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An evaluation of a series of exercises in functional grammar

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AN EVALUATION OF A SERIES OF EXERCISES IN FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Despite the many attempts to reform and revise the teaching of formal grammar, very little transfer has been found to exist from formal exercises to children's compositions.

Children pursue formal grammatical exercises with considerable precision, but when confronted with creative compositional work, they do not apply the grammar "rules" or mechanical exercises they have been taught. It would seem that drill in written grammar has little effect upon creative work. The writers felt that with a more functional approach to the teaching of grammar, closely followed by creative compositional work, there might be more observable carry-over.

Investigations into this question covered the following research areas: the whole sentence, sentence variety, subordination and modification, including a study of the clause and phrase. The work centered around the intermediate level.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The Sentence

The most obvious important element of good writing is the unit which will express coherently what the writer intends to say to his audience; thus the sentence is vital to a functional grammar program. In the early grades the teacher teaches the "whole sentence" because without it, as Pooley states:

> Children allowed to write extended series of statements without sentence punctuation will tend to grow increasingly indifferent to the basic character of the English written sentence. They will lose their sense of units of meaning by failing to recognize them as they write. They will be developing bad habits of unpunctuated writing which will carry over into advanced years. Consequently they should be held responsible for formal sentence punctuation.[1]

In the early years construction of formal sentences is often oral, but when the intermediate grades are reached, youngsters may, as Pooley suggests, ". . . be directed to the sense of completeness within word groups, beginning with the incomplete, rather than the overcomplete statement."[2]

In the past, grammarians have felt that the rule was the best introduction to the proper elements of sentence writing, but currently an approach based on the sensibleness of the ideas to be expressed has

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[1]Robert C. Pooley, Teaching English Grammar (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957), p. 122.

[2]Ibid., p. 123.

in some quarters replaced the rules of the past. As Newman has said:

> English teachers should beware of apotheosizing functional grammar by arrogating to it the power of a magical rhetorical dynamo which creates electrifying compositions from arid content.
>
> Logical correctness: Suppose a teacher reads one of his pupil's papers, 'I went to Radio City Music Hall with my friend, we had a wonderful time. The "Band Wagon" is the best musical I've seen in a long time, it's about dancing and you know Fred Astaire learned to dance at Arthur Murray's.' To suggest that the meaning will be clearer to the reader if periods and semicolons replace commas is to be sadly mistaken.[1]

Merely being able to spot fragmentary sentences or being able to express a complete thought is not the answer to good whole sentences because, as Newman goes on to say,

> The trouble here lies not with the punctuation but rather with careless thinking. The teacher's job is to point out that not all ideas are of equal importance; that before one writes, it is necessary for one to decide upon the relative importance of one's ideas, then to integrate these ideas into a meaningful, coherent unit of orderly thought.[2]

One might be able to replace the "rules" for sentence structure by impressing upon youngsters the importance of the sense of what they wish to express and when the thoughts are coherently expressed they give us the sentence. Many feel as Cooper does:

> Too many of us are teaching grammar, not language expression. . . . My plea is this: grammar should be reduced to the original reason for its existence. It should be a medium for expressing the exact meaning the speaker has in mind. Much of the grammar we teach would be perfectly reasonable, if we taught it through its

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[1]Harold Newman, "Toward a New Perspective of Grammar and Composition," High Points (April, 1954), 36:55-66.

[2]Ibid., pp. 57-58.

> common-sense functions. Let us whenever possible, substitute reasoning and understanding language, for rote rules.[1]

When children are able to write coherent sentences they have the foundation for building good writing habits, but without a concrete understanding of the whole sentence many of them encounter difficulties with the intricacies of sentence variety, and subordination and modification which rely entirely upon the basic whole sentence unit. As Newman urges:

> English teachers know from experience that those who are most likely to profit from grammar are children who are able to write articulate sentences; that those children who are able to write clearly are, generally speaking, somewhat more intelligent (verbally, that is) than those who flounder hopelessly in the maze of their own sentence structure.[2]

But Newman carefully admonishes, "Never allow the questions of technical correctness and form to transcend the matter of content unless the errors render the content incomprehensible."[3]

Proponents of the functional approach to grammar have utilized various techniques to develop desirable language habits in children. Wolfe uses the method of "Sentence-Building" and has this to say about the approach:

> Every child from the first grade onward brings to the classroom resources of experience and diction valuable in playing sentence-building games. By sentence building I mean the process by which the teacher draws from the class suggestions for improving a sentence, rephrasing it perhaps five or six times in different ways. Every child, even before he can read, has delight in the nuances of his language;

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[1]Virginia Cooper, "Is This the Answer?" Modern Language Journal (April, 1951), 35:292-296.

[2]Newman, op. cit., p. 60.

[3]Ibid., p. 63.

> already he possesses favorite phrases that send him into gales of laughter at home or among his friends. By the process of sentence building the child becomes more acutely conscious of contrasts and differences first in diction and later in word order.[1]

From this statement it may be seen that the functional approach to grammar is interpreted as a cumulative thing beginning in infancy and progressing toward the written expression from these early oral efforts. When his sentence building idea is expanded in the upper elementary grades it is a written exercise. And when introducing the lessons Wolfe has this to say:

> The sentence-building game invites, as nothing else can, the manipulation of sentence resources within a given pattern; it enables the teacher to attune the ear of the child to what Winston Churchill calls 'the noble structure of the English sentence,' letting him hear variations of many kinds, some that fall awkwardly and some that fall smoothly on the ear.[2]

The situation under which the child is doing a writing lesson may affect performance as Silvy indicates:

> Clarity in sentence structure is more readily gained by an emphasis upon the thought to be expressed than upon grammatical explanations.
>
> Sentence clarity is dependent upon many factors such as unity, proper subordination and coordination, the effective ordering of the parts, the avoidance of unnecessary detail, agreement of subject with verb and pronoun with antecedent, properly placed modifiers, logical expression of ideas, and correct choice of connectives.[3]

The idea that the sentence is the central unit for grammatical

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[1]Don M. Wolfe, Language Arts and Life Patterns (New York: Odyssey Press, Inc., 1961), p. 278.

[2]Ibid., p. 285.

[3]Klaus Silvy, "A Comparison of Three Methods of Teaching the English Sentence," English Journal (May, 1957), 46:275-279.

study is endorsed by Pooley when he says,

> The building of sentences and the manipulation of sentence materials for improved style are at the very center of grammar instruction and are the chief reason for the teaching of grammar. Grammar teaches the form and structure of English sentences; usage teaches correctness and propriety in word and phrase.[1]

Just as authorities can be found who suggest an incidental approach to the study of the sentence through various creative building exercises, others also cite the importance of sentence development and have created exercises to reinforce this supposition. Milligan makes the following statement, "The writer contends that instruction in the use of the sentence is basic to good writing, and that this instruction should begin at the elementary school level."[2] Milligan's incidental approach was concerned with the teaching of sentence structure according to pupil needs as they were revealed through their compositional activities in the classroom. The precise approach he utilized involved the outcomes from twenty-five specifically designed lessons on the subject of sentence structure. This experiment, which took place with grades four through six in two schools, indicated that greater variety of sentence structure was found when the incidental method of teaching sentence structure was used.

That the teaching of the sentence is important to written language activities may be seen from McKee's statement,

> Apparently the teaching of sentence sense is no simple job. There is ample evidence to show that a large percentage of the

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[1]Pooley, op. cit., p. 107.

[2]John P. Milligan, "An Evaluation of Two Methods of Teaching Sentence Structure," Elementary English Review (March, 1939), 16:91-92.

> errors made by elementary-school pupils and high-school and college students may be classified as mistakes in sentence structure and lack of sentence sense. There is some reason to believe, therefore, that considerable attention should be given to the problem.[1]

In our discussion here we have used the term "sentence sense" repeatedly, and perhaps the reader is confused as to what our definition of this term is. Smith's remarks on this subject might clarify our use of the term:

> The term 'sentence sense' implies the ability to recognize completeness in the expression of an idea. Since increasing complexity of idea is a mark of growth, the problem of 'sentence sense' remains a crucial one at every level of instruction from pre-school to graduate school. There can be no such thing as 'mastery of sentence sense' once and for all at any particular grade level. The child can learn only to express with completeness ideas of the complexity characteristic of his degree of maturity. The moment he advances in thought to more complex problems, he faces anew the achievement of a so-called 'sentence sense.'[2]

Modification

In order that children may develop interesting sentences it is necessary for them to become aware of modification and subordination. As Pooley says,

> To use subordination and parallel syntax the student will need to know the names of the kinds of structures available to him and how they are formed. This kind of instruction is truly grammar; these outcomes are the reasons for teaching grammar; and the success of students in creating condensed interesting

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[1]Paul McKee, Language in the Elementary School (revised edition; Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939), p. 306.

[2]Dora V. Smith, "Growth in Language Power as Related to Child Development," Chapter IV in Teaching Language in the Elementary School, Forty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1944), p. 66.

sentences is the measure of success in such instruction.[1]

Pooley feels that the placement of modifying elements in sentences is critical to the construction of interesting prose. He says:

> The structural linguists thus far have been primarily interested in analysis. For descriptive purposes, analysis is basic. But the English teacher in school and college is concerned with synthesis in language, that is, writing. He needs analysis for the purpose of understanding the language he is teaching, but for the improvement of writing he requires a system which emphasizes the manner in which the elements of structure combine to produce better sentences; to create clear, meaningful, and interesting prose.[2]

And later Pooley states:

> Part of the skill in the production of effective English sentences lies in knowing how to place modifiers according to two basic requirements:
> a) To place fixed modifiers where they belong.
> b) To place movable modifiers where they best express the shade of meaning.[3]

Finally Pooley summarizes, "It is not too great an exaggeration to say that skill in subordination is the first requisite of a successful writer of our times.[4]

Others recognize the need for certain word order patterns to be established to develop more effective sentences. As Silvy says:

> Sentence clarity is dependent upon many factors such as unity, proper subordination and coordination, the effective ordering of parts, the avoidance of unnecessary detail, agreement of subject with verb and pronoun with antecedent, properly placed modifiers, logical expression of ideas, and correct choice of connectives.[5]

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[1]Pooley, op. cit., p. 102.

[2]Ibid., p. 72.

[3]Ibid., p. 93.

[4]Ibid., p. 99.

[5]Silvy, op. cit.

Certain activities will introduce the child into using definite word order patterns and in a functional way an understanding of modification is learned and employed in written exercises. For as Wolfe explains:

> (1) The student is creative when he uses his own adjectives, adverbs, etc., to illustrate first principles. (2) From this initiation he next builds sentences in various patterns, consciously using someone else's nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, pinning down parts of speech. (3) When the student comes to prepositional phrases, he takes another creative step, writing a little story about an experience, with prepositional phrases only.[1]

Perhaps Levin's remarks best express the sentiments of those who stress the functional approach:

> If we take nothing more than pattern-practice, by whatever name we may choose to call it, together with the Fries system of diagraming, or an adaptation of it, we will owe to linguists the tools which will help grammar perform its rightful function of increasing our students' insight into language and at the same time strengthen their control over it.[2]

FUNCTIONAL VERSUS TRADITIONAL APPROACHES

It is important at this time to consider the major aspects of our language, for as Green states:

> It enables us to think clearly and logically, to communicate these thoughts to others, and to preserve them for the use and guidance of future generations. Language is not a separate subject in the school curriculum to be studied for content only, or for cultural or disciplinary purposes. It is a tool that is needed constantly in every walk of life. It is an absolute necessity in the conduct of our business and social affairs,

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[1]Wolfe, op. cit., p. 205.

[2]Samuel R. Levin, "Comparing Traditional and Structural Grammar," College English (February, 1960), 21:260-265.

> the preservation of our ideas and ideals, and the expansion and growth of social responsibilities in the future. Moreover, in view of the recognized importance of language and cultural barriers in world affairs it may well be necessary to world survival.[1]

While this study is definitely concerned with the outcomes of effective language instruction, it is pertinent to examine modern concepts in respect to the language program as it relates to the child. Wolfe makes the following statements:

> For a number of years the idea that English should be taught as a tool subject has been gaining wide acceptance in American elementary schools. . . . In many schools social science has become the core subject, around which everything revolves: reading, arithmetic, science and the arts, but especially speaking and writing skills.
>
> These arguments for English as a tool subject and not as an end in itself sound so sensible and logical that thousands of communities know no other order of value in the language arts. And certainly no one denies that English is valuable as a tool subject. . . . We are confining the child in speech and writing to the school subject, the intellectual side of himself, which is the weakest, the least developed, and the least vital element of personality to himself, his family, and his community.[2]

Although the acceptance of language as a tool subject has been prevalent, there are many who oppose relegating language to this function exclusively. Wolfe sums up the case for the opposition in this manner:

> What then is weak and dangerous in this program? What is lacking? What are we leaving out? The answer to these questions is that we are leaving out the main concern of all of us: the child himself. When I say 'the child himself,' I mean those parts of him that his parents and teachers care most about. I mean those parts of the child's experience that require the mass of his emotional energy, those actions, feelings,

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[1]Harry A. Green and Walter T. Petty, Developing Language Skills in the Elementary School (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959), p. 30.

[2]Wolfe, op. cit., pp. 3-4.

> and thoughts that he shares often with friends or family, but almost never shares in the classroom expression when English is taught as a tool subject.
>
> In as much as the importance of language has been taken into account, not only from a general aspect, but as it relates to the needs of the child, it follows that a consideration of approaches to the teaching of written language be undertaken. In this case it involves a discussion that concerns two opposing points of view as to the grammatical method with which to teach written language.[1]

The formal grammar approach is still the most popular, although the functional grammar method is gaining in popularity. For the sake of clarification, Green and Petty define the two types as follows:

> Formal grammar thus becomes identified as the scientific framework of language. Functional grammar, on the other hand, is described as a 'method of learning correct usage in language through activity rather than through reference to rules.'[2]

Mirriless, in explaining functional grammar, says:

> It means, as the name implies, the teaching of those forms in grammar that are essential to the pupil who would express his thoughts correctly. But it means something more definite than that. It means the teaching of only those grammatical forms without a knowledge of which the pupil is unable to know whether a sentence is or is not correct.[3]

Searles discusses the grammar controversy by saying:

> Another step in the direction of concreteness consists of bringing together a number of facts about language which traditional grammar textbooks often discuss separately, almost as though they were unrelated to one another. A study of nouns in the traditional textbook usually begins with the definition of the noun as the name of a person, place, thing, quality, condition or action.
>
> Ultimately the textbook returns to nouns, and their uses in the various common patterns within the clause: subject-verb-

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[1]Wolfe, op. cit., p. 4.

[2]Green and Petty, op. cit., p. 330.

[3]Lucia B. Mirriless, Teaching Composition and Literature (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1937), p. 76.

object, and the others.

Such an approach, though it seems to be a logical step-by-step explanation, scatters the essential facts about the noun so widely that they may never be brought together again in the mind of the student.[1]

About formal grammar, Pooley has this to say:

When I protest mildly my lack of faith in the formal drill, the teacher is likely to express surprise or to remark that this is surely what the colleges want: correct usage and a knowledge of what is right or wrong. My reflection is: Yes, that is what the colleges want all right, but all our research on the subject proves that these are not the means for securing that kind of ability.[2]

And further Pooley states:

It was characteristic of nineteenth-century grammar to lay great stress on the classification of the words which are used to form sentences, and to require not only the memorization of definitions of the parts of speech but also the recognition of many subcategories. . . . But the grammars of today still define parts of speech. . . . Because of the flexibility of English words, moving easily from one part of speech to another, the arbitrary classification of parts of speech has long been recognized as unsatisfactory. . . . Modern linguistic scholars are agreed that parts of speech cannot be used to classify words prior to the appearance of the words in sentences. Words are to be classified only as they are used in the particular situation under observation.[3]

In a similar vein Herrick states:

Formal grammar has very slight influence upon the usage habits of children. Language is learned in the home and in playing with other children. . . . Formal grammar has little or no effect upon the skills of composition in the elementary grades. . . . Grammatical terminology when not associated with specific utility is easily confused and forgotten. . . . The trouble is not in terminology itself, but in its lack of significant usefulness to the student. . . . Elementary school

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[1]John R. Searles, "New Wine in Old Bottles," The English Journal (November, 1961), 40:516-517.

[2]Pooley, op. cit., p. 37.

[3]Ibid., p. 108.

> children can be taught the terms of grammar but at the cost of time and effort far beyond any useful returns of that age.[1]

Conlin sums up this controversial situation when he states:

> The linguists, however, have made a contribution. They have pointed up and emphasized the problem of form and function very sharply in their rigorous struggles to solve it. The fact of their disagreement testifies to its difficulty and to the basic predicament of trying to describe our English language as a system. It might be said in passing that in our traditional descriptions of English we have largely ignored the problem of form and function, and, in the opinion of the writer, our indifference to it has been one of the important reasons to teach grammar effectively. Our children have rejected intuitively a complexity which they could not grasp. . . . It is crucial that we recognize the function of each word and word group in a sentence if we are to respond appropriately.[2]

Nemec and Pooley chart the course to follow more specifically by saying, "In the elementary grades the major emphasis will be upon the actual use of language and the improvement of skills through use, rather than upon knowledge about the language itself and attention to restrictive rules."[3]

Milligan is more definitive about a starting point for language instruction when he says, "The writer contends that instruction in use of the sentence is basic to good writing, and that this instruction should begin at the elementary level."[4]

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[1]Virgil E. Herrick, and Leland B. Jacobs, Children and the Language Arts (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955), pp. 298-300.

[2]David A. Conlin, "Form and Function: A Quandry," The English Journal (October, 1960), 49:457-461.

[3]Louis G. Nemec and Robert C. Pooley, "Children's Experiences with Usage and Grammar," Children and the Language Arts, edited by Virgil E. Herrick and Leland B. Jacobs (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955), p. 289.

[4]Milligan, op. cit., pp. 91-92.

Strow substantiates previous findings and suggests a specific plan to improve written sentences:

> Research reveals that a knowledge of classificatory grammar has little measurable effect on the ability to express ideas accurately or precisely in writing or speaking. . . . Young people improve their sentences by having many opportunities, with the guidance of the teacher, for structuring their own thoughts into sentences.[1]

It is apparent that Green and Petty share the same opinions when they state:

> The elimination of any undesirable habit is not necessarily achieved by the learning of rules and definitions. Children upon entering school often have neither the capacity nor the background of experience which enables them to understand abstract principles or rules of grammar and to apply them to specific cases. There is no reason, therefore, for teaching grammar as such unless the ideas can be used almost immediately by the child himself as independent aids for improving his speech and writing.
>
> However, as young children learn to speak and write they manipulate the various elements of sentences. In this process they gain some understanding of the relationships of those elements. They are not given definitions, and do not make any for themselves. As Hatfield says, 'They simply learn by normal desirable manipulation of sentence elements which the teacher calls by their proper names, exactly as they have developed the concepts and learned the words bell, school and truth.' Grammar taught in such a manner is functional and practical because it is learned not merely for use but in use.[2]

While previous authors emphasized the importance of sentence manipulation and structuring under teacher guidance, Green also stressed the value of drill in teaching functional grammar when he stated:

> The child should be led to choose the correct form as being the best way to express the particular idea, and then the cor-

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[1]Ingrid M. Strow, "Do Grammar Drills Help Writing Skills?" National Journal of Education (December, 1960), 49:25.

[2]Green and Petty, op. cit., p. 143.

> rect habit of usage should be established through repeated drill and use of the correct form. . . . In addition to this purposeful, planned drill on needed usage items, incidental correction of errors should also be employed.[1]

Pooley supplements the above thoughts when he states:

> The point of view of this treatment is that grammar can be learned better, retained longer, and more readily applied to the writing of English if it is taught a few concepts at a time, carefully developed, immediately applied to writing and frequently exercised in useful situations.[2]

Regarding techniques to follow in the teaching of functional grammar, Pooley substantiates the views of his contemporaries and points out definite procedures to follow: "Practice in separating some groups of statements and effectively joining others, as the children create their own little paragraphs will furnish the most interesting and effective teaching method."[3]

In respect to proofreading, Jacobsen has the following to say: "The writing of compositions by students, together with the correction, return and analysis in class, on the part of the teacher and students, is one of the most valuable learning situations in the English classroom."[4]

Recognizing the language needs of children and the potentialities of functional grammar to meet these needs, an attempt to utilize this approach in the study has been made. As a final word in respect to this

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[1]Green and Petty, op. cit., p. 344.

[2]Pooley, op. cit., p. 133.

[3]Ibid., p. 124.

[4]Roy Jacobsen, "A Teaching Device for English Composition," High Points (May, 1959), 41:68-70.

comparatively new step, Conlin says, "The scientific study of language as it has developed in structural linguistics probably represents the best thinking of our time about the problems of language in communications."[1]

The framework for the activity part of the work has been designed in accordance with the previously quoted precepts. With this in mind, use of the language has been stressed while employing, with teacher instruction and guidance, sentence manipulation and sentence structuring. Grammar concepts were taught a few at a time, followed by repeated drill and applied to pupil writing almost simultaneously. This was followed by an analysis of the writing under teacher guidance.

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[1]Conlin, op. cit., p. 458.

CHAPTER III

PLAN AND PROCEDURE

Statement of Purpose

The primary purpose of this study was to construct exercises and structured lessons that would approach grammar from a functional viewpoint as opposed to the traditional type lesson and exercise.

Description of the Population

Two hundred and fifty boys and girls in seven sixth-grade and four fifth-grade classes participated in the study. One group of 215 came from a community ten miles west of Boston and represented a middle to high socio-economic situation. The other group of 35 pupils came from a community in Rhode Island and represented a low to middle socio-economic situation.

Description of the Research Procedure

In the beginning of the project, the group discussed at length proposed approaches as guides to research. The method used was to divide the existing literature by years and type of reference. Each researcher took one period and concentrated his reading on all major approaches to grammar, primarily the linguistic, funcational, and traditional.

Several months were spent in reading and discussing what was found on the merits of each approach, its advantages, disadvantages,

and content. Pooley[1] and Wolfe[2] were among the major grammarians examined for both new and tested ideas in teaching. The functional standpoint, approaching grammar from the practical side, was adopted by the group as the most realistic. Less emphasis was placed on terminology, and more practical use of grammatical concepts for better results in writing was utilized.

When the group felt the research had provided sufficient background in the area of functional grammar, it was decided to proceed to the construction of original exercises. The format was a set of exercises, teacher-directed and class-corrected, followed by structured writing situations designed to show what had been assimilated. Each member of the group was given a particular area to develop into a unit of instructions and exercises.

Construction of Materials

Description of lessons. The lessons, which took six weeks to complete, were taught every other day in periods one half hour long. In most instances, proofreading was part of the lesson. Four units, each of which included teaching lessons accompanied by exercises, structured writing situations, and proofreading, were constructed and taught. The lessons were designed to teach the following grammatical concepts:

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[1]Robert C. Pooley, Teaching English Grammar (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957).

[2]Don M. Wolfe, Language Arts and Life Patterns (New York: Odyssey Press, Inc., 1961).

1. The complete sentence
2. Kinds of simple sentences--declarative, interrogative, exclamatory
3. Use of adjectives and adverbs
4. Compound sentences
5. Complex sentences
6. Phrases and clauses as modifiers.

It was decided that an understanding of the grammatical concepts would be developed slowly if the student were guided in relating grammatical elements to the improvement of style in writing. The authors, realizing a necessity for functional description of grammatical concepts instead of definition, patterned the lessons as follows:

Pre-test. Each child wrote an original story based on given phrases. Structured Story A was assigned at this time. The child was told to have people in his story, tell what happened, where it happened, when it happened, and explain how it all came out.

Unit One. Consisting of five lessons, unit one dealt with the review of the complete sentence. A teaching lesson and exercises reviewed recognition of complete sentences and the two parts of a sentence. In the materials that reviewed the kinds of sentences, the child was asked to build sentences by applying a free word choice or phrase choice from his own experience. Lessons and exercises in which the child defined adjectives and adverbs in terms of their use in the sentence were designed to teach both grammar and style. Two structured written lessons, followed by proofreading, provided a measure of students' progress.

Unit Two. In the four lessons of unit two the aim was to develop recognition and use of compound sentences. The teaching lessons and exercises gave attention to two common problems: misuse of connectives performing coordinating functions and failure to maintain parallel structure of identical elements. Again the child was asked to build sentences by applying a free word choice or phrase choice. A structured written lesson emphasized the use of compound as well as simple sentences in writing.

Unit Three. To further the child's ability in creating more varied sentences, the complex sentence was introduced. Lessons and exercises provided drill in recognition of dependent clauses. The child was again called upon to use originality in building sentences and supplying clauses. A structured written lesson emphasized varying written expression through the use of simple, compound, and complex sentences.

Unit Four. The four lessons in unit four taught the student to use phrases and clauses that make the meaning of sentences more complete or more explicit. The teaching lessons and exercises were so designed as to make the student become aware of phrases and clauses as sentence patterns which he also learned to identify in grammatical terms. A writing situation was planned to force the use of phrases and clauses.

Post-test. As in the pre-test, each child wrote an original composition based on given phrases. Structured Story B was assigned. The children were given the same directions as in structured Story A. An objective test evaluating the child's ability to identify grammatical elements taught in the four units was administered.

All necessary directions for teaching each lesson were included with each unit. Teachers' manuals as well as exercises and directions for written lessons were mimeographed. Specific proofreading directions were prepared for each written lesson.

The results of the pre-test, each structured written lesson, and the post-test were collected for evaluation. Intervening exercises were corrected in class.

Sample Lessons

A sample unit of the lessons and exercises constructed in this study appears below. Unit III, containing four lessons on the complex sentence, includes any necessary directions for the pupils, exercises, answer sheets, and instructions for correction where necessary.

Unit III -- Complex Sentence

Exercise: Underline the words that are dependent on the rest of the sentence to give them meaning, then underline TWICE the part of the sentence that can stand alone or be independent.

1. When we came to the bridge, we discovered it was closed.

2. As the stream was shallow, Dad decided to drive across it.

3. The car jiggled down the slope as the baby howled, and the picnic basket toppled to the floor spilling peanut butter sandwiches on our feet.

4. Just as we reached the middle of the stream the car door snapped open and Siegfried, our shaggy sheep dog, jumped into the briskly flowing water which swirled about us.

5. Desperately we tried to grab Siegfried and close the door before our lunch floated away.

6. When we finally reached shore with no lunch and a wet shivering dog, the day seemed ruined.

Correct these sentences in class.

Exercise: Join the following clauses to each other to make complete sentences. Underline the clause that is independent once and the dependent clause twice.

1. Take two balls	which he had read
2. If you go to the store	if you like
3. When you come back	bring us some ice cream
4. Mary gave Joe a book	clean your room

Check your sentences over. They are lacking in descriptive words, and these sentences could have another thought added to them by the use of linking words we have talked about earlier.

Write the sentences over using the following descriptive words and add one more thought or idea to the original sentence by using a linking word.

red	mystery	green
coffee	magazine	softly
rubber	sister	bitter
brother	dusty	
messy	tired	

Correct these sentences in class.

Exercise: In the following sentences underline that part of the sentence which begins with one of the "openers." Place a parenthesis around the part of the clause that can stand alone. Then substitute the underlined words with your own words, but begin each with your SAME "opener."

Example: As we crossed the wooden bridge, (we heard the swollen river roar angrily).

As we approached the nearby valley, we heard the swollen river roar angrily.

1. When he reached the end of the mountain trail, the cowboy built a fire.

_____,

the cowboy built a fire.

2. Jane popped corn today because tomorrow is her birthday.

Jane popped corn today because _____

_____.

3. After they performed at the circus, the grey horses galloped away fast.

After _____

_____.

4. This is the boy who painted the mural in the lobby.

This is the boy who _____.

5. If the rain hadn't fallen on our lunch, we would have stayed at the park all day.

If _____

_____, we would have stayed at the park all day.

Correct these sentences in class.

Exercise: Writing Lesson

Here are some clauses and some descriptive words. Put them into a story using sentences that:

1) have one idea.
2) have two ideas tied with a linking word such as and, but, and for. Each part of the sentence should be an independent clause.
3) have one complete thought and another idea tied to it with a linking word but a group of words that cannot stand alone and is dependent on the rest of the sentence for its meaning.

After you finish the story underline once the first type of sentence or the SIMPLE sentence as you learned it, underline twice the sentence with two complete thoughts or the COMPOUND sentence, and underline three times the sentences that have one independent thought and one group of words that dependson the rest of the sentence for its meaning. Circle all your descriptive words.

when night fell
moonlight
smoky
which stood alone in the dark wood
weird calls
when the tears began
flapping wings
was frightened because of the shadows
helpful
black
as they trudged
but if he knocked
shrill and cackling
sweet and tempting
because he was brave
as the door creaked
swooped low in warning
wrinkled
shadowy

Proofreading Instructions

The instructions given to each cooperating teacher on the procedure to be used with proofreading are included below. Careful and

detailed instructions were given so that results of proofreading, carry-over, and learning would be uniform as far as possible throughout the entire sampling population. It was hoped that these instructions as well as those for presenting the lessons were carefully followed for better reliability. The proofreading enabled the teacher to evaluate to some extent the success of each unit as it was completed by giving him a yardstick for comparison and tabulation of each written lesson.

Unit III -- Proofreading Directions

1. Reread your story to yourself.
2. Are all of your sentences complete?
3. If they are not, underline them with red crayon.
4. Go back and see if you can make your sentences complete.
5. Did you use all of the different kinds of sentences? If not, change some sentences now.
6. Have you used words, phrases, and clauses as modifiers?
7. If you did not, go back and see if you can make your sentences more interesting.
8. Check your capitalization and punctuation.

Construction of Test

A comprehensive test was compiled to be given the pupils at the completion of the prepared lessons.

Construction of material for the test followed the pattern used for the lessons and presented the material in the order in which it was given. Material included the following:

1. A review of the whole sentence
2. Kinds of sentences--declarative, interrogative, exclamatory
3. Compound sentence
4. Complex sentence
5. Modification--use of adjectives, adverbs, and phrases
6. Subordination--use of dependent and independent clauses.

Various measurement techniques were employed in the test. These included: check marks, rewriting of sentences, underlining of part asked for, matching of parts, fill-ins, completions, pulling out and listing material called for, and choosing the right word for the proper place. The test was so constructed as to allow the pupil to use his knowledge of the subject, good judgment, and his creative ability. Most of the items were evaluated by a points-right system. There was a possibility of 187 points correct.

Included in the appendix is a copy of the test administered to the population at the end of a six-week period.

Evaluation Procedure

The group obtained I.Q. scores with the date and test form used and chronological age for each pupil participating in the study. Results were obtained for the entire population on the pretest, post-test, and the objective test on specific items given at the end of the six weeks. The results were studied to determine the amount of learning that took place and the effect of the lessons on the writing done by the pupils. The data obtained are included, with breakdowns on particular areas and portions of the population considered pertinent.

To the Teacher:

This material is designed to teach a limited number of grammatical concepts which are listed below:

1. The complete sentence
2. Kinds of sentences--declarative, interrogative, etc.
3. Use of adjectives and adverbs
4. Compound sentences
5. Complex sentences
6. Phrases and clauses as modifiers

There are actually three types of lessons:

1. The teaching lesson which is accompanied by the traditional type of exercise
2. Structured writing situations
3. Proofreading

The proofreading following the writing is a most important part of the study. The writers believe that immediate use of the concept taught, followed by guided proofreading, will be the crux of the retention of the material.

It is suggested that the children be divided into small, heterogeneous groups. The proofreading directions should be placed on the board or on a chart.

In the beginning, it will be necessary for the teacher to direct the class. As the work moves on, some groups will be able to work alone. This is left to the judgment of the teacher.

In instances where the children are asked to rewrite during proofreading, we do not mean a rewrite of the entire paragraph. A sentence here and there will be sufficient to indicate understanding.

Use of the opaque projector with selected samples will aid the reteaching process. In cases where an opaque projector is not available, the board will serve the same purpose.

Schedule

1. Monday, January 22, 1962

   Administer the pre-test -- Structured Story A

2. One lesson every other day--one half hour long.

3. The last lesson should be completed on Friday, March 9, 1962.

4. On Monday, March 12, 1962, administer the post-test--Structured Story B.

Rescued--Story A
River floods the valley
People trapped in the house
Water rising

A Near Accident--Story B
Snow on ground
Car turns corner
Skids on the ice

Directions:

Here are some phrases to help you think of a short story. Have people in your story; tell what happened; where it happened; when it happened; explain how it all came out. Go ahead and write.

Proofreading Directions--Unit I

Story A

1. Reread your story to yourself.
2. Are all of your sentences complete?
3. If they are not, underline them with red crayon.
4. Go back and see if you can make your sentences complete.
5. Did you use all of the different kinds of sentences? If not, change some sentences now.
6. Check your capitalization and punctuation.

Story B

1. Reread your story to yourself.
2. Are all your sentences complete?
3. If not, underline them in red.
4. Rewrite at least two if you had them incorrect.
5. Did you use adjectives and adverbs to make your sentences interesting?
6. If you did not, go back and insert some.
7. Check your capitalization and punctuation.

Proofreading Directions--Unit II

1. Reread your story to yourself.
2. Are all your sentences complete?
3. If they are not, underline them with red crayon.
4. If you have some incomplete sentences, rewrite one or two of them to make them complete.
5. Have you used compound sentences to make your sentence sound interesting?
6. If not, why don't you go back and try to improve one or two of them?
7. Check your sentences to see if you have used adverbs and adjectives as modifiers.
8. If you have not, see if you could improve one or two of them.
9. Let's not forget capitalization and punctuation.

Proofreading Directions--Unit III

1. Reread your story to yourself.
2. Are all of your sentences complete?
3. If they are not, underline them with red crayon.
4. Go back and see if you can make your sentences complete.
5. Did you use all of the different kinds of sentences? If not, change some sentences now.
6. Have you used words, phrases, and clauses as modifiers?
7. If you did not, go back and see if you can make your sentences more interesting.
8. Check your capitalization and punctuation.

Proofreading Directions--Unit IV

1. Reread your story to yourself.
2. Check carefully to be sure all your sentences are complete.
3. Underline any sentences that are incomplete.
4. Have you used different kinds of sentences--compound? complex?
5. Have you used words, phrases, and clauses as modifiers?
6. Go back and insert modifiers of different kinds to make your story more interesting.
7. Check your capitalization and punctuation.

UNIT I

REVIEW OF THE COMPLETE SENTENCE

Lesson I

Write the sentences and sentence fragments below on the board. Tell students to select those groups of words that do not make sense or are not complete thoughts. Ask for suggestions to finish the incomplete thoughts. Write the suggestions on the board.

Strong winds have

There was gold in the sunset

Mary often likes to

Yesterday a great blizzard

The snowstorm raged fiercely

Discuss the following definition of a sentence: A sentence is a group of words that expresses a whole thought and makes sense when it stands alone.

Point out that a sentence has these two parts: the part that tells and the part that tells about. Illustrate on the board:

<u>A dog</u> <u>ran down the street</u>.

Write the following sentences on the board. Tell students to point out the part that tells and the part that tells about. Underline the parts.

Mary ran to the door.

The monkey sat on the tree.

The heavy rain came suddenly.

Given below is the part of the sentence that tells. Have students suggest the part that tells about. Write the suggestions on the board.

The fierce lion _____.

A haunted shack _____.

A rumble of thunder _____.

Distribute exercises for Lesson I.

In the following sentences draw a line under the part that tells and a double line under the part that tells about.

1. The boy quickly ate his sandwich.
2. The coffee pot bubbled gaily on the stove.
3. The large door flew open.
4. Many lions performed at the circus.
5. Our newspaper publishes daily weather forecasts.
6. The huge fire blazed all night.
7. Several boys went swimming at the old mill.
8. The temperature didn't change much since yesterday.
9. Peter cleaned the attic thoroughly.
10. A flash of lightning brightened the sky.

Finish the following groups of words so that they express complete thoughts and become sentences.

1. The snow covered _____.
2. A huge cloud of sand _____.
3. On a dreary rainy day _____.
4. With his small sharp teeth the animal _____.
5. Mary decided to _____.
6. A leather saddle with silver trimmings _____.
7. The crowd in the grandstand _____.
8. Angrily the boy _____.
9. We kept trying to _____.
10. The billowy white clouds _____.

Correct and discuss the exercises with the class.

Lesson II

Review briefly the complete sentence. Introduce the kinds of sentences by stating that our writing becomes more interesting when we use different kinds of sentences.

Explain that a sentence may tell something or make a statement.

The boys were playing baseball.

Show the class that this sentence will become more interesting by building it with colorful words. Build the sentence with the class by having the students answer the questions. Write the suggestions on the board.

_____ _____ boys were playing _____.
How many? What kind? Where?

If students suggest phrases, call the suggestion a phrase at this time.

Explain that a sentence may ask a question.

Did the crowd cheer?

Build the sentence with the class by having the students answer the questions.

Did the _____ _____ crowd cheer _____ ?
What size? What kind? How?

Explain that an exclamation is made when we feel very strongly about something.

Look at all the jewels!

Build this sentence with the class.

Look at all the _____ jewels _____ !
What kind? Where?

Distribute exercises for Lesson II.

If you think the sentence below is a question, place "Q" in the box to the right. When a sentence makes a statement, place "S" in the box. If an exclamation is made, place "E" in the box. Then build each sentence by answering the question with a word or a phrase.

1. The clouds moved.

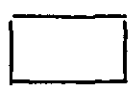
   The _____ _____ clouds moved _____. 
   What color? What kind? How?

2. Did you see the fire blaze?

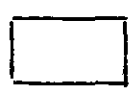
   Did you see the _____ _____ fire blaze 
   What size? What color?

   _____ _____?
   How? When?

3. Look at those flowers!

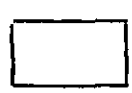
   Look at those _____ flowers _____! 
   What kind? Where?

4. How many birds did you see flying?

   How many _____ _____ birds did you see 
   What kind? What color?

   flying _____?
   Where?

5. The horses galloped.

   _____ _____ horses galloped _____ 
   How many? What color? How?

   _____ _____.
   Where? When?

6. The farmer searched for the calf.

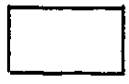
_____ the farmer searched _____ for the
When? How?

_____ _____ calf _____.
What size? What color? Where?

7. Look at the fine horses!

Look at the fine _____ horses _____!
what kind? Where?

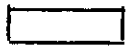
8. Did the pirates sail the seas?



Did _____ _____ pirates sail the seas
Which? What kind?

_____?
When?

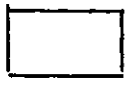
9. The bird hopped from branch to branch.



_____ the _____ _____ bird hopped
How? What size? What kind?

from branch to branch.

10. Did the geese cackle?



Did the _____ _____ _____ geese
Whose? How many? What kind?

cackle _____ _____?
How? Where?

Correct and discuss the exercise together.

Lesson III

Use the following exercise to review the complete sentence and kinds of sentences.

Some of the groups of words below do not express a complete thought. Encircle "Yes" if you believe the group of words is a sentence. Encircle "No" if you do not think it is a sentence. If you think the sentence makes a statement, put an "S" in the box to the right. If the sentence is a question, place a "Q" in the box. If an exclamation is made, place an "E" in the box. (No punctuation has been used in this exercise.)

1. Are you going to the ball game today	Yes	No	
2. When he made a run	Yes	No	
3. What is a sacrifice hit	Yes	No	
4. What a beautiful double play that was	Yes	No	
5. The players in their very white uniforms	Yes	No	
6. The manager waved his arms frantically	Yes	No	
7. He came back to the plate	Yes	No	
8. The tall pitcher suddenly threw to second base	Yes	No	
9. The red-faced umpire argued angrily with the catcher	Yes	No	
10. Sliding swiftly across home plate	Yes	No	
11. Would you try for a long ball	Yes	No	
12. What a tremendous homer that was over the center field bleachers	Yes	No	
13. Who is pitching today	Yes	No	
14. Maris is a great long ball hitter	Yes	No	
15. What a game they played today	Yes	No	

Structured Written Lesson

Below you will find a vocabulary of descriptive words. You will also find groups of the three kinds of sentences. Improve some of the sentences by using the descriptive words suggested. Then weave the sentences into a story.

bluish	tufted	golden hued	sneaky	dense
fancy	tiny	splintered	thick	spiny
spotted	silvery	craggy	elegant	fluted
wavy	shiny	fine	inky	lacy

Statement sentences:

1. We have an aquarium.
2. There are different kinds of fish in it.
3. The fish fight each other.
4. An angel fish killed a neon tetra.
5. There was a fight.

Question sentences:

1. Is there sand in it?
2. What other kinds of fish are there?
3. Can you guess what happened then?
4. What else makes up an aquarium?

Exclamation sentences:

1. They fought until one died!
2. He slid from behind some weeds!
3. One spied the other!
4. Just look at the beautiful colors!
5. A cloud of sand blew up around them!

Use proofreading technique.

Lesson IV

Discuss the fact that we have been using words that describe. We found that such words answer the following questions: What kind? What color? What size? List these on the board. Ask for suggestions to answer each question.

We also have been using words that point out. Such words answer these questions: Which one? Whose? How many? List these on the board. Ask for suggestions to answer each.

Tell the class that words which describe or point out are called adjectives.

Distribute exercises for Lesson IV.

Use adjectives from the suggested list to answer the questions in the following sentences. Some adjectives may be used more than once. Add a, an, or the when needed.

huge	healthy	mild	several
frisky	tired	damp	black
long-clawed	those	brawny	nimble
grizzled	that	strong	happy
inclement	refreshing	red	cold
active	old	farmer's	small

1. _____ (What size?) _____ (What kind?) beast roamed here.
2. _____ (What kind?) _____ (What kind?) weather continued.
3. _____ (Which?) _____ (What kind?) child played.
4. _____ (What color?) _____ (What kind?) horse galloped.
5. _____ (How many?) _____ (What kind?) stars twinkled.
6. _____ (Which?) _____ (What kind?) scouts camped.

7. _____ _____ men worked.
   How many? What kind?

8. _____ _____ rabbits scampered.
   How many? What kind?

9. _____ _____ girls sang.
   Which? What kind?

10. _____ _____ truck crashed.
    What kind? What color?

11. _____ _____ calves played.
    Whose? What kind?

12. _____ _____ day arrived.
    Which? What kind?

13. _____ _____ wind blew.
    What kind? What kind?

14. _____ _____ cat crept.
    What color? What kind?

15. _____ _____ snake crawled.
    What kind? What color?

We have been using words that answer these questions? How? When? Where? How much? Words that answer these questions are called adverbs. Add an adverb to each sentence in the previous exercise. Select the adverbs from the list below.

swiftly	often	gracefully	forever
seldom	upward	tomorrow	brightly
smilingly	instantly	smoothly	soon
nervously	anxiously	fiercely	sweetly
continuously	slyly		

Select five sentences from the previous exercise and rewrite them so that an adverb opens the sentence. Correct and discuss the exercises.

Lesson V

Given a beginning sentence and a list of descriptive words, the students will write a paragraph.

Structured Written Lesson

Use the sentence below as a beginning sentence in writing a paragraph. Below are also some words which will help you build interesting sentences.

Early on a bright hot August morning Christopher Columbus and his crew hoisted sail on the Santa Maria.

rough turbulent seas	break of day	humble and devoted monk
little peaks and mounds	dangerous cutthroat pirates	
flapping billowing sails	robes of gold cloth and a crown	
murky moonlight	Pinta's twisted, broken, and badly rusted rudder	

Use proofreading technique.

UNIT II

COMPOUND SENTENCES

Lesson I

TEACHER'S INTRODUCTION

Have the class write a few simple declarative sentences on the topic, My Favorite Winter Sport, Ice Skating. List a sampling on the board as examples. Ask if they can think of any way to combine several of the sentences to make more colorful and more expressive sentences. Experiment with ideas and have them read aloud or written out.

How dull our stories would become if we found that we had to start a fresh sentence for every new idea we wanted to tell about, so we have certain words that help us to join two or more whole ideas together into ONE sentence. But each still is a complete idea in itself, though you have used them in only one sentence. These words which tie two thoughts together in one sentence are called linking words. Just as we combine two words such as barn and yard to make the compound word barnyard, so we can combine two sentences on the same topic to form a compound sentence. Each part of the compound sentence must still meet the tests of a simple complete sentence, so each must have a part that tells and a part that tells about. Some of the linking words that can be used are: and, but, then, for, nor, or, because, so,yet.

When the exercises have been completed, correct them with the class and discuss.

COMPOUND SENTENCES

Lesson II

TEACHER'S INTRODUCTION

We have found that it is possible to combine two or more sentences to make one more interesting sentence. The linking words and, but, or, nor, then, for, because, so, yet, are used to join the two parts. The following exercises will give you some practice in combining, and in using the various connecting words.

Correct and discuss the exercises when they are finished.

COMPOUND SENTENCES

Lesson III

TEACHER'S INTRODUCTION

We have seen how connecting or linking words can join two sentences to make one, and also that each part of the compound sentence must be an entire sentence in itself, not merely a group of words. We have combined the two parts and we can also break a compound sentence up to have two groups of words that can stand alone or be independent of the other. For this reason we speak of them as independent clauses.

If you were given these two sentences, they could easily be joined into one compound sentence.

Mary baked some cookies.

Jane made some candy.

Mary baked some cookies, and Jane made some candy.

A comma is used before the joining word. In the sentence we formed we found out something, but we learned more when these questions were answered.

Mary baked some _____ _____ cookies, and
(what size?) (what kind?)

Jane made some _____ _____ candy _____.
(what kind?) (taste? smell? color?) (when?)

Correct and discuss when exercises are completed.

COMPOUND SENTENCES

Lesson IV

Structured Written Lesson

I am going to put five phrases on the board. From the ideas that come to you, write a paragraph of your own. Remember the new kind of sentence you can use. Include both simple and compound sentences, and be sure to draw word pictures of the people and things you write of. Ask and answer: what color? what size? what kind? which one? whose? how many? how? when? where? how much?

Phrases:

waving furiously

carefully looking around

the boy with the blue jacket

a large brown package

laughed until she cried

The teacher will instruct the class in the use of the proofreading technique included with the lessons.

UNIT III

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

Lesson I

We have a third kind of sentence which also uses linking words like we have used before, but if one group of words was separated from the rest of the sentence it would not make sense. This group of words, or a clause as it is called, depends on the rest of the sentence to give it meaning. The teacher may wish to go over this at the board as follows:

When the family takes a trip, it's an experience!
If we could find our way, we would go home.

Exercise: Underline the words that are dependent on the rest of the sentence to give them meaning, then underline twice the part of the sentence that can stand alone or be independent.

1. When we came to the bridge, we discovered it was closed.
2. As the stream was shallow, Dad decided to drive across it.
3. The car jiggled down the slope as the baby howled, and the picnic basket toppled to the floor spilling peanut butter sandwiches on our feet.
4. Just as we reached the middle of the stream the car door snapped open and Siegfried, our shaggy sheep dog, jumped into the briskly flowing water which swirled about us.
5. Desperately we tried to grab Siegfried and close the door before our lunch floated away.
6. When we finally reached shore with no lunch and a wet shivering dog, the day seemed ruined.

Correct these sentences in class.

Lesson II

Yesterday we discovered that certain linking words were used to make the third kind of sentence which we call the complex sentence. Words such as: which, when, as, before, because, when used in a group of words, cannot stand alone and make sense, they are dependent on the rest of the sentence for their sense. Examine the samples on the board:

When you finish
As we looked through the telescope
Before man was on earth

At the board finish writing these sentences with a clause that can stand alone, or an independent clause as it is called. The whole class should participate in this using a variety of endings as there are many solutions to the problem.

Exercise: Join the following clauses to each other to make complete sentences. Underline the clause that is independent once and the dependent clause twice.

1. Take two balls	which he had read
2. If you go to the store	if you like
3. When you come back	bring us some ice cream
4. Mary gave Joe a book	clean your room

Check your sentences over. They are lacking in descriptive words, and these sentences could have another thought added to them by the use of linking words we have talked about earlier.

Write the sentences over, using the following descriptive words, and add one more thought or idea to the original sentence by using a linking word.

red	mystery	green
coffee	magazine	softly
rubber	sister	bitter
brother	dusty	
messy	tired	

Correct these sentences in class.

Lesson III

The part of the sentence that begins who cannot be read without the rest of the sentence if it is to make sense. There are many words that open the first part of a sentence. We could call them "openers." List on the board some of the openers we have to choose from:

when	because	though	whose
where	if	unless	which
while	since	until	what
as	why	that	who
after	how	whom	

Place the following sentences on the board and go over the method for doing the exercise that is to follow the sample.

Exercise: In the following sentences underline that part of the sentence which begins with one of the "openers." Place parenthesis around the part of the clause that can stand alone. Then substitute the underlined words with your own words, but begin each with your SAME "opener."

Example: As we crossed the wooden bridge, (we heard the swollen river roar angrily).

As we approached the nearby valley, we heard the swollen river roar angrily.

1. When he reached the end of the mountain trail, the cowboy built a fire.

When _____, the cowboy built a fire.

2. Jane popped corn today because tomorrow is her birthday.

Jane popped corn today because _____.

3. After they performed at the circus, the grey horses galloped away fast.

After _____.

4. This is the boy who painted the mural in the lobby.

This is the boy who _____.

5. If the rain hadn't fallen on our lunch, we would have stayed at the park all day.

If _____, we would have stayed at the park all day.

Correct these sentences in class.

Lesson IV

This is a directing writing lesson to be corrected with the prescribed proofreading technique.

Writing Lesson

Here are some clauses and some descriptive words. Put them into a story using sentences that:

1) have one idea

2) have two ideas tied with a linking word such as and, but, and for. Each part of the sentence should be an independent clause.

3) have one complete thought and another idea tied to it with a linking word but a group of words that cannot stand alone and is dependent on the rest of the sentence for its meaning.

After you finish the story underline once the first type of sentence or the SIMPLE sentence as you learned it, underline twice the sentence with two complete thoughts or the COMPOUND sentence, and underline three times the sentences that have one independent thought and one group of words that depends on the rest of the sentence for its meaning. Circle all your own descriptive words.

when night fell
moonlight
smoky
which stood alone in the dark wood
weird calls
when the tears began
flapping wings
was frightened because of the shadows
helpful
black
as they trudged
but if he knocked
shrill and cackling
sweet and tempting
because he was brave
as the door creaked
swooped low in warning
wrinkled
shadowy

UNIT IV

Lesson I

The teacher writes the following example on the board:

The boy went fishing.

She states, "While this is a complete thought, we probably can tell much more about this boy that went fishing." She asks the pupils for words that will tell what kind of boy, or what size boy went fishing. She receives several answers and writes the sentence on the board this way:

The boy	What kind? -- good, bad, careless, careful What size? -- large, small, short, tall, fat, thin	went fishing.

With the help of the above diagrammed sentence, she shows that the words good, bad, large, small, etc. describe the boy and tell what kind or what size boy they described.

The teacher states the following: "We have seen how words can be used to describe other words more accurately and at the same time make sentences more interesting to read. In a similar way, groups of words can be used to describe a word and make more interesting sentences."

She writes the following examples on the board.

A.	The boy	What kind? -- <u>Who is friendly</u> What size? -- <u>Who is six foot tall</u> Which one? -- <u>Who gave me an apple</u> <u>That lost his bicycle</u>	went fishing.

B.	The house	What color? -- <u>that was painted red</u> What kind? -- <u>which was falling down</u> What size? -- <u>that had ten rooms</u> Which one? -- <u>beside the road</u>	burned to the ground.

She calls the pupils' attention to the above presented sentences and asks, "Can you tell me what groups of words describe the boy and what groups describe the house?" In addition she asks, "What groups answer the questions, <u>What color</u>?, <u>What kind</u>?, <u>What size</u>?, and <u>Which one</u>?."

Lesson II

The teacher writes the following examples on the board.

how?
1. Johnny ate his lunch hurriedly.

when?
2. Johnny ate his lunch then.

where?
3. Johnny ate his lunch nearby.

She says, "In the above three sentences are underlined examples of words that answer the questions, How? When? or Where? In a similar way groups of words can be used to describe verbs and answer the questions, How? When? or Where?."

"Look at the following example on the board."

A. The small boy swam	How?	as though he were tired.
	When?	while it was daylight.
	Where?	where it was cool.

Lesson III

The teacher says, "Generally a preposition indicates direction or position. Words like above, below, behind, beneath, after, before, between, beside, against, in, on, over, toward, to, with, within, without, through, around, among, are prepositions. What prepositions can be used in these sentences I have put on the board?"

1. The cow jumped over the moon.
2. The baseball flew through the window.
3. The deer ran _____ the woods.
4. He threw his cap _____ John and me.
5. He gave a present _____ him.

"In the sentence number one, over the moon is called a prepositional phrase, as through the window is in the second sentence. Like clauses, these phrases can be used to describe nouns and answer the questions, What color? What kind? What size? and Which one? Like clauses they describe verbs and answer the questions, How? When? or Where?"

For example, look at the sentence on the board.

What kind? Where?
A. A cat with white paws ran across the lawn.

"The phrase with white paws answers the question, What kind? It describes the cat. The phrase across the lawn answers the question, Where? It describes ran."

Lesson IV

The teacher says, "In the previous lessons and exercises, you have seen and made sentences where you have used clauses and phrases that have described words. You know that clauses and phrases that describe nouns answer the questions, What color? What kind? What size? Which one? You also know that clauses and phrases that describe verbs answer the questions, How? When? and Where?

"In order to refresh your mind about clauses and phrases, look at the several examples on the board and notice why they are underlined and labeled as they are."

Which one? When?
1. The boat that was anchored behind our dock sailed in the

When?
moonlight until it was quite late.

What kind? Where? Where?
2. A coat with a zipper floated in the water where it wasn't

noticed.

What kind? How?
3. The house that was built of stone was saved because the

firemen used many hoses.

What size? What color?
4. The horse that was fifteen hands with white socks performed

How?
without an error.

What color? Where?
5. The missile that was painted silver sailed into the sky

How?
without faltering.

"You wil see that the phrases and clauses used as adjectives answer the questions, What color? What kind? What size? and Which one? In a similar way, the clauses and phrases used as adverbs answer the questions, How? When? and Where?."

Clauses and Phrases Used as Modifiers

This is a directed writing lesson to be corrected with the prescribed proofreading techniques.

The teacher writes the following phrases and clauses on the board.

with the least effort

at three o'clock

into the thick brush

while he was looking at the clouds

that was roaring and plunging

who was small and runty

as if he were frozen to the ground

She says, "Here are some phrases and clauses that you are to use in a story. With the use of these and your own phrases and clauses, see how descriptive and interesting you can make your story."

UNIT I

REVIEW OF THE COMPLETE SENTENCE

LESSON I

In the following sentences draw a line under the part that tells and a double line under the part that tells about.

1. The boy quickly ate his sandwich.
2. The coffee pot bubbled gaily on the stove.
3. The large door flew open.
4. Many lions performed at the circus.
5. Our newspaper publishes daily weather forecasts.
6. The huge fire blazed all night.
7. Several boys went swimming at the old mill.
8. The temperature didn't change much since yesterday.
9. Peter cleaned the attic thoroughly.
10. A flash of lightning brightened the sky.

Finish the following groups of words so that they express complete thoughts and become sentences.

1. The snow covered _____.
2. A huge cloud of sand _____.
3. On a dreary rainy day _____.
4. With his small sharp teeth the animal _____.
5. Mary decided to _____.
6. A leather saddle with silver trimmings _____.
7. The crowd in the grandstand _____.
8. Angrily the boy _____.
9. We kept trying to _____.
10. The billowy white clouds _____.

UNIT I

Lesson II

If you think the sentence below is a question, place "Q" in the box to the right. When a sentence makes a statement, place "S" in the box. If an exclamation is made, place an "E" in the box. Then build each sentence by answering the question with a word or a phrase.

1. The clouds moved.

   The _____ _____ clouds moved
   What color? What kind?

   _____ .
   How?

2. Did you see the fire blaze?

   Did you see the _____ _____ fire
   What size? What color:

   blaze _____ _____ ?
   How? When?

3. Look at those flowers!

   Look at those _____ flowers _____!
   What kind? Where?

4. How many birds did you see flying?

   How many _____ _____ birds did
   What kind? What color?

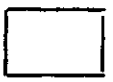
   you see flying _____ ?
   Where?

5. The horses galloped.

   _____ _____ horses galloped
   How many? What color:

   _____ _____ _____
   How? Where? When?

6. The farmer searched for the calf.



_____ the farmer searched _____
When? How?

for the _____ _____ calf.
What size? What color?

_____.
Where?

7. Look at the fine horses!

Look at the fine, _____ horses _____!
What kind? Where?

8. Did the pirates sail the seas?

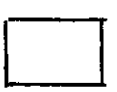
Did _____ _____ pirates sail the seas
Which? What kind?

_____ ?
When?

9. The birds hopped from branch to branch.

_____ the _____, _____
How? What size? What kind?
bird hopped from branch to branch.

10. Did the geese cackle?



Did the _____ _____, _____
Whose? How many? What kind?

geese cackle _____ _____ ?
How? Where?

UNIT I

Lesson III

Some of the groups of words below do not express a complete thought. Encircle "Yes" if you believe the group of words is a sentence. Encircle "No" if you do not think it is a sentence. If you think the sentence makes a statement, put an "S" in the box to the right. If the sentence is a question, place a "Q" in the box. If an exclamation is made, place an "E" in the box. (No punctuation has been used in this exercise.)

1. Are you going to the ball game today	Yes	No	☐
2. When he made a run	Yes	No	☐
3. What is a sacrifice hit	Yes	No	☐
4. What a beautiful double play that was	Yes	No	☐
5. The players in their very white uniforms	Yes	No	☐
6. The manager waved his arms frantically	Yes	No	☐
7. He came back to the plate	Yes	No	☐
8. The tall pitcher suddenly threw to second base	Yes	No	☐
9. The red-faced umpire argued angrily with the catcher	Yes	No	☐
10. Sliding swiftly across home plate	Yes	No	☐
11. Would you try for a long ball	Yes	No	☐
12. What a tremendous homer that was over the center field bleachers	Yes	No	☐
13. Who is pitching today	Yes	No	☐
14. Maris is a great long ball hitter	Yes	No	☐
15. What a game they played today	Yes	No	☐

Structured Written Lesson

Below you will find a vocabulary of descriptive words. You will also find groups of the three kinds of sentences. Improve some of the sentences by using the descriptive words suggested. Then weave the sentences into a story.

bluish	tufted	golden hued	sneaky	dense
fancy	tiny	splintered	thick	spiny
spotted	silvery	craggy	elegant	fluted
wavy	shiny	fine	inky	lacy

Statement sentences:

1. We have an aquarium.
2. There are different kinds of fish in it.
3. The fish fight each other.
4. An angel fish killed a neon tetra.
5. There was a fight.

Question sentences:

1. Is there sand in it?
2. What other kinds of fish are there?
3. Can you guess what happened then?
4. What else makes up an aquarium?

Exclamation sentences:

1. They fought until one died!
2. He slid from behind some weeds!
3. One spied the other!
4. Just look at the beautiful colors!
5. A cloud of sand blew up around them!

UNIT I

Lesson IV

Use adjectives from the suggested list to answer the questions in the following sentences. Some adjectives may be used more than once. Add a, an, or the when needed.

huge	healthy	mild	several
frisky	tired	damp	black
long-clawed	those	brawny	nimble
grizzled	that	strong	happy
inclement	refreshing	red	cold
active	old	farmer's	small

1. _____ (What size?) _____ (What kind?) beast roamed here?
2. _____ (What kind?) _____ (What kind?) weather continued.
3. _____ (Which?) _____ (What kind?) child played.
4. _____ (What color?) _____ (What kind?) horse galloped.
5. _____ (How many?) _____ (What kind?) stars twinkled.
6. _____ (Which?) _____ (What kind?) scouts camped.
7. _____ (How many?) _____ (What kind?) men worked.
8. _____ (How many?) _____ (What kind?) rabbits scampered.
9. _____ (Which?) _____ (What kind?) girls sang.
10. _____ (What kind?) _____ (What color?) truck crashed.

11. _____ _____ calves played.
Whose? What kind?

12. _____ _____ day arrived.
Which? What kind?

13. _____ _____ wind blew.
What kind? What kind?

14. _____ _____ cat crept.
What color? What kind?

15. _____ _____ snake crawled.
What kind? What color?

We have been using words that answer these questions: How? When? Where? How much? Words that answer these questions are called adverbs. Add an adverb to each sentence in the previous exercise. Select the adverbs from the list below.

swiftly	often	gracefully	forever
seldom	upward	tomorrow	brightly
smilingly	instantly	smoothly	soon
nervously	anxiously	fiercely	sweetly
continuously	slyly	frequently	rapidly

Select five sentences from the previous exercise and rewrite them so that an adverb opens the sentence.

1. _____

_____

2. _____

_____

3. _____

_____

4. _____

_____

5. _____

_____

UNIT I

Lesson V

Use the sentence below as a beginning sentence in writing a paragraph. Below are also some words which will help you build interesting sentences.

Early on a bright hot August morning Christopher Columbus and his crew hoisted sail on the Santa Maria.

rough turbulent seas	break of day
little peaks and mounds	humble and devoted monk
flapping billowing sails	dangerous cutthroat pirates
murky moonlight	robes of gold cloth and a crown

Pinta's twisted, broken, and badly rusted rudder

UNIT II

Lesson I

Exercise:

Read the following compound sentence, underline each part of the compound sentence that makes a simple sentence, and circle the linking word.

1. We ate our supper, and we went out to play.

2. John had brought all his toys to play with, but he let us use some of them.

3. The summer days passed quickly, for the kids on our street could always think up new games.

4. He got thirsty and tired, so he sat down for a rest.

5. The cat ran up the tree, but the dog could not follow him.

In the sentences below each part of the sentence is connected by a blank. Put in the connecting word that will make the best sense.

1. John could have gone hunting, _____ he could have gone to the Sportsman Show.

2. John can go hunting, _____ he must be home at 4 o'clock.

3. He went hunting with his father, _____ they shot two black ducks.

4. Shooting a shotgun is fun, _____you must be very careful.

5. Learning to hunt skillfully is worthwhile, _____ it helps develop confidence and self-reliance.

UNIT II

Lesson II

Exercise 1:

Combine a sentence from Column I with a sentence from Column II to make a compound sentence. Choose the most appropriate linking word for each.

Column I	Column II
The girl ran down the street.	The farmer fed them.
The dog might have buried the bone.	She stopped at the white house.
Mary went to the store.	He might have hidden it.
John was a good boy.	She bought a pencil.
Mother came home.	His father gave him a gun.
The animals were hungry.	She got supper.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

Exercise 2:

Write ten sentences on the topic, My Best Friend, using compound sentences, and as many different joining words as possible.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

UNIT II

Lesson III

Exercise 1:

Example: Judy broke her pretty doll.

Today Mother bought her a new one with blonde hair.

Judy broke her pretty doll, so today Mother bought her a new one with blonde hair.

Judy broke her lovely doll, so today Mother bought her a beautiful one with blue eyes.

1. The cold wind blew furiously.

   The leaves were scattered around the yard.

2. The wind was very strong.

   The children flew their kites happily.

3. Karen bounced the bright blue ball.

   It rolled across the street.

4. John ate his big red apple slowly.

   He took a chocolate candy bar out of his pocket.

Exercise 2:

Write three sentences of your own, using a playground as the location of the story. Perhaps some children are playing a game. Tell what kind of a day it is. Tell what the children look like and what they are wearing. Describe the playground and the game.

Lesson III

Exercise 1:

1. a.

   b.

2. a.

   b.

3. a.

   b.

4. a.

   b.

Exercise 2:

1.

2.

3.

UNIT III

Complex Sentence

Exercise: Underline the words that are dependent on the rest of the sentence to give them meaning, then underline TWICE the part of the sentence that can stand alone or be independent.

1. When we came to the bridge, we discovered it was closed.

2. As the stream was shallow, Dad decided to drive across it.

3. The car jiggled down the slope as the baby howled, and the picnic basket toppled to the floor spilling peanut butter sandwiches on our feet.

4. Just as we reached the middle of the stream the car door snapped open and Siegfried, our shaggy sheep dog, jumped into the briskly flowing water which swirled about us.

5. Desperately we tried to grab Siegfried and close the door before our lunch floated away.

6. When we finally reached shore with no lunch and a wet shivering dog, the day seemed ruined.

Correct these sentences in class.

Exercise: Join the following clauses to each other to make complete sentences. Underline the clause that is independent once and the dependent clause twice.

1. Take two balls	which he had read
2. If you go to the store	if you like
3. When you come back	bring us some ice cream
4. Mary gave Joe a book	clean your room

Check your sentences over. They are lacking in descriptive words, and these sentences could have another thought added to them by the use of linking words we have talked about earlier.

Write the sentences over using the following descriptive words and add one more thought or idea to the original sentence by using a linking word.

red	mystery	green
coffee	magazine	softly
rubber	sister	bitter
brother	dusty	
messy	tired	

Correct these sentences in class.

Exercise: In the following sentences underline that part of the sentence which begins with one of the "openers." Place a parenthesis around the part of the clause that can stand alone. Then substitute the underlined words with your own words, but begin each with your SAME "opener."

Example: As we crossed the wooden bridge, (we heard the swollen river roar angrily).

As we approached the nearby valley we heard the swollen river roar angrily.

1. When he reached the end of the mountain trail, the cowboy built a fire.

When _____,

the cowboy built a fire.

2. Jane popped corn today because tomorrow is her birthday.

Jane popped corn today because _____.

3. After they performed at the circus, the grey horses galloped away fast.

After _____.

4. This is the boy who painted the mural in the lobby.

This is the boy who _____.

5. If the rain hadn't fallen on our lunch, we would have stayed at the park all day.

If _____, we would have stayed at the park all day.

Correct these sentences in class.

Writing Lesson

Exercise:

Here are some clauses and some descriptive words; put them into a story using sentences that:

1) have one idea.

2) have two ideas tied with a linking word such as and, but, and for. Each part of the sentence should be an independent clause.

3) have one complete thought and another idea tied to it with a linking word but a group of words that cannot stand alone and is dependent on the rest of the sentence for its meaning.

After you finish the story underline once the first type of sentence or the SIMPLE sentence as you learned it, underline twice the sentence with two complete thoughts or the COMPOUND sentence, and underline three times the sentences that have one independent thought and one group of words that depends on the rest of the sentence for its meaning. Circle all your descriptive words.

when night fell

moonlight

smoky

which stood alone in the dark wood

weird calls

when the tears began

flapping wings

was frightened because of the shadows

helpful

black

as they trudged

but if he knocked

shrill and cackling

sweet and tempting

because he was brave

as the door creaked

swooped low in warning

wrinkled

shadowy

UNIT IV

Structured Writing Lesson I

Write five sentences about anyone subject such as skating, basketball, watching television, or baking a cake with a friend, without using any descriptive words.

For example: Below are five sentences about fishing.

1. The boy went fishing.

2. John paddled his canoe.

3. He baited the hook.

4. The fish took the bait.

5. He caught a fish.

When you have finished your sentences and your teacher has approved them, see if you can add clauses that will describe nouns and tell the color, kind, size, number, or which one. As an example of what you should do, look at the five sentences below. Also look at examples A and B that your teacher has put on the board.

What kind?
1. The boy who was careful went fishing.

What size?
2. John paddled his canoe that was ten feet long.

Which one?
3. He baited the hook that was in his hand.

What color?
4. The fish that was speckled green took the bait.

Which one?
5. He caught the fish that he would have for supper.

Refer to previous instructions on proofreading and correction.

Structured Writing Lesson II

Write five sentences about any one subject such as playing hockey, going to a party, or making a costume without using descriptive words.

For example, below are five sentences about going on a trip.

1. We left home.

2. John drove the car.

3. He put the car away.

4. We ate supper.

5. We watched television.

When you have finished your sentences and your teacher has approved them, see if you can add clauses that will describe verbs; those that will tell How? When? or Where? As an example of what you should do, look at the five sentences below. Also look at example A that your teacher has put on the board.

1. We left home before it was daylight.

2. John drove the car until it was dark.

3. He put the car where it would be safe.

4. We ate supper as if we were starved.

5. He watched television while I slept.

Refer to previous instructions on proofreading and correction.

Structured Writing Lesson III

As in the other exercises, write five simple sentences, all about one subject without using any descriptive words, phrases, or clauses. When these are completed, see if you can add to these sentences phrases that will answer the questions, What color? What kind? What size? Which one? How? When? and Where? Look at Example A on the board and remember that I used A cat ran as my beginning sentence before adding the phrases.

Remember to underline your phrases and label them according to the job they do as I have done in Example A. Also underline the word that is described.

Refer to previous instructions on proofreading and correction.

Structured Writing Lesson IV

Part I

Below are seventeen groups of underlined words. Determine which ones are phrases and which are clauses, and what questions they answer. Label each in the same way the example shows.

Example: A. How?
<u>with a twist</u>
Phrase

1. <u>into the kitchen</u>

2. <u>who was running in the field</u>

3. <u>as he was eating his breakfast</u>

4. <u>at midnight</u>

5. <u>that was sixteen feet</u>

6. <u>that was white</u>

7. <u>with a small saw</u>

8. <u>that has nuts in it</u>

9. <u>when he was at school</u>

10. <u>as if it were a feather</u>

11. <u>in the shabby coat</u>

12. <u>with a roar</u>

13. unless he finishes his lessons

14. to the wise

15. while he was riding his bike

16. who talked constantly

17. under the chair

Refer to previous instructions on proofreading and correction.

Structured Writing Lesson IV

Part II

Below are two columns. In Column A are simple sentences and in Column B are phrases and clauses. On a piece of paper, see if you can add the proper phrases and clauses to the right simple sentence. Skip a line between each line so you can underline and label each phrase and clause in the same way the sentences are identified on the board.

Column A	Column B
1. The girl carried skates	with the little dog in her hand
2. The man crawled	who was small on his hands until he disappeared
3. The dog slept	with black fur where people wouldn't disturb him
4. The athlete received a prize	who won the race that most people would cherish
5. The clown ran	who was painted white at top speed

Refer to previous instructions on proofreading and correction.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

It was the purpose of this study to determine whether a series of exercises in functional grammar would affect the quality of children's writing in grades five and six.

The data were analyzed to determine whether there was a significant difference before and after the exercises in the type of sentences used in free writing. The following factors were analyzed numerically:

1. Complete sentences
2. Incomplete sentences
3. Run-on sentences
4. Simple sentences
5. Compound sentences
6. Complex sentences
7. Descriptive words
8. Descriptive phrases
9. Descriptive clauses
10. Connecting words.

Data for Grade Five

Table 1 shows a comparison of the chronological ages and intelligence quotients for grade five.

TABLE 1

A COMPARISON OF MEANS AND S.D.
OF CHRONOLOGICAL AGE AND INTELLIGENCE--GRADE FIVE

	Chronological Age	Intelligence Quotient
No.	112	112
Range	113-151 mos.	83-156
Mean	125.52 or 10 yrs. 4 mos.	120.15
S.D.	5.13	13.95

An examination of Table 1 shows that the children have a mean chronological age of ten years and four months, which is normal for the fifth grade. The mean I.Q. of 120 indicates on the whole a much better than average population, though the lower end of the range is below normal.

Table 2 shows the mean scores for grade five previous to the study. These scores are based on an analysis of free writing.

TABLE 2

PRE-COMPOSITION SCORES IN TERMS OF MEANS AND S.D.--GRADE FIVE

Structural Aspects	Range	Mean	S.D.
Complete Sentences	0 - 36	12.55	6.95
Incomplete Sentences	0 - 6	1.71	1.57
Run-on Sentences	0 - 5	.71	1.08
Simple Sentences	0 - 30	8.41	5.67
Compound Sentences	0 - 11	1.71	1.88
Complex Sentences	0 - 12	2.60	1.99
Descriptive Words	0 - 44	12.75	9.75
Descriptive Phrases	0 - 26	4.85	5.70
Descriptive Clauses	0 - 12	2.74	2.46
Connecting Words	0 - 12	3.16	1.96

Table 2 is based on a numerical count of the structural aspects of the compositions of 112 fifth grade children.

Table 3 shows the mean scores on the same structural elements after the exercises. These scores are based on free writing.

TABLE 3

POST-COMPOSITION SCORES IN TERMS OF MEANS AND S.D.--GRADE FIVE

Structural Aspects	Range	Mean	S.D.
Complete Sentences	1 - 26	10.40	4.74
Incomplete Sentences	0 - 2	.29	.53
Run-on Sentences	0 - 4	.70	.96
Simple Sentences	0 - 19	6.18	3.96
Compound Sentences	0 - 6	2.09	1.42
Complex Sentences	0 - 11	2.66	2.07
Descriptive Words	0 - 44	10.63	7.92
Descriptive Phrases	0 - 14	3.63	2.72
Descriptive Clauses	0 - 22	5.62	3.96
Connecting Words	0 - 18	5.02	2.94

Table 3 is based on a numerical count of the structural aspects of the compositions of 112 fifth grade children.

The following ten tables show a comparison of means in terms of critical ratio for each element.

TABLE 4

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST- COMPOSITION SCORES ON COMPLETE SENTENCES--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	12.55	6.95	.659	2.15	.80	2.687
Post-Composition	112	10.40	4.74	.449			

An examination of the above table reveals a difference in mean scores of 2.15 yielding a critical ratio of 2.687, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the pretest. At a first glance, the results may seem unfortunate, but the children were taught to combine sentences. It is only natural for the number of complete sentences to be less, since the teaching stressed the combining of simple sentences.

Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations and critical ratio of incomplete sentences.

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON INCOMPLETE SENTENCES--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	1.71	1.57	.148	1.42	.156	9.102
Post-Composition	112	.29	.53	.050			

An examination of the above table reveals a difference of mean scores of 1.42 yielding a critical ratio of 9.102. This is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the pre-composition scores. This is as expected, since the study stressed exercises in the development of the complete sentence.

Table 6 shows the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio for run-on sentences.

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON RUN-ON SENTENCES--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	.71	1.08	.102	.01	.136	.073
Post-Composition	112	.70	.96	.091			

In the examination of the above table a difference in mean scores of .01 yielded a critical ratio of .073, which is not statistically significant. It may be noted that the children did not gain or lose in the number of run-on sentences.

Table 7 shows the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio for simple sentences.

TABLE 7

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON SIMPLE SENTENCES--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	8.41	5.67	.540	2.23	.658	3.378
Post-Composition	112	6.18	3.96	.377			

An examination of the above table reveals a difference in mean scores of 2.23 yielding a critical ratio of 3.378, which is statistically significant in favor of the pre-compositions. This is expected, since the combining of simple sentences was stressed throughout the study; therefore, the number should be fewer.

Table 8 presents the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio for compound sentences.

TABLE 8

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON COMPOUND SENTENCES--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	1.73	1.88	.178	.36	.222	1.636
Post-Composition	112	2.09	1.42	.134			

An examination of the above table reveals a difference in mean scores of .36 producing a critical ratio of 1.636, which is not statistically significant.

Table 9 shows the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio for complex sentences.

TABLE 9

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON COMPLEX SENTENCES--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	2.60	1.99	.188			
Post-Composition	112	2.66	2.07	.196	.06	.271	.221

In examining the above table, a difference in mean scores of .06 produced a critical ratio of .221, which is not statistically significant. This reveals that the children made a slight improvement in the number of complex sentences.

Table 10 shows the range, mean, standard deviations, and critical ratio for descriptive words.

TABLE 10

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON DESCRIPTIVE WORDS--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	12.75	9.75	.925			
Post-Composition	112	10.63	7.92	.751	2.12	1.191	1.780

An examination of the above table reveals a difference of 2.12 in mean scores, yielding a critical ratio of 1.780, which is not statistically significant.

Table 11 shows the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio for descriptive phrases.

TABLE 11

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON DESCRIPTIVE PHRASES--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	4.85	5.70	5.40	1.22	.598	2.040
Post-Composition	112	3.63	2.72	.258			

An examination of the above table reveals a critical ratio of 2.040, which is not statistically significant. This table does indicate an improvement in the use of descriptive phrases.

Table 12 presents the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio for descriptive clauses.

TABLE 12

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON DESCRIPTIVE CLAUSES--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	2.74	2.46	.233	2.88	.441	6.530
Post-Composition	112	5.62	3.96	.375			

The above table presents the difference in mean scores of 2.88, yielding a critical ratio of 6.530, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the post-compositions. This shows an above average step-up in the number of descriptive clauses in the post-compositions.

Table 13 shows the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio for connecting words in grade five.

TABLE 13

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON CONNECTING WORDS--GRADE FIVE

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	112	3.16	1.96	.185	1.86	.333	5.585
Post-Composition	112	5.02	2.94	.278			

The above table shows a difference in mean scores of 1.86 and yields a critical ratio of 5.585, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the post-compositions. This reveals the children utilized more and varied connecting words in the post-compositions.

Data for Grade Six

Table 14 shows a comparison of chronological age and intelligence quotients for grade six.

TABLE 14

COMPARISON OF CHRONOLOGICAL AGE AND INTELLIGENCE--GRADE SIX

	Chronological Age	Intelligence Quotient
No.	99	99
Range	127 - 159	70 - 151
Mean	137.3 mos.	114.5
S.D.	6.5	13.5

An examination of Table 14 shows a mean chronological age of 11 years, 7 months, which is normal for children in grade six.

The mean intelligence quotient of 114.5 is indicative of a better than average mentality for the children used in this study.

Table 15 shows the factors which were checked in the compositions written before the exercises had been administered.

TABLE 15

PRETEST SCORES ON STRUCTURAL FACTORS--GRADE SIX

Structural Aspects	Range	Mean	S.D.
Complete Sentences	0 - 27	14.00	5.55
Incomplete Sentences	0 - 10	1.08	1.45
Run-on Sentences	0 - 11	.707	1.68
Simple Sentences	0 - 24	8.49	4.62
Compound Sentences	0 - 9	2.15	1.58
Complex Sentences	0 - 10	3.40	2.47
Connecting Words	0 - 17	5.25	3.46
Descriptive Words	0 - 17	5.89	4.33
Descriptive Phrases	0 - 19	6.29	4.19
Descriptive Clauses	0 - 13	3.63	3.00

Table 15 is based on a numerical count of the structural aspects of the compositions of 99 sixth grade children.

Table 16 shows the factors appearing in the final compositions, tabulated and transferred into means and standard deviations.

TABLE 16

POST-TEST SCORES ON STRUCTURAL FACTORS--GRADE SIX

Structural Aspects	Range	Mean	S.D.
Complete Sentences	3 - 24	12.07	4.04
Incomplete Sentences	0 - 3	.19	.48
Run-on Sentences	0 - 2	.13	.395
Simple Sentences	0 - 16	5.4	3.2
Compound Sentences	0 - 9	2.36	1.74
Complex Sentences	0 - 12	4.13	2.30
Descriptive Words	0 - 29	9.17	5.10
Descriptive Phrases	0 - 19	8.36	4.05
Descriptive Clauses	1 - 13	4.50	2.45
Connecting Words	2 - 15	6.19	2.65

Table 16 is based on a numerical count of the structural aspects of the compositions of 99 sixth grade children.

The following ten tables show a comparison of means in terms of critical ratio for each element.

TABLE 17

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON COMPLETE SENTENCES--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	14.00	5.55	.560	1.93	.71	2.72
Post-Composition	99	12.07	4.04	.408			

The above table reveals the difference in mean scores to be 1.93, producing a critical ratio of 2.72, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the pre-compositions. The results show that the children used more simple sentences in the

pre-compositions, whereas in the post-compositions more complex sentences were utilized.

Table 18 shows the means, standard deviations, and critical ratios for incomplete sentences.

TABLE 18

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON INCOMPLETE SENTENCES--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	1.08	1.45	.146	.89	.15	5.93
Post-Composition	99	.19	.48	.048			

This table indicates the difference in mean scores to be .89, yielding a critical ratio of 5.93, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the pre-compositions. This shows a reduction in the number of incomplete sentences on completion of the exercises.

Table 19 shows the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio of run-on sentences.

TABLE 19

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON RUN-ON SENTENCES--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	.707	1.68	.169	.577	.17	3.39
Post-Composition	99	.13	.395	.039			

An examination of Table 19 indicates a difference of mean scores of .577, yielding a critical ratio of 3.39. This is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the pre-composition scores. This indicates a reduction in the number of run-on sentences.

Table 20 reveals the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio of simple sentences.

TABLE 20

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON SIMPLE SENTENCES--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	8.49	4.62	.466	3.09	.57	5.42
Post-Composition	99	5.4	3.2	.323			

An examination of the above table indicates a difference in mean scores of 3.09, yielding a critical ratio of 5.42, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of pre-composition scores. These results were anticipated in view of the fact that emphasis on subordinate clause construction was one of the objectives of the study.

Table 21 shows the means and standard deviations resulting in a critical ratio in the use of the compound sentence.

TABLE 21

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON COMPOUND SENTENCES--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	2.15	1.58	.159	.21	.236	.889
Post-Composition	99	2.36	1.74	.175			

An examination of the above table reveals the difference in mean scores to be .21, yielding a critical ratio of .889, which is not statistically significant. The table does indicate a slight improvement in the use of the compound sentence.

Table 22 presents the means and standard deviations resulting in a critical ratio in the use of the complex sentence.

TABLE 22

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON COMPLEX SENTENCES--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	3.40	2.47	.249	.73	.34	2.15
Post-Composition	99	4.13	2.30	.233			

The above table reveals the difference in mean scores to be .73, resulting in a critical ratio of 2.15, which is not statistically significant. The results do reveal a slight improvement in the use of the complex sentence.

Table 23 shows the means, standard deviations, and critical ratio for the use of connecting words.

TABLE 23

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON CONNECTING WORDS--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	5.25	3.46	.349	.94	.44	2.14
Post-Composition	99	6.19	2.65	.267			

An examination of the above table reveals the difference in mean scores to be .94, producing a critical ratio of 2.14, which is not statistically significant. This table does reveal an improvement in the use of connecting words at the termination of the exercises.

Table 24 shows means, standard deviations, and critical ratio for descriptive words in grade six.

TABLE 24

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON DESCRIPTIVE WORDS--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	5.89	4.33	4.37	3.28	.675	4.86
Post-Composition	99	9.17	5.10	.515			

The above table indicates the difference in mean scores to be 3.28, producing a critical ratio of 4.86, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the post-compositions.

Table 25 presents the means and standard deviations resulting in a critical ratio for descriptive phrases in grade six.

TABLE 25

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON DESCRIPTIVE PHRASES--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	6.29	4.19	.423	2.07	.587	3.53
Post-Composition	99	8.36	4.05	.408			

An examination of the above table reveals the difference in mean scores of 2.07, yielding a critical ratio of 3.53, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the post-compositions. This shows that the children improved their use of descriptive phrases in the final compositions.

Table 26 shows a comparison of means in terms of critical ratio for descriptive phrases.

TABLE 26

COMPARISON OF PRE-COMPOSITION AND POST-COMPOSITION SCORES ON DESCRIPTIVE CLAUSES--GRADE SIX

	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Pre-Composition	99	3.63	3.00	.303	.87	.39	2.23
Post-Composition	99	4.50	2.45	.247			

The above table presents the difference of mean scores of .87, yielding a critical ratio of 2.23, which is not statistically significant. The table does indicate the children improved in utilizing more descriptive clauses.

An informal test of functional grammar was constructed and administered to all children in the experiment a week after the final composition had been completed.

Table 27 shows the results of this test for both fifth and sixth grades.

TABLE 27

COMPARISON OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
FOR INFORMAL TEST OF FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR FOR GRADES FIVE AND SIX

Grade	No.	Range	Mean	S.D.
Five	112	89 - 175	150.43	15.18
Six	99	71 - 175	152.68	16.45

An examination of the above table shows a step-up of two points of raw score between the fifth and sixth grades in favor of grade six. The standard deviations are similar and show a like spread of scores for grades five and six.

The test was broken down into sections, and means and standard deviations were computed. These were handled statistically to determine whether there was statistical significance between means for grades five and six.

Table 28 shows the critical ratios for each section of the grammar test.

TABLE 28

COMPARISON OF FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR TEST ITEMS
BETWEEN GRADES FIVE AND SIX

Test	Grade	No.	Mean	S.D.	$S.E._m$	Diff.	$S.E._d$	C.R.
Total	5	112	150.43	15.18	1.44	2.25	2.19	1.04
	6	99	152.68	16.45	1.65			
Simple Sentences	5	112	22.60	4.18	.398	2.64	.701	3.76
	6	99	25.24	4.24	.428			
Compound Sentences	5	112	17.84	2.61	.247	.59	.356	1.65
	6	99	17.25	2.55	.257			
Descriptive Words	5	112	76.95	7.78	.742	1.24	1.13	1.09
	6	99	78.19	8.49	.858			
Complex Sentences	5	112	29.41	3.21	.305	1.90	.577	3.29
	6	99	31.31	4.87	.492			

An examination of the above table reveals that there were differences between grades five and six on the Functional Grammar Test. Two of the elements reached statistical significance.

The difference in mean scores of 2.64 for the simple sentences yields a critical ratio of 3.76, which is statistically significant in favor of grade six.

An examination of complex sentences shows a difference in mean scores of 1.90, yielding a critical ratio of 3.29, which is statistically significant in favor of grade six.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It was the purpose of this study to determine whether a series of exercises in functional grammar would improve the quality of children's writing.

The data were analyzed to determine the growth in the number of mature sentence structures used in composition. A composition was analyzed before and after the use of the exercises and a numerical count of various structural elements was made.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the data:

Grade Five

1. There was a statistically significant drop in the number of complete sentences, indicating that the children were writing longer, more complex sentences rather than multiple simple sentences.
2. There was also a statistically significant drop in the number of incomplete sentences, indicating the children were using more complete sentences.
3. No statistically significant difference between the number of run-on sentences in the pre-composition and post-composition scores emerges.
4. There was a statistically significant difference between the number of simple sentences in the pre-composition and post-composition scores. This was in favor of the pre-composition

scores, with a critical ratio of 3.378, and is to be expected as the combining of simple sentences was stressed in this study.

5. No statistical significance in the number of compound sentences between the pre-composition and post-composition scores was noted.
6. There was no statistically significant difference in the number of complex sentences between the pre-composition and post-composition scores.
7. In comparing the pre-composition and post-composition scores on descriptive words, the critical ratio was sufficiently low to have no statistical significance.
8. In comparing the pre-composition and post-composition scores in descriptive phrases, the critical ratio of 2.040 favored the pre-composition scores and is statistically significant at the 5 per cent level.
9. Comparison of the pre-composition and post-composition scores in descriptive clauses reveals a critical ratio of 6.530, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of the post-composition scores.
10. The post-composition scores on connecting words were statistically significant over the pre-composition scores at the one per cent level, with a critical ratio of 5.585.

Functional Grammar Test

1. The test of grammar constructed for the study showed some differentiation between scores of the fifth and sixth grades.
2. A comparison between the fifth and sixth grade scores on simple sentences reveals a difference in mean scores of 2.64 and yields a critical ratio of 3.76 in favor of the sixth grade.
3. A comparison between the fifth and sixth grade scores on complex sentences reveals a difference in mean scores of 1.90 and produces a critical ratio of 3.9 in favor of the sixth grade.

Grade Six

1. There was a statistically significant drop in the number of complete sentences, indicating that the children were writing longer, more complex sentences rather than multiple simple sentences.
2. There was also a statistically significant drop in the number of incomplete sentences, indicating the children were using more complete sentences.
3. There was also a statistically significant reduction in the number of run-on sentences, indicating the children were using more complete sentences.
4. There was a statistically significant difference between the number of simple sentences in the pre-composition and post-composition scores. This was in favor of the pre-composition

scores, with a critical ratio of 5.42, and is to be expected. These results were anticipated in view of the fact that emphasis on subordinate clause construction was one of the objectives of the study.

5. There was no statistical significance in the number of compound sentences between the pre-composition and post-composition scores.
6. There was a statistically significant gain in the use of complex sentences as revealed by the post-composition scores. A difference in mean scores of .73, yielding a critical ratio of 2.15, indicates statistical significance at the 5 per cent level.
7. In comparing the scores for the pre- and post-compositions on connecting words, a difference in mean scores of .94 produced a critical ratio of 2.14 and is statistically significant at the 5 per cent level. This indicates an improvement in the use of connecting words at the termination of the exercises.
8. A comparison of scores of pre- and post-compositions on descriptive words reveals a difference in mean scores of 3.28. This produces a critical ratio of 4.86, which is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level in favor of an increase in the use of descriptive words as revealed by the post-composition scores.
9. Post-composition scores on the use of descriptive phrases were statistically significant when compared with pre-composition

results. The difference in mean scores of 2.07, yielding a critical ratio of 3.53, is statistically significant at the one per cent level.

10. A comparison of pre- and post-composition scores on descriptive clauses reveals a difference in mean scores of .87 and shows a critical ratio of 2.23, which is statistically significant at the 5 per cent level.

APPENDIX

1.

A group of words that expresses a complete thought is called a sentence. Check the following groups of words that are sentences.

1. The puppy ran down the street ☐
2. He found a cat ☐
3. When the cat ☐
4. She hissed ☐
5. She ran after the dog ☐
6. While the dog ☐
7. The puppy hid behind a wall ☐
8. The cat climbed up the wall ☐
9. Peering over the top of the wall ☐
10. Shaking the puppy ☐

Make a complete sentence out of the groups of words that you did not check.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

In a sentence there are usually two parts. There is a part that tells and a part that is told about. For example:

The cat ran down the street.

<u>The cat</u> is told about

<u>ran down the street</u> tells about the cat.

In the following sentences <u>underline</u> the part that is told about.

The basket is full of luscious apples.

Running down the street, the boy tripped.

The sign said to go right.

2.

In the following sentences draw a line between the two parts that go together.

the man	the stars
were shining	is a tall, guant figure.
beneath the trees	lowered the sail
the sailor	the girl slept

A sentence can do four things.

1. It can make a statement.
2. It can give a command.
3. It can ask a question.
4. It can express strong feeling.

In the box beside each of the following sentences put the number of the right description for each sentence. Punctuate the sentences.

For example: John, go to the store. 2

1. Come here everyone	☐
2. Is the building open	☐
3. The map is very clear	☐
4. My it is cold	☐
5. Can you carry the baby grand piano yourself	☐
6. What a colorful scarf	☐
7. Get me the tools in a hurry	☐
8. The book is well worth reading	☐

Respond to the following sentences by using an exclamatory sentence.

1. Joe went out on the dark porch.

_____

2. Mother brought us hot chocolate.

_____

3. Martha had on a new red muff.

_____

4. The valentine came through the mail.

_____

3.

Sometimes two simple sentences are joined together to make one sentence. This type of sentence is called a compound sentence.

Draw a line between the two sentences that could be combined.

1. Joe ran down the street.
2. The cake fell out of the pan.
3. It was raining outside.
4. The book was exciting.
5. The beach was lovely.

1. We wore our rubbers.
2. The waves were active.
3. He did not catch the bus.
4. The frosting covered the holes in the cake.
5. I enjoyed reading it.

The connecting words and, but, or and for usually join two sentences together. Underline the connecting words that do this in the following sentences.

1. Mary and Ann wanted some cookies.
2. Mother had made some but she did not want them eaten.
3. You may go to your room or you may stay here.
4. The papers are ready and you may pass them out.
5. Joe or Bill may have the painting.
6. The ice was good for skating, but the rain has ruined it now.

Join the following sentences using the proper connecting word. Remember that the compound sentence you make must make sense.

1. Skiing is fun.
2. The water is cold.
3. The field is empty.
4. Out paper is due tommorrow.
5. You can go to the dance.

1. We had better do some work.
2. Let's play baseball.
3. I broke my leg.
4. You can go to the movies.
5. Let's go for a swim.

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

4.

Make the following sentences compound.

1. Jane is a good student _____
2. The desk is broken _____
3. The room is empty _____
4. The door opened _____
5. Dogs can be trained _____
6. You must work very hard _____

Adjectives describe which one or point out which one. List the adjectives used in the paragraph below.

A long time ago an old, deaf, blind man lived in a delapitated, weatherworn shack by a swampy lagoon. So that he could supply his very meager needs, he sold magic charms to the poor, superstitious people who lived in the nearby, dreary settlement.

_____

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Draw a line to the word that best describes each word in the list below.

1. shrill	1. gum
2. tinkling	2. sunset
3. splashing	3. book
4. sticky	4. perfume
5. golden	5. pillow
6. soft	6. bell
7. dull	7. whistle
8. fragrant	8. fountain
9. brittle	

Underline the descriptive words in these sentences.

1. The big brown bear ran out of the dark woods.
2. The small tired baby fell asleep in his warm crib.
3. The fat, jolly, big man ran down the slippery steps.

Fill in the right descriptive word.

1. The _____man went down the _____path.
   short long seven
2. Come to the _____ garden.
   eleven table pretty.
3. The _____ boy played a game.
   going happy basket

Choose the right word for the following sentences.

1. The children laughed _____. grim happily cold
2. Mary ran _____. away to bad
3. John was _____happy to do it. good time very
4. John did it _____. once red answer

6.

Exchange the following underlined words for a word that makes a better picture.

For example: Mary is a nice girl. vivacious

1. Joe is a <u>good</u> worker. _____
2. Bruce ran down the <u>long</u> street. _____
3. The water looks <u>good</u>. _____
4. The ice cream tasted <u>good</u>. _____
5. We had a <u>nice</u> time at the party. _____
6. Debby had on a <u>pretty</u> pin. _____

Write a sentence using the words given.

1. _____ hissed _____
2. _____ happily _____
3. _____ sniffed _____
4. _____ crept _____
5. _____ wiggled _____

Write the following sentences using the guide given.

1. The_____bear climbed up a _____tree.
   kind, color size, kind
2. Mother_____made a _____cake.
   how kind, size, color
3. Jane_____used_____trimmings to decorate
   how what kind
   the_____cake.
   kind, color
4. Father was_____surprised when he
   how much
   tasted the _____cake.
   kind, color
5. He_____reported that the _____cake
   how kind
   was_____.
   what

7.

Make the following sentences grow.

1. Joe made a raft.
   Tell when he made it.
   Tell where he made it.

2. Loretta came to the backdoor.
   Tell when she came.
   Tell how she came.

3. John drove the bus.
   Tell when he drove it.
   Tell where he drove it.
   Tell why he drove it.

4. The bear ate the honey.
   Tell when he ate it.
   Tell where he ate it.
   Tell why he ate it.

Following the example of the word given, make word pictures about the words in the following list.

Example: shovel An iron shovel with a short green wooden handle

1. desk _____
2. sweater _____
3. glove _____
4. tree _____
5. window _____
6. chair _____
7. book _____
8. horse _____

8.

A complex sentence contains at least one clause which, if it were separated from the rest of the sentence, could not make sense. This clause is dependent on the rest of the sentence to give it meaning.

In the following sentences underline the words that are dependent on the rest of the sentence to give them meaning.

Example: Mary saw the dog <u>who had been beaten by the cruel man</u>.

1. As the boys crossed the street, they fell.
2. Until it is warmer, there is no swimming on the lake.
3. Whenever it rains the streets are flooded.
4. John, who was wearing a blue tie, ran down the stairs.
5. As soon as Bob leaves you may have dinner.

In the following sentences underline the part that can stand alone and be an independent clause.

Example: When it is seven o'clock <u>you may call Joanne</u>.

1. You may use the pen until the ink runs out.
2. Although it is very long, the book is excellent.
3. Your brother may play ball if it is warmer.
4. The boy that you see is very talented.
5. He may play the drums if he takes them down cellar.

Finish writing these sentences.

1. When_____, the fireman came down the pole.
2. The police were called when_____.
3. If_____you may go to the party.
4. Since_____Henry has been very quiet.
5. While_____Mae bought an ice cream.

9.

In the following sentences underline the main clause. This clause can stand alone and be a sentence.

1. When the music lesson was finished, the boys ran out.
2. The street lights will be fixed whenever the glass is ready.
3. When Marie came home it was too dark to go skating.
4. While it was raining, Maud read her lessons.
5. As soon as you are asleep, we shall leave.

In the following sentences underline the clause that is dependent upon the main clause for its complete meaning.

1. Jane ran to the store where she met Bill.
2. You may have the dress if you like the color.
3. The girl, who is at the window , is my sister.
4. The runner who is the fastest will win the race.
5. Although Mary worked very hard, her paper was not the best.

Finish writing the following sentences.

1. Whenever the dishes are done_____.
2. Because it is cold outside_____.
3. While we were waiting_____.
4. As soon as the soup is hot_____.
5. When the door bell rings_____.
6. _____when we put the cat behind the door.
7. _____we were not sure we were going.
8. _____I shall help you out.
9. _____since it is snowing.
10. _____after the dance is over.

10.

Write three sentences using at least two clauses, dependent and independent. Use words such as are listed to introduce your dependent clause.

who	where	because	until
which	when	if	since
that	why	as	after
whose		before	as soon as

1. _____

_____

_____

2. _____

_____

_____

3. _____

_____

_____

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