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A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL JOURNAL ARTICLES PERTAINING TO COMPOSITION FROM JANUARY 1969 THROUGH SEPTEMBER 1982 AND A RELATED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

The University of Oklahoma PH.D. 1983

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GRADUATE COLLEGE

A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL JOURNAL ARTICLES PERTAINING TO COMPOSITION FROM JANUARY 1969 THROUGH SEPTEMBER 1982 AND A RELATED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

EDNA M. SHOAF

Norman, Oklahoma

1983

A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL JOURNAL ARTICLES PERTAINING TO COMPOSITION FROM JANUARY 1969 THROUGH SEPTEMBER 1982 AND A RELATED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL JOURNAL ARTICLES PERTAINING TO COMPOSITION FROM JANUARY 1969 THROUGH SEPTEMBER 1982 AND A RELATED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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A special tribute is expressed to my mother, whose memory provides inspiration and initiative.

DEDICATION

To my beloved husband

Bill

with whom all things are possible

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A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL JOURNAL ARTICLES PERTAINING TO COMPOSITION FROM JANUARY 1969 THROUGH SEPTEMBER 1982 AND A RELATED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Beginning with the launching of the Russian Sputnik in October of 1957, public attention in our nation focused upon the communication proficiencies of young people graduating our high schools and entering the job market. Employers and other community members expressed grave concern regarding the large numbers of graduates who were unable to read and write in a competent manner, creating a crisis in the discipline of language arts.

A "back-to-the-basics" movement concentrated attention on teachers in this field, both at the primary and secondary levels. It is generally believed that after teachers leave the university climate, a breakdown occurs in dissemination of methods and innovations in the composition/writing instruction process, which could possibly provide direct assistance for the classroom. Vital knowledge produced at the higher education level and by other professionals in this discipline does not reach the instructor in the field. This available literature would be more helpful to teachers of composition if it could be systematically organized in order to provide easy access to those in need of the information.

The problem lies in bringing together the material which is available and the individual who requires the information. Technological data is so voluminous that teachers have difficulty in efficient retrieval and organization of the

material.[1] The mass of information produced increases exponentially. It has been estimated that as many as 4,000 new periodicals are produced every year, with approximately three new technical journals entering publication each day and only one being abandoned. This would result in at least 1,000,000 journals in publication at the end of this century.[2]

The inadequacy of current methods of dissemination concerns both the delay between acceptance and publication of an article, estimated at up to three years, and the retrieval delay caused by the time required to search for information. The ultimate result could be researchers who are having to rediscover what has already been discovered. A systematic method is necessary so that information can be effectively and efficiently stored and retrieved.[3] In order to provide for the specialized needs of teachers of composition, there must be "timely and convenient dissemination, exchange, and retrieval" of those specific materials vital to their undertakings.[4]

One role of information is to aid in scientific, technical, or other educational activities. Any listing of such materials is of value if it tells readers what they want to know and also gives information on other related materials which are available. Unfortunately, many individuals know what they need but are not sure where it is or even if it exists.[5] Therefore, there is a need for this systematic organization of literature so that teachers of composition can retrieve that which is imperative to their discipline.

The bulk of the research literature concerning composition instruction should be reported in those professional journals whose audience is elementary and secondary language arts instructors. Unfortunately, this is not always the case. Authors vie for publication in the few prestigious publications, and the remainder of the major articles are scattered in a random manner throughout the

other existing periodicals. If the author's chosen periodical is relatively obscure, then the researcher may overlook a valuable resource. Since a requirement for tenure in most universities is publication, and since the most prestigious periodicals have a limited amount of space, then chances are indeed good that important information will be published in relatively unknown journals.[6]

At the present time, a researcher using the available resources, such as Reader's Guide or Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE), must search patiently, year by year, through a seemingly endless listing of titles which overlap under major headings such as those found in CIJE: Writing (Composition), Writing Evaluation, Writing Exercises, Writing Instruction, Writing Processes, Writing Readiness, Writing Research, and Writing Skills. If the interest is in some area of evaluation, for instance, the same article may possibly be listed under four or five different headings. The sheer mass of material is overwhelming, particularly for teachers pressed for time, but in need of immediate help.

One way to systematize the available data is through content analysis. This type of analysis has gained increasing popularity in recent years, as indicated by the fact that only fifty-three dissertations using this method are listed in the Comprehensive Dissertation Index during the period from 1862 through 1972. However, from 1973 to 1977 forty-one are listed, with eleven found in the 1979 supplement, five in the 1980 supplement, and eight in the 1981 supplement. The utilization of this research tool highlights the valuable contributions being made in the area.

Another systematic method is through the development of focused bibliographies, especially those which are annotated, such as The William S. Gray Research Collection in Reading. The literature has failed to produce either analyses of literature related to the improvement of composition instruction, or

an annotated bibliography of use to teachers of composition, unless these are to be found within one narrow area or one restricted time frame.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to ascertain trends or emphases in content, institutional and regional affiliations of authors, and educational levels of articles published within the thirteen-year period from January of 1969 through September of 1982. A secondary purpose was to produce an annotated bibliography for the use of elementary and secondary composition teachers. The result of this study should increase awareness of existing materials in the field of language arts and focus attention on areas of inadequate stress and need for further research.

The analysis of content should highlight those areas considered most important both by editors of and contributors to professional journals. The appended bibliography should provide a valuable tool for those language arts teachers interested in locating data pertaining to composition.

This study was intended to provide educators and researchers with a comprehensive and succinct review and compilation of the composition instruction-focused literature during the period from January 1966 to September 1982. The study also aimed to aid elementary and secondary teachers by providing them with a current, accessible, and easily usable resource for improving instruction in composition. It was assumed that such a study would facilitate better use of the available literature, a necessity in the improvement of composition instruction.

Statement of the Problem

This study is designed to systematically analyze journal articles related to the teaching of composition as a basis for the development of a relevant annotated bibliography.

More specifically, this study will seek to answer the following questions:

(1) What patterns, in terms of teaching methodology, curricula and evaluation, innovative programs, and student motivation, characterized the composition instruction-focused articles published during the period from January 1969 through September 1982?

(2) What trends, in terms of the author's educational affiliation and geographical location and educational levels of the articles, are discernible in the journal articles written for teachers of composition?

(3) Which of the articles, based on selection criteria, are potentially most beneficial to composition teachers in the elementary and secondary schools?

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to those journal articles which are a part of the ERIC-CIJE computerized retrieval system. The sources were also limited to the time-period between January 1969 and September 1982. The annotated bibliography was limited to those articles relating to elementary and secondary composition instruction found in the journals published by the National Council of Teachers of English.

Need for the Study

A page-by-page search of pertinent categories listed in Dissertation Abstracts International failed to locate a content analysis of journal articles relating to composition instruction which was published in the period between January 1969 and September 1982. To the best knowledge of this researcher, no bibliography of these articles is available. Teachers in the field of composition need a systematic, organized method of utilizing research and information found in journal articles. This study will provide such a system in the form of a content analysis and related annotated bibliography.

Methodology

This study utilizes content analysis focused on an item-by-item review of the articles identified by the ERIC-CIJE computerized retrieval system between the years of January 1969 and September 1982. Because this is a descriptive study, data was systematically collected, tabulated, tabled, and graphed, and was reported in the form of frequencies and percentages. Findings were reported and conclusions based upon the data were drawn. Recommendations for further study were then made.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

From the time of our ancient ancestors, shrouded in the mists of antiquity, the humanness in people appears to have had a strong desire to reach out and touch others of the same species, to communicate thoughts and ideas, to speak of mighty deed and exploits, and to leave a message for future generations to know who once walked the old pathways, that past accomplishments might not be forgotten. From the picture writing on the stones of long-deserted cave dwellings to the bulging tiers of modern libraries, the history of the human race is a legacy of beauty, power, and resourcefulness. There are also, regrettably, records of the atrocities which human beings have fostered upon each other in their greed and lust for power and material possessions.

This vast, numberless treasure would be a meaningless jumble if there were no system of cataloguing, no way of finding the required information on a particular subject. In order to profit from the mistakes of past generations and build upon their accomplishments, each individual must have access to the accumulated records and documents.

However, a simple listing of titles or of authors does not contain sufficient information for the serious researcher to locate a precise piece of needed data. Precious time must be spent in searching numerous resources, and even then, it is easy to overlook an important author because that particular work was not listed in the bibliography being used. Bibliographers must, therefore, do all in their power to aid the searcher's quest. This may be done in several ways, including annotation and content analysis.

In the end, after authors have recorded their information and bibliographers have compiled their catalogues, someone must make the effort to find and read what was written, or energy has been expended which produces few results. This chapter will examine the art and science of bibliography, the area of content analysis, and the reading habits of professionals in the public schools.

The Art and Science of Bibliography

Beginning with the invention of the printing press in 1459, which vastly increased wide spread dissemination of information, and building upon the revolutionary achievements of notables such as Copernicus, Newton, Darwin, and Einstein, the accumulation of wisdom has surpassed the ability of any individual to assimilate or correlate in an efficient manner. The most wondrous inventions, the most elaborate, marvelous and ingenious ideas are of little value if they are not readily available for contemplation and use by the general public. The challenge has been, and still is, to devise systems of storage and retrieval which allow the user to rapidly and easily locate the precise bit of necessary information from accumulated resources.

The bibliography is one of the simplest, yet most helpful, devices for assisting individuals in making sense out of what could otherwise be chaos. The beginning of bibliography preceded the printing press by several centuries. The Benedictine Monastery of St. Gall possesses a listing of the lives of saints begun in the ninth century, B. C., and in the second century, B. C. Galen compiled a classified bibliography of his own work, as did the Venerable Bede in 731. Much of the early work of what is known as bibliography was done by men of the Church.[7]

With the invention of the printing press, bibliography was to change considerably. The first compilations were simple listings of the books available from each publishing house, but with the many thousands of volumes being produced, some other method was required. The researcher of today is fortunate to find bibliographies for government publications, journals and periodicals, newspapers, paperback books, and speciality bibliographies for such diverse subjects as music, architecture, philosophy, and religion, among many others. Some of the greatest achievements in this important field are the bibliographies of bibliographies which contain listings of the bibliographies to be found in a multitude of subject areas. However, a bibliography containing only the titles of books or articles, along with the author's name, is not sufficient for many purposes. "It is . . . difficult to think of anything more lifeless or insignificant than plain titles."[8]

Bibliography has followed an uneven pathway through the course of history. Beginning with those patient monks, working laboriously by hand, the need has been to standardize so that lay persons can understand the system. The university professor in Moscow may be interested in the same problems of teaching elementary children to read as the first grade teacher in Chicago. Resources must accommodate their similiar needs.

Sources differ on who deserves the title of "father" of bibliography. While Conrad Gesner is mentioned by some, Besterman feels that this honor belongs to Johan Tritheim. Working in the library of the monastery, which he entered in 1482, he added an alphabetical index to an existing main chronological order of authors ". . . thus establishing a principle which remained effective for many decades . . . ."[9]

The monumental contributions made by Conrad Gesner to the field were during the first half of the sixteenth century. He arranged material under twenty-one different categories in the four areas of language arts, history and the "Useful Arts," mathematics, and the final combination of philosophy, law, medicine and theology. His names for the four were Conversational, Mathematical, Liberal, and Substantial.[10]

National bibliography developed in the middle sixteenth century, and by the end of that century, many bibliographers had produced listings of the works of English, Italian, German, Greek, French, Spanish, and Dutch authors. During this time all the main types of universal, national, regional personal, and subject bibliographies were published.

The end of the sixteenth century marked the beginning of a new era in the history of bibliography. This was a definite turning point in the field. The first part of the next century saw a growing use of bibliography and a demand for different and varied types. However, not until the eighteenth century was there recognition of bibliography as a distinct discipline and an important resource for researchers. The science of bibliography began to mature in the seventeenth century, and after that time period, ". . . systematic bibliographies tended to become more and more specialized."[11]

So far as was determined by the author of this study, no individual has ever produced a bibliography which can be considered complete.

> The ideal of a complete bibliography has been approached for one period only, and that is the pioneer period of printing, reckoned for convenience as ending at the end of the year 1500. So early as the end of the eighteenth century, Georg Panzer produced his annuals of the presses of this and the next generation.[12]

In the preface to his publication dated July 1, 1814, Horne refers to the "infant science of Bibliography."[13] Some of the bibliographies in existence at that time had been created for the express purpose of listing books and other materials which were deemed by some in positions of power as not fit for comsumption by the general public. Censors examined documents to see that they contained ". . . nothing repugnant to the faith and to good morals."[14] Particularly in countries which were predominantly Catholic were to be found listings and catalogues called Expurgatory Indices. These contained titles which were judged unsuitable. Some material was positively condemned, while others needed corrections in order to be removed from the prohibited listings.[15]

Prior to the twentieth century, the study of what was considered to be "formal" bibliography was concerned with such matters as which edition of a work was most valuable, whether corrections had been made in the manuscript or in the proof, or whether a later edition was printed from the earlier one.[16] Many of the earliest editions were identified only by a title. If an author were identified, the name might have been a pseudonym, particularly if the author were female. Many times such identification marks as dates, editions, and publishing companies were omitted. The bibliographer, then, had to expend much time and effort in trying to determine this data.

Up until this time, there were definite rules and guidelines for bibliographers to follow, little room for differences of opinion, and several people doing the same work would, theoretically, draw the same conclusions. Those involved in bibliographical investigation needed to have a thorough knowledge of the way in which books were made, along with the printing and editing processes. Around the turn of the century, a new type of investigation was begun, that of textual criticism, which required subjective opinions on the part of the bibliographer.[17]

According to Esdaile, the "chief source" of bibliography of early books printed in the United States was that done by Evans, with dates from 1639-1820. He also states that few, if any, of these early editions have gone undiscovered because of "American patriotism."[18] Fortunate, then, is the researcher seeking material published in the United States because it almost certainly will appear somewhere in a bibliography. Other parts of the world are not so fortunate; but, of course, this nation's history has been brief in comparison with that of many other countries.

Many services are available today for researchers in the area of periodicals. Since the advent of microfilm and microfische, storage and retrieval has been simplified. Universal Microfilms International contains three collections of American periodicals dating from 1741. Easy acccess to the collection is made possible through title, subject, editor, and microfilm reel number indices. Many rare eighteenth century periodicals have been made available to the reader through this valuable guide. Other access tools and bibliographic sources in this area include Poole's Index to Periodical Literature, 19th Century Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, 1890-1899, A History of American Magazines by Frank Luther Mott, and A History and Bibliography of American Magazines,1810-1820, by Neal L. Edgar.[19]

The William S. Gray Research Collection in Reading is a massive compilation of annotated articles in the field of reading. According to the editors, this bibliography has been ranked by many experts as ". . . the most comprehensive compilation of current and retrospective published research in any domain in the field of education."[20] There were 9,326 titles in the collection in 1979, and 600 full-text documents are added to the microfiche section each year. There are

162 categories under seven main headings in the subject index, but titles can also be searched using the author/alphabetical index or author/chronological index.

The term "bibliography" covers a wide area of information concerning books and other published materials, depending upon whether one is actively involved in the preparation of the bibliography or merely a user of what is available. While leaders in the field may assign slightly different names to various divisions, three common ones used are "analytical," "historical," and "systematic." "Analytical" concerns a detailed analysis and description of the structure of a book. "Historical" covers methods of book production, and "systematic" refers to a preparation of lists of printed materials.[21]

Another type of bibliographical work, sometimes done by private collectors and concerning the work of one author or of one genre, is called descriptive. This type of bibliography concerns a full-scale analysis of the publication. The result of such careful documentation is a valuable tool for researchers.[22]

Horne divided bibliography into four main divisions: Literary History, Bibliography or Elementary Bibliography, General Bibliography, and Professional or Special Bibliography. The first category included the history of the authors and of subjects being discussed. Elementary Bibliography concerned the material in the publication, the era during which the author was writing, the choice of different editions, and the author's character and qualifications. General Bibliography was the science concerned with knowledge of books, their different editions and degrees of rarity, curiosity, real or reputed value, and the rank they should hold in a system of classification. These catalogues discussed every kind of book and were in alphabetical order, by subject, or some other arbitrary system. The final division of Professional or Special Bibliography concerned only one class of books and included all the works published on a specific subject. The

recommended divisions of the library itself were Theology, Philosophy, History, and Literature.[23]

Schneider wrote that bibliographies were tools for finding needed materials quickly and easily. There were no hard and fast rules which determined form and content. The bibliography which proves to be the most valuable should be compiled with the purpose of the user in mind. Classification of content should satisfy the particular needs which the bibliographer is addressing. For this author, there were three parts in the preparation of a bibliography: Collecting, Entering, and Arranging.[24]

Collecting of titles to be included in a particular bibliography must be concerned with the sources of the material, the type of material, and the scope of the listing. Entering the collected information requires a description or "composite picture" of the material, and finally, arranging is the decision of how to systematically list the material according to form or content.[25]

Newton expressed concern that care be taken to search out all important editions of books, with emphasis on "important." When bibliographers spend countless hours trying to discover if a misspelled word is due to printing error or was deliberately used by the author, then that process is "pseudo-bibliography" and not worth the effort because errors and printing blunders may be found in any edition. The focus of bibliography should be the content of the material and any "relevant" omissions or additions between editions.[26]

There are many kinds of bibliographers, some which deal only with books and others with periodicals. All the works of one author may be listed, or annotations of more specific information concerning contents may be included. Efficient bibliographies should be consistent both in purpose and in treatment of the material. The contents should be based on ". . . an idea which is a real

contribution to knowledge."[27] The more material given in a bibliography, the more valuable it becomes to the reader. Any type of classification system should ". . . try to liberate as many as possible of the ideas contained in a book or document, regardless of the economics of normal catalogue-building."[28]

Those materials which are annotated are the most valuable because the reader is given an idea of the contents. According to Savage, the term "annotation" means the process which describes those main ideas or portions of a work using analysis or criticism, or in some cases, the two are used together so as to provide the reader with a precise picture of what is included in the work.[29]

Horne made some interesting observations concerning which books should be included in a library, and how to determine if works were "good" or "bad". His words demonstrate some of the changes which have occurred through the years in this field:

> If the author be known to possess the requisite talents and information; or should have already published any esteemed work on the subject . . . . If the book be on a subject that requires great reading, it may be presumed good, if the author had a copious library, or could have access to one; or if he lived in a place where books were not wanting; though in this case there is danger lest he indulge in too many quotations, especially . . . if the author be a lawyer . . . . A book, the composition of which occupied a long time, cannot often fail of being good.[30]

The task, then, of the bibliographer was not only to create listings of materials but also to exclude material which was not "good."

Despite the work of untold numbers of bibliographers, it is "virtually impossible" to know how many editions of books and manuscripts are in existence today. There are over 50,000 new English-language titles being printed each

year. Add to this the reprint business, new forms of publication such as microform, periodical literature, and the many languages which had almost no literature at the beginning of the twentieth century, but which are now being published, and the total number of volumes reaches incredible proportions.[31]

The most difficult bibliographical control to maintain is in the area of periodicals because of the enormous annual output.[32] So much research and evaluation has been done that individuals need assistance in order to utilize all available resources.[33] For instance, in the field of language arts, the four areas of reading, writing, speaking and listening each contain distinctive information, and within each of these areas are specialized concerns depending upon whether one is interested in elementary, secondary or higher education.

Although periodicals are expensive, difficult to store, and awkward to use, they ". . . continue to be perhaps the most significant single element in the pattern of recorded knowledge other than books itself . . . ."[34] There are so many of these publications that it is impossible to determine just how many are in print at any one time. Out of this incredible accumulation, only a "relatively few" make a significant contribution.[35] Further complication is added with each separate facet of any one area, such as composition. The concerns of a university professor when evaluating a freshman composition are entirely different from those of the third grade instructor who is teaching basic paragraph structure. An annotated bibliography is one method which provides these professionals with a comparatively fast and efficient means of locating the resource required.

> Among the few universals that apply to man is this: That all men —no matter of what race or rank — are continually engaged in making sense out

of the world about them. Although men may tolerate doubt, few can tolerate meaninglessness.[36]

People look for patterns and structure in the world around them; they place sensations in categories in order to gain meaning from the continual bombardment of stimuli. Even in a relatively uncomplicated society, one must define, categorize, and evaluate elements of the environment in order to survive. During the past two centuries, humankind's accumulated knowledge has taken a quantum leap, greatly exceeding any other time period in history, and thus necessitating, even more, an individual's ability to gain meaning from this wealth of information. This study will provide a tool to enhance meaning for elementary and secondary teachers of composition.

Content Analysis

"The technique known as content analysis . . . attempts to characterize the meanings in a given body of discourse in a systematic and quantitative fashion."[37] Although other authors may use slightly different words to describe the process, the meaning is still approximately the same. Content analysis is not a field or discipline, but a method for studying problems in different fields and subjects. According to Albig:

> The most valuable use of studies of content . . . is in noting trends and changes in content. Systems of classification may be inadequate and unstandardized; nevertheless, if a system is used consistently over a time period valuable facts may appear.[38]

When compared to bibliography, content analysis as a research tool has not had a particularly long history. This method appeared in use in the social sciences as a tool for determining trends or patterns in materials such as

newspapers — where most early studies were done --, and was later expanded to include all areas of communication such as books, magazines, television, radio, movies, speeches, and letters. Eighteenth-century Sweden was the site of one of the first "well-documented" cases of quantitative analysis of printed material.[39]

German analysts in the nineteenth century developed a system somewhat like current classical content analysis. As long ago as 1744, religious texts and concepts were studied by this method; however, the name "content analysis" came from schools of journalism, which began using the techniques in the study of newspapers at the beginning of the twentieth century.[40]

Rosengren indicated that the history of quantitative content analysis in the Scandinavian countries began somewhere in the eighteenth century, and then discussed the international aspects of the process. European and American research in the social sciences have developed along similiar lines, but at differing paces during different time periods. Researchers on The Continent dominated during the period between World War I and World War II. After World War II Americans rose to dominance. Another wave of continental influence occurred at the middle and end of the 1960's. Qualitative analysis was the forte of the social-philosophic tradition maintained on The Continent, while quantitative analysis was most practiced by Americans.[41]

This method of research came into use in the United States around the turn of the nineteenth century, being used by students of journalism, and later by sociologists, to study the content of American newspapers. The burgeoning newspaper business caused concern over the extent of their influence and the rise and fall of public opinion, and proved to be a good way to assess the markets of the time. Content analysis grew as those in the field of sociology began to use the opinion poll and do survey research. Another use which quickly followed

was the examination of various stylistic features in poetry and prose. The readibility of material for adult education was also analyzed.[42]

During the Second World War, content analysis was applied to major newspapers in a search for propaganda, particularly that emerging from suspected individuals and organizations. Such analysis was actually accepted in court as legal evidence.[43] After the war, this method spread to other disciplines, but communication has remained its predominant user.[44]. According to Holsti, "Content analysis opens up for the social scientist and humanist a wide variety of opportunities for systematic use of the most pervasive form of evidence about human affairs —the content of communication."[45]

Books written about content analysis began to appear during the 1940's, and the sophistication of the method continued to increase. The number of studies also accelerated. A major development for the area during the 1950's was Berelson's Content Analysis in Communication Research, which focused attention on the method.[46] However, according to Budd and Thorp:

> There appears to have been little methodological ground-breaking in content analysis since the 1955 conference .... a thorough search of the literature of sociology and communication disclosed little that could be labeled as departure from the traditional methods and applications of content analysis. .... It is important to point out that content analysis has been, is, and probably will remain one of the major tools in the communication analyst's kit.[47]

The advent of computers has significantly increased the ability of researchers to analyze content. This method of research has become exceedingly scientific and precise. Users of the tool have become increasingly concerned that the method is valid and reliable, as it has expanded to include psycho-

logical, sociological, and political areas of concern. Krippendorff sees content analysis as currently being at a "cross-roads." Users may continue to utilize the counting method which has become familiar, or growing concern with qualitative statements may continue.[48] The future of this tool should prove interesting.

The form most often used by content analysis studies is the simple reporting of results through the use of percentages, proportions, or ratios.[49] Berelson also identified four characteristics, "syntactic-and semantic dimensions," "objectivity," "system," and "quantification," which are required for the "proper" definition of content analysis: (1) The "syntactic-and-semantic dimensions" of language concern the analyzation of what is said rather than why it was said in a particular manner, the author's motive, the effect on the reader, or the intended effect. (2) "Objectivity" concerns whether different analysts can apply any set of categories to the same body of content and obtain like results. (3) "System" states that all occurrences of a category must be considered, if any are analyzed. Also, any analysis should be properly designed so that relevant data, which relates to a scientific problem or hypothesis, is obtained. (4) "Quantification" is the stipulation that numbers of some kind, such as percentages, show the extent to which the content contains the analytic categories, so that emphasis, as well as omissions, is documented.[50]

While quantitative analysis is the use of percentages, ratios, or other numbers applied to content, qualitative analysis tries to determine whether the author has used unusual word spellings, particular symbolism, patterns of sentence structure or other aspects of the writing which give clues to hidden meanings in the material. The analyst may study the intended effects upon the readers or the actual intent of the author. The content may simply be a means of supplying messages, rather than the words being the message.[51]

There are five major units which analysts may choose to use in their reporting of content: words, themes, characters, items, and space-and-time measures. These are counted and reported in percentages, numbers, or ratios. The unit which has been found to be used most often by analysts is the item; this unit is particularly relevant whenever there are only small or insignificant differences within the item. This is particularly true of news stories which are concerned with such categories as crime, foreign affairs, the labor movement, or internal affairs. When broad content differences are being studied, the item is extremely convenient.[52]

Categories are the classes which analysts use to group material. The development of categories requires a good deal of study and concentration, and each piece of content will, perhaps, require different categories. The imagination must be used, and this is, of course, subjective. There are clues to a set of categories in the nature of the research problem, the goals or hypotheses of the study, the content of the material, and the type of analysis used.[53]

"Since the categories contain the substance of the investigation, a content analysis can be no better than its system of categories."[54] Although it has been suggested by other authors that standardized categories be used, Berelson rejects that approach, stating that those categories should be used which are meaningful to the particular piece of research being conducted. The subject matter category is used most often; this simply tells what the material is about.[55]

Content analysis has several other uses, including the analyzation of differences in international communication content. For instance, the treatment of the American colonies' War for Independence from Britain has been treated differently in accounts given by writers in England from those in the United States.[56] This might be true of the differing points of view of any two sides in

a major confrontation between nations, states, countries, or any set of adversaries because of the ethnocentrism of those involved.

Different writers in the same or different fields of communication will also treat the same event from different perspectives. Radio, television, and newspapers will exhibit varying degrees of what is known as "sensationalism" when describing the exact same situation. This can easily be discovered through the use of content analysis.[57]

One of the expectations of this study is to find trends similiar to those found by Delougaz in 1949. In that study concerning writing in the Soviet Union, the number of titles in the scientific field rose, while those in the humanities fell during the period from 1913 to 1941.[58] The concerns of writers in the field of composition should also rise and fall across time as different methods rise and then decline in vogue.

Content analysts may compute either the substance of the content or the form of the content. This study will examine the substance of the content, particularly in noting trends or changes within the composition instruction process.

The Reading Habits of School Professionals

This subject has received relatively little study and research according to Mour.[59] However, some information was available and has been documented. These studies have been done in various parts of the nation and with varying numbers of subjects. Some of the research areas were identified and others were not, but patterns were found which offer insight into this topic.

A study by Balow indicated that most graduate students in education mainly read those journals which are given free with membership in a profes sional organization. Two-hundred and sixty liberal arts graduates taking a fifth year of professional education, professional-education undergraduates, and professional-education graduate students in Minnesota were surveyed to determine the magazines which they regularly read. The similiarities were greater than the differences of choices, and "escape" reading was predominant. Some exceptions to this were reading done in the NEA Journal and the state educational journal.

A study done with students at Indiana State University enrolled in The Teaching of Geography in the Secondary Schools required that students submit a weekly report concerning anything they had read related to the teaching of either geography or earth science. Students were made aware of different sources of information during discussion periods held at various times throughout the semester. Two hundred and fifty-eight reports were submitted, and a total of one hundred and thirteen sources had been used. Of the journals reported, twenty-three percent were layman journals or those which are available at most newsstands. Eight percent were professional journals which carry "articles of high quality original research." Seven and one-tenth percent were educational journals, "whose major function is to present articles of educational theory and practice." Of all the sources used, fifty-four percent were journals, and "almost one in four reports were drawn from journals considered readily available to and comprehended by" anyone who was at the secondary school level. Of the sixty-three reports, forty-three were from Newsweek (15) and Time (28).[61]

One-hundred elementary schools in Minnesota were surveyed in another study, and it was found that teachers read significantly more of those journals which give pragmatic ideas which can be directly implemented in the classroom.

These journals are also the ones in which few college and university faculty publish. It appears that although individuals in the field of higher education do the research and are knowledgable about any current trends, particular issues, or innovations, their expertise is not being communicated to the classroom practioner. This leaves a considerable gap between theory and practice. Teachers reported that they did not read very much because of the feeling that the material found in many current periodicals was of no direct or immediate value in the classroom. There is a high correlation between what teachers read and whether the school library subscribed to the magazine. Teachers also reported little time to read, and older teachers tended to read the most. There was a tendency for all individuals to read what was easily assessible. The most read magazines were Instructor, Teacher, Today's Education, Childhood Education, Reading Teacher, and Language Arts.[62]

One-hundred South Dakota elementary schools were randomly selected and surveyed for one study. Forty-two of these had, while forty did not have, professional libraries in the school. On the average, five professional journals were received by the school library. The least read were theoretical and abstract articles, while articles with a "how-to-do-it" approach were read most often. Journals named by elementary teachers were Today's Education, Instructor, Teacher, and Learning.[63]

A survey of 741 Tennessee teachers showed that fifty percent read professional journals "fewer than thirty minutes in a typical week." Only ten percent read more than two hours per week, and a large percent of these individuals were those who held a doctorate or a specialist degree. The more experienced teachers read more, along with the specialists and those with doctorate degrees. Those whose principals encouraged reading read more, as did

those in schools where discussion of articles was done during faculty meetings. Periodicals were available in many schools, with eighty-five percent of suburban schools, eighty-two percent of urban, and seventy-seven percent of rural schools reporting their school libraries purchased those materials.

There was a perceived difference in the availability of reading materials between less and more-experienced teachers. Eighty-five percent of those with ten or more years experience reported materials available in school, while eighty-one percent with six to ten years experience, eighty-three percent with three to five years, and only sixty-one percent with less than three years of experience indicated that materials were available. More experienced teachers read at home, and less experienced individuals read at school. This was true for both males and females. Fewer men than women said materials were available, and as the level of education increased, so did the level of awareness of materials in the school.[64]

A survey of one-hundred and twenty-six randomly selected teachers in one county in Illinois found that teachers with higher degrees and in larger schools read the most professional materials. Eighty-five percent of the journals read by high school instructors, and fifty percent of those read by junior high teachers, are subject-specific. Time was the most frequent reason for not reading more, but a key factor was availability of materials. Only the larger schools were likely to have a professional library. The majority of respondents wanted to see "fewer theoretical articles and more practical, hands-on materials." They also suggested that they would appreciate knowing of "current trends, practices, issues, and research."[65]

Two-hundred and twenty-four graduate students in the School of Education at the University of Louisville were surveyed for a Kentucky study. For the

most part, they tended to read pragmatic materials in educational journals. Top-ranked were Instructor, Teacher, and Today's Education. The teachers recommended professional libraries for teachers, article reviews, and discussion groups to enhance interest in reading professional materials. It was found that teachers read a minimal amount of both professional and nonprofessional materials; less than half these individuals read a professional journal on a regular basis. In order to lower the gap between practice and theory, the author of this article stated that college and university faculty need to do more pragmatic-type writing and publish in those journals which teachers read.[66]

The Teacher Opinion Poll done by the NEA Research Division in the spring of 1970 showed that teachers at the secondary level read subject-matter journals published by various subject-matter membership organizations. Elementary teachers read teacher-idea magazines which were "helpful" and which offered "how-to-do-it" aids to teachers.[67]

Four-hundred and twenty-four principals in elementary schools in fifty states answered questions concerning the availability of professional reading materials in the schools and the reading habits of teachers for this study. Professional books and periodicals in their school libraries were reported by 76.9 percent. Ninety-seven different journals, "exclusive of state organs," were reported. Those titles mentioned most frequently were Instructor, Grade Teacher, Elementary School Journal, Elementary English, Childhood Education, Education Digest, Arts and Activities, School Arts Magazine, Arithmetic Teacher, and PTA Magazine. Forty-one percent said these periodicals are used "very extensively," thirty-two percent, "often," thirteen percent, "average or moderate," and six percent, "infrequently." The size of the school made no difference as to whether there was a professional collection, nor did the type of

community as to rural or urban. ". . . the evidence generally substantiates the belief that the typical teacher in the elementary schools is not an avid reader of current professional literature."[68]

Reading Breaks, a special reading program for students, was begun in Maryland in 1970 in order to ". . . produce secondary students who can read and do read. An interesting by-product has been the increased number of teachers who also do read." One of the results of this study showed that teachers were reading more material that their students had recommended than from any other source. These materials were in areas of personal interest. This program did not appear to affect the professional reading of those teachers who selected and read the same materials on a continuous basis.[69]

The Simpson study was originally begun to see how well teachers could read. Seven-hundred and forty-six teachers in eleven representative counties of a southeastern state showed that two-thirds of the teachers spent less than two hours per month reading professional magazine materials. One in seven spent no time at all on magazine reading. This author cited several possible causes for the non-reading habits of teachers, including the fact that they ". . . have not been taught how to get the printed materials which will be of definite help in solving their day-by-day problems."[70]

A study of 674 public school educators was done in the Maritime provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Islands. The results of the survey indicated that approximately 19 percent regularly read journals of both professional and general interest, while 13 percent read no journals at all. Of the 32.7 percent who read the Instructor, only 7.7 percent subscribed to the journal; the others read it when it was available in the school. The most popular

professional journals were Instructor, Journal of Education, Learning, The Reading Teacher, and Education Digest.

These teachers were particularly concerned with materials of a pragmatic nature and those which discussed materials and teaching methods. They were interested in other topics and issues, but they were not inclined toward articles of a theoretical nature or those which were research-oriented. These educators were quite similiar in their reading habits and interests across teaching levels, levels of teaching experience, gender, and disciplines.[71]

Salamonis discussed the problems which teachers encounter when trying to follow current developments in their disciplines. She indicated that one of the best methods for this was through a carefully planned program of study of current literature. However, with so much material available, the difficulty is in selection. Suggested aids for teachers included education indices, Book Review Digest, newspaper reviews and those reviews found in professional journals, plus other bibliographical materials. A final suggestion was that teachers needed to improve their own reading habits while they were striving to improve the reading habits of their students.[72]

A summary of these studies indicates that at the present time, teachers do not spend much time reading professional materials. However, if materials containing pragmatic articles are readily available, or if they can easily secure such materials, then, they will likely read them. Those periodicals mentioned most often, and the ones which contain information on composition instruction, were Instructor, Today's Education, and Teacher. This information gives impetus to the need for a convenient guide, such as an annotated bibliography, for teachers to utilize in locating articles which they will find useful.

CHAPTER III

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

Introduction

This study was designed to seek answers to the following questions: (1) What patterns, in terms of teacher-related content, characterized the composition/writing-focused articles published during the period from 1969 to 1982? (2) What patterns, in terms of author and journal-related factors are discernable in these articles? (3) Which of these articles are potentially most useful to composition teachers at the elementary and secondary school levels?

Content analysis, ". . . a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication,"[73] was selected as the most appropriate method for answering the research questions listed. The data for the study was obtained through the ERIC-CIJE computerized retrieval system. The raw data were grouped as appropriate to permit the analyses necessary to answer the basic research questions and permit the development of charts and tables to highlight important findings. A bibliography, included in Appendix G, and based on analyses of the basic data, was developed.

Procedure

This author chose 1969 as the beginning year for the articles included in this study because it was the first year in which articles dealing with composition instruction were entered into the ERIC-CIJE system. The ending year of 1982 was chosen because of a desire to produce the most recent data possible.

The thesaurus for ERIC-CIJE indicated eight major categories for composition/writing: Writing (Composition), Writing Evaluation, Writing Exercises, Writing Instruction, Writing Processes, Writing Readiness, Writing Research, and Writing Skills. The initial ERIC-CIJE search revealed 5,870 articles on composition alone. This number exceeded the financial capacity of this researcher. The decision was made to discard several sub-categories of writing/composition. The sub-category, Grammar, which contains 2,624 entries was not used because it was clearly consistently popular. Neither were Spelling (424 articles), Sentences (517 articles), Sentence Structure (838 articles), Creative Writing (480 articles), nor Literary Styles (546 articles) included, following similiar reasoning. Thus, the final sample of 809 articles received for inclusion in this study dealt with relatively non-traditional emerging aspects of writing/composition instruction.

Fifty-five articles were not used in this study because they were published in foreign magazines, although they were listed as being written in English. Sixty-three articles were unacceptable because they were not directly concerned with the composition process. This left a total of 691 articles for use in this study.

Each article received from the ERIC-CIJE search, and deemed pertinent to this study, was analyzed to determine the following information: (1) the educational level of the article, (2) the year and month of publication, (3) publication title, (4) author's name and sex, (5) educational affiliation of the author, (6) geographical location of the author, (7) any trends or patterns of concerns across time, (8) and those particular articles which would be most beneficial to elementary and secondary teachers of composition.

A card was prepared for each journal, and all of the articles published by each journal were filed together. A page-by-page search was conducted of journals subscribed to by the University of Oklahoma libraries in order to determine which journals were available at that institution. Call numbers of those journals available were placed on each card and the material was divided into two sections: those journals available in the library and those unavailable. A systematic search was then begun for all available articles . Each article was reviewed and information recorded on the cards included the educational level of the material, the educational affiliation of the author, the location of the educational affiliation, and the month and year of publication.

Those journals not available in the library were placed in a separate category and their articles were only included in the data concerning trends and patterns of concern. Any missing issues of journals were noted, and a longitudinal search was conducted to determine if they actually were missing or were merely misplaced.

Each of the articles was analyzed to determine in which category it should be placed. This preliminary analysis yielded a high number of categories, so a process of reassessment was done in order to produce more conciseness among categories. Several categories were combined: Technical Writing, Business Writing, and Legal Writing were considered to be related to highly specialized fields of composition and were, therefore, combined into the one category of Business Communication. Theories and Philosophies was combined into the one category of Theories. All articles pertaining to the use of computers, technology in composition, and the use of audiovisual aids were labeled Audiovisual Communication. The category, Workshops, includes all articles concerned with either workshops or conferences, and Punctuation

includes capitalization. A second, and then a final, analysis was done on all articles to determine that each was in the most feasable category.

A card was prepared for each category, and recorded on the card was the following information: journal title, author's name and sex, year of publication, and educational level. The categories were numbered, and the proper number was placed on each article.

The review of literature revealed that teachers read those journals which are content-related to their discipline and which are included in the membership fee for joining professional organizations. The National Council of Teachers of English is the official organization for teachers of composition, and their journals accounted for 34.44 percent of the total articles. Therefore, the articles included in Appendix G, Annotated Bibliography, were those articles published by NCTE: English Journal, Language Arts, and Elementary English. The title Elementary English ended in 1975, Volume 52, Number 5. The title of Language Arts was given to this publication in 1975, Volume 52, Number 6. For the purpose of this study, both titles are reported separately.

Category Selection

Each article was categorized as to its contents using those catgories established by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Writing and Composition. Because of the diversity of available material, several categories not available from ERIC were devised by the author. These include Annotated Bibliography, Attitudes and Interests of Students, Audience Awareness, Descriptive Writing, Grammar, Paragraph Construction, Punctuation, and Teacher Role. This author added a portion to Professional Development in order to clarify the content of these articles as to how they pertained to the composition instruction process. The

definition for Technical Writing was combined with that for Business Communication for further clarification of the category of Business Communication. The complete list of content categories and their definitions as used in this study follows. Starred items are those devised by this author.

*1. Annotated Bibliography - characterized by content concerned with and including annotated bibliographies of some restricted areas of language arts.

*2. Attitudes and Interests of Students - characterized by content concerned with utilizing student attitudes and interests to construct more efficient and effective composition teaching methods in the classroom.

*3. Audience Awareness - characterized by content concerned with increasing student awareness that their writing will be read by an audience, stimulating concentration on the production of materials intended specifically for that particular audience.

4. Audiovisual Communications - characterized by content concerned with transmission of instructional information by audio and/or visual systems.

5. Business Communication - characterized by content concerned with the interchange of verbal and nonverbal messages in commercial or mercantile environments; practical applications employed for scientific, engineering, business or other technical purposes.

6. Cognitive processes - characterized by content concerned with processes based on perception, introspection, or memory through which an individual obtains knowledge or conceptual understanding, e.g., perceiving, judging, abstracting, reasoning, imagining, remembering, and anticipating.

7. Creative Writing - characterized by content concerned with fostering the ability of the student to utilize personal experiences, interest level, and vocabulary development, and which stresses heuristic methods of instruction in the composition process.

*8. Descriptive Writing - characterized by content concerned with written discourse using descriptive words intended to convey a clear picture to the reader of what the author is visualizing.

9. English (Second Language) - characterized by content concerned with English as a foreign or non-native language.

10. Essay Tests Usage - characterized by content concerned with tests in which respondents are asked to compose written statements, discus

sions, summaries, or descriptions that are used as measures of knowledge, understanding or writing proficiency.

11. Evaluation - characterized by content concerned with appraising or judging persons, organizations, or things in relation to stated objectives, standards, or criteria.

12. Expository Writing - characterized by content concerned with the form of written prose that deals with definitions, processes, generalizations, and the clarification of ideas and principles with the intent of presenting meanings in readily communicable and unemotive language.

*13. Grammar - characterized by content concerned with the system of word structures and word arrangement, and the system of rules for speaking and writing one's language.

14. Interdisciplinary Composition - characterized by content concerned with the participation or cooperation of two or more disciplines.

15. Journalism - characterized by content concerned with the preparation and dissemination of information on current affairs.

16. Models - characterized by content concerned with representations of objects, principles, processes, or ideas — often used for imitation or emulation.

17. Motivation - characterized by content concerned with forces that initiate, direct, and sustain individual or group behavior in order to satisfy a need or attain a goal.

*18. Paragraph Construction - characterized by content concerned with instruction in the composing process of arranging written discourse into concise, lucid segments, each of which contains a topic sentence and one or more supporting sentences.

19. Prewriting - characterized by content concerned with all activities that precede the first draft of a written work — includes planning, outlining, notetaking, oral discussion, use of visual aids, etc.

20. Professional Development - characterized by content concerned with activities to enhance professional career growth, *includes descriptions of problems encountered by professional writers in the composition process.

*21. Punctuation - characterized by content concerned with the system of using special symbols in written discourse in order to clarify meaning and separate structural units.

22. Remedial Instruction - characterized by content concerned with methods designed to develop specific cognitive skills (usually in the language arts and mathematics) from a deficient level to one appropriate to the educational level and aspirations of the student.

23. Research Methodology - characterized by content concerned with procedures used in making systematic observations or otherwise obtaining data, evidence, or information as part of a research project or study.

24. Rhetorical Criticism - characterized by content concerned with criticism of rhetorical and persuasive discourse.

25. Role Perception (Parents) - characterized by content concerned with awareness of behavior patterns or functions expected of individuals or groups.

26. Sentence-Combining - characterized by content concerned with the combining of a set of kernel sentences into a single complex or compound statement.

*27. Teacher Role - characterized by content concerned with the effect upon student composition through interaction with the teacher in the classroom.

28. Theories - characterized by content concerned with generalizations or principles, supported by substantial evidence but not conclusively established, proposed as explanations of observed phenomena or of the relations in a given body of facts.

29. Writing Processes: Revision - characterized by content concerned with a series of thoughts and behaviors involved in planning, writing, and/or revising written composition.

30. Workshops - characterized by content concerned with programs in which individuals with common interests and problems meet, often with experts, to exchange information and learn needed skills or techniques.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The raw data in this study are reported through tables and figures containing information concerned with seven areas of analysis: (1) content category emphases, (2) regional derivation of articles (3) institutional derivation of articles (4) journal derivation of articles, (5) time derivation of articles (6) educational level deriviation of articles, and (7) gender deriviation of articles. An annotated bibliography of journal articles felt to be of primary interest to elementary and secondary teachers was developed as a result of the analyses. Frequencies and percentages of articles and journals are the primary units for the analysis of the data.

Data were first recorded on index cards or tally sheets and then transferred to master tabulation sheets. For each article identified by the ERIC-CIJE computerized retrieval system, tabulation sheets were developed for transcribing data concerned with the educational level of the article, the year and month of publication, the journal title, the author's name, sex, educational affiliation, and geographical location, any trends or patterns of concerns across time, and those particular articles which would be most beneficial to elementary and secondary teachers of composition, the number of articles available to researchers of composition utilizing the libraries of the University of Oklahoma, and the number of articles having one, two, or multiple authors. These tabulation sheets are included in the body of this chapter and in the appendix section of this manuscript. Line graphs were prepared from these master sheets so that trends

and emphases were visually apparent. These graphs are included in the appendix section of this manuscript.

An ERIC-CIJE computerized search for articles related to composition teaching between the years of January 1969 through September 1982 yielded 879 articles. Of these, sixty-nine were unacceptable for this study because the content was not specifically concerned with the composition teaching process. Sixty articles were published in foreign journals and were, therefore, unavailable to a researcher in the United States. The remaining 750 were deemed suitable for this study. A total of 228 of these articles were unavailable in the libraries of the University of Oklahoma, leaving 522 articles available for content analysis. This information is displayed in the following table:

TABLE 1

Articles Identified by ERIC-CIJE

Articles Available at O.U. Library	522
Articles Unavailable at O.U. Library	228
Unacceptable for study	69
Published in Foreign Journals	60
Articles Used in Study	750
Total Articles Identified	879

Although articles categorized by the title of Grammar were not ordered, thirty articles primarily concerned with this topic were received and were, therefore, assigned to that category for the purpose of this study. Thirty-eight articles were received which could only be categorized as Creative Writing, although this category had been omitted from the search.

One hundred and eighty-two journals were represented by these articles. The University of Oklahoma library system subscribes to 16,957 periodicals.

These facilities include the Health Sciences Center Library, the Law Library, and Bizell Library on the main campus. Fifty of these journals were not found on the subscription lists of this library system, and twenty-seven individual copies were either lost or misplaced in such a manner as to be unavailable to this author. The remaining 105 journals were available for use in this study. The large number of journals and articles unavailable highlights the need for an annotated bibliography, particularly for use by those interested in the field of composition instruction. The following table depicts this information:

TABLE 2
Journals Identified by ERIC-CIJE

Journals available at O.U. Library	105
Journals unavailable at O.U. Library	50
Individual Journal Issues Unavailable	27
Total Journals	182

Instructor and Teacher merged to become Instructor and Teacher in 1981, Volume 90, but they are reported separately for the purpose of this study. Elementary English was renamed Language Arts in 1975, Volume 52, Number 6. These data are also reported separately.

This study was designed to answer the following questions: (1) What patterns, in terms of teaching methodology, curriculua and evaluation, innovative programs, and student motivation characterized the composition-focused articles published during the period from January 1969 through September 1982? (2) What trends, in terms of the author's educational affiliation and geographical location, and educational levels of the articles, are discernable in the journal articles written for teachers of composition? (3) Which of the articles, based on

selection criteria, are potentially most beneficial to composition teachers in the elementary and secondary schools? This chapter includes a discussion of these particular areas of concern.

Content Data

The following table displays the frequencies of the articles in the various content categories by year. It also shows the ranking of each category, based on the percentage of the total number of articles in that category. For instance, articles dealing with Rhetorical Criticism constituted 17.87 percent of the articles used in this study. Articles dealing with Interdisciplinary Approach were a mere .04 percent of the total.

This author felt that the most significant data were the four top categories: Rhetorical Criticism, 17.87 percent, Business Communication, 6.40 percent, Research Methodology, 5.87 percent, and Cognitive Processes, 5.60 percent. These are highly technical, analytical, abstract areas of concern, and they account for 35.74 percent of the articles identified by this study. According to the data presented in the Literature Review section of this document, elementary and secondary teachers read those materials which are pragmatic and of practical value in their classrooms. It would appear, then, that a significant portion of the writing done concerning the composition instruction process will not be read and utilized by those elementary and secondary teachers who are the first persons to have impact on students moving through the educational process.

TABLE 3

Ranked Frequencies of Content Categories 1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Rhetorical Criticism	4	25	34	28	8	6	7	9	4	1	1	4	2	1	134	17.87
Business Communication			2				1	5	3	12	3	18	4		48	6.40
Research Methodology	1	4	2	2	5	1	3			3		11	9	3	44	5.87
Cognitive Processes				1		2	4	2	1	1	2	13	11	5	42	5.60
Audiovisual Communication	1	2	12	3	2	1	2	4	2		1	4	4	1	39	5.20
Creative Writing	2		2	2	3	1	4	3	2	2	1	14		2	38	5.07
Expository Writing	5	4	6	7			3	2	5	4		1			37	4.93
Evaluation	1	1	4	2		1	5	3		1	3	9	4		34	4.53
Grammar	6	4	2		5		3	2	3	1		2	2		30	4.00
Punctuation	2	3	4	3		3		5	4	1					25	3.33
Teacher Role			1	2			3	1		1		5	8	3	24	3.20
Motivation	3	1		1	1	1		2	1		4	6	2		22	2.93
Journalism		1			10		2		1	2		3	1		20	2.67
Writing Processes: Revision										1		8	8	2	19	2.53
Paragraph Construction	3	4	3	4		1		2		2					19	2.53
English: Second Language	2	1	2		3	1	1	1		3		2	1	1	18	2.40
Theories	1		1		2							7	1	5	17	2.27
Descriptive Writing	6	2	2		1		3	2					1		17	2.27
Audience Awareness						2	1					3	7	3	16	2.13
Remedial Programs		1		1		1			3	1	5	4			16	2.13
Professional Development		1	1	1	1		1	3			1	2	1	2	14	1.87
Essay Tests Usage	1				1		3	2	3		1	1	2		14	1.87
Attitudes/Interests: Students		1		1		1	1	1		1		2	2	3	13	1.73
Sentence-Combining						1		5	1	1					8	1.70
Workshops		1	1								1	7	1	1	12	1.60
Prewriting		1				1	4	1					4		11	1.47
Models													5	2	7	.93
Role Perception: Parents												3		2	5	.67
Annotated Bibliography			1		1									2	4	.53
Interdisciplinary Approach												3			3	.40
Totals	38	57	80	58	43	24	51	55	33	38	23	132	80	38	750	*100.63

*Rounding Error

These data relate to the data used in the study done by Delougaz in 1949[74]. That study, concerning writing in the Soviet Union, found that the number of titles in the scientific field rose while those in the humanities fell during the period from 1913 to 1941. As the data indicate, trends and patterns of concern relative to composition teaching also exist, with the numbers of articles in any one category fluctuating across time. Figure 1, Appendix B, is a graphic representation of the content category data in Table 3.

These patterns may be explained by rising and falling areas of interest for both authors of articles and publishers of journals. This would appear to be a logical reaction in any field of endeavor. This author also feels that conditions

in the larger society may have contributed to these patterns. For instance, the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 focused attention on all areas of education. The peak year of 1971 could have been a result of this concentrated attention, with authors writing more, culminating in articles appearing in 1971.

Public Law 94-142, related to Special Education, was enacted in 1978, creating a flurry of activity in, and concern for, Gifted and Talented Programs as well as traditional Special Education Programs. Articles in the category of Remedial Programs show high interest in both 1979 and 1980, perhaps also reflecting the influence of Public Law 94-142. Business Communication was also high in 1980. It may possibly have resulted from both the interest in Special Education Programs and the effect of the "back-to-basics" movement that crested around that time.

In order to more clearly identify trends and patterns of interest, the thirty categories were assigned to one of four general areas: (1) categories which indicated stable concern across the fourteen-year period, (2) categories which indicated no clearly discernable pattern, (3) categories of non-contemporary innovations, having numbers of articles prior to 1978 and then dwindling into obscurity, and (4) contemporary innovations attracting extremely little interest prior to 1979.

TABLE 4

Articles Indicating Stable Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Rhetorical Criticism	4	25	34	28	8	6	7	9	4	1	1	4	2	1	134	17.87
Research Methodology	1	4	2	2	5	1	3			3		11	9	3	44	5.87
Audiovisual Communication	1	2	12	3	2	1	2	4	2		1	4	4	1	39	5.20
Creative Writing	2		2	2	3	1	4	3	2	2	1	14		2	38	5.07
Evaluation	1	1	4	2		1	5	3		1	3	9	4		34	4.53
Grammar	6	4	2		5		3	2	3	1		2	2		30	4.00
Motivation	3	1		1	1	1		2	1		4	6	2		22	2.93
English: Second Language	2	1	2		3	1	1	1		3		2	1	1	18	2.40
Professional Development		1	1	1	1		1	3			1	2	1	2	14	1.87
Totals	20	39	59	39	28	12	26	27	12	11	11	54	25	10	373	49.74

Table 4 shows those categories in which articles were received in most of the years represented in this study. The categories represent 373 articles, or 49.74 percent of the total articles, indicating that some areas of composition instruction were of continuing concern and perhaps not subject to the "fad" influence.

Rhetorical Criticism contained 17.87 percent of the total number of articles, demonstrating the high interest in literature held by the authors represented in this study. These articles focused attention on the composition styles, structure, and language usage of individuals whose writing is held in high esteem by those in the field. Traditionally, institutions of higher education offer the majority of their courses to students in the area of literature. Students are required to analyze and critique the writing of published authors according to set standards of excellence. Certain authors, whose work has been judged superior, are cited as examples of excellence for students to read and emulate. This author's experiences in the field, both as student and instructor, attest to this concern with the writing of professional authors, which is given high priority across all levels of the discipline.

Except for the peak years of 1970, 1971, and 1972, a fairly stable interest in Rhetorical Criticism existed across the time period. It is interesting to note that in 1980 when total articles reached the highest point, Rhetorical Criticism titles declined, while Research Methodology, Creative Writing, Evaluation, and Motivation reached their highest points. A surprising category in this area was English: Second Language, with 2.40 percent. Although the percentage is relatively small, there was a stable concern across the years. This may be attributed to the increasingly large number of journals with foreign language titles. Figure 2 in Appendix B is a graphic representation of Table 4. This figure

illustrates the close resemblance of the articles showing steady concern to the ranked frequencies of all articles as shown in Figure 1, Appendix B.

The following table displays those articles in area two which dealt with categories for which there were no clear patterns of concern. These categories received interest at different times across the entire fourteen year period. However, there were breaks, sometimes of several years, between articles identified for this study. This area represented 30.00 percent of the total articles.

TABLE 5

Articles Indicating Fluctuating Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Business Communication			2				1	5	3	12	3	18	4		48	6.40
Cognitive Processes				1		2	4	2	1	1	2	13	11	5	42	5.60
Teacher Role			1	2			3	1		1		5	8	3	24	3.20
Journalism		1			10		2		1	2		3	1		20	2.67
Theories	1		1		2							7	1	5	17	2.27
Audience Awareness						2	1					3	7	3	16	2.13
Remedial Programs		1		1		1			3	1	5	4			16	2.13
Essay Tests Usage	1				1		3	2	3		1	1	2		14	1.87
Attitudes/Interests: Students		1		1		1	1	1		1		2	2	3	13	1.73
Prewriting		1				1	4	1					4		11	1.47
Annotated Bibliography			1		1									2	4	.53
Totals	2	4	5	5	14	7	19	12	11	18	11	56	40	21	225	30.00

The first peak year for total articles was in 1971. During 1973, ten of the fourteen articles, 71.42 percent, were related to Journalism. Five journals were involved during this year, so an entire issue of any one journal did not account for this large percaentage. There is no discernable reason for this phenomena. The other years show small, highly erratic interest.

Another unusual distribution is observed with respect to Business Communication, which in 1980 accounted for 32.14 percent of the titles. In 1978, seven of the twelve articles in this category, or 58.33 percent, were published in one journal, indicating that editors sometimes devote entire issues to one specific theme. This propensity could partially account for the fluctuations

within categories. The small number of annotated bibliographies highlights this author's concern that such little attention is given to these valuable research tools. Figure 3, Appendix B, is the graphic representation of Table 5, visually indicating the erratic fluctuations of these categories across the years.

TABLE 6

Articles Indicating Non-Contemporary Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Expository Writing	5	4	6	7			3	2	5	4		1			37	4.93
Punctuation	2	3	4	3		3		5	4	1					25	3.33
Paragraph Construction	3	4	3	4		1		2		2					19	2.53
Descriptive Writing	6	2	2		1		3	2					1		17	2.27
Sentence-Combining						1		5	1	1					8	1.17
Totals	16	13	15	14	1	5	6	16	10	8		1	1		106	14.23

The categories represented in Table 6 are those in area four, articles which indicate concern during the first years of this study, but which dropped almost entirely from any notice by authors in later years. The category of Sentence Combining held special interest for this author. This category surfaced in 1974 with one article, reappeared with five articles in 1975, showed one in 1977, one in 1978, and then disappeared. This is surprising because of the present-day interest in sentence combining which this author has observed in the field.

Two categories devoted to the mechanics of composition instruction, Punctuation and Paragraph Construction dwindled markedly. Figure 4, Appendix B, is the graphic representation of Table 6, showing the decline in the number of articles in this area.

TABLE 7

Articles Indicating Contemporary Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Writing Processes: Revision										1		8	8	2	19	2.53
Workshops		1	1								1	7	1	1	12	1.60
Models													5	2	7	.93
Role Perception: Parents												3		2	5	.67
Interdisciplinary Approach												3			3	.40
Totals	1	1								1	1	21	14	7	46	6.13

Table 7 shows categories which received contemporary interest from editors and authors. The area contains five categories, which constitute forty-six articles, 6.13 percent of the total articles. It is clear that most of these categories received scant attention prior to 1980. It is also clear that these categories have continued to receive attention since the peak year, 1980, but at a reduced level. The author suspects that the proliferation of articles past 1979 is related, to some extent, to the effect of the National Writing Projects. This author also feels that the small number of articles in this area probably reflect the basic conservatism of professionals in the field of composition/writing. These individuals apparently prefer to write about facets of the discipline with which they are relatively familiar, rather than experimenting with innovations.

The small interest in an interdisciplinary approach to composition instruction possibly emphasizes the reluctance, or inability, or both, of individuals in different disciplines to concern themselves with other areas of the educational field. Figure 5, Appendix B, is the graphic representation of Table 7.

As a further means of clarifying the trends found in composition, this author divided the fourteen-year period into time sections. Since there were an uneven number of years, the first section covered four years, while the last two

spanned five years each. These three tables, eight, nine, and ten, are in Appendix B of this manuscript.

Table 8 depicts the first section which covered the period from 1969 through 1972. There were 233 articles, 31.07 percent, in this four-year time span. This period contained the first peak year of 1971 and contributed seventy-eight articles. Rhetorical Criticism had the largest number of articles, and the largest percent, 17.82 percent of the total articles. Expository Writing and Audiovisual Communication were the next highest categories. The mechanics areas of Grammar, Punctuation, and Paragraph Construction were also prominent.

Table 9 indicated that the second section covering five years contained 27.45 percent of the articles, the lowest percentage of the three sections. This low period can be seen in Figure 1, Appendix B. Rhetorical Criticism lost from 12.13 percent to 4.53 percent, a drop of almost one-third during this time. Creative Writing, Grammar, Punctuation, Expository Writing, and Audiovisual Communication remained strong, while Journalism reached a peak year in 1973.

Table 10, which shows the last time section, contained the largest portion of articles, 41.45 percent. Business Communication was the largest category, with only 4.93 percent, but the peak year of 1980, which produced 132 articles, made the difference in giving this section the largest percentage. Rhetorical Criticism dropped to a low 1.20 percent. It was this time-period in which the people-related areas of Teacher Role, Evaluation, Motivation, Audience Awareness, Attitudes/Interests: Students, and Role Perception: Parents reached their highest years. Meanwhile, the mechanical areas of Grammar, Paragraph Construction, Punctuation, and Sentence Combining dropped to their lowest points. It is interesting to note that when the number of articles increased in people-

related areas of concern, the number decreased in mechanics areas, and vice versa. Figure 6, Appendix B, is a graphic representation of the three time sections.

Institutional Data

The total number of authors of articles represented in this study was 579. Of this number, no institutional affiliation was listed for thirty-nine authors. There were twenty-five professional writers, persons not affiliated with educational institutions. Authors from foreign countries furnished fifty-one articles. These non-educational institution sources accounted for 115 authors, leaving 464 authors affiliated with educational institutions.

Two hundred and two institutions of higher education represented 75.94 percent of the total. Thirty-five, 13.31 percent, were secondary schools, and twenty-nine, 11.03 percent, were elementary schools. A total of 266 institutions of education were represented. The following table depicts the educational institutions with which five or more authors were affiliated, and other author distribution data:

TABLE 11

Ranking of United States Educational Institution with which Five or More Authors Were Affiliated 1969-1982, And Other Author Data

Institution	Total	Percent
University of Texas; Austin	15	3.23
University of Georgia; Athens	12	2.59
University of Illinois; Urbana and Chicago	8	1.71
City University; New York City	8	1.71
U. of Minnesota; Minneapolis, St. Paul & Duluth	7	1.51
New York University; New York City	7	1.51
Michigan State University; East Lansing	7	1.51
Ohio State University; Columbus	7	1.51
Rutgers University; New Brunswick	6	1.29
University of California; Berkeley	5	1.08
University of California; Los Angeles	5	1.08
University of Iowa; Iowa City	5	1.08
Northern Illinois University; DeKalb	5	1.08
University of Missouri; St. Louis & Columbia	5	1.08
Boston University; Boston	5	1.08
Georgia State University; Atlanta	5	1.08
Miami University; Oxford, Ohio	5	1.08
University of New Hampshire; Durham	5	1.08
Totals	122	26.29
Authors From Other Educational Institutions	342	73.71
Total Authors From Educational Institutions	464	100.00
Authors From All Other Sources	115	
Total Authors From All Sources	579	

The University of Texas at Austin supplied the most authors with 3.23 percent, and the University of Georgia at Athens was second with 2.59 percent. Some universities listed their institutions into separate locations, while others included the different locations together. For instance, the University of California showed locations at Berkeley, Los Angeles, Davis, Irvine, and San

Diego, while the University of Illinois included both Urbana and Chicago in one listing.

The eighteen institutions named in Table 11 supplied 26.29 percent of the authors. There were 248 other institutions with which the remaining 73.71 percent of authors were affiliated. Ten institutions supplied four authors each or 8.70 percent, fifteen supplied three each or 9.78 percent, forty-eight supplied two each or 20.86 percent, and one hundred and fifty-nine supplied only one each or 34.78 percent. The largest share of institutions, then, supplied only one author of an article used in this study. Table 12, Appendix C, contains these data.

Table 13 depicts the location, by state, of institutions with which authors were affiliated who contributed articles to this study. New York represented a total of 11.85 percent of the authors. This state had an impressive twenty-one institutions of higher education, eleven secondary schools, and two elementary schools. California was second with 8.19 percent, having fifteen higher education institutions, three secondary schools, and five elementary schools. Illinois, with 7.33 percent, was a close third, having ten higher education institutions, six secondary schools, and one elementary school.

Those states not represented were New Mexico and Nevada in the South West, Arkansas in the South Central, South Dakota in the North Central, Montana and Alaska in the North West, South Carolina in the South East, Maine in New England, but no states were missing from the North East. Thus, only eight states were without representation in this study.

TABLE 13

Educational Institution By States With Which Authors Were Affiliated 1969-1982

Institution	Total	Percent
New York	55	11.85
California	38	8.19
Illinois	34	7.33
Ohio	29	6.25
Michigan	27	5.81
Texas	25	5.39
Georgia	20	4.31
Pennsylvania	20	4.31
Indiana	19	4.09
Massachusettes	12	2.59
New Jersey	12	2.59
Missouri	12	2.59
Iowa	11	2.37
Minnesota	10	2.15
Virginia	10	2.15
Connecticut	10	2.15
Washington	9	1.90
Maryland	8	1.72
Arizona	8	1.72
Florida	7	1.51
Rhode Island	7	1.51
Colorado	7	1.51
Kansas	6	1.29
Oregon	6	1.29
New Hampshire	5	1.08
Wisconsin	5	1.08
North Carolina	5	1.08
Utah	5	1.08
Tennessee	4	.86
Vermont	4	.86
Alabama	4	.86
Oklahoma	4	.86
Delaware	3	.65
Hawaii	3	.65
Kentucky	3	.65
Nebraska	3	.65
Idaho	2	.43
Louisiana	2	.43
Washington D. C.	2	.43
West Virginia	2	.43
Mississippi	1	.22
North Dakota	1	.22
Wyoming	1	.22
University Location Unknown	3	.65
Totals	464	100.00
No place available	39	
Professional Authors	25	
Authors From Foreign Countries	51	
Total Authors	579	

Figure 7, Appendix C, is a graphic representation of the states represented according to the percentage in each region. The regions and their respective

percentages of the total are as follows: New England, 6.68 percent; North East, 50.85 percent; South East, 8.84 percent; South Central, 7.97 percent; North Central, 7.98 percent; North West, 3.88 percent; and South West, 13.15 percent. These data are not surprising in terms of general thrust, particularly since the most populous area of the United States is the North Eastern sector. It is apparent, however, that this sector is disproportionally represented in terms of its proportion of the national population.

Table 14, Appendix C, exhibits the foreign countries where authors of articles were located. Since Canada is a neighbor of the United States, it seems only logical that authors residing there would contribute articles; this country accounted for twenty percent of the foreign authors. However, Mexico, also a neighbor, surprisingly, was not represented in this study.

Journal Data

A total of 522 articles found in 105 journals available at the University of Oklahoma libraries were analyzed. Eighteen journals accounted for 352 of these articles, 67.43 percent. The journals published by the National Council of Teachers of English accounted for 250, 47.89 percent, of the articles. This was not surprising since NCTE is the official national organization of professionals in the discipline of language arts, the umbrella discipline for those concerned with composition instruction. A membership fee in this organization automatically entitles the member to a subscription to the organizational journal of one's choice. Elementary English became Language Arts with Volume 52, Number 6, in 1975. The journals are reported separately for the purpose of this study. These journals are primarily directed to an audience of elementary school teachers. The articles contained in English Journal are primarily directed to an

audience of secondary school teachers. The articles contained in College Composition and Communication, College English, and Research in Teaching English are primarily directed to an audience of instructors of higher education. The following table documents those eighteen journals:

TABLE 15

Ranked Frequencies of Journals from which Six or More Articles Derived 1969-1982, And other Journal Data

Journal	Total	Percent
*College Composition and Communication	72	13.79
*English Journal	69	13.22
*College English	38	7.28
*Language Arts	34	6.51
*Research in Teaching English	19	3.64
*Elementary English	18	3.45
Cuadernos Hispanoamericanos	18	3.45
Teacher	11	2.11
Revista Iberoamericana	10	1.92
Hispania	9	1.72
Theory Into Practice	8	1.53
Cuadernos Americanos	7	1.34
German Quarterly	7	1.34
Journal of Reading	7	1.34
English Language Teaching Journal	7	1.34
Clearing House	6	1.15
Journal of General Education	6	1.15
Reading Teacher	6	1.15
Total	352	67.43
Other Journals Represented	170	32.56
Total Articles in all Journals	522	**99.99

*Journals published by the National Council of Teachers of English
**Rounding Error

The remaining 170 articles, 32.57 percent, were distributed among eighty-seven different journals. Of these, seven journals contained five articles each or 6.70 percent, eight contained four each or 6.13 percent, nine had three each or 5.17 percent, thirteen had two each or 4.98 percent, and fifty had only one article each for 9.58 percent. Figure 8, Appendix D, is a graphic representation of these data.

Table 16, Appendix D, cites the names of journals available at the University of Oklahoma ranked according to the number of articles each contained. Of particular interest to this author was the fact that among the top eighteen journals were five with foreign language titles, four of which were Spanish titles. It would be interesting to determine what percent of the articles in these journals were contributed by authors from other countries and what percent were contributed by authors from the United States. Such a venture is, however, beyond the design of this study.

Article Data

TABLE 17

Distbution Frequencies of Article Availability or Non-Availability by Year 1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Articles in Unavailable Journals	4	9	11	7	20	6	15	14	10	14	13	53	22	10	208	27.73
Articles in Missing Issues	4	4	3	1								3	3	2	20	2.67
Totals	8	13	14	8	20	6	15	14	10	14	13	56	25	12	228	30.40
Articles in Available Journals	32	45	65	51	23	17	39	51	21	24	9	73	49	23	522	69.60
Total Articles	40	58	79	59	43	23	54	65	31	38	22	129	74	35	750	100.00

The preceding table presents the data collected on articles represented in this study and presented according to the year in which the article was published. A total of 208, 27.73 percent, of the articles were published in journals not among the 16,957 periodicals to which the University of Oklahoma subscribes. Twenty articles, 2.67 percent of the total number of articles, were contained in individual journal issues missing from the shelves. It is interesting to note that the missing issues were in publications either prior to 1973 or after 1979. The reason for this phenomena is unknown and may simply be coincidental. Total articles unavailable to this author were 288 or 30.40 percent of all articles identified by the ERIC-CIJE computerized retrieval system. Articles available for analysis by this author were 522 or 69.60 percent. Figure 9, Appendix E, is a graphic representation of these data.

The peak years for available articles were 1980 and 1971. The significant thing about these data are the number of articles unavailable to a researcher using the library facilities at the University of Oklahoma. Of the total articles identified by the ERIC-CIJE computerized retrieval system, 30.40 percent were unavailable to this author. For instance, in 1980, 7.47 percent of all articles identified were unavailable. In 1979 more articles were unavailable than were available. This information would be unknown to a researcher without the use of some type of research tool designed to provide that data. Valuable information could be overlooked because of this situation. These data could conceivably be generalized to any research library in the United States. It is impossible for any library to subscribe to all the published journals. It appears that an annotated bibliography for the entire area of composition instruction is a vital necessity.

Table 18, Appendix E, displays the number of articles available by month. The two months in which the greatest number of articles were published are

May, 11.69 percent, and October, 13.21 percent. These two months account for 24.90 percent, or one-fourth of the total articles. Forty-nine articles were published in journals spanning more than one month. For example, some journals published issues which were labeled such as Jan/Feb or July/Aug. Figure 10, Appendix E, is a graphic representation of these data.

Author Data

Five hundred and seventy-nine authors were represented by the articles used in this study. Four hundred and sixty-four authors, 80.14 percent of the total, were affiliated with educational institutions. The largest percentage, 34.70 percent, was affiliated with one particular institution. One hundred and fifteen authors, 19.86 percent, were not affiliated with an educational institution. Fifty-one, 8.80 percent, were from locations outside the United States. Twenty-five, 4.32 percent, were professional authors, and the location of thirty-nine authors, 6.73 percent, was unknown. The following table presents the educational level for which the authors' articles appeared intended and significant gender-related data:

TABLE 19

Educational Level of Authors of Single Articles by Gender of Author
1969-1982

Educational Level	Male	Percent	Female	Percent	N.A.	Percent	Total	Percent
Higher Education	204	44.64	61	13.34	27	5.91	292	63.89
Secondary Education	31	6.78	31	6.78	4	.88	66	14.44
Elementary	32	7.00	41	8.97	6	1.31	79	17.29
Elem./Sec.	6	1.31	1	.22	1	.22	8	1.75
Sec./Higher Ed.	3	.66	3	.66			6	1.31
Adult	3	.66	2	.44			5	1.09
Elem./Sec. Higher Ed.			1	.22			1	.22
Totals	279	61.05	140	30.63	39	8.53	457	*99.99

*Rounding Error

As indicated by the table, 63.89 percent of the authors wrote articles intended for readers at the higher educational level. Males represented 44.64 percent and females 13.34 percent of the total number of authors. This author attempted to determine the gender of the authors by name association. For instance, an author with a first name of Helen was assumed to be female; an author whose first name was John was assumed to be male. Authors labeled NA were those whose gender could not be determined by using the name-gender association.

The levels of elementary and secondary combined contained approximately one-third of all articles. This would indicate that two-thirds of articles identified in this study have as an intended audience individuals at the level of higher education. Those individuals in United States institutions of higher education, who are leaders in the discipline of language arts, are focusing upon their peers as a primary audience, rather than the instructors at the elementary and secondary levels who might possibly profit from their expertise.

These data reflect the information found in the Literature Review section of this manuscript. The studies researched indicated that elementary and secondary teachers are interested in pragmatic ideas which can be used in the classroom, and which are directed at that level of educational institution. Since the vast majority of articles were intended for higher educational levels, the instructors in secondary and elementary schools appear to be of secondary importance.

Significantly, data in Table 19 suggests that females published at the same or higher rate as males only at the elementary and secondary school levels. At the elementary school level, particularly, females published at a rate which exceeds that of males at the same level. Generally, males published at twice

the rate of females. It seems axiomatic that women write to and for elementary teachers and men write to and for teachers at the secondary school and higher educational levels.

TABLE 20

Authors Contributing Two or More Articles by Gender of Author
1969-1982

Educational Level	Male	Percent	Female	Percent	N.A.	Percent	Total	Percent
Two Articles	37	61.67	12	20.00	4	6.67	53	88.34
Three Articles	4	6.67	2	3.33			6	10.00
Four Articles								
Five Articles	1	1.66					1	1.66
Totals	42	70.00	14	23.33	4	6.67	60	100.00

Table 20 is included to show, by the gender of the author, the number of articles contributed by individuals producing more than one article. Not only did males publish more often than females, but they manifested a higher tendency to be published, or to publish multiple times. There appears to be more of a tendency on the part of females, than for males, not to publish again after being published once.

TABLE 21

Multiple-Authorship Articles by Gender of Author
1969-1982

Educational Level	Male	Percent	Female	Percent	N.A.	Percent	Total	Percent
Two Authors	73	49.66	45	30.61	7	4.76	125	85.03
Three or More Authors	16	10.88	5	3.40	1	.68	22	14.96
Totals	89	60.14	50	33.78	8	5.41	147	*99.99

*Rounding Error

Other data which were interesting to this author related to articles having more than one author. Seventy-three males, 49.66 percent, collaborated on two-author articles, while forty-five females, or 30.61 percent did so. Sixteen males, 10.88 percent, and five females, 3.40 percent, collaborated on articles with multiple authors. Apparently there was less of a tendency for females to be co-authors than for males. This appears to be related to the educational institution affiliation and the probability that the mentor system works less well for females generally, and for females at the higher education level specifically. Four husband and wife writing teams were also identified. The preceding table presents these data.

The profile of the typical author of a journal article concerning the composition instruction process published during the time frame of this study was that of a male, from a North Eastern college or university, the only author who represented that institution, who published once, and wrote alone for an audience of persons in higher education.

Summary of Findings

This author computed percentages from the raw data in order to report findings. These percentages were then used to answer the questions posed in the Problem Statement of this manuscript: (1) What patterns, in terms of teaching methodology, curricula and evaluation, innovative programs, and student motivation, characterized the composition-focused articles published during the period from January 1969 through September 1982? (2) What trends, in terms of the author's educational affiliation and geographical location and educational levels of the articles are discernable in the journal articles written for teachers of composition? (3) Which of the articles, based on selection criteria, are

potentially most beneficial to composition teachers in the elementary and secondary schools? This portion of this chapter will directly address these questions.

The data presented in this chapter were reported under five major headings: Content Data, Institutional Data, Journal Data, Article Data, and Author Data. Tables and figures were used to explain and illustrate findings in these areas.

Content Data

The content of the articles concerning composition, published during the years from January 1968 through September 1982, were divided into thirty categories and ranked according to frequency in each year encompassed by this study. A significant proportion, 17.87 percent, of the content was represented by Rhetorical Criticism. This category concerned the process of analyzing and criticizing the composition style, structure, and language usage of those authors held in high esteem by individuals in the discipline of language arts. This category received the most attention during the earlier years of this study, particularly during 1970, 1971, and 1972, and remained fairly stable across the entire time span, in terms of concern and attention.

The four categories receiving most concern were: Rhetorical Criticism, 17.87 percent; Business Communication, 6.40 percent; Research Methodology, 5.87 percent; and Cognitive Processes, 5.60 percent. These are all highly analytical, technical, and abstract. The fifth highest category was Audiovisual Communication, 5.20 percent. The lowest categories, receiving less than one percent of content, were: Models, .93 percent; Role Perception: Parents, .67 percent; Annotated Bibliography, .53 percent; and Interdisciplinary Approach, .40 percent.

Significant trends and patterns were distinguishable when content was divided into four major areas of concern: (1) categories which showed stable concern across the fourteen-year period, (2) categories which fluctuated erratically, (3) categories of non-contemporary innovations receiving most attention during the earlier years of the study, and (4) categories of contemporary innovations receiving most attention during the later years of the study.

Categories showing stable concern received some interest in almost every year and accounted for 49.74 percent of the total content. These included nine of the thirty categories, or approximately one-fourth of the categories receiving approximately one-half of the total content. Categories in this area included: Rhetorical Criticism, 17.87 percent; Research Methodology, 5.87 percent; Audio-visual Communication, 5.20 percent; Creative Writing, 5.07 percent; Evaluation, 4.53 percent; Grammar, 4.00 percent; Motivation, 2.93 percent; English: Second Language, 2.40 percent; and Professional Development, 1.87 percent.

The second major area of concern, content fluctuating erratically, accounted for 30.00 percent of total content. This area also contained the most categories, with a total of eleven: Cognitive Processes, 5.60 percent; Business Communication, 6.40 percent; Teacher Role, 3.20 percent; Journalism, 2.67 percent; Audience Awareness, 2.13 percent; Theories, 2.27 percent; Essay Tests Usage, 1.87 percent; Attitudes/Interests: Students, 1.73 percent; Remedial Programs, 2.13 percent; Prewriting, 1.47 percent; and Annotated Bibliography, .53 percent.

In 1973 Journalism accounted for 71.42 percent of the total articles identified during that year. Business Communication supplied 32.14 percent of the total articles in 1980. Also in 1980, the combined areas of Business Communication and Cognitive Processes contained 55.36 percent of total

articles. In 1978 58.33 percent of the articles found in Business Communication were published in one journal. The small total percentage in each category and the high percent for the area was an indication of the instability of this area of concern.

Major area three were those categories indicating non-contemporary patterns of concern. Only five categories were here, and the total percentage was a low 14.23. The categories were: Expository Writing, 4.93 percent; Punctuation, 3.33 percent; Paragraph Construction, 2.53 percent; Descriptive Writing, 2.27 percent; and Sentence-Combining, 1.70 percent. Even though these categories received the most attention during the early seventies, and again in 1976, their total concern, as indicated by the publication of related articles, was small.

Major area four, contemporary concerns, was the smallest of all four areas, with a mere 6.13 percent of the total. The five categories were: Writing Processes: Revision, 2.53 percent; Workshops, 1.60 percent; Models, .93 percent; Role Perception: Parents, .67 percent; and Interdisciplinary Approach, .40 percent. The revision process and an interest in workshops accounted for only 4.13 percent, but this was 16.31 percent of the total for this area.

When the data were divided into three time periods, other patterns were discernable. The first four-year period from 1969 through 1972 contained 31.07 percent of the total content. The majority of this total was supplied by Rhetorical Criticism with 12.13 percent. The next closest category was Expository Writing with only 2.93 percent.

Six categories received no content: Writing Processes: Revision, Audience Awareness, Sentence-combining, Models, Role Perception: Parents, and Interdisciplinary Approach. Four categories received one article each: Cognitive

Processes, Journalism, Essay Tests Usage, Prewriting, and Annotated Bibliography. So for these ten categories, only four articles were tallied during this time period. Other unusual activity occurred in Audiovisual Communication, with 1971 accounting for 66.66 percent of the total.

The second time period contained the five years from 1973 through 1977. This period totaled 27.45 percent, which was the lowest time period. Rhetorical Criticism, with 4.50 percent, contained the most content. Interest was more evenly distributed during this time span, with five categories, Writing Processes: Revision, Workshops, Models, Role Perception: Parents, and Interdisciplinary Approach receiving no content, and one category, Annotated Bibliography receiving one article. Journalism, with ten articles in 1973, had the largest total for any category in only one year.

The last time period, with 41.45 percent, contained the most content. Rhetorical Criticism dropped to a low of 1.20 percent, while Business Communication with 4.93 percent, Cognitive Processes with 4.27 percent, and Research Methodology with 3.47 percent reached their highest points. These three categories contained 33.27 percent of the content during this period.

This was the only period in which every category was represented by a published article. Punctuation, Descriptive Writing, and Sentence-Combining received only one article each. Creative Writing and Writing Processes: Revision, both with 2.53 percent, along with Evaluation and Teacher Role, both with 2.27 percent, reached their highest points during this period.

The abstract and theoretical areas of Rhetorical Criticism, 17.87 percent, Theories, 2.27 percent, Research Methodology, 5.87 percent, and Cognitive Processes, 5.60 percent, were represented by 31.61 percent of the total number of articles in this study. Audiovisual Communication, 5.20 percent, and Business

Communication, 6.40 percent, which are technical, specialized areas of concern, received 11.60 percent. Together they totaled 43.21 percent of the articles analyzed during this period.

The human side of composition instruction, the people who are involved in the process — students, teachers, parents, and audience — were represented by Teacher Role, 3.32 percent, Motivation, 2.89 percent, Audience Awareness, 2.46 percent, Attitudes/Interests: Students, 1.73 percent, and Role Perception: Parents, .72 percent, for a total of 11.12 percent. The mechanical processes involved in the composition process: Evaluation, 4.77 percent, Grammar, 3.90 percent, Punctuation, 3.18 percent, Writing Processes: Revision, 2.60 percent, Paragraph Construction, 2.46 percent, Prewriting, 1.59 percent, and Sentence-Combining, .86 percent, accounted for 19.36 percent of total articles of this period.

Institutional Data

Institutional Data was the second major unit of analysis. Four hundred and sixty-four authors, of the 579 represented, were affiliated with two hundred and sixty-six United States educational institutions, or 80.14 percent of the total authors. Other sources of authors were also noted. Individuals listing no place of affiliation totaled 6.73 percent; authors from foreign countries accounted for 8.81 percent, and professional authors represented 4.32 percent. Institutions of higher education accounted for 75.94 percent of the total, while secondary schools contained 13.31 percent, and elementary schools contained 11.03 percent, for a total of 266 institutions of education.

Eighteen institutions of higher education, each of which supplied five or more authors, accounted for 26.29 percent of the authors represented, while 73.71 percent were affiliated with the remaining 248 institutions. The Univer-

sity of Texas, Austin, supplied 3.23 percent of the authors, while the University of Georgia, Athens, supplied 2.59 percent. The University of Illinois, Urbana and Chicago, and City University, New York City, each totaled 1.71 percent. The University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, St. Paul and Duluth, New York University, New York City, Michigan State University, New Brunswick, and Ohio State University, Columbus, each supplied 1.51 percent. Rutgers University, New Brunswick supplied 1.29 percent. The University of California, Berkeley, the University of California, Los Angeles, the University of Iowa, Iowa City, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, the University of Missouri, St. Louis and Columbia, Boston University, Boston, Georgia State University, Atlanta, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, and the University of New Hampshire, Durham, all supplied 1.08 percent each.

The remaining institutions supplied less than one percent each. These data relating to institutional contributions, in terms of article authorship, are as follows: ten institutions, four authors each, 8.70 percent; fifteen institutions, three authors each, 9.78 percent; forty-eight institutions, two authors each, 20.86 percent; and 159 institutions, one author each, 34.78 percent.

Educational institutions in New York state supplied 11.85 percent of the authors, with twenty-one institutions of higher education, eleven secondary schools, and two elementary schools. California was second with 8.19 percent, having fifteen higher education institutions, three secondary schools, and five elementary schools. Illinois was third with 7.33 percent, having ten higher education institutions, six secondary schools, and one elementary school. All other states had less than seven percent. Only eight states, New Mexico, Nevada, Arkansas, South Dakota, Montana, Alaska, South Carolina, and Maine were not represented in this study.

The North Eastern sector of the United States, which is the most heavily populated area of the country, contained 50.85 percent of the educational institutions with which authors were affiliated. Other sectors and their percentages are as follows: South West, 13.15 percent; South East, 8.84 percent; North Central, 7.98 percent; South Central, 7.97 percent; New England, 6.68 percent; and North West, 3.88 percent.

Of the foreign countries which supplied authors, Canada was first with twenty percent. France was second with fourteen percent; Spain was third with twelve percent, and Holland was fourth with ten percent. The other twelve localities supplied less than ten percent each.

Journal Data

The next major analysis unit was Journal Data. A total of 105 journals were represented in this study. Eighteen journals accounted for 67.43 percent of the total number of articles. The six journals supplying the most articles were all published by the National Council of Teachers of English: College Composition and Communication, 13.79 percent; English Journal, 13.22 percent; College English, 7.28 percent; Language Arts, 6.51 percent; Research in Teaching English, 3.64 percent; and Elementary English, 3.45 percent, for 47.89 percent of the total. Five of the eighteen top journals were foreign-language titled, and they supplied 9.77 percent of the articles: Cuadernos Hispanoamericanos, 3.45 percent; Revista Iberoamericana, 1.92 percent; Hispania, 1.72 percent; Cuadernos Americanos, 1.34 percent; and German Quarterly, 1.34 percent. The final seven of the top eighteen journals supplied 9.77 percent of content.

The remaining 32.57 percent of the articles was distributed among eighty-seven different journals. These data were as follows: seven journals had five articles each, 6.70 percent; eight journals had four articles each, 6.13 percent;

nine journals had three articles each, 5.17 percent; thirteen journals had two articles each, 4.98 percent; and fifty journals had one article each, 9.58 percent.

Article Data

The next major unit of analysis was Article Data. A total of 27.73 percent of the 879 identified articles were published in journals not among the 16,957 periodicals to which the University of Oklahoma subscribes. Individual journal issues missing from the shelves contained 2.67 percent of the content. Total articles unavailable to this researcher were 30.40 percent.

The peak years for available articles were 1980 with 9.73 percent and 1971 with 8.67 percent of the total number of articles. The greatest number of articles were published in the months of May, 11.69 percent, and October, 13.21 percent of the total. These two months accounted for 24.90 percent, or approximately one-fourth of total content.

Author Data

The final major analysis unit was Author Data. Five hundred and seventy-nine authors were represented in this study. Of these, 80.14 percent were affiliated with United States educational institutions. Authors from other than educational institutions totaled 19.86 percent: foreign country authors contributed 8.80 percent; 4.32 percent were professional authors, and 6.74 percent had no affiliation listed. A total of 34.70 percent of authors were the single individual contributing articles from a particular institution.

Authors contributing a single article intended for readers at the level of higher education represented 63.89 percent; for the secondary level, 14.44 percent, and for the elementary level, 17.29 percent. Minor percentages were contributed by articles which could be utilized at more than one educational level: elementary/secondary, 1.75 percent; secondary/higher education, 1.31

percent; elementary/secondary/higher education, .22 percent, and 1.09 percent were classified as intended for a general adult audience rather than for instructors in the field of language arts.

Authors contributing two articles were: males, 61.67 percent; females, 20.00 percent; no gender available, 6.67 percent. Authors contributing three articles were: males, 6.67 percent, females, 3.33 percent. One male author contributed five articles for 1.66 percent of the total number of authors contributing more than one article.

Of those authors collaborating with one other individual on an article, 49.66 percent were male, 30.61 were female, and 4.76 were of unknown gender . Of those authors collaborating with multiple authors, 10.88 percent were male, 3.40 were female, and .68 were of unknown gender. An additional interesting piece of data was the identification of four husband and wife collaborators.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

This study involved the systematic analysis of the content of articles concerning the composition instruction process, published between January of 1969 and September of 1982 in periodicals identified by the ERIC-CIJE computerized retrieval system. The intent of the study was to determine patterns in article content, trends in terms of geographical location and institutional affiliation of authors and educational levels of articles, and to identify those articles of most potential benefit to elementary and secondary composition teachers.

Data were recorded on tabulation sheets and line graphs. Percentages were used to report content data assigned to categories either designed by the ERIC Clearinghouse or constructed by this author. These conclusions relate only to this investigation and cannot be generalized beyond those articles actually received by this author from the ERIC-CIJE computerized retrieval system.

After content was categorized and ranked according to frequency, it was apparent that patterns in article content did exist for those articles published in periodical literature. This article content data can be classified into four distinct areas: those which remain stable across time, receiving some interest in almost every year; those which fluctuate, spanning the entire time frame but marked by erratic lapses between years; those which were prominent during the earlier period of the study, passing into almost total obscurity during the later years, and those which received relatively little attention during the earlier years, gaining prominence in the later years.

These patterns may possibly be explained in several ways. It is entirely probable that the individuals in the field of language arts concerned with the composition instruction process are basically conservative, concerning themselves with that content which has traditionally been perceived as important to language arts courses of study. This was indicated by the 49.74 percent of total content which was contained in major area one, categories showing stable concern. These categories, in descending order of concern, included Rhetorical Criticism, Research Methodology, Audiovisual Communication, Creative Writing, Evaluation, Grammar, Motivation, English: Second Language, and Professional Developement.

The 17.87 percent of content represented by Rhetorical Criticism may be a reflection of the emphasis placed upon standards of writing stressed within the discipline, and the amount of time devoted to analysis and criticism of writing considered to be superior literature. The attention given to Research Methodology, 5.87 percent, may be an indication of the emphasis placed upon publication by universities, since 75.94 percent of authors were affiliated with higher educational institutions. It is possible that instructors at the secondary and elementary level are less inclined to produce articles since there is little incentive to having their material published in a nationally recognized magazine. They may also be so involved with family that publication of articles is not held as a priority, since the role of teacher, particularly below the high school freshman level, has traditionally been dominated by females.

Audiovisual Communication, with 5.20 percent, would indicate that instructors are utilizing technology in the teaching process in a somewhat tentative manner. Creative Writing, Evaluation, Grammar, and Motivation were expected by this author to receive considerable attention because of personal

experiences in the field of language arts, both as student and instructor. What was surprising was the stable concern with English as a second language. This may partically be explained by the five journals with non-English language titles which totaled 9.77 percent of total content.

Those categories in the second area of concern, content fluctuating erratically, indicate to this author that individuals in the area of composition instruction are influenced to a considerable degree by public opinion which vascillates from year to year. As the public raises a demand to know why "Johnny can't write," authors respond with articles which will, hopefully, solve the problem. Authors are perhaps also trying to better meet the needs of students and to make their jobs more meaningful for themselves as professionals.

Another factor which could help to create the fluctuations across years is the practice some editors have of devoting entire issues of a journal to a particular theme. For instance, an author contributing an article in 1971 concerning Evaluation might have to wait until 1972 before an issue devoted to Evaluation was published. It would be interesting to determine how many journals have an editorial policy stating that particular content will be published in particular issues. However, that area of research is beyond the design of this study.

Those areas of both non-contemporary and contemporary concerns were quite small. This author concluded that the reluctance of authors to concern themselves with innovative programs may be a reflection of several different factors. First could be the conservativism of those individuals who enter the language arts teaching field. Another factor might possibly be an editorial bias concerning material which drastically departs from the more familiar. Another possible factor could be the lack of time to experiment with new approaches and

then to write up results. When individuals feel pressured to publish, they may resort to writing about what is already known. However, even though the percentages are small, there are still those within the discipline who maintain the pioneer spirit.

These are the individuals whose expertise and knowledge are needed at all levels of the educational process. That this is not occurring is evident by the majority, 63.89 percent, of articles intended for the level of higher education. The real reason why these professionals choose to publish such small numbers of articles of interest to elementary and secondary instructors is open to conjecture. It is possible that as educators move into higher educational institutions, their interests change. Since they are teaching adults, they may be interested only in teaching methods which can be applied to the instruction of adults.

Of particular significance to this author in area four was Interdisciplinary Approach and the extremely small percent of interest. Composition has traditionally been the domain of language arts teachers. It is unknown whether this is created by language arts instructors who are reluctant to release control, or a reluctance of other instructors to concern themselves with the matter. This author has concluded it is probably a little of both.

Trends were also apparent in the educational affiliation and geographical location of authors and the educational level of articles. A vast majority, 80.14 percent, of authors represented in this study were affiliated with institutions of higher education. This highlights the place of importance and influence which these individuals hold within the discipline.

It was not surprising that most authors were located in the more heavily populated areas of the United States, nor was it unexpected that Canada would supply the largest percent of articles from locations outside the United States.

What was noteworthy was the absence of Mexico from this list since four of the top journals represented were Spanish-language titles. The reason for this phenomena is open to conjecture.

A matter of some import for this author was the total percent of articles unavailable to this researcher. No library facility can possibly subscribe to all the journals available, particularly those published in other countries. This emphasizes the urgent need for an annotated bibliography in the area of composition instruction.

This author concluded that the people involved in the composition instruction process are of less interest and importance to authors and/or publishers since these categories contained only 11.12 percent of content. This is in comparison to 31.16 percent for abstract, theoretical categories and 19.36 percent for mechanical processes.

The six journals supplying the most articles were those published by the National Council of Teachers of English with 47.89 percent of the total number of articles. This was to be expected since this is the official organization of teachers of language arts. Since the literature review section of this study indicated that teachers will read those journals which are received with a membership fee to an organization, this author determined that those articles of most potential benefit to elementary and secondary teachers of language arts were those contained in English Journal, the publication for secondary teachers, and Language Arts and Elementary English, both of which were designed for elementary teachers. This annotated bibliography, found in Appendix G of this manuscript, is sequenced according to the journal in which the articles were published. Categories are listed in alphabetical order, and authors of articles found in each category are also alphabetized.

The majority of authors providing articles used in this study were males, contributing a single article intended for the higher educational level, writing alone, affiliated with an institution of higher education in the North East section of the country, and being the only individual contributing from that institution.

Recommendations

Based upon the data received in this study, several recommendations for further research are suggested:

1. That a similiar study be conducted using journals published by state councils of English Teachers, particularly in Oklahoma, to determine if the patterns determined by this study can be duplicated.
2. That a study be conducted to determine the factors that influence the publication of articles by elementary and secondary teachers.
3. That a study be conducted to determine those factors which influence the publication of articles representing the Western and Southern sections of the country.
4. That a similiar study be conducted concerning an appropriate period of time in the future to ascertain the validity and reliability of the patterns determined in this study.
5. That a similiar study be conducted covering journals in other disciplines to determine similiarities and differences in patterns, as related to this study.
6. That a study be conducted to investigate the editorial policies of the journals of the National Council of Teachers of English to determine the effect upon publication of articles concerning composition instruction.

FOOTNOTES

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APPENDIX A

RESULTS OF ERIC-CIJE COMPUTERIZED RETRIEVAL SYSTEM

TABLE 1

Articles Identified by ERIC-CIJE

Articles Available at O.U. Library	522
Articles Unavailable at O.U. Library	228
Unacceptable for study	69
Published in Foreign Journals	60
Articles Used in Study	750
Total Articles Identified	879

TABLE 2
Journals Identified by ERIC-CIJE

Journals available at O.U. Library	105
Journals unavailable at O.U. Library	50
Individual Journal Issues Unavailable	27
Total Journals	182

APPENDIX B

CONTENT DATA

TABLE 3

Ranked Frequencies of Content Categories 1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Rhetorical Criticism	4	25	34	28	8	6	7	9	4	1	1	4	2	1	134	17.87
Business Communication			2				1	5	3	12	3	18	4		48	6.40
Research Methodology	1	4	2	2	5	1	3			3		11	9	3	44	5.87
Cognitive Processes				1		2	4	2	1	1	2	13	11	5	42	5.60
Audiovisual Communication	1	2	12	3	2	1	2	4	2		1	4	4	1	39	5.20
Creative Writing	2		2	2	3	1	4	3	2	2	1	14		2	38	5.07
Expository Writing	5	4	6	7			3	2	5	4		1			37	4.93
Evaluation	1	1	4	2		1	5	3		1	3	9	4		34	4.53
Grammar	6	4	2		5		3	2	3	1		2	2		30	4.00
Punctuation	2	3	4	3		3		5	4	1					25	3.33
Teacher Role			1	2			3	1		1		5	8	3	24	3.20
Motivation	3	1		1	1	1		2	1		4	6	2		22	2.93
Journalism		1			10		2		1	2		3	1		20	2.67
Writing Processes: Revision										1		8	8	2	19	2.53
Paragraph Construction	3	4	3	4		1		2		2					19	2.53
English: Second Language	2	1	2		3	1	1	1		3		2	1	1	18	2.40
Theories	1		1		2							7	1	5	17	2.27
Descriptive Writing	6	2	2		1		3	2					1		17	2.27
Audience Awareness						2	1					3	7	3	16	2.13
Remedial Programs		1		1		1			3	1	5	4			16	2.13
Professional Development		1	1	1	1		1	3			1	2	1	2	14	1.87
Essay Tests Usage	1				1		3	2	3		1	1	2		14	1.87
Attitudes/Interests: Students		1		1		1	1	1		1		2	2	3	13	1.73
Sentence-Combining						1		5	1	1					8	1.70
Workshops		1	1								1	7	1	1	12	1.60
Prewriting		1				1	4	1					4		11	1.47
Models													5	2	7	.93
Role Perception: Parents												3		2	5	.67
Annotated Bibliography			1		1									2	4	.53
Interdisciplinary Approach												3			3	.40
Totals	38	57	80	58	43	24	51	55	33	38	23	132	80	38	750	*100.63

*Rounding Error

FIGURE 1

Ranked Frequencies of Content Categories
1969-1982

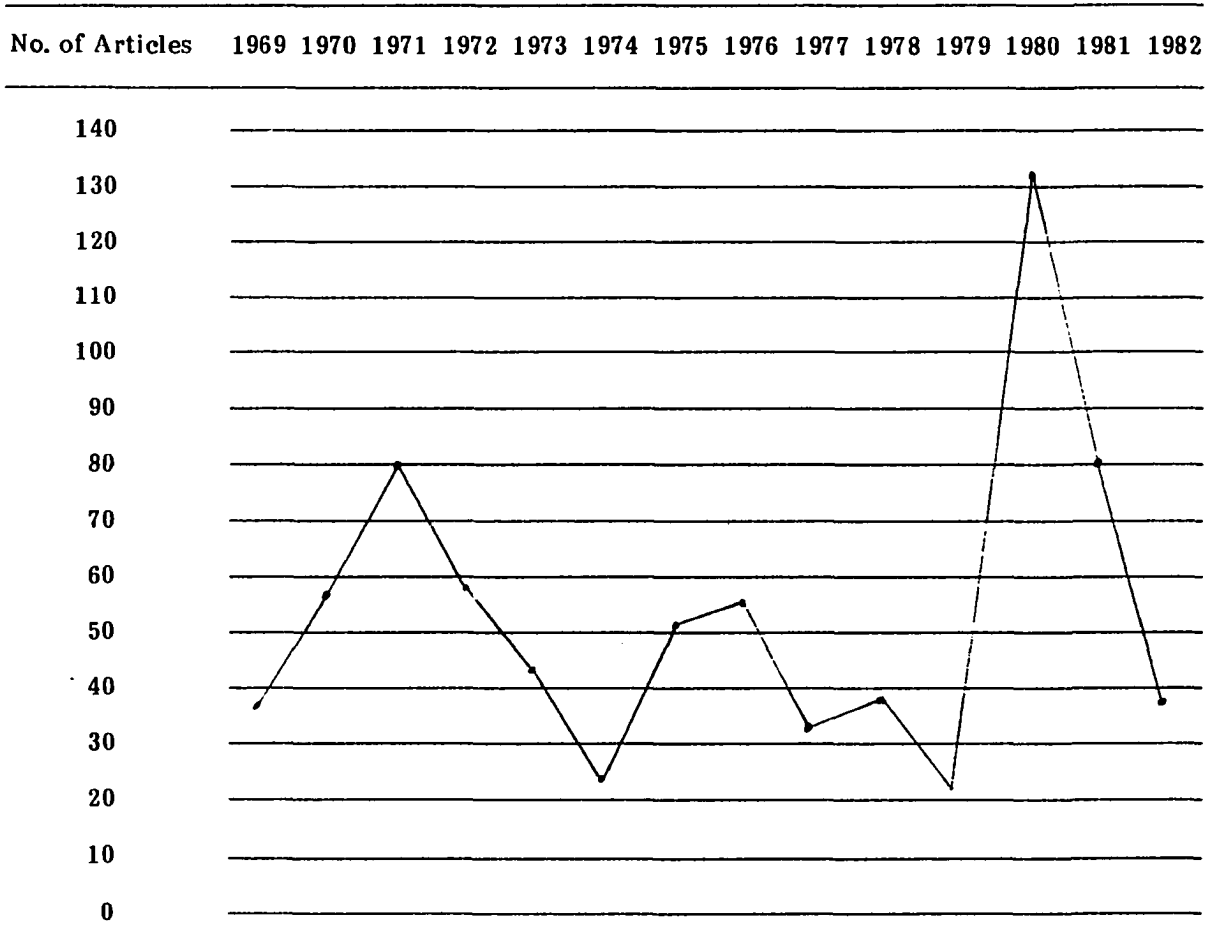


TABLE 4

Articles Indicating Stable Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Rhetorical Criticism	4	25	34	28	8	6	7	9	4	1	1	4	2	1	134	17.87
Research Methodology	1	4	2	2	5	1	3			3		11	9	3	44	5.87
Audiovisual Communication	1	2	12	3	2	1	2	4	2		1	4	4	1	39	5.20
Creative Writing	2		2	2	3	1	4	3	2	2	1	14		2	38	5.07
Evaluation	1	1	4	2		1	5	3		1	3	9	4		34	4.53
Grammar	6	4	2		5		3	2	3	1		2	2		30	4.00
Motivation	3	1		1	1	1		2	1		4	6	2		22	2.93
English: Second Language	2	1	2		3	1	1	1		3		2	1	1	18	2.40
Professional Development		1	1	1	1		1	3			1	2	1	2	14	1.87
Totals	20	39	59	39	28	12	26	27	12	11	11	54	25	10	373	49.74

FIGURE 2

Articles Indicating Stable Concern
1969-1982

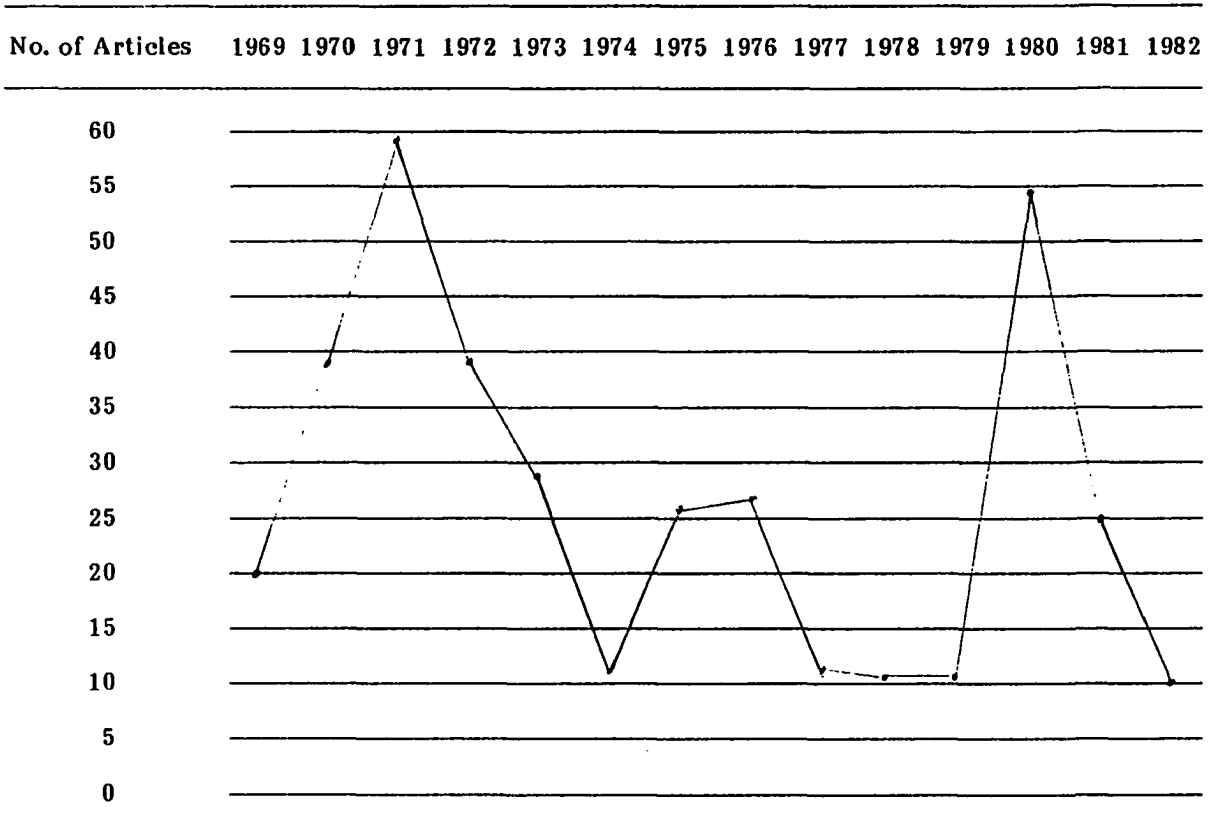


TABLE 5

Articles Indicating Fluctuating Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Business Communication			2				1	5	3	12	3	18	4		48	6.40
Cognitive Processes				1		2	4	2	1	1	2	13	11	5	42	5.60
Teacher Role			1	2			3	1		1		5	8	3	24	3.20
Journalism		1			10		2		1	2		3	1		20	2.67
Theories	1		1		2							7	1	5	17	2.27
Audience Awareness						2	1					3	7	3	16	2.13
Remedial Programs		1		1		1			3	1	5	4			16	2.13
Essay Tests Usage	1				1		3	2	3		1	1	2		14	1.87
Attitudes/Interests: Students		1		1		1	1	1		1		2	2	3	13	1.73
Prewriting		1				1	4	1					4		11	1.47
Annotated Bibliography			1		1									2	4	.53
Totals	2	4	5	5	14	7	19	12	11	18	11	56	40	21	225	30.00

FIGURE 3

Articles Indicating Fluctuating Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

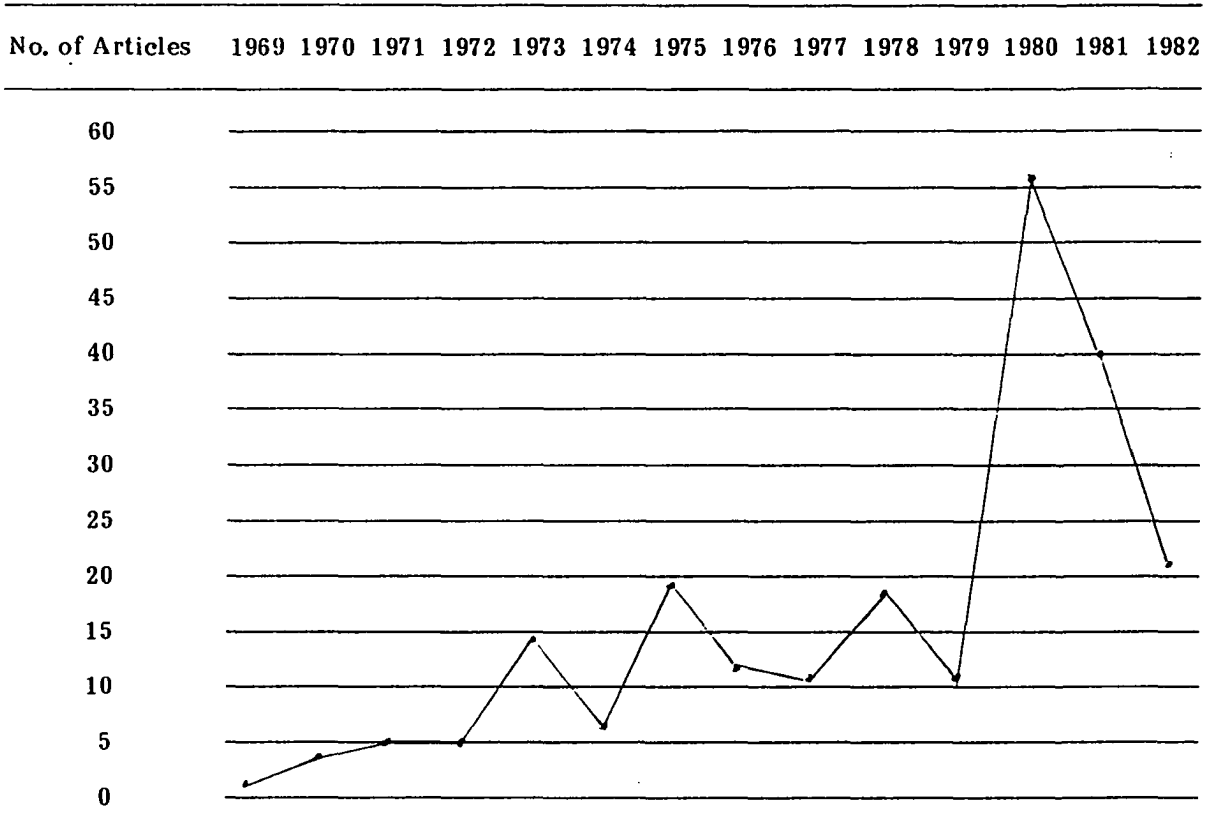


TABLE 6

Articles Indicating Non-Contemporary Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Expository Writing	5	4	6	7			3	2	5	4		1			37	4.93
Punctuation	2	3	4	3		3		5	4	1					25	3.33
Paragraph Construction	3	4	3	4		1		2		2					19	2.53
Descriptive Writing	6	2	2		1		3	2					1		17	2.27
Sentence-Combining						1		5	1	1					8	1.17
Totals	16	13	15	14	1	5	6	16	10	8		1	1		106	14.23

FIGURE 4

Articles Indicating Non-Contemporary Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

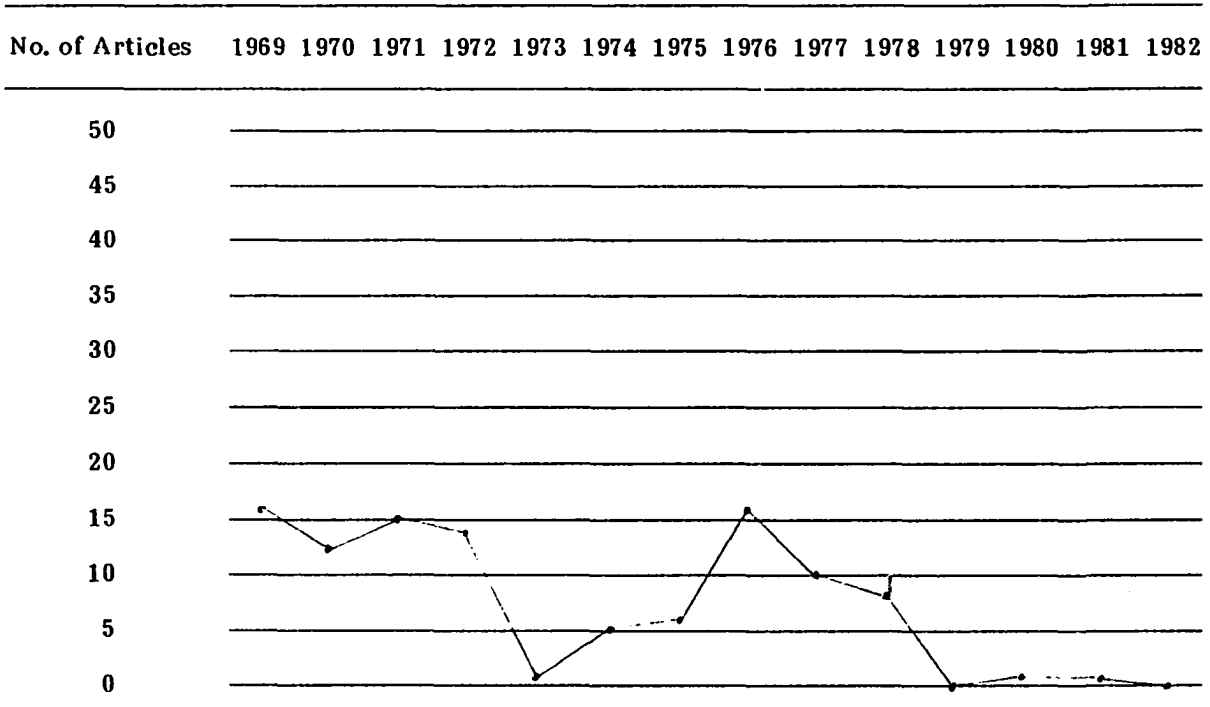


TABLE 7

Articles Indicating Contemporary Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Writing Processes: Revision										1		8	8	2	19	2.53
Workshops		1	1								1	7	1	1	12	1.60
Models													5	2	7	.93
Role Perception: Parents												3		2	5	.67
Interdisciplinary Approach												3			3	.40
Totals	1	1								1	1	21	14	7	46	6.13

FIGURE 5

Articles Indicating Contemporary Patterns of Concern
1969-1982

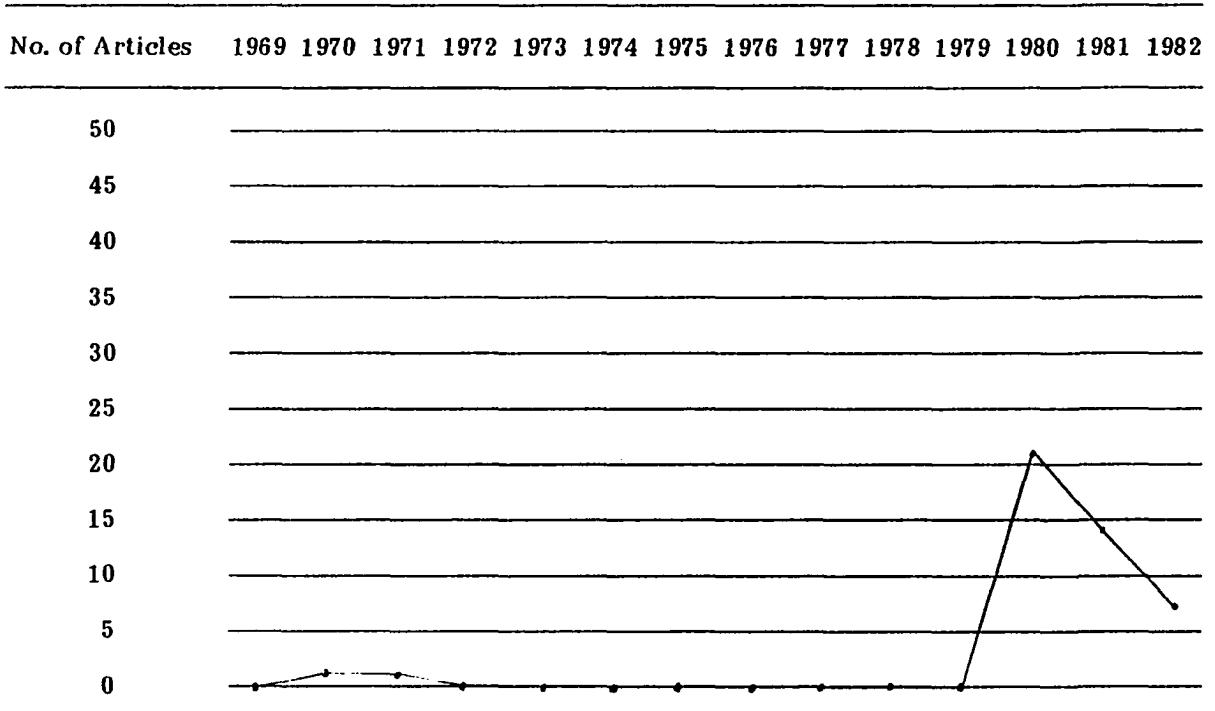


TABLE 8

First Four-Year Ranked Frequencies of Content Categories
1969-1972

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	Total	Percent
Rhetorical Criticism	4	25	34	28	91	12.13
Business Communication			2		2	.27
Research Methodology	1	4	2	2	9	1.20
Cognitive Processes				1	1	.13
Audiovisual Communication	1	2	12	3	18	2.40
Creative Writing	2		2	2	6	.80
Expository Writing	5	4	6	7	22	2.93
Evaluation	1	1	4	2	8	1.07
Grammar	6	4	2		12	1.60
Punctuation	2	3	4	3	12	1.60
Teacher Role			1	2	3	.40
Motivation	3	1		1	5	.67
Journalism		1			1	.13
Writing Processes: Revision	—	—	—	—	—	—
Paragraph Construction	3	4	3	4	14	1.87
English: Second Language	2	1	2		5	.67
Theories	1		1		2	.27
Descriptive Writing	6	2	2		10	1.33
Audience Awareness	—	—	—	—	—	—
Remedial Programs		1		1	2	.27
Professional Development		1	1	1	3	.40
Essay Tests Usage	1				1	.13
Attitudes/Interests: Students		1		1	2	.27
Sentence-Combining	—	—	—	—	—	—
Workshops		1	1		2	.27
Prewriting		1			1	.13
Models	—	—	—	—	—	—
Role Perception: Parents	—	—	—	—	—	—
Annotated Bibliography			1		1	.13
Interdisciplinary Approach	—	—	—	—	—	—
Totals	38	57	80	58	233	31.07

TABLE 9

Second Five-Year Ranked Frequencies of Content Categories
1973-1977

Category	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	Total	Percent
Rhetorical Criticism	8	6	7	9	4	34	4.53
Business Communication			1	5	3	9	1.20
Research Methodology	5	1	3			9	1.20
Cognitive Processes		2	4	2	1	9	1.20
Audiovisual Communication	2	1	2	4	2	11	1.47
Creative Writing	3	1	4	3	2	13	1.73
Expository Writing			3	2	5	10	1.33
Evaluation		1	5	3		9	1.20
Grammar	5		3	2	3	13	1.73
Punctuation		3		5	4	12	1.60
Teacher Role			3	1		4	.53
Motivation	1	1		2	1	5	.67
Journalism	10		2		1	13	1.73
Writing Processes: Revision	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Paragraph Construction		1		2		3	.40
English: Second Language	3	1	1	1		6	.80
Theories	2					2	.27
Descriptive Writing	1		3	2		6	.80
Audience Awareness		2	1			3	.40
Remedial Programs		1			3	4	.53
Professional Development	1		1	3		5	.67
Essay Tests Usage	1		3	2	3	9	1.20
Attitudes/Interests: Students		1	1	1		3	.40
Sentence-Combining		1		5	1	7	.93
Workshops	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Prewriting		1	4	1		6	.80
Models	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Role Perception: Parents	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Annotated Bibliography	1					1	.13
Interdisciplinary Approach	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Totals	43	24	51	55	33	206	27.45

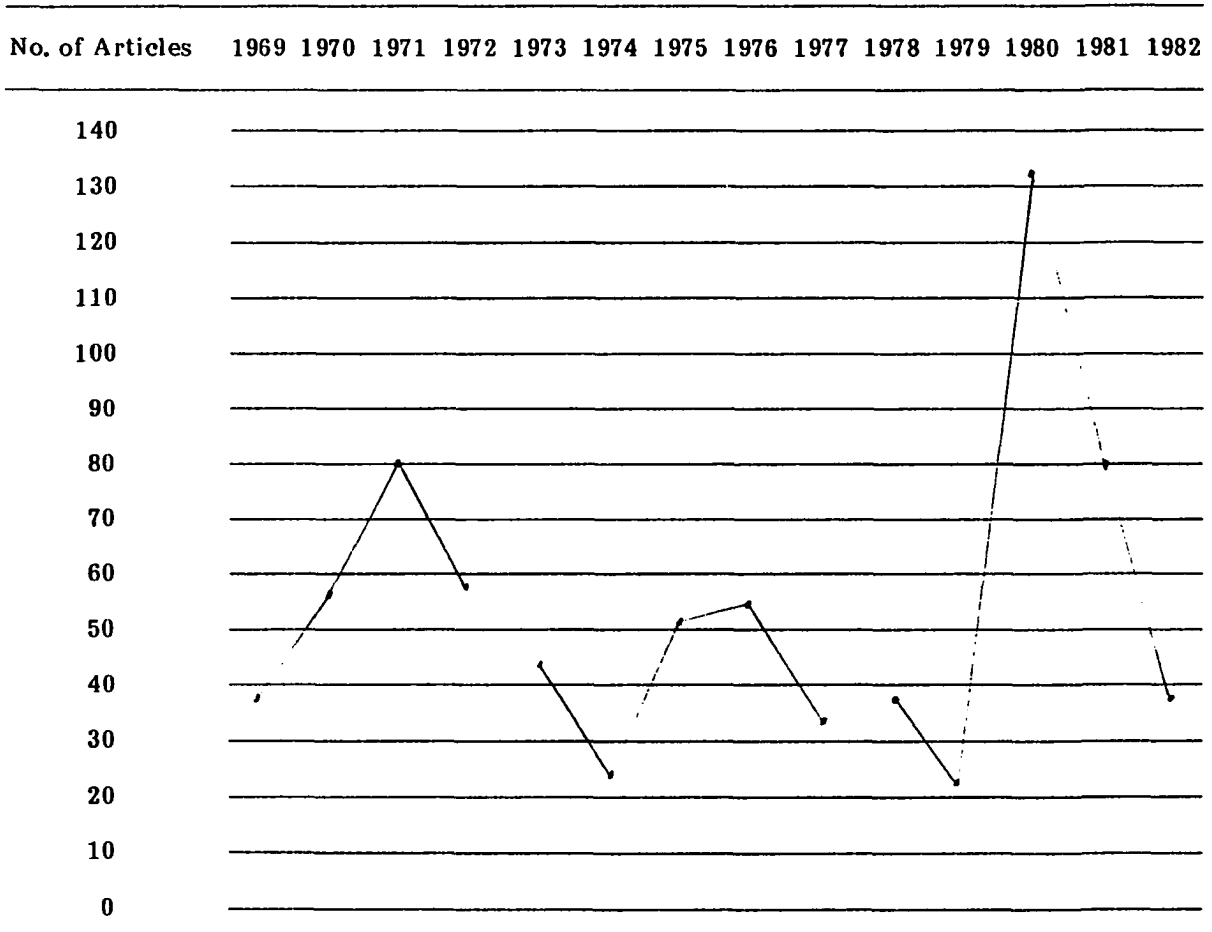
TABLE 10

Third Five-Year Ranked Frequencies of Content Categories
1978-1982

Category	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Rhetorical Criticism	1	1	4	2	1	9	1.20
Business Communication	12	3	18	4		37	4.93
Research Methodology	3		11	9	3	26	3.47
Cognitive Processes	1	2	13	11	5	32	4.27
Audiovisual Communication		1	4	4	1	10	1.33
Creative Writing	2	1	14		2	19	2.53
Expository Writing	4		1			5	.67
Evaluation	1	3	9	4		17	2.27
Grammar	1		2	2		5	.67
Punctuation	1					1	.13
Teacher Role	1		5	8	3	17	2.27
Motivation		4	6	2		12	1.60
Journalism	2		3	1		6	.80
Writing Processes: Revision	1		8	8	2	19	2.53
Paragraph Construction	2					2	.27
English: Second Language	3		2	1	1	7	.93
Theories			7	1	5	13	1.73
Descriptive Writing				1		1	.13
Audience Awareness			3	7	3	13	1.73
Remedial Programs	1	5	4			10	1.33
Professional Development		1	2	1	2	6	.80
Essay Tests Usage		1	1	2		4	.53
Attitudes/Interests: Students	1		2	2	3	8	1.07
Sentence-Combining	1					1	.13
Workshops		1	7	1	1	10	1.33
Prewriting				4		4	.53
Models				5	2	7	.93
Role Perception: Parents			3		2	5	.67
Annotated Bibliography					2	2	.27
Interdisciplinary Approach			3			3	.40
Totals	38	23	132	80	38	311	41.45

FIGURE 6

Articles in Four and Five Year Sections
1969-1982



APPENDIX C

INSTITUTIONAL DATA

TABLE 11

Ranking of United States Educational Institutions with which Five or More Authors Were Affiliated 1969-1982, And Other Author Data

Institution	Total	Percent
University of Texas, Austin	15	3.23
University of Georgia, Athens	12	2.59
University of Illinois, Urbana and Chicago	8	1.71
City University, New York City	8	1.71
U. of Minnesota, Minneapolis, St. Paul & Duluth	7	1.51
New York University, New York City	7	1.51
Michigan State University, East Lansing	7	1.51
Rutgers University, New Brunswick	6	1.29
Ohio State University, Columbus	7	1.51
University of California, Berkeley	5	1.08
University of California, Los Angeles	5	1.08
University of Iowa, Iowa City	5	1.08
Northern Illinois University, DeKalb	5	1.08
University of Missouri, St. Louis & Columbia	5	1.08
Boston University, Boston	5	1.08
Georgia State University, Atlanta	5	1.08
Miami University, Oxford, Ohio	5	1.08
University of New Hampshire, Durham	5	1.08
Totals	122	26.29
Authors from other Educational Institutions	342	73.71
Totals	464	100.00
Authors from All Other Sources	115	
Total Authors	579	

TABLE 12

Educational Institution With Which Authors
Were Affiliated 1969-1982

Institution	Total	Percent
Ten Institutions, Four Authors Each	40	8.62
Fifteen Institutions, Three authors each	45	9.70
Forty-eight Institutions, Two Authors Each	96	20.69
One Hundred sixty-one Institutions, One Author Each	161	34.70
Eighteen Institutions, More Than Five Authors Each	122	26.29
Totals	252	100.00
Higher Education Institutions	188	74.60
Secondary Schools	35	13.88
Elementary Schools	29	11.51
Totals	252 *	99.99

*Rounding Error

TABLE 13

Educational Institution By States With Which Authors Were Affiliated 1969-1982

Institution	Total	Percent
New York	55	11.85
California	38	8.19
Illinois	34	7.33
Ohio	29	6.25
Michigan	27	5.81
Texas	25	5.39
Georgia	20	4.31
Pennsylvania	20	4.31
Indiana	19	4.09
Massachusettes	12	2.59
New Jersey	12	2.59
Missouri	12	2.59
Iowa	11	2.37
Minnesota	10	2.15
Virginia	10	2.15
Connecticut	10	2.15
Washington	9	1.90
Maryland	8	1.72
Arizona	8	1.72
Florida	7	1.51
Rhode Island	7	1.51
Colorado	7	1.51
Kansas	6	1.29
Oregon	6	1.29
New Hampshire	5	1.08
Wisconsin	5	1.08
North Carolina	5	1.08
Utah	5	1.08
Tennessee	4	.86
Vermont	4	.86
Alabama	4	.86
Oklahoma	4	.86

Delaware	3	.65
Hawaii	3	.65
Kentucky	3	.65
Nebraska	3	.65
Idaho	2	.43
Louisiana	2	.43
Washington D. C.	2	.43
West Virginia	2	.43
Mississippi	1	.22
North Dakota	1	.22
Wyoming	1	.22
University Location Unknown	3	.65
Totals	464	100.00
No place available	39	
Professional Authors	25	
Authors From Foreign Countries	51	
Total Authors	579	

FIGURE 7

Regional Distribution of Instutionally-Based Articles
1969-1982

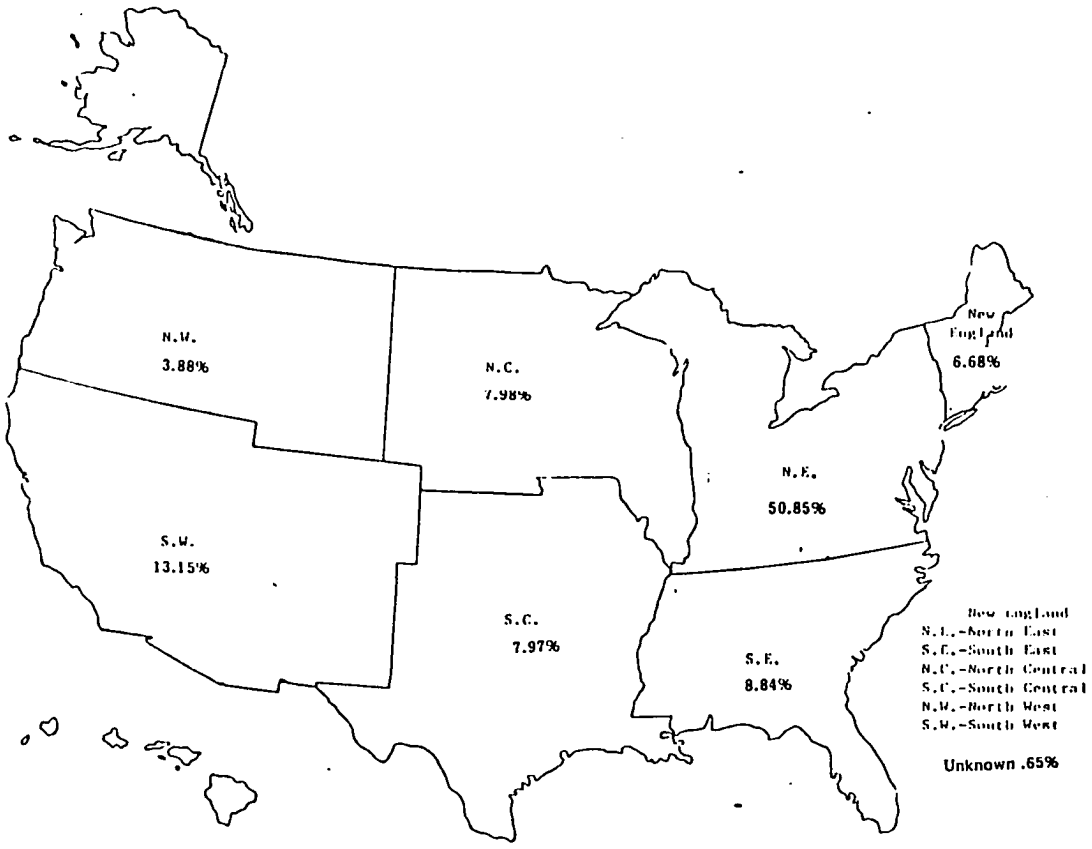


TABLE 14

Foreign Locations From Which Authors Derived
1969-1982

Country	Total	Percent
Canada	10	20.00
France	7	14.00
Spain	6	12.00
Holland	5	10.00
England	4	8.00
Australia	3	6.00
Guyana	2	4.00
West Germany	2	4.00
Afghanistan	1	2.00
Guam	1	2.00
Ireland	1	2.00
Israel	1	2.00
Italy	1	2.00
New Zealand	1	2.00
Uruguay	1	2.00
Venezuela	1	2.00
Totals	50	100.00

APPENDIX D

JOURNAL DATA

TABLE 15

Ranked Frequencies of Journals from which Six or More Articles Derived 1969-1982, And other Journal Data

Journal	Total	Percent
*College Composition and Communication	72	13.79
*English Journal	69	13.22
*College English	38	7.28
*Language Arts	34	6.51
*Research in Teaching English	19	3.64
*Elementary English	18	3.45
Cuadernos Hispanoamericanos	18	3.45
Teacher	11	2.11
Revista Iberoamericana	10	1.92
Hispania	9	1.72
Theory Into Practice	8	1.53
Cuadernos Americanos	7	1.34
German Quarterly	7	1.34
Journal of Reading	7	1.34
English Language Teaching Journal	7	1.34
Clearing House	6	1.15
Journal of General Education	6	1.15
Reading Teacher	6	1.15
Total	352	67.43
Other Journals Represented	170	32.56
Total Articles in all Journals	522	**99.99

*Journals published by the National Council of Teachers of English
**Rounding Error

FIGURE 8

Distribution of Number of Articles Per Journal

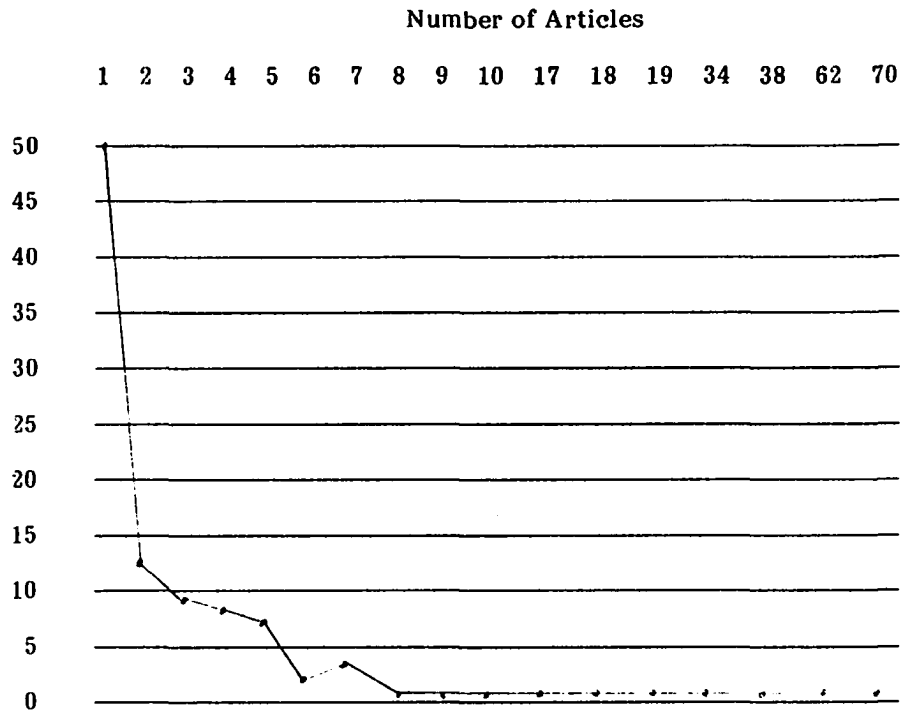


TABLE 16

Journals Available for This Study

Journals Containing One Article
Action in Teacher Education
American Biology Teacher
American Educational Research Journal
Anthropological Linguistics
Arts in Society
Audiovisual Instruction
C.E.A. Critic
Child Development
Classical Bulletin
Classical Outlook
Classical World
College and Research Libraries
College and University Journal
College Board Review
Daedalus
Developmental Psychology
Education Digest
Educational Horizons
Etc: A Review of General Semantics
International Journal of American Linguistics
Journal of the American Society for Information Science
Journal of Business Communication
Journal of Applied Psychology
Journal of College Placement
Journal of Communication
Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology
Journal of Cooperative Extension
Journal of Educational Measurement
Journal of Linguistics
Journal of Personality Assessment
Journal of Reading Behavior
Journalism Quarterly
Junior College Journal
Lingua
Modern Language Journal
National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin
National Elementary Principal
Oceanic Linguistics
Performance and Instruction
Personnel and Guidance Journal
Phoenix

Reading World
Research Quarterly
Science Education
Social Behavior and Personality
Social Studies
Social Work
Teaching Political Science
Today's Education
Wirkendes Wort

Journals Containing Two Articles

CEA Forum
Childhood Education
Education
Educational and Industrial Television
Improving College and University Teaching
Journal of Aesthetic Education
Journal of Educational Psychology
Journalism Educator
Momentum
Phi Delta Kappan
Reading Improvement
Slavonic and East European Review
Unterrichtspraxis

Journals Containing Three Articles

Balance Sheet
Educational and Psychological Measure
Francais dans le monde
Hispanic Review
History Teacher
Italia
Learning
Peabody Journal of Education
Revista de filologia espanola

Journals Containing Four Articles

Business Education Forum
Communication: Journalism Education Today
Instructor

Journal of Business Education
Journal of Educational Research
Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior
Langages
Quarterly Journal of Speech

Journals Containing Five Articles

ABCA Bulletin
Bulletin of Hispanic Studies
Change
French Review
Grade Teacher
Media and Methods
Yelmo

Journals Containing Six Articles

Clearning House
Journal of General Education
Reading Teacher

Journals Containing Seven Articles

Cuadernos Americanos
English Language Teaching Journal
German Quarterly
Journal of Reading

Journals Containing Eight Articles

Theory Into Practice

Journals Containing Nine Articles

Hispania

Journals Containing Ten Articles
Revista Iberoamericana

Journals Containing Eleven Articles
Teacher

Journals Containing Eighteen Articles
Cuadernos Hispanoamericanos Elementary English

Journals Containing Nineteen Articles
Research in Teaching English

Journals Containing Thirty-Four Articles
Language Arts

Journals Containing Thirty- Eight Articles
College English

Journals Containing Sixty-Nine Articles
English Journal

Journals Containing Seventy-Two Articles

College Composition and Communication

APPENDIX E

ARTICLE DATA

TABLE 17

Distbution Frequencies of Article Availability or
Non-Availability by Year 1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Articles in Unavailable Journals	4	9	11	7	20	6	15	14	10	14	13	53	22	10	208	27.73
Articles in Missing Issues	4	4	3	1								3	3	2	20	2.67
Totals	8	13	14	8	20	6	15	14	10	14	13	56	25	12	228	30.40
Articles in Available Journals	32	45	65	51	23	17	39	51	21	24	9	73	49	23	522	69.60
Total Articles	40	58	79	59	43	23	54	65	31	38	22	129	74	35	750	100.00

FIGURE 9

Article Availability or Non-Availability by Year
1969-1982

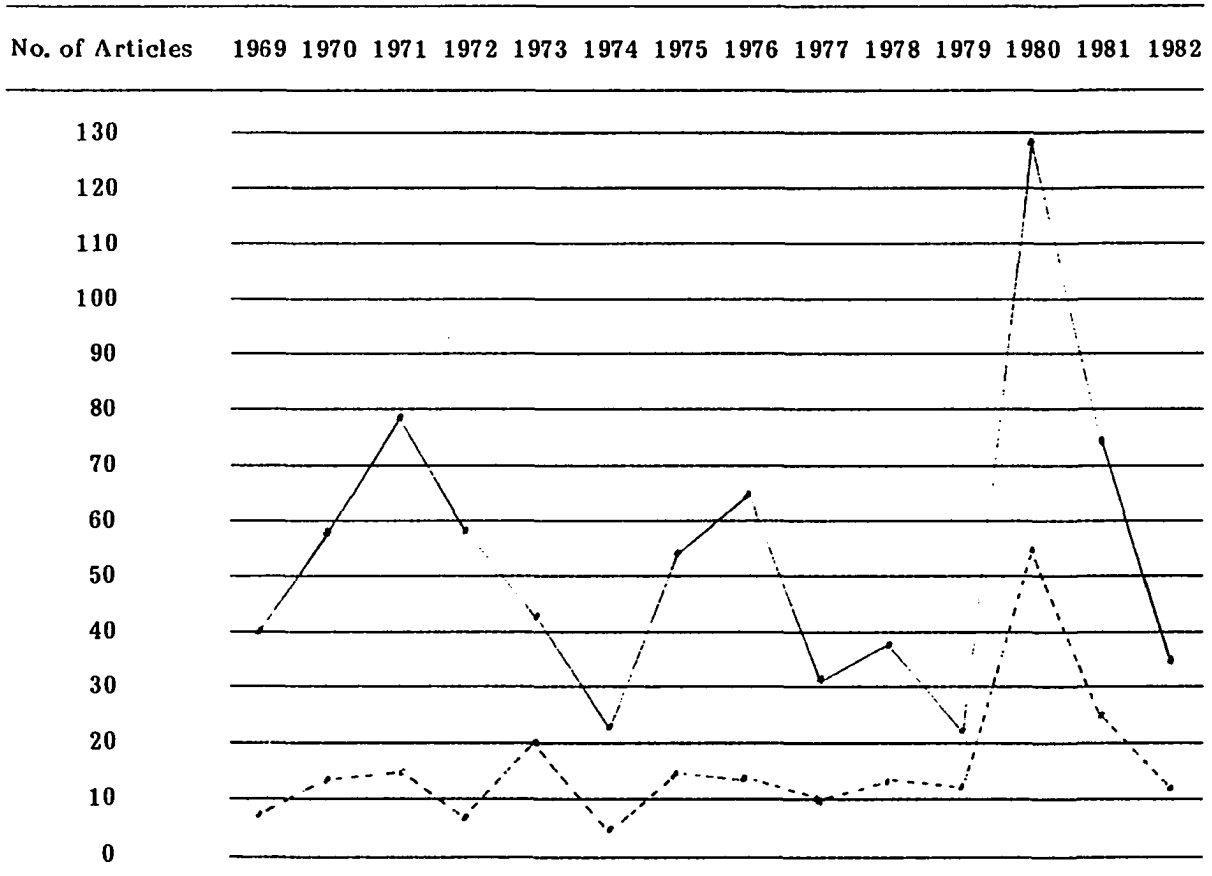


TABLE 18

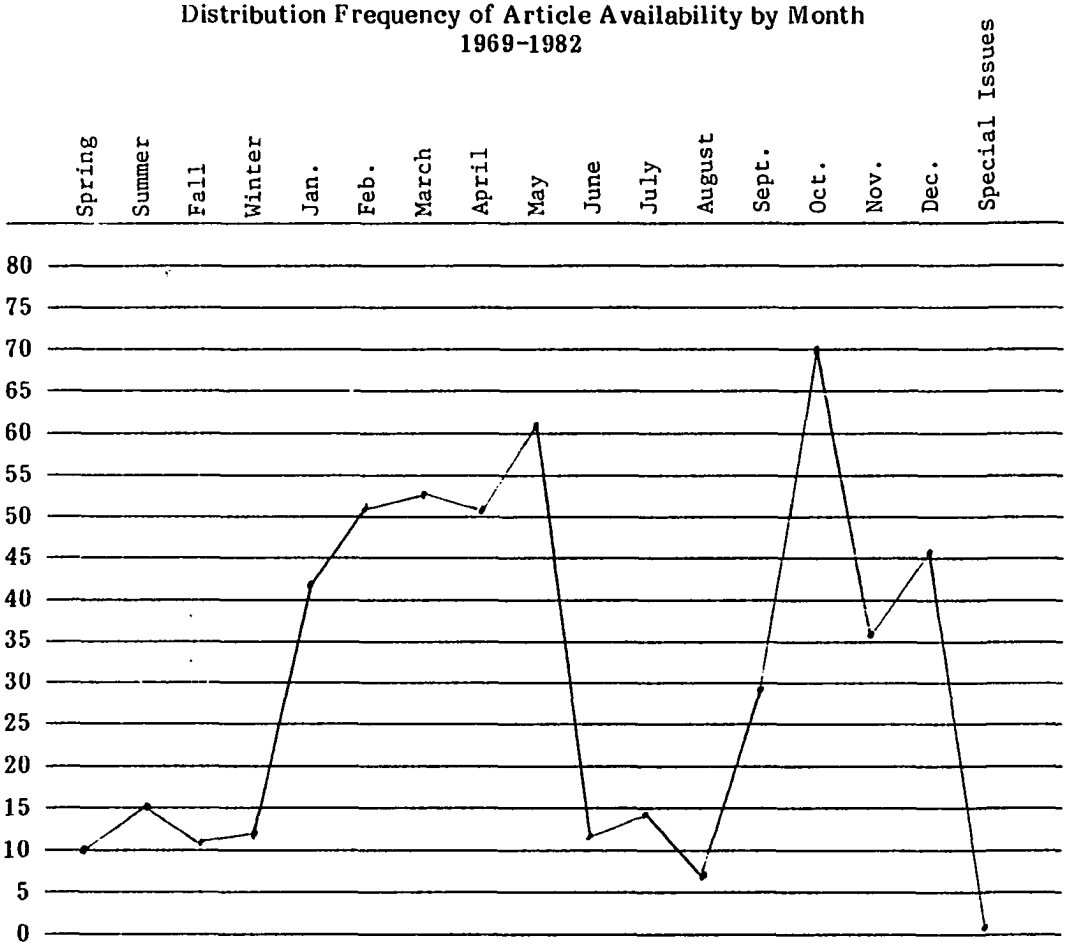
Distbution Frequencies of Article Availability by Month
1969-1982

Category	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Total	Percent
Spring		1		1	4				2				2		10	1.92
Summer	1		3		1			2			1	7			15	2.87
Fall		2		1		5	1	1					1		11	2.11
Winter	1	2		1			5	1			1	1	1		13	2.49
January	1	4	15	2	1		2	2	2	3	1	5	2	2	42	8.05
February	3	3	4	5	2	1	2	8	1	5		5	6	6	51	9.77
March	4	6	6	6	2		1	7	3	2	1	9	2	4	53	10.15
April	3	2	5	9	1	1	6	2	3	10		5	3	1	51	9.77
May	3	5	9	4	3		1	4	4	3		16	2	7	61	11.69
June		3		1			3					5			12	2.29
July			5	7	1				1						14	2.68
August	1	1					2	2			1				7	1.34
September	3	2	2	4	1	1	2	3	1			1	6	3	29	5.55
October	7	5	7	3	2	7	7	4	2		3	8	15		70	13.40
November	3	2	6	2	3		1	8			1	6	4		36	6.90
December	2	7	3	5	1	2	6	7	2	1		5	5		46	8.81
Special Issues					1										1	.19
Totals	32	45	65	51	23	17	39	51	21	24	9	73	49	23	522	* 99.98
Percent by Year	4.27	6.00	8.67	6.80	3.07	2.27	5.20	6.80	2.80	3.20	1.20	9.73	6.53	3.07		

*Rounding Error

FIGURE 10

Distribution Frequency of Article Availability by Month
1969-1982



APPENDIX F

AUTHOR DATA

TABLE 19

Educational Level of Authors of Single Articles by Gender of Author
1969-1982

Educational Level	Male	Percent	Female	Percent	N.A.	Percent	Total	Percent
Higher Education	204	44.64	61	13.34	27	5.91	292	63.89
Secondary Education	31	6.78	31	6.78	4	.88	66	14.44
Elementary	32	7.00	41	8.97	6	1.31	79	17.29
Elem./Sec.	6	1.31	1	.22	1	.22	8	1.75
Sec./Higher Ed.	3	.66	3	.66			6	1.31
Adult	3	.66	2	.44			5	1.09
Elem./Sec. Higher Ed.			1	.22			1	.22
Totals	279	61.05	140	30.63	39	8.53	457	*99.99

*Rounding Error

TABLE 20

Authors Contributing Two or More Articles by Gender of Author
1969-1982

Educational Level	Male	Percent	Female	Percent	N.A.	Percent	Total	Percent
Two Articles	37	61.67	12	20.00	4	6.67	53	88.34
Three Articles	4	6.67	2	3.33			6	10.00
Four Articles								
Five Articles	1	1.66					1	1.66
Totals	42	70.00	14	23.33	4	6.67	60	100.00

TABLE 21

Multiple-Authorship Articles by Gender of Author
1969-1982

Educational Level	Male	Percent	Female	Percent	N.A.	Percent	Total	Percent
Two Authors	73	49.66	45	30.61	7	4.76	125	85.03
Three or More Authors	16	10.88	5	3.40	1	.68	22	14.96
Totals	89	60.14	50	33.78	8	5.41	147	*99.99

*Rounding Error

APPENDIX G

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Articles of Concern to Secondary Teachers
Published in English Journal

Attitudes/Interests: Students

Hoetker, James and Gordon Brossell. An EJ Readership Survey Report, 1980, 69, pp. 13-19.

Summarizes secondary school students' opinions on the amount of writing they do in school, how they do it, and how it is evaluated. Concludes that the teachers of these students do not neglect writing in their classes.

Skapura, Robert J. Lawsuits, Duels, and Burma-Shave: Nonfiction Works . . . If You Let It, 1972, 61, pp. 831-835.

The inclusion of a substantial amount of nonfiction in your English class is one of the easiest ways to involve the uninvolved high school student; specific books are suggested.

Audience Awareness

Bigelow, Anne M. Tapping the Source, 1982, 71, pp. 70-72.

Explains why writing is a mysterious, complex process dependent on a lifetime of experiencing, feeling, and thinking, and why English teachers should be emphasizing writing to an audience more than the learning of mechanical rules.

Hollman, Marilyn J. Learning about Writing from the Public, 1981, 70, pp. 26-31.

Interviews with 25 people whose jobs require varying amounts of writing (and writing skill) provide at least beginning support for much of the research in composing, especially about the importance of purpose, audience, and the reliability of writing process models.

Audiovisual Communication

Dauterman, Philip and Robert Stahl. Film Stimuli - An Approach to Creative Writing, 1971, 60, pp. 1120-1122.

How to help students progress from descriptive to affective to creative responses through the use of films in a language arts class.

Foley, Helen. To Sing the Street: Using a Community Film Program to Teach Composition, 1971, 60, pp. 1101-1108.

Methods for blending the language of the street with the language of the library, the integration of the language of film, a visual and oral languae, with the written language of great literature and good composition.

Meador, Melba. Bringing Job into the Twentieth Century, 1971, 60, pp. 921-923.

A model for teaching the Book of Job to high school students, using such diverse media as "Peanuts" cartoons and poems, news articles and novels. Describes some of the major themes in Job and their relevance to modern literature. Suggests supplementary reading and themes for student papers.

Mueller, Lavonne. Saul Steinberg and High School Composition, 1971, 60, pp. 1095-1100.

The drawings of Saul Steinberg can be a workable way of introducing the student to composition. Article explains how to overcome the "getting started" problem.

Shachter, Jacqueline. Writing Resources: Videotaped Authors Advise Student Writers, 1980, 69, pp. 85-86.

Describes videotaped materials presenting interviews with established authors that are available for use in writing instruction in secondary schools. Eight suggestions from famous writers are included.

Business Communication

Carlisle, E. Fred. Teaching Scientific Writing Humanistically: From Theory to Action, 1978, 67, pp. 35-39.

Presents several assumptions about scientific writing and from these derives teaching methods for a year-long sequence of writing courses for science freshmen.

Dunwoody, Sharon. From a Journalist's Perspective: Putting Content into Mass Media Science Writing, 1978, 67, pp. 44-47.

Suggests that science writers have a responsibility to examine the social, political, and economic contexts of science.

Enke, C. G. Scientific Writing: One Scientist's Perspective, 1978, 67, pp. 40-43.

Describes the methods a scientist employs in his scientific writing.

Fagan, Edward R. Literature through Science: Catalyst for Writing: Teaching Ideas, 1978, 67, pp. 68-71.

Describes an experimental course in "Literature through Science" designed to improve students' expository writing skills while teaching them about science.

Klausen, James. The Mulholland Test for Understandability in Popular Science Writing, 1978, 67, pp. 72-73.

Urges popular science writers to reduce vocabulary to a level that can be comprehended by the average reader.

Ross, Frederick C. and Mitchell H. Jarosz. Integrating Science Writing: A Biology Instructor and an English Teacher Get Together, 1978, 67, pp. 51-55.

Explains how a biology instructor and a writing teacher each developed an interest in a cooperative approach to teaching science writing at Delta College.

Wilkes, John. Science Writing: Who? What? How?, 1978, 67, pp. 56-60.

Shows how English composition teachers with little or no science background can actually use that lack of background as an asset in teaching science writing.

Cognitive Processes

Carroll, Joyce Armstrong. The Sensuous Metaphor, 1982, 71, pp. 88-90.

Invites a different look at metaphorical abstraction in hopes of raising realizations about language processes, writing processes, and the mental activities involved in both.

Creative Writing

Figg, Kristen M. Introducing Invention Techniques: A Middle School Writing Assignment, 1980, 69, pp. 60-61.

Provides a writing assignment that introduces the use of an invention heuristic to students of middle school age. Illustrates the use of the assignment with the prewriting and in-class essay of a nine-year-old student.

Hagemann, Meyly Chin. Taking the "Wrench" out of Letter Writing, 1980, 69, pp. 38-40.

Designed for instruction in letter writing for secondary English classes, this article suggests that students write for free items.

Halpern, Jeanne W. and Dale Mathews. Helping Inexperienced Writers: An Informal Discussion with Mina Shaughnessey, 1980, 69, pp. 32-37.

Presents an edited transcript of an informal discussion with Mina Shaughnessy on techniques to be used in teaching composition to inexperienced writers at the secondary and college levels.

*Harris, Josephine. What Writers Advise on the Teaching of Creative Writing, 1971, 60, pp. 345-352.

Various writers talk about methods for teaching creative, imaginative writing, and role the teacher plays in the process.

Micucci, Cheryl Madeleine. Streamlining Adolescent Writing: A Diet for Obese Prose, 1980, 69, pp. 60-61.

Patterns writing instruction after the contemporary quest for weight control: lots of exercises, dedication toward achieving a goal, and developing alowly through carefully planned stages of the whole process.

Murray, Donald M. The Handout Page: Questions to Produce Writing Topics, 1980, 69, p. 69.

Lists 16 questions for eliciting student writing.

Tanner, Bernard R. Witnessing, or the Myth of the Global Village, 1971, 60, pp. 740-745.

A discussion of the power of first person narrative and the modern predilection for personal witness, especially among the young. Explores personalized reporting based on direct experience, passive observation (or vicarious experience), and the public announcing of personal views, and related all to the teaching of English, particularly composition.

Wright, Keith and Roy Alin. Junior High/Middle School Workshop, 1974, 63, pp. 85-86.

The junior high English teacher should encourage creative writing to make the students more aware of themselves and the world around them.

Descriptive Writing

Reynolds, William J. To Describe It All — Growl Softly, 1971, 60, pp. 267-269.

Believes that by adequately expressing our depths of feeling through language we may come to understand ourselves better.

Thompson, Sharon. On Babies and Composition, 1981, 70, pp. 36-37.

Compares the steps in the writing process to the stages of having a baby.

Evaluation

*Kantor, Ken. Evaluating Creative Writing: A Different Ball Game, 1975, 64, pp. 72-74.

Author offers some concepts of creativity in order to assist teachers in evaluating creative writing.

Expository Writing

*Finder, Morris. Reading and Writing Esposition and Argument: The Skills and Their Relationships, 1971, 60, pp. 615-620.

Author discusses the purposes of discourse which are to inform the reader, to persuade, or to give pleasure. Writing must have an effect on the audience.

*Gaston, Thomas E. Teaching a Concept of Style for Literature and Composition, 1970, 59, pp. 65-70, 98.

Style in literature and composition can more easily be taught if this abstract term is made concrete by comparing writing styles with what students most like about their favorite movie stars and atheletes.

*Gibb, Carson. Reporting and Exposition, 1971, 60, pp. 251-254, 259.

Discusses the differences between high school English courses, which stress reporting, and college courses, which emphasize exposition.

Grady, Michael. On Teaching Christensen Rhetoric, 1972, 61, pp. 859-873, 877.

Some suggestions as to how to transfer training from narration and description to exposition, and how to extend Christensen principles to deal with the whole composition.

*Neumeyer, Peter F. A Gallary of Horrors, or, Morsels to Eschew, Followed by Advice for Those Who Have Ears to Hear, 1975, 64, pp. 60-62.

Students write dull papers because they are surrounded by dull writing in numerous publications. In order to produce exciting writing, students need to forget about the technical aspects of language and establish a contact with their audience.

Struck, Herman R. The Importance of Being Repetitious, 1971, 60, pp. 474-478, 546.

Urges secondary school English teachers to encourage students to experiment more with repetition as a writing technique.

Grammar

Newkirk, Thomas. Grammar Instruction and Writing: What WE Don't Know: Close-up: Grammar and Composition, 1978, 67, pp. 46-48.

Reviews research to establish that it has not proven that instruction in grammar has no effect on student writing.

Motivation

*Draper, Arthur G. Teach the Process of Writing, 1969, 58, pp. 245-248.

Discusses a high school teacher's methods for teaching writing to students, including its purpose and outcome.

*Farrell, Edmund J. The Beginning Begets: Making Composition Assignments, 1969, 58, pp. 428-431.

Author lists "do's and do not's" of making composition assignments, with examples of both, and the suggestions would benefit both writer and evaluator/teacher.

Gnagy, Susan and Others. E J Workshop, 1980, 69, pp. 64-68.

Contains suggestions for improving writing instruction and stimulating student interest in writing. Suggests contest writing, using the poem "Jabberwocky" for vocabulary development, and an activity for structuring creative thinking.

Prewriting

*Golub, Jeffrey N. and Robert W. Reising. Oral Communication as Pre-Writing Activities.

Discusses how oral communication activities are good motivators and warm-up exercises for writing, and how there is a natural flow from speaking to writing.

Professional Development

Copland, Jean. W. Wilbur Hatfield: Precursor of Present Composition Practices, 1980, 69, pp. 37-43.
A review of the writings of a former "English Journal" editor shows a maturing growth in his conception of the composing process and reveals him to be the precursor of many present composition practices.

Woods, William F. and Others. A Guide to Publishing Opportunities for Teachers of Writing, 1980, 69, pp. 97-100.

Provides pertinent information on 24 journals that represent publishing opportunities for teachers of writing.

Punctuation

Backscheider, Paul. Punctuation for the Reader -- A Teaching Approach, 1972, 61, pp. 874-877.

A step-by-step account of a direct, different, and individualized method of teaching the use of commas and semicolons to high-school students.

Rhetorical Criticism

Baer, Teddi. Choosing Your Own, 1981, 70, pp. 73-74.

Illustrates the use of the creative writing activity "choose your own ending," in which junior high school students structure a story by writing two responses to major points in a plot.

*Clarke, Loretta. The Pigman: A Novel of Adolescence, 1972, 61, pp. 1163-1169.

Discusses Paul Zindel's The Pigman and how it relates to the adolescent audience for which it was written.

Haslam, Gerald. American Oral Literature: Our Forgotten Heritage, 1971, 60, pp. 709-723.

Focuses on American Indian and Afro-American oral tradition to explore the substance and potential pedagogic value of American oral literature. Stresses the literary value of modern folk literature, including popular songs and rhetoric.

*Kingston, Maxine. Literature for a Scientific Age: Lorenz' King Solomon's Ring, 1973, 62, pp. 30-32, 36.

Discusses Konrad Lorenz' King Soloman's Ring showing how the author's students related the story to other similiar literature and their own experiences through writing.

Meade, Richard A. and W. Geiger Ellis. Paragraph Development in the Modern Age of Rhetoric, 1970, 59, pp. 219-226.

An analysis of paragraph development in letters to the editor and in Saturday Review and English Journal articles suggests irrelevance of development methods taught in school.

Rabin, Sydell. Life after Orwell: Suggestions for an English Curriculum, 1980, 69, pp. 40-41.

Urges teachers to keep reading and writing alive in the classroom by assigning a variety of books, including the classics, and by integrating written responses with the reading assignments.

Richmond, Lee J. Symbol and Theme in Eudora Welty's Petrified Man, 1971, 60, pp. 1201-1203.

Examines the symbolism and theme of Eudora Welty's Petrified Man and finds the most pitiless indictment of the venal spirit of modern civilization.

Research Methodology

Applebee, Arthur N. and Others. Learning to Write in the Secondary School: How and Where, 1981, 70, pp. 78-82.

Reports the highlights of the first year of the National Study of Secondary School Writing, which provides new information about secondary school writing instruction.

Easton, Lois Brown. Protocols in the Classroom, 1982, 71, pp. 89-91.

Applies educational research on the composing process to the writing of junior high school students. Explains how tapes were used to create a new unit aimed at correcting student writing weaknesses.

Kantor, Kenneth J. Research in Composition: What It Means for Teachers, 1981, 70, pp. 64-67.

A survey of writing research indicates positive directions for teaching composition: reflecting developmental patterns in curriculum guides; emphasizing prewriting and revising strategies; giving priority to problem solving and creative thinking skills, attending to rhetorical issues like purpose and audience, and conducting research in the classroom.

Lees, Elaine O. Research in the 80s; But Something Else, Too, 1980, 69, pp. 55-58.

To interpret research, teachers should learn how to study the studies, particularly the methods by which findings are measured and interpreted.

Wright, William W., Jr. Teaching Writing in the Age of Narcissism, 1980, 69, pp. 26-29.

Reviews writing research and practice to formulate directions for developing student writing processes.

Sentence-Combining

Marzano, Robert J. The Sentence-Combining Myth, 1976, 65, pp. 57-59.

The evidence for the efficacy of sentence-combining exercises is not as persuasive as it has been represented.

Strong, William. Back to Basics and Beyond, 1976, 65, pp. 56-60, 64.

Sentence-combining practices work best as a skill-building adjunct to regular composition work.

Teacher Role

Carroll, Joyce Armstrong. Talking through the Writing Process, 1981, 70, pp. 100-102.

Identifies, categorizes, and explains four types of classroom communication (alchemistic/prewriting, analytic, evaluative, and closure talk) that improve student writing.

Christie, Anthony. Making with Words: A Practical Approach to Creativity, 1972, 61, pp. 246-251.

The article expounds the theory that, given the right classroom environment, there is no limit to the possibilities of creativity. The limits that do appear are usually the result of the teacher's conception of the acceptable rather than any failing on the part of the student.

Graves, Michael F. Fire-Writing, 1972, 61, pp. 1041-1042, 1047.

Discusses the responsibility of the teacher to provide students with writing opportunities in which the very nature of the subject insures the qualities of vividness and unity important to good writing.

Hammer, Richard. Seven Simple Rules for Composition Instruction, 1980, 69, pp. 49-50.

Augments seven rules for teaching composition with suggestions for class activities.

Kelly, Lou. Learner-Teacher Dialogues and Writing That "Is" Learning, 1981, 70, pp. 26-29.

Discusses an approach to teaching writing that emphasizes verbal transactions between writer and reader, the importance of students' "inner speech" and expressive writing, and the teacher as a sympathetic audience.

Wagner, Betty Jane. Are We Romancing Writing?, 1982, 71, pp. 22-27.

Stresses that both teachers' experiences in writing projects and the work of educational researchers support a "romantic" attitude toward writing in opposition to the back-to-basics and drill approaches.

Wolfe, Don M. Autobiography: The Gold of Writing Power, 1971, 60, pp. 937-946.

A good English teacher is one who draws from his students stories that reveal the unique dignity of their personalities and the unique coloring of their experiences. The author shows how this is done, emphasizing use of student writing models as motivation, and stressing sensory diction.

Writing Processes: Revision

Boiarsky, Carolyn. Cut-and-Paste and Other Revision Activities, 1980, 69, pp. 44-48.

Discusses 11 specific activities that teachers can emphasize as part of the revision process, including altering form, organizing material, creating transition, deleting material, expanding information, emphasizing ideas, subordinating ideas, creating immediacy, improving syntactic structure, improving language use, and cleaning up.

Brand, Alice Glarden. The Hodgepodge, Cut-and-Staple Style of Revising, 1981, 70, pp. 33-35.

Recommends a 15-step cut-and-staple method that helps students improve their writing while learning to manipulate parts of their work in the revision stage of the writing process. Offers secondary suggestions in addition to the 15 steps.

Bridwell, Lillian S. Rethinking Composing, 1981, 70, pp. 96-99.

Reports on writing research about revision. Notes the implications of this writing research for classroom applications.

Kirby, Dan R. and Tom Liner. Revision: Yes, They Do It; Yes, You Can Teach It, 1980, 69, pp. 41-45.

Suggests ways to help students revise their written compositions by teaching them to "see" their work again.

Workshops

Hanson, Alice Taylor. Peaches and Poems, Tubs and Turmoil at Bread Loaf, 1981, 70, pp. 36-37.

Reports on the difficulties a teacher had while trying to compose her first poetry assignment at the Bread Loaf School of English.

Ylvisaker, Miriam. Writing Workshop: A Fantasy at Reality Level, 1980, 69, pp. 70-75.
Describes what one high school writing teacher would do to make a writing workshop work effectively.

Articles of Concern to Elementary Teachers
Published in Elementary English

Annotated Bibliography

*Offerman, Sister Mary Columba. Elementary School Students Orbit into Space with Books about Space, 1971, 48, pp. 472-476.

Presents an annotated bibliography on books about space on all grade levels.

Creative Writing

McAlpine, Julie Carson. Writing Stories for Your Students, 1975, 52, pp. 576-577, 587.

Suggestions are given on how to write stories for students, taking into consideration plot, vocabulary development, and interest levels.

Smith, Elaine Campbell. Simile, Darn You Simile, 1972, 49, pp. 585-586.

Author believes that all forms of communication are enhanced by the use of similes and she writes the entire article in similes to prove it.

Smith, Lewis and Marlyn Willardson. Communication Skills through Authorship, 1971, 48, pp. 190-192.

Describes a University of Idaho pilot program in communication skills (at McSorley School, Lewiston, Idaho) enabling first and second graders to dictate narrations about their experiences into cassette recorders.

Tagliente, Jo. The Edible Paragraph -- Dagwood's Sandwich, 1973, 50, pp. 954-958.

Presents suggestions for writing paragraphs along with techniques and common transitional words and phrases.

Evaluation

*Botel, Morton and Alvin Granowsky. A Formula for Measuring Syntactic Complexity; A Directional Effort, 1972, 49, pp. 513-516.

Describes a method for evaluation of student writing based on language patterns and kernel sentences.

Hillerich, Robert L. Evaluation of Written Language, 1971, 48, pp. 839-842.

A report on an attempt to evaluate progress in improving written language in the elementary schools.

Grammar

Reising, R. W. Return to Depression: A Reply to "Return to Normalcy", 1970, 47, pp. 936-939.

Critically analyzes Paul J. Schafer's advocacy (in "Return to Normalcy", Elementary English, vol. 47, no. 5 (May 1970), p. 671 —see TE 200 730) of a return to the teaching of traditional grammar.

Schafer, Paul J. Return to Normalcy, 1970, 47, p. 671.

Recommends a return to the traditional approach of studying grammar via sentence diagraming.

Motivation

*Wolfe, Don M. Crucial First Assignment: Describing a Room, 1970, 47, pp. 784-786, 786.

Gives step-by-step instructions and examples for an assignment for describing a room in detail.

Paragraph Construction

Trosky, Odarka S. and C. C. Wood. Paragraph Writing: A Second Look, 1975, 52, pp. 197-200, 238.

A technique for assisting students in selecting and organizing data for compositions is explained.

Rhetorical Criticism

Cline, Sister Deborah. Developing Middle-Grade Children's Creativity Through Poetry, 1971, 48, pp. 843-848.

Discusses the preparation necessary for children's poetic expression of creativity, the teacher's role and the process by which the children can be aided to write poetry.

Frank, Yakira H. Poetry and Composition, 1973, 50, pp. 1191-1194, 1307.

The feeling for language which is aroused in children's study of poetry carries over to their writing of prose.

*Molson, Francis J. Another Look at Harriet the Spy, 1974, 51, pp. 963-970.

Discusses critically the story Harriet the Spy by Louise Fitzhugh (1964).

Shay, D'Arch C. Creativity in the Classroom, 1971, 48, pp. 1000-1001.

Simplification of Haiku to enable fifth graders to write their own verse.

Stanek, Lou Willett. The Junior Novel: A Stylistic Study, 1974, 51, pp. 947-953.

Many authors of adolescent novels follow a formula when developing a pattern of action. The formula, however, is not predictable and may be one of action, humor, or ideas.

*Stott, Jon C. Narrative Technique and Meaning in Island of the Blue Dolphins, 1975, 52, pp. 442-446.

Discusses critically Scott O'Dell's, Island of the Blue Dolphins.

Research Methodology

Pearson, P. David. Developing Language Skills and Self-Concept: Which Content Areas Are Most Promising?, 1971, 48, pp. 17-21.

A preprint from a forthcoming pamphlet of the National Conference on Research in English.

Articles of Concern to Elementary Teachers
Published in Language Arts

Atitudes/Interests: Students

Clay, Marie M. Research Update: Learning and Teaching Writing: A Developmental Perspective, 1982, 59, pp. 65-70

Reviews research studies on the nature of children's understanding of the writing process and how teachers can better help children learn to write.

Haley-James, Shirley M. When Are Children Ready to Write?, 1982, 49, pp. 458-463.

Observes that children are ready to write when they understand what writing does, when they are interested in writing, when they want to communicate through writing, and when they understand that written symbols represent meaning.

Audience Awareness

Golden, Joanne M. The Writer's Side: Writing for a Purpose and an Audience, 1980, 57, pp. 756-762.

Proposes that an awareness of writing as a process is the necessary basis for building effective writing programs, provides examples of activities that promote more creative writing samples, and expresses the need for emphasis on different purposes and audiences for writing assignments to broaden young writers' styles.

Holt, Suzanne L. and JoAnne L. Vacca. Reading with a Sense of Writer: Writing with a Sense of Reader, 1981, 58, pp. 937-941.

Examines the reading and writing processes and their interdependence and urges the language arts instructor to be an audience for children's writing and to help them become aware that what they read is someone else's writing.

Audiovisual Communication

Hennings, Dorothy Grant. Input: Enter the Word-Processing Computer, 1981, 58, pp. 18-22.

Describes ways that word-processing computers can be used to teach writing and editing skills and related attitudes. Explores the advantages and disadvantages of using computers in writing programs, as well as some misconceptions about computers.

Cognitive Processes

Dyson, Anne Haas. Oral Language: The Rooting System for Learning to Write, 1981, 58, pp. 776-784.

Explores the transition of several children from spoken language to beginning writing.

Dyson, Anne Haas and Celia Genishi. Whatta Ya Tryin' to Write?: Writing as an Interactive Process.

Presents case studies of two first-grade children, examining their writing as a linguistic and social process that involves the child in an exploration of both oral and written language within the social context of the classroom.

Graves, Donald H. How Do Writers Develop?, 1982, 59, pp. 173-179.

Examines how children develop as writers and presents new ways of looking at children's problem solving in what they do and say during the writing process. Presents an outline of the general orders of child focus in the writing process.

Morris, Darrell. Concept of Word: A Developmental Phenomenon in the Beginning Reading and Writing Processes, 1981, 58, pp. 659-668.

Argues that there is a developmental relationship between children's performances in reading and writing tasks and describes two diagnostic tasks that teachers can use to assess young children's developing concepts of words in reading and in writing, without interfering with the natural processes of learning to read and write.

Smith, Frank. Myths of Writing, 1981, 58, pp. 792-798.

Clarifies 21 misconceptions about the nature of writing, how writing is learned, the act of writing, and who can teach writing.

Essay Tests Usage

McCaig, Roger A. What Your Director of Instruction Needs to Know about Standardized English Tests, 1977, 54, pp. 491-495.

A comparative study of students' scores in mechanics and usage on standardized tests and ratings of actual writing samples.

Grammar

Clark, Sister Mary, S. C. What is Happening to Grammar?, 1975, 52, pp. 1073-1074, 1107.

Grammar should be taught for its own sake, not as a means to improving student writing because, in fact, it doesn't

Rhetorical Criticism

Moss, Joy F. Learning to Write by Listening to Literature, 1977, 54, pp. 537-542.

Describes a literature unit in which students write stories about imaginary characters after they have heard and discussed several narratives.

*Townsend, Mary Jane. Taking off the War Bonnet: American Indian Literature, 1976, 53, pp. 236-244.

Reviews several books which deal with the Native American theme. The author points out those which are successful as literature and those which attempt to supercede the sterotype and help the reader to understand and appreciate other people

Motivation

Klein, Amelia and Judith Schickedanz. Preschoolers Write Messages and Receive Their Favorite Books, 1980, 57, pp. 742-749.

Presents examples of messages to a reading teacher from kindergarten students that combine drawing and elementary writing skills. Emphasizes the important role of teachers and other adults and of reading and writing tools in the development of children's reading and writing abilities.

Tway, Eileen. Come, Write with Me, 1981, 58, pp. 805-810.

Discusses stories that show the actual processes and satisfactions of writing that can serve as models to promote children's writing interest and skills.

Professional Development

Bonham, Frank. The Temporary Expert: Field Research as Literary Life-Support, 1981, 58, pp. 799-804.

Discusses the need for would-be writers to undertake on-the-scene research to become thoroughly familiar with a writing topic. Relates some of the author's experiences gained through such "field" work.

Noyce, Ruth M. Another Slant on Mastery Writing Instruction, 1979, 56, pp. 251-255

Describes the writing program which might emerge if several recognized American writers were asked to identify childhoos experiences which influenced their development.

Punctuation

Schofer, Gill. Teachers Should Be Dictators, 1977, 54, pp. 401-402.

A daily dictation period provides continuous reinforcement of spelling and writing mechanics for elementary school students.

Research Methodology

Donnelly, Carol and Giselle Stevens. Streams and Puddles: A Comparison of Two Young Writers, 1980, 57, pp. 735-741.

Compares the progression of writing skills of two girls from first through third grades, showing development of style, persona, spelling, and grammar. Discusses the implications for the teaching of writing on an individual and classroom basis.

Graves, Donald H. Research Update: One Child, One Teacher, One Classroom: The Story of One Piece of Writing — Barbara Kamler, 1980, 57, pp. 680-693.

Shows how the classrom environment provided by a second-grade teacher allowed one of her students to experience her own writing process and develop as a writer.

Graves, Donald H. Research Update: A New Look at Writing Research, 1980, 57, pp. 913-918.

Reveals the lack of research on children's writing and suitable writing instruction in the last 25 years. Points out the inadequacies in the research that is being done and the need for better research methods that take writing context and environment into account.

Graves, Donald H. Research Update: Writing Research for the Eighties: What is Needed, 1981, 58, pp. 197-206.

Explores questions of concern for writing research in the areas of context in writing and the teaching of writing. Discusses some research designs and procedures.

Graves, Donald H. and Mary Ellen Giacobbe. Research Update: Questions for Teachers Who Wonder if Their Writers Change, 1982, 49, pp. 495-503.

Reports on two case studies of writing development in the primary grades. Notes the impact of teacher's questioning techniques, both on student development as writers and on teacher ability to evaluate student progress.

Role Perception: Parents

Bingham, Anne. Writing Newsletters for Parents, 1982, 49, pp. 445-450.

A series of four parent newsletters helped one primary teacher explain how children were learning to write, the development of writing as a process, and what parents could do to help their children in writing.

Hill, Mary W. Making Connections, 1982, 59, pp. 219-222.

Recounts an incident illustrating a child's development of communication skills and offers suggestions for parents to help facilitate that development.

Wiseman, Donna and Dorothy Watson. The Good News about Becoming a Writer, 1980, 57, pp. 750-755.

Presents examples to substantiate the observation that children experiment with and benefit from writing long before they receive formal instruction, and suggests ways for parents and teachers to avoid obstructing this natural and healthy tendency.

Sentence-Combining

Perron, Jack. Beginning Writing: It's All in the Mind, 1976, 53, pp. 652-657.

Describes techniques for employing sentence-combining to improve the beginning writing skills of elementary school students.

Teacher Role

Bissex, Glenda L. Growing Writers in Classrooms, 1981, 58, pp. 785-791.

Discusses the characteristics of a nurturing and of a constraining classroom environment and the effects of each on children's learning to write.

Holbrook, Hilary Taylor. ERIC/RCS Report: Johnny Could Write When He Was a Kid, 1981, 58, pp. 864-867.

Surveys materials in the ERIC system supporting the theory that children have a natural inclination to write that teachers are not taking advantage of and that offer practical suggestions to encourage writing skills and interests.

Tway, Eileen. Teacher Responses to Children's Writing, 1980, 57, pp. 763-772.

Recounts a teacher's involvement with students in the spontaneous process of learning to write. Presents the benefits of such an approach as preferable to conventional structured methods of writing instruction.

Winkeljohann, Rosemary. How Do We Help Children with the Conventions of Writing:, 1981, 58, pp. 862-863.

Offers a five-step support technique for transferring speaking to writing and offers observations on helping children with the conventions of writing.

Writing Processes: Revision

Flowers, Betty S. Madman, Architect, Carpenter, Judge: Roles and the Writing Process, 1981, 58, pp. 834-836.

Discusses the roles that writers must assume during the writing process and offers suggestions to help children prevent these roles from conflicting or interfering with each other during writing.

Haley-James, Shirley M. Revising Writing in the Upper Grades, 1981, 58, pp. 562-566.

Presents suggestions for teachers to help writing students understand when and when not to revise their writing.