

A THREE YEAR COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE
FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO TEACHING THE
MECHANICS OF LANGUAGE

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PREFACE

The work reported in this investigation was performed in two of the elementary schools in Stillwater, Oklahoma, by permission of the school administration. The primary objective of this study was to compare two methods of teaching the mechanics of language to primary children over a three year period. Comparisons were made in five aspects of language achievement in the mechanics of language: namely, punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense. It is hoped that resultant recommendations will provide a basis for further investigations in these areas.

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involved in the study. Recognition is also given for the assistance of the late Mr. Joe Henry King, Principal of the other school involved.

Appreciation is also expressed to Dr. Gene Pingleton, presently Superintendent of Stillwater Schools and to Dr. Keith Benson, Principal of one of the schools formerly administered by Mr. King, for allowing the study to be completed.

I am especially grateful to my husband, Hershel, for his understanding attitude, patience and encouragement throughout the study.

This study is dedicated to the children with whom I have had the opportunity to work during the three-year period and to their parents who offered words of confidence and appreciation.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

For years educators in the field of language arts have recognized the need for improving the teaching of language, but at the same time they are equally concerned with the need to preserve the creativity that children bring with them to school. Somewhere along the grades, quips Applegate "they lose their tales."

There has also been concern of long standing among some educators with regard to the marking of errors on children's written compositions. Strickland² reports that children do not usually correct their errors in subsequent papers when corrections are made by the teacher. Not only are children embarrassed when their papers are "red-penciled," or otherwise marked, but they continue to make the same errors on future papers. The conference, a one-to-one dialogue between child and teacher for the purpose of establishing clarity of meaning, might be a tenable solution.

Most children enter school able to respond to and use oral language. For several years they have been speaking and listening to the language used in their homes and have been doing so with increasing

¹Applegate, Mauree, Easy in English. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960, p. 49.

²Strickland, Ruth G., "Evaluating Children's Compositons," Elementary English, XXXVI (May, 1960), p. 328.

understanding and skill. They have learned to communicate their own ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of oral symbols; they have learned to comprehend the meaning expressed by others who use the same system of symbols. In the beginning years of school, before the child can write, some teachers record what the child dictates. This procedure not only allows the child to produce immediately, but, according to Burrows,³ Allen,⁴ and Dawson,⁵ it helps him develop a desire for learning to write. When children are freed from the physical drudgery of handwriting, according to Burrows,⁶ their childlike imagination becomes a legitimate composition for others to see and appreciate. The teacher writes these compositions in the child's own language on the chalkboard, on his tablet or on a large classroom demonstration chart as he dictates. Composition by definition means putting together to form a whole. English composition, according to Burrows, includes "memos, notices, titles, posters, advertisements, cards, greetings,"⁷ as well as narrative stories, reports and verse. Throughout this paper the term composition will be used in this connotation.

Since the goal of language teaching is the improvement of oral and

³Burrows, Alvina T., Doris Jackson and Dorothy O. Saunders, They All Want to Write. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

⁴Allen, R. V. and Dorris M. Lee, Learning to Read Through Experience. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963.

⁵Dawson, Mildred A., "Summary of Research Concerning English Usage," Elementary English, XXVIII (March, 1951), pp. 141-147.

⁶Burrows, Alvina T., Teaching Composition: What Research Says to the Teacher. Association of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C., 1968, pp. 25-26, 30.

⁷Ibid., p. 6.

written composition, using the child's own language in a functional teaching approach might achieve this goal. Functional teaching of language eliminates a "language period" and a language textbook in the daily classroom schedule, allowing language to function as a day-long activity for each child. Communication becomes the most significant purpose for instruction, and skill development becomes an inherent part of the communicative activity. Skills are taught because they are needed, when they are needed, in order to communicate adequately.⁸

Specifically this study is concerned with the teaching of language mechanics in written activities based on children's day-to-day experiences in school, or excursions, and at home. The method investigated precludes teaching rules of punctuation, capitalization, and usage in order to help children write with clarity; instead, it relies on the need to communicate as the motive for mechanics. The purpose of this method is to help the child see the need for punctuation as he works with his own ideas. As Applegate⁹ suggests, children learn to use mechanics to safeguard meaning. Hence, this study compares the effectiveness of an integrated functional approach to teaching mechanics with the traditional approach based on the use of a state adopted textbook.

General Nature of the Problem

Many subjects are taught in an elementary school. In the past few years, because of the interrelationships of certain of these subjects,

⁸Smith, James A., Creative Teaching of the Language Arts. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1967, pp. 221-274.

⁹Applegate, Mauree, "Making Mechanics Serve Ideas," Grade Teacher, (June, 1957), pp. 38, 66.

some of them have been grouped under the heading of Language Arts; namely, writing, reading, oral expression, listening, thinking, and the mechanics of language (punctuation, capitalization, sentence sense, spelling and correct usage). An integrated language arts program is one in which the above mentioned subjects are so interwoven that it is almost impossible to teach one without the other. This study will capitalize upon this interrelationship.

In an integrated language arts program, where creative writing is fostered, there are specific areas of concern which must be dealt with. Allen¹⁰ and Burrows¹¹ agree that the areas which are most important to the success in written communication are (1) the importance of the "idea", or the genuine group or individual experience, (2) the prerequisite of oral communication, (3) the facility of meeting spelling needs, (4) adequacy in sentence sense, grammar and usage, and (5) evaluation. The general nature of the problem in this paper centers around the instructional difficulties in these five areas as they relate to both utilitarian and creative writing.

Authorities do not agree on the methods to satisfy these concerns, but the literature presents many conclusions and ideas which could serve as guidelines for further research or experimentation by the classroom teacher. These will be discussed at length in the review of the literature.

¹⁰Allen, R. V. and Dorris M. Lee, Learning to Read Through Experience. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963.

¹¹Burrows, Alvina T., Doris Jackson and Dorothy O. Saunders, They All Want to Write. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

Specific Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to compare two approaches to teaching the mechanics of language: a functional approach based on children's actual writing and a traditional approach which employs the use of a state adopted language textbook.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions are used.

Functional approach--instruction in punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense based purely on need of communication which arises from common daily writing tasks and from experiences provided by literature, field trips and films, as opposed to suggestions and exercises from a textbook.

Traditional approach--the teaching of language mechanics through exercises and suggestions from the language text adopted by the school with a generally consistent order of skill presentation.

Longitudinal study--a study which continues with the same children over a period of time which was three years for the study reported here.

Mechanics of language--punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling and sentence sense.

Conference--a scheduled time of approximately five to ten minutes for pupil-teacher evaluation, at which time the child reads his compositions orally and the teacher and he examine them for clarity of ideas and punctuation needed to safeguard meaning. The teacher may or may not make suggestions for changes in spelling and punctuation depending on the child's readiness for new learnings.

Language experience approach--the integration of the communication skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, usually culminating into a story or report dictated by children and written by the teacher or written independently by children. (A more complete description of the language-experience approach will be given in Chapter III.)

Utilitarian writing--letters, memos, requests, labels, reports, dictated or written by children. The purpose lies in actual communication with peers and adults.

Creative writing--stories, verse, friendly letters, essays dictated or written by children. The purpose is entertainment.

Hypothesis

This study proposes to test the following null hypothesis: There is no significant difference at the .05 level of confidence between the achievement in the mechanics of language of children taught by the traditional approach and those taught by the functional approach, with respect to five abilities: punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense.

Assumptions

There are several assumptions pertaining to this study. These include:

1. That children's achievement in writing was a valid indication of their ability to write.
2. That individual achievement in the mechanics of language could be determined by the results of tests used in the study.
3. That the experimental and control groups were representative

of a wide range of primary ability in the elementary school.

4. That any interaction between the teachers of the control group and teachers of the experimental group did not affect the program.

5. That the instruments used in the study were valid in measuring achievement in the mechanics of language.

6. That the traditional method was the normal kind of instructional pattern for a student.

Limitations

Certain limitations are inherent in the study. These include:

1. Since the experimental study was done at only one school, it may not be representative of all socio-economic groups or I.Q. groups.

2. Since the study was done at the primary level, the results may not be applicable to other ages.

3. The study did not attempt to compare teaching effectiveness of the teachers involved.

4. Due to the structure of the functional approach the variable of time was not controlled.

Significance of the Study

Many educators have expressed the need for teaching language in a functional setting. Allen¹² presents a reading program using a language-experience approach, which recognizes that in daily practice the development of reading skills and the development of listening, speaking, and spelling and writing skills should not and need not be

¹²Allen, R. V. and Dorris M. Lee, Learning to Read Through Experience. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963.

separated in the instructional program. Dawson¹³ suggests that the modern curriculum is an activity program that is socially centered; it is one in which children's language -- whether it be listening, speaking, reading or writing -- is integrated with all their learning activities. Douglas¹⁴ says that children are writing a good deal, but that the advocates of new approaches to the teaching of writing hope to demonstrate that children can be taught to write better by attending to some aspects of composition that we have so far neglected.

Moffett¹⁵ expresses the belief that our schools have neglected the importance of oral language and failed to recognize that ability in written language relates in no small measure to facility and command of oral forms.

Strom,¹⁶ in reporting research on the teaching of grammar and usage to junior high students, says that children and adolescents improve their sentences by having many opportunities, with the guidance of the teacher, for structuring their own thoughts into their own sentences.

Research is further justified for the following reasons: (1) there

¹³ Dawson, Mildred, Language Teaching in Grades One and Two. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1957, p. 12.

¹⁴ Douglas, Wallace, "On Teaching the Process of Writing," New Dimensions in Elementary English. Papers collected from the 1966 Spring Institutes on the Elementary Language Arts of the National Council of Teachers of English. Edited by Alexander Frazier, Ohio State University, National Council of Teachers of English, Champaign, Illinois, p. 183.

¹⁵ Moffett, James, A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum, Grades K-13: A Handbook for Teachers. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968, p. vii.

¹⁶ Strom, Ingrid, "Research in Teaching Grammar and Usage," Education Digest, XXVI (January, 1961), pp. 50-52.

are the ever-increasing complaints from businessmen that secretaries lack skill in the mechanics of writing, (2) language arts educators continue to press for less rote teaching in language instruction and more emphasis on the relationship of oral speech and written composition, and (3) the use of a functional method in teaching the mechanics of writing to children in grades one, two, and three has not been thoroughly investigated.

Summary

The need for more study related to teaching the mechanics of writing has been pointed out in Chapter I. It is suggested that children's oral language might be a basis for instruction in written composition, and that an integrated language program might have advantages over a segmented approach in teaching writing skills. Therefore, the following hypothesis is stated:

There is no significant difference at the .05 level of confidence between achievement in the mechanics of language of children taught by the traditional approach and those taught by the functional approach, with respect to the five abilities: punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense.

The reader will find in Chapter II the review of the literature. Chapter III includes the methodology of the study. The results of the statistical analysis are found in Chapter IV. Chapter V contains the conclusions, observations, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

One of the most important areas in the curriculum of the primary grades, according to Wise,¹ is that one commonly known as "language arts." Instructional procedures and objectives for most of the subdivisions -- spelling, handwriting, speaking, listening, and oral and written expression -- are based in varying degrees on scientific research, but in the area of written composition this is not the case, since such research in the primary grades is limited.

Artley reports that though there appears generally to be more integration in the prescribed language arts program, the program as it exists is actually separated into relatively unrelated activities -- "two weeks of writing followed by two weeks of 'oral composition' followed by two weeks of something else."² Monroe³ also emphasizes the necessity of integrating the entire program, gearing each facet of language development to stages of the child's growth and development.

¹Wise, Harold L., "An Analysis of the Written Language of Children in Grades One, Two, and Three," (unpublished M. A. thesis, University of Iowa, 1959), p. 1.

²Artley, W. Sterl, "Research Concerning Interrelationships Among the Language Arts," Elementary English, XXVII (December, 1950), p. 527.

³Monroe, Marion, Children's Experiences - and How to Use Them for Language Learning. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1968, p. 1.

According to the Basic Aims Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English:

Language is a basic instrument in the maintenance of the democratic way of life...Increasingly free and effective interchange of ideas is vital to life in a democracy...Language study in the schools must be based on the language needs of living...English enriches personal living and deepens understanding of social relationships...English pervades the life and work of the school...English enriches personality by providing experience of intrinsic worth for the individual.⁴

Applegate⁵ concurs with Artley⁶ that language is a day long activity enriching personality. She sets forth the following objectives for personality development:

1. To think clearly.
2. To read carefully
3. To listen imaginatively
4. To speak effectively
5. To write creatively
6. To associate with the high and the beautiful⁷
7. To acquire a healthy respect for good English

The study at hand specifically purports to implement an integrated approach to the teaching of written composition in the primary grades

⁴Basic Aims Committee of the National Council for the Teachers of English, "Basic Aims for English Instruction in American Schools," English Journal, (January, 1942), pp. 40-55.

⁵Applegate, Mauree, Helping Children Write. Scranton, Pa.: International Book Company, 1949, pp. 1-6.

⁶Artley, W. Sterl, "Research Concerning Interrelationships Among the Language Arts," Elementary English, XXVIII[†] (December, 1950), pp. 527-534.

⁷Applegate, Mauree, "Making Mechanics Serve Ideas," Grade Teacher, (June, 1957), pp. 38, 66.

which Greene,⁸ Applegate,⁹ and others,^{10,11} support.

The overall picture of written composition in the primary grades today is characterized by McKee:

At the present time the elementary school's program in composition is in a rather chaotic state. Probably this condition is due to a dearth of objective data concerning the items which children should learn in composition; the grade-placement of these items and the standards which pupils may reasonably be expected to reach. At least there is not much hope for improvement in composition until the specific items which children should and can master at various levels are discovered.¹²

In 1935, McKee¹³ concluded that many of the current practices in composition writing are largely a matter of personal opinions, subjective judgments and questionable assumptions. The situation has not changed considerably because the dearth of objective data still remains. Strickland¹⁴ says that the key to good writing may not lie in the standards the school sets for the children's writing, but in the standards each child is helped to set for himself, because these are the

⁸Greene, Harry A., "A Criterion for a Course of Study in Mechanics of Composition." University of Iowa: Studies in Education, Monograph No. 4. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1933.

⁹Applegate, Mauree, Helping Children Write. Scranton, Pa.: International Book Company, 1949.

¹⁰Dawson, Mildred A., Language Teaching in Grades One and Two. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1957.

¹¹Moffett, James, A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum, K-13: A Handbook for Teachers. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968.

¹²McKee, Paul, Language in the Elementary School. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1944, p. 39.

¹³Ibid., pp. 40-42.

¹⁴Strickland, Ruth G., "Evaluating Children's Compositions," Elementary English, XXXVII (May, 1960), p. 321.

standards the child will take with him into life after he leaves the teacher's authority. Wise¹⁵ concludes that there appear to be two reasons for the lack of reliable research in this area. Firstly, very little data are available since most programs in which pupils write independently do not begin until the third grade. Secondly, the reliability of the data as a reflection of normal development, gathered at this grade or earlier, is questionable because of the importance ordinarily attached to such factors as handwriting, punctuation, capitalization, and spelling.

In New Zealand, Ford¹⁶ conducted an experiment with 1159 children in elementary school. Each child wrote four compositions, using four types of writing: (1) reproduction of a story, (2) narrative-description, (3) imaginative, (4) explanatory. One of his conclusions was that the composition program should be flexible and as far as possible, individualized.

Salt compares two approaches to teaching creative writing. In the formal approach the teacher is very apt to have all the children working on the same phase of language skills at the same time. In the functional approach much more individual guidance and instruction are necessary. She prefers the functional approach because

...children's readiness for learning any particular phase of language develops at different times and in different ways...and because language functions all day long in everything the children do and not merely in an isolated

¹⁵Wise, Harold L., "An Analysis of the Written Language of Children in Grades One, Two, and Three," (unpublished M. A. thesis, University of Iowa, 1959), pp. 78-79.

¹⁶Ford, Clarence T., "Developments in Written Composition During the Primary School Period," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXIV (February, 1954), pp. 38-45.

period...The formal approach puts a premium on learning fixed, unvariable rules of structure, meaning, and usage, and thus impedes the development of the concept that our language is a changing growing tool.¹⁷

Greene¹⁸ agrees that we have a long way to go in the development of a socially evaluated language curriculum.

Lyman¹⁹ believes that curriculum must proceed along two complementary lines. The first is the analysis of language activities most frequently needed in daily life; the second is the analysis of language usages and difficulties of individuals at various grade levels and in adult life. This should be done for the purpose of making a practical adjustment between written composition taught the child during his school years and what he actually will use in adult life.

Goodman,²⁰ Bear,²¹ Odom,²² and Pooley²³ call attention in their research to the wide diversity of practice in the choice of, and in the amount of time spent on, rules essential to the practical use of

¹⁷ Salt, Edna, "Language Instruction: Formal vs. Functional," Childhood Education, XXVI (November, 1949), p. 127.

¹⁸ Greene, Harry A., "Direct Versus Formal Methods in Elementary English," Elementary English, XXIV (May, 1947), p. 275.

¹⁹ Lyman, R. L., "Summary of Investigations Relating to Grammar, Language and Composition," Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 36. The University of Chicago, 1929, pp. 44-45.

²⁰ Goodman, J. H., "Growth in Punctuation and Capitalization Abilities," Journal of Educational Research, XVIII (November, 1934), pp. 195-202.

²¹ Bear, Mata V., "Children's Growth in the Use of Written Language," Elementary English Review, XVI (December, 1939), pp. 312-319.

²² Odom, Robert R., "Capitalization and Punctuation: A Diagnostic Test," California Journal of Educational Research, XV (January, 1964), pp. 68-75.

²³ Pooley, Robert C., "Language Arts Survey in Wisconsin Elementary Schools," Elementary English Review, XXIII (January, 1946), pp. 8-14.

capitalization and punctuation skills as presented in English textbooks. The Mackintosh and Hill²⁴ study indicates that a writing experience should be an enjoyable, satisfying, and well-liked activity. When first drafts are being produced, there should be considerable freedom from fear of criticisms of the mechanics of writing. In a study of the growth and sequence of language and grade placement of capitalization and punctuation in the intermediate grades, Odom²⁵ advocates removing formal language instruction from the elementary curriculum and increasing creative writing through relaxed language arts expression. Labrant²⁶ thinks that writing is the most difficult of the language arts; that writing requires the combined ability to talk and make sentences, to read, to make letters, to spell, and to punctuate.

Five Areas of Concern

As mentioned previously the five areas with which written communication is concerned are (1) the idea, (2) the prerequisite of oral communication, (3) the facility of meeting spelling needs, (4) adequacy in sentence sense, grammar and usage, and (5) evaluation. Strickland,²⁷

²⁴ Mackintosh, Helen K., and Wilhelmina Hill, How Children Learn to Write. U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 2, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1953, 2-3, 6-7, 20-22.

²⁵ Odom, Robert R., "Growth of Language Skill: Punctuation," Journal of Educational Research, XV (January, 1964), pp. 12-15.

²⁶ Labrant, Lou, "Writing - the Most Difficult of the Language Arts," Readings on Contemporary English in the Elementary Schools. Edited by Tiedt, M. and Sidney W. Tiedt. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967, 137-140.

²⁷ Strickland, Ruth G., The Language Arts in the Elementary School. Third Edition, Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1969, p. 322.

commenting on these areas, remarks that interest is more important than anything else; that interest begins with content and use, never with the mechanics of form. Clarification of these areas is given in the discourse that follows.

The idea. Writing is a form of expression; therefore, the writer must have something to express. The quality of what is expressed in writing depends upon the quality of thinking that undergirds it. Strickland states that the emphasis is first and always upon "saying something that is worth saying and saying it effectively."²⁸

If a child is to learn proper subordination of ideas and clarity of expression, "he must struggle with his own ideas," according to Hughes.²⁹ A child's run-on sentences can be explained, says Hughes, by his lack of ability to formulate his own ideas and his reactions. His own understanding of process and relationships must be sought.

Swenson³⁰ prefers the term "written expression" over the term "writing" because it implies that there is something - an idea, a fact, a thought, an opinion to be expressed and that the communication process is the means by which that something is expressed to someone else.

The importance of 'the idea' is expressed by Holbrook,³¹ who says that imaginative writing wells up from a source constantly enriched by

²⁸ Strickland, *Ibid.*, p. 301.

²⁹ Hughes, Marie M., "Writing Too Early and Too Late," Education, LXXVI (April, 1956), p. 466.

³⁰ Swenson, Esther J., and Charles G. Caldwell, "The Process of Communication in Children's Letters," Elementary School Journal, II (October, 1948), p. 79.

³¹ Holbrook, David, English for Maturity. New York: University Press, 1965, p. 112.

an inflow; that the teacher who would like his children to write should let them take in an enormous amount of folk literature from books and records.

The prerequisite of oral communication. Cutforth, a former inspector in Her Majesty's service in England, writes:

It may safely be said that if a teacher is having difficulty with the written English of his school, and finds the children wooden, unresponsive, and unwilling to put their thoughts on paper, the first thing he should look at is the oral side; it is probably that the fault is there.³²

Burrows³³ and McKee³⁴ are concerned about the physical coordinations of handwriting being intricate and fatiguing. They also recommend that the child learn to express himself well in oral form at the beginning. McKee³⁵ bases much of his book on instructional objectives and methods which have resulted from extensive objective studies. In view of these studies, he says that it is more important for the child to learn to express himself well in oral form than in written form. As a result of this observation, he recommends that practically all composition in the

³²Cutforth, J. A., English in the Primary School. Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell, 1954, p. 65.

³³Burrows, Alvina T., Teaching Composition: What Research Says to the Teacher. Association of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1968.

³⁴McKee, Paul, Language in the Elementary School. Boston: D. C. 1944, pp. 166-167.

³⁵McKee, Ibid.

first grade be oral in nature. Greene,^{36,37,38} in 1941 and again in 1950 in his review of the literature concerning both English and child development, emphasizes the seriousness of mechanical factors in very young children and notes that because of this, many schools encourage primary children to compose orally before they are able to write; furthermore, he suggests that, since ninety to ninety-five per cent of the language activities utilize oral-language activities, teachers should shift the instructional emphasis on oral language more nearly in line with its social importance.

Loban³⁹ stresses the interdependence of language and thought, pointing out that those with power over spoken language are better able to make distinctions, modify ideas, handle emphasis through transitions and arrangement. Such powers cannot be gained through drills and exercises. Thought--and its competent expression through spoken language--flourishes best in situations where learners are deeply involved and genuinely concerned. In Weehawken, New Jersey, a Title III, ESEA, expanded language arts program⁴⁰ began in 1968. Emphasis is on the

³⁶Greene, Harry A., "English: Language, Grammar, and Composition," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Edited by Walter Monroe, 1941, pp. 446-461.

³⁷Greene, Harry A., "Child Development: Language," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Edited by Walter Monroe, 1950, pp. 165-171.

³⁸Greene, Harry A., "English: Language, Grammar and Composition," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 1950, Edited by Walter Monroe, pp. 383-398.

³⁹Loban, Walter, The Language of Elementary School Children. Research Report No. 1, National Council of Teachers of English, 1963, p. 102.

⁴⁰Weehawken Public Schools, Weehawken, New Jersey, Title III ESEA Linguistic-Language Arts Project, as reported in Reading Newsreport, Vol. III, No. 1 (October, 1968), P. O. Box 8036, Washington, D. C. 20024, pp. 14-18.

positive development of children's ability to use language. Comprehension and use of simple sentence forms, signal words and sentence pattern are stressed rather than traditional grammatical analysis. The children are encouraged to proceed from speaking to writing and to reading their own writing. Oral language development of two groups of disadvantaged first grade children was compared by Daniel and Giles.⁴¹ To determine if children of limited opportunity, participating in programs designed to broaden experiences, exhibit superior language development several months after participation, the investigator developed and administered a measurement of various aspects of oral language. Findings showed that (1) Project Head Start activities were more effective in encouraging the oral development of low-intelligence pupils than high-intelligence pupils and that (2) Project Head Start participants displayed greater oral language development than non-Head Start participants for both boys and girls. Strickland sums up the importance of oral language:

Every piece of writing produced by a child in the primary grade is a reflection of the oral work that goes on in that grade.⁴²

The facility of meeting spelling needs. Any teacher whose children do creative writing is confronted with the problem of spelling because most of the words children use in their stories are not in their spelling vocabulary. Therefore, he must facilitate the spelling, or

⁴¹Daniel, Artie A. and Douglas E. Giles, "A Comparison of the Oral Language Development of Head Start Pupils with Non-Head Start Pupils," HEW Grant #OEG-4-6-068293-0644, Denton, Texas, August, 1966. Elementary English, Vol. XLV, p. 900.

⁴²Strickland, Ruth G., "Evaluating Children's Compositions," Elementary English, XXXVII (May, 1960), p. 324.

children's writing will suffer. Peck's⁴³ solution to the spelling problem was for every child to use a spiral notebook for his personal spelling list to be used for creative writing. The child's spelling for the week was his personal list.

From their recent review of the literature in spelling, the Hannas⁴⁴ state that spelling cannot be taught as an isolated skill apart from the total language program. They also suggest that since the child comes to school with listening and speaking vocabularies, that it is the school's responsibility to provide a bridge to the spelling and reading vocabularies in an integrated language arts program.

Applegate⁴⁵ states that all teachers could do a better job of teaching spelling than they are doing. She says that we continuously test spelling but seldom teach spelling. She suggests that teachers "sell" elementary children on the idea that incorrect spelling is in the same class with soiled collars and black nails and that it should become "the smart thing" to learn how to spell. She also recommends that we test spelling only once a week and teach it the rest of the week. If teachers could anticipate misspelled words and write them correctly before a mass writing lesson, and if key words could be posted, spelling would be greatly facilitated. She proposes that all children have personal dictionaries. Educators agree that a practical view of spelling favors a trend toward (1) teaching fewer and more

⁴³Peck, L. E., "Encouraging Written Expression in the Third Grade," Instructor, LXV (May, 1956), p. 86.

⁴⁴Hanna, Paul R. and Jean S. Hanna, "Needed Research in Spelling," Elementary English, XLIII (January, 1966), pp. 60-66.

⁴⁵Applegate, Mauree, "Making Mechanics Serve Ideas," Grade Teacher, (June, 1957), pp. 38, 66.

commonly used words and (2) teaching those words better. Swenson's⁴⁶ study shows the real advantage of studying children's spelling of words that they themselves used in a natural situation rather than a dictated list of words. One frequent criticism of judging children's actual spelling ability by the spelling in their own written work is that, in such writing, they may avoid using words they cannot spell. Several findings^{47,48,49} indicate that current emphasis in the teaching and testing of spelling in public schools may be somewhat divorced from the actual use of spelling as a tool in written communication. The latest trend is to emphasize correct spelling only after children have mastered the art of self-expression. The idea must have priority over spelling in the beginning stages of written composition. Furthermore, unless the writing is made public, there is no legitimate reason to edit for misspelled words.⁵⁰

Hodges⁵¹ summarizes findings in a study conducted at Stanford University by the Cooperative Research Branch of the U. S. Office of Education. According to Hodges, these studies, which deal with a

⁴⁶Swenson, Esther J., and Charles G. Caldwell, "Spelling in Children's Letters," Elementary School Journal, (December, 1948), pp. 224-235.

⁴⁷Hanna, Paul R. and Jean S. Hanna, "Needed Research in Spelling," Elementary English, XLIII (January, 1966), pp. 60-66.

⁴⁸Applegate, Mauree, "Making Mechanics Serve Ideas," Grade Teacher, (June, 1957), pp. 38, 66.

⁴⁹Hodges, Richard E., "The Psychological Bases of Spelling," Elementary English, XLII (October, 1965), pp. 629-635.

⁵⁰Strickland, Ruth G., "Evaluating Children's Compositions," Elementary English, XXXVII (May, 1960), p. 325.

⁵¹Hodges, Richard E., "The Psychological Bases of Spelling," Elementary English, XLII (October, 1965), pp. 629-635.

multisensory approach to the teaching of spelling, indicate a need for drastic change of instructional procedures in the teaching of spelling and the support for the aural-oral approach. He further suggests that

...the encoding process of spelling possibly can be learned more readily when children are given the opportunity to discover for themselves that basic structural properties underlie the spellings of many words. Further, children should be given numerous opportunities to apply this knowledge in their writing.⁵²

Adequacy in sentence sense, grammar and usage. Applegate⁵³ stresses the importance of making mechanics serve ideas. Mechanics should serve children--not be served by them. Mechanics must be taught when they are needed. She says children are not interested in isolated skills.

Wise,⁵⁴ who analyzed the written language of children in the first three grades, believes that the ability of children to handle the mechanics of written language is developed quite rapidly by the occasions provided each day for some writing activity. His study also implies that young children can develop a good "sentence sense". He thinks that it may possibly be that the real reason for the ineffectiveness of teaching formal grammar is that the grammar we have been teaching is not actually the grammar of our language. That is, our spoken language differs from our written language. He suggests that educated citizens of our nation should possess the ability to handle two

⁵²Ibid., p. 634.

⁵³Applegate, 1937, pp. 38, 66.

⁵⁴Wise, Harold L., "An Analysis of the Written Language of Children in Grades One, Two, and Three," (unpublished M. A. thesis, University of Iowa, 1959), pp. 92-93.

languages fluently--their spoken language and their written language.⁵⁵

Smith⁵⁶ states that punctuation and capitalization are matters of courtesy to help make the meaning clearer to the reader. However, she feels that no amount of punctuation can clarify what has not been clearly thought out and expressed in the beginning. Appreciation of the period, the question mark, or the exclamation point at the end of a sentence comes first through the consciousness of what these marks tell the beginner to do with his voice as he reads. As he grasps the meaning, he understands the purpose of the punctuation; and as he understands the purpose of the punctuation, he more readily grasps the meaning.

Dawson⁵⁷ suggests that a teacher who takes advantage of opportunities for pupils to dictate sentences, to note how a sentence is written down, and to read orally groups of words identified as sentences is doing much to build a sentence sense.

Greene reported that the results of his study showed:

The students who were taught grammar as such, revealed, as might have been expected, significantly higher accomplishment in grammar than students who were taught by the other method but grammatical knowledge did not appear to transfer into the area of skill in punctuation to any appreciable extent in spite of the fact that the two were supposed to be functionally related.⁵⁸

⁵⁵ Ibid., p. 89.

⁵⁶ Smith, Dora V., "Growth in Language Power as Related to Child Development," Forty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944, pp. 88-90.

⁵⁷ Dawson, Mildred A., "Help Your Children Get Sentence Sense," Instructor, LXVIII (November, 1968), p. 53.

⁵⁸ Greene, Harry A., "Direct Versus Formal Methods in Elementary English," Elementary English, XXIV (May, 1947), p. 284.

He concludes that there is reason to expect superior results in the teaching of punctuation by direct methods rather than by methods which are based upon a knowledge of related grammatical elements. Punctuation is a function of meaning rather than a function of grammar.

Strickland⁵⁹ lists stages through which each child needs to pass before he is ready to move on to the next. These are: (1) dictation to the teacher or another person; (2) dictation of his composition followed by copying it; (3) writing with help from others when he needs it; and (4) writing with increasing independence. She feels that grammar, as such, is not recommended as instructional material for the primary grades.

Evaluation. Strickland states:

The teacher's evaluation of the child's progress is a continuous one. The personality traits that the child shows, the amount of help he needs, his growth in interest, in initiative, in sustained attention to the writing task, in independence, as well as in technical skills of handwriting and spelling are all a part of the evaluation.⁶⁰

Grading papers and assigning marks or ratings is completely inappropriate for young children. Also inappropriate is the assigning of writing which the child is to do independently and turn in for the teacher's comments. All writing of any consequence should be done when the teacher is free to guide and to help while the child writes. This early stage in learning to write is a critical one. If a child is asked to write only when he has something to write, has a purpose for writing, and can write with all the help he needs, he is on the way to becoming a writer.⁶¹

Red-penciling errors and putting down a grade is profitless expenditure of the time and energy of the teacher. A less

⁵⁹ Strickland, Ruth G., The Language Arts in the Elementary School. Third Edition, Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1969, p. 305.

⁶⁰ Strickland, Ruth G., "Evaluating Children's Compositions," Elementary English, XXXVII (May, 1969), p. 323.

⁶¹ Ibid., pp. 323-324.

well-trained person than he could do that. The student who receives a paper with many errors marked and a poor grade rarely studies his problems and corrects the errors. In consequence, the same errors appear on the next paper and the next.⁶²

Grimm⁶³ points out that there are several advantages of pupil participation in evaluation progress. The pupil learns to be increasingly independent in appraising his own progress, problems, and growth. Through daily sharing and participating in the total learning process, he will use the data gathered in the evaluation program to guide his progress more effectively toward his goals. The school is serving a vital function when it enables the pupil to learn better how to judge and place values upon his daily adjustments to life.

Emphasizing strongly the need for every child to be able to judge and criticize his own work and growth, Stoddard says:

Every child, whether in a small group or a large classroom, must be expected to carry on a vast amount of self-teaching, self-correction, and self-adjustment. There is an inner check on efficiency that is, in essence, distinctly ethical. No child should be allowed to shortchange himself intellectually--to cheat at solitaire, whether it be played with cards, words, digits, or data. Within limits of his knowledge and his ability to apply appropriate validation, the child is his own inspector general; he should never turn over to teacher, parent or companion the smallest fragment of work that he knows to be wrong. He should get the habit of assuming full responsibility, let us say for a problem in arithmetic, composition, or science, within limits of his power, leaving for the teacher only those duties that transcend his own. This crucial lesson if learned early by every child, can be tremendously helpful to the teacher, supervisor, and curriculum maker. In the long run it will prove to be good training and good mental hygiene for the child himself.⁶⁴

⁶²Ibid., p. 328.

⁶³Grimm, Paul R., "Youngsters Take a Hand," Educational Leadership. (April, 1947), pp. 438-444.

⁶⁴Stoddard, George D., The Meaning of Intelligence. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1943, p. 18.

Axline writes that it is not enough for a teacher to be a dispenser of facts and a tester of knowledge, to hear recitations and to maintain order. She feels that the greatest contribution that educators can make to the younger generations

...is the type of guidance that places emphasis upon self-initiative and transmits to the young people by living example the fact that each individual is responsible for himself.⁶⁵

Toporowski⁶⁶ says that, in spite of research findings, that teachers insist on correcting the papers themselves for such reasons as:

- 1) The teacher feels that the child learns most by having the teacher find the errors.
- 2) The teacher seems imbued with the idea that it is her duty to correct the papers.
- 3) Many teachers derive satisfaction from using a red pencil on a child's paper, although they would be loathe to admit it.
- 4) Many teachers wonder about the value and ethics of having a pupil correct his own papers; they wonder about the problem of cheating when the child corrects his own papers.

In order to save time and solve this problem, many teachers have children exchange papers, which in reality adds to the problem. Toporowski's study verified the belief that children gain more value from the correction of their own papers than from seeing the teacher's red marks, and that children can be responsible for finding and correcting their

⁶⁵Axline, Virginia Mae, Play Therapy. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947, p. 157.

⁶⁶Toporowski, Dolores E., "A Study of the Opinions and Actions of Elementary School Teachers and Pupils Regarding the Correcting of Papers," (unpublished M. A. thesis, Boston University, 1958), p. 2.

own errors, if guided by an understanding teacher in a flexible environment. She discovered that teachers have little scientific basis for their opinions; that personal opinion is the basis for scoring and grading papers.

A child must be helped from his very first year in school to judge his own work as the product of a person of worth and to accept nothing but the very best from himself. This can only be done by a teacher who has "a genuine respect for the potentialities and personal worth of each student and a corresponding interest in and sympathy with his strivings for self-maintenance and self-enhancement", writes Snygg.⁶⁷ This cannot be done by a teacher who does not have an honest and sincere belief in such a philosophy. For according to Macomber:

A teacher's philosophy of education grows out of his understanding of the nature and the needs of the child, his understanding of the nature of the learning process, and his understanding of the nature and the needs of the society to be served by the school. This philosophy determines his conception of the aims and purposes of education, and in turn, the classroom curriculum, including the teaching process itself.⁶⁸

There are three studies that are similar to the present study. Pressney and Campbell⁶⁹ had interviews with each pupil after a composition was handed in and corrected. Each child was asked why he made the errors. They discovered that the errors in capitalization were for the most part explainable, logical and understandable - far from being

⁶⁷ Snygg, Donald and Arthur W. Combs, Individual Behavior. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949, p. 243.

⁶⁸ Macomber, Freeman Glenn, Principles of Teaching in the Elementary. American Book Company, N. Y., 1954, p. 67.

⁶⁹ Pressey, S. L. and Pere Campbell, "The Causes of Children's Errors in Capitalization: A Psychological Analysis," English Journal, XXII (March, 1933), pp. 197-201.

random or senseless. They were not errors purely of carelessness, nor were they entirely illogical. They were mistakes in the way children thought about the use and significance of capitals. According to Pressey and Campbell, this approach can be of great value in improving methods of instruction, and should be considered also in decisions as to what should be called "correct".

Milligan⁷⁰ conducted a two-year study of incidental teaching with second grade, which acquainted the children with the more common uses of capitalization and punctuation. Attention was called to capital letters and punctuation marks as the children read from books, as they dictated stories to the teacher, or as they read and copied stories. Milligan concluded that children knew the names of and had knowledge about a great many punctuation marks, not through burdensome emphasis, but through calling attention to them incidentally as noted above.

Mattila and Maurer gave a blueprint for helping the child be on his own in writing:

The blueprint for creative writing is drawn from oral composition and may be begun as early as the first week of school. Children compose their own stories which the teacher records on charts or on the blackboard. There are both group and individual experiences in story dictation. Shared experiences at school provide material for group stories and the child's personal experiences with his family and friends provide material for individual stories. Through numerous experiences in dictating these stories, the child develops his blueprint for writing - a story sense.⁷¹

⁷⁰Milligan, John P., "Learning About Punctuation in the Primary Grades," Elementary English Review, XVIII (March, 1941), pp. 96-98.

⁷¹Mattila, Ruth H. and Mother Mary Michael Maurer, "Helping the Child to Be On-His-Own in Writing," Elementary English, XXV (April, 1958), p. 230.

Moffett⁷² proposes a student-centered curriculum which teaches the native language and requires almost no textbooks or materials except reading selections. He reports that in British schools today the strongest trend is away from teaching grammar, marking papers, and using textbooks, and toward creative writing, dramatics (even in secondary school), and a generally more spontaneous curriculum.

In summary, the literature points out the need for an integrated approach to the teaching of the language arts. It also stresses that the prerequisite of written communication in the elementary grades is oral communication, and basic to oral communication is thinking. Spelling is important but mastery should not be required unless the composition is to be made public. Sentence sense, grammar and usage, when perfected in oral communication, serve a purpose through implementation in written communication. Unless a child learns to accept responsibility for evaluation of his own product, there is little actual learning that takes place. Authorities concur that all writing must be meaningful to the child.

⁷²Moffett, James, A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum Grades K-13: A Handbook for Teachers. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968, p. 15.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The central purpose of this study was to compare the achievement of primary children in the mechanics of language under two different methods of instruction. Following is a statement of the null form of the hypothesis tested in this investigation:

There is no significant difference at the .05 level of confidence between achievement in the mechanics of language of children taught by the traditional approach and those taught by the functional approach, with respect to the five abilities: punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense.

In this study the writer has made an attempt to control the teacher variable by using only teachers who had degrees in elementary education and who had at least five years teaching experience in the elementary grades. The teachers in the control group were randomly assigned to classrooms each year of the study. The teachers in the experimental group were randomly assigned to first grade children. During the second year, the two experimental teachers shifted rooms, thus giving these children exposure to different teachers but the same method. During the first two years of the study, the two experimental teachers planned and executed language experiences and methods of presentation so that experiences and method were as controlled as

possible. During the third year, the remaining thirty-two children were taught by one teacher. Therefore, it is assumed that any difference in teacher variable was overcome by randomization.

Before the study began, a letter (Appendix A) was sent to each parent requesting permission to allow his child to participate in the experimental group. There was support from all parents.

Population and Sample

All the beginning first grade children who enrolled in two schools in Stillwater, Oklahoma, were to be involved in the beginning of the study. Since the study was to continue for three years with the same children, the children who lived in university housing were not included because their membership was less likely to be permanent. One or two years of residence in university housing is a common pattern for most married students. Previous records at these two schools showed that approximately sixty first grade children had enrolled at each school, excluding those in university housing. Table 1 on the following page shows the group composition through the three years of the study.

At the beginning of the first grade the sixty children in the experimental group were randomly assigned to two classrooms, with boys and girls being equally divided between the two rooms. The two teachers were randomly assigned to the two groups. At the beginning of the second grade, teachers exchanged groups. At the beginning of the third grade, the thirty-two children remaining in the study were placed with Teacher 1.

TABLE I

GROUP COMPOSITION DURING THE THREE YEARS OF THE STUDY

		Experimental			Control			
		Boys	Girls	Total				
					Boys	Girls	Total	
Grade I	Teacher 1	16	14	30	Teacher 3	18	13	31
	Teacher 2	15	15	30	Teacher 4	17	15	32
	Total	31	29	60	Total	35	28	63
Grade II	Teacher 1*	12	9	21	Teacher 5	6	4	10
	Teacher 2	12	11	23	Teacher 6	12	6	18
					Teacher 7	11	6	17
	Total	24	20	44	Total	29	16	45
Grade III	Teacher 1**	15	17	32	Teacher 8	5	3	8
					Teacher 9	7	4	11
					Teacher 10	8	3	11
	Total	15	17	32	Total	20	10	30

*Teachers 1 and 2 exchanged children.

**All experimental children placed with Teacher 1.

During the summer prior to the second year of the study, nine children from Teacher 1 and seven children from Teacher 2 had moved from the city. In order to balance the membership in all second grade classrooms, new students who enrolled were placed with each of the experimental programs. Although these new children participated in the program, they were not included in the study.

The children in the control group were randomly assigned to two teachers in the first grade, with boys and girls being equally divided between the two teachers. At the beginning of the second and third grades the control groups were randomly reassigned among available teachers and were tested at the designated times.

Both schools were equally representative of middle and upper class socio-economic communities, as evidenced by their location in the city and the occupations and education of the parents making up the school community.

In the spring, before the experiment was initiated in the fall, a meeting was held with the principals and teachers of the two schools. At this meeting the purposes of the study were presented and the procedures of conducting the study were explained. The principals and the primary teachers of the two schools agreed to participate, with the understanding that two teachers would progress with the pupils in the experimental group for three years.

Group Instructional Methods

Control Group--The control group learned the mechanics of language through the use of a language book. The teachers were in no way instructed in a method related to the experimental approach of this study.

They gave instruction in the usual way through assignments based on language textbooks and were left to their own discretion as to how to implement them, i.e., normal instruction.

Experimental Group--For the experimental group there was no language textbook and no designated period for language instruction in the daily schedule. Because the method was an incidental approach to the teaching of language, the actual amount of time spent in instruction could not feasibly be determined. Children's writings (compositions) were all based on experience and the need to communicate. Instruction in the mechanics of writing was a part of the on-going activities in the classroom. Writing was accepted as a tool of communication throughout the day, growing out of the needs of the class or individual students to communicate. Opportunities were provided for children to learn to write through actual situations that required writing. Children were not taught rules about punctuation and capitalization. They learned to punctuate and capitalize by observing the teacher's example as she recorded their sentences. As soon as they were able to write independently, they were instructed to read orally their own writings in order to ascertain pauses, complete stops, questions and exclamations in speech.

In the beginning, children dictated their compositions to the teacher who recorded their ideas as they came forth. Recordings were sometimes made on a child's tablet, on the chalkboard, or on a large primary chart tablet, depending on the circumstance. When the composition was shared with the entire class or a group, the primary chart paper or the chalkboard was more appropriate. Many stories and events were dictated in a one-to-one relationship between teacher and pupil,

in which case a tablet sufficed.

The purpose for writing the children's thoughts as they dictated was to acquaint the child with the use of punctuation marks that were reflected in their spoken language: to help children see the relation of written speech symbols to oral speech.

Initial dictation experiences followed art lessons, at which time a child dictated a sentence about his picture and the teacher wrote his exact words on a piece of paper, attaching it to his drawing.

Following a group or class activity, such as a science experiment, children dictated a cooperative report as the teacher recorded their findings and personal reactions to what they had discovered. Individual children volunteered information as it was needed to complete the report. In the beginning weeks, as the teacher took dictation, she pointed out the need for capital letters and different kinds of punctuation to clarify meaning. For example: "Is this beginning a new idea? Then we need a capital letter." "You used such strong feeling in your voice, we will need to use an exclamation mark to show how the explosion sounded." In time, the children made suggestions to the teacher with respect to punctuation, or she elicited their cooperation, as they continued to record information and feeling about class events, experiments, excursions, and other activities. Not all activities were recorded. When enthusiasm for writing about "what we did and saw" waned, the children were given a recess from recording, and creative writing was encouraged.

In addition to group reports and stories involving all the children, provision was made for individual children to dictate stories or narrate episodes significant to them. For example, pets, birthdays,

trips, visits to relatives, shopping with mom, dad's new job, a new baby in the home and other events in the lives of the children were incentive for a dictated story.

To foster imaginative writing, children were exposed to many folk tales, fairy tales, fables, animal stories and poetry through oral reading by the teacher. The use of pictures to develop sentence sense, vivid imagery, and sequential story development was also employed. For example, from the picture the child created a story in his own words based on his own feelings and inclinations.

Gradually some children began to express a desire to write their own stories and were allowed to do so. Other children continued to depend on the teacher for most of their longer stories even in third grade. During the second half of the first year a primary typewriter was used by the teacher to record stories as the children dictated. When the teacher stopped typing, the child supplied the punctuation he thought was necessary to the meaning. Each child was given the opportunity for one typed story per week for the remainder of the first grade. However, the majority of children in second and third grades preferred to write their own stories.

No emphasis was placed on correct spelling of words; however, as children demonstrated an interest in the correct form, they were encouraged to keep a self-made dictionary. These dictionaries were updated with new words at each writing and maintained throughout the remainder of the experiment. When a child asked for the spelling of a word, the teacher wrote it on a piece of paper. Later he recorded it in his own dictionary for future use. Additional sources for words included commercial picture dictionaries and lists in readers. At

times the child supplied the beginning sound of the word, leaving a blank space until the teacher was available to help with the spelling or he used his own sense of sound forming his word.

When a story or report was completed, the child shared it with the class, with a group, with a friend, and/or filed it in an individual folder for his weekly conference with the teacher. At this conference the teacher helped the child use his voice inflection in punctuating his composition. Modification of sentence structure was suggested only when meaning was questionable. During second and third grades misspelled words were corrected by the child during the conference and later recorded in his personal dictionary. However, no more than five words were changed in any one writing. This decision was based on the theory that too many corrections represent failure to the learner and he becomes discouraged.^{1,2} A file of these compositions was compiled and accumulated for the three year period and served as guides to the experimental teachers in extending individual growth in expression of ideas, vocabulary development and were also indications of individual interest. The folders were available to children at all times and were often used in the conference to reinforce skills already taught and to introduce new skills. A weekly log was also kept by the experimental teachers to guide them in preparation of a varied program of language activities.

Since Stillwater schools serve as a laboratory for the Department

¹Applegate, Mauree, Easy in English. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960, pp. 279, 393.

²Strickland, Ruth G., "Evaluating Children's Compositions," Elementary English, XXXVII (May, 1960), p. 325.

of Education of Oklahoma State University, student aides were assigned both to the control and experimental teachers for three hours each week following the customary procedure. Also, student teachers were assigned for eight weeks during each semester. The students cooperated with the regular teachers in classroom guidance and teaching; however, they were not essential to the completion of the study.

Instrumentation

In order to compare the experimental group with the control group with reference to I. Q., the California Test of Mental Maturity, 1963 Revision, S-Form, Level 1³ was administered during the eighth month of the first year. According to its designers, this instrument provides information about the functional capacities that are basic to learning, problem-solving, and responding to new situations. Seven administrative test units, measuring aspects of mental ability, contribute to a pattern of summary and derived scores (mental ages, intelligence quotients, standard scores, stanines, and percentile ranks) that are interpreted within a framework of inter- and intra-individual differences. The test results also provide data as to the nature and potential of the abilities possessed by the children. The assessment of mental maturity with the Short-Form provides evidence of a pupil's readiness to undertake various types of scholastic tasks and assists in the identification of individuals with special abilities or limitations.

Concerning reliability of the California Test of Mental Maturity

³California Test of Mental Maturity, Short Form, 1963 Revision.
Published by California Test Bureau, Del Monte Research Park,
Monterey, California.

the technical manual stated that reliability and related data are based on a random sample of 200 cases drawn from the Standord-Binet scaling cases and the standard deviations were corrected to normative population characteristics after the split-half reliability coefficients had been computed on the random sample of scaling cases. The split-half reliability using the Pearson r was .94. The standard error of measurement was 2.6. In order to obtain validity this test was compared with the Stanford-Binet. Validity was .93.

The California Test of Mental Maturity was treated with a "t" test to determine if the groups were statistically alike. If they had not been alike, the scores on the Iowa Basic Skills Test⁴, which was administered later in the study, were to be treated with an analysis of covariance in order to adjust the scores with the I. Q.'s. Since the groups proved to be statistically alike, the Iowa Skills Tests were treated with a "t" test in order to determine if the means of the two groups were statistically alike or different.

At the close of the study the Iowa Every-Pupil Test of Basic Skills, Basic Language Skills, Grades 3-5 was administered. The reliability data for this test are based on a sample of 2,723 from a total of 18,469. The reliability was estimated using the Spearman-Brown formula. Reliability was .96.

Validity has been described by the authors thusly:

In the development of content specifications for the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, the authors have attempted to draw upon the best of current practice as evidenced in courses

⁴Iowa Every-Pupil Test of Basic Skills, Basic Language Skills, Grades 3-5. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964.

of study, textbooks, and research studies. Where there is agreement of expert opinion regarding the identification and grade placement of specific language elements, the tests conform closely to such opinion. Where no such unanimity of opinion exists, the authors have been forced to exercise their own judgment. In general in such cases, their policy has been to introduce only such topics as are included in at least three of the leading texts in the field, and to place these topics at the higher rather than the lower of the suggested grades...If such study indicates that the tests adequately define the objectives of language instruction in the elementary grades, then they may be said to satisfy the requirements of validity.⁵

The Iowa Every-Pupil Test of Basic Skills, Basic Language Skills, Grades 3-5, is composed of separate subtests for each of the five aspects of language development: punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense. The punctuation subtest has fifty items from which all punctuation marks such as periods, commas, question marks, quotation marks, and apostrophes had been removed. The task was to insert the proper punctuation marks. Time for this subtest was eleven minutes.

The capitalization subtest had forty-three items from which all capital letters had been removed. The children had eight minutes to insert the proper capital letters.

The subtest on usage was composed of fifty items to be completed in thirteen minutes. The children were required to make a choice between two uses of words in sentences; for example, "The marbles (is, are) large." "(I, Me) am going." These examples came from the child's test book.

⁵Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Manual for Administrators, Supervisors, and Counselors. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964, p. 31.

The spelling subtest gave a choice of words spelled four different ways. The children were to mark the correct spelling. There were forty items in this subtest which allowed eight minutes.

The test on sentence sense was a test to show how well the children could recognize good sentences. There were forty-two items on this subtest which allowed six minutes. Some of the exercises were wrong because they were only parts of sentences; others were wrong because they should have been written as two separate sentences; still others were incorrect because parts of sentences were where they did not belong. The task was to mark the 'good' sentence.

At the end of each year a teacher-made test on punctuation and capitalization was administered to both groups. Although no statistical analysis was used on these tests they served the purpose of checking each child's progress so as not to neglect any skills. These tests consisted of a paragraph from the current grade level material from which all the punctuation and capitalization had been removed. In order not to present a reading problem, the paragraphs were read to the children both in the experimental and control groups; they punctuated them according to voice inflection.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to compare the achievement of primary children after a three-year duration in the mechanics of language using two different methods of instruction. An attempt was made to control teacher variable through experience, education and randomization.

All children in first grade in the two schools were included in the three year study except those who were identified as possible withdrawals from the school before the study ended. Normal size teacher-loads were maintained and all children received the treatment of that group; however, records were kept only on those in the study. The method of the control group was normal instruction through the use of a language textbook with teachers using their own discretion as to how to implement it. Instruction in language for the experimental group was based on genuine need to communicate with emphasis on five areas of concern; namely, the importance of the idea, the prerequisite of oral communication, the facility of meeting spelling needs, adequacy in sentence sense, grammar and usage, and evaluation. A conference was held weekly between teacher and child to teach mechanics through voice inflection with the use of the child's own stories. The California Test of Mental Maturity was administered at the beginning of the study in an attempt to compare the groups with respect to I. Q.'s. The Iowa Every-Pupil Test of Basic Skills, Basic Language Skills, was administered at the close of the study to measure achievement in punctuation, capitalization, spelling, sentence sense and usage. Teacher-made tests were also used for diagnostic purposes in order to further growth in language mechanics for each child.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Two groups of children were taught over a three year period using two approaches to the teaching of the mechanics of language. The control group was taught in a traditional manner using a state adopted textbook as a general guide with a fairly consistent order of presentation. The experimental group was taught the mechanics of language in a functional approach.

A California Test of Mental Maturity, Short Form, was administered during the eighth month of the first grade. The raw data for both groups are in Appendices B and C. A "t" test was used to determine if the groups were statistically different in intelligence. Results of this "t" test are in Table II. If they had been statistically different, an analysis of covariance would have been used to treat the remaining data. The results of the California Test of Mental Maturity indicated that they were not statistically different. The computed "t" yielded a "t" statistic of 0.93. The minimum "t" value required for statistical significance at the .05 level of confidence is 2.00. The probability associated with the obtained "t" (0.93) is greater than .20 with sixty degrees of freedom for a two-tailed test.

TABLE II
 DATA ANALYSIS. COMPARING EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
 ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF MENTAL MATURITY

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	Sample Size	"t" value
Control	112.16	11.40	2.02	30	0.93
Experimental	114.80	10.97	2.00	32	

An Iowa Basic Skills Test, Language Abilities, for Grades 3-5 was administered to all children during the ninth month of the third grade. This instrument was employed to test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the language achievement of children taught by the functional approach with respect to the five language abilities: punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense. Raw data on which analyses were based are in Appendices D and E. Results obtained are as follows:

Punctuation: The raw data yielded a mean score of 23.97 for the traditional group and a mean score of 27.16 for the functional group. These mean scores were compared using the "t" test. The computed "t" statistic yielded a "t" value of 3.41. Rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level of confidence required a minimum "t" statistic of 2.00. The probability associated with the obtained "t" (3.41) with sixty degrees of freedom was less than .01 for a two-tailed test. The result was a rejection of the null hypothesis. (Table III)

TABLE III

DATA ANALYSIS COMPARING EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
ON THE IOWA BASIC SKILLS TEST: PUNCTUATION

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	Sample Size	"t" value
Control	23.97	3.92	1.72	30	3.41
Experimental	27.16	3.46	0.61	32	

Capitalization: The raw data yielded a mean score of 32.27 for the traditional group and a mean score of 37.06 for the functional group. These mean scores were compared using the "t" test. The computed "t" statistic yielded a "t" value of 4.13. Rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level of confidence required a minimum "t" of 2.00. The probability associated with the obtained "t" (4.13) with sixty degrees of freedom was less than .001 for a two-tailed test. The result was a rejection of the null hypothesis. (Table IV)

TABLE IV

DATA ANALYSIS COMPARING EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
ON THE IOWA BASIC SKILLS TEST: CAPITALIZATION

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	Sample Size	"t" value
Control	32.27	5.19	0.95	30	4.13
Experimental	37.06	3.88	0.69	32	

Usage: The raw data yielded a mean score of 35.60 for the traditional group and a mean score of 35.94 for the functional group. These mean scores were compared using the "t" test. The computed "t" yielded a "t" value of 0.27. Rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level of confidence required a minimum "t" statistic of 2.00. The probability associated with the obtained "t" (0.27) is greater than .20 with sixty degrees of freedom for a two-tailed test. The result was failure to reject the null hypothesis. (Table V)

TABLE V

DATA ANALYSIS COMPARING EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
ON THE IOWA BASIC SKILLS TEST: USAGE

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	Sample Size	"t" value
Control	35.60	5.22	0.95	30	0.27
Experimental	35.94	4.66	0.82	32	

Spelling: The raw data yielded a mean score of 24.43 for the traditional group and a mean score of 28.59 for the functional group. These mean scores were compared using the "t" test. The computed "t" yielded a "t" value of 2.44. Rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level of confidence required a minimum "t" statistic of 2.00. The probability associated with the obtained "t" (2.44) with sixty degrees of freedom was less than .005 for a two-tailed

test. The result was a rejection of the null hypothesis. (Table VI)

TABLE VI
DATA ANALYSIS COMPARING EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
ON THE IOWA BASIC SKILLS TEST: SPELLING

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	Sample Size	"t" value
Control	24.43	6.43	1.17	30	2.44
Experimental	28.59	6.96	1.23	32	

Sentence Sense: The raw data yielded a mean score of 27.63 for the traditional group and 28.75 for the functional group. These mean scores were compared using a "t" test. The computed "t" statistic yielded a "t" of 1.01. Rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level of confidence required a minimum "t" statistic of 2.00. The probability associated with the obtained "t" (1.01) is greater than .20 with sixty degrees of freedom for a two-tailed test. The result was failure to reject the null hypothesis. (Table VII)

TABLE VII

DATA ANALYSIS COMPARING EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
ON THE IOWA BASIC SKILLS TEST: SENTENCE SENSE

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	Sample Size	"t" value
Control	27.63	4.82	0.88	30	1.01
Experimental	28.75	3.85	0.68	32	

Summary

For the statistical analysis, the experimental and control groups were compared using the California Test of Mental Maturity. In order to test the hypothesis that there was no significant difference between the two groups in achievement in the mechanics of language, an Iowa Basic Skills Test on punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense was administered.

Of the five areas of language achievement, the means of the scores for punctuation, capitalization, and spelling in the experimental group were statistically significant. The means of the scores for usage and sentence sense in the experimental group were slightly higher; however, they were not statistically significant.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

Overview

The intent of this study was to compare the effectiveness of two methods of teaching the mechanics of language to primary children over a three year period. The effectiveness of the methods was appraised through comparisons of experimental and control groups on the basis of pupil achievement in five facets of the mechanics of language: punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense. The teaching approaches were designated as "traditional" and "functional." These approaches were chosen because of the prevailing use of the traditional-type approach by classroom teachers and the numerous recommendations of educators for a "functional" approach.^{1,2,3,4}

¹Strickland, Ruth G., The Language Arts in the Elementary School, Third edition, Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1969.

²Burrows, Alvina Truet, Doris Jackson and Dorothy O. Saunders, They All Want to Write, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1964.

³Loban, Walter, "Oral Language and Learning," Oral Language and Reading, ed. James Walden, National Council of Teachers of English, Champaign, Illinois, 1969, pp. 101-112.

⁴Applegate, Mauree, Helping Children Write, Scranton, Pa., International Textbook Company, 1949.

The two methods are far apart as to the use and importance attached to a language textbook and to the use of the child's own language in teaching the mechanics of language. The traditional approach places emphasis on the sanctity of a language textbook and on other people's language for teaching punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense. The functional method places emphasis (1) on the child's own language as a tool of communication, stressing that mechanics are determined by voice inflections; and (2) on language instruction based on purposeful communication. Language is considered a day-long activity serving the child's needs in all areas of the curriculum.

The primary children involved in this study were from two schools and were assigned to groups by random selection. At the beginning of the study the number of first grade children was such that there were two sections at each school. The children in university housing were excluded because experience had shown their usually expected tenure to be no more than two years. One school was selected as a control group and the other school was selected as the experimental school. Both schools were equally representative of middle and upper class socioeconomic societies as evidenced by location of residence in the city and occupations and education of parents.

The teachers involved in the study agreed to participate in the experiment. All teachers involved were qualified on the basis of training, experience and ability. The teachers of the control group were not instructed as to method of using the language textbook. The experimental teachers cooperated with one another in planning and evaluating language experiences in an attempt to control the method over a three year period. The basic question around which this study was constructed

was, "Which method is most effective for teaching mechanics of language to primary children?"

The different teaching approaches were maintained for a period of approximately three years, beginning on September 2, 1965 and concluding on May 15, 1968. During the eighth month of the first grade a California Test of Mental Maturity, Short Form, 1963 Revision, Level 1,⁵ was administered to determine if the two schools were statistically alike as to intelligent quotients. Results of the test show that they were alike. During the last month of the study an Iowa Every-Pupil Basic Language Skills Test, Grades 3-5,⁶ was administered to both groups to determine if the language achievement in punctuation, capitalization, usage, spelling, and sentence sense was significantly different. Cooperating teachers had no prior knowledge of the content of this test.

Findings

The data analyzed in this study tended to indicate that the functional approach in punctuation, capitalization and spelling was statistically more significant than the traditional approach. The data concerning usage and sentence sense revealed that the means were slightly higher for the functional approach, but not significantly so. Therefore, the hypothesis that there is no significant difference at the .05

⁵California Test of Mental Maturity, Short Form, published by Del Monte Research Park, Monterey, California, 1963.

⁶Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, published by Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1964.

level of confidence in language achievement of primary children who have been taught the mechanics of language by a functional approach as opposed to a traditional approach was rejected in the areas of punctuation, capitalization, and spelling. In the areas of usage and sentence sense the result was failure to reject the null hypothesis.

Conclusions

The above findings support the belief of many educators that students can learn to spell, to punctuate their writings, and to use capital letters appropriately without the aid of textbooks. Furthermore, this study tends to support the thesis presented in much of the literature that children improve little in writing as a result of textbook exercises in language mechanics.

It is reasonable to conclude from these findings that skills in the use of language mechanics which include capitalization, punctuation, and spelling can be acquired more effectively when the application is made to personal experiences and authentic reasons for writing, that is, the language experience approach.

Findings seem to indicate that the experimental teachers' adjusting the language curriculum to the child rather than the child to a language textbook had some bearing on the results.

The individual conference with each child in the experimental group was most satisfying to the experimental teachers. Children also looked forward to the conference, sharing only the stories and letters they selected. It provided a time for the teacher to take care of individual differences. Some children were ready for help with more mature skills than others. For instance, some children were ready to

learn about generalizations for forming plurals in words ending in 'y.'" A boy whose physical maturity would not allow prolonged handwriting might be helped in a different manner. The teacher would supply the writing as he dictated a story and suggested the proper mechanics. Aside from the favorable effects on writing, children gained added experiences in reading through reading their own stories. Children learned to recognize the words they dictated from their own speaking vocabularies. In order to teach the mechanics of language in a functional approach, it would seem important to maintain a permissive climate, where all writing is accepted and where ideas, rather than rules, are paramount. In such a climate, characterized by teacher-pupil planning, pupils have the opportunity to develop self-direction and independence.

During the study many parents communicated their enthusiasm for the program because their children were writing spontaneously and were excited about it. This consequence alone seems to support an experience-oriented approach to language instruction.

Although in this particular study there was no attempt to measure creative aspects of writing, much attention was given to originality and imagination in the children's stories. They were praised for unusual expressions, especially figurative language, and were encouraged to freely express their feelings, emotions, anxieties and ideas.

Punctuation, capitalization, and spelling are skills necessary to one's own writing. It would be reasonable to assume that the results in these areas would be favorable, since the experimental group had been learning the mechanics of language as they used language.

In regard to sentence sense and usage, there was no statistical significance. This lack of significance might be attributed to the fact that this was a written test over oral skills. For example, in the primary grades when children use their own language, sentence sense is attained by meaningful communication. The Iowa Basic Skills Test on sentence sense was composed, as explained in Chapter IV, of isolated sentences which were out of context and had no meaning for the child as a sentence in a paragraph might have had. Since these exercises were similar in nature to textbook exercises, and thus different from the actual experience the children had encountered, the experimental group might be expected to be hampered by the assignment. The reading problem involved in these sentences may also have had some bearing on the results.

Another factor that should not be overlooked is the assumption that usage is acquired through imitation. The child comes to school with his usage already formed. It is something he acquired through example of his parents and little improvement with respect to language usage can be expected through formal instruction in the primary grades. The desire to improve one's speech patterns comes later in the grades with maturity and awareness that his speech is different from that accepted by the school.⁵

⁵Strom, Ingrid. "Research in Teaching Grammar and Usage." Education Digest, XXVI (January, 1961), 51-52.

Recommendations

This study seems to point the way to a more creative and meaningful way of teaching children to write. The following recommendations are suggested:

That teachers use on-going activities in the daily lives of children as a basis for language instruction instead of relying on a textbook.

That children's own experiences be used as a basis for writing.

That children's own language be accepted as a foundation for instruction.

That children be exposed to many experiences so that they will have something to write about.

That individual language needs of children be met through a conference which adjusts the curriculum to the child rather than the child to a language text.

That oral language be used as a basis for written language.

That spelling instruction be based on children's spelling needs as evidenced by their writing.

That evaluation of children's written work be characterized by a positive approach in order to encourage pupils to further spontaneous self-expression.

Recommendations for Further Research

Further research is needed which will produce statistical evidence as a basis for procedures in the teaching of writing. The writer makes the following suggestions for further studies:

1. Longitudinal studies of the quantity of writing of the same children over a period of years should produce evidence of the effectiveness of these two approaches.

2. Further studies should be conducted to determine if there is a correlation between the functional teaching of the mechanics of language and achievement in reading.

3. Studies should be conducted to determine the effect of functional teaching of language to children of different socio-economic levels.

4. A study should be made to compare interest in writing with instruction.

5. A study concerning teacher attitude as it relates to instruction in language teaching should be in order.

6. A study similar to the present study should be used with a pre-test at the beginning of second grade and post-tests at the end of second and third grades.

7. Studies should be made using the same teacher or teachers to teach both the control and the experimental groups in an attempt to control the teacher variable.

8. The best practices used by teachers for developing and maintaining standards of written compositions with deep regard for child personalities should be explored in greater detail.

9. For years teachers have been grading compositions and returning them for corrections; yet research indicates that students rarely learn to write as a result of this procedure. Therefore, research is needed to investigate the effectiveness of in-service training for teachers in order to demonstrate the results of positive individual

evaluation and also to investigate the importance of protecting the quality of writing at the expense of mechanics.

10. A study should be conducted which would measure creative aspects in different methods of language instruction.

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APPENDIX A

WILL ROGERS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

1211 North Washington Street
 STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074

August 2, 1965

M E M O R A N D U M

TO: Parents

FROM: Keith Benson
 Assistant Superintendent

SUBJECT: First Grade Experiment

Teachers continually search for better teaching methods. They try out new ideas, discard seemingly impractical ideas, and use a combination of ideas to obtain best results from learning activities. Studies indicate that children become more proficient in language usage (grammar, vocabulary, mechanics, and fluency) if oral activities precede written and if these activities are based on actual experiences of children rather than book exercises which have no personal relationship.

In a pilot study conducted last year in a first grade classroom in Stillwater, pupils learned to write for a specific purpose as they dictated their first stories to the teacher and later wrote their own when they had developed the ability to write. Early in the year, first grade pupils observed science experiments then dictated the proceedings to the teacher who recorded the information on the chalkboard or large charts. Individually or collectively, they dictated stories about their pets, about trips they had taken, and other experiences that have significance for children. Pupils learned both reading and writing skills from their experience stories. At the end of the year, these pupils showed remarkable achievement in fluency, punctuation, and spelling in stories they wrote for themselves each day.

We hope to extend this experiment, which provides functional use of writing, next year (1965-66) and measure its effectiveness. We know that pupils in this program will not be deprived of good learning experiences. We believe results will show advantages. Dr. Idella Lohmann, Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University, will direct the study. Helping her with the design of the study and necessary arrangements are the following: Dr. William D. Carr, Superintendent of Stillwater Schools; Dr. Helmer E. Sorenson, Dean of the College of Education, Oklahoma State University; Dr. Paschal Twyman, Assistant Director of Research, Oklahoma State University; and Mr. Keith Benson, Assistant Superintendent of Stillwater Schools.

Are you willing for your child to participate in this program?

_____ Yes _____ No Signed _____

APPENDIX B

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

CALIFORNIA TEST OF MENTAL MATURITY
ADMINISTERED FIRST YEAR OF STUDY

Pupil	Sex	C.A.	I.Q.			M.A.			I.S.I.*
			Lang.	Non-Lang.	Total	Lang.	Non-Lang.	Total	
1	F	80	129	121	128	101	96	101	118
2	F	80	110	117	117	88	93	93	108
3	F	90	94	103	98	87	94	90	102
4	F	90	94	85	89	87	79	83	93
5	F	90	105	96	101	96	88	93	105
6	M	82	126	120	127	102	98	103	121
7	M	87	127	125	130	110	109	113	132
8	M	89	110	109	111	99	98	100	115
9	M	85	128	105	116	108	90	99	115
10	F	90	98	114	105	90	104	96	110
11	M	81	120	139	134	96	111	107	123
12	M	89	113	94	102	101	85	92	105
13	M	89	96	111	103	87	100	93	106
14	M	80	126	112	123	99	89	97	114
15	F	87	115	114	117	100	99	102	118
16	M	84	96	121	107	81	101	90	105
17	F	86	104	112	108	90	96	93	108
18	M	86	117	112	117	100	96	100	117
19	F	81	106	123	114	86	99	92	107
20	M	89	124	104	116	111	94	104	120
21	M	88	111	115	115	98	102	102	118
22	F	90	105	121	114	96	110	104	120
23	F	84	115	106	111	96	89	93	108
24	F	84	85	124	100	72	103	84	98
25	M	86	105	97	101	91	84	87	101
26	F	80	118	124	123	93	98	97	114
27	F	81	131	141	141	105	112	112	132
28	M	83	104	106	108	87	88	90	104
29	F	81	109	120	115	88	96	93	108
30	F	90	122	121	126	111	110	114	132
31	F	96	85	89	84	83	87	82	82
32	M	87	127	121	128	110	105	111	130

*I.S.I. = Intelligence Status Index

Mean = 114.80

APPENDIX C

CONTROL GROUP

CALIFORNIA TEST OF MENTAL MATURITY
ADMINISTERED FIRST YEAR OF STUDY

Pupil	Sex	I.Q.			M.A.			I.S.I.*	
		C.A.	Lang.	Non-Lang.	Lang.	Non-Lang.	Total		
1	F	86	98	98	98	85	85	85	110
2	M	82	130	123	132	105	105	107	125
3	M	80	115	105	112	91	84	89	105
4	M	90	112	116	116	103	106	106	121
5	M	82	123	132	134	100	107	108	126
6	M	83	128	113	125	103	94	103	120
7	M	87	121	111	118	105	97	103	120
8	M	87	112	114	115	98	99	100	117
9	F	89	113	117	122	101	105	109	121
10	F	80	123	110	120	97	88	95	110
11	F	90	117	131	128	106	118	116	134
12	M	80	115	115	118	91	91	93	110
13	M	83	122	127	130	100	104	107	125
14	M	87	108	105	107	95	92	94	108
15	F	85	106	116	111	91	99	95	111
16	M	81	104	118	114	84	95	92	107
17	M	83	125	130	134	103	107	110	128
18	F	81	114	118	120	92	95	96	112
19	M	84	122	104	113	101	87	94	111
20	M	86	126	134	134	108	114	114	134
21	M	79	122	124	126	95	97	98	123
22	M	82	118	102	111	96	84	91	106
23	F	81	121	141	137	97	112	109	128
24	M	81	128	139	137	102	111	109	128
25	F	89	106	104	106	95	94	95	110
26	M	83	109	92	99	90	77	83	97
27	M	86	104	94	97	90	82	84	97
28	F	80	103	104	105	82	83	84	99
29	M	85	115	97	106	98	84	91	105
30	F	87	99	117	107	86	102	94	108

*I.S.I. = Intelligence Status Index

Mean = 112.16

APPENDIX D

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

IOWA BASIC SKILLS, LANGUAGE ABILITIES TEST
ADMINISTERED THIRD YEAR OF STUDY

Pupil	Sex	Possible Scores				
		50	43	50	40	42
		Punctuation	Capitalization	Usage	Spelling	Sentence Sense
1	F	27	41	35	34	28
2	F	24	36	33	28	28
3	F	25	31	35	27	26
4	F	23	43	35	33	26
5	F	31	38	38	35	26
6	M	26	36	36	20	36
7	M	29	38	39	36	32
8	M	26	39	43	30	29
9	M	23	40	37	32	27
10	F	29	43	38	30	33
11	M	30	37	37	27	22
12	M	29	40	34	37	27
13	M	29	35	31	15	26
14	M	29	36	45	36	27
15	F	28	35	34	28	27
16	M	25	39	33	17	24
17	F	28	34	36	32	32
18	M	24	36	29	31	31
19	F	25	31	38	30	34
20	M	26	30	35	30	27
21	M	23	34	36	25	32
22	F	36	41	33	38	30
23	F	30	38	41	34	23
24	F	30	42	39	38	33
25	M	30	35	35	26	30
26	F	20	39	31	13	29
27	F	33	42	41	29	30
28	M	21	29	25	15	25
29	F	28	42	40	35	34
30	F	30	37	43	26	33
31	F	25	31	25	19	20
32	M	27	38	40	29	33
Mean		27.16	37.06	35.94	28.59	28.75

APPENDIX E

CONTROL GROUP

IOWA BASIC SKILLS, LANGUAGE ABILITIES TEST
ADMINISTERED THIRD YEAR OF STUDY

Pupil	Sex	Possible Scores				
		50	43	50	40	42
		Punctuation	Capitalization	Usage	Spelling	Sentence Sense
1	F	21	37	34	28	23
2	M	27	34	37	23	31
3	M	17	30	34	6	24
4	M	23	30	37	17	20
5	M	28	36	44	28	28
6	M	23	40	27	17	20
7	M	21	25	41	21	27
8	M	25	36	32	15	29
9	F	27	37	38	23	22
10	F	25	23	29	30	32
11	F	27	36	42	27	37
12	M	26	35	40	38	32
13	M	24	29	38	30	25
14	M	24	39	30	20	32
15	F	24	36	26	24	30
16	M	25	34	37	32	28
17	M	25	35	44	28	32
18	F	23	26	32	19	22
19	M	26	33	42	22	29
20	M	26	30	34	26	29
21	M	22	24	37	25	26
22	M	18	22	31	24	23
23	F	32	40	42	29	38
24	M	24	34	36	32	32
25	F	25	36	24	25	27
26	M	21	25	39	27	32
27	M	18	30	38	28	20
28	F	21	27	36	21	22
29	M	23	36	34	16	30
30	F	18	33	33	32	27
Mean		23.97	32.27	35.60	24.43	27.63

VITA

3
Dorothy Jones Burrus

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: A THREE YEAR COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO TEACHING THE MECHANICS OF LANGUAGE

Major Field: Elementary Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Tulsa, Oklahoma, April 20, 1919, the daughter of Ada L. and J. N. Jones. Married Raymond Hershel Burrus, May 4, 1941; two children, Raymond and JoBeth.

Education: Attended grade school, junior high and high school in Tulsa, Oklahoma. Graduated from Tulsa Central High School, May, 1937; attended Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Oklahoma; received Bachelor of Science degree from Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, May, 1941; received Master of Science degree from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, May, 1962; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in May, 1970.

Professional Experience: Taught elementary grades in Charlottesville, Virginia, and in Eufaula, Tulsa, Guthrie, Oklahoma City, and Stillwater, Oklahoma; taught one year as Graduate Assistant in Reading Center, Oklahoma State University, 1961-62; taught one and one-half years as Graduate Assistant in Elementary Education Department, Oklahoma State University, team teaching in the Language Arts and Social Studies courses to prospective student teachers, 1968-1970.

Professional Organizations: National Education Association, Oklahoma Education Association, Delta Kappa Gamma, Mortar Board Alumni, Oklahoma Council of Teachers of English, National Council of Teachers of English, Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development.