest in the trees
outside our house sing songs that we all
like to hear

EXERCISES

1. Give ten verb clusters in which the verb headword is modified by a P-group. (Example: went (to the store))
2. Write ten verb clusters in which the verb headword is modified by an S-group. Use as many subordinators as you can. (Example: ate an apple (because he was hungry))
(COMMON SUBORDINATORS ARE because, while, if, when, where, until, as, than, before, after, since, where, whenever, wherever, whether, though, although, as if, how, why, that, so that, provided. These words sometimes have other uses in our language, too.)
3. Write five NOUN CLUSTERS with the formula D 3 1 P-group. Then, use each of these in one of the basic sentence patterns and show how you have used it:(Example: The thin men(in my family)drink milk. headword is the subject in Pattern Four.)
4. Write five NOUN CLUSTERS with the formula D 1 S-group. Use each

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in one of the basic sentence patterns and indicate how you've used it.
(Example: I man a man(who was wealthy). headword is the object
in Pattern Four.)

5. Write the symbols and the ties for the following sentence. (Use this

When the sloopy wantupper had eviptally loofed the strambix, the
rallopash scoomed up his flibbles and skorked.

6. Write the symbols and the ties for the following story which
you have seen before: (Use this paper.)

One day a speek orgled into a floom. In the center of the floor
was a very grutious grannyflax. As everyone knows, speeks geeble
grannyflaxes, though grannyflaxes never foobar speeks. This granny-
flax was niffy and rather klookful. It had an ignormous spele on
its tirtam. The speek was quite crebulous. It spaned the scale of
the grannyflax and flebbed it stilefully. But the grannyflax still
had a boosh. While the speek was flebbing its scale, it baffed the
speek on the boobin and rabbled away.

7. Write which sentence pattern each of the following is:

1. Borgons mooble mikkadoes.
2. The zimmers were diggling the parkzims fleebly.
3. The muskus in the blinka lipple naspily in the gormming.
4. Those niclers are silful.
5. Those flimmers may be my sligers yadesom.
6. The gliggers at the termak should be the wubers of the picpac
yazedom when they are lickle.
7. Because my rescans were yopping their plamps nawily, I floted
the ones in my tistg.
8. Those gips in the looper are my dergers of the tasp.

8. Write a nonsense sentence of your own, according to any one of the
patterns given you in Sheet XIII, and then label with the proper
symbols and ties. Use the space below.

A* REVIEW OF REVIEW SHEETS

1. What kind of word fits each of the following patterns?

We saw the _____.
His _____ was surprising.
Let's _____.
Let's _____ it.
It seemed _____.
They were very _____.
He walked _____.
He did it very _____.

2. What tells us what form class a certain word is in? (IV)
3. What are some difficulties of English? (I)
4. How important is English?
5. What did our language look like in the past centuries?
6. Review your Review Quiz I.
7. How many determiners are there? What are they? Where do they fit?
8. Like what word do they pattern?
9. What are twenty common pronouns? How do they pattern?
10. How do proper nouns pattern?
11. About how many auxiliaries are there? What do they signal?
12. What is the most common linking verb? What are some of the others?
13. How can you tell a linking verb from a non-linking verb? (VIII)
14. How does an intensifier pattern? What do they mark?
15. What are some common intensifiers?
16. What are all the symbols we have learned? (X and other sheets)
17. What is a sentence, under this system of looking at grammar?
18. What are the three main kinds of sentences?
19. Review your Review Quiz II.
20. What is the heart of every statement in the English language?
21. How do nouns form their plurals?
22. What is meant by a "tie"?
23. How do we know if a verb is singular or plural?
24. How do most verbs form their past tense?
25. Have you memorized the four basic statement patterns shown in sheet XIII and on the board? THIS WILL BE ASKED ON THE TEST.
26. What is a headword?
27. What are twenty-five common prepositions?
28. What is a P-group and how is it used in a word group?
29. What does an S-group modifying a noun look like?
30. What subordinators introduce S-groups modifying nouns? What effect does a subordinator have?
31. Where does a P-group come when it modifies a verb?
32. What subordinators introduce S-groups used with verbs?
33. How does a subordinator affect a word group?

Write the plurals of these nouns:

13. moose - _____

14. phenomenon - _____

15. shelf - _____

16. hero - _____

If the noun before and after a verb refer to the same person or thing, we know that the verb is a 17. _____ verb.

Write the kind of word each of these symbols stands for:

18. S - _____

19. 2 - _____

20. V - _____

21. A - _____

22. S - _____

23. 1 - _____

A singular (24) _____ usually does not end in s, while the singular form of the (25) _____ tied to it usually does.

What two words form the heart of every English sentence?

26. _____

27. _____

Be, am, smell, count, and taste are examples of (28) _____ verbs.

A sentence that has more than one meaning is said to be 29 _____.

Under this system of grammar, both adjectives and (30) _____ are form class words which can modify nouns.

III. Write the symbols for these sentences. Show groups in parentheses and also label each word within a group. Use () for the S-groups and [] for the P-groups.

The dogs in the show which was held in September were very fine animals.

The big pigs in the front pen who ate the green diet are going to market.

The pretty little African canaries that we keep in the cages in the old garage are happily eating some very good worms which my little neighbor caught for them.

The stories that she tells to the happy children in her family are ~~some~~ somewhat interesting.

IV. Tell to which basic sentence pattern each of the above sentences belongs:

Sentence No. 1 - Pattern _____; 3. Sentence No. 3 - Patt. _____
Sentence No. 2 - Pattern _____; 4. Sentence No. 4 - Patt. _____

V. Write the symbols (including P-groups and S-groups) for the following nonsense sentences. Do exactly as you did for the sensible sentences in Part III.

That wigvag may be your shaggledot redidaly.

Your zoppies at the lechool were limferable.

Most peoddos marple fertinagoes when fertinagoes roop typly.

Since those cartinins were blazatoing the weffy gropinigs, the nagamister berfed the weaufibul cartinins.

VI. Write a sensible sentence of your own, following exactly the pattern of each of the nonsense sentences in Part V. Write your symbols above the words.

VI. Write a sentence of your own following exactly the pattern
of each of the four sentences in Part V. Write your symbols
above the words.

CHAIRMAN'S NAME _____

PERIOD _____

S H E E T S

R E V I E W

MEMBERS OF GROUP

1 2

3

4

5

6

7

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17

18

D I R E C T I O N S

Please check your members' booklets each day to see if the required work has been done. Include yourself as a member of your group and indicate your own grade for the day. Please remember that I will spot check various groups at different times, and please do your best to live up to expectations placed in you as chairman. Give each person a daily grade under the proper column, using the following guide:

- 1 - All work done, nearly all right with only 1 or 2 misses
- 2 - All work done, with from 3-5 misses
- 3 - All work done, with from 6-10 misses
- 4 - Work not complete, but a reasonable amount attempted
- 5 - Little or none of the assignment done

APPENDIX B
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL, GROUP B

APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENTAL MATERIALS

GENERAL DIRECTIONS FOR REVIEWS: Keep up with the daily lessons, and keep all of your work done in connection with the review. The general plan for each day will include an explanation of the material (both in dicto form and orally in class) and exercises to be done to place firmly in your mind the material covered. It is hoped that in a review will give you a chance to fit together the "pieces" of grammatical knowledge of which you should have a thorough command before you go to high school.

VERBS

Every sentence must have a verb. It may help you to think of a verb as giving motor power to a sentence. It makes the sentence go. It makes the idea come alive. A VERB IS A WORD WHICH EXPRESSES ACTION, BEING, OR STATE OF BEING. (A VERB MAY BE FORMED BY A GROUP OF WORDS; THIS GROUP IS CALLED A VERB PHRASE. (Example: I am being asked is a verb phrase. "am, being" (helping verbs, together with "asked" (main verb) make up the VERB PHRASE).

A verb is used as the simple predicate of a sentence.

A TRANSITIVE VERB IS ONE THAT HAS A RECEIVER OF ITS ACTION.

Example: I make too many excuses. (Ask "what?" after the verb to see what word is the receiver of its action).

AN INTRANSITIVE VERB IS ONE THAT DOES NOT HAVE A RECEIVER OF ITS ACTION.

Examples: Edgar finally appeared. (The action ends with the verb. Where were you? (The verb be never takes an object).

A LINKING VERB IS INTRANSITIVE IN THAT IT DOES NOT TAKE AN OBJECT, BUT IT IS DIFFERENT FROM THE COMPLETE INTRANSITIVE VERB IN THAT IT JOINS A PREDICATE NOMINATIVE OR A PREDICATE ADJECTIVE TO THE SUBJECT. The most common linking verb is be (its parts are am, is, are, was, were, will be, has been, have been, had been). Other linking verbs are seem, become, appear, grow, taste, smell, sound, look, feel.

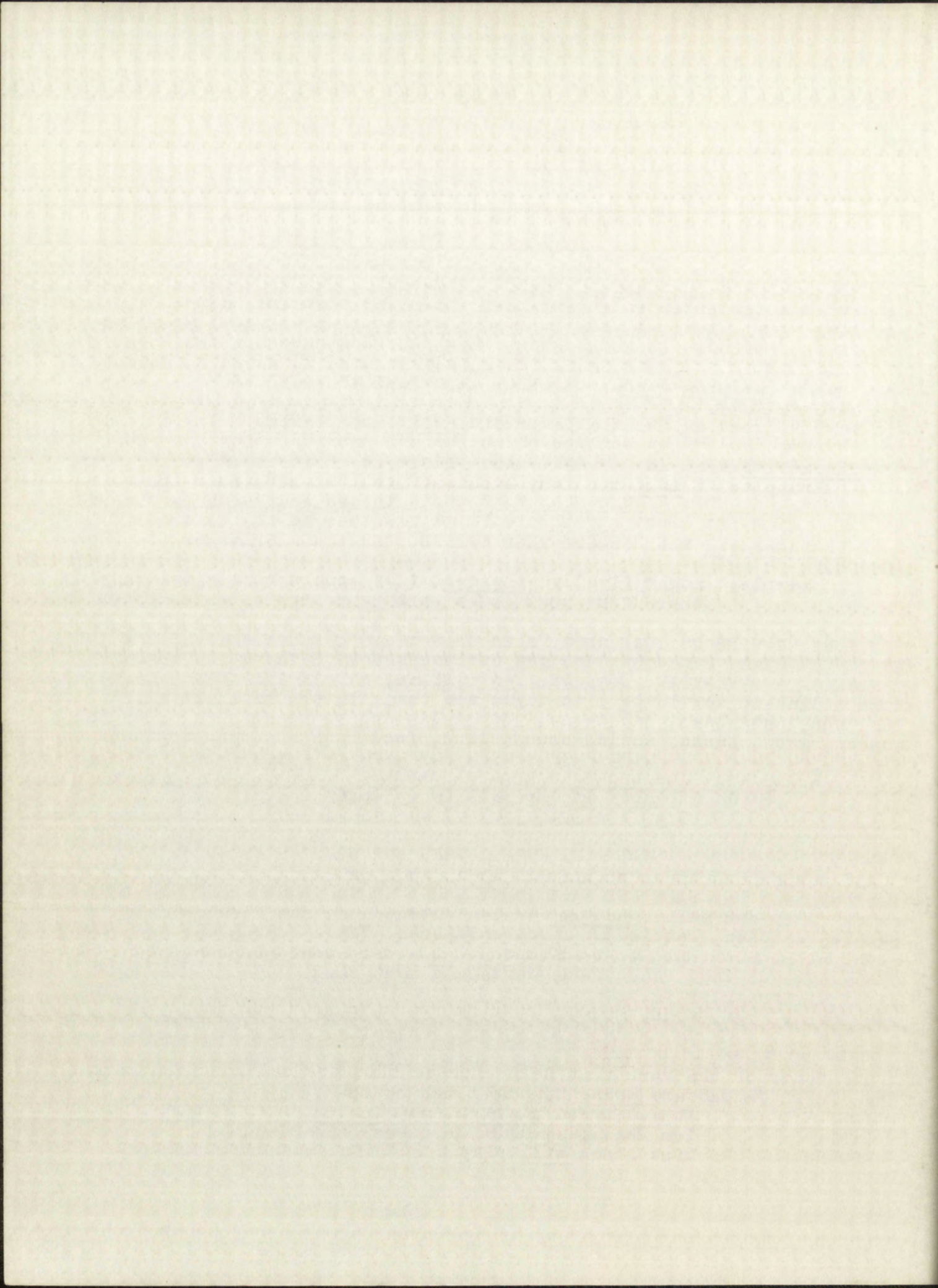
Examples: Joe became a good student.
The boy in the picture is handsome.
I am sleepy.

All verbs have three principal parts: (1) present, (2) past, (3) past participle. THE PAST AND PAST PARTICIPLE OF MOST VERBS END IN -ED, -D, OR -T. THEY ARE CALLED REGULAR VERBS. Examples: stop, stopped, stopped; settle, settled, settled).

THE VERBS THAT FOLLOW NO REGULAR PATTERN IN THE FORMATION OF THEIR PAST AND THE PAST PARTICIPLE ARE CALLED IRREGULAR VERBS. Principal parts of irregular verbs are given in the dictionary. (Examples: see, saw, seen; go, went, gone).

The forms of the verb that help express time are called TENSE FORMS. The SIMPLE TENSES are present, past, and future.

PRESENT:	Thomas Breen <u>plays</u> the part of Captain Johns
PAST:	Tom Neal <u>played</u> in the game yesterday.
FUTURE:	Miss Jones <u>will play</u> a solo in assembly tomorrow.



For time BEFORE but related to the present, the past, or the future, we have three PERFECT TENSES: PRESENT PERFECT, PAST PERFECT, AND FUTURE PERFECT.

Examples: PRESENT PERFECT: I have already eaten dinner. (Have or has is always the helper used to express present perfect tense).
 PAST PERFECT: They had already eaten dinner when I arrived. (Had is always the helper used to express past perfect tense).
 FUTURE PERFECT: By this time tomorrow, I shall have eaten breakfast. (Shall or will, plus have are the words always used to express future perfect tense).

Verbs have VOICE. The two voices are active or passive. There is no real problem involved in the use of active and passive voice; everyone uses the forms correctly. Which voice to use is a matter of style. The active voice is usually more dramatic and effective, however.

WHEN THE SUBJECT ACTS, THE VERB IS IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

Example: John shoots birds and cats because he is a mean boy.

WHEN THE SUBJECT RECEIVES THE ACTION, THE VERB IS IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

Example: Birds and cats are shot by John who is a mean boy.

Words made from verbs, but used in another capacity than that of the simple predicate of a sentence, are called VERBALS. There are three names given to verbals: GERUNDS, PARTICIPLES, AND INFINITIVES. Learn now to recognize these words when you see them; later, we shall study them in more detail.

A GERUND IS A WORD MADE FROM A VERB BUT USED AS A NOUN.

Example: Playing baseball is a lot of fun.
 (subject of the sentence)

A PARTICIPLE IS A WORD MADE FROM A VERB BUT USED AS AN ADJECTIVE.
 (A participle usually ends in ed, ing, or t).

Example: Leaning far out into space, the first Russian in space whispered, "It's a long way down."
 Although spent for a very good purpose, the money certainly went fast.

AN INFINITIVE IS THE PRESENT FORM OF THE VERB WITH THE SIGN "TO" BEFORE IT. It may be used as a noun, adjective, or adverb, but never as a complete verb.

Example: To be the best man on the team was his desire.
This is the right way to go.
 He worked hard to please the girl.

B* PRACTICE SHEET---VERBS

GHOSTS AND SUPERGHOSTS

1In the word game "ghosts" the players add letters one by one. 2For example, the letters pos have been given already. 3You must not make a word. 4A t will make a word---post. 5You would lose the game. 6One loss makes you one third of a ghost. 7After three losses you are a whole ghost and out of the game. 8You could add an s with the word possible in mind, but not a u. 9You must have a word in mind. 10The next player can challenge you. 11Without a word in mind you will be caught. 12With a good word you will make the challenger one third of a ghost.

13In comparison to "superghosts," ghosts is a very simple game. 14In superghosts you can add a letter to the beginning or the end of a word. 15In superghosts, with impossible in mind, you could change pos to mpos. 16Of course, the next person might say ompos. 17He might be thinking of compose, or possibly of composit. 18Would you like to try at superghosts? 19What word could you make out of bgob? 20One possibility is hobgoblin. 21Some players permit the use of hyphens. 22The combination of ach-ach is a hard one. 23Did you think of stomach-ache? 24A word must be found in the dictionary. 25Of course, a group of congenial players can make their own rules.

QUESTION 1. On a sheet of your own paper make a neat chart with the following headings: (Turn your paper sideways).

VERB OR VERB PHRASE/	HELPING	TRANS., /	REGULAR /	TENSE/	VOICE
	VERB, if any/	INTRANS./	or		
		or LINK./	IRREGULAR/		

Using the above paragraph, "Ghosts and Superghosts", fill in the chart, supplying the twenty-five verbs or verb phrases found in the selection.

QUESTION 2. On the back of the sheet of paper, copy the following chart and complete it, giving the principal parts of the verbs. You may use the dictionary, if you like.

PRESENT FORM OF VERB /	PAST TENSE /	PAST PARTICIPLE
1. beat		
2. blow		
3. burst		
4. dive		
5. draw		
6. drive		
7. fall		
8. forget		
9. get		
10. lose		
11. shake		
12. shrink		
13. sink		
14. spring		
15. eat		
16. go		
17. take		
18. write		
19. bring		
20. come.		

QUESTION 3. On a separate sheet of paper, use each principal part of the last five verbs (16-20) in a good sentence of your own. You will have fifteen sentences when you finish.

NOUNS

NOUNS are names. They name persons, places, things, animals, qualities, ideas, conditions, actions, groups, or collections.

A PROPER NOUN is the name of a particular person, place, or thing. Always capitalize a proper noun.

A common noun is not capitalized. It is not the name of a particular person, place, or thing.

Nouns may be either singular or plural. Although the only sure method of spelling correctly the plural of an unfamiliar noun is to consult the dictionary, it is helpful to remember the following general rules for forming the plural.

1. To most nouns, add s to the singular. (chairs)
2. To nouns ending in s, x, z, ch, or sh, add es. (passes, taxes, Joneses)
3. For nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant, change y to i and add es. (skies, ladies, stories)
4. To nouns ending in y preceded by a vowel, add s. (toys, days, turkeys)
5. To nouns ending in o, add s or es.
 - a. Most musical terms and io or eo words: solos, radios, rodeos
 - b. Add es to veto, echo, tomato, mosquito, potato, torpedo
 - c. Add s or es to cargo, buffalo, motto, zero, volcano
6. To most nouns ending in f or fe add s. (chiefs, safes, ruffs)
 - a. Change f to ves in the following: half, calf, wife, leaf, loaf, self, life, knife, shelf
 - b. The plural of scar is scarves or scarfs.
7. For some nouns, change the spelling within the word or add ren. (tooth, teeth; mouse, mice; foot, feet; man, men; woman, women; child, children)
8. For some compound nouns, make the most important word plural. (brothers-in-law, vice-presidents; firemen)
9. Add s to end of words ending in ful. (spoonfuls, bowlfuls, cupfuls)
10. The plural of some nouns is the same as the singular. (moose, sheep, deer, elk, Chinese)
11. Some words retain their foreign plurals. (basis, bases; parenthesis, parentheses; analysis, analyses)

THE POSSESSIVE CASE OF A NOUN SHOWS OWNERSHIP, POSSESSION, OR A SIMILAR CONNECTION.

TO FORM POSSESSIVES:

1. If a noun does not end in s, add an apostrophe and s. (boy's, children's)
2. If a noun ends in s, add just an apostrophe. (boys', days', Joneses' or Joneses's)
3. To make two or more nouns show separate ownership, make each noun possessive. (boys' and girls' lockers; Roy's and David's dogs)
4. To make two or more nouns show joint ownership, make only the last noun possessive. (Roy and David's dog)

WARNING: DON'T USE APOSTROPHES:

1. After all s sounds. (We washed the windows'.) X
2. With possessive personal pronouns. (Is that book yours' or his?) X

When the name of a person, place, thing, animal, quality, or collection is used, it is not capitalized. It is not the name of a particular person, place, or thing.

There may be either singular or plural. Although the only sure method of spelling correctly the plural of an unfamiliar noun is to consult the dictionary, it is helpful to remember the following general rules for forming the plural.

1. To most nouns, add s to the singular. (chairs)
2. To nouns ending in s, x, z, sh, or ch, add es. (passes, boxes, watches)
3. For nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant, change y to i and add es. (ladies, stories)
4. To nouns ending in y preceded by a vowel, add s. (toys, days, boys)
5. To nouns ending in o, add s or es.
 - a. Most musical terms and to or so words: solos, radios, tomatoes, potatoes, tomatoes, potatoes, potatoes, potatoes
 - b. Add es to verbs: echoes, tomatoes, potatoes, potatoes, potatoes
 - c. Add s or es to nouns: buffets, motto, zero, volcano
6. To most nouns ending in f or fe add s. (chiefs, safes, chiefs, safes)
- a. Change f to v in the following: half, calf, wife, knife, shell
- b. The plural of some is slaves or serfs.
7. For some nouns, change the spelling within the word or add s. (tooth, teeth; mouse, mice; foot, feet; man, men; woman, women; child, children)
8. For some compound nouns, make the most important word plural. (brother-in-law, vice-presidents; firemen)
9. Add s to end of words ending in ful. (spoonfuls, bowls, capitals)
10. The plural of some nouns is the same as the singular. (moose, sheep, deer, elk, Chinese)
11. Some words retain their foreign plurals. (basis, bases; parenthesis, parentheses; analysis, analyses)

THE POSSESSIVE CASE OF A NOUN SHOWS OWNERSHIP, POSSESSION, OR A SIMILAR CONNECTION.

- TO FORM POSSESSIVES:
1. If a noun does not end in s, add an apostrophe and s. (boy's, child's)
 2. If a noun ends in s, add just an apostrophe. (boys', days', Joneses')
 3. To make two or more nouns show separate ownership, make each noun possessive. (boys' and girls' lockers; Roy's and David's dogs)
 4. To make two or more nouns show joint ownership, make only the last noun possessive. (Roy and David's dog)
- Remember: Don't use apostrophes to show possession in the following cases:
1. After all a common noun. (The cat took four on its back.)
 2. With possessive personal pronouns. (The cat took four on its back.)

A. WRITE PLURAL FORMS FOR THE WORDS IN PARENTHESES. Use your own paper. Do not write the sentence.

Along many Alaskan 1.(roadside) there are dense 2(thickets) with luxuriant foliage. 3(leaf) of the skunk cabbage, for example, become as large as those on a banana plant.

Beneath snowy peaks 4.(flower), 5(bush), and many hardy 6(grass) grow on the glaciers; and many types of 7(daisy) blossom in the fields. Yellow 8(lily) and purple 9(flag) brighten the marshes. 10. (Onion) and 11(parsnip) grow wild, and many 12(variety) of 13(berry) flourish. 14(Potato) from Alaska have twice won in national 15(competition) in the United States. Even in the 16(valley) of the Yukon River and its 17(tributary) there are 18(thousand) of acres of good soil suitable for 19(farm) and 20(ranch). 21(Mosquito), however, plague the 22(man) who settle there.

Some 23(Alaskan) operate fur farms. One man living within the Arctic Circle has to import the feed for his platinum 24(fox) from the midwestern part of the United States. 25(Caribou), 26(moose), giant Kodiak 27(bear), mountain 28(sheep) and 29(goat), 30(wolf), and many other wild 31(animal) inhabit the tundra and forest.

32(Goose) are the 33(herald) of Alaskan spring, and the Eskimos always rejoice to see the first one fly overhead. The songs of 34(thrush) may be heard even at midnight on bright summer nights. 35(Jay) are common also. 36(Native) often refer to this bird as "camp robber," "whisky bird," or "moose bird."

B. IF A WORD IN PARENTHESES BELOW SHOULD BE MADE POSSESSIVE, WRITE THE POSSESSIVE FORM. IF NOT, WRITE THE WORD AS IT IS. DO NOT WRITE THE SENTENCE. ON YOUR OWN PAPER, WRITE ONLY THE WORD BY THE NUMBER AND THE WORD FOLLOWING IT.

Mr. Burns spent two 1(weeks) time in Texas long ago. Mr. 2(Burns) fondest dream was to go back there with his wife, his two 3(boys), and his two 4(girls) for a two 5(months) stay. His 6(wife) approval was hard to get, but his 7(children) enthusiasm was unbounded. The 8(mother and father) plan was to go during the Christmas holidays. Thus the 9(children) would miss six 10(weeks) schooling. The 11(boys) and 12(girls) were doing very well in their 13(studies), and so all their 14(teachers) gave the 15(children) permission to miss their 16(classes). The 17(teachers) assignment was that they keep 18(diaries) of their trip to read in class when they returned.

At 19(Prout & Lincoln) trailer sales lot they found a trailer that met all the 20(family) requirements. Even Mr. Burns thought he received his 21(money) worth. Many 22(hours) work went into the preparations. Mr. Burns wrote for 23(lists) of accommodations in 24(tourists) trailer camps. He planned each 25(day) journey. Mrs. Burns and her two 26(sisters-in-law) packed, carrying things in 27(armfuls) to the trailer. They even found room for the 28(girls) and 29(boys) bikes. An unexpected incident caused several 30(hours) delay in leaving. After a ride of thirty 31(miles) the 32(Whites) little girl, Phyllis, was discovered hiding in the 33(trailer) kitchen. 34(Phyllis) trip to Texas ended right there. The 35(Burns) had to take her back to town.

C. Write five sentences of your own in which you use plural nouns correctly.

D. Write five sentences of your own in which you use possessive nouns correctly.

B* REVIEW SHEET III

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

A PRONOUN IS THE WORD WHICH TAKES THE PLACE OF A NOUN.

PRONOUNS are divided into these classes:

- A personal pronoun indicates the person speaking (first person), the person spoken to (second person), or the person spoken of (third person).
- A personal pronoun combined with self is a compound personal pronoun.
- A demonstrative pronoun points out: this, that, these, those.
- An interrogative pronoun asks questions: who, whose, whom, which, what.
- An indefinite pronoun takes the place of an indefinite (not named) person or thing: all, another, any, anybody, everything, neither, one, no one, others, somebody, etc.

ONLY THE PERSONAL pronoun has case and person. (See above for "person.")
The following chart is helpful in memorizing the various cases, or changes, in the personal pronouns.

	NOMINATIVE	POSSESSIVE	OBJECTIVE
FIRST PERSON	<u>I</u> <u>we</u>	<u>my, mine</u> <u>our, ours</u>	<u>me</u> <u>us</u>
SECOND PERSON	<u>you</u>	<u>your, yours</u>	<u>you</u>
THIRD PERSON	<u>he</u> <u>she</u> <u>it</u> <u>they</u> <u>who</u>	<u>his</u> <u>her, hers</u> <u>its</u> <u>their, theirs</u> <u>whose</u>	<u>him</u> <u>her</u> <u>it</u> <u>them</u> <u>whom</u>

Number of a pronoun refers to whether it is used to indicate one or more than one. Gender refers to whether it is used to indicate a female (feminine gender), a male (masculine gender), or an object without sex (neuter gender).

USES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

SUBJECT: A noun or a nominative pronoun may be used as the subject of a sentence. The dog is mean. He is my brother.

PREDICATE NOMINATIVE: A noun or a nominative pronoun may be used as the predicate nominative of a sentence. A PREDICATE NOMINATIVE COMPLETES A LINKING VERB AND MEANS THE SAME THING AS THE SUBJECT.

Example: Mr. Smith is our new employee. He became president.

NOUN OF ADDRESS: A noun of address simply means the person spoken to. It is set off by commas. Example: Yes, Bill, we'll go.
(A pronoun cannot politely and properly be used this way.)

NOUN USED AS ADVERB or adverbial noun: An adverbial noun is a noun in the sense that it names something; it is adverbial in the sense that it tells when or where. Examples: I'll go tomorrow. I went home.
(A pronoun is not used in this way.)

APPOSITIVE: An appositive is a word or group of words that renames and explains a noun or pronoun. It may be either a noun or pronoun.
Examples: Doctor Jones, a very important surgeon, visited our school.
Lord Jim, one of the leaders of the revolution, was killed.
(Most longer appositives are set off by commas, as above, but closely connected appositives are not set off by commas.)

Examples: My brother Jethro is a good dancer.
The story "Night and Day" is very interesting.
Houdini himself couldn't solve the mystery.

DIRECT OBJECT: A noun or an objective pronoun may be used as the object, or receiver of the action, of a transitive verb.

Examples: We heard the call over our radio at midnight.

The searchlights did not spot him and her.

INDIRECT OBJECT: A noun or an objective pronoun may be used as the indirect object of a verb. An indirect object tells to whom or for whom the action of the verb is directed. It always precedes the direct object and never occurs without the direct object.

Examples: Bob lent me his English bicycle.

The teachers gave him a very high rating.

OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION: A preposition, which is a word that shows the relation of its object to some other word in the sentence, is followed by a noun or objective pronoun which is called its object. (In sentences such as "What are you staring at?" the object comes before the preposition.

(Words commonly used as prepositions are: about, above, across, after, along, among, around, as, at, because of, before, below, beneath, besides, between, beyond, concerning, down, during, except, for, from, in, in spite of, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, onto, out, out of, outside, over, owing to, since, through, to, toward, under, up, upon, with, within).

EXERCISES

- Using the twenty-five sentences given you, complete the following chart on your own paper.

Noun	/	Use in sentence
------	---	-----------------

- Using the same sentences, complete the following chart:

Pronoun	Case	Number	Gender	Use in sentence
---------	------	--------	--------	-----------------

USE THESE SENTENCES:

- The United States has a two-party system.
- In spite of their size, bears can move fast.
- We moved our camp to another island.
- Fat from whales and seals is used for soap.
- Unlike ordinary lumber, plywood does not crack, warp, or split easily.
- In 1774 workmen by accident split Plymouth Rock.
- How many common plastics can you name?
- From plastics, manufacturers have produced buttons, propellers, and cases for radios.
- Unfortunately, or well never did produce.
- The pioneer women worked with coarse thread and bone needles and made the family clothes.
- Can you work the sixth problem?
- Did you believe the story about that man from Mars?
- I don't believe in magic.
- How far can you throw a tomahawk?
- We read about husking bees, taffy pulls, quilting parties, and sugaring-off parties.
- Some of Thomas Jefferson's inventions were a dumb-waiter, a plow, and storm windows.
- He also grew flowers and herbs and applied new farming techniques.
- Our youngest president was Theodore Roosevelt before Kennedy's time.
- Grover Cleveland was single at the time of his inauguration and

80. married his bride in the White House.
81. Which president remained a bachelor?
82. Franklin D. Roosevelt won four presidential elections.
83. New York City was the scene of Washington's first inaugural ceremony.
84. The ceremony was late because of Washington's long journey from Virginia.
85. An amendment to the Constitution changed the date of the president's inauguration from March 4 to January 20.
86. A date nearer the election date seemed better to Congress.
87. Ten presidents were not college graduates.
88. Most of our presidents have been lawyers.
89. Who gives the president the oath of office?
90. Seven men became president after the death of the chief executive.
91. A crown and a royal robe do not symbolize the leader of a democracy.

USE THESE WORDS IN FILLING OUT THE CHART WHICH WILL SHOW YOUR UNDERSTANDING OF THE MATERIAL WE HAVE REVIEWED.

verb, transitive, intransitive, linking, regular, irregular, tense, present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, future perfect, active voice, passive voice, noun, singular, plural, possessive, object of a preposition, indirect object, direct object, appositive, noun used as adverb, noun of address, predicate nominative, subject, masculine gender, feminine gender, personal pronoun, compound personal pronoun, demonstrative pronoun, interrogative pronoun, indefinite pronoun, first, second, third, nominative, possessive, objective

DIRECTIONS: I. Read the quoted sentences carefully. For each verb, do these things: 1. write the verb, 2. tell what kind it is; 3. tell whether it is regular or irregular; 4. tell its tense; 5. tell its voice, if it has one.

II. Now, using the same sentences, for each noun, do these things: 1. write the noun, 2. tell its use in the sentence.

III. Now, using the same sentences, for each pronoun, do these things: 1. write the pronoun, 2. tell what kind of pronoun it is, 3. tell its use in the sentence. 4. if it is a personal pronoun, tell its number, person, case, and gender

QUOTED SENTENCES TO BE USED IN DOING PARTS I, II, AND III.

1. A young man fell in love with a beautiful girl.
2. But he was sunk in deep despair because the girl he had fallen in love with was not drawn to him.
3. He had lost all interest in life, and he had even shrunk in stature.
4. His nerves were shaken.
5. His friends would not have been surprised to hear he had fallen from a stroke or had burst a blood vessel.
6. He was really driven to distraction.
7. One day a friend drew him aside and suggested a way to impress the girl.
8. She had swum and had dived all her life.
9. She had sprung from the high board and had beaten several well-known swimmers in races.
10. Why would she not be drawn to a swimmer like herself.
11. The worst swimmer in town was he.
12. Although he practiced daily, he did not learn to swim.
13. His friends have learned that he is losing weight trying to swim and win her.

DIRECTIONS FOR PART IV. ON YOUR OWN PAPER DRAW A PRONOUN CHART LIKE THE ONE BELOW AND FILL IN ALL THE INDICATED BLANKS CORRECTLY.

	NOMINATIVE	POSSESSIVE	OBJECTIVE
FIRST PERSON	— —	—'— —'—	— —
SECOND PERSON	—	—'—	—
THIRD PERSON	— — — — —	— —'— — —'— —	— — — — —

DIRECTIONS FOR PART V. IN ONE COLUMN LABELED "PLURAL" WRITE THE PLURAL OF THESE NOUNS; IN ANOTHER COLUMN LABELED "POSSESSIVE" WRITE THE POSSESSIVE.

1. chair 2. Jones 3. sky 4. toy 5. rodeo 6. mosquito 7. wife 8. mouse 9. deer 10. tax

ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS

ADJECTIVES modify nouns or pronouns. Adjectives describe, limit, point out. They usually can be identified by asking the questions "Which one", "What kind" or "How many". A proper adjective refers to a particular thing and is usually made from a proper noun. (Example: English) The articles a, an, and the are considered adjectives. An adjective that points out is called a demonstrative adjective.

EXAMPLE: The new silver jet fighter plane made a shrieking take-off.

Many adjectives are in three forms, called degrees.

EXAMPLES: Municipal Pool is deep. (positive degree)
Municipal Pool is deeper than Elm Park Pool. (comparative degree)
Spender Park Pool is the deepest pool of all. (superlative degree)

Learn these rules for forming the comparison of adjectives:

1. Most adjectives of one syllable and some adjectives of two syllables form their comparative degree by adding er and form their superlative degree by adding est to the positive form. (high, higher, highest)

(Remember: The comparative form is used for comparing two things; the superlative form is used for comparing more than two things.)

2. Many adjectives of two syllables and most adjectives of three or more syllables are compared by adding the words more or less for the comparative and most or least for the superlative degree.

beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
	less beautiful	least beautiful

3. Some adjectives are compared irregularly. Check the dictionary to be sure.

good	better	best	much	more	most
bad	worse	worst	many	more	most

4. As a rule, in careful writing, adjectives like the following are not compared: correct, perfect, complete, equal, supreme, unique, square, and straight. However, in informal use these adjectives are frequently compared.

Formal English: Your lines should be more nearly straight.

Informal English: Your lines should be straighter.

PREDICATE ADJECTIVE follows the verb (which must be a linking verb) and modifies the subject.

That ham smells good.
She is lovely.
You have grown tall.

ADVERB modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs usually can be identified by seeing if the word in question answers the questions "How" "When" "Where" "How much" "How often". Many adverbs are formed by adding ly to the adjective.

Example: The very shy young applicant came forward quite nervously yesterday.

COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE DEGREES OF ADJECTIVES

ADJECTIVES modify nouns or pronouns. Adjectives describe, limit, or compare. They usually come before the nouns or pronouns they modify. Some adjectives are used to compare one thing to another. These are called comparative and superlative adjectives.

Example: The new ship is faster than the old one.
The new ship is the fastest of all.

There are three forms of adjectives: positive, comparative, and superlative. The positive form is the basic form of the adjective. The comparative form is used to compare two things. The superlative form is used to compare three or more things.

Spencer took part in the fastest pool of all. (superlative degree)
These rules for forming the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives are: 1. Most adjectives of one syllable and some adjectives of two syllables form their comparative degrees by adding -er and their superlative degrees by adding -est to the positive form. (big, bigger, biggest)

Remember: The comparative form is used for comparing two things. The superlative form is used for comparing three or more things.

Many adjectives of two syllables and most adjectives of three or more syllables are compared by adding the words more or less to the positive form. (more beautiful, less beautiful)

Some adjectives are compared irregularly. Check the dictionary for the correct form.

good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
much	more	most
many	more	most

As a rule, in careful writing, adjectives like the following are not compared: correct, perfect, complete, equal, square, unique, answer, and straight. However, in informal use these adjectives are frequently compared. Formal English: Your lines should be more nearly straight. Informal English: Your lines should be straighter.

ADJECTIVE follows the verb (which may be a linking verb) and comes before the subject.

That man smells good.
She is lovely.
You have grown tall.

ADVERBS modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs usually come before the word they modify. Some adverbs are used to answer the questions "How?" "When?" "Where?" "How often?" "How much?" "How many?" "How long?" "How far?" "How often?" "How much?" "How many?" "How long?" "How far?"

Examples: The girl was very quickly. The boy was very quickly.

adverbs, like adjectives can be compared. Learn the following rules:

1. Most adverbs are compared by adding more or most to the positive form.
gently more gently most gently.
2. Some adverbs are compared by adding er or est to the positive.

soon sooner soonest early earlier earliest

3. Several adverbs are compared irregularly.
badly worse worst little less least
well better best much more most

4. As a rule, in careful writing, the following adverbs are not compared:
correctly, perfectly, completely, equally, supremely, uniquely, squarely, entirely, absolutely.

A PREPOSITION shows the relation of its object to some other word in the sentence. For the most common prepositions, memorize the list given you on page 2, Review Sheet III.

To find the object of a preposition in a prepositional phrase, ask the question "What" or "Whom" after the preposition. (Ex. of the house)

A CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTION or a CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTION is a word that joins two items (sentence elements or clauses) of EQUAL RANK. The co-ordinate conjunctions are AND, BUT, OR, NOR, FOR, and sometimes MOREOVER, HOWEVER, THEREFORE. The correlatives are either--or, neither---nor, not only---but also. MEMORIZE THESE!

Examples: The girl and the woman visited us yesterday. (Co-ordinate)
Either the boy or the girl has it. (Correlative)

A SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTION is a word that connects an adverb clause to the rest of a sentence. It makes the clause too weak to stand alone as a sentence. The most commonly used subordinate conjunctions are: after, since, because, as, as if, than, before, if, so that, although, though, provided, till unless until, when, where, whether, while, as soon as. MEMORIZE THESE!

EXERCISES

1. Write the correct positive, comparative, or superlative form of the word appearing in parentheses before the sentence. By each word on your paper, write the degree of the word. Change adjectives to adverbs if necessary.

1(pretty) The first-graders thought that the picture of a globe was but that the picture of a snow man was _____, and that the picture of a cake was the _____ of all. (2) handsome) They thought a healthy little boy in a sun suit was _____, but a daddy with a puppy in his pocket was _____, and Santa Claus was _____. (3 bad) A little boy who broke a window was _____ but the girl who didn't help her mother with the dishes was _____, and the big boy who ran away from his little brother was _____. (4 excited) They looked _____ at pictures of a rocket ship, but they watched _____ the pictures of a football game, and _____ a snowball fight. (5)(funny) When the teacher asked questions about the children's homes, their answers were _____. One little boy's was _____ of all. 6(~~many~~) He had been asked, "Does your mother take _____ magazines than newspapers?" He answered, "We don't take anything but the electric light bill."

and

2. There are sixty adjectives ~~and~~ adverbs (combined) in the following sentences. Find them and write on your paper. For each one, identify it as to "Kind of Modifier" (adjective or adverb) and tell the word it modifies. Your paper should look like this:

WORD	KIND OF MODIFIER	WORD IT MODIFIES
Ex. a	adj. ctive	boy
very	adverb	good
good	adjective	boy
sometimes	adverb	is

(The above example is for this sentence: Harry is a very good boy sometimes.)

USE THESE SENTENCES: (Consider poss. nouns as adjectives).

- Our picnic basket is extremely useful.
- Sam looked steadily at the ghostly figure.
- I am reading a particularly interesting book.
- The boy read the mystery story slowly.
- That pretty girl is very snobbish.
- On the eastern sea coast the evenings are cool.
- French people like to walk slowly.
- Mr. Brown arrived later on the same day.
- That radio is playing too loudly.
- Bob worked very quietly.
- A north wind is extremely cold.
- Several large cattle ranches now occupy the region.
- Often these flowers have a very pink color.
- It was fastened very securely to a branch of an extremely pretty plum tree.
- A mink's fur is very beautiful and quite expensive.

3. For each sentence below, copy the subject, the verb, and the predicate nominative, predicate adjective, or direct object if there is one. (See Review Sheet III for review of pred. nom. and direct object). Underline the subject once; underline the verb twice; and write PN over a predicate nominative, PA over a predicate adjective, and DO over a direct object.

Example: "Empire State" is the nickname of New York State.

Empire State, is, ^{PN}nickname.

- The origin of the nickname is uncertain.
- Perhaps a speech of George Washington gives the clue.
- To him the state was the "Seat of the Empire."
- In more than one way New York State is the gateway to the United States.
- Its Ellis Island was a United States immigration center for more than sixty years.
- For twenty million aliens it was the threshold of our country.
- Ellis Island is a tiny island in the harbor of New York City.
- New York City has a natural harbor.
- It is one of the greatest ports in the world.
- Its waters are busy with activity.
- The port handles almost half of our exports and imports.
- The Hudson River is important, too.
- Henry Hudson was the early explorer of this river.
- How different the Hudson Valley must have looked in 1609!
- The Hudson River and the Mohawk River are the links between the harbor of New York City and the five Great Lakes.

4. Study the coordinate, correlative, and subordinate conjunctions in this Review Sheet and be ready to take a quiz on them that shows you have them memorized.

WORDS
 Nouns
 Adjectives
 Adverbs
 Verbs
 Prepositions
 Conjunctions
 Interjections
 Pronouns
 Particles

(The above example is for this sentence: Harry is a very good boy sometimes.)
 USE THESE SENTENCES: (Consider nouns as adjectives.)

1. Our picnic basket is extremely useful.
2. Sam looked steadily at the ghostly figure.
3. I am reading a particularly interesting book.
4. The boy read the mystery story slowly.
5. That pretty girl is very amiable.
6. On the eastern sea coast the evenings are cool.
7. French people like to walk slowly.
8. Mr. Brown arrived later on the same day.
9. That radio is playing too loudly.
10. Bob worked very quietly.
11. A north wind is extremely cold.
12. Several large cattle ranches now occupy the region.
13. Often these firs have a very pink color.
14. It was fastened very securely to a branch of an extremely pretty pine tree.
15. A milk cow is very beautiful and quite expensive.

3. For each sentence below, copy the subject, the verb, and the predicate nominative, predicate adjective, or direct object if there is one. (See Review Sheet III for review of pred. nom. and direct object.)
 Define the subject once; underline the verb twice; and write the object a predicate nominative, or over a predicate adjective, and DO over a direct object.
 Example: "Empire State" is the nickname of New York State.

Empire State, is, nickname.
 1. The origin of the nickname is uncertain. 2. Perhaps a speech of George Washington gives the clue. 3. To him the state was the "Seat of the Empire". 4. In more than one way New York State is the gateway to the United States. 5. Its Ellis Island was a United States Immigration station for more than sixty years. 6. For twenty million aliens it was the first of our country. 7. Ellis Island is a tiny island in the harbor of New York City. 8. New York City has a natural harbor. 9. It is one of the greatest ports in the world. 10. Its waters are busy with activity. 11. Port handles almost half of our exports and imports. 12. The Hudson River is important too. 13. Henry Hudson was the early explorer of this river. 14. How different the Hudson Valley must have looked in 1609! 15. The Hudson River and the Mohawk River are the links between the harbor of New York City and the five Great Lakes.

4. Study the coordinate, correlative, and subordinate conjunctions in the Review Sheet and be ready to take a quiz on them that shows you have them memorized.

REVIEW SHEET V - PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Just as single words perform important functions within an English sentence, so do groups of related words called PHRASES. We shall review the make-up and use of these kinds of phrases: PREPOSITIONAL, INFINITIVE, PARTICIPIAL, and GERUND.

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES - A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and its object, plus any modifiers of the object. A prepositional phrase can act as either AN ADJECTIVE or AN ADVERB in a sentence.

Example: The bright light blinded me. (word adjective)

The light from the flashbulb blinded me. (Prep. phrase used as an adj.)

Meet me there. (word adverb)

Meet me at the corner drugstore. (Prep. phrase used as adverb)

REMEMBER: ADJECTIVE questions - Which one? What kind? How many?
ADVERB questions - How? When? Where? How much? How often?
AND Why?

See page 2, Review Sheet III for most common prepositions.

To see how a prepositional phrase is used, follow these steps:

1. Identify the entire phrase.
2. Think carefully to determine ^{to} which other word in the sentence it is closely related.
3. Test the phrase with the adjective or adverb questions.
4. Remember that adjectives (whether single words or phrases) modify nouns and pronouns, and remember that adverbs (whether words or phrases) modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

EXERCISE I. Copy from the following sentences each prepositional phrase. Then, tell whether it is used as an adjective or an adverb. Then, tell the word it modifies. You will have three columns on your paper.

Example: Meet me at the corner drugstore.

PREP. PHRASE	USE	WORD IT MODIFIES
(at the corner drugstore)	Adverb	meet

USE THESE SENTENCES FOR THIS EXERCISE:

1. A snowplow was stuck in the drift of snow.
2. The presents for the twins are hidden in the basement.
3. The hero of the play was always dashing madly across the stage.
4. The phonograph and the records were supplied by the local P. T. A.
5. We rode on the ferry and ate in an automat.
6. In 1960 Charles lost a leg in an accident.
7. His classmates were worried about the necessary money for an operation and found a way of helping.
8. The idea of a talent show was accepted with enthusiasm.
9. Without delay committees began their work on scripts, costumes, and scenery.
10. Within three weeks the talent show opened to a huge audience of parents, students, and friends.

1. A propositional phrase is a group of words which functions as a subject, object, or complement in a sentence. It is usually introduced by a preposition. Examples: The light from the flashlight blinded me. (Prop. phrase as subject) The bright light blinded me. (word adjective) The light from the flashlight blinded me. (Prop. phrase as object)

2. A propositional phrase consists of a preposition and its object. A prepositional phrase can function as a subject, object, or complement in a sentence. Examples: The light from the flashlight blinded me. (Prop. phrase as subject) The bright light blinded me. (word adjective) The light from the flashlight blinded me. (Prop. phrase as object)

3. A propositional phrase can also function as an adjective. Examples: The light from the flashlight blinded me. (Prop. phrase as subject) The bright light blinded me. (word adjective) The light from the flashlight blinded me. (Prop. phrase as object)

4. A propositional phrase can also function as an adverb. Examples: The light from the flashlight blinded me. (Prop. phrase as subject) The bright light blinded me. (word adjective) The light from the flashlight blinded me. (Prop. phrase as object)

See page 2, Review Sheet 11 for most common prepositions.

To see how a propositional phrase is used, follow these steps:

1. Identify the entire phrase.
2. Think carefully to determine which other word in the sentence it is closely related.
3. Test the phrase with the adjective or adverb questions.
4. Remember that adjectives (whether single words or phrases) modify nouns and pronouns, and remember that adverbs (whether single words or phrases) modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

Copy from the following sentences each propositional phrase. Then, tell whether it is used as an adjective or an adverb. Then, tell the word it modifies. You will have three columns on your paper.

Example: Meet me at the corner drugstore.

WORD TO MODIFY	USE	PREP. PHRASE (at the corner drugstore)
Meet	Adverb	

USE THESE SENTENCES FOR THIS EXERCISE:

1. A snowplow was stuck in the drift of snow.
2. The presents for the twins are hidden in the basement.
3. The hero of the play was always flashing madly across the stage.
4. The photograph and the records were supplied by the local P. M.
5. We rode on the ferry and ate in an automaton.
6. In 1950 Garfield lost a leg in an accident.
7. His classmates were worried about the necessary money for an operation and found a way of helping.
8. The idea of a talent show was accepted with enthusiasm.
9. Without delay committee members began their work on scripts, costumes, and scenery.
10. Within three weeks the talent show opened to a huge audience of parents, students, and friends.

B* REVIEW SHEET VI

INFINITIVE PHRASES

AN INFINITIVE PHRASE is composed of an infinitive and its object and any modifiers of the object. An infinitive phrase usually begins with the sign of the infinitive "TO", but after some verbs in sentences the sign "TO" of the infinitive may be omitted. ((These verbs to watch are WATCH, DARE, SEE, MAKE, LET, HEAR, PLEASE, FEEL, and HELP - example: Can you hear it tick? (tick is an infinitive here, although the sign of TO is omitted).))

BECAUSE an infinitive is partly a verb, it can have a subject (in the objective case if it is a pronoun), and it can have an object. The infinitive can play three parts in a sentence. It can be used as a noun (To sing is fun.)
 as an adjective (This is the right way to go.)
 as an adverb (He worked hard to win his letter in football.)

IMPORTANT: An infinitive is not strong enough to be the verb of a sentence. You will have a sentence fragment if you attempt to use an infinitive as the verb of a sentence.

Example: John Black has just one aim in life. To appear on a television show.

REMEMBER: 1. The sign of "TO".
 2. Not to confuse an infinitive phrase with a prepositional phrase.
 3. The adjective and adverb questions.
 4. The uses of a noun (subject, predicate nominative, direct object---mainly when dealing with infinitives).

IN WORKING WITH INFINITIVE PHRASES, follow these steps:

1. Identify the infinitive phrase.
2. Find the word in the sentence with which it seems most closely connected.
3. Determine the part played in the sentence by the infinitive phrase.

EXERCISE I. From the following sentences copy the infinitive phrases. Think carefully and then tell whether the infinitive phrase is used as a NOUN, ADJECTIVE, OR ADVERB. Do not consider a prepositional phrase as part of the infinitive phrase in this exercise.

Example: She wants to be an actress.

INFINITIVE PHRASE
 (to be an actress)

USE
 Noun (object)

USE THESE SENTENCES:

1. The easiest person to deceive is one's own self.
2. Education is the ability to meet life's situations.
3. A fool always find a greater fool to admire him.
4. I hope to stand firm.
5. To laugh at men of sense is the privilege of fools.
6. Governments exist to protect the rights of minorities.
7. We only part to meet again.
8. I have not yet begun to fight.
9. I do not agree with a word that you say, but I will defend to the death your right to say it.
10. By doing nothing, we learn to do 111.

INITIATIVE PHRASES

An INITIATIVE PHRASE is composed of an infinitive and its object and any modifiers of the object. An infinitive phrase usually begins with the sign of the infinitive "TO", but after some verbs in certain cases the sign "TO" of the infinitive may be omitted. (These verbs to watch are WATCH, HEAR, SEE, MAKE, LET, HAVE, PLEASE, FEEL, and HELP - examples; Can you hear it click? (click is an infinitive here, although the sign of TO is omitted).)

BECAUSE an infinitive it carries a verb, it can have a subject (in the objective case if it is a pronoun), and it can have an object. The infinitive can play three parts in a sentence. It can be used as a noun (To sing is fun.) as an adjective (This is the right way to go.) as an adverb (He worked hard to win his letter in football.)

IMPORTANT: An infinitive is not strong enough to be the verb of a sentence. You will have a sentence fragment if you attempt to use an infinitive as the verb of a sentence.

Examples: John Black has just one aim in life. To appear on a television show.

1. The sign of "TO"
2. Not to confuse an infinitive phrase with a prepositional phrase.
3. The adjective and adverb questions.
4. The uses of a noun (subject, predicate nominative, direct object) - mainly when dealing with infinitives).

IN WORKING WITH INITIATIVE PHRASES, follow these steps:

1. Identify the infinitive phrase.
2. Find the word in the sentence with which it seems most closely connected.
3. Determine the part played in the sentence by the infinitive phrase.

EXERCISE 1. From the following sentences copy the infinitive phrases. Think carefully and then tell whether the infinitive phrase is used as a NOUN, ADJECTIVE, OR ADVERB. Do not consider a prepositional phrase as part of the infinitive phrase in this exercise.
Example: She wants to be an actress.

INITIATIVE PHRASE (to be an actress)

USE
Noun (object)

USE THESE SENTENCES:

1. The easiest person to decide is one's own self.
2. Education is the ability to meet life's situations.
3. A fool always finds a greater fool to advise him.
4. I hope to stand firm.
5. To laugh at men of sense is the privilege of fools.
6. Government exists to protect the rights of minorities.
7. We only part to meet again.
8. I have not yet begun to fight.
9. I do not agree with a word that you say, but I will defend to the death your right to say it.
10. By doing nothing, we learn to do.

B* REVIEW SHEET VII-----PARTICIPLE and GERUND PHRASES

PARTICIPLE PHRASES

The third part of every verb (present, past, participle) is called either a PRESENT PARTICIPLE (if it ends in ing) or a PAST PARTICIPLE (if it ends in ed, t, or any of the special endings for participles given you in Review Sheet I. THE PAST PARTICIPLE and PRESENT PARTICIPLE OF VERBS MAY BE USED AS ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS. A PARTICIPLE PHRASE IS A PARTICIPLE WITH ITS OBJECTS AND MODIFIERS.

To understand the difference between the verb of a sentence and a participle (which is made from a verb), study these examples:

Mr. Jones's car had stalled in the snow. (Verb)
 Will you please pick up the car (stalled in the snow?) (Participle)
 (Stalling in the snow,) the car was left by its owner. (Participle)

A participle or a participle phrase must have something sensible to modify, or it is called a DANGLING PARTICIPLE. To ascertain what a participle or participle phrase modifies, simply say the participle or participle phrase, then ask "Who" or "What" in FRONT of it, and then repeat the participle or participle phrase. Be sure that the answer you get to your question is sensible.

Examples: The boy, hitting the ball for a home run in a tight spot of the game, was declared our hero. (sensible)

(Walking through the jungle), a red and purple striped airplane was seen (flying overhead). (asking a question about the first participle phrase gives you a SILLY answer; however, asking a question about the second participle gives you a sensible answer.)

It is really correct to refer to a "participial phrase" as a PARTICIPIAL PHRASE.

Punctuation of a participial phrase: If a participial phrase introduces the sentence or is not necessary to the meaning of the sentence, it is set off by commas.

- Examples:
1. Extending down into Oklahoma, the snowfall was the heaviest in history.
 2. Two school buses, lost in the drifting snow, finally reached safety with their loads.
 3. The traffic problem created by the storm kept many workers from their jobs.

GERUND PHRASES

A GERUND is the "ing" form of a verb used as a noun. It may be used as a subject, predicate nominative, direct object, or object of a preposition. (A gerund is sometimes called a "verbal noun" or a "participle used as a noun.") Like a verb, a GERUND may have a subject (in the possessive case if it is a pronoun), it may be modified by adverbs, and it may have an object. A GERUND PHRASE is the gerund, plus its subject, object, and modifiers, if any.

PARTICIPLES

The third kind of every verb (present, past, participle) is called a participle. It is used in a sentence as an adjective. For example, "The boy, hitting the ball, ran in a circle." The word "hitting" is a participle. It is used as an adjective to describe the boy. The word "hitting" is also used as a verb in the sentence "The boy hit the ball." The word "hit" is a verb. A participle phrase is a phrase that begins with a participle. For example, "Hitting the ball, the boy ran in a circle." The phrase "Hitting the ball" is a participle phrase.

To understand the difference between the verb of a sentence and a participle (which is made from a verb), study these examples:

Mr. Jones's car had stalled in the snow. (Verb)
Will you please pick up the car (stalled in the snow)? (Participle)
(Stalled in the snow, the car was left by its owner. (Participle)

A participle or a participial phrase must have something sensible to modify. It is called a DANGEROUS PARTICIPLE. To understand what a participle or participial phrase modifies, simply say the participle or participial phrase, then ask "Who" or "What" in front of it, and then repeat the participle or participial phrase. Be sure that the answer you get to your question is sensible.

Examples: The boy, hitting the ball for a home run in a circle spot of the game, was declared our hero. (sensible)

(Walking through the jungle, the red and purple striped alpaca was seen (lying overhead). (asking a question about the first participial phrase gives you a silly answer; however, asking a question about the second participial gives you a sensible answer.)

It is really correct to refer to a "participial phrase" as a PARTICIPIAL PHRASE.

Function of a participial phrase: If a participial phrase introduces the sentence or is not necessary to the meaning of the sentence, it is set off by commas.

Examples: 1. Extending down into Oklahoma, the snowfall was the heaviest in history.
2. Two school buses, lost in the drifting snow, finally reached safety with their loads.
3. The traffic problem created by the storm kept many workers from their jobs.

GROUND PHRASES

A GROUND is the "tag" form of a verb used as a noun. It may be used as a subject, predicate nominative, direct object, or object of a preposition. (A ground is sometimes called a "verbal noun" or a "noun phrase"). Like a verb, a GROUND may have a subject (in the case of a verb) or a GROUND may have a subject (in the case of a noun). It may be modified by adjectives, and it may have an object. A GROUND PHRASE is the ground, plus its subject, object, and modifiers, if any.

B> REVIEW SHEET VII----page 2

EXERCISE

FROM THE FOLLOWING STORY, write on your paper each participial and gerund phrase or each single participle or gerund. By the side, write GER. or PART.

A fine day is not the best day for working hard. Even with our grumblind and complaining about the bad weather, we do more work on dull days.

Protected by their fat, heavy people don't feel the cold so much as thin people. In hot weather heavy people, blanketed by their fat, suffer more than thin people.

Moving fast because of the cold, we may think ourselves more efficient in cold weather. But we spend too much energy in keeping warm and thus lose in efficiency.

Controlling ourselves is harder in dry weather than in humid weather. School officials often find themselves handling five times as many discipline cases in dry weather.

People born in the winter month of February live the longest. A study made by Professor Ellsworth Hunter proves this belief true. Professor Hunter, continuing his studies, found January the next best month. June, known as the month of marriages, is also the high month for crime. Stimulated by the weather, persons with weak wills turn to crime.

Studies made by health departments in northern cities report a better health rate in a mild winter than in a cold winter. Winters marked by many sudden changes in temperature are the most unhealthful.

Spring fever, suffered by all of us at one time or another, is a real ailment. Long recognized as a disease by schoolteachers, spring fever is now recognized also by physiologists. The heat built up by our bodies for winter weather must be thrown off in spring. Working hard at this job, our bodies become tired. The condition known as spring fever results.

B* REVIEW QUIZ 2---May 5, 1961. (PUT THIS TEST IN YOUR BOOKLET WHEN YOU FINISH. DO NOT WRITE ON IT. WRITE YOUR ANSWERS ON A SEPARATE SHEET OF PAPER.) (COVER SHEETS IV-VII)

T I. ANSWER EACH QUESTION "TRUE" or "FALSE." If it is FALSE, tell why briefly. YOU WILL RECEIVE NO CREDIT FOR A FALSE ANSWER UNLESS YOU TELL WHY IT IS FALSE.

Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns by describing, limiting, or pointing out. Adjectives answer the questions "WHICH ONE" "WHAT KIND" or "HOW MANY."

Both adjectives and adverbs can be compared in these degrees: positive, comparative, and superlative.

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. They usually can be identified by seeing if the word in question answers the questions "HOW" "WHEN" "WHERE" "HOW MANY" "HOW MUCH" or "HOW OFTEN."

EITHER-OR, NEITHER-NOR, NOT ONLY-BUT ALSO are examples of correlative conjunctions.

Co-ordinate conjunctions join two items of equal rank. Some of the most common co-ordinate conjunctions are as, than, before, unless and until.

Subordinate conjunctions used very frequently are AND, BUT, OR, NOR, FOR.

A prepositional phrase, which consists of a preposition and its object, plus any modifiers, may be used as an adjective or an adverb.

An infinitive phrase, which consists of an infinitive and its object, plus any modifiers, may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. The past participle of a verb is exactly the same thing as the past perfect tense of the verb.

A participle phrase, which consists of a participle with its objects and modifiers, may be used only as an adjective.

A gerund phrase, which consists of a gerund plus its subject, object, and modifiers, if any, may be used only as a noun.

To find what a participial phrase modifies, ask "WHO" or "WHAT" in front of the phrase.

A dangling participle is one which does not have something sensible to modify in the sentence.

The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case if it is a pronoun. The subject of a gerund is in the possessive case if it is a pronoun.

II. On your paper write each adjective or adverb appearing in the following sentences. Next, write whether it is an adjective or an adverb. Next, tell the word it modifies. (WORD - ADJ. OR ADV. -WORD MOD.)
USE THESE SENTENCES:

Our picnic basket is extremely useful.

Sam looked steadily at the ghostly figure.

I am reading a particularly interesting book.

The boy read the mystery story.

PART III. For each sentence below, copy the subject, the verb, the predicate adjective, predicate nominative, or direct object, if any. Underline the subject once, the verb twice, write PN over a pred. nominative, write PA over a pred. adjective, and write DO over a direct object.

New York City has a natural harbor.

It is one of the greatest ports in the world.

Its waters are busy with activity.

The port handles almost half of our exports and imports.

Henry Hudson was the early explorer of this river.

REMARKS SHEET OF PAPER (COVER SHEET IV-VII)
DO NOT WRITE ON IT. WRITE YOUR ANSWERS ON A
SEPARATE SHEET OF PAPER. (SEE INSTRUCTIONS ON PAGE 1)

ANSWER EACH QUESTION "TRUE" OR "FALSE". IT IS A FALSE STATEMENT
WHY? BRIEFLY. YOU WILL RECEIVE NO CREDIT FOR A FALSE ANSWER.
YOU WILL NOT BE PENALIZED.

Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns by describing, limiting, or pointing out. Adjectives answer the questions "WHICH ONE?" "WHAT KIND?" or "HOW MANY?"
Both adjectives and adverbs can be compared in three degrees: positive, comparative, and superlative.

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. They usually are identified by seeing if the word in question answers the questions "HOW?" "WHERE?" "WHEN?" "HOW MANY?" or "HOW OFTEN?"
Altho-OR, EITHER-OR, BUT ONLY-BUT ALSO are examples of correlative conjunctions.
Co-ordinate conjunctions join two items of equal rank. Some of the most common co-ordinate conjunctions are as, then, before, unless, and until.

Subordinate conjunctions used very frequently are AND, BUT, OR, NOR, FOR, A prepositional phrase, which consists of a preposition and its object, plus any modifiers, may be used as an adjective or an adverb.
An infinitive phrase, which consists of an infinitive and its object, plus any modifiers, may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.
The past participle of a verb is exactly the same thing as the past perfect tense of the verb.

A participial phrase, which consists of a participle with its object and modifiers, may be used only as an adjective.
A gerund phrase, which consists of a gerund plus its subject, object, and modifiers, if any, may be used only as a noun.
To find what a participial phrase modifies, ask "WHO?" or "WHAT?" in front of the phrase.
A dangling participle is one which does not have something sensible to modify in the sentence.

The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case if it is a pronoun. The subject of a gerund is in the possessive case if it is a pronoun.
III. On your paper write each adjective or adverb appearing in the following sentences. Next, write whether it is an adjective or an adverb. Next, tell the word it modifies. (WORD - ADJ. OR ADV. - MODIF. WORD)
BE THESE STRINGS;
OUR GLASS BASKET IS EXTREMELY USEFUL.
HEM LOOKED STEADILY AT THE GHOSTLY FIGURE.
I AM READING A PARTICULARLY INTERESTING BOOK.
THE BOY READ THE MYSTERY STORY.

PART III. For each sentence below, copy the subject, the verb, the predicate adjective, predicate nominative, or direct object, if any. Underline the subject once, the verb twice, write PN over a pred. nominative, write PA over a pred. adjective, and write DO over a direct object.

New York City has a natural harbor.
It is one of the greatest ports in the world.
The waters are busy with activity.
The port handles a almost half of our exports and imports.
Early Hudson was the early explorer of this river.

IV. Copy from the following sentences each prepositional phrase. Then, tell whether it is used as an adjective or an adverb or whatever else you think it is. Then, tell the word it modifies.
(PREP. PHRASE - USE - WORD IT MODIFIES)

USE THESE SENTENCES:

The presents for the twins are hidden in the basement.
The hero of the play was always dashing madly across the stage.
John's classmates were worried about the necessary money for an operation and found a way of helping.
Within two weeks the talent show opened to a big audience of parents, students, and friends.

V. Copy from the following sentences each infinitive phrase. Then, tell if it is used as a noun, adjective, adverb, or whatever else you think it is. DO NOT CONSIDER A PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE A PART OF THE INFINITIVE PHRASE in this exercise.

USE THESE SENTENCES:

Education is the ability to meet life's situations.
A fool always finds a greater fool to admire him.
I hope to stand firm.
To laugh at men of sense is the privilege of fools.
Governments exist to protect the rights of minorities.
We only part to meet again.

VI. From the following sentences, write on your paper each ~~single~~ single participle or gerund. By the side write GERUND or PARTICIPLE. (Although you are not to write the information, be sure to ask yourself what each participle modifies or how each gerund is used.)

THESE SENTENCES:

People born in the winter month of February live the longest.
A study made by Professor Ellsworth Hunter proves this belief true.
School officials often find themselves handling five times as many discipline cases in dry weather as in wet.
Controlling ourselves is harder in dry weather than in humid weather.
We spend too much energy in keeping warm and thus lose in efficiency.
Moving fast because of the cold, we may think ourselves more efficient.
A fine day is not the best day for working hard.

VII. Consider the following sentence, and then write GOOD if it contains a properly constructed participial phrase and ~~mark~~ word modified. Write DANGLING if it is a dangling participial.

Seated on a limb of the big oak tree, a sharp gust of dust and wind nearly blew poor Edgar from his perch.

IV. Copy from the following sentences each prepositional phrase. Then tell whether it is used as an adjective or an adverb or what. ever else you think it is. Then, tell the word it modifies. (THIS PHRASE USE WORD IT MODIFIES)

The presents for the twins are hidden in the basement. The hero of the play was always dealing badly across the stage. John's circumstances were worried about the necessary money for an opera- tion and found a way of helping. Within two weeks the talent show opened to a big audience of students, and friends.

V. Copy from the following sentences each infinitive phrase. Then, tell if it is used as a noun, adjective, adverb, or whatever else you think it is. DO NOT CONSIDER A PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE A PART OF THE INFINITIVE PHRASE in this exercise.

USE THIS SENTENCE:

Education is the ability to meet life's situations. A fool always finds a greater fool to admire him. I hope to stand firm. To laugh at men of sense is the privilege of fools. Governments exist to protect the rights of minorities. We only part to meet again.

VI. From the following sentences, write on your paper each ~~prepositional phrase~~ ~~adverbial phrase~~ ~~adjective phrase~~ ~~infinitive phrase~~ ~~participial phrase~~ ~~gerund~~ ~~or~~ ~~gerund~~. By the side write GERUND or PARTICIPLE. (Although you are not to write the information, be sure to ask yourself what each participle modifies or how each gerund is used.)

People born in the winter month of February live the longest. A study made by Professor Halloworth Hunter proves this belief true. School officials often find themselves handling five times as many discipline cases in dry weather as in wet. Controlling ourselves is harder in dry weather than in humid weather. We spend too much energy in keeping warm and thus lose in efficiency. Moving fast because of the cold we may think ourselves more efficient. A fine day is not the best day for working hard.

VII. Consider the following sentence, and then write GOOD if it contains a properly constructed participial phrase and mark word modified. A DANGLING if it is a dangling participial.

Seated on a limb of the big oak tree, a sharp gust of dust and wind nearly blew poor Edgar from his perch.

B* REVIEW SHEET VIII- COMPLEX SENTENCES AND ADVERB CLAUSES, ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

A COMPLEX SENTENCE is one which contains an independent or main clause and one or more dependent or subordinate clauses. These concepts are important if you are to understand the complex sentence:

1. A clause is a part of a sentence with a subject and verb. (There are two classifications of clauses---independent or main, and dependent or subordinate.)
2. A dependent clause may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. Two tests of a dependent clause are: (1) it usually doesn't make complete sense if it is removed from the rest of the sentence; (2) usually an introductory word either is expressed or can be supplied without spoiling the sense of the clause.
4. An adjective or a noun clause is usually introduced by a RELATIVE PRONOUN, the main ones of which are who, whom, whose, which, that.
5. An adverb clause is usually introduced by a SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTION, the main ones are AFTER, THAN, THOUGH, WHEN, SINCE, BEFORE, PROVIDED, WHERE, BECAUSE, IF, TILL, WHETHER, AS, SO THAT, UNLESS, WHILE, AS IF, ALTHOUGH, UNTIL, AS SOON AS. (Sometimes WHEN or WHERE attached an adjective clause to a word in another clause.)

THE FIRST TYPE OF CLAUSE WHICH WE WILL STUDY IS THE ADVERB clause. Like a single word adverb or a phrase used as an adverb, the adverb clause modifies a VERB, ADJECTIVE, or ANOTHER ADVERB.

EXAMPLE: We listened later. (Single word adverb)
 We listened after the tryouts. (Prep. phrase used as adverb)
 We listened after all the tryouts had been held. (Clause)

PUNCTUATION OF THE ADVERB CLAUSE

1. A comma usually sets off an adverb clause at the beginning of a sentence. Ex: 1. Before we can go to town, we must borrow some money.
 2. We must borrow some money before we can go to town.
2. A comma should be used before an adverb clause beginning with since or as IF THE CLAUSE GIVES A REASON.

EXAMPLES: He had driven some distance since he had his tires checked. (No reason, no comma)
 He had the tires checked, since he wanted to be ready to leave. (A reason, a comma)

REMEMBER, ADVERB CLAUSES, JUST LIKE SINGLE ADVERBS AND PHRASES USED AS ADVERBS, ANSWER THE "ADVERB QUESTIONS"--How, when, where, why, to what extent or how much?

EXERCISE

On your paper copy each adverb clause. Then, underline the subject of your clause once and the verb twice.

An uneducated Cherokee Indian invented an alphabet so that his people could read. Because Sequoya loved the Indians, he watched the white men. The white men could learn from each other, since they had books. When a wise Indian died, his knowledge died with him. Unless the Indians could write in their own language, they could not have their own books. Although Sequoya could not read, he wanted a written language for his people. When some Indians learned of his plans, they laughed. Others were frightened, as they held superstitious beliefs. White men could not write till the Great Spirit taught them. Indians should not write, since the Great Spirit was punishing them.

DEFINITION: A complex sentence is one which contains an independent clause and one or more dependent or subordinate clauses.

NOUN CLAUSE IS A DEPENDENT CLAUSE WHICH IS USED AS A NOUN.

It is usually introduced by one of these words: **WHICH, THAT, WHOEVER, WHICHEVER, WHOMEVER.** The clause usually will not make sense without its introductory word.

A noun clause may be used as (1) Subject of the verb:

THAT YOU SUCCEEDED in high school is my desire. (The prep. phrase modifies the clause and is included in it.)

as (2) Object of a verb:

Dorothy said THAT SHE WANTED TO GO.

as (3) Predicate nominative:

The truth is that we can't go.

as (4) Apposition with the subject, object of verb, object of preposition or predicate nominative.

The report THAT WE LOST is false. (app. with subj.)

You made the report THAT WE LOST. (app. with object of verb)

We thought of the girl's statement, "I see a ghost." (app. with obj. of preposition)

The main fact is the evidence that he lost his book. (app. with pred. nominative)

EXERCISE:

From the following sentences copy the noun clauses. By each one write the use in the sentence. Underline the introductory word, if there is one.

What the boys did we will never know.

What the boys did was their own business.

Did you know that it is time to go?

The man offered to sell the car to whoever paid him the most.

School is what you make it.

We believe that the United States is a great country.

No one knows who will be the first man on the moon.

The student is never satisfied with what he has already done.

What I think about the matter is not important.

It is estimated that there will be a man in orbit soon.

EXERCISE TWO: Write a complex sentence of your own that will contain at least one noun, one adjective, and one adverb clause. Write your sentence on every other line of paper and then above the clauses which you will please enclose in parentheses, write NOUN, ADJECTIVE, or ADVERB.

The United States will never be a civilized country until we spend time that its population is growing.
 Because New Mexico is a good state that people learn to love, it is no one knows what he can learn until he tries.
 Most children agree that a mother does the work of three or four people about their own lives.
 People become happy when they recognize that they can do something that will enable him to be successful.
 A lot of people must study a long time before he knows the information. A good student is one who studies his lessons whenever he has a chance.

5. On your paper, write each dependent or subordinate clause and after it write ADJECTIVE, ADVERB, OR NOUN.
4. Try to determine if the clause answers one of the ADJECTIVE questions, one of the ADVERB questions, or if it is used in some way that a single-word noun may be used.
3. Be sure that what you think is a dependent clause really is a clause; that is, be sure that it has a SUBJECT AND A VERB.
2. Look for any introductory words for dependent clauses and then insert them.
1. Determine what your main or independent clause is.

In the following sentences, try your hand at reorganizing adverb, and noun clauses when they are thrown together. Follow this procedure:

1. Determine what your main or independent clause is.
 2. Look for any introductory words for dependent clauses and then insert them.
 3. Be sure that what you think is a dependent clause really is a clause; that is, be sure that it has a SUBJECT AND A VERB.
 4. Try to determine if the clause answers one of the ADJECTIVE questions, one of the ADVERB questions, or if it is used in some way that a single-word noun may be used.
 5. On your paper, write each dependent or subordinate clause and after it write ADJECTIVE, ADVERB, OR NOUN.

B* REVIEW SHEET XI-----RECOGNIZING SENTENCES ACCORDING TO FORM AND MEANING.

English sentences are classified according to form:

SIMPLE (one subject, one verb) (Subjects and predicates may be compound.)
Mary also sets the table each night.

Mary and Jo always set the table and do the dishes.

COMPOUND (two or more main clauses joined by a co-ordinate or correlative conjunction)

Joe turned off the gas, Ted opened a window, and Jim telephoned the alarm.

Jane dances well, but she couldn't come tonight.

Does the magazine appeal to one class of people, or does it have mass appeal?

COMPLEX (contains an independent or main clause and one or more dependent or subordinate clauses)

We left after the party was over.

That he might see the princess was his greatest desire.

We had seen the movie star who was making the film here.

English sentences are also classified according to meaning.

A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE makes a statement. It ends with a period.
(The word declare means "to make clear" or "to make known.")

Ex.: In any state you can find many interesting places.

AN IMPERATIVE SENTENCE gives a command or request. It ends with a period. (The word imperative comes from a Latin word meaning "to command.")

Ex.: Please send me a dozen roses.

Ask the teacher a question.

AN INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE asks a question. It ends with a question mark. (Interrogative comes from a combination of Latin words meaning "to ask between.")

Ex.: How long will you be in China?

AN EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE is one which you intend to be spoken with sudden or sharp emphasis. It ends with an exclamation point. (The word exclamatory comes from Latin words meaning "to cry out.")
It may be any of the other three kinds of sentences, if it is MEANT TO BE SPOKEN WITH SUDDEN OR SHARP EMPHASIS.

Ex.: What a lovely dress you have!

Did you hear the explosion! There it goes again!

Do as you are told!

EXERCISE : Classify the following sentences according to FORM and MEANING.

Put your answers in chart form, like this:

SENTENCE NO.	FORM	MEANING
X	Simple	Declarative

USE THESE SENTENCES:

John drove very fast after he reached the deserted highway.

Does your schedule permit you to take another elective?

Give me an answer immediately!

If we try hard, we can finish our review today.

Please answer the question that Mary asked you.

Ellen and her four brothers have gone on a picnic and have planned to camp out in the wilderness.

That teacher has answered all the questions that her class asked.

Watch that rattlesnake!

Because he asked you to go with him, won't you consider going to the Prom?

The yard looked beautiful, and the flowers were very fragrant.

Other sentences are classified according to form:
 SIMPLE (one subject, one verb) (subject and predicate may be compound)
 Mary also went to the table each night.

Mary and Jo always sat the table and so the dishes
 (compound) (two compound main clauses joined by a co-ordinator or conjunction)
 Joe turned off the gas, Ted opened a window, and Jim reformed
 the table.

There is some truth, but the country's down tonight.
 Does the magazine appeal to one class of people, or does it
 have mass appeal?

COMPLEX (contains an independent or main clause and one or more
 dependent or subordinate clauses)
 We left after the party was over.

That he might see the princess was his greatest desire.
 We had seen the movie star who was making the film here.

Other sentences are also classified according to meaning.
 A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE makes a statement. It ends with a period.
 (The word declares means "to make clear" or "to make known.")

Ex.: In any state you can find many interesting places.
 AN IMPERATIVE SENTENCE gives a command or request. It ends with a
 period. (The word imperative comes from a Latin word meaning
 "to command.")

Ex.: Please send me a dozen roses.
 Ask the teacher a question.
 AN INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE asks a question. It ends with a question
 mark. (Interrogative comes from a combination of Latin words
 meaning "to ask between.")

Ex.: How long will you be in China?
 AN EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE is one which you intend to be spoken with
 sudden or sharp emphasis. It ends with an exclamation point. (The
 word exclamatory comes from Latin words meaning "to cry out.")

It may be any of the other three kinds of sentences, if it is
 MEANT TO BE SPOKEN WITH SUDDEN OR SHARP EMPHASIS.
 Ex.: What a lovely dress you have!

Did you hear the explosion? There it goes again!
 Do as you are told!

Exercise: Classify the following sentences according to FORM and MEANING.
 Put your answers in chart form, like this:

SENTENCE NO.	FORM	MEANING
1	Simple	Declarative

USE THESE SENTENCES:
 John drove very fast after he reached the deserted highway.
 Does your schedule permit you to take another elective?
 Give me an answer immediately!
 If we try hard, we can finish our review today.
 Please answer the question that Mary asked you.
 Allen and her four brothers have gone on a picnic and have planned to
 camp out in the wilderness.
 That teacher has answered all the questions that her class asked.
 Watch that rattlesnake!
 Because he asked you to go with him, won't you consider going to the
 the yard looked beautiful, and the flowers were very fragrant.

REVIEW SHEET XIII- ---PUNCTUATION

PERIOD

A period is used after a declarative sentence and after an imperative sentence.

The Bible has been translated into many languages.

Be sure to vote when you are old enough.

A period is used after initials and ~~xxxx~~ after most abbreviations.

Mr. and Mrs. John Jones Washington, D. C. R. F. D.

A period is used after each number and letter in an outline.

I.

A.

B.

QUESTION MARK

A question mark is used after an interrogative sentence.

What time do you have that class?

EXCLAMATION POINT

An exclamation point is used to indicate that a sentence would be spoken with sudden or sharp emphasis. (Exclamatory sentence)

What a beautiful view that is!

Ouch! Your pet rabbit bit my finger!

COMMA

Commas are used to separate items in a series.

She owns three cars, two houses, and fifteen swimming pools.

Commas are used to separate adjectives only if they are of equal rank.

Could anything be grown in this wine-scarred, stump-covered land?

Now this region is a productive citrus fruit belt.

Commas are used to set off the name of the person spoken to.

Therefore, ladies and gentlemen, we ask you to vote for Jones.

Commas are used to set off independent elements---yes, no, well, now, ah, oh---in a sentence.

Well, can you answer? Yes, I believe you can.

Commas are used to set off parenthetical expressions.

The big test, according to the students, will come next week.

Commas are used to set off most appositives. Closely connected appositives are not set off.

In addition to New Mexico, our own state, there are several other states in the Southwest.

What would life be like on the planet Mars?

Commas are used to set off items in a date or address.

Albuquerque, New Mexico, is their destination.

Why is July 4, 1776, an important date?

A comma is usually used before a co-ordinate conjunction joining the clauses of a compound sentence.

He may become a doctor, or he may study to be a space pilot.

A comma is used to set off an introductory participial phrase.

Reading my book, I did not hear him slip into the room.

Commas are used to set off participial phrases that are not necessary to the meaning of the sentence.

Flag Day, celebrated annually on June 14, marks the adoption of the Stars and Stripes as our national emblem.

Commas are used to separate a direct quotation from the explanatory words---unless other punctuation is needed.

"Look through the door," said Jim, "and you will see a fight."

"What did you say?" she asked me.

Commas are used to set off NONRESTRICTIVE adjective clauses.

The Explorer and the Vanguard, which were our first satellites, were powered by batteries.

13. A comma is usually used to set off an adverb clause at the beginning of a sentence.

Although he has only five dollars, he will give something to the Community Chest.

14. A comma is used before an adverb clause beginning with SINCE or AS if the clause gives a reason.

He was able to give the answer, since he had studied the material. I haven't heard from him since he lived here.

15. A comma is used in the heading of a letter to separate the city from the state and the month and day from the year.

119 East Fifth Street
New York 22, New York
December 14, 1961

16. A comma is used after the salutation in a friendly letter.

Dear Aunt Penelope,
Dear John,

17. A comma is used after the complimentary close in a friendly letter and in a business letter.

Affectionately yours, Sincerely yours,

COLON

1. A colon is used after the salutation in a business letter.

Dear Mr. Hawkins: Gentlemen:

2. A colon is used to separate the parts of a compound sentence when the second clause explains, restates, or proves the first.

A person shouldn't laugh at his own joke: they may not be funny to anyone else.

SEMICOLON

1. A semicolon may be used, instead of a comma and a conjunction, to connect the main clauses of a compound sentence.

It costs \$450; I do not have that much.

2. A semicolon is used before HOWEVER, THEREFORE, MOREOVER when they connect the parts of a compound sentence. The word is usually followed by a comma.

I do not know him; however, it would please me to meet him.

QUOTATION MARKS

1. Quotation marks are used to set off EXACTLY quoted words.

"I will do the work myself," said John.

2. Quotation marks are used to show the title of a short story, article, or short poem. Underlining is used to show the title of a book, a long poem, or a full-length play.

"The Necklace" is a wonderful short story.

Look Homeward, Angel is my favorite book.

APOSTROPHE

1. An apostrophe takes the place of omitted letters in a contraction.

can't won't shouldn't

2. An apostrophe is used to form the possessive case of nouns.

men's men's dog's dogs'

3. An apostrophe is not used to form the possessive case of pronouns.

ours, yours, ~~theirs~~ theirs

A comma is used after the complimentary close in a business letter and in a business letter.
Sincerely yours,
John Doe

A colon is used after the salutation in a business letter.
Dear Mr. Hawkins:
A colon is used to separate the parts of a compound sentence when the second clause explains, restates, or gives the first.
A person should not forget to call him. They may not be
any to anyone else.

A semicolon may be used, instead of a comma, to connect the main clause of a compound sentence.
It costs \$450; I do not have that much.
A semicolon is used before however, therefore, and in other words to connect the parts of a compound sentence.
I do not know him; however, it would please me to meet him.

Quotation marks are used to set off EXACTLY quoted words.
"I will do the work myself," said John.
Quotation marks are used to show the title of a short story, article, or short poem. Underlining is used to show the title of a book, a long poem, or a full-length play.
"The Necklace" is a wonderful short story.
Look Homeward, Angel is my favorite book.

An apostrophe takes the place of omitted letters in a contraction.
can't, won't, shouldn't
An apostrophe is used to form the possessive case of nouns.
man's, dog's, boy's
An apostrophe is not used to form the possessive case of pronouns.
yours, theirs, mine, hers

EXERCISES.

I. Write a sentence (or phrase or group of words, if necessary) to illustrate EACH of the rules given you on the first two pages.

II. Punctuate the following sentences. You may write on this sheet.

III. THESE SENTENCES:

Cotton is raised in the South but in the early days cotton cloth was made in New England

Now however textile mills are located in Virginia North Carolina South Carolina and other Southern states

Wishing to aid the local Pet Milk Company the schools taught dairy farming in Greenville Tennessee

The headquarters of the Du Pont Company are located in Wilmington Delaware but the company has additional plants in twenty-five other states Orlon which is an important new fabric was first manufactured at the DuPont plant in Camden South Carolina

Yes Mr. McCoy the first orchestra was called "The Twenty-four Violins of the King"

Dudley can you name the man who made the most famous violins

The concert was given at Carnegie Hall Seventh Avenue and 57 Street New York City June 1, 1395

Nails sheet steel and railroad spikes are manufactured at Wheeling and Weirton West Virginia

Being honest the owner returned this thirty-five dollar check

We asked a reporter Sir were many television aerials damaged by the storm

After the breeze died down the surface of the lake became glassy

Slowly I drew the line in with my right hand coiling it in my palm

I could not cast upstream as a fishline across the still water would disturb the trout

Oak Ridge one of the first atomic projects is located in Tennessee and

the Savannah River plant another atomic center is in South Carolina

I don't understand your question however I will try to answer it

Behold the conqueror

Of Men and Mountains is a book written by William O. Douglas

The coat is theirs although we thought it belonged to Jim

It is the cats collar, not the dogs

REVIEW SHEET XIII- CAPITALIZATION

1. Capitalize the first word of a sentence and the first word of a quoted sentence within a sentence.

We saw a long necked bird with black wings. Bill asked, "Can it be a whooping crane?"

2. Usually the first word of every line of poetry is capitalized.

Once upon a midnight dreary, while I pondered,
weak and weary,

Over many a quaint and curious volume of forgotten
lore---

3. Capitalize the personal pronoun I.

It is I.

4. Capitalize the first word of every topic in an outline

I. Birds of the South

A. Robins

B. Canaries

5. Capitalize the first word in the salutation of a letter and all proper nouns. Capitalize only the first word of the complimentary close.

Dear Mr. Jones:

My dear Mrs. Adams:

Sincerely yours,

6. Capitalize all proper nouns and proper adjectives.

English Indian Roman

7. Capitalize names of persons, pets, and standard products.

Mother (when used in place of her name)

my mother

Aunt Mary

Fido

Wheaties

8. Capitalize names of particular groups of people---people belonging to particular races, countries, or parts of countries, religions, organizations.

Eskimos

Catholics

Democrats

Southerners

9. Capitalize names of particular places.

Catalina Island

Wrigley Building

the Midwest

(Do not capitalize words that show direction only.---We live west of here)

10. Capitalize names for God and for holy writing.

God Jehovah

the Bible

the Old Testament

11. Capitalize names of days of the week, months, and holidays.

Saturday

January

Christmas

(Do not capitalize names of seasons-----autumn, spring)

12. Capitalize titles of books, plays, stories, poems, programs, newspapers, articles, themes, works of art, and music. Capitalize the first word, the last word, and other important words. Names of ships and aircraft are capitalized, too.

Men of Iron

"The Outcasts of Poker Flat"

"Explorer VII"

13. Capitalize names of treaties, laws, acts, important events, and historical documents.

Magna Charta

Wilshire Act

French and Indian War

14. Capitalize words referring to particular persons, places, or things.

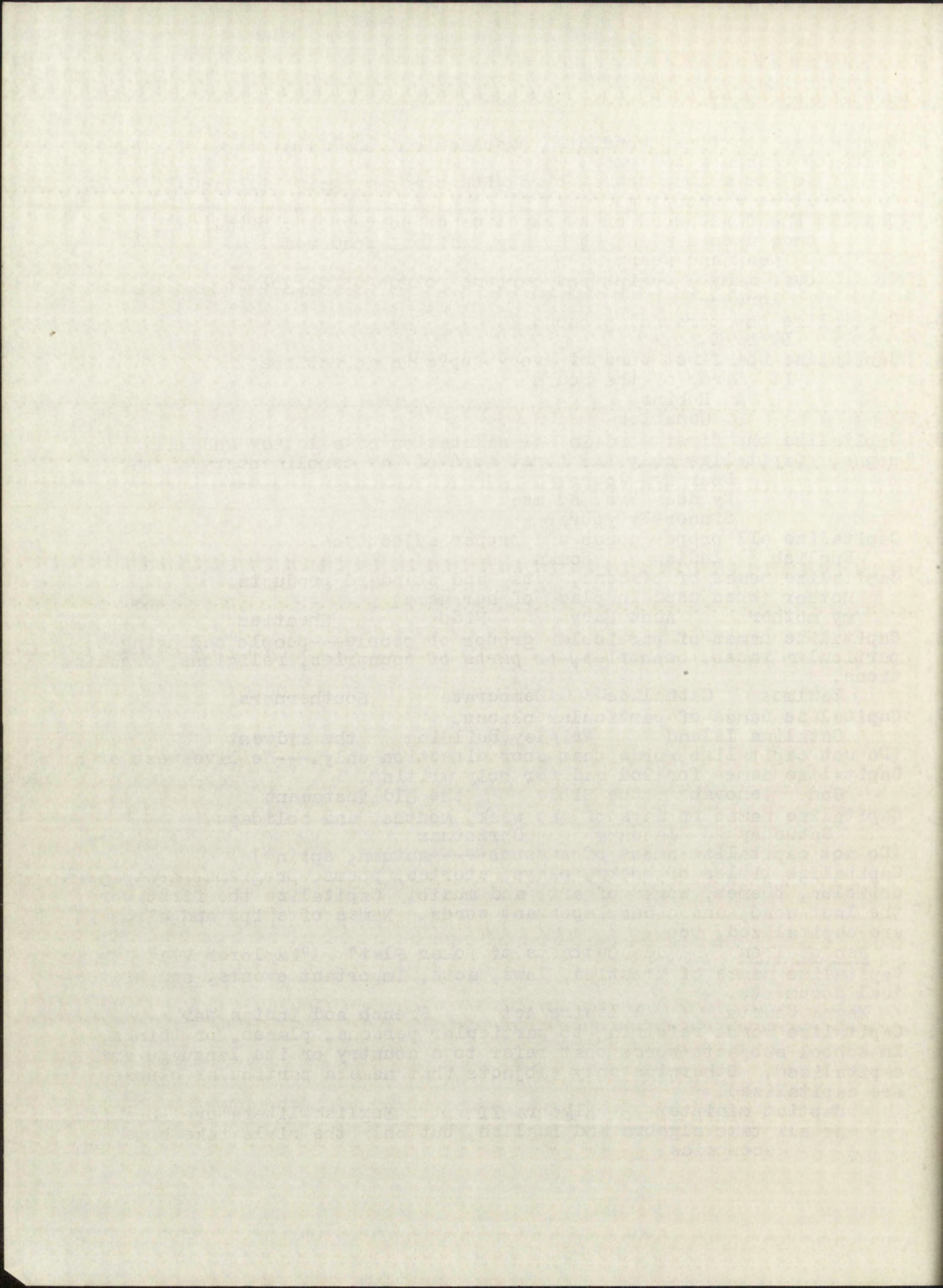
In school subjects words that refer to a country or its language are capitalized. Otherwise only subjects that name a particular course are capitalized.

Baptist minister

Algebra II

English literature Spanish

We all take algebra and English, but only the girls take home economics.



EXERCISES:

I. Write a word, phrase, clause, or sentence to illustrate each of the capitalization rules given you.

II. Rewrite the following sentences, inserting capital letters where needed.

1. can you name a jewish holiday celebrated in the spring?
2. my cousin is a freshman at east high school.
3. christmas day and new year's day always come a week apart.
4. aunt julia graduated from a women's college in the east.
5. should i take spanish or home economics?
6. should we send a democrat or a republican to the united states senate?
7. a battle of the revolutionary war was fought a few miles south of here.
8. can you locate that passage in the bible?
9. do you take the saturday evening post?
0. we visited the empire state building and the metropolitan museum.
1. a quotation from the book of psalms in the bible says, "i will lift up mine eyes unto the hills from whence cometh my help. my help cometh from the lord."
2. four giant portraits are carved high on mt. rushmore in the black hills of south dakota.
3. mt. mckinley national park in alaska was created in february 1917.
4. you will enjoy the book of men and mountains by justice william o. douglas.
5. last monday, labor day, we drove aunt nelly's cadillac up the mountain.

EXERCISES:

I. Write a word, phrase, clause, or sentence to illustrate each of the capitalization rules given you.

II. Rewrite the following sentences, inserting capital letters where needed.

1. can you name a Jewish holiday celebrated in the spring?
2. my cousin is a freshman at east high school.
3. christmas day and new year's day always come a week apart.
4. aunt julia graduated from a women's college in the east.
5. should i take spanish or home economics?
6. should we send a democrat or a republican to the united states senate?
7. a battle of the revolutionary war was fought a few miles south of here.
8. can you locate that passage in the bible?
9. do you take the saturday evening post?
10. we visited the empire state building and the metropolitan museum.
11. a quotation from the book of psalms in the bible says, "i will lift up mine eyes unto the hills from whence cometh my help. my help cometh from the lord."
12. four giant portraits are carved high on mt. rushmore in the black hills of south dakota.
13. mt. McKinley national park in alaska was created in february 1917.
14. you will enjoy the book of men and mountains by justice william o. douglas.
15. last monday, labor day, we drove aunt nelly's cadillac up the mountain.

B* REVIEW SHEET XIV - REVIEW OF REVIEW SHEETS

1. Define the following terms: (1) noun, (2) verb, (3) adjective, (4) adverb, (5) preposition, (6) coordinate conjunction, (7) subordinate conjunction, (8) correlative conjunction, (9) dependent clause, (10) subordinate clause, (11) independent clause, (12) simple sentence, (13) compound sentence, (14) complex sentence, (15) prepositional phrase, (16) infinitive, (17) participial, (18) gerund, (19) subject, (20) direct object, (21) predicate nominative, (22) appositive, (23) non-restrictive adjective clause, (24) principal parts of verbs.
2. What are the uses which a noun may have?
3. What are the classes of pronouns?
4. What are the cases of personal pronouns, and how may each be used?
5. What is meant by the different "persons" of personal pronouns?
6. What is the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb?
7. What is the difference between a regular and an irregular verb?
8. What are the tenses of verbs in English, and how is each formed?
9. What is the difference between the active and the passive voice?
10. What are the "adjective questions"?
11. How are adjectives compared?
12. What are the "adverb questions"?
13. How are adverbs compared?
14. Have you memorized the coordinate, correlative, and subordinate conjunctions?
15. What are the four types of phrases we have studied?
16. What is the difference between a clause and a phrase?
17. In what ways may a prepositional phrase be used?
18. In what ways may an infinitive phrase be used? (Be sure that;
19. In what way may a gerund phrase be used? you can write
20. In what way may a participial phrase be used? an example of each.)
21. What is a dangling participial, and why is it to be avoided in writing or speaking?
22. What are the three types of dependent clauses?
23. What words usually introduce a noun clause?
24. What are some of the ways in which a noun clause may be used?
25. What words usually introduce an adjective clause? An adverb clause?
26. What is the difference between a compound sentence and a simple sentence with compound parts?
27. What are the types of sentences according to meaning? According to form?
28. What is a parenthetical expression, and how is it punctuated?
29. How are direct quotations punctuated and capitalized?
30. How is an introductory adverbial clause punctuated?
31. How do you show the difference between a plural noun and a possessive noun?
32. How is a possessive pronoun punctuated?
33. Are you clear on other rules of punctuation and capitalization, as given in Sheets XII and XIII?
34. What is a sentence fragment?
35. What is a run-on sentence?

8- REVIEW SHEET XIV - REVIEW OF REVIEW SHEET

1. Define the following terms: (1) noun, (2) verb, (3) adjective, (4) pronoun, (5) preposition, (6) conjunction, (7) and, (8) relative, (9) demonstrative, (10) interrogative, (11) expletive, (12) copulative, (13) appositive, (14) independent clause, (15) subordinate clause, (16) complex sentence, (17) simple sentence, (18) gerund, (19) infinitive, (20) participle, (21) predicate nominative, (22) predicate adjective, (23) non-restrictive adjective clause, (24) principal parts of verbs.
2. What are the uses which a noun may have?
3. What are the classes of pronouns?
4. What are the cases of personal pronouns, and how may each be used?
5. What is meant by the different "persons" of personal pronouns?
6. What is the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb?
7. What is the difference between a regular and an irregular verb?
8. What are the tenses of verbs in English, and how is each formed?
9. What is the difference between the active and the passive voice?
10. What are the "adjective questions"?
11. How are adjectives compared?
12. What are the "adverb questions"?
13. How are adverbs compared?
14. Have you memorized the coordinate, correlative, and subordinate conjunctions?
15. What are the four types of phrases we have studied?
16. What is the difference between a clause and a phrase?
17. In what ways may a prepositional phrase be used?
18. In what ways may an infinitive phrase be used? (Be sure the; you can write)
19. In what ways may a gerund phrase be used?
20. In what ways may a participial phrase be used? an example of each
21. What is a dangling participle, and why is it to be avoided in writing or speaking?
22. What are the three types of dependent clauses?
23. What words usually introduce a noun clause?
24. What are some of the ways in which a noun clause may be used?
25. What words usually introduce an adjective clause? An adverb clause?
26. What is the difference between a compound sentence and a simple sentence with compound parts?
27. What are the types of sentences according to meaning? According to form?
28. What is a parenthetical expression, and how is it punctuated?
29. How are direct quotations punctuated and capitalized?
30. How is an introductory adverbial clause punctuated?
31. How do you show the difference between a plural noun and a possessive noun?
32. How is a possessive pronoun punctuated?
33. Are you clear on other rules of punctuation and capitalization, as given in Sheets XII and XIII?
34. What is a sentence fragment?
35. What is a run-on sentence?

B* FINAL TEST ON REVIEW OF GRAMMAR - May 18, 1961

GENERAL DIRECTIONS: ALL ANSWERS ARE TO BE WRITTEN ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET, NOT ON THIS TEST. READ YOUR QUESTIONS CAREFULLY, AND PLEASE BE SURE TO PUT YOUR ANSWERS IN THE PROPERLY NUMBERED BLANKS.

PART I. Copy the word or words from the list given you in parentheses that will be needed to complete the statements given below.

CHOOSE FROM THESE WORDS: (noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, coordinate conjunction, subordinate conjunction, correlative conjunction, dependent clause, subordinate clause, independent clause, simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentences, prepositional phrase, infinitive, participle, gerund, subject, direct object, predicate nominative, appositive, non-restrictive adjective clause, principal parts of verbs)

USE THESE STATEMENTS FOR PART I.

1. A _____ is one which contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.
2. A _____ is a word which shows action or state of being and which may be changed in form to show different tenses.
3. A _____ shows relationship between its object and some other word in the sentence.
4. "Either-or" is an example of a pair of _____ conjunctions.
5. A noun or a pronoun may be modified by a or an _____.
6. A _____ is one which contains two independent clauses.
7. A _____ is one which is usually introduced by a subordinate conjunction and which does not make sense by itself.
8. A _____ follows a linking verb and renames the subject.
9. "To" plus a verb makes a or an _____.
10. Although somewhat similar in places, _____ are not the same as tenses.

PART II. Read each of the following sentences carefully. Write "TRUE" or FALSE. If the statement is false, you must tell why it is false in order to get credit.

1. The past tense of a regular verb is usually formed by adding "ed", while the past tense of ~~an~~ an irregular verb is formed by making some other change.
2. The adjective questions are WHICH ONE, WHAT KIND, HOW MANY.
3. The adverb questions are HOW, WHEN, WHERE, WHY, TO WHAT EXTENT.
4. An infinitive or infinitive phrase may be used as a noun, adjective, or adverb.
5. A gerund phrase may be used only in some way that a noun may be used.
6. A participial phrase may be used only as an adjective.
7. A parenthetical expression, one which is not really necessary to the meaning of a sentence, is set off by commas.
8. An introductory adverbial clause is set off by a comma.
9. A possessive pronoun does not require the use of an apostrophe.
10. A dangling participle is one which does not have something sensible to modify.

PART III. WRITE THE INFORMATION CALLED FOR.

TELL:

- A. Five uses a noun may have:
1-5
- B. The person of these pronouns:
6. you 7. they 8. we
- C. The six tenses
9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14.

APPEAL FROM THE DISTRICT COURT OF DALLAS COUNTY, TEXAS, IN AND TO BE HEARD ON THE 15th DAY OF MAY, 1941.

THE STATE OF TEXAS, Plaintiff in Error, vs. THE TEXAS COTTON PRODUCE COMPANY, Defendant in Error.

JOHN W. HARRIS, Attorney at Law, for Plaintiff in Error.
 JAMES H. HARRIS, Attorney at Law, for Defendant in Error.

VERIFIED AND SUBSCRIBED to before me this 15th day of May, 1941.

Notary Public in and for the State of Texas.

Witness my hand and the seal of my office this 15th day of May, 1941.

Notary Public in and for the State of Texas.

JOHN W. HARRIS, Attorney at Law, for Plaintiff in Error.

JAMES H. HARRIS, Attorney at Law, for Defendant in Error.

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Witness my hand and the seal of my office this 15th day of May, 1941.

Notary Public in and for the State of Texas.

D. The three degrees of comparison for an adjective or adverb:

15. 16. 17.

E. Five coordinate conjunctions:

18. 19. 20. 21. 22.

F. Three subordinate conjunctions:

23. 24. 25.

G. The difference between a phrase and a clause:

26. A clause (supply the necessary words), while a phrase (supply the necessary words)

H. Two uses of a prepositional phrase:

27. 28.

I. Three types of dependent clauses:

29. 30. 31.

J. Three types of sentences according to form classification.

32. 33. 34.

K. Three types of sentences according to meaning classification.

35. 36. 37.

PART IV. COPY THESE SENTENCES, SUPPLYING THE PROPER CAPITALIZATION AND PUNCTUATION.

1. last christmas day tuesday december 25 1960 my family including mother father and my aunt minnie drove to chicago to see the wigley building which we had studied in social studies last fall.
2. therefore friends and neighbors we ask you to vote for mr. smith said jim finishing his speech just as the indians arrived to entertain the group
3. are you ready to celebrate the launching of the two satellites explorer and vanguard two very beautiful spaceships
4. the student does not seem very much interested in the subject however he must continue with it until the school year ends at wilson high school

PART V. Following the six sentences given below, you will find some question. Study the six sentences and use them as the basis for answering the questions.

USE THESE SENTENCES TO FIND THE ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONS WHICH FOLLOW.

1. A handsome young man, one who had traveled around the world, was visiting my family and helping us in planning our trip.
2. Driven to the bus line by our mother, we caught a bus which was being driven to town.
3. The play was his idea, not mine.
4. Show Mary and me the pictures.
5. Climbing White Mountain, I learned that mountain climbing is not a sport for those people who are extremely weak.
6. Yes, learning to walk is learning to explore for a baby when he has known only his crib before.

(THE FIRST QUESTIONS ON THESE SENTENCES FOLLOW ON THE NEXT PAGE.)

1. The difference between a phrase and a clause is that a phrase is a group of words that function as a single unit in a sentence, while a clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate. (Apply the necessary words)

2. A clause (Apply the necessary words)

3. Two uses of a prepositional phrase:

4. Three types of dependent clauses:

5. Three types of sentences according to form classification:

6. Three types of sentences according to meaning classification:

PART IV. COPY THESE SENTENCES, SUPPLYING THE MISSING CAPITALIZATION AND PUNCTUATION.

1. last christmas day thursday december 28 1960 i finally including mother father and my aunt minnie drove to the grove to see the whitey building which we had studied in school studied last fall

2. the store friends and neighbors we ask for advice for mr. smith sent him finishing his speech just as the friends arrived to enter in the group

3. are you ready to celebrate the launching of the two satellites

4. the student does not seem very much interested in the subject however must continue with it until the end of year ends at wisson high school

PART V. Following the six sentences given below you will find some question. study the six sentences and use them as the basis for answering the questions.

USE THESE SENTENCES TO FIND THE ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONS WHICH FOLLOW.

1. A hanson young man, one who had traveled around the world, was visiting my family and helping us in planning our trip.

2. Driven to the bus line by our mother, we caught a bus which was being driven to town.

3. The play was his idea, not mine.

4. Show Mary and me the pictures.

5. Climbing White Mountain, I learned that mountain climbing is not a sport for the people who are extremely weak.

6. Yes, learning to walk is learning to explore for a baby when he has known only his crib before.

(THE FIRST QUESTIONS ON THESE SENTENCES FOLLOW ON THE NEXT PAGE.)

PART V. Questions - Answer the following questions about the sentences you just read. If there is nothing given to answer a certain question, write "NONE" by the number of the question.

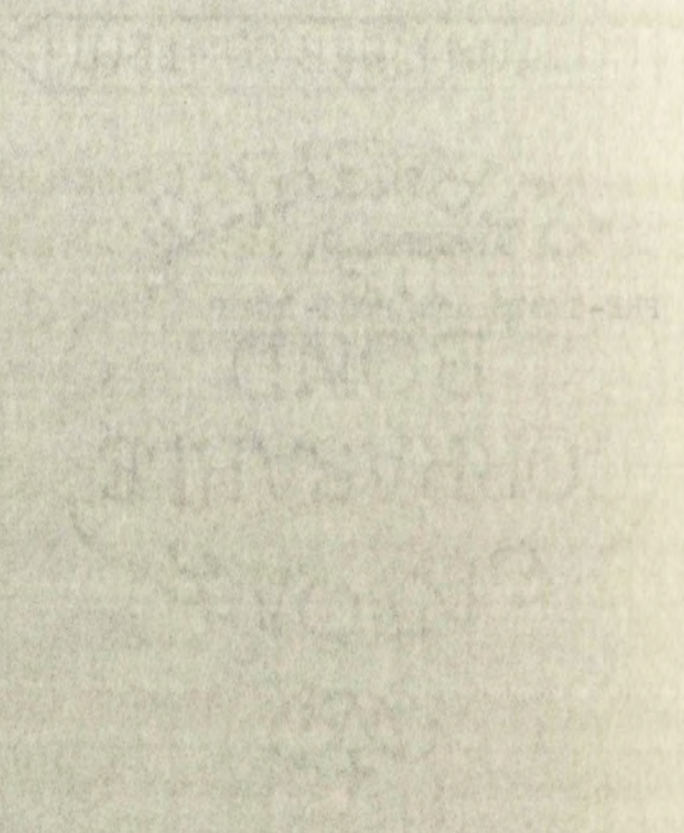
- A. List the subjects and verbs of sentences 2 and 6.
1. (2) _____ - _____
2. (6) _____ - _____
- B. Copy a complete appositive which contains an adjective clause.
3. _____
- C. What sentence contains a first person personal pronoun in the objective case used as a direct object?
4. Sent. No. _____
- D. Which sentence is an imperative sentence?
5. Sent. No. _____
- E. In which sentence does a word which is a participle come before an identical word which is a gerund?
6. Sent. No. _____
- F. Which sentence is interrogative?
7. Sent. No. _____
- G. Write the indirect object in Sent. 4.
8. _____
- H. List six adjectives from Sent. 1.
9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14.
- I. Is the adjective clause in Sent. 5 restrictive or non-restrictive?
15. _____
- J. How many adverbs are there in Sentences 3 and 4, counting them together?
16. _____
- K. What kind of phrase is "to town" in Sentence 2?
17. _____
- L. How is it used?
18. _____
- M. Which sentence contains a first person personal, plural pronoun in the nominative case?
19. Sentence No. _____
- N. Which sentence contains two identical gerunds?
20. Sent. No. _____
- O. Which sentences contain predicate nominatives?
21. Sent. No. _____
22. Sent. No. _____
23. Sent. No. _____

question, write the number of the question.
You must read the number given to answer a certain
question. The following questions about the sentences

- A. In the sentence, the verb of sentences 2 and 3
is (1) (2)
B. Copy a complete sentence which contains an adjective clause
C. Which sentence contains a first person personal pronoun in its subject
used as a subject?
D. Which sentence contains an imperative sentence?
E. In which sentence is a word which is a participial form before
an identical word which is a gerund?
F. Which sentence is interrogative?
G. Write the infinitive object in Sent. 4.
H. Like six adjectives from Sent. 1.
I. Is the adjective clause in Sent. 5 restrictive or non-restrictive?
J. How many adverbs are there in Sentences 3 and 4, counting their
together?
K. What kind of phrase is "no town" in Sentence 2?
L. How is it used?
M. Which sentence contains a first person personal, plural pronoun
in the nominative case?
N. Which sentence contains two identical gerunds?
O. Which sentence contains a main predicate nominative?
20. Sent. No. _____
21. Sent. No. _____
22. Sent. No. _____
23. Sent. No. _____

APPENDIX C

PRE-TESTS and POST-TESTS



A TEST OF RECOGNITION OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS, FORM A

DIRECTIONS: On your answer sheet, by the number corresponding to each group of words on the test, write 1 if the word group is a complete sentence; write 2 if the word group is two or more sentences incorrectly written as one; write 0 if the group is not a complete sentence. Please DO NOT make any marks on this sheet.

1. Today is an important day do not waste it.
2. A chance for honest wealth does not come often we must not waste the chance when it comes.
3. Don likes to read poems he has some ability in writing them.
4. The two puppies romped in the yard and had a great deal of fun.
5. The boy likes to paint he hopes to study art in college.
6. When you and John left, Mother and I washed the dishes.
7. Mary is kind to all of her friends everyone admires her kindness pays.
8. Sometimes we miss important directions by not listening carefully, careful attention is important.
9. Being sure of his ability, Edgar volunteered to do the job.
10. Answering questions about his important work.
11. The dogs ate my shoes did you see them?
12. Try to do your best on this examination.
13. Next summer when you are not in school.
14. Answer my letter as soon as you can.
15. There went Uncle Rastus and Aunt Minnie, little Cousin Rupert was not with them.
16. Looking toward the top of the mountain, we saw the television towers.
17. Because Dave is not present to answer all of the questions you might have.
18. We had finished painting the room when Mr. Brown arrived.
19. Saw a very good television show.
20. He does a better job of writing than I, I am careless.
21. Planning a trip to Juarez, Mexico.
22. Tommy surely wants to win the race, he practices every day.
23. While you do that, I will mow the lawn.
24. One day last spring after the snow had melted.
25. Going home late at night, the girls became very frightened.
26. When you have time to write the story.
27. After the boys in the back row had been sent to the office.
28. It was a very good party eighteen ninth-graders were there.
29. While Mother patiently sewed on my costume for the play.
30. A quiet little river, edged in trees, running at the base of tall, snow-capped mountains.
31. Trying also to please as well as delight his five girl friends, he sent them all corsages of roses.
32. Because Abraham Lincoln studied hard, worked diligently, and obtained an education for himself.
33. You are my best friend, you should tell me the truth.
34. Having a wonderful time, wish you.
35. Bring your toothbrush and pajamas and spend the week-end.
36. The doctor and the lawyer agreed on arrangements and started to prepare the student for the ordeal of meeting Krushchev.

DIRECTIONS:

On your answer sheet, by the number corresponding to each group of words on the test, write 1 if the word group is a complete sentence; write 2 if the word group is two or more sentences incorrectly written as one; write 3 if the word group is not a complete sentence. Please DO NOT make any marks on this sheet.

1. Today is an important day do not waste it.
2. A chance for honest wealth does not come often we must not waste the chance when it comes.
3. Don likes to read poems he has some ability in writing them.
4. The two puppies romped in the yard and had a great deal of fun.
5. The boy likes to paint he hopes to study art in college.
6. When you and John left, Mother and I washed the dishes.
7. Mary is kind to all of her friends everyone admires her kindness.
8. Sometimes we miss important directions by not listening carefully.
9. Several attention is important.
10. Being sure of his ability, Edgar volunteered to do the job.
11. Answering questions about his important work.
12. The dogs ate my shoes did you see them?
13. Try to do your best on this examination.
14. Next summer when you are not in school.
15. Answer my letter as soon as you can.
16. There went Uncle Rastus and Aunt Minnie, Little Cousin Robert was not with them.
17. Looking toward the top of the mountain, we saw the television tower.
18. Because Dave is not present to answer all of the questions you might have.
19. We had finished painting the room when Mr. Brown arrived.
20. Saw a very good television show.
21. He does a better job of writing than I, I am careless.
22. Planning a trip to Juarez, Mexico.
23. Today surely wants to win the race, he practices every day.
24. While you do that, I will mow the lawn.
25. One day last spring after the snow had melted.
26. Going home late at night, the girls became very frightened.
27. When you have time to write the story.
28. After the boys in the back row had been sent to the office.
29. It was a very good party eighteen ninth-graders were there.
30. While Mother patiently sewed on my costume for the play.
31. A quiet little river, edged in trees, running at the base of tall snow-capped mountains.
32. Trying also to please as well as delight his five girl friends, he sent them all coronets of roses.
33. Because Abraham Lincoln studied hard, worked diligently, and collected an education for himself.
34. You are my best friend, you should tell me the truth.
35. Having a wonderful time, wish you.
36. Bring your toothbrush and pajamas and spend the week-end.
37. The doctor and the lawyer agreed on arrangements and started to the student for the ordeal of meeting Khrushchev.

37. Harry is a wonderful dancer all the girls enjoy being asked by him to a dance.
38. A sad event in the story.
39. Eating ice cream is a favorite hobby of most people what flavor do you like best?
40. Going back to the ranch on horseback just as the moon began to rise.
41. Don Johnson in the afternoon leaving school.
42. He had been asked by his mother to go by the store for some potatoes for dinner.
43. He did not wish to go by the store, he had other plans for the afternoon.
44. Mamie Smith walking up the street in the opposite direction.
45. Try to think what seeing beautiful Mamie meant to Don.
46. Place yourself in Don's position.
47. His mother's request had been important to him he wished to please her.
48. Turning to walk toward Mamie and calling to her to wait.
49. Mamie turned to wait for Don she asked him where he was going.
50. Mamie and Don talked for just a moment, and he answered her question.
51. The lovely girl, always eager to help Don.
52. She suggested that she walk toward the store with him.
53. Feeling that Mamie was so lovely she might melt in the hot afternoon sun.
54. Don Johnson, hating to leave Mamie and go on his errand.
55. He looked at the lovely girl he wished that he did not have to leave her so soon.
56. Soon he must make a decision.
57. Don decided to walk home with Mamie before he went to the store.
58. Mamie looked at Don and thanked him she thought he was very brave.
59. Mamie and Don strolling home in the late afternoon.
60. Talking with each other of the events of the day.
61. Don soon forgot all about the trip to the store he no longer remembered that he had to get potatoes for dinner.
62. Don selfishly enjoying his walk with Mamie forgetting to remember the errand for his mother.
63. Mamie was not to blame she thought Don remembered his errand.
64. She felt that he was walking with her merely to get the exercise.
65. Is there any reason that Don's mother should have been angry with him?
66. Unless you can arrive by ten o'clock.
67. Hoping that the teacher would not know it, Paul let his mind wander.
68. Ugly brown mud houses looking as if they were dissolving in the sudden summer rain.
69. It was the event of a lifetime you should not have missed it.
70. When it was finally time to leave for the game.
71. After the test is over and the papers are turned in.
72. While the eighth grade students sample the cafeteria food.
73. Running through the fluffy, white snow in our bare feet.
74. Learning algebra must not be very difficult, have you studied it very much?
75. A perfect day for a picnic and everyone excited and happy.
76. The librarian is not here now she is in charge of those booklets.
77. Mr. Kennedy, Mrs. Kennedy, Caroline, and little John live in the White House and receive many guests daily.
78. Ask the teacher no silly questions when she is not in a good mood.
79. Hoping to hear from you soon.

80. The older boy has a great amount of common sense, while the younger boy in the family.
81. Take time to answer all of the questions on the test.
82. Before you hand in your paper to the teacher who will grade it.
83. The kinds of sports played at school are numerous.
84. When a boy goes out for a certain sport, he knows he will have to work hard.
85. Or trying hard to make the team.
86. The sincere boy, attending all practices, listening to his coach's instructions, not breaking training.
87. On the other hand, the insincere boy merely drops by practice one day out of three, pays no attention to the coach, and does not follow training rules.
88. Trying again and again to impress everyone with his natural ability.
89. The insincere boy soon finds that he is not wanted on the team.
90. The few days of fooling himself and no one else, he is asked not to drop by the practice field again.
91. He may be very angry with the coach.
92. But, inside his own mind, aware of why he is not wanted.
93. Taking this test is part of the work of the course in English.
94. Enjoyed by all students and looked forward to each year.
95. If, indeed, they know it is coming.
96. The teacher enjoys seeing her students relaxed, happy, and enjoying their work.
97. Not much use in fighting it.
98. Yet we say that it is as important as any work which is undertaken by the student during the day.
99. Because it takes much time and effort to grade the papers which the students in the English class turn in to their teacher during a given week.
00. To achieve success for all of her students, the teacher in the average school.

average school. To achieve success for all of her students, the teacher in the given week. students in the English class turn in to their teacher during a because it takes much time and effort to grade the papers which the by the student during the day. Let us say that it is as important as any work which is undertaken. Not much use in fighting it. their work. The teacher enjoys seeing her students relaxed, happy, and enjoying it. Indeed, they know it is coming. Enjoyed by all students and looked forward to each year. Making this test is part of the work of the course in English. But inside his own mind, aware of why he is not wanted. He may be very angry with the coach. drop by the practice field again. The few days of looking himself and no one else, he is asked not to. The instructor boy soon finds that he is not wanted on the team. Trying again and again to impress everyone with his natural ability. Training rules. day out of three, pays no attention to the coach, and does not follow. On the other hand, the instructor boy rarely drops by practice and instructions, not breaking training. The sincere boy, attending all practices, listening to his coach. Or trying hard to make the team. You know.

A TEST OF RECOGNITION OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE, NRQ-3, FORM B

DIRECTIONS: On your answer sheet, by the number corresponding to each group of words on the test, write 1 if the word group is a complete sentence; write 2 if the word group is two or more sentences incorrectly written as one; write 0 if the group is not a complete sentence. Please DO NOT make any marks on this sheet.

1. John and Mary talked for just a few minutes, and he asked her the question.
2. The kind mother, forever happy to help her children.
3. The boy suggested that I run through the forest with her.
4. Knowing that the boy was so frightened that he might faint at any time.
5. Mr. Smith, wanting to find John before he left on his trip.
6. She looked at the beautiful sky she wished that she did not have to go inside the house.
7. Soon we must make our choice.
8. Randy hoped to find his book before he had to pay a fine.
9. The child looked at Mrs. Jones and thanked her he thought that the gift was for him.
10. Dawn and Bob walking home in the late evening.
11. Asking each other about the events of the movie.
12. Ellen quickly remembered all about the film on Greece she thought that it was a very good show to see.
13. Steve happily reading the book on horses forgetting to do his homework for algebra.
14. Laura was not to blame she thought Mrs. Brown remembered the score.
15. I believed that she was asking me questions merely to pass the time.
16. Is there any reason that you have not been to visit me?
17. Until you can return on time.
18. Believing that his choice was best, Bob defended his decision.
19. Pretty yellow sun flowers glowing as if they were reflecting the rays of the sun.
20. It was the life of the party you should not have avoided it.
21. Where it was possible to place the books.
22. Before the luncheon is over and the crowd has scattered.
23. While the fourth grade students visit the new school.
24. Swimming through the cool, brisk water in our new suits.
25. Making a pie must not be very difficult, have you tried it?
26. An exciting evening for a party and everyone thrilled and happy.
27. The teacher is not here now, she is in charge of those pictures.
28. Mr. Brown, Mr. Long, Jean White, and Mamie Smith ride in the car and share the expenses.
29. Ask the doctor no important questions when he is in a hurry.
30. Wishing you were here.
31. The older child has a great number of toys, while the younger child of the group.
32. Take time to find all of the magazines in the room.
33. Before you jump over the wall which is built there.
34. The kinds of games played at the party were numerous.
35. When a girl takes home economics, she knows she will learn to sew.
36. And hoping greatly to join the club.
37. The insincere girl, writing many notes, talking to her neighbors, and not trying to learn.
38. On the other hand, the happy coach simply teaches from his experience, tries hard to help his boys, and does not try to do too many other things.
39. Trying over and over to impress her with his great charm.
40. The gossip woman soon finds that she is not wanted as a friend.

1. John and Mary talked for just a few minutes, and then they
2. The kind mother, however, happy to help her child
3. The boy suggested that I run through the forest with him
4. knowing that the boy was so frightened, at the moment
5. time.
6. Mr. Smith, wanting to find John before he left on his trip
7. She looked at the beautiful sky she wished that she did not
8. to go inside the house.
9. Soon we must make our choice.
10. Randy hoped to find his book before he had to pay a visit
11. The child looked at Mr. Jones and thanked her for her
12. gift was for him.
13. Law and Bob walking home in the late evening
14. Asking each other about the events of the night.
15. Eliza dutifully remembered all about the film on Greek
16. that it was a very good show to see
17. Steve happily reading the book on horses forgetting to
18. homework for algebra.
19. Laura was not so kind she thought Mrs. Brown thoughtful
20. I believed that she was asking me something very important
21. Is there any reason that you have not been to visit me?
22. Until you can return on time.
23. Believing that his choice was best, Bob attended the school
24. Pretty yellow sunflowers glowing as if they were reflecting
25. rays of the sun.
26. It was the life of the party you should not have avoided
27. Where it was possible to place the books.
28. Before the luncheon is over and the crowd has dispersed
29. While the fourth grade students visit the new school.
30. Swimming through the cool, fresh water in our new salt
31. Making a pile must not be very difficult, have you tried it?
32. An exciting evening for a party and everyone enjoyed it
33. The teacher is not sure now, she is in charge of these
34. Mr. Brown, Mr. Long, John White, and Maria Smith ride in the
35. and share the expenses.
36. Ask the doctor no important questions when he is in a
37. Wishing you were here.
38. The older child has a great number of toys, while the younger
39. of the group.
40. Take time to find all of the magazines in the room.
41. Before you jump over the wall which is built there.
42. The kinds of games played at the party were numerous.
43. When a girl takes home something, she knows she will learn to
44. And hoping greatly to win the prize.
45. The insincere girl, with many notes, seeking to get her
46. and not trying to learn.
47. On the other hand, the happy coach simply teaches from his
48. fence, try hard to help his boys, and does not try to do
49. other things.
50. Trying over and over to impress her with his great story.
51. The restless woman from Eliza's class she is not wanted as a

41. The many days of depending on himself and no one else, he is determined not to ask for help again.
42. She may be very happy with the outcome.
43. But, inside this room, afraid of what it might do.
44. Enjoying this poem is part of the design of the lesson.
45. Loved by all children and looked for each year.
46. If, however, we know he is going.
47. The dog enjoys seeing her puppies contented, peaceful, and enjoying their bones.
48. Not much hope in reading it.
49. Still we believe that it is as necessary as any examination which is taken by the soldiers during their training.
50. Because it requires much money and time to establish the business which the people in ~~xxx~~ town will support during the year.
51. To gain success in all his activities, the boy in the average family.
52. Tomorrow is the last day do not miss it.
53. A chance for real fame does not come frequently we must not miss the opportunity when it comes.
54. Mary likes to bake cakes she has some ability in frosting them.
55. The two children romped in the playpen and had a little bit of fun.
56. The girl likes to sew she hopes to make a dress in class.
57. After you and Pete came, Jennifer and I made a pie.
58. John is mean to all of his pets everyone despises him cruelty does not pay.
59. Sometimes we win important prizes by following directions carefully, great skill is unnecessary.
60. Being sure of the answer, Jim decided not to ask the question.
61. Wanting information about his lost turtle.
62. The baby tore my paper did you see her?
63. Try to send him a sample of the rock.
64. Next fall when you are in school.
65. Finish your paper as soon as you can.
66. There go Mary and Wayne, little Patty Lou is with them.
67. Looking under the house, we found the lost ball.
68. Because David is here to distribute all of the prizes you have won.
69. They had begun writing the answers when the teacher left.
70. Ate a very good apple.
71. He does a better job of flying than I, I am afraid of the plane.
72. Wanting a drink of water.
73. The baby really wants to pet the cat, she chases him all day.
74. While you do the dishes, I will make the bed.
75. One day last winter after the frost had begun.
76. Coming home in the car, the boys became very careless.
77. If you have time to write the letter.
78. When the boys in the first class had been relieved of their duties.
79. It was a fairly good dance four adults were there.
80. While Jane impatiently wrote on the board for the test.
81. A pretty little girl, dressed in lace, sitting at the edge of the big, empty stage.
82. Trying also to surprise as well as frighten his five enemies, he sent them all messages in code.
83. Because Christopher Columbus searched far, worked faithfully, and found a new world for us.
84. You are my favorite person, you should go with me.
85. Fighting a big battle, hope you.
86. Bring the newspaper and magazines and burn them.
87. The student and the teacher agreed on a plan and started to prepare themselves for the task of entertaining the guests.

88. Father is a good hunter all the men like being asked by him to go hunting.
89. A happy day in the year.
90. Reading a book is a favorite pasttime for most people what book do you like best?
91. Coming back to camp in the Jeep just as the sun started to rise.
92. Jane Adams in the morning approaching school.
93. She had been requested by her teacher to come by the room for some make-up tests on grammar.
94. She wished to go by the gym, she had other packages to deliver.
95. Ed Campbell running down the street in his track clothes.
96. Try to imagine what seeing fleeing Ed did to us!
97. Put yourself in my place.
98. The boy's speech had been interesting to her she wished to hear it again.
99. Turning to run to its mother and crying for her to wait.
100. Miss Daggers wanted to ask about the puppy she wanted him while he was very young.

100. Mrs. Rogers wanted to ask about the puppy she wanted him while
 he was very young.
 99. Turning to him to his mother and crying for her to wait.
 98. The boy's speech had been interesting to her she wished to hear
 it again.
 97. Put yourself in my place.
 96. Try to imagine what seeing life like he did to me!
 95. Ed Campbell running down the street in his track clothes.
 94. She wished to go by the gym, she had other packages to deliver.
 93. make-up tests on grammar.
 92. She had been requested by her teacher to come by the room for some
 time Adams in the morning approaching school.
 91. Going back to camp in the jeep just as the sun started to rise.
 90. Do you like beef?
 89. Reading a book is a favorite pastime for most people what book
 A happy day in the year.
 88. no hunting.
 87. Father is a good hunter all the men like being asked by him to

QUANTIFICATION OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS
IN COMPOSITION TEST

Directions read to the groups were:

Your teacher would like to have the best possible sample of your ability in composition, so you are asked to follow these directions exactly:

1. Look very carefully at the picture entitled * and listen to the commentary read to you. Ask any questions which you might have.
2. Before you start to write, do these things:
 - a. Think of all the questions you would like to ask someone in order to understand exactly what is happening in the picture.
 - b. Think of all the background facts which you consider as causes of the scene you see.
 - c. Think of all the possible consequences, or what could have happened, in regard to this scene.
3. When you have thought about the above things, write a 300-400 word composition in which you express your thoughts concerning the picture. You may develop your theme along any lines you wish, writing about whatever particulars you may choose. BE SURE TO WRITE YOUR INTERPRETATION OF THE PICTURE IN COMPLETE SENTENCES.
4. You will not have time to recopy your theme, so write carefully, observing all the matters pertaining to sentence structure, usage, spelling, punctuation, and neatness which you have learned. You may entitle your picture-story anything you wish.

*Pre-test - "The Blazing Hills"

Post-test - "One Street Is Missing"

QUANTIFICATION OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS IN COMPOSITION TEST

Directions read to the groups were:

Your teacher would like to have the best possible sample of your ability in composition, so you are asked to follow these directions exactly:

1. Look very carefully at the picture entitled "The Blazing Hills" and listen to the commentary read to you. Ask any questions which you might have.
2. Before you start to write, do these things:
a. Think of all the questions you would like to ask someone in order to understand exactly what is happening in the picture.
b. Think of all the background facts which you consider as causes of the scene you see.
c. Think of all the possible consequences, or what could have happened, in regard to this scene.
3. When you have thought about the above things, write a 300-400 word composition in which you express your thoughts concerning the picture. You may develop your theme along any lines you wish, writing about whatever particulars you may choose. BE SURE TO WRITE YOUR INTRODUCTION OF THE PICTURE IN COMPLETE SENTENCES.
4. You will not have time to re-copy your theme, so write carefully, observing all the matters pertaining to sentence structure, usage, spelling, punctuation, and neatness which you have learned. You may entitle your picture-story anything you wish.

Pre-test - "The Blazing Hills"
Post-test - "One Street Is Missing"



...roducing a bathing suit (left). Her answer
critics: "What do people think a senator's
fe wears when she goes swimming?"

In her crusade to legalize sale of colored margarine, she dem-
onstrated the tedious mixing job for the Oregon legislature.



for the Pacific Northwest. Maurine, though never on the Government payroll, was Dick Neuberger's right arm. She sat in on Senate committees of which he was not a member, so that she could brief him on pending bills. She spent hours in the Library of Congress, digging out information on legislative matters. She collaborated with the senator on a fifteen-minute weekly radio program for Oregon stations and coauthored the monthly newsletter to voters back home—her picture appeared beside his on the masthead.

The Neubergeres always functioned as a team. Dick was the political firebrand, Maurine the stabilizing influence. His genius for organizing a campaign or thinking up publicity schemes and his willingness to accept compromise was tempered by her insistence upon absolute honesty, candor and forthrightness. "Campaigning with Maurine is like wearing a hair shirt," Dick once commented.

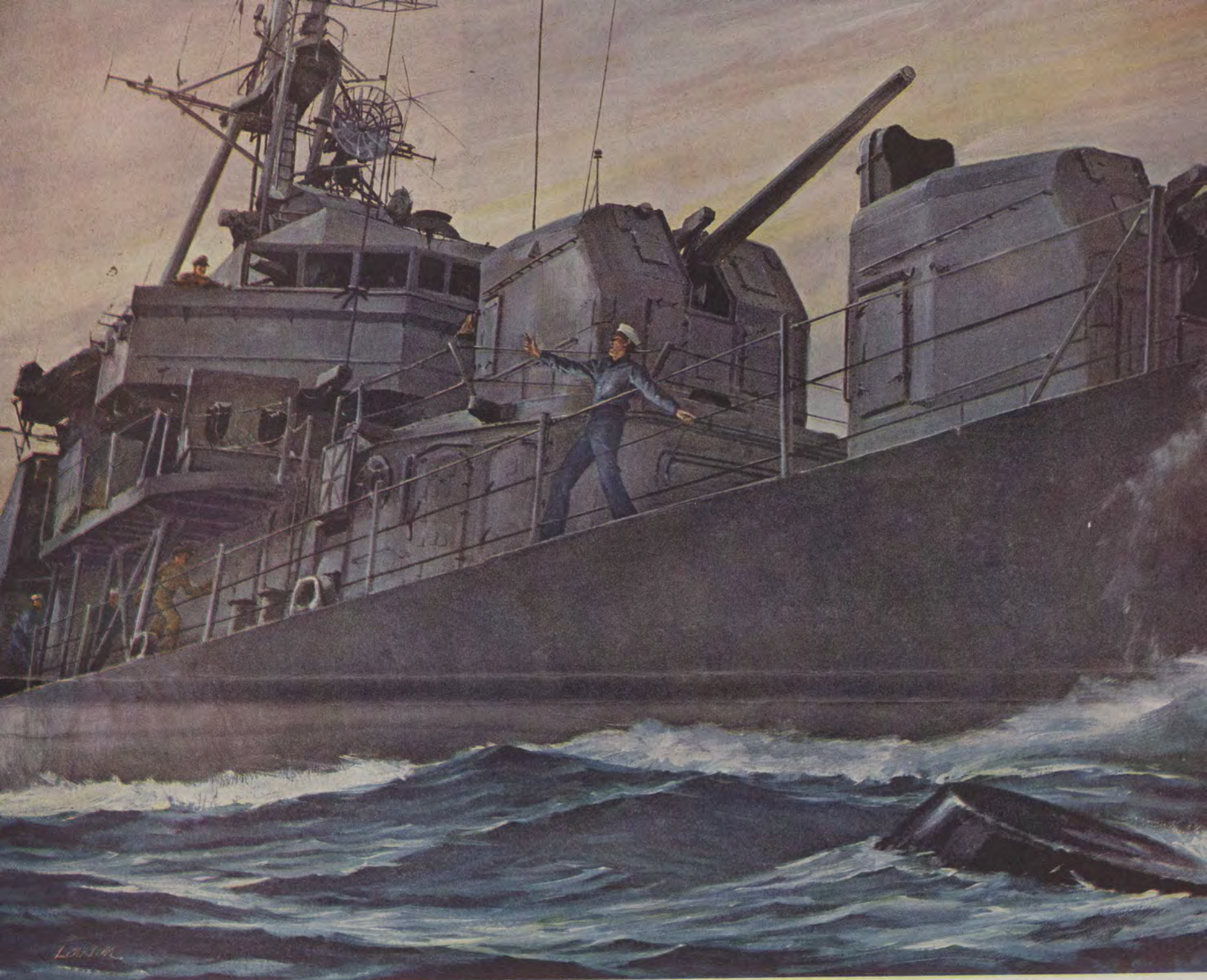
At home in their Washington apartment, Maurine enjoyed doing her own housework and cooking. They rarely attended capital social functions, preferring the peace and quiet of their apartment, where they could catch up on reading and talk out current issues. Occasionally they would have a few friends in for an informal dinner party. For relaxation, they went hiking in the country or took in a baseball game. Childless themselves, they spent a great deal of time with Dick's three nieces—Ann, Katy and Molly Goodsell, ages sixteen, twelve and five, who live in Portland. Maurine and Dick persuaded Dick's sister, Jane, and her husband, Jim Goodsell, to let the two older girls, Ann and Katy, live with them in Washington part of the time.

Shortly after the opening of Congress last year, the Neubergeres returned to Portland. Dick had been ailing and decided he should have a complete physical checkup from his own doctor before deciding whether to run for re-election. Two years earlier he had undergone surgery for cancer, and the operation apparently had been successful. On the basis of his new physical checkup, Dick decided to run for another term and early in March filed for the primary.

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The 53-year-old widow with her pet cat Muffet, which hates photographers. Maurine loves to mow the lawn in bare feet.



"Floating mine!" Thomson screamed to the bridge. "Close aboard! Starboard bow!"

DANGER ADRIFT

By JACLAND MARMUR

The *Beeler's* mission was to find the unidentified object—and now she had.

The chief had the duty the night it all began. He was only waiting for the liberty boat to take him aboard his ship. Sitting on one of those benches on Fleet Landing at the foot of San Diego's Broadway, he had an air of stolid calm.

The westing light already washed the channel water; a flight of jets, still caught in upper brilliance, howled toward North Island from the sea. When their screaming died away, the burble of the tidal flow returned, the murmur of enlisted people chattering about the liberty they'd made uptown.

These were familiar sounds, unnoticed by the bosun's mate who sat there, big hands on his knees, staring out toward Tin Can Row where the fleet destroyers lay in evening sunshine at their mooring buoys. Then he heard the voices from a bench not far away. He wasn't really listening, but their tone was different and his mind alerted. When he heard the clear contralto, sounding bell-like in that place, his large head slowly turned.

"Oh, Johnny," it was saying, low and touched with tenderness, "why do you always worry me so?"

The chief's eyes glittered, blue and coldly cynical. He'd seen so many scenes like this on many Navy landings. Always some woman, fouling up some man! This one, though, was a pretty fancy package. As she sat there with her head tipped back, he was acutely aware of the line of her throat and the outward curve of her breast flowing down to her hips. And her hair was red. Not flaming. Russet, maybe. When sunlight caught it, he was sure it would glisten with points of gold. No young chick either, she was touched by an aura of quiet maturity.

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The
Face
of
AMERICA

The Blazing Hills

One day last fall in the hills of East Oakland, California, the conditions were exactly suited to nurse a spark into an inferno. Winds were at gale force, the temperature was in the mid-80's, the timberland was parched by lack of rain, humidity was near zero. The spark came at approximately 11:25 A.M.; and ninety minutes later fire chiefs on the scene recognized that this conflagration was dangerously similar to one which had destroyed more than 600 buildings in nearby Berkeley in 1923. An "8-8" signal was sent out, calling all off-duty firemen on the double. When our photograph was taken, at 2:30 P.M., more than 200 firemen were trying desperately to contain the flames. Oakland police used loud-speakers to urge residents to evacuate the area—but most stayed on, forming bucket brigades and wetting down roofs with garden hoses. Their heroic efforts paid off. Twelve hundred acres were charred or destroyed before the wildfire was brought under control at three P.M., but only two houses were totally destroyed. Cause of fire: Undetermined.

● Photograph by Don W. Jones.

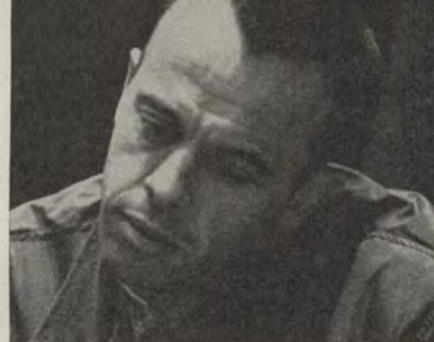


By Robert Cahn



Lt. Col. John Glenn USMC. Many observers believe he will be the first of the three astronaut "finalists" to rocket into space.

Can the ASTRONAUT Come Back Alive?



Cmdr. Alan Shepard, the Navy's candidate among the first-in-space trio: "We have a better chance of coming back from space missions than we had in routine test-flight duties."

Sometime soon Project Mercury will send a man into space. Here is an assessment of the perils he will face—and the precautions being taken to bring him safely back to earth.



Capt. Virgil Grissom USAF (adjusting a gyro instrument trainer): "It's just another means of transportation—but a little faster, a little higher, a little farther."



Project Mercury's masterminds: Operations chief Walter Williams, over-all boss Robert Gilruth and development head Charles Donlan. "We don't absolutely guarantee the safety of the man," warns Gilruth.

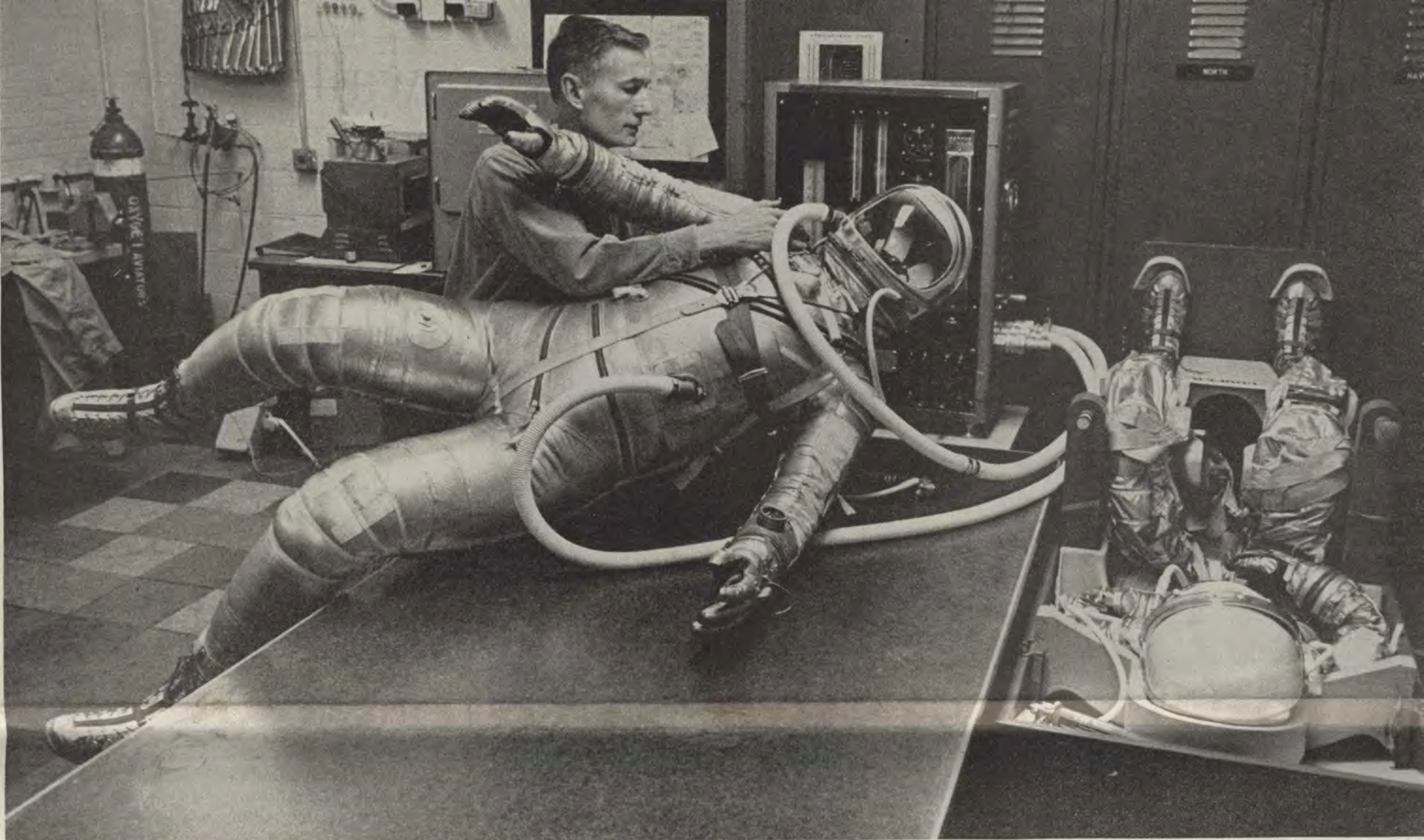
A comedy skit on a TV variety show not long ago featured a wide-eyed little man in a space suit, who identified himself as the "chief astronaut with the United States Interplanetary Expeditionary Forces."

"Are you convinced they will get you back to earth?" he was asked.

"I am convinced . . . they will get me back . . . to earth," haltingly replied the wistful-looking spaceman (José Jiménez, alias comic Bill Dana). "But just how far into it? That's what I'm not convinced about."

To most viewers the skit was hilarious. The seven United States astronauts themselves now delight in spicing their conversation with lines from the José Jiménez spaceman routine. But the deeper implications of the question, "Are you convinced they will get you back to earth?" are not so funny. Very soon now, one of the astronauts will be strapped into a space capsule atop a fully fueled, sixty-foot-high Redstone rocket and will blast off from Cape Canaveral on Project Mercury's first historic flight of man into space. Although this time he will not go into orbit, he will spend five minutes arching weightless through space before being parachuted to a landing 290 miles out in the Atlantic Ocean.

In the quiet of their homes, long after their wives and children have fallen asleep, the astronauts ponder the unknowns. Engineers working on Project Mercury give sober thought to the question. Even the President of the



Langley Field, Va.: Space tailor Joe Schmitt test-inflates a pressure suit. This is one step in the thorough check that precedes even a simulated astronaut flight.

United States has spoken of his concern about the risk.

"We are going to be extremely careful," says President Kennedy, "and even if we should come in second in putting a man in space, I will be satisfied if his chances of survival are as high as I think they should be."

And perhaps most concerned of all is Project Mercury's director, Robert R. Gilruth, who has the responsibility for making the final crucial judgment, "We are ready."

At Langley Field, Virginia, headquarters of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's Space Task Group for Project Mercury, I asked Bob Gilruth how he now assessed the risks facing the astronauts.

Before answering, Gilruth hesitated a long moment, weighing his words. A quiet, self-effacing, forty-seven-year-old aeronautical engineer, he seemed miscast as boss of America's glamorous \$500,000,000 Mercury program. His bullet-bald head is fringed with gray, and the heavy black brows dominate a face that reveals both determination and gentleness. Painfully deliberate in making decisions, he causes many of his colleagues to squirm with impatience.

"We have reduced the risks as much as possible, but we cannot eliminate all risk," Gilruth answered at last. "So we don't absolutely guarantee the safety of the man. We do guarantee, though, that we will have done everything humanly possible to make each mission safe."

If Bob Gilruth's answer is somewhat less emphatic and reassuring than some politicians would desire, it is at least candid and honest. Gilruth is first of all an engineer, and he has worked with rockets long enough to know that even the most reliable ones are far from 100 per cent predictable. He is also intimately acquainted with a facetious but sometimes woefully accurate dictum known in engineering circles as Murphy's Law: Anything that can go wrong will go wrong.

Not many people realize how much already has gone wrong in Mercury tests. Even the much-publicized flight which brought momentary fame to Ham the chimpanzee last January, was haunted by Murphy's Law. Before the Redstone engine ignited, the test was delayed almost two hours because a tiny spring broke on a small inspection door of the rocket. And while this was being repaired, a sub-zero gas was released into the sealed space capsule to cool electrical parts which were overheating. Poor Ham almost froze.

Then in the blast and vibration of launching, a valve on the side of the capsule was jiggled loose. This prevented the cabin from becoming pressurized, sending the spaceship through its flight as airless as the space around it.

Fortunately the life-support system in Ham's coffin-shaped cocoon, the equivalent of an astronaut's pressure suit, remained normal, enabling him to survive.

Murphy's Law was not yet satisfied, however. It had been planned that the Redstone would carry Ham at 4000 miles an hour to an altitude of 115 miles and then drop him gently by parachute 290 miles away in the Atlantic, where he would lie in the comfort and security of his watertight space capsule until picked up. But the normally reliable Redstone rocket burned its fuel a mite too fast and set off a sequence of abnormal events. Instead of the programmed flight—the same as planned for the first manned mission—Ham soared through space at 5800 miles

(Continued on Page 93)



Space pioneer Ham was rewarded with an apple after his 5800-MPH ride last January. The celebrated chimp's successful trip opened the door to manned flight.

Every year 600,000 children swallow something poisonous, and 500 of them die. An expert reveals that many of these toxic agents are contained in new household chemicals.

Beware The Killers in the Home

By BEN PEARSE

The radiogram from the commander of the Naval Air Station at Port Lyautey, Morocco, arrived on a Sunday morning, marked "Urgent."

RUSH INFORMATION EFFECT SNAIL PELLETS
FOUR PER CENT METALDEHYDE ON CHILDREN
AND PETS—ALSO TREATMENT

Similar appeals often come to the National Institutes of Health at Bethesda, Maryland. The inquiry may be merely precautionary, as this one was, or it may be desperate. It may concern deadly combinations of arsenic and cyanide or mild poisons designed to kill such garden pests as snails and slugs. In any event, the pleas for advice are rushed to the institutes' venerable expert, Wolfgang Felix von Oettingen, M.D., Ph.D., who is one of the nation's leading toxicologists. With forty years' experience in this hazardous specialty, the quiet, bespectacled doctor has probably given more advice than anyone else on how to avoid poisoning or, failing that, how to recover.

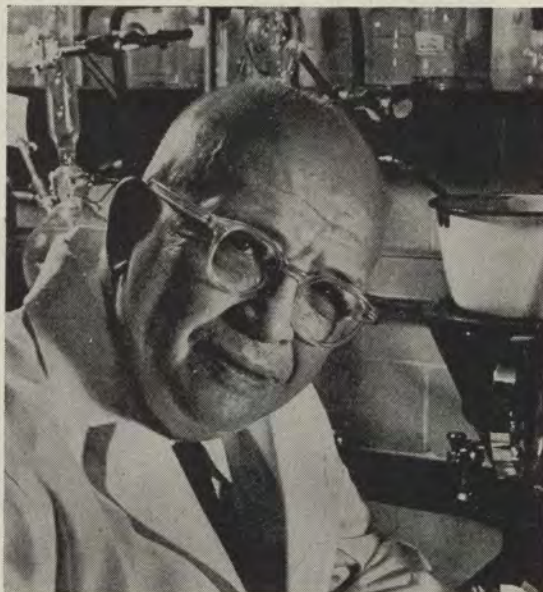
The urgent message from Morocco was relayed from the National Institutes of Health to the home of Doctor Von, as he is known to most of his colleagues. He checked his files and dictated a reply, advising that one gram of metaldehyde might prove fatal to a child or small pet. After describing the symptoms, he explained that no antidote was known, but that washing out the victim's stomach promptly should be effective. The radiogram dispatched, he resumed pruning his roses. If anything can divert Doctor Von from his toxicological contemplations, it's gardening.

Doctor von Oettingen can't guess how many poisons exist, but he estimates that there are at least half a dozen kinds in every American home. His own authoritative book on the subject lists 575 basic varieties, from *Abrus precatorious linnaeus*, the seed of a South American

bush, used to poison arrowheads, to *Zygadenus venenosus*, a lilylike wild flower.

But new compounds have been pouring out of chemical laboratories at a fantastic rate ever since 1927, when the Federal Caustic Poisons Act listed just twelve corrosive substances. Today the National Clearing House for Poison Control Centers, in Washington, D.C., has in its files the brand names of several thousand household products containing one or more toxic ingredients. There are so many new ways of accidentally poisoning yourself at home that Congress last year replaced the old Caustic Poisons law with a new Federal Hazardous Substances Labeling Act.

Without attempting to list the countless household products to be covered, Congress



Dr. Wolfgang Felix von Oettingen, celebrated expert on poisons. In his experiments to test the toxicity of new products, he has sometimes used himself as a guinea pig.

set up standards for toxic, corrosive, irritating, sensitizing and flammable substances and prescribed precautionary labeling for each. The Food and Drug Administration is charged with insuring that products are safe when used according to manufacturers' directions. Doctor von Oettingen, besides being a toxicologist at National Institutes of Health, is also an expert witness and adviser to the pharmacology division of FDA.

"Most of the new detergents, bleaches, paints and other household aids," Doctor von Oettingen says, "are quite safe for their intended use. The new law requires manufacturers to warn not only against ordinary hazards but also against possible misuse, such as accidental swallowing by children. The United States Public Health Service estimates that 600,000 children swallow household chemicals every year, and of these about 500 die.

"A lesser number of adults are injured or killed by products that don't bear adequate warning on their labels. Some unscrupulous firms have sought a competitive advantage for their products by limiting warnings to a word or two in small type. But conscientious manufacturers have tried to furnish ample warnings, and most of them strongly favored this law."

The new law also covers for the first time products sold in pressurized—aerosol—containers. A preparation quite safe for application to the skin in the form of a cream might be toxic in the form of a spray that might be inhaled.

"This doesn't mean aerosol containers generally are potentially harmful," Doctor von Oettingen explained. "Freon gas, the most commonly used propellant, is nontoxic in itself and has been used safely for years in refrigerators, air-conditioners, hair sprays and insecticides. But

(Continued on Page 96)

The manager of the Baltimore Orioles tells of his successful struggle to build a pennant contender out of a cellar dweller.

This year, he insists,

The Orioles Will Win the Pennant

By PAUL RICHARDS

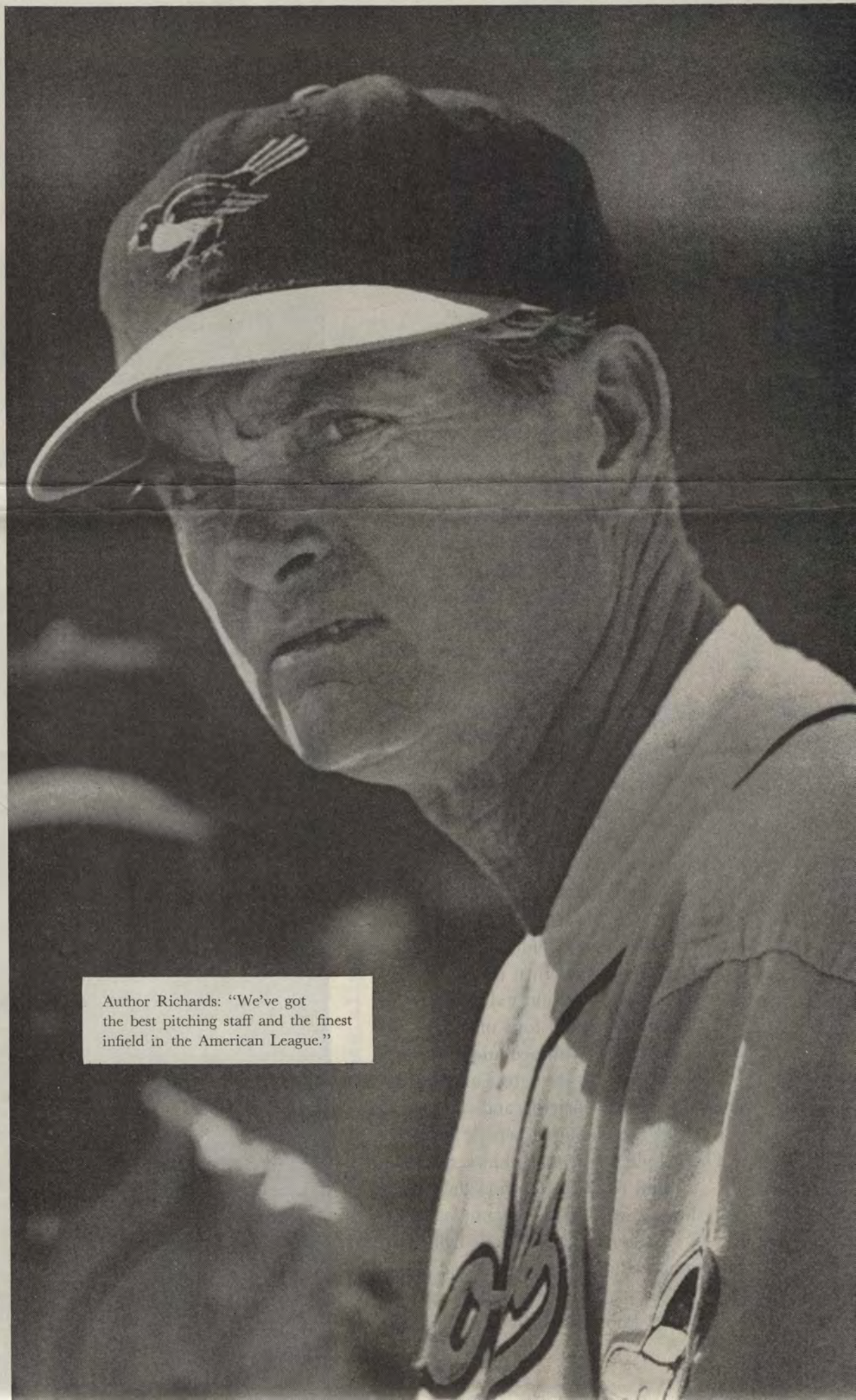
as told to Arthur and Milton Richman

This will be the first time in five years I've started a season without secretly hoping to be fired. I knew I wasn't stepping into any bed of roses late in 1954 when I left my job as manager of the first-division Chicago White Sox to become both general manager and field manager of the seventh-place Orioles. But I hadn't expected such complete chaos. Baltimore had no players to speak of, no set plan for the future and only a handful of scouts. The farm system was something of a joke.

To make matters worse, I ran into a major setback only a few weeks after going to work for the Orioles. We had made a careful study of all the minor-league players who would be available in the annual winter draft and had settled on one man we thought could help us. He was a relatively unknown young outfielder, and we felt we had an excellent chance to grab him.

But the Pittsburgh Pirates—who had finished eighth in the National League that year, were entitled to make a choice ahead of us. I kept my fingers crossed when the Pirate spokesman got up to announce his pick. My heart sank when

(Continued on Page 124)



Author Richards: "We've got the best pitching staff and the finest infield in the American League."



Three starters whom Baltimore will rely on heavily this year: Power-hitting infielders Brooks Robinson (left) and Jim Gentile and southpaw pitcher Steve Barber.

The
Face
of
AMERICA

One Street Is Missing

Until 4:15 P.M. on Tuesday, November 29, 1960, San Francisco's 34th Avenue was a well-groomed residential street. Then the inhabitants of the 2700 block heard a tremendous roar—"like a clap of thunder," one man said—and looked out to see a six-foot-high geyser spouting through the pavement. A swirling flood of water poured out, loosening the sandy earth under the street. Sidewalks quavered, then broke; driveways were uplifted; front lawns were sheared off. Within minutes the street had collapsed, forming a fifty-foot-wide, 200-foot-long chasm (shown at right). The watery tumult started with a break (the hole in the pipe at right) in a sixteen-inch water main. In the hour that passed before the city water department could turn off the torrent, more than a million gallons of water and hundreds of tons of soil poured downhill. The city immediately promised to pick up the tabs (an estimated \$30,000) for repairing and cleaning up the damaged private property. The people of the 2700 block tended to find what consolation they could. Wesley E. Scott Jr., for example, looked at what had been his front lawn and remarked, "It'll make my kid happy. Now he won't have to cut the grass."

• Photograph by Don W. Jones



APPENDIX D

COMMENTS MADE BY STUDENTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS AT THE CONCLUSION OF THE EXPERIMENT

On the day after the final test concluding the experiment, the investigator asked the members of each groups to comment orally and candidly on the "review" of grammar which they had just completed. These remarks were recorded in shorthand and later transcribed.

Comments by Members of Group A

"This way seemed more interesting, but maybe that was because it was new."

"This kind of grammar was easier to remember and understand."

"I can tell what a sentence is now."

"This way is more interesting than the old way of studying grammar, especially after you've had English over and over."

"I didn't learn much because I already knew the other way of grammar."

"I think the old system of grammar was harder for me than this system was."

"Knowing about sentence patterns made it easy for me to decide whether a word is a noun, adjective, or whatever it is."

"I liked the nonsense sentences. They were funny and

NOTES

Chapter 1

The first part of the book discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It begins with a brief overview of the early years of the nation, from the time of the first settlers to the end of the Civil War. The author then discusses the various factors that have shaped the development of the country, including the role of the government, the influence of the economy, and the impact of social and cultural changes. The book concludes with a discussion of the future of the United States and the challenges that it faces in the twenty-first century.

The second part of the book is a detailed study of the American Revolution. It begins with a discussion of the causes of the revolution, including the growing tensions between the colonies and Great Britain. The author then describes the events of the revolution, from the first battles to the signing of the Declaration of Independence. The book concludes with a discussion of the impact of the revolution on the United States and the world.

The third part of the book is a study of the American Civil War. It begins with a discussion of the causes of the war, including the issue of slavery. The author then describes the events of the war, from the first battles to the end of the war. The book concludes with a discussion of the impact of the war on the United States and the world.

The fourth part of the book is a study of the American West. It begins with a discussion of the early years of the West, from the time of the first settlers to the end of the Civil War. The author then discusses the various factors that have shaped the development of the West, including the role of the government, the influence of the economy, and the impact of social and cultural changes. The book concludes with a discussion of the future of the West and the challenges that it faces in the twenty-first century.

I liked the author's approach to the study of the history of the United States. It was a well-written and informative book that provided a comprehensive overview of the country's history. I would recommend this book to anyone interested in the history of the United States.

added humor to a dry subject, so it was a challenge."

"This review made sense to me."

"I learned more grammar under the old system because it was harder."

"Although I missed five classes, I made up my work, by myself without much trouble, from the review sheets."

"I learned more under this way than the old because the oral practice in class helped."

"I think we needed more time and not to go so fast."

Comments by Members of Group B

"This review was dull and not interesting."

"It helped me to clear up some things I never did understand."

"Grammar just doesn't soak in for me."

"I think I learned more from our review than _____ did in the other class."

"The California Test we had yesterday (the post-test) seemed a lot too easy."

"I'm still confused on phrases and clauses."

"We did a lot more work than the ones in the other classes."

"We needed to go slower."

"I had the other kind of grammar at _____ School last year, and I think it is a lot easier than this kind."

APPENDIX E
STATISTICAL CALCULATIONS

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TABLE XIV

t-VALUES WITHIN AND BETWEEN GROUPS A, B, C FOR RESULTS
ON THE SENTENCE STRUCTURE ERRORS TEST

GROUP AND TEST	MEAN	SD	DIFF	SE _D	t
A Post	87	6			
A Pre	84	14.9	3	1.70	1.76
B Post	92	6.6			
B Pre	83	10.8	4	2.23	1.79
C Post	80	15.1			
C Pre	78	15.5	2	4.03	.49
A Pre	84	14.9			
B Pre	83	10.8	4	2.30	1.43
A Pre	84	14.9			
C Pre	78	15.5	6	3.50	1.71
B Pre	83	10.8			
C Pre	78	15.5	10	3.50	2.86*
A Post	87	6			
B Post	92	6.6	5	1.42	3.52*
A Post	87	6			
C Post	80	15.1	7	2.90	2.41**
B Post	92	6.6			
C Post	80	15.1	12	3.03	3.96*

* Significant at the 1 per cent level

**Significant at the 5 per cent level

Post	Amount	Post	Amount
A Post	37	A Post	37
A Pre	34	A Pre	34
B Post	32	B Post	32
B Pre	33	B Pre	33
C Post	30	C Post	30
C Pre	29	C Pre	29
A Pre	35	A Pre	35
B Pre	33	B Pre	33
A Pre	34	A Pre	34
C Pre	29	C Pre	29
B Pre	33	B Pre	33
C Pre	29	C Pre	29
A Post	37	A Post	37
B Post	32	B Post	32
A Post	37	A Post	37
C Post	30	C Post	30
A Post	37	A Post	37
C Post	30	C Post	30
A Post	37	A Post	37
C Post	30	C Post	30

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Resident at the 1000 1000

TABLE XV

t-RATIOS WITHIN AND BETWEEN GROUPS A, B, C FOR RESULTS
ON THE CALIFORNIA LANGUAGE TEST

GROUP AND TEST	MEAN	SD	DIFF	SE _D	t
A Post	10.3	2			
A Pre	10	1.70	.3	.35	.86
B Post	11.5	1.04			
B Pre	10.6	1.70	.9	.36	2.5**
C Post	9.7	2.10			
C Pre	9.8	1.90	.1	.54	.19
A Pre	10	1.70			
B Pre	10.6	1.70	.6	.39	1.5
A Pre	10	1.70			
C Pre	9.8	1.90	.2	.42	.48
B Pre	10.6	1.70			
C Pre	9.8	1.90	.8	.48	1.7
A Post	10.3	2			
B Post	11.5	1.04	1.2	.41	2.9*
A Post	10.3	2			
C Post	9.7	2.10	.6	.47	1.3
B Post	11.5	1.04			
C Post	9.7	2.10	1.8	.45	3.6*

*Significant at the 1 per cent level

**Significant at the 5 per cent level

J. RAYMOND ALLEN - J. RAYMOND ALLEN - J. RAYMOND ALLEN

GROUP AND		POST	
A Post		10.0	
B Post		11.0	
C Post		12.0	
D Post		13.0	
E Post		14.0	
F Post		15.0	
G Post		16.0	
H Post		17.0	
I Post		18.0	
J Post		19.0	
K Post		20.0	
L Post		21.0	
M Post		22.0	
N Post		23.0	
O Post		24.0	
P Post		25.0	
Q Post		26.0	
R Post		27.0	
S Post		28.0	
T Post		29.0	
U Post		30.0	
V Post		31.0	
W Post		32.0	
X Post		33.0	
Y Post		34.0	
Z Post		35.0	

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TABLE XVI
t-RATIOS BETWEEN GROUP MEANS OF SCORES ON
THE CALIF. TEST OF MENTAL MATURITY

GROUP	A ----- B		A ----- C		B ----- C	
No. in group	56	31	56	29	31	29
Mean	104	111	104	105	111	105
SD	16.82	14.25	16.82	17.15	14.25	17.15
Diff.	7		1		6	
SE _D	3.15		3.87		3.91	
t	2.2**		.26		1.5	

**Significant at the 5 per cent level

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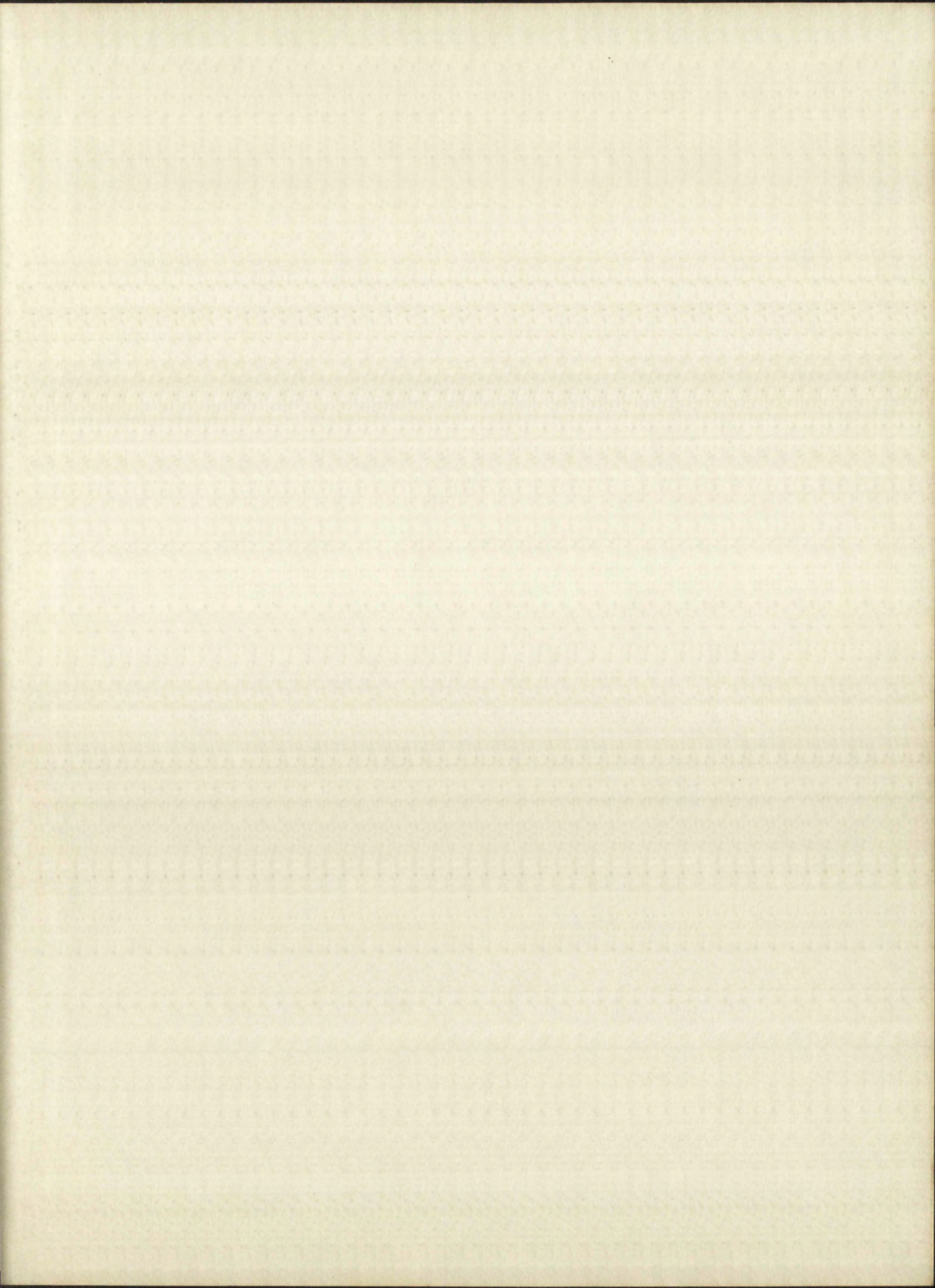
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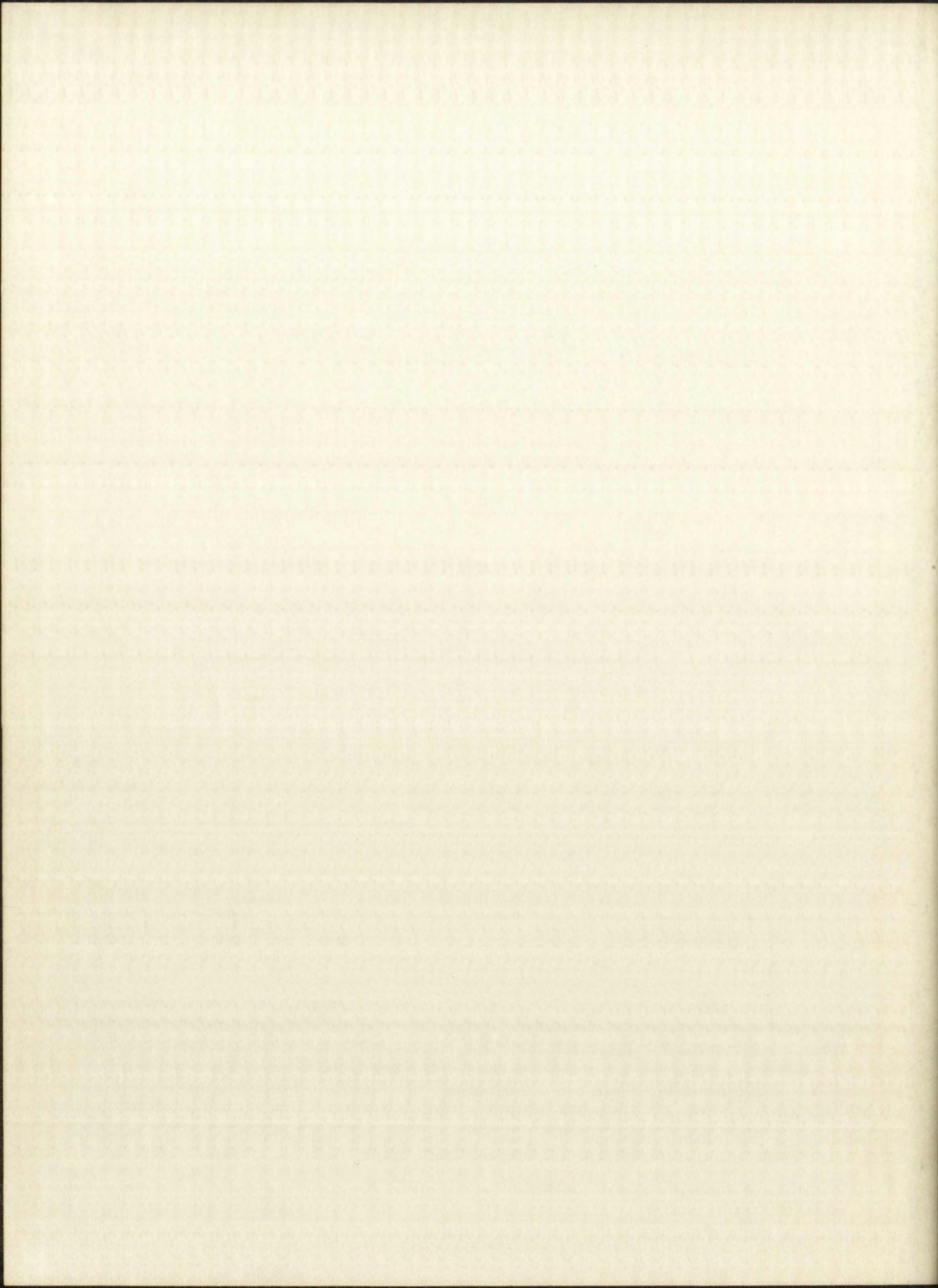
1986

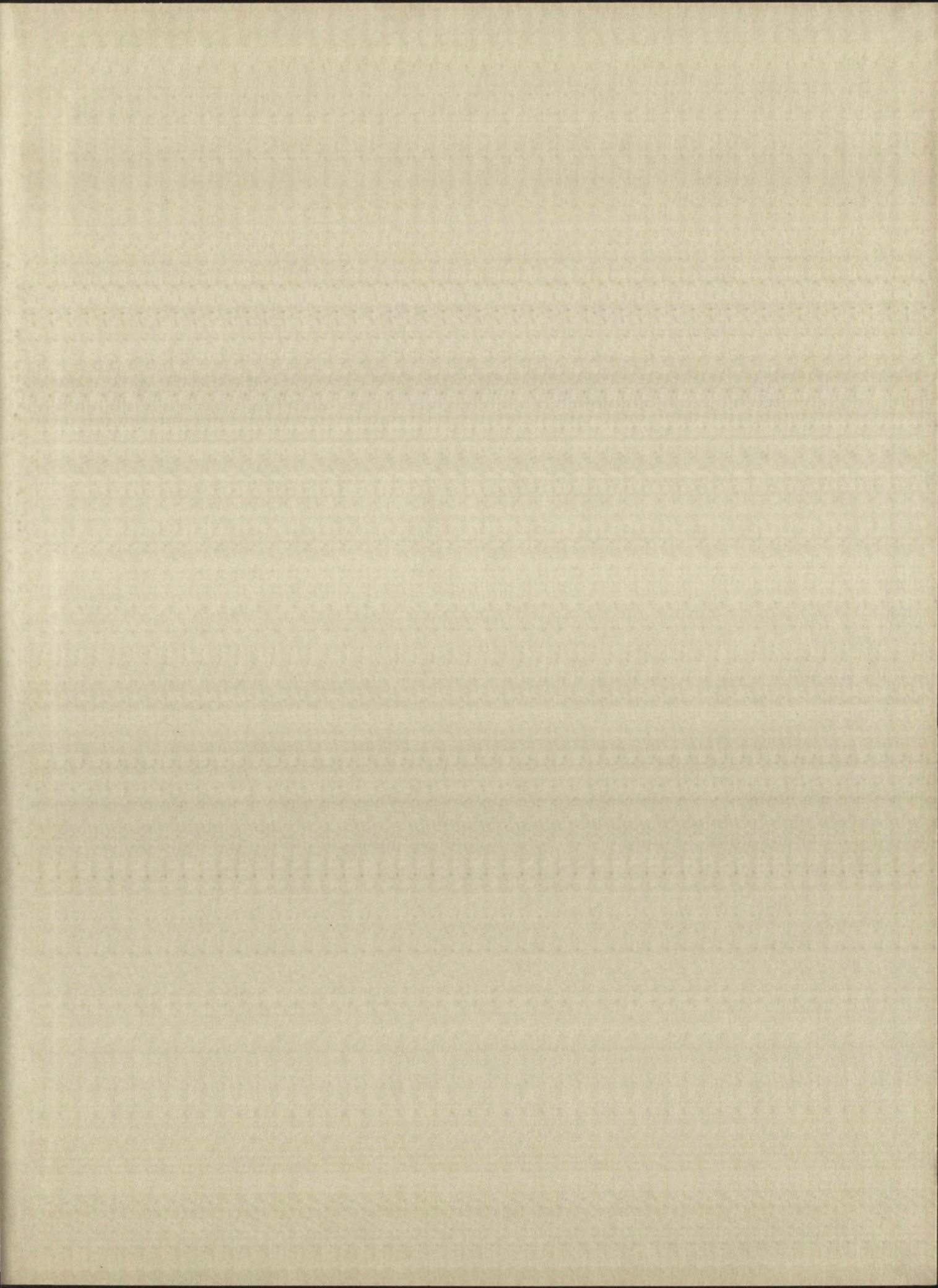
FOLLOW DOWN

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